GCSE SOCIOLOGY

<u>Understanding the Course</u>
Exam Board – AQA

Structure of papers

Paper 1: The sociology of family and education (100 marks)

Paper 2: The sociology of crime and deviance and social stratification (100 marks)

Assessment Objectives

<u>AO1</u>	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of sociological theories, concepts, evidence and methods.
<u>AO2</u>	Apply knowledge and understanding of sociological theories, concepts, evidence and methods.
<u>AO3</u>	Analyse and evaluate sociological theories, concepts, evidence and methods in order to construct arguments, make judgements and draw conclusions.

How to respond to exam questions

<u>Style of question</u>	<u>Assessment objective</u>	<u>Number of marks</u>
1. Multiple choice	A01	1
2. Multiple choice	A01	1
3. Describe (usually definitional)	A01	3
4. Identify and describe **one**	A01	3
5. From **Item A** Identify **one** strength/weakness of the research	A03	2
6. Identify and explain **one...** (related to item A)	A01 A02	4
7. Identify and explain **one** advantage/disadvantage of (research method) to investigate (issue referred to in Item A)	A01 A02	4
8. From **Item B** identify and describe (research method and work of named sociologist)	A01 A02	4
9. Identify one (issue related to Item B) and explain...	A01 A02	4
10. Discuss how far sociologists would agree...	A01 A02 A03	12
11. Discuss how far sociologists would agree...	A01 A02 A03	12

How to Answer Questions

How to answer questions:

2 x 1-mark questions:

For questions with four responses only **one** answer per question is allowed.

For each answer completely fill in the circle alongside the appropriate answer.

CORRECT METHOD ● WRONG METHODS

If you want to change your answer you must cross out your original answer as shown.

If you wish to return to an answer previously crossed out, ring the answer you now wish to select as shown.

2 x 3-mark questions:

"Describe… or; Identify and describe **one**…"

Top answers will show: 'a coherent description with few inaccuracies and will demonstrate good knowledge and understanding.

How to answer a 3-mark question:

· Identify and describe the answer in detail

· Give an example; try to use key words throughout your answer

· Make sure you have linked your answer to every part of the question, including any key words.

AO1 = 3 marks

Item

Be sure to study items carefully. Pay extra attention to things such as dates and who conducted the research, as this will be crucial to answering the next couple of questions, which will test how well you have read the item. You could be asked about the type of research methods that the researcher as used, strengths or weaknesses of the research or even to identify trends, patterns or make observations.

The three questions that follow an item in the exam will expect you to have the 'context' of this item in mind. This means the circumstances or background of the research. Try to refer to it whenever you can!

1 x 2-mark questions:

"From **Item A**, examine **one**…." (This question is testing how well you can read and analyse an Item)

How to answer a 2-mark research question:

· Analyse (study) the item and identify a strength or weakness of the research being used.

· Suggest evaluate (weigh up) why this should be seen as a possible strength or weakness.

AO3 = 2 marks

4 x 4-mark questions:

"Identify and explain **one**…as referred to in **Item A** or; Identify and describe… or; Identify **one**…" (This is a paragraph answer linked to the Item)

Top answers will show: 'a relevant factor/trend/research method identified, and an appropriate, detailed and well-developed description offered with a clear application to the context'.

How to answer a 4-mark question:

· Identify and explain the answer

· Develop your answer further

· Give an example

· Make sure you have linked your answer to every part of the question, including any key words.

AO1 = 1 mark, AO2 = 3 marks

How to answer a 4-mark question:

· Write an introduction; focus on the question and explain what it's asking. Explain any key terms

· Develop your 'for' answer; give at least two reasons, use a sociological perspective on the issue and any evidence.

· Develop your 'against' answer; give at least two reasons, use a sociological perspective on the issue and evidence.

· Give a conclusion, explicitly addressing the issue of "how far".

AO1 = 4, AO2 = 4 marks, AO3 = 4 marks

2 x 12-mark questions:

"Discuss how far sociologists agree that…" (Mini essay answers)

Top answers will show: 'an appropriately developed critical analysis and evaluation of the relevant evidence and/or theory. Good application of relevant knowledge and understanding to the issues raised by the question with few if any inaccuracies or omissions. A wide range of specialist terms used with precision. A good knowledge and understanding demonstrated in a coherent and logically structured argument'.

Structure of 12 Mark Question:

T – Theory (name a theorist, for example, feminist sociologists such as Oakley….)

K – Knowledge (discuss the theory using key terminology)

A – Analysis (link the theory to the question and ANSWER the question)

EV – Evaluate (criticise the theory you have just discussed)

You are being assessed on four things:

1. Sociological knowledge *(AO1: 4 marks)*

2. Your ability to apply knowledge of theories, research and methods *(AO2: 4 marks)*

3. Your ability to evaluate sociological theories and concepts, remember to evaluate "how far" *(AO3: 4 marks)*

4. Your ability to write clearly and coherently, spelling well and using specialist terms accurately (for over 9 marks)
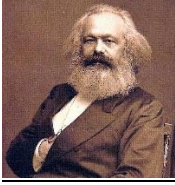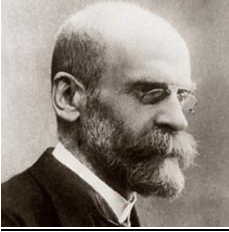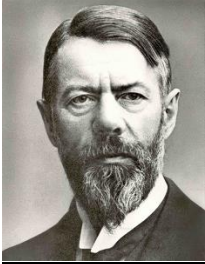
Unit 1:

The Sociological Approach

All the content is set in a United Kingdom (UK) context except where otherwise stated.

You must know and understand:

- Debates within sociology including conflict versus consensus.
- How sociological knowledge and ideas change over time and how these ideas inform our understanding of the social world.
- The contextualised work (a sense of time and place) of key classical sociologists Durkheim, Marx and Weber referencing both their view of the world and their contribution to the development of the discipline.
- Different sociological perspectives on social structures, social processes and social issues, including those informed by feminism, functionalism, interactionism and Marxism as specified in the topics listed below and key arguments (identified through reading and responding to extracts from key sociological texts).
- The interrelationship between the core areas of sociology.
- How to use sociological research methods as outlined in the topics and how they apply in the specified contexts i.e. families, education, crime and deviance, social stratification. Undertake small-scale research projects in order to develop your understanding of the practical difficulties faced by the sociologists working in the field.
- Key sociological terms and concepts concerned with social structures, social processes and social issues and the explanation of social phenomena including society, socialisation, norms, values, roles, labelling, discrimination, power and authority.

Overview of Sociological Theories

Marxism	A theory developed by Marx and Engels that describes society as being in a state of conflict between the ruling class (bourgeoisie) and the workers (proletariat) who work for them. The whole of society is organised in ways that benefit the ruling class and allow them to exploit the workers. Marxist sociologists' think that the structure of society causes inequality and are interested in exposing and studying these systems of exploitation.
Functionalism	A theory developed by Durkheim that describes society as being in a state of balance or agreement (consensus). Each aspect of society serves a function that helps maintain society as a whole but also acting as a 'social glue' that keeps people together as a group. Without this social glue, people feel they are disconnected from wider society and experience anomie. Functionalist sociologists are interested in studying the ways in which different aspects of society function to maintain consensus and prevent anomie (a breakdown of norms).
Feminism	A theory developed by many different people, mostly women, which describes society as an unequal relationship between men and women that keeps them in a state of conflict. The whole of society is organised in ways that keep power in the hands of men (even though not all men may benefit from this power, or it may even be harmful to men). This system is called the patriarchy. Feminist sociologists are interested in exposing and studying this system of power and exploitation and showing how it affects women.
Interactionism	A micro theory developed by a number of sociologists that focuses not on looking at society as a whole but instead looks at how people interpret the world around them and interact with each other. Our lives are made up of social interactions that communicate what we mean to other people and try to make sense of what they are meaning. Interactionist sociologists are interested in studying how people communicate with and interact with each other to share ideas of culture, norms and values.
Weberianism	A theory developed by Weber that describes society as being in a state of conflict between those with status, wealth and power and those without. Weberian sociologists are interested in studying where power, wealth and status exists in society and how they are used by people.

Unit 2:

Social structures, social processes and social issues

For each topic area you will be asked to critically evaluate as well as compare and contrast theories or explanations, including the key features of each theory or explanation in the context of a specific topic and area of sociology.

Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of key sociological theories by reading and responding to extracts which illustrate the different views of sociologists.

You will be able to critically analyse and evaluate how the issues have been interpreted by these sociologists.

For each topic you are expected to demonstrate an understanding of relevant methods and methodological issues, for example the use of official statistics, qualitative and quantitative approaches and the use of mixed methods.

You will explore and debate contemporary social issues in order to be able to challenge everyday understandings of social phenomena from a sociological perspective. The knowledge, understanding and skills they develop will provide a basis for further study and career choices.

Unit 3: Family

Key Topic 1: Functions of families

• Differing views of the functions of families.

• Parsons functionalist perspective on primary socialisation and the stabilisation of adult personalities.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain the functions of families (sexual, reproductive, economic and educational)

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on the functions of families (functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

Key Topic 2: Family forms

• How family forms differ in the UK and within a global context.

• The work of the Rapoport's on family diversity.

Students should be able to identify, describe, and explain various family forms (nuclear, extended, reconstituted, lone parent, single sex)

Key Topic 3: Conjugal role relationships

• Different views of conjugal role relationships.

• The feminist perspective of Oakley on the idea of the conventional family.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain joint and segregated conjugal roles

• describe and explain the domestic division of labour in both traditional and contemporary families

• demonstrate their understanding of issues that impact on conjugal role relationships within the contemporary family including decision making, money management, dual career families, child rearing and leisure activities

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on conjugal role relationships (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

Key Topic 4: Changing relationships within families

• Changing relationships within families.

• How relationships within families have changed over time.

 • The theory of the symmetrical family and the principle of stratified diffusion developed from the functionalist perspective of Willmott and Young.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain how relationships within families have changed over time (preindustrial, industrial and contemporary/modern)

• identify, describe and explain contemporary family related issues, the quality of parenting, the relationships between teenagers and adults, care of the disabled/elderly and arranged marriage

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on changing relationships within families (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Willmott and Young.

Key Topic 5: Criticisms of families

• Different criticisms of families (isolation and unrealistic idealisation, loss of traditional functions, lack of contact with wider kinship networks, the status and role of women within families, marital breakdown, dysfunctional families).

• The work of Zaretsky on developments in families from a Marxist perspective and Delphy and Leonard's feminist critique of families.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain different criticisms of families

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on these issues (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Zaretsky on families

• describe the key ideas of Delphy and Leonard on families.

Key Topic 6: Divorce

Changes in the pattern of divorce in Britain since 1945 and the consequences of divorce for family members and structures.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain the pattern of divorce in Britain since 1945 using relevant statistical data • explain reasons for the rise in divorce since 1945 including: changes in the law, changes in social attitudes and values, secularisation, changes in the status of women in society

• describe the consequences of divorce for family members (husband and wife, children and extended family) and the increase in the numbers of lone parent families

 • describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on these issues (functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

Key Family Theorists

Rapoport R and Rapoport R N - 'British families in transition' 1982

No Perspective

The Rapoport's were family researchers working in both Britain and America. They based most of their study on existing literature on families in Britain. Their research was therefore **secondary.**

They described 5 different aspects of family diversity:

1. Organisational (e.g. how domestic tasks were divided)
2. Cultural (beliefs and values)
3. Class (e.g. how the family's position in the social class system affects the availability of resources like food, heating, holidays, days out)
4. Life course (stage in the family life cycle)
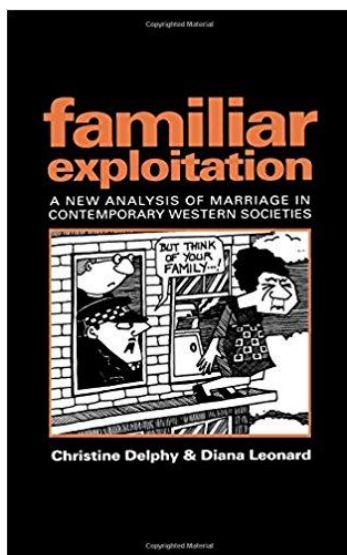5. Cohort (social changes that take place over time)

Criticism

Their work predates (existed before) the emergence of gay and lesbian households as a more open and accepted feature of society.
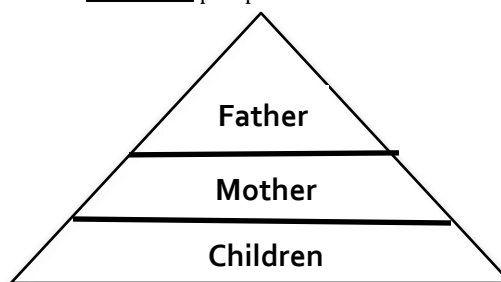
Family Diversity

Delphy and Leonard - 'Familiar Exploitation' 1992

Radical Feminist

Delphy and Leonard write from a **feminist's** perspective and believe the family is hierarchical.

```
        /\
       /  \
      / Father \
     /----------\
    /   Mother    \
   /--------------\
  /    Children     \
 /------------------\
```

They emphasise the importance of work. In their view it is men, rather than capitalists, who benefit from the free labour women are exploited for in the home. They believe the family has an important role in continuing patriarchy.

To them, the family is an economic system where men benefit from and exploit women. Women are oppressed because their work happens within the family and they are just expected to do it (e.g. wives have paid employment but are still expected to carry out the bulk of household tasks).

Zaretsky, E - 'Capitalism, the Family and Personal Life' 1976

Zaretsky writes from a **Marxist** perspective.

He believes that capitalist societies make people believe the 'private life' of the family is separate from the economy.
He thinks the family 'cushions' the negative effects of capitalism and encourages capitalism.

He does not believe that the family can provide for people's psychological and social needs. Families cannot make people feel part of society (they feel alienated).

Zaretsky believes **the family 'props up' the capitalist economy** (e.g. it depends on the domestic work of housewives and their reproduction of future generations of workers).
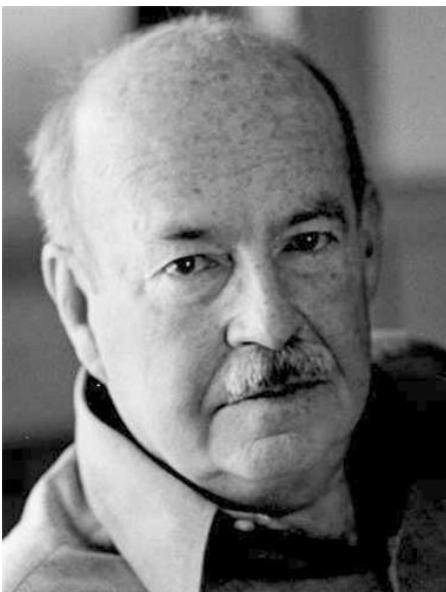The family serves capitalism through:

1. Women's unpaid labour
2. Passing on of advantage in families e.g. inheritance
3. Unit of consumption

He thinks only socialism (a Marxist society) will stop families being separated from the rest of public life, so only socialism will fulfil people and their needs.
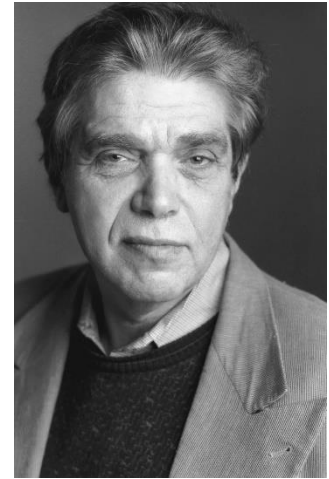
CONFLICT

Parsons, T - 'The social structure of the family' 1959

Parsons write from a **functionalist** perspective and focused on middle class families in the USA.

He believed that the American family had kept two basic and complex **functions** that families in all societies have.

1. The first function was the primary socialisation of children.
2. The second function was keeping adult personalities and behaviour stable and steady (e.g. by giving and receiving emotional support). He argued men had **instrumental** roles and women had **expressive roles.**

Warm bath analogy- family seen as a place of refuge, created by the mother whereby being part of a family is like stepping into a warm bath

Conflict theorists argue Parsons presents an idealised picture of the family.

CONSENSUS

Young and Willmott - 'The Symmetrical Family' 1973

Young and Willmott write from a **functionalist** perspective. Their work is based on a large scale social survey.

**Stage 1:** The pre-industrial family

Stage 2: Early industrial family

Stage 3: The symmetrical family

They argued that the symmetrical family emerged in the middle classes but filtered down into the working class. This is a result of the repetitive and boring nature of paid manual jobs leading to more focus on home life.

Stage 4: Stratified diffusion

Argued what happens at the 'top' of society filters down to the bottom. Studies **managing director families** that were to become work centred rather than home centred with the wife mainly responsible for domestic work.
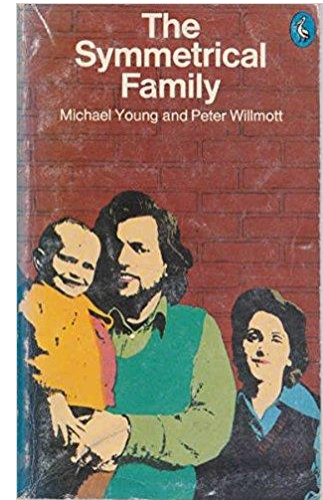
CONSENSUS

Oakley, A - 'Conventional families' 1982

Oakley writes from a **feminist** perspective.

She addresses the idea of the **conventional family**, which she defines as 'nuclear families composed [made of] of legally married couples, voluntarily choosing the parenthood of one or more children'.

Firstly, she explores the power of the conventional family, including its origins (where it is from) and explanations for it. She also examines the pressures the conventional family places upon women and how it can be used to control them (i.e. their time, progression in their careers etc.).

Oakley does identify that conventional stereotypes are increasingly seen as dated and some groups are beginning to look towards alternative ways of living.

Her research was completed *before* civil partnerships.

LIBERAL

Glossary: Family

	ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1.	**Nuclear family**	Two generational families containing a heterosexual married or cohabiting couple and their dependent children.
2.	**Extended family**	Group of relatives extending beyond the nuclear family but have regular contact.
3.	**Reconstituted family**	A blended or stepfamily in which one or both partners have a children from previous relationships living with them.
4.	**Social stigma**	Disapproval of a person based on perceived characteristics.
5.	**Patriarchy**	Male dominance over women.
6.	**Household**	Made up of people who live in one unit.
7.	**Double shift**	When a woman takes on a career and the housework. This then can lead to the triple shift, which also involves emotional support.
8.	**Primary socialisation**	How a child is taught the norms and values of a society.
9.	**Monogamy**	Being married to just one person. This can be serial monogamy, which is when you may divorce and then remarry.
10.	**Cohabiting**	Live together but are not married.
11.	**Dysfunctional families**	Conflict, emotional distress, and potential abuse. (This is used to criticise the functionalist perspective as it ignores dysfunctional families in its findings).
	DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
12.	**Empty nest**	When the children have moved out and no longer live with their parents.
13.	**Canalisation**	The way a parent channels their children's interest into toys/ games and other activities.
14.	**Egalitarian Families**	Sharing power between members of the family.
15.	**Principle of stratified diffusion**	Social changes start at the top of the social class system and work down (Young and Willmott, 1973).
16.	**Polygamy**	Practice of having more than one spouse.
17.	**Polygyny**	Man has 2 or more wives.
18.	**Polyandry**	Woman has 2 or more husbands.
19.	**Instrumental role**	Men take on this role as the breadwinner (Parsons, 1959).
20.	**Expressive role**	Women take on this role as the housewife and mother (Parsons, 1959).
21.	**Joint conjugal roles**	No rigid division of household tasks. Shared leisure activities.
22.	**Segregated conjugal roles**	Division in domestic labour due to gender. Separate leisure activities.
23.	**Symmetrical family**	Spouses perform different tasks but both contribute to the home.

Practice Exam Questions

3 marks (Describe)

- Describe what sociologists mean by the term 'lone parent family'
- Describe what sociologists mean by cultural diversity
- Describe what sociologists mean by joint conjugal roles
- Describe what sociologists mean by serial monogamy
- Describe what sociologists mean by cohabitation
- Describe what sociologists mean by domestic division of labour

3 marks (Identify and describe)

- Identify and describe one example of an alternative to families in the UK today
- Identify and describe one difference between the feminist and functionalist accounts of primary socialisation
- Identify and describe one way in which power can be measured in families
- Identify and describe one why reason why the majority of reconstituted families have a biological mother and a step father
- Identify and describe how economic dependency can affect the power relationships between families

4 marks (Identify and explain)

- Identify and explain one reason why some sociologists use a broad rather than a narrow definition of family
- Identify and explain how one turning point in an individual's life might lead to change their family or household situation
- Identify and explain one factor that ma6y have led to an increase in the number of symmetrical families
- Identify and explain one criticism of Parson's view of the nuclear family
- Identify and explain one of Murdock's four functions of the family
- Identify and explain one factor that may have led to changes in the relationships between parents and children over the last 100 years
- Identify and explain one factor that may have led to the increase in the number of lone –parent families since the 1970s
- Identify and explain one factor that may have led to changes in the patterns of fertility in the UK over the last 30 years
- Identify and explain one reason for continuing inequality between men and women in contemporary families

12 marks (Discuss how far)

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that family are the main agent of socialisation
- Discuss how far Sociologists agree that there is a 'typical British family' today
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that Britain the wider family is becoming less important in people's lives
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that feminism has led to a change in gender roles within families

Unit 4: Education

Key Topic 1: Roles and functions of education

• Different views of the role and functions of education.

• The functionalist perspective of Durkheim on education as the transmission of norms and values and Parsons on achieved status and the operation of schools on meritocratic principles.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe, and explain the functions of education including serving the needs of the economy, facilitating social mobility and fostering social cohesion.

• identify and describe a variety of different types of school including primary and secondary, state and private.

• describe alternative forms of educational provision including home schooling and deschooling.

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on these issues (functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

• describe the key ideas of Durkheim on education.

• describe the key ideas of Parsons on education.

Key Topic 2: the relationship between education and capitalism

Different views of the correspondence principle on the relationship between education and capitalism as developed from a Marxist perspective by Bowles and Gintis.

Students should be able to:

• describe the key ideas of Bowles and Gintis on education and capitalism.

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of alternative sociological perspectives on the correspondence principle.

Key Topic 3: Educational achievement

• Factors affecting educational achievement.

• The work of Halsey on class-based inequalities and Ball on parental choice and competition between schools.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain various factors affecting educational achievement including class, gender and ethnicity.

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on these issues (functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

• describe the key ideas of Halsey on class-based inequalities.

• describe the key ideas of Ball on parental choice and competition between schools.

Key Topic 4: Processes within schools

• Processes within schools affecting educational achievement.

• The work of Ball on teacher expectations and Willis on the creation of counter school cultures.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe, and explain various processes within schools affecting educational achievement including, streaming, setting, mixed ability teaching, labelling, and the self-fulfilling prophecy.

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on these issues (interactionist, functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

• describe the key ideas of Ball on teacher expectations.

• describe the key ideas of Willis on the creation of counter school cultures.

Key Theorists

Durkheim, E - 'Moral Education' 1925

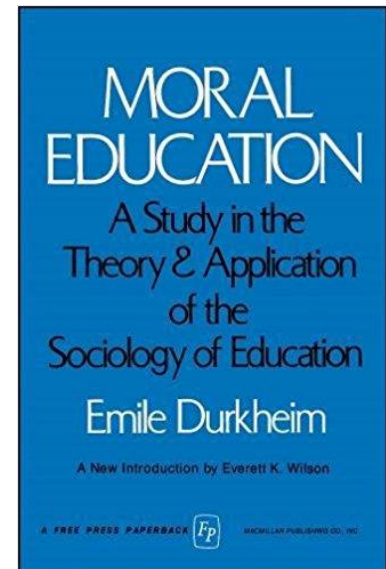Durkheim writes from a **functionalist** perspective.

Durkheim argued that the main function of education was to teach individuals the norms and values of society (secondary socialisation). He argued that education unites society through:

History teaches children that they are part of a bigger story about society. This help them develop a value consensus and feel committed to society.
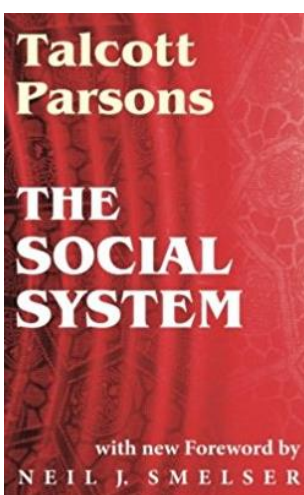
School children learn to develop communication skills through cooperating with people who are not their family or friends.

School discipline (the hidden curriculum) teaches children to be self-disciplined and see misbehaviour as harmful for society.

CONSENSUS

Parsons, T - 'The school class as a social system' 1961

CONSENSUS

Parsons writes from a **functionalist** perspective.

Parsons argued that the school acts as a bridge between the family and society, taking over as the main agent of socialisation and preparing students for adult life. This is mainly done through the following:

a) Working under meritocratic values (the belief that any student can achieve if they work hard), reflecting greater society.

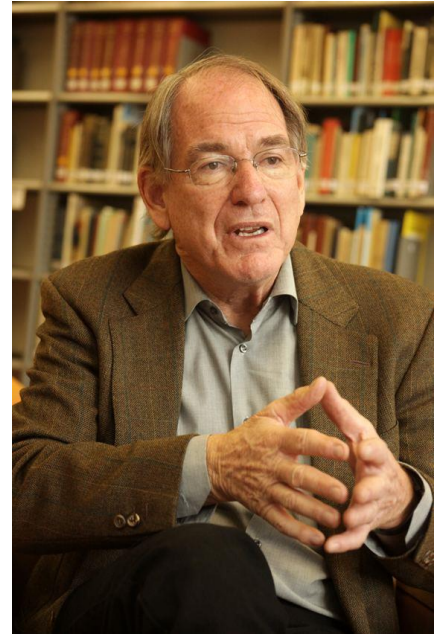b) Maintaining value consensus through socialising children into the basic values of wider society.

Bowles, S and Gintis, H - 'Schooling in Capitalist America' 1994

Writes from a **<u>Marxist</u>** perspective.

Bowles and Gintis argued that the main role of the education system is to create a new generation of workers who will work for the benefit of the ruling class.

They argued there is a close **correspondence** between the social relationships you find in the workplace and the social relationships in the education system (e.g. obeying authority, hardworking and obedience).

They reject the view that capitalist societies are meritocratic and believe that social class is the most important factor influencing levels of attainment.

CONFLICT

Ball, S and Gerwitz, S - 'Market forces and parental choice' 1994

MARKETS, CHOICE AND EQUITY IN EDUCATION

SHARON GEWIRTZ STEPHEN J. BALL RICHARD BOWE
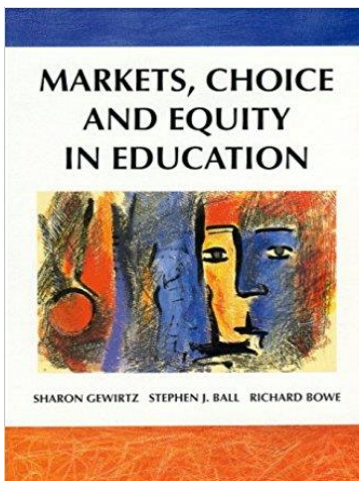
SETTING & STREAMING

Write from an **<u>interactionist</u>** perspective.

Studied 15 schools in neighbouring LEAs with different population profiles (e.g. class and ethnicity). The study investigated how schools were impacted by allowing parents to choose which school to send their child to and the publication of league tables.

The study showed that schools felt pressured to set and stream pupils in order to focus on the most able students. This was intended in order to get the student better grades and in turn give the school a higher position in league tables.

Key findings

1. Parental choice and competition has increased inequalities in education
2. Middle class parents have more choice – greater cultural capital and material advantage.
3. Schools focus on image and results and compete with one another through results, facilities, etc.

Ball, S - 'Beachside Comprehensive' 1981

Writes from an **interactionist** perspective.

Research was carried out using participant observation for three years in one comprehensive school.

He studied how students were put into groups (streamed VS mixed ability) and socialised in two different year groups.

He concluded:

a) Students were put into classes based on their class, not their academic ability and working class students were more likely to be in lower bands.

b) Teachers used negative labels with exam students in lower stream classes

c) Students in mixed ability classes were still labelled as 'high' or 'low' ability

d) Behaviour of students in mixed ability classes was better, because disruptive lower ability students were not together

e) Teachers had different expectations of different bands – i.e. top band students were encouraged, were viewed as well-behaved and hard working. Lower bands were steered towards more practical subjects and were labelled as low ability.
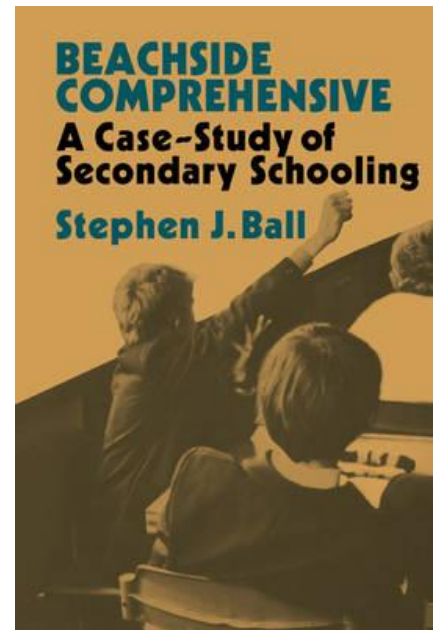
SETTING & STREAMING

Willis, P - 'Learning to Labour' 1997
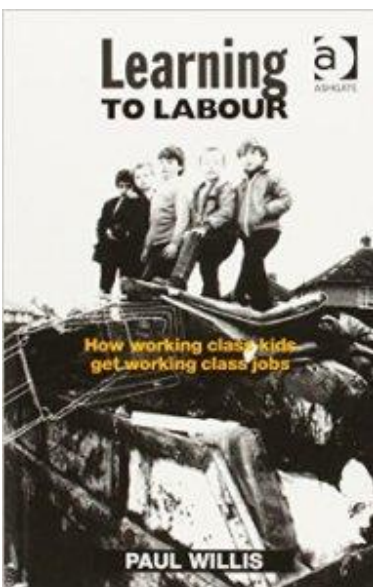
Writes from a **Marxist** perspective.

Willis focused on the existence of conflict within the education system. Willis rejects the view that there is a direct relationship between the economy and the way that the education system operates. Within his research Willis used non-participant observation, unstructured interviews and diaries. His study showed that:

Not all individuals accept the norms and values taught to them informally within the education system

Students that reject these values form anti-school subcultures

Members of these subcultures often felt superior to both the teachers and the conformist students

Their rejection of school made them suitable candidates for male dominated, unskilled or semi-skilled manual work

CONFLICT

Halsey, Heath and Ridge - 'Origins and Destinations' 1980

No perspective

These sociologists used a sample of 8000 males born between 1913 and 1952.

They split their sample into 3 social class groups, based on their father's occupation (job):

1. The service class (e.g. teachers/doctors and managers)

2. The intermediate class (e.g. office staff, shop supervisors, self-employed)

3. The working class (e.g. manual workers in steel, mining or farming).

Their study showed that compared to working class:

o Service class children were 4 times more likely to stay at school until 16.

o Service class children were 10 times more likely to stay at school until 18.

o Service class children were 11 times more likely to go to university.
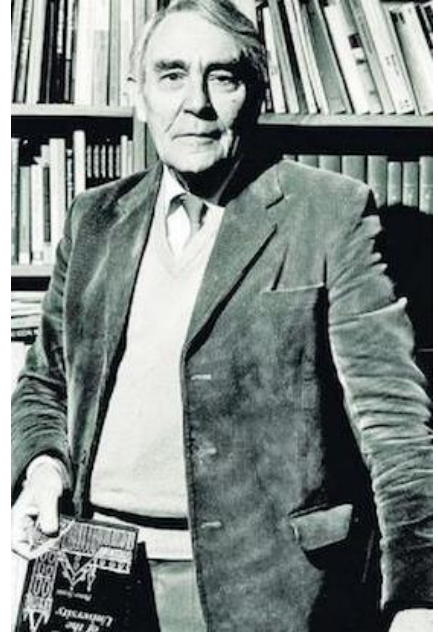
SOCIAL CLASS

Glossary: Education

	ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1.	**Formal curriculum**	The timetabled subjects taught in schools, such as English, Maths, Religious Studies, and Spanish. This is called direct learning and refers to the formal things that you learn (for example in a GCSE course).
2.	**Hidden curriculum**	Things learned indirectly in school that are not formally taught, such as valuing punctuality, or conformity and obedience. Occurs through things like assemblies, tutor periods, the attitudes, and behaviours of staff in school.
3.	**Labelling**	The process of attaching a label (a sticky tag), characteristic, or definition to individuals or groups. For example, labelling a middle class student as someone who is clever/bright.
4.	**Self-fulfilling prophecy**	This occurs when a person who has been labelled comes to fit the image people have of them; i.e. the prediction becomes true.
5.	**Meritocracy**	A system in which individuals' achievements are based on their own talents and efforts rather than their social origins and backgrounds. Functionalists would agree with this.
6.	**Material deprivation**	Refers to the inability of individuals or households to afford the goods and activities that are typical in a society at a given point in time.
7.	**Teacher expectations**	Assumptions that teachers make about students' future academic achievements based on their knowledge of students' current performance.
8.	**Streaming**	Dividing students into different groups or bands based on a general assessment of their ability rather than their performance in a particular subject.
9.	**League tables**	League tables measure school performance data. This is statistical information showing how well pupils in England have done in public examinations taken at key points during their school careers. They are available for all members of the public to see.
10.	**Marketisation**	An attempt to improve education standards and opportunities by making schools and colleges compete for students in an 'education market'.
	DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
11.	**Home schooling / tuition**	Teaching children at home rather than at school, usually by parents or private tutors.
12.	**De-schooling**	The idea that the education system as it currently organised should be abolished (stopped/eliminated).
13.	**Gendered curriculum**	A curriculum in which some subjects (including high status subjects such as maths and science) are associated with masculinity) and others (such as languages and humanities) are associated with femininity.
14.	**Ethnocentric curriculum**	The curriculum is seen as judging things in a biased way from the point of view of one culture. For examples, the National Curriculum may value white, Western literature, art, history etc.
15.	**Anti-school subculture**	A school-based group of students who resist the school, its teachers, and their authority and openly challenge the school rules.
16.	**Counter-school culture**	A group within a school that rejects the values and norms of the school and replaces them with anti-school values and norms. Willis demonstrated this in his study of working-class lads in his study called 'Learning to Labour' (1977).
17.	**Correspondence Principle**	Bowles and Gintis' (Marxist's) term used to describe the way that education and work connect or fit together (correspond) in capitalist society.
18.	**Competition**	A struggle or contest between individuals or groups to obtain (gain) something desirable (such as qualifications, school places, status, power or wealth) that is in limited supply.
19.	**Cultural capital**	Bourdieu's idea that the knowledge, attitudes and values that the middle class provide for their children gives them an advantage in the education system.
20.	**Cultural deprivation**	A theory which suggests that some working class and minority ethnic students lack the 'correct' values, behaviours and attitudes from socialisation to succeed in education.

Practice Exam Questions

3 marks (Describe)

- Describe what sociologists mean by de-schooling
- Describe what sociologists mean by the marketisation in education
- Describe what sociologists mean by material deprivation
- Describe what sociologists mean by streaming
- Describe what sociologists mean by pupil subcultures
- Describe what sociologists mean by vocationalism
- Describe what sociologists mean by a faith school

3 marks (Identify and describe)

- Identify and describe one way in which the hidden curriculum socialises children
- Identify and describe three different ways educational success can be measured
- Identify and describe one feature of the correspondence principle
- Identify and describe one form of pre-school educational provision
- Identify and describe one educational reform from the last 25 years aimed at reducing inequality in education

4 marks (Identify and explain)

- Identify and explain the function of education for society
- Identify and explain one way in which schools teach children to become part of society
- Identify and explain one criticism of Durkheim's view of the role of the education system
- Identify and explain one function of the education system according to Parsons
- Identify and explain one effect of marketisation on Education in Britain
- Identify and explain one argument in favour of private education
- Identify and explain one disadvantage of the comprehensive system
- Identify and explain one way in which material deprivation could influence educational achievement

12 marks (Discuss how far)

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that a pupil's gender is the main reason for difference in educational achievement
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that government policy in the last 25 years has improved outcomes in education
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that education has a positive function in society
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that pupils' gender is the main reason for differences in their educational achievement
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that the main function of schools is to prepare pupils for the workplace
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that a pupil's ethnicity is the main reason for differences in educational achievement
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that parental attitudes have a significant effect on a child's educational success

Unit 5: Crime and Deviance

RACIAL DISPARITY

Release
Drugs, The Law & Human Rights

COCAINE POSSESSION

22% CAUTIONED

BLACK

78% CHARGED

56% CAUTIONED

WHITE

44% CHARGED
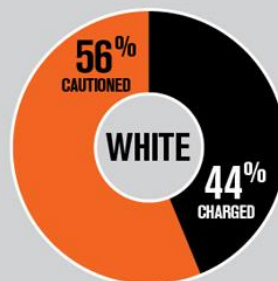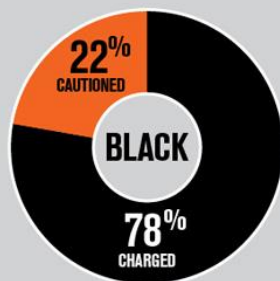
BLACK PEOPLE ARE TREATED MORE HARSHLY FOR DRUG POSSESSION

Key Topic 1: The social construction of crime and deviance

• The social construction of concepts of crime and deviance and explanations of crime and deviance.

• The work of Merton on the causes of crime from a functionalist perspective and Becker from an interactionist perspective.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe, and explain various sociological explanations of crime and deviance including anomie, labelling, structural theories, subcultural theories, and interactionist theory

• explain the social construction of concepts of crime and deviance

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on the social construction of crime and deviance (interactionist, functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Merton on the causes of crime

• describe the key ideas of Becker on the causes of crime.

Key Topic 2: Social control

• Formal and informal methods of social control.

• The work of Heidensohn on female conformity in male dominated patriarchal societies.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe, and explain formal and informal methods of social control including unwritten rules and sanctions

• describe, compare, and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on social control (interactionist, functionalist, feminist, and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Heidensohn on female conformity.

Key Topic 3: Criminal and deviant behaviour

• Factors affecting criminal and deviant behaviour and ways in which criminal and deviant behaviour have generated public debate.

• The work of Albert Cohen on delinquent subcultures and Carlen on women, crime, and poverty.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain factors affecting criminal and deviant behaviour including social class, gender, ethnicity and age.

• identify and describe various public debates over criminal and deviant behaviour including concerns over violent crime, sentencing, the treatment of young offenders, the prison system and media coverage of crime.

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on factors affecting criminal and deviant behaviour (interactionist, functionalist, feminist and Marxist).

• describe the key ideas of Albert Cohen on delinquent subcultures • describe the key ideas of Carlen on women, crime and poverty.

Key Topic 4: Data on crime

The usefulness of the main sources of data on crime, the collection of official data on crime, patterns and trends in crime figures and the 'dark figure'.

Students should be able to:

• identify and describe the main sources of data on crime

• describe the pattern and trends in crime figures using relevant statistical data

• explain the 'dark figure' of crime (unreported and unrecorded crime)

• describe, compare, and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on the use of data on crime (functionalist, feminist, and Marxist).

Key Theorists

Becker, H - 'Outsiders' 1997

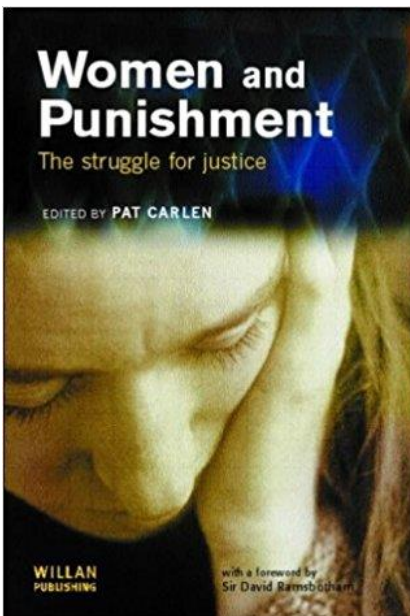Becker writes from an **interactionist** perspective.

In Becker's view, deviance is created by society. He argues that social groups create deviance by making rules, applying these rules to particular people and labelling them as 'outsiders'. Becker argues that the labels given to people can become part of their master status and eventually impact their likeliness of developing deviant careers.

According to Becker, deviant careers are encourage through the development of self-fulfilling prophecies were the person labelled may come to fit the image people have of them.

INTERACTIONIST

Carlen, P - 'Women, Crime and Poverty' 1988

Women and Punishment
The struggle for justice

EDITED BY PAT CARLEN

WILLAN PUBLISHING
with a foreword by Sir David Ramsbotham

FEMINISM

Carlen writes from a **feminist** perspective.

Carlen studied a group of 39 working class women aged between 15 and 46 who had been convicted of one or more crimes. She carried out in depth unstructured interviews with the women, most of whom where in prison or youth custody.

In her analysis of why women commit crimes, Carlen draws on control theory. This theory argues that people behave rationally because they are controlled through a 'deal' that offers them a reward for conforming.

For example, working class women have to accept the 'class' deal (working for material rewards) and the 'gender' deal (emotional and material rewards for living with male breadwinner).

Poverty, living in residential care, drug or alcohol addiction and excitement were the main reasons for criminality.

Cohen, A - 'Delinquent Boys' 1955

Cohen writes from a **functionalist** perspective.

Cohen argues that working class boys have the same success goals as that of wider society, but as a consequence of educational failure and poor employment prospects, have little or no opportunity to achieve those goals.

Cohen argues that cultural deprivation is the main reason for working class boy's failure in the education system. As a result, they become stuck in the lowest level of the stratification system and experience status frustration.

Consequently, they turn to criminality as an alternative route to success, becoming members of subcultures who values non-utilitarian crimes that enable offenders to be given status.
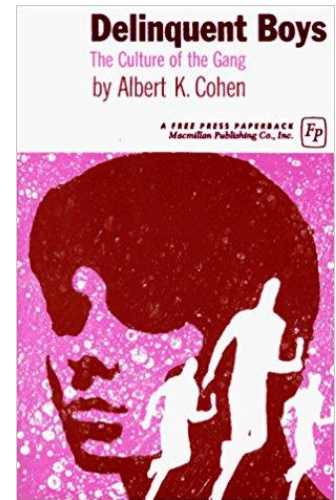
FUNCTIONALISM

Heidensohn, F - 'Women and Crime' 1985
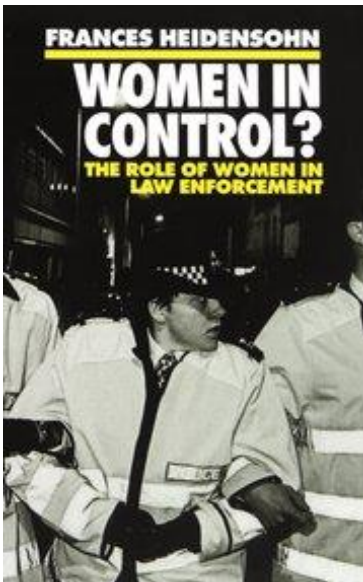
Heidensohn writes from a **feminist** perspective.

She uses **control theory** to explain why women commit fewer crimes than men. She argues that male dominated patriarchal societies control women more effectively than men, making it difficult for them to break the law. Heidensohn argues that some of the dominant places of control are:

a) **In the home-** women are expected to spend most of their time on housework and childcare

B) **Childhood-** young girls are have more constraints in the home than boys and are expected to contribute more to domestic labour.

C) **In the workplace-** women are controlled by male dominated hierarchies and workers organisations.

CONTROL THEORY

Merton, R - 'Social Theory and Social Structure' 1968

Merton writes from **functionalist** perspective.

Merton argued that deviance results from the culture and structure of society. He argued that all members of society hold the same values (value consensus).

However, Merton believed that individuals had different positions within the social structure (i.e. social class) and therefore had differing opportunities to achieve their goals. When individuals are unable to achieve their goals through legitimate means, Merton argue that they could experience **strain.**

Merton described five possible ways in which individuals could respond to success goals in American society. There were:

1. Conformity

2. Innovation

3. Ritualism

4. Retreatism

5. Rebellion
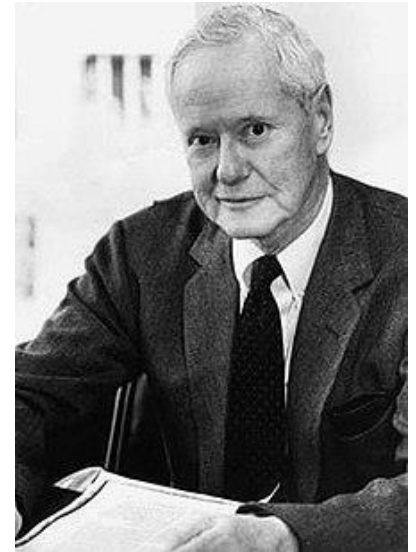
FUNCTIONALISM

Glossary: Crime and Deviance

		ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY
1.	**Crime**	Any form of behaviour that breaks the law
2.	**Custodial sentences**	Punishment where offenders will sentenced to go to prison or Young offenders institute
3.	**Crime rate**	A measure of the level of criminal activity in a society based on crimes recorded by the police
4.	**Dark figure of crime**	The unknown amount of criminal activity that is not reported or recorded to the police
5.	**Deviance**	Any form of behaviour that does not conform to the norms of a society – this can be influenced by time, place, social situation and culture
6.	**Formal agencies of social control**	Formal rules and social controls that tell everyone within society what is and is not acceptable e.g. the police, the courts, the government
7.	**Informal agencies of social control**	The approval or disapproval of people around us that can influence and control our behaviour e.g. family , friends, peer group, schools, work, religion
8.	**Official crime statistics**	Government statistics on crime based on official sources e.g. police records
9.	**Self-report study**	A survey that asks respondents to identify crimes they have committed, but for which they have not been caught
10.	**Social construction of crime**	What is considered criminal and deviant changes over time or when it takes place, therefore is socially constructed. No act is in itself criminal or deviant- it largely depends on how other member of society see it e.g. homosexuality
11.	**Victim survey**	A survey that asks respondents about their experience of crime, regardless of whether or not those crimes have reported
		DESIRABLE VOCABULARY
12.	**Anomie**	A situation of normlessness in which the norms that regulate people's behaviour breaks down
13.	**Chivalry Thesis**	The idea that the criminal justice system treats female offenders (especially those who conform to stereotypes) more leniently than male offenders
14.	**Collective conscience**	The shared beliefs that bind communities together and regulate individual behaviour
15.	**Deviant career**	Deviant behaviour that develops over time due to labels. e.g. labelled a troublemaker at school and then goes onto commit crime later in life
16.	**Deviancy amplification**	The exaggeration of a particular social issue as a consequence of media coverage, e.g. anti-social behaviour by groups of young people
17.	**Edgework**	Behaviour at the edge of what is normally allowed for accepted; risky or radical behaviour, e.g. stealing and racing a car
18.	**Hate crime**	Crime based on prejudice towards others because of their race, religion, sexual orientation, disability or because they are transgender
19.	**Probation**	Prisoners are allowed to leave prison and enter the wider community under supervision, provided they follow certain conditions set by the court
20.	**Reported crime**	Crime that is reported to the police - not all crime is recorded
21.	**Status frustration**	A sense of frustration arising in individuals or groups because they are denied status in society
22.	**Violent crime**	Recorded as 'violence against the person', which covers grievous bodily harm (GBH), assault, kidnap, child abduction, harassment and threats to kill
23.	**White collar crime**	Criminal acts committed by people in high status positions, such as accountants, doctors or solicitors, during their work, fraud, tax evasion, and 'fiddling' expense accounts at work.

Practice Exam Questions

3 marks (Describe)

- Describe what sociologists mean by 'methods of social control'
- Describe what Merton means by 'anomie'
- Describe what Sociologists mean by the term 'master status '
- Describe what sociologists mean by 'agenda setting'
- Describe what sociologists mean by a moral panic
- Describe one example of a delinquent subculture

3 marks (Identify and describe)

- Identify and describe one difference between Marxist and Functionalists explanation of crime
- Identify and describe one reason why some degree of social order is necessary in a society
- Identify and describe one similarity between Marxist and Functionalist explanations of crime and deviance
- Identify and describe one difference between Marxist and Functionalist explanations of crime and deviance
- Identify and describe one public debate over criminal behaviour

## *4 marks (Identify and explain)*

- Identify and explain one difference between crime and deviance
- Identify and explain one way in which peer groups may encourage members to conform to their rules
- Identify and explain one difference between formal and informal rules.
- Identify and explain one advantage of using structured interviews to investigate people's experiences of crime
- Identify and explain one function of crime that Durkheim identified
- Identify and explain one reason why the recorded rate of crime may not include all crimes committed
- Identify and explain one reasons why corporate crime may be under-represented in crime statistics
- Identify and explain one reason why there are far fewer women than men in prisons in England and Wales

12 marks (Discuss how far)

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that feminism has led to an increase in the number of female offenders in the UK over the last 40 years
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that police – recorded crime statistics exaggerate the true level of crime among some ethnic groups
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that the middle class is less likely to commit crime than other social classes
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that in Britain today working-class criminals are more likely to be convicted than middle-class and upper-class 'white collar' criminals.
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that some ethnic groups appear to commit more crime than others because they are stereotyped
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that most deviant and criminal behaviour in young people results from peer group pressure
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that most criminal behaviour is caused by poverty and social deprivation.

Unit 6: Social Stratification
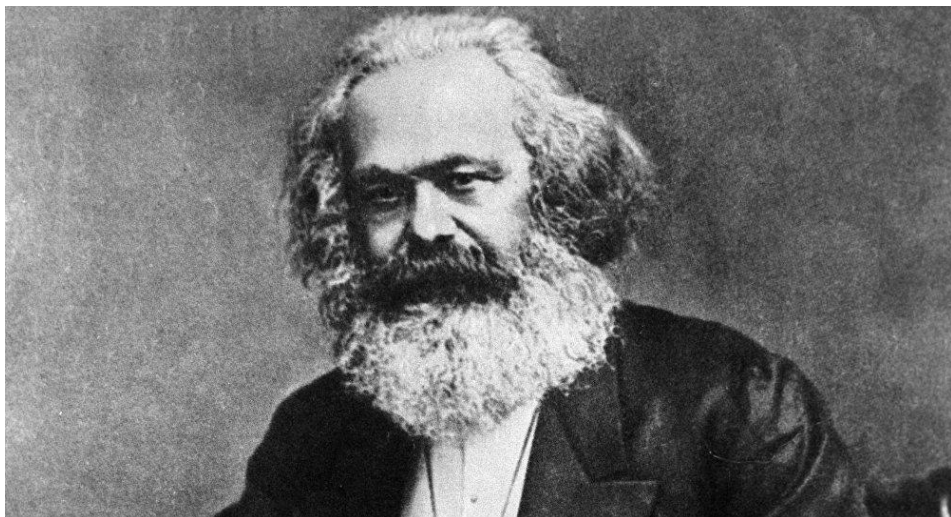
Key Topic 1: **Functionalist theory of stratification**

• Different views of the functionalist theory of social stratification.

• The work of Davis and Moore on social stratification from a functionalist perspective.

Students should be able to:

• describe and explain the functionalist theory of stratification (effective role allocation and performance linked to the promise of rewards).

• describe the key ideas of Davis and Moore • describe, compare and contrast alternative perspectives on functionalist theory (feminist and Marxist).

Key Topic 2: **Socio-economic class**

• Different views of socio-economic class.

• The work of Marx and Weber on socioeconomic class.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain socio-economic class divisions in society

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on socio-economic class (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Marx on socio-economic class

• describe the key ideas of Weber on socio-economic class.

Key Topic 3: **Life chances**

• Different views on factors affecting life chances.

• The work of Devine revisiting the idea of the affluent worker.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain factors affecting life chances including social class, gender, race and ethnicity, sexuality, age, disability, religion and belief

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on life chances (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Devine on the idea of the affluent worker.

Key Topic 4: **Poverty as a social issue**

• Different interpretations of poverty as a social issue.

• The work of Townsend on relative deprivation and Murray on the underclass.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain different interpretations of poverty as a social issue including, the culture of poverty, material deprivation, the way in which governments have attempted to alleviate poverty and unemployment, the impact of globalisation.

• describe, compare, and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on poverty (functionalist, feminist, and Marxist).

• describe the key ideas of Townsend on relative deprivation.

• describe the key ideas of Murray on the underclass including links to New Right theories.

Key Topic 5: **Power and authority**

• Different forms of power and authority.

• The work of Weber on power and authority.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain different forms of power and authority including traditional, charismatic, rational-legal, formal and informal sources of power

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on power and authority (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Weber on power and authority.

Key Topic 6: **Power relationships**

• Describe and explain different views on factors affecting power relationships.

• The work of Walby on patriarchy.

Students should be able to:

• identify, describe and explain different factors affecting power relationships including social class, gender, sexuality, race, age, disability, religion and beliefs

• describe, compare and contrast a variety of sociological perspectives on power relationships (functionalist, feminist and Marxist)

• describe the key ideas of Walby on patriarchy.

Key Theorists

Davis, K and Moore, E - 'Some principles of stratification'

Davis and Moore write from a **functionalist** perspective.

These American sociologists argued that all societies are stratified and they all have social inequality. In their view, social stratification is necessary for the working of society because it fulfils certain vital needs. They argued:

1. All societies need some way of placing individuals into the different social positions or roles that must be filled

2. Some of these positions are functionally more important than others and ensure societies survival. High status and high paid jobs should be filled with those with the most 'talent'.

FUNCTIONALISM

Devine, F - 'Affluent Workers Revisited' 1992

SOCIAL

CLASS

Devine revisited the town of Luton two decades after Goldthorpe and Lockwood's research on social class and family life was completed.

Devine carried out interviews on male and female manual workers to test the idea of 'privatised instrumentalism' (social relationships focused on the home with work as a means to an end).

She argued that whilst the lifestyle of her sample was not as communal as the traditional working class, neither was it as home centred and privatised as Lockwood has predicted.
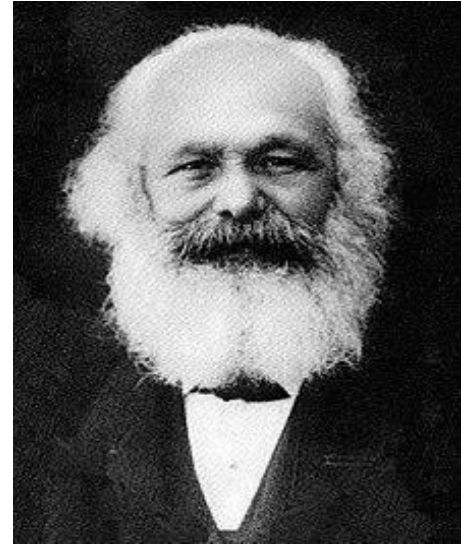
Devine also found that they continued to resent class inequalities and the ability of the Labour party to deliver and more just and equal society.

Marx, K - 'Karl Marx Selected Writings'

Marx saw social stratification as a mechanism which allows a privileged few to exploit the many. Marx believe that systems of stratification arose from the relationships of social groups to the means of production (land, capital, labour power, machinery and buildings).
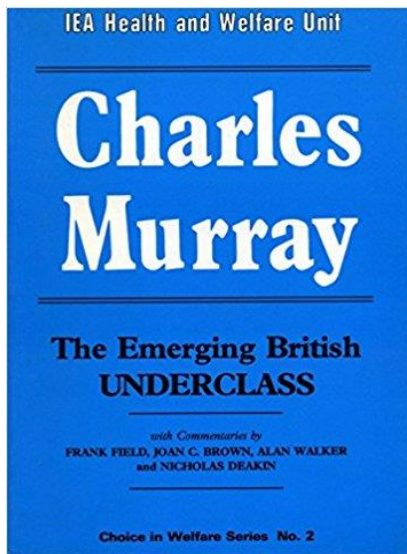
He identified two main social classes; the bourgeoisie (the ruling class) and the proletariat (the subject class). He argued that both classes and different interests.

He highlighted the relationships between social class and power, arguing the bourgeoisie held the political power that allowed them to further their own interests.

CLASS & INEQUALITY

Murray, C - 'Losing Ground' 1984

IEA Health and Welfare Unit

Charles Murray

The Emerging British UNDERCLASS

with Commentaries by
FRANK FIELD, JOAN C. BROWN, ALAN WALKER
and NICHOLAS DEAKIN

Choice in Welfare Series No. 2

NEW RIGHT

Murray studies both American and British social policy and welfare programmes. He examined the impact of these policies on the behaviour of social groups, in particular the underclass (those that had become welfare dependent and unwilling to seek employment).

Murray argued that growing membership of the underclass posed a threat the economic and social fabric of American and British society.

- Argues welfare benefits create dependency – discouraging people to find work, and actually creating more poverty.
- The underclass are a threat to society – a group who drain resources and do not work – associates it with rising crime and single-parent families

Critics of Murray highlight his inability to discuss and of the reasons that may create such a class.

Townsend, P - 'Poverty in the United Kingdom' 1979

Townsend used his preferred definition of relative poverty in order to measure poverty in the UK. His research was based on over 2000 questionnaires to over 6,000 individuals throughout various geographical areas in the UK.

His definition of poverty included issues of social exclusion as well as material and cultural factors.

Townsend calculated that almost 23% of the population were in poverty, a proportion much higher than those based on the state standard of poverty (6.1%).

He also identified those who were at risk of poverty (elderly unskilled, children in families with young unskilled parents).
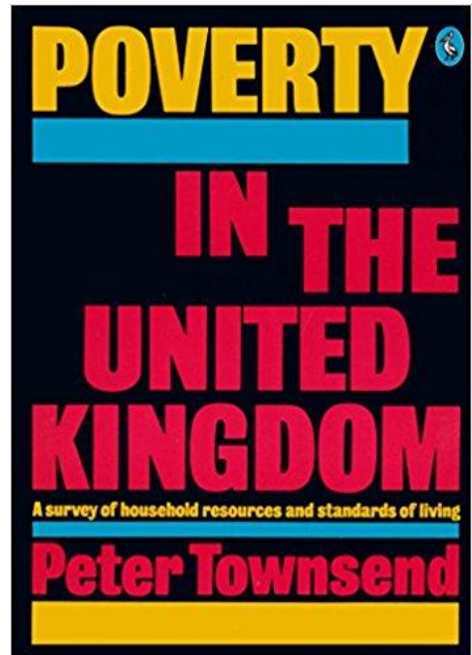
MEASURING POVERTY

Weber, M - 'The Theory of Economic and Social Organizations' 1947

Weber provides a more complex picture of social stratification than Marx, writing in the earl part of the 20th century. Weber argued that classes develop in economies in which individuals compete for economic gain.

Like Marx, Weber argued that major class division lay between those who owned the forces of productions (mean of creating wealth) and those who did not.

Weber distinguished between class and status. While classes were formed in marketplaces, status could be identified as the prestige or honour attached to their styles of life and distribution of power.
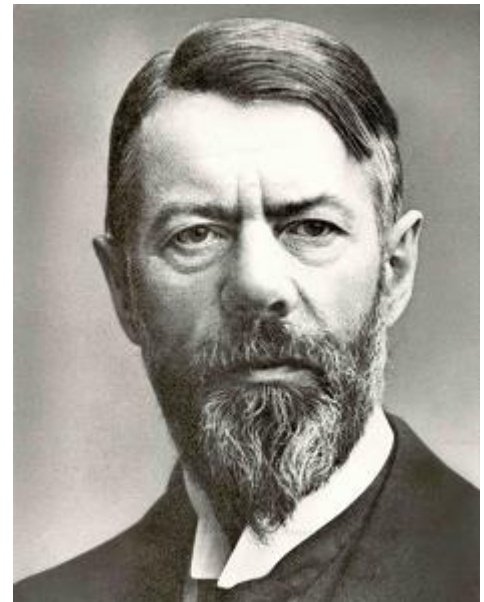
CAPITALISM

Walby, S - 'Theorizing Patriarchy' 1990

FEMINISM

Walby writes from a **feminist** perspective.

Walby argued that the nature of patriarchy in Western society has changed, in the past private patriarchy involved the direct control of women by their fathers or husbands. Whilst in contemporary Western society a form of public patriarchy exists, women have access to public life but they are generally segregated into low paid, low status jobs where they are collectively exploited by male- dominated society.

Walby described six patriarchal structures which restrict women and help to maintain male domination of society.

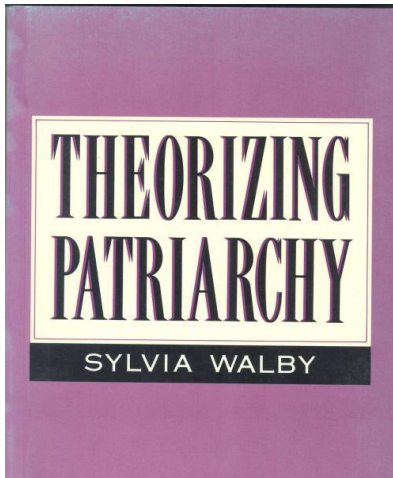- **P**aid work: Today, men continue to dominate the best-paid jobs and women are still paid less than men are, and do more part-time work.
- **E**xploitation through unpaid housework
- **C**ulture and mass-media are 'anti-women' in key respects
- **S**exual double standard: male promiscuity is celebrated whilst female promiscuity is seen as deviant and morally wrong
- **T**he state: The government does little to help women, i.e. wage gap
- **V**iolence: men use violence to control women

- **These are "THE SIX PILLARS OF PATRIARCHY" according to Walby (PECS TV)**

Glossary: Social Stratification

	ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1.	**Poverty (2x definitions)**	**Absolute poverty:** is when people have incomes that are insufficient to obtain the minimum needed to survive (i.e. shelter, food, water, clothing) **Relative poverty:** is when people cannot afford to meet the general standard of living of most other people in their society
2.	**Status (2x types)**	**Achieved:** Social positions that are earned based on personal talents or merit. **Ascribed:** Social positions that are fixed and birth and unchanging over time, including hereditary title linked to family background (e.g. Princess, Lord)
3.	**Cycle of deprivation**	The idea that deprivation and poverty are passed on from parents to their children
4.	**Life chances**	An individual's chances of achieving positive or negative outcomes as they progress through life. Life chances are related to health, education, housing, employment
5.	**Authority and power**	Authority: the exercise of power based on consent of agreement Power: the dominance and control of one individual or group over others
6.	**Embourgeoisement**	A hypothesis suggesting that working class families are becoming middle class in their norms and values as their incomes and standard of living improves.
7.	**Poverty trap**	People can be trapped in poverty if an increase in income reduces the benefits they are entitled to. For example, an employed person receiving means-tested benefits could be worse off after a wage rise if they now earn too much to qualify for benefits.
8.	**Social mobility (3x types)**	**Vertical:** movement up or down between the layers or strata of society. **Inter-generational:** movement up or down between the layers as measured between generations of a family. **Intra-generational:** movement of an individual over the course of their life up or down from one occupational classification to another.
9.	**Affluence**	Having a lot of money and material possessions
10.	**Social Stratification**	The way that society is structured into hierarchical strata (layers) with the most privileged at the top and the least favoured at the bottom. Social class is an example of a social stratification system.
	DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
11.	**Bureaucracy**	An organisation (such as a government department, e.g. DfE – education), that operates as a hierarchy with a clear set of rules. Bureaucratic authority is based on a set of rules that operate within a bureaucracy.
12.	**Relative income standard of poverty**	A measure of poverty based on how much income a household has compared to other households. Households could be put in rank order, and then you can identify 10% of the households with lowest incomes.
13.	**Class dealignment**	Weakening of the links between social class and voting behaviour
14.	**Classless society**	A society in which there is no private ownership of property and so no clearly structured social classes.
15.	**Environmental poverty**	A way of measuring deprivation in terms of conditions such as inadequate housing, a lack of a garden, inadequate outdoor play facilities and air pollution.
16.	**Functionally important roles**	Key positions in society that, for examples, provide essential services and ensure society's survival over time.
17.	**Instrumentalism**	An attitude or approach to something (such as paid work) where it a means to an end (e.g. the wages provide a comfortable lifestyle) rather than an end in itself (e.g. job satisfaction).
18.	**Welfare state**	A system in which the state takes responsibility for protecting the health and welfare of its citizens and meeting their social needs. The state does this by providing services (e.g. the NHS) and benefits (e.g. Income Support).
19.	**Pluralism**	An approach, which argues that a range of views, interests, and opinions exists in society and no one group, dominates the political process.

Practice Exam Questions

3 marks (Describe)

- Describe what sociologists mean by the term 'social stratification'
- Describe what sociologists mean by the term absolute poverty
- Describe what sociologists mean by the term relative deprivation
- Describe what sociologists mean by the 'poverty trap
- Describe what sociologists mean by achieved status
- Describe what sociologists mean by the underclass

3 marks (Identify and describe)

- Identify and describe one example pf social stratification
- Identify one way of measuring social class and explain why this measure might be used
- Identify and describe one problem that sociologists might encounter when investigating social mobility
- Identify and describe one way in which governments have tried to reduce age discrimination in Britain over the last 15 years
- Identify and describe one sociological explanation of crime
- Identify and describe one example of achieved status

4 marks (Identify and explain)

- Identify and explain one reason why the importance of class may have declined over the last 50 years
- Identify and explain one reason for the gender pay gap
- Identify and explain one advantage of using group interviews to study minority ethnic groups' experiences of unemployment.
- Identify and explain one factor that might affect young people's life chances
- Identify and explain one disadvantage of using content analysis to investigate the way the media portray asylum seeks and refugees
- Identify and explain one reason why women are more likely than men to experience poverty in the UK
- Identify one way in which sociologists may measure poverty and explain one disadvantage of using this measure
- Identify and explain one difference between wealth and income
- Identify and explain one disadvantage of using social surveys to investigate people's experience of poverty

12 marks (Discuss how far)

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that children who are born into poor families in Britain will go on to experience poverty over the course of their lives
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that the behaviour and culture of individuals is one of the most important reasons for poverty in modern Britain
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that there is an underclass in Modern Britain Society
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that gender is the most significant division in British Society today

Unit 7:
Sociological research methods

In the context of the various social structures, social processes and social issues detailed in the specification, students should be able to:

- Identify, describe and explain various methods and methodological issues
- Identify and explain the advantages and disadvantages, strengths and weaknesses of a particular method for a specific area of research
- Demonstrate an understanding of the process of research design for a specific area of research, including practical difficulties and ethical issues
- Demonstrate an understanding of the relevance and usefulness of various primary and secondary sources for a specific area of research
- Demonstrate the ability to interpret data presented in a variety of forms.

Content Additional information

Research design

- Describe and explain the processes involved in research design: the establishment of appropriate aims and relevant hypotheses, the use of pilot studies, and the selection of appropriate sampling methods and the analysis of data.

Qualitative and quantitative methods

- Describe and explain qualitative and quantitative methods (questionnaires, interviews, observations) and assess the value, application, and strengths and weaknesses of different methods.
- Assess the usefulness of the mixed methods approach.

Different types of data

- Assess the usefulness of different types of data, qualitative and quantitative data, and official and nonofficial statistics.

Primary and secondary sources

- Describe and explain primary and secondary sources of data.

Interpretation of data

- Demonstrate the ability to interpret graphs, diagrams, charts, and tables to discern patterns and trends in statistical data.

Practical issues

- Practical issues including time, cost, and access.

Ethical issues

- Ethical issues are consent, confidentiality and harm to participants and how the issues can be addressed.

Research Methods Knowledge Organiser

Stages of carrying out research	Ethical Issues	Sampling
• Generate a testable **hypothesis**: a statement/question that can be investigated • **Design** your study: choosing the correct research methods and sampling strategy • Conduct a **pilot study** (practice research investigation): designed to see if the main study is feasible • Apply your revised research method/s by **collecting primary/secondary data** • **Analyse data** to see if it is reliable, to make it into useful information, and to represent it using graphs/chart to investigate trends, patterns and correlations • **Draw reasoned conclusions** that are presented in a clear and useful manner	• **Consent** - Participants must give their consent (permission) to take part. • **Informed consent** - Participants must be made aware of any dangers/risks, and be made aware of their right to leave the research at any stage (right to withdraw). • **Safety** - Researchers have a duty to protect their participants (and research team) and not to expose them to undue risks. This includes causing emotional distress. • **Sensitivity** - Researchers should be sensitive when dealing with vulnerable groups. • **Debriefing** - At the end of the experiment, participants must be debriefed: explained the nature of the research and how the experiment works. • **Confidentiality/Anonymity** - Researchers must respect the confidentiality of their participants. This also includes storing all relevant data securely. • **Not misrepresenting data** - Researchers must have integrity: they must be honest and not tamper with data	• **Random sampling** – This is when everyone has an equal chance of being selected. • **Systematic sampling** – Choosing randomly from a list. E.g. every 5th, 10th or 20th person on a register or from a list • **Stratified sampling** – to make the sample as representative as possible, the sample frame will be divided into a number of smaller groups, such as social class, age, gender, ethnicity etc. Individuals are then drawn at random from these groups. • **Snowball sampling** – This is when you ask your participants to recommend other participants • Opportunity sampling – Where the most convenient or suitable persons are picked • **Cluster sampling** – This is when the researcher divides the population into separate groups, called clusters. A random sample of clusters is selected from the population. • **Quota sampling** – interviews must question an exact quota (number) of people from categories such as females, teenagers, in proportion to the numbers in the wider population.

Different Methods of Research

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Overt Observations	- Can collect detailed and **in-depth qualitative data** which is likely to be high in **validity** so it can help you understand what people do and why - If **non-participant** then you are likely to remain apart from your research subjects and so will remain more **objective** - If **participant observation** is used you will really understand the group under study and see things from their point of view - There is no deception involved in the research so nobody feels compromised - If **structured** using **grid tally observation** and **operationalised** terms then you can get reliable data	**Overt observations** may result in the group under study changing their behaviour due to the observer – the **Hawthorne effect** **Time consuming** and likely to be **expensive** to complete as many **observations** are **longitudinal** - It can often be difficult to **gain access** to the groups you wish to observe - Often difficult to take notes when observing so many researchers have to rely on their memories later which means much can be forgotten or **misconstrued** - If **participant observation** is used, many researchers find that they become too involved with the group they are studying and start to lose their **objectivity** - It doesn't get **reliable data** (**participant observation** is **unstructured**)
Covert observations	- Allows the researcher to see **participants** in their natural environment – improved **ecological validity**; - Prevents people from changing their 'normal' behaviour – avoids the **Hawthorne Effect**; - Increases validity as people do not know they are being studied; - If using **participant observation**, it allows the researcher to act as part of the group under study and to really understand things from their point of view – improved **validity**; - May allow research to be conducted upon groups that would not normally allow researchers in i.e. prostitutes, the homeless, criminals, gangs etc.	**Covert** observations have a number of associated **ethical issues** - Difficult to gain access to the group you wish to study e.g. for a covert **participant observation**, as groups are often deviant/taboo i.e. drug dealers, gangs etc.; - Not **ethical** – difficult to morally justify spying on people; - May put the researcher in danger if the group find out they are being researched and have not given their **consent**; - Danger of the researcher 'going native' and losing their **objectivity**; - Research conducted covertly is typically **small scale** and therefore is unlikely to be **representative** meaning **generalisations** cannot be made; - Taking notes/recording information in a covert research study would be very difficult meaning information could be forgotten/changed and therefore lessen its **validity**
Longitudinal study	- Allows a researcher to build up a picture of **social life** that recognises changes over time - Helps to prevent the **study** from going out of date - Allows for lots of depth and detail - Helps the researcher to build a **rapport** with the participants - Gains more **valid** data	- Difficult to manage as people's circumstances are constantly changing **Time consuming** for the researcher **Costly** for the researcher **Data** is not **reliable** - Researcher may have to cope with **participants** dropping out of the study or moving away

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Interviews	• The researcher gets to speak to the **respondents** face-to-face so can persuade people to answer thus reducing the problem of **non-response** • **Interviews** can be conducted by phone, avoiding the expense and possible issues of social **desirability/interviewer bias** • In **unstructured** and **semi-structured interviews**, the researcher can probe to really find out what the **respondent** means, so increasing **validity** • They produce **qualitative** data that can be used to find out about attitudes and opinions; • Interviews are good for gathering **in-depth** and detailed information • Questions can be rephrased and explained if respondents aren't sure what they're being asked; Group interviews allow discussions to take place to really explore feelings and viewpoints • **Structured interviews** allow for **respondents** answers to be **compared** and are a **reliable** method • Interviews involve **interaction** between the **researcher** and the **respondent** encouraging open and honest responses which are likely to be more **valid** • Seeing body language helps you to **build rapport**/tell if someone is telling the truth • **High response** rate – difficult to say no to a researcher face-to-face	• Interviews are quite **time intensive** as they involve a conversation • Can cost a lot to **conduct** as interviewers have to be trained • **Sample sizes** are often quite small when interviews are used as a research method which may lead to issues with a lack of **representativeness** and **generalisability** of data • Interviews are conducted in **artificial situations** therefore you can never be certain that what is said in an interview is actually what the **respondent** really thinks • Interviews are only as successful as the researcher carrying them out, particularly true in an **unstructured interview** where **probing** is essential • If respondents are not asked the same questions i.e. in unstructured interviews, then **comparisons** between findings are hard to make • There is a risk of **interviewer bias** which may affect the **validity** of the data • Sometimes **respondents** may give answers that they feel the interviewer wants to hear, so reducing **validity** – **socially desirable** responses • Recording **errors** may reduce the **validity** of the data collected • Respondents can lie e.g. because they don't want to look bad in front of someone, which reduces validity
Questionnaires	• Relatively easy and cheap to complete research therefore can target a large **sample** and gain more data • If comprised (made up) of **closed questions**, is good for gathering **quantitative data** which can be used to compare the responses of different **social groups** • Relatively quick and easy to complete as a **respondent** so shouldn't be any problems in terms of knowing what to do • If **self-completion** can be completed at leisure allowing people time to complete properly and fully • If **postal** can be sent out to a wide geographical sample and so improve **representativeness** of **data** gathered • Often completed in private so avoids any **researcher effects** • **Standardised questions** means the **reliability** of the data gathered should be high	• Often uses **closed questions** so unlikely to produce detailed, **qualitative** data therefore not good for finding out why people think/act as they do • **Closed questions** may mean people have to tick an option box closest to what they think rather than what they actually think thus reducing **validity** of data gathered • May be rushed or not taken seriously meaning answers may lack **validity** • If **self-completion** no way of checking the person you intended to complete the questionnaire actually did so • Problems of **non-response** may result in a **distorted sample** and thus less **representative** data • If **self-completion** no way for **respondent** to raise any queries about any part of the method meaning that it may not be completed in the way that was intended • Any **leading questions** may **bias** respondents answers
Content Analysis	• Cheap to complete research – only really need some media to analyse • Can target a **sample** and gain more data • Easy to research - the rapid growth of the internet has made the process even easier with a vast array of media now available online to access and analyse • Straightforward to complete research as you really just need to **tally** up the number of times each **category** in your grid/chart is shown • **Reliable** method – others can check the **findings** by using the same **grid** and applying it to the same sample to see if they get the same results • Produces **quantitative data** which can be turned into **statistics** so various **comparisons** can be made to establish any **patterns**	• The media is often **biased** so the researcher needs to be aware that results may also be biased • Success of the **method** depends on the quality of the **categories** - if important points are missed out then these will also be missing from the **results** which results in an incomplete picture • If **categories** are not clearly **operationalised** then there will be a lack of consistency when completing research leading to issues of **reliability** - especially important if research is being completed by a team as they would all be recording different information in different categories. • The **quantitative data** produced will not be detailed or **in-depth** or explain why the content is as it is, leading some researchers to question its usefulness • Results are often based on the judgements and opinions of just one person, which is likely to make any conclusions **biased**
Official National Statistics	• Many **official statistics** are freely available to researchers and the public. • Easy to **access** and to navigate by using the ONS website. • Enable us to make comparisons between social groups and regions, for example the UK National Census • Enable us to make **historical comparisons** over time because they often go back a long way. • Allow us to spot **trends**, find **correlations,** and make **generalisations**. • Allow the research to remain detached so there is less room for the **subjective bias** of the researcher to interfere with the research process.	• **Statistics** are free, but they are **expensive** and **time consuming** to collect. • The data, which exists, and the **categories** and **indicators** used might not fit a researcher's specific research purposes. • Some Official Statistics lack **validity**, for example crimes may go **unreported** and so are not counted. • The way that some **social trends** are measured changes over time – sometimes making **historical comparisons** difficult. • Official statistics may also lack **validity** because they are collected by the state and massaged to make things look better than they actually are.