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Sustainability researcher and writer 5 Reasons Why Climate Change Is a Social Issue, Not Just an Environmental One Many communities will be forced to move as they are exposed to rising sea levels, extreme drought that puts strain on resources, or even extreme rainfall that becomes the norm. Acceptance of this complex interaction, which follows the prescription laid out by the concept of sustainable development, is key to beginning to enact effective policy on climate. Since the recent New Climate Economy Report focused on climate change through an economic lens, it is time to facilitate discussion on the social effects. Here are 5 reasons why climate change needs to be considered a social issue as well: Climate change is poised to make matters worse for farmers through a shift in climate and agricultural zones, changes in production patterns due to higher temperatures, and more extreme and changing precipitation patterns all of which threaten crops. Small farmers are an integral part of our societies and, consequently, the effects of climate change on farmers can threaten food supplies and security as well as increase volatility in global food prices. Rural and urban poor are the hardest hit 1 billion people will still live in extreme poverty in and many depend on their surrounding natural resources for survival. Poverty and inequality, which we have been working to improve for decades, will only get worse with climate change because disadvantaged groups do not have the resources to cope with effects such as extreme flooding or droughts that may displace them or change their way of life. Poor neighborhoods in cities around the world are already known to suffer from more pollution, but they will also be disappointingly affected by increase in temperatures. Residents in poorer neighborhood are less likely to have air conditioning and only willing to use it when needed due to cost. There is also a tendency for there to be less trees and for buildings to be constructed from materials that retain heat. Unequal capacity for adaptation Developing countries, who did not significantly contribute to the amount of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, will now be at an even greater disadvantage when it comes to dealing with the effects of climate change. Developing countries already struggle with lack of infrastructure and less technological and financial resources, among a number of other concerns that will hinder their ability to adapt. Furthermore, these countries are dependent on the resources they do have to deal with high rates of poverty and income inequality, both of which, as we stated, will be exacerbated with climate change. For example, public funds that could have originally been used towards education will now have to go to sea walls, increased irrigation, or storm water systems to adapt. Women, children, and the elderly will become even more vulnerable Women, children, and the elderly who already tend to be a vulnerable group in society will become even more so from climate change. In rural areas of developing countries it is often the responsibility of women and children to collect firewood and water, yet decreasing supplies is resulting in more work and less time for other tasks as they now often have to go further distances to find supplies. In many countries where women do not have equal access to land, capital, and other resources as men yet are often heads of households , women are already having difficulty in accessing climate resilient technology or crops, which are necessary for climate change adaptation. Furthermore, there are various psychological and physical impacts that have already been witnessed in both men and women due to increased pressure to provide for the family. Communities will be forced to relocate Many communities will be forced to move as they are exposed to rising sea levels, extreme drought that puts strain on resources, or even extreme rainfall that becomes the norm. Small island developing states SIDS are particularly vulnerable and are at the forefront of feeling the effects of climate change. It is expected that 34 other villages could also be moved as Fiji grapples with eroding coastlines and increased flooding. The entire nation of Kiribati, a small island state in the Pacific, is expected to become uninhabitable due to sea level rise and the country has recently bought land in Fiji in order to relocate. This means entire ways of life that have existed for centuries will be relocated and changed forever. Because the effects of climate change are not simply environmental but economic and social as well, new and existing policies must

take a holistic approach and transcend disciplines, sectors, and the public-private divide. Addressing climate change is a tremendous concern unlike any our society has had yet to deal with and requires a unique approach that leaves behind the idea that humans are a separate entity outside of the environment.

2: Culture of Japan - history, people, traditions, women, beliefs, food, family, social, marriage

Social Change and Community Politics in Urban www.enganchecubano.com By James W. White and Frank Munger. Chapel Hill: Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (Comparative Urban Studies Monograph 4), vi, pp. Tables, Figures, Illustrations, Glossary. \$

See Article History Alternative Titles: Nihon, Nippon Japan, island country lying off the east coast of Asia. It consists of a great string of islands in a northeast-southwest arc that stretches for approximately 1, miles 2, km through the western North Pacific Ocean. Honshu is the largest of the four, followed in size by Hokkaido, Kyushu, and Shikoku. In addition, there are numerous smaller islands, the major groups of which are the Ryukyu Nansei Islands including the island of Okinawa to the south and west of Kyushu and the Izu , Bonin Ogasawara , and Volcano Kazan islands to the south and east of central Honshu. The Japanese landscape is rugged, with more than four-fifths of the land surface consisting of mountains. Abundant precipitation and the generally mild temperatures throughout most of the country have produced a lush vegetation cover and, despite the mountainous terrain and generally poor soils, have made it possible to raise a variety of crops. Japan has a large and, to a great extent, ethnically homogeneous population, which is heavily concentrated in the low-lying areas along the Pacific coast of Honshu. Tension between old and new is apparent in all phases of Japanese life. Even in the countryside, however, the impact of rapid Westernization is evident in many aspects of Japanese life. The agricultural regions are characterized by low population densities and well-ordered rice fields and fruit orchards, whereas the industrial and urbanized belt along the Pacific coast of Honshu is noted for its highly concentrated population, heavy industrialization, and environmental pollution. Contact with China and Korea in the early centuries ce brought profound changes to Japan, including the Chinese writing system, Buddhism , and many artistic forms from the continent. The first steps at political unification of the country occurred in the late 4th and early 5th centuries ce under the Yamato court. The seven centuries thereafter were a period of domination by military rulers culminating in near isolation from the outside world from the early 17th to the midth century. The reopening of the country ushered in contact with the West and a time of unprecedented change. Japan sought to become a modern industrialized nation and pursued the acquisition of a large overseas empire, initially in Korea and China. By late this latter policy caused direct confrontation with the United States and its allies and to defeat in World War II â€” Relief The mountainous character of the country is the outcome of orogenic mountain-building forces largely during Quaternary time roughly, the past 2. There are no sizable structural plains and peneplains large land areas leveled by erosion , features that usually occur in more stable regions of the Earth. The mountains are for the most part in a youthful stage of dissection in which steep slopes are incised by dense river-valley networks. Recent volcanoes are juxtaposed with old and highly dissected ones. The shores are characterized by elevated and depressed features such as headlands and bays, which display an incipient stage of development. One consequence is that mountain blocks are often bounded by fault scarps and flexure slopes that descend in step formation to the adjacent lowlands. Coalescing alluvial fansâ€”cone-shaped deposits of alluvium that run togetherâ€”are formed where rivers emerge from the mountains. In most places, however, fan surfaces plunge directly into the sea and are separated by low, sandy beach ridges. Dissected plains are common. Violent volcanic eruptions occur frequently, and at least 60 volcanoes have been active within historical time. Many of the gigantic volcanoes are conical in shape e. Conspicuous shield volcanoes broad, gently sloping volcanic cones are rare, and extensive lava plateaus are lacking. One of the characteristics of the volcanic areas is the prevalence of calderas large, circular, basin-shaped volcanic depressions , especially in the northeast and southwest, many of which are filled with water, such as Lakes Kutcharo, Towada , and Ashi. Most important is the subduction sinking of the Pacific Plate in the north and the Philippine Plate in the south beneath the Eurasian Plate, upon which Japan lies. The movements of these plates have formed six mountain arcs off the northeastern coast of Asia: Mount Hotaka, highest in the Hida Range, is in the centre background. The backbone of the region is aligned north to south. The Chishima arc enters Hokkaido as three volcanic chains with elevations above 6, feet 1, metres ; these are arranged in ladder formation and terminate in the heart of

the region. Chief components of the mountain system are the Kitami Mountains in the north and the Hidaka Range in the south. The Northeastern Region nearly coincides with the northeastern mountain arc and stretches from southwest Hokkaido to central Honshu. Several rows of mountains, lowlands, and volcanic zones are closely oriented to the general trend of the insular arc of this region, which is convex toward the Pacific Ocean. The Kitakami and Abukuma ranges on the east coast are somewhat oblique to the general trend; they are chiefly composed of older rocks, and plateaulike landforms survive in the centre. In the western zone the formations conform to the general trend and are composed of a basement complex overlain by thick accumulations of young rocks that have been subjected to mild folding. The trend of the mountains, lowlands, and volcanic zones intersects the island almost at right angles. The most notable physical feature is the Fossa Magna, a great rift lowland that traverses the widest portion of Honshu from the Sea of Japan to the Pacific. It is partially occupied by mountains and volcanoes of the southern part of the East Japan Volcanic Belt. The region is divided into the Inner Zone, formed by complex faulting, and the Outer Zone, formed by warping. The Inner Zone is chiefly composed of ancient granites, rocks of Paleozoic age to million years old, and geologically more recent volcanic rocks, which are arranged in complicated juxtaposition. The Outer Zone, consisting of the Akaishi, Kii, Shikoku, and Kyushu mountain groups, in contrast, is characterized by a regular zonal arrangement from north to south of crystalline schists and Paleozoic, Mesozoic 65 to million years old, and Cenozoic formed within the past 65 million years formations. The Inland Sea Seto-naikai is the region where the greater amount of depression has resulted in the invasion of sea waters. The northern edge of the Inner Zone is studded with gigantic lava domes formed by Mount Dai, which, together with volcanic Mount Aso, bury a considerable part of the western extension of the Inland Sea in central Kyushu. Coast of the Inland Sea, Okayama prefecture, Japan. Difficulties of supply lie in the paucity of natural water reservoirs, the swift runoff of the rivers, and the engineering difficulties of constructing large-scale dams in the rugged mountains. Waterfall in Yamanashi prefecture, east-central Honshu, Japan. Some of the rivers from the volcanic areas of northeastern Honshu are acidic and are useless for irrigation and other purposes. Ishikari River, western Hokkaido, Japan. Photos Pack Lake Biwa, the largest in Japan, covers square miles square km of central Honshu. All other major lakes are in the northeast. Most of the coastal lakes, such as Lakes Kasumi and Hamana of Honshu, are drowned former valleys, the bay mouths of which have been dammed by sandbars. Inland lakes such as Biwa, Suwa, and Inawashiro of Honshu occupy tectonic depressions of geologically recent fault origin. Lakes of volcanic origin e.

3: TRADITIONAL CULTURES AND MODERNIZATION

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Chapter 14 Social Change: In June , the governor of Georgia signed the Caleb Soroan Act, named for an year-old student who died in a car accident caused by his texting while driving. The bill made it illegal for any drivers in Georgia to text unless they were parked. After Caleb died, his family started a campaign, along with dozens of his high school classmates, to enact a texting while driving ban. They signed petitions, started a Facebook page, and used phone banks to lobby members of their state legislature. Vermont enacted a similar ban about the same time. The new laws in Georgia and Vermont increased the number of states banning texting while driving to Downey, Downey, M. It was February , and a student at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, had been living in a tent for days. His goal was to call attention to the importance of clean energy. To dramatize the problem of climate change, the group had engaged in sleep-outs in various parts of the state, including one on the Boston Common, a famed public park in that city, over a series of weekends in late About students were arrested on trespassing charges for staying in the park after it was closed at Amherst sleeps out to protest climate change. The change we see in people is often very obvious, as when they have a growth spurt during adolescence, lose weight on a diet, or buy new clothes or get a new hairstyle. The change we see in society is usually more gradual. Unless it is from a natural disaster like an earthquake or from a political revolution, social change is usually noticeable only months or years after it began. This sort of social change arises from many sources: But some social change stems from the concerted efforts of people acting in social movements to alter social policy, as the news story on the student in the tent illustrates, or even the very structure of their government. This chapter examines the types and sources of social change. We begin by looking generally at social change to understand its overall significance. We then turn to the study of population, as changes in population can and do have important implications for changes in society itself. We also look at urbanization, which over the centuries has changed the social landscape profoundly. Finally, we look at social movements, which involve purposive efforts by groups of people to bring about changes they think necessary and desirable in society. Discuss the functionalist and conflict perspectives on social change. Describe the major sources of social change. Social change The transformation of culture especially norms and values , behavior, social institutions, and social structure over time. We are familiar from earlier chapters with the basic types of society: In looking at all of these societies, we have seen how they differ in such dimensions as size, technology, economy, inequality, and gender roles. In short, we have seen some of the ways in which societies change over time. Another way of saying this is that we have seen some of the ways in which societies change as they become more modern. To understand social change, then, we need to begin to understand what it means for a society to become more modern. We considered this briefly in Chapter 2 "Culture and Society" and expand on it here. Modernization Modernization The process and impact of becoming more modern. Modernization has been an important focus of sociology since its origins in the 19th century. An introduction to macrosociology 11th ed. First, as societies evolve, they become much larger and more heterogeneous. This means that people are more different from each other than when societies were much smaller, and it also means that they ordinarily cannot know each other nearly as well. Larger, more modern societies thus typically have weaker social bonds and a weaker sense of community than small societies and more of an emphasis on the needs of the individual. In particular, they become larger and more heterogeneous, they lose their traditional ways of thinking, and they gain in individual freedom and autonomy. Perhaps you had this contrast in mind when you were applying to college and had a preference for either a small or a large institution. In a small college, classes might average no more than 20 students; these students get to know each other well and to have a lot of interaction with the professor. In a large university, classes might hold students or more, and everything is more impersonal. Large universities do have many advantages, but they probably do not have as strong a sense of community as is found at small colleges. A second aspect of modernization is a loss of traditional ways of thinking. This allows a society to be creative

and to abandon old ways that may no longer be appropriate, but it also means a weakening or even loss of the traditions that helped define the society and gave it a sense of identity. A third aspect of modernization is the growth of individual freedom and autonomy. As societies grow, become more impersonal, and lose their traditions and sense of community, their norms become weaker, and individuals thus become freer to think for themselves and to behave in new ways. The rules of sociological method. If we want a society that values individual freedom, Durkheim said, we automatically must have a society with deviance. Is modernization good or bad? This is a simplistic question about a very complex concept, but a quick answer is that it is both good and bad. Original work published said that modernization meant a shift from *Gemeinschaft* small societies with strong social bonds to *Gesellschaft* large societies with weaker social bonds and more impersonal social relations. An outline of interpretive sociology G. University of California Press. Original work published was also concerned about modernization. The hallmarks of modernization, he thought, are rationalization, a loss of tradition, and the rise of impersonal bureaucracy. He despaired over the impersonal quality of rational thinking and bureaucratization, as he thought it was a dehumanizing influence. The division of labor in society. Original work published took a less negative view of modernization. However, he also thought that these societies stifled individual freedom and that social solidarity still exists in modern societies. This interdependence of roles, Durkheim said, creates a solidarity that retains much of the bonding and sense of community found in premodern societies. Beyond these abstract concepts of social bonding and sense of community, modern societies have certainly been a force for both good and bad in other ways. They have led to scientific discoveries that have saved lives, extended life spans, and made human existence much easier than imaginable in the distant past and even in the recent past. But they have also polluted the environment, engaged in wars that have killed tens of millions, and built up nuclear arsenals that, even with the demise of the Soviet Union, still threaten the planet. Modernization, then, is a double-edged sword. It has given us benefits too numerous to count, but it also has made human existence very precarious. Sociological Perspectives on Social Change Sociological perspectives on social change fall into the functionalist and conflict approaches. As usual, both views together offer a more complete understanding of social change than either view by itself Vago, Social change 5th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Gradual change is necessary and desirable and typically stems from such things as population growth, technological advances, and interaction with other societies that brings new ways of thinking and acting. However, sudden social change is undesirable because it disrupts this equilibrium. To prevent this from happening, other parts of society must make appropriate adjustments if one part of society sees too sudden a change. Conflict theory Because the status quo is characterized by social inequality and other problems, sudden social change in the form of protest or revolution is both desirable and necessary to reduce or eliminate social inequality and to address other social ills. The Functionalist Understanding The functionalist understanding of social change is based on insights developed by different generations of sociologists. Early sociologists likened change in society to change in biological organisms. Taking a cue from the work of Charles Darwin, they said that societies evolved just as organisms do, from tiny, simple forms to much larger and more complex structures. When societies are small and simple, there are few roles to perform, and just about everyone can perform all of these roles. As societies grow and evolve, many new roles develop, and not everyone has the time or skill to perform every role. People thus start to specialize their roles and a division of labor begins. Several decades ago, Talcott Parsons, Parsons, T. Evolutionary and comparative perspectives. Parsons said that society is always in a natural state of equilibrium, defined as a state of equal balance among opposing forces. Gradual change is both necessary and desirable and typically stems from such things as population growth, technological advances, and interaction with other societies that brings new ways of thinking and acting. However, any sudden social change disrupts this equilibrium. Photo courtesy of Kashfi Halford, [http:](http://) The functionalist perspective has been criticized on a few grounds. The perspective generally assumes that the change from simple to complex societies has been very positive, when in fact, as we have seen, this change has also proven costly in many ways. It might well have weakened social bonds, and it has certainly imperiled human existence. Functionalist theory also assumes that sudden social change is highly undesirable, when such change may in fact be needed to correct inequality and other deficiencies in the status quo. Conflict

Theory Whereas functional theory assumes the status quo is generally good and sudden social change is undesirable, conflict theory assumes the status quo is generally bad. It thus views sudden social change in the form of protest or revolution as both desirable and necessary to reduce or eliminate social inequality and to address other social ills. Another difference between the two approaches concerns industrialization, which functional theory views as a positive development that helped make modern society possible. In contrast, conflict theory, following the views of Karl Marx, says that industrialization exploited workers and thus increased social inequality. In one other difference between the two approaches, functionalist sociologists view social change as the result of certain natural forces, which we will discuss shortly. In this sense, social change is unplanned even though it happens anyway. Conflict theorists, however, recognize that social change often stems from efforts by social movements to bring about fundamental changes in the social, economic, and political systems. Critics of conflict theory say that it exaggerates the extent of social inequality and that it sometimes overemphasizes economic conflict while neglecting conflict rooted in race and ethnicity, gender, religion, and other sources. Its Marxian version also erred in predicting that capitalist societies would inevitably undergo a socialist-communist revolution.

4: A New Society: Economic & Social Change

The establishment of a national educational system and a national conscript army, the growth of an efficient transportation system, and the development of mass media significantly hastened the homogenization of regional differences, as did industrialization, urban development, and economic and social change.

This usage, in which social planning is equivalent to societal planning, is generally accepted by social scientists see, for example, Myrdal ; but social planning is sometimes also used to mean planning by a group as opposed to planning by an individual. In the present century, and especially since World War II , there has been a rapid growth in the importance of social planning, both as an idea and as an institutional complex. In spite of controversy, often at a high level of intellectual abstraction, on whether so comprehensive a concept of planning is either possible or desirable, the idea of social planning appears to have been institutionalized over the greater part of the modern world and in the programs of international organizations, so that, whatever its logical and philosophical status, it has achieved de facto recognition. In this it may be compared to the ideas of progress, equality, and welfare, stemming from the same broad trend of modern life toward industrialization and technical rationality. During the earlier part of the industrial era the liberal ideology of laissez-faire was in the ascendant. Governments did indeed make social and economic interventions, but on the whole it was only old-fashioned autocrats and certain socialist minorities who thought in more total terms. World War I involved a far more comprehensive mobilization by the major belligerent governments of all their resources, economic and social as well as military, than had ever before been contemplated. National emergency brought home the importance of, for instance, national levels of health and education to a total war effort. In some countries the war was followed by revolution, and in all the major European countries involved there was a recognition, at all political levels, of the need for social and economic reform. The idea of social planning, and especially of national economic planning , emerged into full daylight during the interwar years. The problem of the business cycle, and unemployment, strengthened this tendency and led to increased state intervention and planning even in the United States , where, however, faith in individual private enterprise remained strong. Not only was there total planning for the war itself, but plans for postwar reconstruction began to materialize, in Great Britain and some other countries, almost as soon as the war started. After the war, international organizations multiplied, and social planning became international. Scope and theory As early as , Friedrich List had written: While his doctrines served the purposes of militaristic nationalism in Germany after Bismarck and in Japan after the Meiji restoration , they also contributed, if indirectly, to Soviet Russian state planning. List also emphasized the distinction between present and future advantage from the national standpoint. Thus even during this early period it was seen that while the core of social planning consists in a plan for balanced capital investment in industry and agriculture, national plans must also allocate resources for education, health, housing, and other kinds of social investment. Planning and social values Decisions on priorities to be adopted cannot simply be based on economic calculations; essentially they are political decisions based on social values. The decisions embodied in a plan are made for political reasons; they also have long-term political effects Diesing , p. Although the models of development currently used by national planners are economic and based on quantitative analysis, it can be argued that only when the economic model has been transformed into a general social model can policy conclusions logically be inferred from it Myrdal , p. It is relatively easy to decide that capital should be invested, for instance, in a steel plant with a given capacity and location. An economic decision, such as the siting of an industry, can to some extent control the direction of social trends, such as urbanization and population movement. But even in societies with comprehensive state planning, it has not been possible to achieve full control over internal migration, let alone over demographic growth. The noneconomic part of social planning must at the present time largely consist in attempting to foresee some of the ways in which economic decisions will affect social behavior and some of the ways in which social behavior will impede or facilitate the implementation of the economic decisions. Thus, social planners must take logical account of nonlogical motivation Pareto [] , vol. How rational can planning be?. But these difficulties are not new. They are inherent in government and in the framing and execution of policies and

programs generally. In what, then, does the added problem of the social planner consist? It would seem to stem from the more ambitious attempt of the planner to arrive at decisions rationally. By comparison with earlier procedures, this attempt involves more systematic fact-finding before the plan is formulated, more systematic coordination of separate decisions and policies, and more explicit formulation and phrasing of objectives. Another feature of planned, as against unplanned, national development is the greater stress on evaluation of results achieved and on objective measurements of success or failure. In a nutshell, the problem of social planning is how to insure that it at least approximates to its rational intentions—a problem that falls fairly and squarely in the lap of the social sciences. Social planning as ideology: The desire to apply engineering technique to the solution of social problems is seen as a dangerous aberration Hayek et al. Such strictures were a reaction not so much against Bolshevik or Nazi total planning though these of course were conspicuous features of the interwar political scene as against the idea that liberal democracies could, and indeed should, seek to avoid maladjustment socioeconomic and psychological by democratic planning Zweig ; Mannheim ; While a Popperian social planner might fail to see the wood for the trees and a Mannheimian might lose his way in the wood, it is doubtful that we really have to choose between these two approaches. The controversy, begun in the s and concluded in the s, seems increasingly unreal. Without wishing to suggest a unilinear trend, one cannot fail to observe the continued increase in the number of plans and planning agencies, both in advanced industrial and in underdeveloped countries. There has, however, been no corresponding development of a general theory of social planning. For hints of such a theory one must look at comparative cross-national studies by economists, historians, political scientists, and sociologists Shils ; see also Duveau ; Bettelheim ; Ossowski In the rich countries planning takes on a less comprehensive and programmatic character than in the poor countries, which are compelled to attempt what in the light of the history of the rich countries appears as a short cut Myrdal , p. In some underdeveloped countries for example, India social planning is combined with a democratic political system of free elections based on universal suffrage. The more ambitious the plan, the more necessary it will seem to promote consensus by fostering a sense of emergency in the face of external and internal danger Speier Practice and organization Historical priority for comprehensive national planning in peacetime must go to the Soviet Union. After initial hesitations, planning machinery was effectively established by Carr “, vol. In Germany, the first Nazi four-year plan started in In , soon after independence, the Indian government set up its Planning Commission. This was probably the first instance of so influential a planning body being set up within the framework of a parliamentary democracy, and its constitutional status has been criticized Chanda , p. Ghana has had three five-year development plans, the first dating from , when it was still a British colony Gold Coast ; the second and third plans were instituted after the country became independent in Since both the number of newly independent nations and the number of national economic plans have been increasing rapidly. Wide variations in political context and in the capacities of nations to provide expert staff for planning bodies must be borne in mind, but the trend toward the institutionalization of social planning is unmistakable. Comparative study by social scientists and historians of this new wave of national plans has barely begun but must surely in coming decades become a leading concern of macrosociology. It is assisted by a National Development Council which includes the chief ministers of the states and has a secretariat of , excluding the attached to the Program Evaluation Organization and the Community Projects Administration Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi , The staff includes economists and other social scientists and promotes relevant research projects in the universities and research institutes. It is also assisted by numerous foreign advisers, either on a bilateral or an international basis. In broad terms, the members, staff, and advisers of the Planning Commission constitute the intellectual, theoretical, perspective-seeking wing of the political elite. Their function of preparing middle term and long-term plans serves to remove many of them from the cruder pressures of everyday political existence. There is thus an institutional differentiation between long-term and short-term politics. Can the long-term prevail over the short-term? What is the interaction between the two? These are important questions for future empirical investigation. To this extent they are statutory, though in practice their standing is somewhere between a legal prescription and a political aspiration. In the Indian Planning Commission requested state governments to arrange for the preparation of district and village plans,

especially in relation to agricultural production, rural industries, and cooperation India [Republic], Planning Commission, In some states not only were village plans requested but each family was asked to prepare its plan. The function of a plan is not only to allocate national resources but to mobilize national effort. The Quest for Modernity in Asia and Africa. Edited by Clifford Geertz. Diesing, Paul Reason in Society: Duveau, Georges Utopie et planification. Cahiers internationaux de sociologie Studies on the Abuse of Reason. Critical Studies on the Possibilities of Socialism. Government of India Press. Pages 1-10 in Ralph J. Braibanti and Joseph J. Spengler editors, Administration and Economic Development in India. Lederer, Emil National Economic Planning. Volume 11, pages 1-10 in Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Studies in Modern Social Structure. A Handbook on Developing Countries. Pergamon Press; New York: Pareto, Vilfredo The Mind and Society: A Treatise on General Sociology. The General Form of Society. Speier, Hans Freedom and Social Planning. American Journal of Sociology Visvesvaraya, Mokshagundam Planned Economy for India. Urban or city and metropolitan planning apply this method to determine public investment and other policies regarding future growth and change by municipalities and metropolitan areas. City planning has existed ever since man began to build towns and to make decisions about their future. In most societies, but particularly in the United States, there has been little consensus about these decisions. The diverse classes, ethnic groups, and interest groups that live in the city have different conceptions of how the city ought to grow and change and of who should benefit from the policy and allocation decisions. Consequently, these groups have attempted, directly or indirectly, to influence the ends, means, and techniques of planning, and even the role of the planners. A sociological analysis of American city planning must ask who plans with what ends and means for which interest group. Since the variables in this paradigm are affected by changes in the population and power structure of the American city, the analysis is best carried out historically. Most American cities came into being without prior planning, however, and with only sporadic attempts to regulate their growth. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the provision of utilities and other municipal services could not keep up with the rapid increase in population, and the cities became overcrowded and congested, with vast slums in which epidemics, unchecked crime, and political corruption were commonplace. Shortly before the Civil War, these conditions stimulated the formation of a number of civic reform movements, which were the forebears of contemporary city planning. The reform groups were made up of predominantly Protestant and upper-middle-class civic and religious leaders whose major end was the restoration of order.

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During the Yayoi period ca. The basic genetic stock of the population and the fundamental patterns of the language were established during that period. Japan came to the attention of China in the fourth century. During the Yamato period C. In , emissaries from the Korean kingdom of Paekche established contact with the Yamato rulers. They introduced Buddhism and thus brought Japan into systematic contact with Chinese civilization. Almost every aspect of Japanese life—agricultural technology, written language, philosophy, architecture, poetry, medicine, and law—was transformed. The Yamato state adopted the conventions of the Chinese imperial court and tried to model society along the lines of Chinese civilization. By the end of the Heian period, economic, social, and military power had shifted to provincial landholders and warriors. Several successive hereditary dynasties occupied this position until The medieval period ended in a century of civil war lasting from the late fifteenth to the late sixteenth century. Contacts with the West began in the mid-sixteenth century with the arrival of the Portuguese Jesuit missionary Francis Xavier. The introduction of Western weaponry hastened the consolidation of power among a few increasingly dominant warlords who unified the country and ended the civil war. In Tokugawa Ieyasu decisively defeated most of the remaining opponents, and established a dynasty that lasted until For over years, Japan experienced political stability, peace, and rising prosperity. The Tokugawa regime ruled through a complicated network of alliances with approximately regional lords, some closely allied to the Tokugawa and others in opposition but permanently subdued. Each fief retained its own castle town, and as a political strategy, some fiefs maintained a high degree of economic, social, and cultural autonomy. During the Tokugawa period, culture and society became codified and somewhat uniform across the country. By the s, the Tokugawa regime had ruthlessly suppressed Christian communities and broken off most ties with European nations. It disarmed the peasantry and imposed rigid household registration requirements to keep the population spatially and socially immobile. Traffic along the great highways was scrutinized at heavily guarded checkpoints. Trade was controlled through feudal guilds, and detailed sumptuary regulations governed the lives of all social classes. These social policies reflected the ideology of neo-Confucianism, which valued social stability and the social morality of ascribed status. Tokugawa social structure was organized around principles of hierarchy, centralized authority, and collective responsibility. In the upper reaches of society, the kinship system upheld neo-Confucian ideals of the family as a microcosm of the social order. Neo-Confucianism also established a rigid system of ranked social classes: Status reflected ideals of social utility, not wealth. Beyond those four hereditary official classes, Tokugawa society included a tiny stratum of imperial nobility, a large clerical establishment, and a population of outcastes. Throughout this period, regional castle towns and the major urban centers under the direct control of the Tokugawa authorities became increasingly integrated into a national economic, social, and cultural network. Urban economic power increased over the agrarian sectors. This undermined Tokugawa political power, which depended on the control of agricultural land and taxes. In the cities, bourgeois culture flourished: Only about 15 percent of Japan is level enough for agriculture. Japanese cities equaled or surpassed their European counterparts in infrastructure and public amenities, but Japanese urbanites lacked a political voice commensurate with their economic and cultural capital. Tokugawa social patterns and institutions laid the foundations for modernization. The urban merchant classes stimulated the development of sophisticated national economic institutions and the beginning of industrial production. Literacy and computational ability were widespread among samurai, merchants, and the upper levels of the peasantry. The samurai became a hereditary class of bureaucrats whose qualifications for leadership depended on education. Society was characterized by discipline and regulation. The Tokugawa dynasty surrendered its authority to the imperial court in after a long struggle. The political crisis included major internal economic problems and the unexpected confrontation with the Western powers precipitated by the arrival of Commodore Matthew Perry and a squadron of American warships in Opponents of the Tokugawa demanded that it take a firm stand

against foreign intrusions and then overthrew the regime. The Meiji regime reconnected imperial rule with civil political authority and military power. Under the nominal leadership of Emperor Meiji, the imperial government was run by the young samurai who had defeated the Tokugawa dynasty. They were fiercely nationalistic and attempted to bring Japanese society into parity with European and North American powers. Society was thoroughly transformed as the leaders created a strong centralized state centered on the imperial line, built a modern military, avoided European colonization, began imperialist expansion into other parts of East Asia, and launched industrialization and economic development. Although they had come to power under the slogan "Revere the Emperor; Expel the Barbarians," the Meiji leaders built a strong state and society along the lines of an industrial European country. Meiji leaders balanced Western powers against each other to avoid domination by any single patron. The government sent delegations to study legal institutions, commerce and industry, science and technology, military affairs, architecture, arts, and medicine in Europe and North America. Foreign experts were hired, and young Japanese were sent to study at Western universities. The new slogan was "Eastern values; Western science. The Meiji grafted the trappings of contemporary Western monarchies onto the sacred imperial institution, creating a court nobility that resembled European aristocracies. Samurai ranks were abolished in 1876. The centrality of the state was strengthened by a new national educational system, and a growing military. Treaties signed by the Tokugawa regime had created zones where Western citizens lived independently of Japanese laws. These "treaty ports" were important sources of Western influence, and many schools, hospitals, and other institutions created by foreign missionaries became prominent. The system of extraterritoriality, however, was considered degrading, and the government tried to transform social life and culture in ways that would command the respect of the Western powers. Japan rapidly built a Western-style navy and army and attempted to expand its influence in East Asia. In 1895, Japan annexed Korea. By the 1890s, Japan considered itself a world military power. This military might was made possible by industrialization after the 1850s. The state built industries such as shipyards, iron smelters, and spinning mills and sold them to well-connected entrepreneurs. Domestic companies became consumers of Western technology and applied it to the production of goods that could be sold cheaply on the world market. Industrial zones grew enormously, and there was steady migration from the countryside to the newly industrializing centers. Industrialization was accompanied by the development of a national railway system and modern communications. In addition to state-sponsored innovations such as uniform national education and the creation of a single national dialect, popular interest in Western life increased throughout the Meiji period, starting at elite levels and eventually extending to almost all social groups, especially in the largest cities. Not all social changes were modeled on the West, however. Many aspects of tradition and history were codified. Nation building and industrialization were complete by the early twentieth century. Mass media and popular culture developed in parallel to the Jazz Age in the West. The military assumed a larger role in politics, and conservative forces made international "respect," military expansion, and the sanctity of imperial institutions the cornerstones of public life. Throughout the 1890s, military and colonial adventures in Manchuria and elsewhere in China led to open war, and society became increasingly militarized. The war in China grew more intense, and international condemnation of Japanese atrocities poisoned relations with the Western nations. Japan joined with Italy and Germany in the Axis because its military planners saw the United States and its interests in Asia as inimical. Diplomatic relations with the Western powers grew worse, and on 7 December 1941, Japanese forces attacked Pearl Harbor. Japan almost simultaneously attacked all the major territories claimed by Western colonial powers, including American possessions such as Hawaii and the Philippines. In the first year and a half of the Pacific War, Japanese forces were on the offensive, but by 1945, Allied forces were recapturing the Western Pacific. They destroyed most of the domestic infrastructure and took an enormous toll on civilians. Anticipating that an invasion of Japan would be a bloodbath, American military planners proceeded with the development of the atomic bomb. Japanese weddings are elaborately staged and usually held in banquet halls or hotels. On 15 August 1945, the Emperor announced that his government had capitulated. From until 1952, Japan was occupied by Allied troops under the command of U.S. The early postwar years were a time of massive rebuilding. Millions of people were homeless, and millions more were repatriated from the former colonies. The economy was shattered, and mass starvation was a threat.

Disillusionment with the cultural and social frameworks of prewar and wartime life was widespread. By the mids, the initial reconstruction of society and economy had largely been accomplished, and the government had built a conservative consensus that the national priorities were economic growth and social stability, which would be achieved through the close cooperation of business and a government directed by bureaucratic elites. After the late s, this "developmental state" created the social, economic, and political contexts in which ordinary people could experience middle-class urban lifestyles. The typical white-collar urban family was secure in the knowledge that lifetime employment was the norm. In the s and s, success in the domestic economy began to be felt around the world as consumer products from Japan began to dominate overseas markets. Economic growth was politically unassailable, but the costs in terms of pollution, declines in the agricultural sector, and massive urban growth without adequate infrastructure were enormous. Grassroots movements developed to combat problems spawned by the developmental ethos; those movements were limited in their effectiveness. Throughout the s and s, Japan experienced unprecedented prosperity. Riding massive trade surpluses and producing top-quality products, the economy was regarded as a model for other industrial and postindustrial societies. That economic strength allowed investment in overseas assets. The affluence of ordinary consumers manifested itself in a growing market for luxury items, conspicuous consumption, and very short product cycles. Although work schedules permitted little leisure time, travel became a desired commodity. High levels of disposable income, however, masked the astronomical cost of real estate and the growing division in urban society between the wealthy and the poor. Because of the intensity of pacifism in contemporary society, opposition to the military runs very strong, and the article in the constitution that prohibits military involvement is of great symbolic importance.

6: 5 Reasons Why Climate Change Is a Social Issue, Not Just an Environmental One | HuffPost

positive change in individual, family, and community circumstances in disadvantaged neighborhoods by applying the principles of comprehensiveness and community building to improve physical, social, and economic conditions.

The Tokugawa Japan in the 17th century is locked in a century of decentralized power and incessant warfare among competing feudal lords, a period known as the "Sengoku," or "Country at War" Within this context of feudal civil war of the 16th century, Japanese pirates are active in the trade along the China coast – an alternative to the official relations between China and Japan where trading privileges are awarded to the Japanese in return for tribute acknowledging the ascendancy of the Chinese emperor. Castles are built by medieval lords daimyo for defense throughout the period of civil war and their size increases following the introduction of firearms into Japan by the Portuguese in 1543. In the 1540s Portuguese traders reach Japan are actually shipwrecked there and are soon followed by the Jesuit missionary order established in 1549 in the person of St. Francis Xavier who arrives in Japan in 1549. The Jesuits work among the daimyo of the samurai class and are initially well received by leading daimyo, including Nobunaga and Hideyoshi, two daimyo crucial to the reunification of Japan by 1600. The name for the Japanese dish "tempura," batter-fried fish and vegetables, is apparently derived from the Portuguese word "temporas" for "meatless Friday," a Catholic tradition. The reunification of Japan is accomplished by three strong daimyo who succeed each other: Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, and finally Tokugawa Ieyasu who establishes the Tokugawa Shogunate, that governs for more than 200 years, following the Battle of Sekigahara in 1600. The reunification of Japan under the Tokugawa Shogunate brings with it an emphasis on the reestablishment of order – in social, political, and international relations – following a century of civil war and turmoil. Aware of the political and religious domination of the Philippines since the Spanish colonized the country in 1565, the Japanese political leaders are suspicious of the Dominican and Franciscan missionaries that arrive in Japan from the Philippines and work among the non-samurai classes. The Japanese daimyo move to curtail missionary activity beginning in the 1630s. In 1639, the new Shogun, Tokugawa Ieyasu, proscribes Christianity just at a time the Jesuits are being received at the imperial court in China, and by a concerted effort to end all Christian practice is underway. There are an estimated 200,000 Christians in Japan at this time. Within a century of the arrival of the Portuguese in Japan in 1543, they are followed by the Dutch and British who have battled to break the Portuguese and then Spanish control of the Asian spice trade. The East India companies established by the Dutch and British, respectively, become active in the early 17th century; the Dutch and the British establish trading relations with the Japanese with bases on a Japanese island. Following the "Act of Seclusion" setting forth these conditions, Japan is effectively "secluded" from interchange with Western Europe but not with East Asia for the next 200 years. Only the Dutch retain a small outpost on an island in Nagasaki Harbor; books obtained from the Dutch are translated into Japanese and "Dutch learning" forms the basis of the Japanese knowledge of developments in the West throughout this period. Within East Asia, trade continues with the Koreans and Chinese, and exchange of goods and ideas with China is maintained. The East Asian political order, with China at the center, is reinforced. Tokugawa Japan Under the rule of the Tokugawa shoguns, Japan enjoys a 200-year period of peace and order. Dramatic changes take place within this ordered society, however, particularly those of commercial development, the rise of a merchant class, the growth of cities and of a new urban culture. The prolonged period of peace fosters great economic and social changes in Japanese society, culture, and the economy, setting the stage for rapid modernization in the subsequent Meiji period. Literature in Tokugawa Japan The literature of the period gives voice to the culture of the new urban population, the "townsmen".

7: Social issues in China - Wikipedia

The debate over whether class and community are alternative or mutually complementary bases of collective action is examined. A typology is developed to examine the relative contribution of each in determining the demands of grass-roots organizations. Specific emphasis within this analysis is on Tri.

Advanced Search Abstract Japan has the highest proportion of older adults in the world. Aging is not only an immediate personal issue but also a salient factor in crucial public policies, such as pensions, health, and long-term care. As in most natural disasters, the oldest people were the hardest hit. Surviving older adults were vulnerable to cold temperatures, influenza, relocation, and mental and physical stress. Many struggled without access to medications and treatments needed to control their chronic conditions e. Two months after the earthquake, the nuclear power plant disaster is far from ending, and 9, people are still missing. This historic catastrophe occurred in an earthquake-prone super-aging society. Its profound implications go far beyond its immediate impact on the most vulnerable. This earthquake revealed positive aspects of the Japanese society: However, the disaster highlighted challenges that Japan is facing, especially rebuilding disaster area communities and addressing population aging in urban communities where Japanese traditional qualities are fading. Understanding the societal backdrops helps us appreciate the meanings of the March 11 earthquake for the aging society, older persons, and gerontology. Historic events, like the recent disaster, add critical layers to societal contexts of aging individuals. We argue that disasters, while tragic, can provide opportunities to rebuild communities to prepare for the Japan, a super-aged society. Demography of Aging in Japan: Unprecedented Population Aging Japan is experiencing population aging that is unprecedented in the world. Reflecting improvements in health and longevity, life expectancy at birth is highest in the world: The critical contributor to population aging, however, is rapidly declining fertility. The relatively brief post-World War II baby boom “ ended when the government loosened abortion laws and encouraged family planning and birth control to prevent overpopulation. The total fertility rate declined from 4. When the first baby boomers reached child-bearing ages, the second baby boom “ occurred but without changing the number of births per woman. As labor participation increased among women, they delayed marriages or stayed single. Even among the married, fertility rates declined because of the lack of societal support for working women to have children as well as increased financial burdens of raising children. Since the late s, the total fertility rate has been consistently low 1. The results are reflected in the top-heavy population pyramid. Figure 1 illustrates that the 75 years and older population is growing rapidly as the younger age population is declining between and The ratio of 65 years and older population to the working-age 15“64 population is rising rapidly: Remarkably, population aging is no longer limited to rural areas that suffer from outmigration of younger people; it is an urban phenomenon. Japan precedes other countries in embracing population aging as an urban issue. Population pyramid of Japan: The data are based on the census. The data are based on medium estimates. Overview Recognized as a critical societal issue, aging is a major research theme in almost all academic disciplines and industries. Research topics range from biomedical aspects e. Engineers with expertise in fields such as robotics and information technology have contributed to the development of assistive technology and aging-friendly environments since the early stage of gerontology in Japan. Aging research is conducted at various public and private institutions, including universities. The institutes that specialize in gerontology include Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Gerontology, established in to promote interdisciplinary aging research, and the National Center for Geriatrics and Gerontology, founded in The Japan Gerontological Society, founded in , has been a member of the International Association of Gerontology and Geriatrics since and currently involves seven academic societies that represent social gerontology, geriatrics, biomedical gerontology, gerontology, psychogeriatrics, care management, and gerontological nursing. Research funding comes from the national government as well as private industries and foundations. Although there is no national institute that functions like the U. Secondary Data Sets on Aging Longitudinal, internationally comparable data are critical to advance knowledge on global aging. Table 1 lists major longitudinal data sets on aging that are partially comparable to data from the United States and other countries and are publicly

available, partly supported by the U. S National Institute on Aging. In addition, the University of Tokyo Social Science Japan Data Archive distributes publicly available data sets, including those useful for aging research <http://www.ssjda.u-tokyo.ac.jp/>. The Japanese government conducts a number of surveys on persons e. Access to the micro data was strictly limited until recently. However, the new Statistics Act of <http://www.e-stat.go.jp/>: Japan Statistics Bureau started providing deidentified micro survey data for research purposes in 2015, opening up opportunities for secondary data analysis of governmental data.

8: Examples of Social Change? | Yahoo Answers

four social cleavages (workers-owners, rural-urban, state-church, as well as center-periphery) that had framed politics and party systems in Western democracies since the s.

People Ethnic groups The Japanese people constitute the overwhelming majority of the population. They are ethnically closely akin to the other peoples of eastern Asia. During the Edo Tokugawa period , there was a social division of the populace into four classes—warrior, farmer, craftsman, and merchant—with a peer class above and an outcast class below. The burakumin, however, are still subject to varying degrees of discrimination. The few exceptions include those classified as resident aliens particularly Koreans and Japanese citizens of Ainu and, to a much lesser degree, Okinawan origin. Japan also has a small population of Chinese descent. FPG Hundreds of thousands of Koreans migrated to Japan a great many against their will before and during World War II , when Korea was a Japanese colony, and worked mainly as labourers; those remaining after the war and their descendants, the latter born and raised in Japan, do not have Japanese citizenship and face considerable discrimination. Historically, both Ainu and Okinawans were often relegated to a second-class status. The indigenous Ainu largely were assimilated into the general population centuries ago; a few small, scattered groups, however, have maintained their identity in Hokkaido. Before the war there was a tendency to distinguish the people of Okinawa from other Japanese because of perceived physical and cultural differences; that tendency has diminished considerably but not entirely disappeared. Okinawan culture , including its dialect and religion, has been recognized as sharing many traits with Japanese culture, and Okinawans have become more assimilated into the larger Japanese society. However, Okinawans have long believed that the continued large presence of U. There has also been a resurgence among Okinawans who want to maintain their distinctive cultural identity. The Japanese language is generally included in the Altaic linguistic group and is especially akin to Korean, although the vocabularies differ. Some linguists also contend that Japanese contains elements of Southeast Asian languages. The introduction of the Chinese writing system and of Chinese literature about the 4th century ce enriched the Japanese vocabulary. Until that time Japanese had no written form, and at first Chinese characters called kanji in Japanese were used to write Japanese; by the 9th century two syllabaries, known collectively as kana katakana and hiragana , were developed from them. Since then, a combination of kanji and kana has been used for written Japanese. Although some 3, to 5, kanji are in general use, after World War II the number of characters necessary for a basic vocabulary was reduced to about 2,, and the writing of these characters was simplified. Tens of thousands of Western loanwords, principally from English, also have been adopted. The distribution of Japanese nearly coincides with the territory of Japan. Standard Japanese, based on the dialect spoken in Tokyo, was established in the late 19th century through the creation of a national educational system and through more widespread communication. There are many local dialects , which are often mutually unintelligible, but standard Japanese, widely used in broadcasting, is understood nationwide. The Hondo dialect is used throughout Japan and may be divided into three major subdialects: Eastern, Western, and Kyushu. After the 17th century there was a vigorous influx of the Kamigata Kinai subdialect, which was the foundation of standard Japanese. The Kyushu subdialects have been placed outside the mainstream of linguistic change of the Western dialects and retain some of the 16th-century forms of the latter. They extend as far south as Tanega and Yaku islands. Long placed outside the mainstream of linguistic change, they strongly retain their ancient forms. Not one of the religions is dominant, and each is affected by the others. Intense religious feelings are generally lacking except among the adherents of some of the new religions. Japanese children usually do not receive formal religious training. On the other hand, many Japanese homes contain a Buddhist altar butsudā , at which various rituals—some on a daily basis—commemorate deceased family members. People, commonly major historical figures, as well as natural objects have been enshrined as gods. Some of the Hindu gods and Chinese spirits were also introduced and Japanized. Each rural settlement has at least one shrine of its own, and there are several shrines of national significance, the most important of which is the Grand Shrine of Ise in Mie prefecture. Direct contact with central China was maintained, and several sects were introduced. In the 8th

century Buddhism was adopted as the national religion, and national and provincial temples, nunneries, and monasteries were built throughout the country. The Tendai Tiantai and Shingon sects were founded in the early 9th century, and they have continued to exert profound influence in some parts of Japan. Zen Buddhism, the development of which dates to the late 12th century, has maintained a large following. Photos Pack Christianity was introduced into Japan by first Jesuit and then Franciscan missionaries in the mid- to late 16th century. It initially was well received, both as a religion and as a symbol of European culture. After the establishment of the Tokugawa shogunate, Christians were persecuted, and Christianity was totally banned in the s. Christianity was reintroduced by Western missionaries, who established a number of Russian Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Protestant congregations. Practicing Christians account for only a tiny fraction of the total population. Settlement patterns Traditional regions The concept of regions in Japan is inseparable from the historical development of administrative units. Care was always taken to include various physical features in the larger administrative units so as to create a well-balanced geographic whole. Many of the ancient terms for administrative units have survived in the form of place-names. The Taika-era reforms of the 7th century established the *ri* roughly corresponding to the later village community as the basic social and economic unit and the *gun* district as the smallest political unit to be governed by the central government. The *gun* were grouped to form more than 60 *kuni* provinces, the largest political units, which were ruled by governors appointed by the central government. Each *kuni* was composed of maritime plains, interior basins, and mountains to constitute a more or less independent geographic entity. The core region of the country was called the *Kinai*. In the feudal system was dissolved and the *ken*, or prefectural, system was established. At first the more than prefectures were mostly the former fiefs of feudal lords, who were appointed as governors. Early in the 20th century it was recognized that larger geographic divisions were needed. Rural settlement From the late 19th century, economic and social changes affected even the remotest rural villages, but many traditional aspects of rural life have survived. In the villages, many features that are in common with those of other Asian villages are well preserved. Autonomous and cooperative systems of agricultural practices and rituals, as well as mutual assistance among the villagers, have been handed down to the present. These traditions are mixed with modernized farming practices and employment diversification. An autonomous rural unit, generally known as a *mura*, consists of some 30 to 50 or more households. Now called an *aza*, this unit should not be confused with the administrative terms *mura* or *son* in use after Traditional *gassho-zukuri* farmhouses, Gifu prefecture, central Honshu, Japan. Hodge The origins and histories of most rural settlements are lost in time. Historically traceable settlements largely originated through land reclamation after the 16th century. Considerable local difference is evident in the settlement pattern. Some villages are agglomerated, as are those of the Kinki region; some are dispersed, as in northeastern Shikoku; some are elongated, such as those on the rows of sand dunes in the Niigata Plain and on the natural levees of deltas; while others are scattered on the steeper mountain slopes. Although these differences are only superficial, the traditional ties that bind the inhabitants together to form a firm village community are changing as industry moves into the countryside and offers farmers attractive employment options. No village is regarded as purely rural. Those that are near industrialized urban centres include large numbers of commuters and industrial workers. The more remote settlements send out seasonal labourers during the winter months, though outright migration to urban centres is now more common. The villages of Hokkaido are based on commercial agriculture, and each household has direct contact with a nearby town. They originally depended on nearby rice-producing villages, although some dried, salted, or smoked fish found more distant markets. The fishing villages are most numerous in the southwest, where an exchange economy has long been in practice. Mountain villages that rely solely on local products other than rice are exceedingly rare. Many of them were founded after the 17th century, when lumber, charcoal, and other such commodities found markets in the growing towns on the plains. Urban settlement Urbanization is generally of relatively recent origin. Most of the provincial capitals, or *koku-fu*, of ancient Japan were only administrative centres that contained official residences and were not developed towns. After the latter part of the 16th century, influential temples and feudal lords began to build towns by gathering merchants and craftsmen close to their headquarters. Castle at Matsumoto, Japan. Hodge Next in importance were the port towns, such as Hakata and Sakai, which

experienced more vicissitudes than the castle towns. In addition, some of the religious towns eventually grew to a considerable size, as in the case of Ise and Izumo. With industrialization came the rapid growth of Japanese cities, and some of the industrial towns e. Most of the former castle towns, and especially those along the Pacific side of the country, have been expanded directly or indirectly by industrialization. In Hokkaido and southern Kyushu, raw materials and power resources have attracted a limited number of industrial plants, which alone are responsible for the existence of cities such as Tomakomai , Muroran , Nobeoka , and Minamata. Central Yokohama, Japan, at dusk. Mixed land use, including agricultural activity, can be found side by side with the most modernized business centres and industrial establishments, and the fragmented, patchwork pattern of landownership is a formidable obstacle in ever-expanding cities of skyscrapers , subways , and underground plazas. Other serious problems are the shortage of better housing, the increasing use of the automobile, overcrowded public transportation systems, the shortage of open space for recreation, environmental pollution , and the constant menace of earthquakes and floods.

9: Social Change: Population, Urbanization, and Social Movements

The promotion of social change through urban governance has been curtailed by contestations among political parties, central, and local governments. The fight between political parties to control the urban constituency and the management of urban affairs has been sustained at the expense of urban service delivery.

As the economy boomed, wages rose for most Americans and prices fell, resulting in a higher standard of living and a dramatic increase in consumer consumption. These changes were encouraged by the new mass media that included radio and motion pictures. Booming economy and consumerism. The number of cars on the road almost tripled between and , stimulating the production of steel, rubber, plate glass, and other materials that went into making an automobile. Henry Ford pioneered the two key developments that made this industry growth possible – standardization and mass production. Standardization meant making every car basically the same, which led to jokes that a customer could get a car in any color as long as it was black. Mass production used standardized parts and division of labor on an assembly line introduced by Ford before the war to produce cars more quickly and efficiently. Both innovations had a dramatic impact on price: Ford also created new management techniques that became known as welfare capitalism. These tactics, along with yellow dog contracts, through which employees agreed not to join a union, worked; union membership dropped by almost two million between and . American industry produced thousands of consumer goods in the s, everything from automobiles to washing machines to electric razors. Mass consumption was encouraged through a combination of advertising, which created a demand for a particular product, and installment buying, which enabled people to actually purchase the product. When peace came, ad agencies used newspapers, mass circulation magazines, and radio to effect consumption patterns. The power of advertising even influenced religion. Providing the opportunity to buy on credit was also a powerful marketing tool. Businesses exhorted consumers to put a small amount down and pay off the balance in monthly installments, instead of saving money for an item and purchasing it with cash. The new woman and minorities. With a new look came new viewpoints and values, including a more open attitude toward premarital sex. Margaret Sanger, who had first promoted birth control before World War I as a means of sparing poor women from unwanted pregnancies, argued that the diaphragm gave women more sexual freedom. But the flapper represented only a small percentage of American women; for the overwhelming majority, life did not change that much. The sharp increase in the number of women in the labor force during World War I ended abruptly with the armistice. Female employment grew slowly in the s, mostly in occupations traditionally identified with women – office and social work, teaching, nursing, and apparel manufacturing – and women who worked were usually single, divorced, or widowed. Even with more women in the workplace, no progress was made on issues such as job discrimination or equal pay. At home, despite claims of creating increased leisure time, the myriad of electrical appliances on the market actually did little to alleviate the amount of housework women had to do. When given the vote, for example, women cast their ballot much the same way that men did, basing their decisions on class, regional, and ethnic loyalties rather than gender. Furthermore, although the Equal Rights Amendment was first introduced in Congress in , and Nellie Ross became the first woman elected the governor of a state Wyoming in the following year, there were still parts of the country where women could not hold public office. The black population of Chicago grew from less than 50,000 in 1890 to almost a million by 1930. Blacks were not the only minority on the move in the s. Neither the Quota Act nor the National Origins Act limited immigration from countries in the Western Hemisphere, and nearly 1 million Mexicans entered the United States between 1900 and 1930. Commercial radio began in 1920 when Pittsburgh station KDKA broadcast the results of the presidential election. As the number of homes with radios rapidly increased from 60,000 in 1920 to more than 10 million in 1930, the airwaves became the medium over which Americans got their news and entertainment. The business of radio was simple and supported the growing consumer culture: Studios built theaters that resembled palaces, featuring mirrors, lush carpeting, and grand names such as the Rialto and the Ritz. Hays , to control the content of films. On the stage, playwrights turned their attention to topics that had not been addressed before. Daring feats could also turn people into instant celebrities, as in the case of Gertrude Ederle

in when she became the first woman to swim the English Channel. Similarly, following his solo flight across the Atlantic Ocean in March , Charles Lindbergh became without question the most famous person in America and perhaps the world.

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