Sociology

GCSE Sociology
Your Complete Revision Guide
to
Paper 1

St. Julie's Mock Exam
Option C – Mon 20th Jan
Option A- Friday 25th Jan

GCSE Exam
Monday 18th May 2020 (pm)

Name:

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Unit 1: Key concepts and processes of cultural transmission

The first section of the paper and consists of:

- 5 x 1 marks
- 3 x 2 marks
- 3 x 4 marks

<u>Learning Checklist</u>

Key Terms:
- Culture
- Norms
- Values
- Roles
- Status
- Identity
- Sanctions
- Cultural diversity

Debates over the acquisition of identity:
- Nature/nurture debate
- Examples of feral children
- Examples of cultural diversity

The process of socialisation:

Be able to explain and describe what agents of socialisation are including:
- family
- education
- media
- peer group

Be able to explain and describe how agents of socialistion pass on culture and identity e.g. how do they pass on gender, class and ethnicity

Explain what formal social control is and give examples
Explain what informal social control is and give examples

Key Concepts and Words

Concept	Definition
Consensus theory	A theory, like functionalism, that believes all the parts and institutions of society need to work together to make society function properly
Conflict theory	A theory, such as Marxism or Feminism, believes that there is disagreement between people in society and this is what drives it forward. For example, disagreement between genders, race or class.
Conformity	When people follow social accepted norms, values and expectations
Correlation	A statistical link between two factors
Deviance	Actions that go against social norms and values. Behaviours that go against accepted standards
Economy	The state of a country or region in terms of the production and consumption of goods and services and the supply of money
Feminism	Views society as a conflict between men and women and views society as a patriarchy where men have too much power.
Functionalism	The theory that all aspects of a society serve a function and are necessary for the survival of that society.
Gender Roles	Distinct sets of behaviours and norms set by society for men and women.
Interactionism	A view that rejects large-scale theories about society and behaviour: focussing on individual choices, actions, and communications between people.

Life chances	The opportunities each individual has to improve his or her quality of life.
Macro theory	This theory looks at the bigger picture. It is concerned about bigger social structures and their impact on society.
Marxism	Views society as a conflict between different social classes: the wealthy (bourgeoisie) and working-class (proletariat)
Micro theory	This theory looks at the small picture. It focuses on individuals and their interactions.
Nature/Nurture Debate	A long standing debate about whether our behaviours are the product of inherent biological factors (like genetics) or our environment.
Norms	Something which is considered normal in a particular society. Social expectations that guide behaviour.
Primary	Learning societies norms and values from your family at an early age to help
socialisation	you fit into society.
Social Control	Systems and processes in society that aim to prevent, discourage, and/or punish deviant behaviours. (e.g. laws, police)
Social issues	A problem, produced by society, that influences a considerable number of the individuals.
Social Processes	The pattern of growth and change in a society over time.
Social Structures	An arrangement of institutions where human beings in a society interact and live together.

Society	A large community of people with some degree of social order.
Sociology	The study of society.
Structural theory	Sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability.
Values	What people generally consider important in a particular society.
Nature	We act and behave the way we do because we are born that way.
Nurture	We act the way we do because we have been taught to do so by the agents of socialisation.
Feral children	Meaning 'wild' or 'unsocialised'. These children have been removed from normal human contact and have missed out on normal processes of human socialisation.
Bourgeoisie	The middle class or elite. These own the land or businesses.
Proletariat	The working class. These are forced into labour.

Norms and Values

Norms are something that is considered to be normal within society and come from our values which we think are important. For example, in Britain we value punctuality therefore, a norm is for us to be on time. We also value politeness as a culture therefore it's a norm for us to use please and thank you.

Norms and values are different in every country / religion / culture. What each country values is important. It is a norm for us to eat food with a knife and fork in the UK but in China it is a norm for them to eat with chopsticks and consider it unusual to eat with a knife and fork.

Norms and values can not only change due to the country or religion, but they can also change in the same place over time. For example, going to university was considered a rare thing 50 years ago but today, education is more valued by society therefore it is a norm for people to stay in education longer.

Culture

A culture is shared norms and values between a group of people. Feature of a culture could be shared language, religion, beliefs or ways of living. These norms and values are passed down to the next generations by the parents and therefore your culture can move with you when you move around different countries. In England we have lots of different cultures because we have lots of people immigrating into the country who have brought their cultures with them. This is called cultural diversity - one society that has lots of different cultures within it.

Conformity and Deviance

If you are following the norms and values of society, this is called conformity. You are conforming to the norms and values. If you go against the norms and values of society, this is called deviance. Examples of conformity are going to school, wearing trousers if you're a boy, having long hair if you're a girl, short hair if you're a boy. Examples of deviance are farting in public, boys wearing dresses and high heels, being rude to people, constantly skipping school.

Sanctions

Sanctions are put in place to either praise following the rules of society (conformity) or punish for breaking rules. There are two types of sanctions: formal sanctions – a punishment for breaking a law or written rule and informal sanctions – a punishment for breaking an informal rule, imposed by people around you. Positive sanctions are things that are used to reward positive behaviour. For example in schools positive behaviour is rewarded through trips, behaviour points.

Identity

Your identity is what makes up who you are and how you behave. You gain your identity through socialisation and the learning of norms and values from your parents.

Gender roles

These are the stereotypical roles that are taken by males and females within society and the family. Gender roles change over time and between countries and cultures. For example in Asian

families women predominantly take the expressive role in the family which means that they are nurturing and caring and take the main role of the housewife. In comparison, it can be fairly common in some parts of India to have matriarchal families - where women are the head of the household instead of the man.

Nature Nurture Debate

The debate of whether we act and behave the way we do because we are born to do so (nature) or do we act the way we do because we have been taught to do so by the agents of socialisation (nurture). Nature believes that behaviour is mostly determined by our genetics. Scientists suggest we inherit behaviour traits from our parents, just like we would eye colour. Scientists argue that sexuality, intelligence and maternal instinct are all coded in the genes. The example of the Jim Twins support this view as well as the story of David Reimer (circumcision gone wrong - gender and sex). Nurture believes that human behaviour is mostly learned. Individuals are socialised into the culture of their family and society and taught how-to live-in society by the agencies of socialisation. Intelligence and maternal instinct are a result of nurture. Cultural diversity: All societies and cultures would be similar of behaviour was natural.

Feral Children

Feral means 'wild' or 'unsocialised'. Feral children have been removed from normal human contact and have missed out on normal processes of human socialisation. They have not learned social behaviour and are unable to participate as humans within their society. This proves human behaviour is learned. The main example you should use to back this up is Oxana Malaya from Ukraine who was neglected by her parents at birth and started to adopt dog like behaviour. She was born as a normal child and through "living with dogs" her mannerisms became more dog like than human like. You can also use the Jim Twins who were separated at birth but lead an extremely similar life including their occupation, hobbies, bad habits and their possessions.

Socialisation

Socialisation is learning the norms and values of that particular society to be able to fit in and conform. You learn the norms and values from your parents and family when you are young (this is primary socialisation) and you learn it from education, the media, religion etc when you grow a little older (this is secondary socialisation). An agent of socialisation is the institution (part of society) or the group that socialises you. For example, the family, education, the media, your friends.

Role Models

A role model is somebody that we look to in order to know how to act. This can be somebody we know or just somebody that we see in the media. An example of this is our parents. We learn how to be a male or a female from our mother or our father. If you lack one of those role models, when you are growing up you are less likely to grow into a well rounded, law abiding person as you haven't been able to learn from your parent. Having said this, you can look up to a role model that isn't a parent. You can have positive and negative role models at school in the teachers and the older children - you look at these people to see how you should behave and copy their behaviour.

Theories

There are 4 main sociological theories that you need to know: functionalism, Marxism, feminism and interactionism. Marxism is concerned mainly with the class system and capitalism (the system that keeps the rich people rich and the poor people poor), feminism is mainly concerned with the conflict between men and women and how society reproduces patriarchy (men having more power over women), functionalism believes that society all needs to work together for society to be stable (value consensus) and interactionism believes that you cannot generalise as each person in society experiences something different.

Section A - Test yourself

1. Give three features that a culture share

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    b. ....

    c. ....

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2. How can you define cultural diversity?

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3. Give examples of a value and the norms that come from it

Value	Norm
e.g. Politeness	e.g. Using please and thank you

4. Explain the difference between conformity and deviance

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5. What is a sanction? Give an example of a positive and a negative sanction

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6. Name as many agencies of formal control as you can in the space below:

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7. How do we form our identity? What can affect it?

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8. What is the nature nurture debate? Give evidence to back up each side.

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9. Why do sociologists prefer the nurture side of the debate?

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10. What is meant by a feral child? How does it fit into the nature nurture debate?

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11. What is the difference between primary and secondary socialisation?

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12. What is a role model? Name a positive and a negative role model in today's society. Explain how they are positive and negative.

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13. Match the theory with the key word below:

Marxism
Feminism
Functionalism
Interactionism

Value Consensus
Capitalism
Individual choice
Patriarchy

Unit 2: Families

This is the second section of the paper and consists of the following questions:

- 1 x 2 marks

- 1 x 4 marks

- 1 x 8 marks

- 1 x 15 marks

Family diversity and different family forms in the UK and within a global context

Understand what a family is and explain the different types
- nuclear family
- extended family
- reconstituted family (blended/step)
- lone parent family
- single sex family
- cohabiting family
- beanpole family

Describe and explain different ethnic minority family forms

Describe and explain global family forms including:
- polygamy
- arranged marriages
- China's one child policy

Social changes and family structures

LEFTINS

- Law Changes
- Economic Factors
- Feminism
- Technology

- Immigration
- Norms and Values
- Secularisation

Explain the impact the above social changes had on:

- family diversity, including the work of Robert and Rhona Rapoports

- divorce rates and serial monogamy

- cohabitation, single parent families, later age of marriage

- singlehood

- family size

- segregated and joint conjugal roles, symmetrical families, domestic division of labour
- New Man
- decision making / money management
- dual career families
- leisure activities
- Boomerang families
- Child centred families
- Sandwich generation
- Crisis of masculinity

Explain the impact the above social changes had on:
- theory of symmetrical family and principle of stratified diffusion, developed from the functionalist perspective of Willmott and Young

Sociological theories of the family

Explain the conflict versus consensus debate on the role of the family
Explain Functionalist theory of the role and functions of family:
- Parsons and primary socialisation and stabilisation of adult personalities
- Murdoch and sex, reproduction, economic and socialisation

Explain the Marxist theory of families serving the interests of capitalism, including the work of:
- Zaretsky

Explain the Feminist critique of family as a patriarchal institution, including the work of:

- Delphy and Leonard
- Oakley and the conventional family

Explain the views of New Right sociologist on the family

Criticism of the Family:

Describe loss of traditional functions as a criticism of the family

Describe the lack of contact with wider kinship network as a criticism of the family

Describe dysfunctional families as a criticism of the family

Describe the status and role of women

Describe isolation and unrealistic expectations as a criticism of the family

Describe marital breakdown as a criticism of the family

Describe the dark side of the family as a criticism of the family

Describe the decline in traditional families as a criticism of the family

Key Words and Concepts

Concept	Definition
Agents of Socialisation	Societal structures and processes that teach individuals behavioural norms and shared values, encouraging conformity
Child rearing	Raising children
Expressive role	Parsons claimed women's role in the family is to provide care, love, affection, security and all the necessary emotional support a family member might need.
Gender Roles	Distinct sets of behaviours and norms set by society for men and women.
Instrumental role	Parsons claimed that the man's role within the family is the breadwinner: he is the one who earns money and provides material resources.
Primary socialisation	Learning societies norms and values from your family at an early age to help you fit into society.
Symmetrical family	A family where the domestic division of labour is more equal, and the home more central to social life and social identities.
Crisis of masculinity	The sense of 'lack of purpose, goals, identity and self-esteem' that many men feel due to changes in gender roles.
Conjugal roles	The roles individuals take within a marriage.
Gender roles	The role or behaviour learned by a person as appropriate to their gender, determined by the prevailing cultural norms.
Dual career family	Families in which both parents are in employed work.

New Man	Where man shares the domestic labour more equally, in touch with feminine side and emotions, treats women as equals.
Domestic division of labour	Who does the unpaid work: in the household and with children
Nuclear family	A couple and their dependent children, regarded as a basic social unit.
Empty nest family	When children reach adulthood and independence and leave the family home: leaving a married couple alone.
Conventional family	A form of family that is based on or in accordance with what is generally done or believed. A "normal" family.
Cereal packet family	A certain type of nuclear - this refers to the image most people hold of the family. It is also the picture of the family that the media tends to present, especially in adverts.
Single-parent/Lone-parent family	A family where children are being raised by one parent.
Reconstituted family (also known as blended or stepfamily)	A family unit where one or both parents have children from a previous relationship, but they have combined to form a new family. The parents may or may not then have children with each other.
Same-sex family	A same sex couple living together with children
Extended family	A family containing relatives in addition to the nuclear family
Cohabiting	A couple living together who aren't married
Polygamy	A marriage involving two or more wives or husbands

Polyandry	The practice or condition of having more than one husband or male mate simultaneously.
Matriarchal	The mother or oldest female is the head of the family; government or rule by a woman or women.
Fraternal polyandry	In Tibet, brothers will often share inherited land and share a wife.
Parson's functions of the family	Primary socialisation and Stabilisation of adult personality. He argues that these cannot be removed from the family as they are irreducible.
Murdoch's functions of the family	He stated that there were 4 universal functions of the family. These were sex, reproduction, economic and socialisation.
Rapaport's diversity types	His 5 diversity types - Organisational, Cultural, Social Class, Life Cycle, Family life course diversity
Social isolation	The idea that families isolate children from wider society and community.
Marital breakdown	Increasing numbers of separations, divorces, and dysfunctional families.
Sexism	Discrimination based on sex and gender.
Patriarchal domination	Where males hold primary power and predominate in roles of political leadership, moral authority, social privilege and control of property. In the domain of the family, fathers or father-figures hold authority over women and children.
Dysfunctional family	A family in which conflict, misbehaviour, and often child neglect or abuse on the part of individual parents occur continuously and regularly, leading other members to accommodate such actions.

Canalisation	The way in which parents deter or encourage behaviour on the basis of appropriateness in regards to gender.
Beanpole family	Where there are lots of generations but there aren't many people in each generation.
Matrimonial Causes act 1857	Made divorce easier to access, especially for the less wealthy.
Matrimonial Causes Act 1937	Made divorce easier to access, especially for women.
Arranged marriage	Marriage that is planned or agreed by families.
Social Stigma	Extreme disapproval of a group or a person.
Secularisation	The decline in religion in society.
Adultery	Voluntary sexual intercourse between a married person and a person who is not their spouse.
Serial monogamy	The practice of engaging in a succession of monogamous sexual relationships. Having one partner at a given time, but multiple relationships over time.

Theories of the Family

Functionalist View

There are two main Functionalists that you need to know. Murdock and Parsons. They both believe that the nuclear family is necessary for society to work best and socialise children into the norms and values of the society. This means that they don't like any other family type as they believe that it is destroying the nuclear family and therefore not socialising children properly. Functionalists believe that there are two main roles within the family: expressive (woman's role) and instrumental (male's role).

Murdock's theory came first. He believed that the function of the family is:
1. Reproduction (producing the next generation)
2. Sex (allowing people to let out their sexual desires to stop crime e.g. rape)
3. Meeting economic needs (giving the family food, shelter and warmth)
4. Socialisation (giving children the norms and values of society to enable them to fit in).

Parsons then updated Murdock's view due to the changes in society today and has said that actually we only have two functions of the family. These are:

1. Socialisation (giving children the norms and values of society to enable them to fit in).

2. The warm bath theory (like a warm bath, when you get into the family home all of the worries slip away and you can relax).

Marxist View

Marxists believe that the family is a key institution to reproduce capitalism. Everything in society revolves around the conflict between the upper class (the bourgeoisie) and the lower class (the proletariat) and the exploitation of the lower class by the upper class. The family reproduces capitalism three different ways:

1. **Property** (**Engles** argues that people pass on property, money, businesses and general wealth between generations. The bourgeoisie will pass on lots of wealth whereas the proletariat will not. This keeps the rich people rich and the poor people poor)

2. **Ideologies** (these are the norms and values that are passed down from parents to children. The bourgeoisie will pass down the norms and values of the upper class which allows the upper class to fit in with other upper class structures and the proletariat will pass down working class norms and values which will keep the working class poor and stop them being able to climb the social ladder).

3. **Consumption** (according to **Zaretsky** the family buys a lot of capitalist goods to keep up with everybody. Children ask for the latest phones, fashion items etc in order not to be bulled).

Feminist View

The family reproduces patriarchy and is the key institution for men to exploit (take advantage of) women. **Ann Oakley** argues that the majority (70%) of women are not happy with their role and position within the family as they have to take on three roles: paid labour, housework and the emotional care of family members. This is called the triple shift. The way that the domestic division of labour (who does what in the household) is split up means that women end up taking on most of the unpaid jobs.

Types of Feminism
There are 4 main types of feminism and although they all focus on the patriarchy within the family, they all focus on different aspects of society:

1. Liberal Feminism - concerned with the laws that are changing the position of women e.g. the equal pay act
2. Marxist Feminism - argues that men aren't the problem and the cause of exploitation of women, but their part in capitalism
3. Radical Feminism - believe that men are the enemy and that women should have no contact with them. Believe in "political lesbiansim" - becoming a lesbian to have no contact with men.
4. Difference Feminism - interactionist approach saying that you have to take each woman's position separately.

Interactionist View

Interactionists disagree with all of the other three theories - you cannot generalise and say that just because you are a certain class that your family will keep you this class (Marxism) or that just because you are a woman you are exploited in the family (Feminism) or that just because you come from a traditional nuclear family that you are well socialised into society (Functionalism).

Theories of the family - test yourself

1. What is the functionalist view of the family?

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2. What do functionalists believe are the 4 main functions of the family?

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   b.

   c.

   d.

3. Which functions of the family does Parsons still see as relevant today?

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4. What is the purpose of the family according to a Marxist?

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5. What are the three main arguments to back up the Marxist view on the family?

   a.

   b.

   c.

6. What do Feminists believe about the family?

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7. What are the 4 main types of Feminism?
   a.

   b.

   c.

   d.

8. How is the interactionist theory different from all of the other theories?

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Plan the following question below

"The function of the family is to socialise children into the norms and values of society" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Plan the following question below

"The function of the family is to reproduce capitalism" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Plan the following question below

"The family exploits women" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Family Diversity

Family Diversity

Family diversity are the different types of family that is found in modern Britain today. The changes have happened due to changes in law, immigration, decline in religion (secularisation) and a change in social norms.

Different types of family include: traditional nuclear, lone parent, reconstituted (or blended), same sex, beanpole, empty nest, new nuclear, cohabitation and symmetrical families.

Rappaports Diversity Types

Rappaport and Rappaport talk of 5 different types of family diversity:

1. **Organisational** (the way in which the jobs, tasks and structure of the family is different)
2. **Cultural** (different cultures see the "normal" family type as different. When people move around the world they take their culture with them)
3. **Social Class** (different classes have different "normal" family types. The relationships between adults are children are different in the different social classes)
4. **Life Cycle** (Different generations within the family have different norms within the family. E.g. the traditional housewife role was taken by the woman 50 years ago but today it is accepted that women can be equal)
5. **Family Life Cycle** (everybody's family and ideas of family appear at different times. Eg. at 18 some people are ready to get married, other people are only ready at 30)

Family Diversity over time

Pre-Industrialised families were mainly extended where people lived in big groups. Over time, people started to move for work and therefore their families became nuclear so that they can move around easier with their family.

<u>Family Diversity in different countries</u>

Different countries have different cultures and laws which affect the family.
- **Matriarchal** (where the woman has the power. Opposite of patriarchal
- **Polygyny** (where a man has more than one wife)
- **Polyandry** (where a woman has more than one husband)
- **Fraternal polyandry** (where a woman is married to two brothers)
- **Arranged** (with their consent) and **forced marriages** (against their will)
- China's 1 then 2 child policy to stop the growing population

<u>Reasons for Family Diversity</u>

- Decline in marriage rates and increase in divorce rates
- Less religion (secularisation)
- Increased choice
- Focusing on careers instead of family
- Rise in feminism which gives women more choice

Family Diversity - Test Yourself

1. List as many family types as you can:

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2. What is family diversity?

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3. What do the Rappaports take into account when looking at diversity?

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4. How did industrialisation change the family?

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5. What is the difference between polygamy and polyandry?

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6. Give two ways that family diversity is different in different cultures

    a.

    b.

7. Plan the following question:

"The nuclear family is the most common family type" (15 marks)

For	Against

8. Plan the following question:

"There is no typical family structure any more" (15 marks)

For	Against

Roles within the Family

Conjugal Roles

These are the roles that are taken in the household by men and women. There are two types of roles - segregated conjugal roles and joint conjugal roles. Segregated conjugal roles go with the traditional nuclear family where the man is the main breadwinner and the woman is the housewife. These roles are unequal. Joint conjugal roles are taken in the new nuclear symmetrical families where both the male and the female share the same roles equally.

Domestic division of labour

This is who takes on what jobs in the household and the family. E.g. housework, cleaning, cooking, looking after children, looking after elderly relatives etc. **Ann Oakley** has found that most women were unhappy with their situation, with 70% of the women interviewed came out as 'dissatisfied'. Women are said to be doing 40% more housework than men, even today. Women on average do 26 hours whereas men on average are doing 16 hours. **Delphy and Leonard** argue that men are exploiting women for their unpaid labour in the household as a part of the capitalist structure.

Money and Decision Making

Edgell (1980) found the important family decisions such as financial issues tended to be made by the husband, while women were left to make the less important decisions on their own such as what they will eat for dinner or what the children would wear. **Jan Phal's** (1993) research found men tended to control and manage a couple's money and women didn't have control over the money.

Gender Roles

These are the roles that the men and the women take within the household. Functionalist **Parsons** believes that women should, and do, take the expressive role (housework, cooking, cleaning, looking after the children, looking after the elderly relatives) and that men should, and do, take the instrumental role (being the breadwinner, making the important decisions, looking after the money). These gender roles are changing over time and are now becoming more equal due to the rise in Feminism. This has then resulted in more symmetrical families where the roles are shared

equally on both sides (the male and the female). **Wilmott and Young** also talked about the **symmetrical family.**

Changing Family Roles

Over time there has been a shift in the views of society and the family. There are many different family types that are now more common and there has been a shift in the way in which society works and how the family fits into society. Some of most noticeable changes from the agricultural period to now include:

- The nuclear family used to have stronger connection to the wider extended family.
- Elderly relatives lived in the family home. Today they tend to live by themselves or in 'old people's' care homes.
- Families lived in smaller communities and it was rare for people to travel outside that area for work or visiting friends / family.
- Only sons could inherit land and carry on the family name
    - Fathers hoped for sons as the sons would be his workers.
    - Changes in law have changed how parents relate to sons and daughters
- The relationship between man and wife has changed. There have been changes in divorce laws, inheritance, property rights, gender roles
- Children have a higher chance of survival today and therefore they are at the centre of the family much more than they used to be.

Things that have changed	Things that haven't changed
After the agricultural period, work required physical strength: men gained dominance over the workplace. Some feminist sociologists have suggested that the power imbalance we see today between men and women started at this point.	There was equality in the agricultural period in terms of male and female power. They both shared the workload. The family was not patriarchal - Willmott and Young's symmetrical family.
Women have greater control over pregnancy now there has been an increase in contraception.	Gender pay gap
In the past women could not inherit meaning only sons could inherit wealth from fathers, this meant women were completely dependant on men for money. Women can now inherit too and are not reliant on men for money.	
Marriages were often arranged and in the teenage years. This isn't the case today.	
Infant mortality was high, today it's much lower and children are seen as much more important in the family.	
Children aren't expected to contribute to the family financially like they were. They are now allowed to go to school and not sent to work.	

Crisis of Masculinity

Changing gender roles within the family and everything becoming more equal, it can be said that men are facing a crisis of masculinity - this is where they don't know what their role is in society any more as they are not the main breadwinner in the family and there is a decline in "masculine" manual labour jobs. There are several pieces of evidence for and against the crisis of masculinity.

Evidence For	Evidence Against
Male suicide rate are consistently higher than female ones	Socialisation means that men are less likely to talk about their feelings or adapt to the modern symmetrical family
Male rate of homelessness and addiction is much higher than the female	
Males in prison much higher than females of the same crime	

Symmetrical Families

Willmott and Young argue that families now are becoming much more equal with both the male and the female sharing roles. They argue that the traditional nuclear family no longer exists and that we have something called the neo-conventional (or new nuclear) family. This just means that all of the roles are shared equally between the partners and there is no exploitation within the family.

Roles within the Family - Test Yourself

1. What do sociologists mean by the term 'conjugal roles'?

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2. What do sociologists mean by the term domestic division of labour?

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3. Explain the difference between joint conjugal roles and segregated conjugal roles

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4. What are the two roles that Parsons talks about within the family?

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5. Who makes the decisions and manages the money in the family? What sociologists support this?

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6. What do sociologists mean by a crisis of masculinity?

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7. What does Willmott and Young argue about the changing gender roles?

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8. Plan the following question:

"The family has changed dramatically since the agricultural period". Do you agree or disagree? (15 marks)

For	Against

9. Plan the following question:

"The roles within the family are equal". Do you agree or disagree? (15 marks)

For	Against

Marriage and Divorce

Marriage trends

The marriage rate is decreasing - in 1931 there were just over 300,000 marriages per year in England and Wales. By 2011 this has dropped to around 220,000 per year. That means that less people are getting married today than they used to. People are also getting married older than they used to - the average age of marriage in 1981 was around 28 and in 2014 it was around 35. This means that the people that are getting married are marrying at a later age.

Reasons for marriage, divorce and family type trends

LEFTINS

- Secularisation (a decline in religion) has meant that living together and having se before marriage isn't as frobidden as it was in the ge of religion.
- Decline in stigma (disapproval) means that there are more lone parents, more divorces and more options available.
- More women are focusing on their career rather than being a housewife so they get married and start families later
- Changes in the law have meant that it i easier and cheaper to get a divorce
- An increase in contraception choices have meant that people are having children at a later stage and there is no hurry to be married.

Divorce trends

- Divorces are dramatically increasing in time. In 1931 there were less than 1,000 divorces in England and Wales whereas in 2011 there were around 120,000. That means that around 40% of marriages end if divorce.

Reasons for the divorce trends

- Changes in the law allow for women to file for divorce as well as men.
- The changes in law have also made divorce much cheaper and easier to access for everybody
- Secularisation (decline in religion) has meant that it is more widely acceptable to file for divorce
- Decline in stigma (disapproval) means that people no longer feel like they have to stay together if they don't want to be together any more
- Arranged marriages don't always work out
- Empty nest marriages - where the family moves out and away (children go to university or move out) means that the parents realise they no longer have anything in common so file for divorce.

Marriage and Divorce - Test yourself

1. What is the trend for marriage rates?

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2. What are the reasons for this trend?

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3. What is the trend for divorce rates?

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4. What are the reasons for this trend?

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5. Plan the answer to this question

"The main reason for a high divorce rate is the changes in the law"

(15 marks)

For	Against

6. Plan the answer to this question

"The main reason for a lower marriage rate is secularisation" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Unit 3: Education

This is the third section of the paper and consists of:

1 x 15 marks

1 x 2 marks

1 x 5 marks

1 x 8 marks

<u>Learning Checklist</u>

Sociological theories of the role of education	
Explain the conflict versus consensus debate on the role of education	
Explain the consensus view of Functionalism	
Explain the Functionalist theory of education • serving the needs of society and the economy • facilitating social mobility and fostering social • cohesion including the work of Durkheim on education as the transmission of norms and values • achieved status and education operating on meritocratic principles, with reference to the work of Parsons	
Explain the conflict view of Marxism	
Explain the Marxist theory of education • serving the needs of capitalism • education maintaining inequality, including the work of Bowles and Gintis on the correspondence theory	
Explain the conflict view of Feminism	
Explain the Feminist theory of education • perpetuating patriarchy including the work of Becky Francis on the patriarchal nature of schools	
Processes inside schools	

Explain processes within schools affecting educational achievement:
- labelling, including the work of Hargreaves
- hidden curriculum
- streaming, banding
- anti-school sub-cultures including the work of Willis
- teacher expectations, including the work of Ball • self-fulfilling prophecy

Patterns of educational achievement – social class

Explain the contribution of material factors, including the work of: • Halsey on class based inequalities	
Explain the contribution of cultural factors	
Explain the contribution of labelling	
Explain the contribution of catchment areas	
Explain the contribution of types of school, including the work of: • Ball on streaming, choice and competition between schools	
Explain the contribution of counter school cultures, including the work of **Paul Willis**	
Explain the contribution of material and cultural factors	
Explain the contribution of the curriculum	
Explain the contribution of labelling	
Explain the contribution of racism	
Explain the contribution of more employment opportunities for females	
Explain the contribution of feminism	
Explain the contribution of feminisation of schools	
Explain the contribution of crisis of masculinity	
Explain the contribution of peer pressure and sub cultures	

Key Concepts

Concept	Definition
Academies	Failed schools taken over by Central Government, in partnership with private sponsors such as businesses or churches. They are state schools which receive their funding directly from the government.
Achieved status	A position earned or merited, such as captain of a school team or doctor.
Ascribed status	A position born into, not achieved or earned, such as son or daughter.
Anti-school subculture	Negative about school. Tend to be working-class.
Comprehensive school system	A school that does not choose students based on academic achievement. It is a nonselective and all children attend the same type of secondary school regardless of ability.
Correspondence principle	The theory of Bowles and Gintis that school mirrors work and prepares pupils to work in unfulfilling, boring jobs without rebelling.
Cultural capital	Advantages that parents can pass on to their children in the form of knowledge, resources and lifestyle choices which help their children to be successful.
Cultural deprivation	Being without the experiences or support needed to develop into a successful adult.
Deschooling	The idea that schools should be abolished because the compulsory nature of schools hinders the learning process.
Ethnocentric curriculum	The attitude of a school or the policies of a school which gives priority to a particular ethnic group whilst disregarding others e.g. through only teaching British History.

Faith school	Where the school is associated with a particular religion (or religious denomination) teaches that religion and practices that religion as a community.
Formal curriculum	A planned programme of objectives, content, learning experiences, resources and assessments. (E.g. Core subjects such as Science, Maths and English.)
Free schools	A school set up by an organization or a group of individuals, funded by the government but not controlled by the local authority which is free to attend.
Further and Higher education	Students 16 and over that stay in education to continue study such as through Alevels, vocational course and then degree level study.
Hidden Curriculum	Things learnt in school that are not formally taught as part of the official curriculum, such as valuing punctuality, conformity and obedience.
Home-schooling	When children are taught at home rather than at school, usually by parents or private tutors, instead of sending them to a school.
Independent schools	These include private and public schools. It is made up of schools that charge fees to attend and are not subject to the same rules of state schools.
Influence of schools	Factors within school that can affect a child's success at school e.g. racism, labelling
Institutional racism	Where an organisation's culture and methods of operating are found to be racist throughout.
Labelling	Often done by a person of higher status and power, attaching a category, type or image to a person. It can have powerful consequences and the label may become accurate.
Material deprivation	Being without goods that you would expect to have in your house, for example a television, your own bedroom.

eritocracy	The belief that the achievements of individuals in a society depends on the amount of effort they put in; it does not depend on their class, ethnic or gender background. Everyone has an equal opportunity to succeed.
Mixed Ability	When a class has a range of abilities in including over and under achieving pupils and are taught in these groups.
Montessori schools	Focus on practical, hands-on activities and creative play; developing artistic expression and social capacities; and in secondary education: developing critical reasoning and empathic understanding.
Parental aspirations	Parents' hopes and ambitions for their child's future.
Peer group	A group of people who are of similar age and usually have similar interests.
Private schools	Where the school is privately funded: usually paid for by the parents of the children who attend.
Pro-school subculture	Positive about school. Tend to be middle-class.
Public schools	A high-status private school where the head teacher has been invited to join the Headmasters' and Headmistresses' Conference.
Racism	The belief that one racial group is superior to others; treating other groups discriminately because of that belief.
Role of education - Feminism	Feminist view society as a patriarchy: where power is centred around men and masculinity and denied to women who are oppressed by it. They view the function of the education system to establish gender roles. For example, by teaching girls and boys different subjects.

le of education – Functionalism	Functionalists hold that all aspects of a society serve a function and are necessary for the survival of that society. They argue that the education system is required before society can function or exist - no society can function healthily without education.
Role of education - Marxism	Marxist sociologists might argue that the main purpose of the education system is to prepare most of the people in society for a life of exploitation by their future employers. For example, by training skills that meet the needs of the economy.
Sanctions - formal and informal	Positive or negative actions taken to encourage people to follow social norms, rules and laws.
Social exclusion	Where a group is not able to take full part in society. They are left out of important aspects of life.
Social inclusion	The attempt to include all people fully in society.
Social mobility	The movement of individuals up and down the stratification (class) system.
Self- fulfilling prophecy	When a teacher makes a prediction about a child or labels that child then it comes true.
State funded schools	Where the school is funded by the state and must, therefore, adhere to more rules and regulations specified by the government.
Steiner schools	Feature mixed-aged classrooms, allow for student choice of activity, allow for freedom of movement within the classroom, and work on a "discovery" model rather than having direct instructions from teachers.
Stereotype	An exaggerated simplified view of a group of people that can cause prejudice and discrimination.
Subcultures	A small group within society with its own norms and values.

Vocational Education	Work or career-related education.

Types of Schools

Mainstream schools

There are many different types of schools in the British education system. We start with primary schools from ages 5-11 (KS1 and KS2) and go to secondary schools for 11-18 year olds (KS3, KS4 and KS5). There are also same sex schools (all girls or all boys), mixed sex schools (mixture of boys and girls), private schools (where you pay to attend) and state schools (which are run by the government). Any school can be a mixture of these, e.g. same sex primary private school. The different types of schools are to give the parent and the child more choice as to what type of school and education they will receive.

Alternative Schools

There are many other types of schools that are available for parents to choose from that are different to mainstream education to allow for parental choice.

Type of school	Features	Advantages	Disadvantages
Montessori schools	Mixed age classrooms Mainly primary schools Blocks of 3 hour lessons Discovery model of learning (not teacher led) Teacher specifically trained in montessori teaching Freedom of movement in the classroom	Better social and academic skills than other types of primary schools Better sense of behaviour Stronger community sense	Cost £2,000 per term (£6,000 a year)

Steiner Schools	Emphasis on imagination and art Hands on activities and play Not much official testing - just checking of students understanding Curriculum is decided by the teacher	State funded or free Good for learning foreign languages	Only 35 in the UK Little emphasis on IT skills No standardised testing means that they will struggle with GCSEs, A Levels and Degrees for later in life
Forrest Schools	Outdoor education Focuses on the outdoors, forests, trees, wildlife etc. 150 in the UK	Happiness of children is greater Reduces hyperactivity Good for environmental awareness	Doesn't relate to the wider society
Home schooling	For people who believe that mainstream schools are not productive Educated in their own home 27,000 home schooled children known to the local authority. Illegal in half of European countries	Less likelihood of bullying Focus on subjects that they struggle with Creates smaller class sizes Saves taxpayers money Greater control over curriculum	Isolation from the wider community Parents sometimes lack the in depth knowledge needed Lack of social skills May fail to prepare the student for later life.

ex schools	Was the norm in the past (there are 2,000 less now than 40 years ago) Mainly found in private schools Provides better outcomes (GCSE results)	Weaker subject gender stereotyping (boys felt better at English and girls at maths / science) Less distractions by the opposite sex and more focus on work	Disturbs social development Does not reflect the workplace Lack of evidence
Faith schools	Teaches the national curriculum like a mainstream school would but with a focus on that particular religion Priority given to those who are of that faith 7,000 in the UK	Strong emphasis on community Generally a better GCSE outcomes Teaching of the religion can be good for society	Discriminates against other faiths Stops integration of faiths
Independent / private schools	Independent from the government and the rules set out by them e.g. the national curriculum 2,500 in the UK Doesn't pay taxes as classed as a charity	Allows parents to invest in their child's education Better results than state run schools Smaller class sizes Better funding of equipment and trips Offer bursaries to children who can't afford to attend	Marxists say that they maintain class division Worse teaching but can select high ability students to get good results Very expensive

Grammar schools	154 in the UK Fully state funded	Gifted students from poorer	Grammar schools are elitist (for a superior backgrounds get a good education for free • Creates a good academic culture • Increases social mobility Smaller class sizes

Types of schools - Test yourself

1. List as many types of schools that you can remember:

2. Describe a mainstream school

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3. What's the difference between a private school and a grammar school?

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4. Why might parents choose to send their children to an alternative type of education?

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5. Why might children be homeschooled?

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6. Plan an answer to this question:

"Mainstream schooling is the best form of education for all students"
Do you agree or disagree with this statement? (15 marks)

For	Against

Theories of Education

Different theories argue that there are different functions of the education system. They are all valid functions but come from a different perspective. If you get a question about the function of the education system you can use any of the below theoretical functions - just double check it isn't asking for a particular theory first.

Functionalism

Durkheim believed that the education system is an important institution for society to work properly. It is a massive part of the organic analogy where he states that each institution is an important organ and each institution needs to be working properly to ensure that society works properly.

He believed this through the following functions that it performs:

- Passes on the norms and values of society
- Social Cohesion (teaches the history of that particular society- providing a link between the individual and society)
- Teaches children how to cooperate with each other to allow them to manage their behaviour later in life

Parsons (also a functionalist) argues that education has the following functions:

- Bridge between the family and society
- Meritocracy (hard work will allow you to climb the social class ladder)
- Socialisation of children into the norms and values of society
- Trains a workforce to fulfill the jobs needed in later life. E.g. doctors, cleaners, gardeners, lawyers etc.

Marxism

Correspondence principle

Marxists believe that if you are from a working class background you are less likely to engage and do well in education. They believe that the education system just reproduces the capitalist system - keeping the rich people rich and the poor people poor. They call this the correspondence principle - your achievement in education corresponds to your class.

Cultural Capital and Material Capital / Cultural Deprivation / Material Deprivation

Cultural capital is where the middle class are socialised to have more culture than the working class. This means that when they are growing up they have access to more cultural trips (going to art galleries, museums, holidays etc) which allows them to achieve better in education. They also dress and speak in a way which allows them to be taken seriously to allow for social mobility an impressing in everyday life. If you lack cultural capital, then you're more likely to not be able to access exam questions fully or achieve the mainstream goals of education and society. Lacking this is called cultural deprivation which is what marxists say that students lack.

Material capital is where the middle class have more material possessions to help them to achieve in education. This includes things like desks at home, textbooks, more pens, computers at home to research and do work, access to tutors etc. Material deprivation is what marxists say that the working class face - they don't have these things.

The main function of the education system according to Marxists is to reproduce capitalism and exploit the working class by:
- **The myth of meritocracy** - telling all students that they have an equal chance of success in education when we know that upper class parents can "buy" their way up the social ladder through material capital
- **Trains people to become the next workforce** - they learn to accept authority and not challenge their "superiors" through the hidden curriculum. Bowles and Gintis argue that the education system just reproduces a workforce who are too oppressed to challenge the authority of their managers.
- **Ideology** - the norms and values of that particular class are passed down within the education system. Althusser argues that the main transmitter of ideology is the education system.

Feminism

The education system itself is patriarchal - it is a vehicle for men to exploit women and continue the oppression. It does this through the following ways:

- Teaching of gender roles and the socialisation of children into the gender roles.
- Books and textbooks are focused more on men than women - especially in science
- Male dominated subjects - science, maths, computing, PE etc.
- Boys control the space within the classroom and it isn't challenge by teachers
- Teachers have gendered expectations - asking boys to carry boxes of books, move tables etc.
- Lack of positive role models.

Becky Francis researched gender differences in school finding that boys dominate the space in classrooms, attracting more positive and negative attention from teachers and peers. Boys also tend to be louder than girls which also attracts more attention in the classroom allowing boys more interactions. Finally, Francis found that boys dominate the playing areas during break times, using vast areas of space for football and other physical play. All of this contributes to the fact that the education system is dominated by boys which allows them to gain more attention and status – both positive and negative from teachers and peers.

Theories of Education - Test yourself

1. List as many functions of the education system as you can:

2. Split the different functions into the table below:

Marxism	Feminism	Functionalism

3. How is the Marxist view of education different to the functionalist view on education?

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4. What do sociologists mean by cultural capital? Who has cultural capital?

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5. What do sociologists mean by meritocracy?

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6. What is patriarchy? How does the education system continue this system?

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7. Plan an answer to the following question:

"The main function of the education system is to reproduce capitalism" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

8. Plan an answer to the following question:

"The main function of the education system is to reproduce patriarchy" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

9. Plan an answer to the following question:

"The main function of the education system is to promote meritocracy" Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Education and Class

Class is said to be the biggest factor which determines how well a child does at school. Children who are on Free School Meals (FSM) are said to achieve much lower than any other group (including ethnicities). Free school meals are used as a measure of poverty.

To study the correlation between social class and attainment, you can compare the grades of those who get free school meals to those who do not. The overall percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more GCSEs at grade A* to C including English and maths was 57.5% in 2015 compared to 23.8% of FSM students.

Halsey (1980)

Halsey studied 8,000 boys from different class backgrounds. They found that by the age of 16 people from the upper class were four times more likely to be at school and by the age of 18 they were ten times more likely to be in school.

Willis - Learning to Labour (1977)

Willis believed that the education system is not a good socialiser for society. He observed a school in the Midlands which was in a working class housing estate and found that there was a culture that went against the mainstream values of the school. This includes truanting lessons, walking around school, ignoring teachers and being rude when challenged.

There are several reasons for these differences in class cnd achievement:

Cultural factors

The influence of language, values, family attitudes, socialisation by the family and expectations
- Language skills - middle class children are more likely to speak in elaborate code (complicated language) which is similar to teachers, textbooks, exam questions which means it is easier to access the content being taught and the exam meaning a higher grade and success rate.
- Values which are taught by socialisation. This can be things like middle class more likely to value revision and homework in comparison to working class which in turn has an effect on their educational achievement.
- Parental encouragement - parents who get involved with their child's school life (attend parents evenings, support with homework etc) are likely to achieve more.

- Cultural deprivation - lacking the language skills, values and general socialisation to achieve in the education system.
- Social capital - middle class parents tend to know how the school system works better than a working class parent which allows for them to "work the system" better. Middle class parents can generally interact with teachers better meaning that they can network more.

Material factors

Refers to money and what people can buy - books, pens, quiet spaces to work, area that they live, tutors etc. This also refers to lack of housing, food, living equipment and food being caused by a lack of money.
- Income allows parents to play the postcode lottery - this allows parents to buy into the area of a good school whereas working class parents may not be able to afford this. Working class parents also can't always afford trips, books and equipment needed for their child's education.
- Costs - school is free but there is a lot of other costs. These include travel, lunches, sports kit, uniform, shoes. This all costs approximately £1,000 a year according to the Children's Commission on Poverty.
- Choice of school - working class families generally have less choice of school area and type of school. Remember that most schools other than mainstream cost a lot of money.

One way in which the government has tried to overcome these differences is by introducing a pupil premium policy in 2011. This provides schools with an amount of money to spend per student if they come from a low income family. This is used to provide more resources, free breakfast, trips, educational visits, books etc.

Education and Class - Test yourself

1. What do Marxists believe about the education system?

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2. How many times is a middle class person likely to stay in education until they are 18? Why might this be?

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3. What are two ways that the government has tried to implement policies to tackle class differences in education?

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4. What is material deprivation?

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5. What is cultural deprivation?

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6. List as many material factors as you can:

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7. List as many cultural factors as you can:

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8. Plan an answer to the following question

"The main cause of class inequality in education is material deprivation". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

9. Plan an answer to the following question

"The main cause of class inequality in education is cultural deprivation". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Education and Ethnicity

The ethnicity that is at most risk of underachieving is white working class, specifically boys. White students are the least likely ethnic group to attend university or further education. Pupils with a Pakistani, Caribbean and Bangladeshi background also underachieve although Bangladeshi are now achieving above than the national average at GCSE level although not as much as white.
Students who are from a Chinese background are most likely to achieve - in 2015: 86% of students from Chinese ethnicity attained 5 A*-C. In the last three decades (30 years) the white ethnic group has fallen from the highest achieving group to the lowest.

There are several factors that contribute to this:

Material Factors

- Families from ethnic minorities are more likely to be unemployed or in low paid jobs in comparison with white families so some differences in educational achievement may be down to material deprivation
- Poverty can lead to overcrowding and poor housing or even homelessness, poor diet and poor health, all of which are likely to affect how well children do at school - Children may not be able to study or may be off school due to ill health. In 2007, over half of Pakistani families and black families lived in poverty

Cultural Factors

- Language: Underachievement in ethnic minorities has often been put down to English not being their first language this is called EAL (English as an additional language). This was especially for Bangladeshi and Pakistani pupils before 2014 but doesn't explain why white working class boys are the lowest achieving group.
- Subcultures are a group of people whose norms and values are different from the mainstream society. Subcultures has been a big part in the effect of underachievement in African-Caribbean children, particularly boys. Male subcultures among African-Caribbean boys encourage aggressive, rebellious, physical, macho forms of masculinity that discourage success at school and encourages fighting, truancy, rudeness, lack of effort etc.

Parental aspirations

- Parental aspirations and commitment to education, including parental involvement, are often reasons given for ethnic minority achievement in the case of Chinese children of both working and middle-class backgrounds.
- This may also explain why even Chinese pupils who are on FSM (Free school meals) outperform any other ethnic groups as their parents are more likely to be involved in their child's education. This might explain why white working class children don't achieve as much because their parents don't attend as many parents evenings, engage with the school and back up the school rules to help their child succeed.

Influence of the school

- Racism has been a big factor in ethnicity and achievement. Research has consistently found that black boys are disciplined more frequently than other groups of school children. According to a government report in 2015, black pupils are punished more often and more severely than white pupils for the same actions.

- Teachers face conscious (they're aware) and unconscious (they're unaware) discrimination due to a students ethnicity. This could be asking certain ethnicities to be quiet, labelling them before they know them as "naughty" or "chatty" or "hard working". These labels can end up with the students having a self fulfilling prophecy.

- Institutional Racism is a phrase which means that the institution (in this case the education system) is racist through and through. The whole system is racist from the curriculum to the teachers. Exclusion rates for African-Caribbean boys are three to four times higher than for other groups. Children excluded from school are more likely to end up leaving the education system early and with few qualifications.

- A white centered curriculum is one that focuses on the culture of white students and excludes any other ethnicity. This might promote low self-esteem among ethnic groups in school as well as a sense of detachment and disinterest. Under the national curriculum, all children in publicly funded schools in the UK (not academies, free school or technical schools) follow the same basic curriculum, which centres on the culture, history and achievements of British white people. Due to the fact that every school has to follow the same curriculum, there is little room for diversity, even if most of the children in the school are from non-white, non- British ethnic groups.

- Teachers label ethnic-minority children as 'low achievers' from the outset and have low expectations of their potential. Black children are more likely to be put in lower sets than white students of the same measured ability. When the children end up in these sets, research from interactionist studies suggests that they might be taught differently from children in other sets and are more likely to be entered for lower-tier examinations.

Ethnicity and Education - Test Yourself

1. Which ethnic groups are most likely to over perform in education and underperform in education?

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2. Does ethnicity link with class? Why / Why not?

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3. How do material factors link with ethnicity and education?

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4. How does a parent's attitude towards education affect a students attainment?

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5. How can the school influence a students attainment?

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6. What is institutional racism?

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7. Which groups are more likely to be labelled by a teacher? What might that label be?

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8. If a student is given a label, what might happen?

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9. Plan an answer to the following question

"The main cause of underachievement in education is their ethnic background". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

10. Plan an answer to the following question

"Students underachieve in education due to institutional racism". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Education and Gender

Girls constantly outperform boys in the education system:

- 71.3% of girls' entries awarded at least a C grade, compared with 62.4% of boys (2016)
- A higher percentage of female entries also achieved A* or A grades: 24.1% compared with 16.8% for boys.
- Women are 35% more likely to go to university than men in the UK." (UCAS, 2016)

There are several reasons for this difference which mainly revolves around the changes in society over the last 50 years.

- The position of women has changed over the last 50 years and the norms, values and socialisation of girls at a young age has changed. We learnt this in the family module and you can talk about the symmetrical family, neutral gender socialisation etc. With this change in attitudes, girls now have more confidence and there is an end goal of a career, or a job to enable them to succeed more than they used to. 50 years ago girls were only socialised to expect to be a housewife or a low paid caring job.

- Due to changes in the laws (e.g. the equal pay act, discrimination act etc) there has been improved job prospects for women giving girls more motivation to succeed in school. You can link this to the national curriculum which means that both boys and girls have to study the same subjects and get equal opportunities until GCSEs.

- There have been government schemes to try and get women into science, technology, maths and other "boy" stereotype subjects. There has been a recruitment of more females into these sectors to be role models and there have been more women put into the text books of these subjects.

- Boys might underachieve due to their laddish subcultures. Boys are more interested in their peer group pressures to mess around rather than gain the approval of their teachers and do well in school. This in turn leads to them not succeeding as well in lessons and gaining worse qualifications as a result. Jackson (2006) found that being "cool" in school was necessary for boys. This leads to them messing around in lessons, disrupting others and appearing to be "hard".

- The crisis of masculinity (as discussed in the family module) means that boys aren't as sure of their role in society any more. There are less manual labour jobs which has lead to more men being unemployed and in turn dampens the confidence, motivation and enthusiasm of boys to do well at school.

- Girls are socialised to conform (follow the norms and values of society) and not to be deviant. This is called the "control theory" which is where girls are controlled more by society than boys. This means that they follow the norms and values of society to not rebel or misbehave in lessons.

- The media shows the male stereotype of being lazy, physically strong and not always intelligent (think Homer Simpson). This means that boys don't have a positive role model in the media but women do.

Gender and Education - Test yourself

1. Who performs better in education? Boys or girls? How can you back this up?

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2. How has society changed for this difference to occur?

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3. What laws / policies are in place to help girls do better in education?

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4. What is a laddish subculture? How might this affect educational attainment?

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5. How does socialisation play a part in educational attainment?

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6. Do any of the explanations of gender attainment help to explain class or gender attainment? Explain your answer

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7. Plan an answer to the following question

"Labelling of boys leads to them underachieving". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

8. Plan an answer to the following question

"Girls achieve in education because they are socialised to do so". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Processes within schools

Setting

Setting is putting students into classes based on their ability for that specific subject. For example, your maths set might be a top set but your English set is a lower set. This means that students are grouped into similar abilities to allow the teacher to teach the skills needed for that particular group.

Streaming

Steaming is still groups that are based on ability, but they are based on ability in general as opposed to a specific set. So that means that you are in the same set for every subject based on one. In our school, the majority of your KS3 classes are based on your English group (apart from maths, computer science and science). This is streaming.

Mixed Ability

This is where all classes are not set or streamed and there is a mix of abilities within the same class. This is common in your option subjects as they are not setted or streamed. For example in our sociology class there are a mixture of different abilities and the teacher has to adapt their teaching style and questions to each ability within the class. This allows for students to be able to learn from their higher ability peers.

Labelling

The labelling theory states that people put a stereotypical label on people based on something. This is normally based on their class, age, gender or ethnicity (CAGE). The labelling theory is an interactionist theory - they believe that through our interactions with each other and other people we place a label on somebody (this could be immediately or after time). Both teachers and students apply labels to other people and can affect a person's achievements within the education system.

Why people are labelled by teachers

Hargreaves found that teachers generally make fairly quick judgements and labels based on a students characteristics - their appearance, their enthusiasm for work, how they treat other students etc. Ability is one thing that teachers label but Hargreaves found that most teachers label based on a students class. Becker also argues that teachers have an idea of an "ideal pupil" in their head. This is generally based upon behaviour, academic achievement etc. Becker found that the teachers ideal pupil is a middle class student and anybody who doesn't meet this ideal type is pre judged on their ability and achievement.

Self Fulfilling Prophecy

When somebody is given a label, they are likely to live up to that label - it becomes true. This means that if a teacher labels a student as talkative, underachieving, misbehaving then they are more likely to become that type of student. Having said this, if a teacher labels a student as hard working, high achieving and well behaved, the student is more likely to believe it and have a self fulfilling prophecy to live up to the label.

Banding and Setting Effects

Banding and setting can themselves be classed as a form of label. If a student is placed in the bottom set, they are more likely to see themselves as underachieving and therefore live up to that label. Likewise, if you place a student into a top set, they are more likely to follow the example of those around them and live up to the label that the set has - a hard working, well behaved student. Teachers are also more likely to label an entire class with banding and setting. They are more likely to either label all students as clever or less able. Ball has conducted research into a mainstream state school where students are placed into bands. He found that students in top bands were well behaved, hard working and making good progress whereas students in lower bands were much more lazy and badly behaved. Ball argues that the changes in progress, attainment and attitude is down to the label of the set and of the teacher.

Anti School Subcultures

We have covered subcultures quite a bit - they are a group of people who share norms and values that go against the rest of society. Most schools have anti school subcultures in there. These tends to be formed by a group of students, usually in Years 9 to 11, in the lower sets or bands, who do not follow the goals of the school to work hard and do well. Instead, the students reject

the school and set their own goals which might involve messing about, causing trouble and disrupting the class.

Hargreaves conducted research into an anti-school subculture in a boys' secondary school in the 1960s. The boys in the 'C' stream were cheeky to teachers, didn't do their homework and always disrupting the teaching in their lessons. They weren't bothered that their behaviour was linked to the underachievement in their lessons. Hargreaves argued that the boys in the top stream were labelled as successes and were rewarded by the school. They got their status and recognition from the school. However, the boys in the lower stream had no status from the school as they were labelled in the bottom bands so they had to get their status elsewhere - in this case the subculture.

The study of Willis that we used in the class section can also be used here in anti school subcultures. These were a group of working class lads who did not achieve in education as they were more interested in messing around and having a laugh than doing work. Willis argued that this was not as an effect of labelling but rather a choice that they had made to enjoy themselves over getting a good education. They lacked positive male role models and thought that whatever happened at school didn't matter as they would end up unemployed anyway.

Processes within schools - Test yourself

1. What is the difference between setting and banding?

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2. What are the positives and negatives of setting and banding bv mixed ability classes?

Advantages	Disadvantages

3. What is the labelling theory?

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4. How can people react to a label?

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5. How do teachers label pupils?

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6. How can you link labelling to setting?

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7. What is an anti school subculture?

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8. What studies are there to link anti school subcultures to the processes within schools?

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9. Plan an answer to the following question

"Labelling by teachers is the biggest cause of underachievement in schools". Do you agree or disagree with this view? (15 marks)

For	Against

Research Methods

This is the last section of the paper and consists of the following questions:

- 1 x 2 marks
- 1 x 4 marks
- 1 x 12 marks

Learning Checklist

Usefulness of different types of data	
Describe primary data and know its usefulness to sociologists	
Describe secondary data and know its usefulness to sociologists	
Know the difference between primary and secondary data	
Describe sources of secondary data and know their usefulness to sociologists, including: • diaries • journals • official • non-official statistics	
Describe quantitative data and know its usefulness to sociologists	
Describe qualitative data and know its usefulness to sociologists	
Know the difference between quantitative and qualitative data	
Methods of research - qualitative and quantitative methods	
Describe questionnaires	
Evaluate questionnaires in terms of their value, practical application and strengths and weaknesses (validity, reliability, ethics, representativeness)	
Describe structured and unstructured interviews	

Evaluate structured and unstructured interviews in terms of their value, practical application and strengths and weaknesses (validity, reliability, ethics, representativeness)	
Describe different types of observations: • participant • non-participant • overt • covert Evaluate different types of observations in terms of their value, practical application and strengths and weaknesses (validity, reliability, ethics, representativeness)	
Describe mixed methods approaches	
Evaluate mixed methods approaches in terms of their value, practical application and strengths and weaknesses (validity, reliability, ethics, representativeness)	
Sampling processes	
Describe representative and non-representative sampling techniques, including: • simple random sampling • stratified sampling • systematic sampling • quota sampling • snowball sampling	
Explain access to subjects of research as a practical issue affecting research	
Explain what it means to have a gatekeeper to allow access as a practical issue affecting research	
Explain time and cost of research as a practical issue affecting research	
Explain what informed consent is	
Explain what confidentiality is	
Explain what harm to participants is	
Explain what deception is	

Knowledge Organiser Key Concepts

Concept	Definition
Case study	A research method that relies on only one study for information.
Content analysis	A process that allows researchers to analyse qualitative material and quantify it.
Covert observation	Research where you watch your participants behaviour without them knowing. You're undercover.
Closed questions	Questions which have a set answer. They are used when looking for statistics to generalise your results. E.g. How old are you? 9-11 12-15 16-19
Ethical considerations - anonymity	The participants identity not being known. Their name, nationality, gender, age, class, ethnicity etc is kept out of the research.
Ethical considerations - confidentiality	The participants results are not shared individually and are kept secret unless they are used as part of a group or without the name / identifier of the person.
Ethical considerations - informed consent	The participant being able to agree to the full terms and conditions of the research knowing exactly what is involved during and after the research.
Field experiment	Scientific research that is carried out "in the field" which means in the real world rather than in a laboratory. Eg. Watching students in a classroom situation and not in a lab.
Laboratory experiment	Scientific research in a laboratory and not in the natural settings.

Generalisability	Being able to apply the results to other people of the same profile (class, age, gender, ethnicity).
Hypothesis	A prediction that you are going to test your results against when researching.
Interviewer bias/effect or Hawthorne effect	The person being researched changes their answers either to impress the researcher, because they are embarrassed or because they think it's what the researcher wants to hear.
Longitudinal studies	Studies that are carried out over time. For example, if I was going to study your year group's behaviour over the course of your time at JHNCC to see the changes and your attitudes towards work.
Non-participant observation	Watching from the outside. The researcher is not involved.
Official statistics	Statistics that are produced by the government or another official source. E.g. the census or the national crime statistics.
Open questions	Questions that have no intended outcome. The participant can answer with whatever they like and with as much or as little as they like. E.g. How do you feel about your GCSEs? Why?
Overt observation	A type of research where you are watching a person or a group of people and they are aware that you are watching them. You are open about your intentions.
Participant observation	When you are observing a person or a group of people but you are also taking part.
Personal documents	Things that you can use to see the first hand personal feelings and ideas of a person. For example, diaries, letters, social media etc.

Pilot study	A small scale study that you do to test your research before you complete your full scale study.
Population	The total number of people in a given situation.
Primary data	Data that comes first hand and that is gathered specifically for your research and intended purpose.
Qualitative data	Data that is produced with letters that are used to find individual meanings and thoughts from a particular person or group of people.
Quantitative data	Data that is generally numbers and statistics that is used to get generalisable results.
Reliability	You can replicate the research several times and get the same result each time.
Representative sample	A sample of participants from all areas, ages, genders, classes, ethnicity. It
	should not be all from one group.
Research aim	The overall aim and purpose of the study. What does the researcher want to get out of the study?
Research method	The type of research the researcher is going to undertake to collect their results.
Research process	The process that the researcher goes through to get their results. All steps are linked.
Respondent or Participant	A person who replies to a questionnaire or an advert.

Sample	A smaller group of the people being researched to be able to generalise the results to the wider population.
Sampling frame	The material or device that is used to be able to create the sample. A list of people within the population.
Systematic sampling	The sample is produced through a random systematic way. Eg. every 3rd person or every 11th person.
Quota sampling	A certain number of people from a subgroup. E.g 100 females
Snowball sampling	When a participant recruits another participant through word of mouth and the sample is created this way.
Random sampling	A completely random selection of people. Does not always give a representative sample.
Stratified sampling	Splitting the population into different groups and taking a particular amount from each group.
Secondary data	Data that comes from a secondary source that wasn't for the intended purpose.
Triangulation	Using data from two or more sources and two or more research methods to get data that is reliable.
Validity	The results reflect the actual real thoughts / feelings / ideas / statistics. They are completely true and real.

Research methods are the ways in which sociologists conduct their research into a particular topic. There are different methods that are useful for different scenarios and types of research and, like everything, there are advantages and disadvantages to each method. A researcher also has to take into account different issues - both ethical and practical issues when conducting research. This is to make sure that there are no major issues with the participants or the way in which the search is carried out.

The first thing that a researcher must decide is whether they want to gain numerical data (numbers, statistics etc) or written responses to look for a deeper meaning and explanations as to why. This decision is quantitative data over qualitative data.

Sampling methods

A sample is the group of people that you are using to conduct your research. There are different methods to get your sample:

- Simple random sampling: E.g. pulling names out of a hat. Though sociologists tend to number all the names in the sampling frame, then get a computer to randomly select the numbers.
- Systematic sampling involves selecting names from the sampling frame at regular intervals. For example, selecting every fifth name in a sampling frame.
- Stratified sampling is when people are split into groups based on a particular characteristic (class, age, gender, ethnicity, hair colour, eye colour etc) and then a certain number of people are taken from each of those groups
- If the group is difficult to obtain, or doesn't exist, then snowball sampling is used. The researcher identifies a person with characteristics they are interested in (e.g. criminal). The researcher will then ask this person to introduce them to others with similar characteristics (other criminals).

Quantitative data

Quantitative data is looking for statistics and answers that can be generalised to compare and contrast. For example, if I did a survey which asked how you like school and only gave you a few options to choose from (on a scale of 1-10) then you will be able to say that 70% of pupils like school. This is called quantitative data - statistics and numbers. It's easy to remember because quantitative has an n in it therefore go with numbers.

Qualitative data

Qualitative data looks at meanings and individual responses to get detail. This is preferred by interactionists because you can look at why somebody might like school and what sociologists can do to change that. This is more detailed than just a statistic but it changes from one person to another.

Types of Research Methods

Method	Type of data	Advantage	Disadvantage
Interviews can be individual (researcher and participant) or in a group (researcher and a group of people). Interviews can also be structured (a set of questions that you cannot stray from) or unstructured (like an informal chat).	Qualitative	You can get in depth information about that particular subject that you are researching	If it's in a group then the participant may be affected by their friends or other participants and not tell the truth.
Observations are the researcher watching a particular group or situation. This can be one of two ways: Participant observation where the researcher is taking part in the activity that they are researching. Non participant observation where the researcher is just watching and not taking part in the research. Observation can also be covert or overt. Overt is where the participant is fully aware that you are there researching and what you are researching. Covert is where you are undercover and the participants are unaware that you are researching.	Qualitative and can sometimes be quantitative.	You can be part of the group and see people in their natural habitats and surroundings.	Your presence can change the actions of the group. If you are covert you could also put yourself as a researcher in danger.

Pilot Studies are small scale studies that you do before your full scale research to test your hypothesis and smooth out any problems with the research.	Qualitative and / or Quantitative	You can solve any problems that may occur before you conduct your main research	Takes time and money
Questionnaires can be conducted in person or by distance (e.g. post). They can have a mixture of questions but generally have either closed questions or open questions. Closed questions get quantitative data so that you can only choose a particular answer (e.g. strongly agree, agree, unsure, disagree, strongly disagree). You can then say that 6/90 people strongly agree with smoking when pregnant etc. Open questions allow the participant to express their ideas and opinions and allows them to write as much or as little on the topic as they wish. This is qualitative data.	Closed = quantitative Open = qualitative	You can get a large sample as they can be sent out by post or email to thousands of people relatively cheaply and quickly	As it is not face to face, people may be less inclined to respond leaving your sample skewed.

Primary data

This is data that you collect yourself. It is first hand data. You have carried out your research and got the results that you need for your particular research.

Secondary data

This is when you get data either from somebody else's research, statistics that have been collected by the government or an organisation or from items belonging to the participant. These could include:

- Diaries - thi is especially useful to work out why somebody might be acting the way that they are or to look at something over time. This could be looking at the change in family life over time, or the change in attitudes towards education over time. A diary is more likely to be valid than an interview or a questionnaire.

- Journals / newspapers are good for looking at social acts and the reaction of society to particular trends.

- Official Statistics The following surveys are all important sources of official statistics: The Family Resources Survey, The General Household Survey, The Labour Force Survey, The British Crime Survey, the census.

Secondary data is good because they generally have a larger to reach participant group that can be used over different times, places and countries but don't always correlate exactly with the research that you are carrying out.

Practical Issues

These are issues that may physically stop you from conducting your research. Examples of practical issues are:

- **Access** to subjects of research - if you are researching a vulnerable group (e.g. young children, the elderly, criminals etc) it is much harder to gain access to these groups as a researcher. If I wanted to research why some women turn to prostitution or why gang members turn to gangs then getting access to these participants can be an issue.

- A **gatekeeper** within research is somebody who can help get you access. For example if you want to research mentally ill patients, a doctor would be the gatekeeper. If you want to research criminals, the police or prison officer would help you get access.

- **Time** is a big factor to consider when conducting research. If you want to research 500 participants in unstructured interviews this can take a lot of time, which maybe you do not have. Time is also costly.

- You also need to consider the **cost** of research. If you want to conduct participant observations with groups across the world, this could turn out to be very costly and you may not have the budget to be able to afford the research.

Validity

Data is valid if it gives an accurate and true picture of reality. For example if you ask somebody who loves school if they like school and they respond with no so that they look cool in front of their friends then this is not valid research. Sociologists need their research to be valid so that it gives an accurate picture of the topic that they are looking at. The presence of a researcher or friends often makes the research invalid.

Ethical Issues

Sociologists are concerned with ethical issues to ensure that what is morally right. Participants should not be harmed or deceived during research. Ethical issues that sociologists needs to make sure that they are adhering to are:

- **Informed consent** - this is letting the participant know exactly what the research is and then getting their permission for them to be a part of the research. You cannot research somebody without telling them what it is for and why you are doing it and then getting their permission.

- **Confidentiality** - this is keeping the results of your research anonymous so that you do not identify your participants in the research. For example if I was looking at teachers attitudes towards particular students, I wouldn't name the teacher or the student but rather call them "Teacher 1" or give them a fake name.

- **Harm to participants** - this can be mentally or physically. Your research cannot cause any harm to the participant.

- **Deception** - this is telling somebody that you are doing one thing when really you are doing something else. For example if I conduct research into the family to look at domestic violence, I can't tell the participants that I am looking at the conjugal roles as this would be deception.

Reliability

If you used the same method as a previous researcher, and get similar results, then the method is reliable. We want research to be replicable and consistent. For example, different researchers can use the same questionnaire about whether a student likes school on similar groups within the population. This might be 1118 year old middle class girls across the UK in different schools are areas. If the questionnaire is reliable, then the results should be similar.

Representative

If your research is representative it reflects the society or the group that you are looking at in particular. For example if you want it to be representative of the whole world you would have to get participants from all ages, countries, ethnicities, religions, genders, classes etc.

Research Methods - Test Yourself

1. List as many types of research methods as you can

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2. What's the difference between quantitative and qualitative data?

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3. What's the difference between primary and secondary data?

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4. Name three types of primary research and give an advantage and disadvantage for each

Method	Advantage	Disadvantage

5. Name three types of secondary research and give an advantage and disadvantage for each

Method	Advantage	Disadvantage

6. How can you choose a sample for your research?

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7. What's the difference between valid and reliable?

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8. Plan an answer to the following questions:

Discuss the usefulness of questionnaires in research (12 marks)

Strength	Weakness

Discuss the usefulness of interviews in research (12 marks)

Strength	Weakness

Discuss the usefulness of observation in research (12 marks)

Strength	Weakness

Discuss the usefulness of secondary research methods (12 marks)

Strength	Weakness

GCSE Sociology
Your Complete Revision Guide
To
Paper 2

St. Julie's Mock Exam
Option C – Thursday 23rd Jan (pm)
Option A- Friday 24ᵗʰ Jan (am)

GCSE Exam
Friday 22nd May 2020 (pm)

Name:

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Crime and Deviance

The questions in this section are as follows:

1 x 2 marks

1 x 5 marks

1 x 8 marks

1 x 15 marks

Crime and a social construct - what is crime, what is deviance?

How does crime change over time and place?

Functionalist functions of crime - boundary maintenance, adaptation and change, warning light, safety valve

Merton's strain theory - idea of anomie

Cohen's subcultural theory - 5 ways to respond to crime

Marxist view of crime - different law enforcement (Chambliss)

Interactionist view of crime - labelling theory and stereotypes

Becker's self fulfilling prophecy

Moral panics

Gender and crime - social control (Heiderschon), female conformity, gender roles, opportunity to commit crime

Difference in gender statistics - Chivalry thesis

Class and gender - Carlen

Ethnicity and crime - institutional racism, labelling, difference in statistics, reasons for difference in statistics, ethnicity as a scapegoat

Crime rates - official statistics, victim surveys, self report studies

Difference between formal and informal control

Agencies of social control

Ways to punish crime

Role of the media in both creating and controlling crime

Patterns of gender and crime (which gender commits more crime and why)

Patterns of age and crime (which age commits more crime and why)

Patterns of class and crime (which class commits more crime and why)

Patterns of ethnicity and crime (which ethnicity commits more crime and why)

The research process -
- choosing a research area
- establishing an aim and/or hypothesis
- choosing a method
- use of pilot study
- selection of sampling techniques
- analysis of data
- usefulness of mixed methods approach

Practical issues in research

Ethical issues in research

Theoretical issues in research

Types of data - quantitative, qualitative, primary, secondary

Questionnaires - open / closed, postal / internet / phone

Interviews - structured / unstructured / semi structured

Observation - participant / non participant, overt / covert

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What is crime and deviance?

Crime

A crime is something that breaks the law and is then, if detected, it is formally punished. Not all criminal acts are deviant. An example of a crime that is not deviant would be driving above 70mph on the motorway. This is illegal but the majority of people do it and therefore it is not deviant.

Deviance

A deviant act is something that goes against society's norms and values. It is something that we consider to be abnormal, strange or that we simply disapprove of. A deviant act does not have to be criminal. An example of a deviant act that isn't criminal is wearing the clothes of the opposite sex. This isn't illegal but is against the social norms.

Situation

There are situations when a criminal act is neither a crime or deviance. This is when behaviour that would otherwise be considered a crime is seen as acceptable. An example of this is that it is illegal to impersonate the queen, but during a film this would then not be a crime. It is also illegal to kill somebody but when in the line of duty either as a police officer or in the army it is then not illegal.

Time

Things that are criminal and deviant change over time. Societies norms and values change over time and as such they then affect what we as a society see as criminal and as deviant. An example of this is that homosexuality used to be illegal in the UK and now it no longer has a stigma attached to it, let alone be illegal. Another example is the death penalty. This used to be legal but is now illegal.

Place / Culture

Criminal and deviant acts also change depending on the place or the culture that it is taking place in. In some countries euthanasia is legal, in others it is not. The same with abortion, women driving and polygamy (having two or more wives / husbands).

Social construct

Crime is seen as socially constructed - this is that it is made by society and their consideration of norms and values. As society changes over time, so does the idea of crime and deviance. It only exists when society says that it does.

Test yourself

1. Define what sociologists mean by a criminal act

   Doing something against the law

2. Define what sociologists mean by a deviant act

   Action or behaviour that goes against norms of society.

3. What are the different ways that criminal acts can change? Fill in the table

Factors	Explanation and Example
Time	
Place	
Social situation	
Culture	Different cultures have different morals.

4. Give an example of a crime or something that is deviant that has changed. Explain how / why it has changed.

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5. Crime and deviance is seen as a social construct. What does this mean?

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Crime Theories

Sociological theories are split into conflict and consensus views. A consensus view (Functionalism) believes that all of society works together and that everybody is in agreement. A conflict view (Feminism and Marxism) believes that there is conflict between two groups and this shapes the way in which society is organised.

Functionalism

Durkheim believed that society needs to work together and that every institution needs to work for society to function properly. He believes that crime is inevitable and that it is good for society. This is because it allows for 4 main functions.

Boundary Maintenance
Everybody within society has a value consensus. This is a shared view of what is right and wrong. Crime allows everybody in society to come together against the wrongdoer and allows people to further reinforce the boundaries of morally right and wrong actions. An example of this is the Manchester bombing at the Ariana Grande concert in May 2017. The way in which the UK and especially Manchester came together after this attack reinforces society and the shared agreement of norms and values.

Adaptation and Change
Every change in society starts with either an act of crime or deviance. Society cannot change, adapt and evolve if there is no deviance. An example of this is homosexuality. This was illegal until 1967 but with people acting defiantly and criminally it allowed society to adapt and change. Another example is the suffragettes. They were acting deviantly and not allowed to speak out for women's rights but over time their actions changed the law and the way in which society acts.

Warning Light
This states that something criminal or deviant acts as a warning that something in society isn't working properly. Truancy says that there is a problem with the education system, the rise in theft means that there may be an increase in poverty.

Safety Valve
Crime is a safe way for somebody to express their disgust at something. An example of this is graffiti - this doesn't cause much harm but provides an outlet for people to let out their frustrations.

Strain Theory

Merton believes that society has a shared agreement on what to aim for within society to be deemed successful. In America this is called the American Dream and includes a nice car, a big house, the latest phones, fancy holidays and the 'instagram lifestyle'. Merton believes that if you cannot achieve these things legally you will turn to illegal ways as a means of either gaining the money to buy the things that society tells you that you should have or stealing to gain those things.

Anomie
Merton states that anomie is when people struggle to live up to society's norms and values they try and find other ways of achieving this success. Merton called this anomie, and it is this behaviour which he said caused crime in society.

Relative Deprivation
This is when you are not actually deprived. You have everything that you need to be successful and to survive but compared to those around you, you may feel deprived. For example, if you have a phone, laptop, nice shoes etc but your friend has the latest iphone, a top of the range laptop and new shoes every week you may feel deprived compared to them. This is called relative deprivation and can be caused by strain.

Subcultural Theory

A subculture is a group of people who share the same norms and values which normally go against that of the mainstream society. A subculture praises what the rest of society do not. For example, a criminal subculture would praise vandalism, carrying a knife, violence etc. Cohen argues that this is a way of gaining status that is not through the mainstream routes. He states that young people are often involved in crimes because they turn to subcultures to gain their status. Working class boys are most at risk of turning to a subculture because they are most at risk at failing at education which is the key to success in the modern world.

Labelling Theory

Labelling Theory
The labelling theory believes that if a social stereotype or characteristic is put onto you then you are likely to live up to that label and conform to it. This is called a self fulfilling prophecy. The main Sociologist that you need to know for the labelling theory is Howard Becker. He states that something is not criminal or deviant unless it has been labelled by society as such. The reaction from society is what states whether it is criminal or deviant or neither. Becker also believes that by placing this label onto somebody, you are creating an outsider and as such they will join a subculture to live up to the label.

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Self Fulfilling Prophecy

A self fulfilling prophecy is when you live up to your label that has been placed onto you by an authority figure (e.g the police). This is because you begin to believe it and think that there is no point trying because people already think that you are that characteristic and therefore carry on to fulfill the characteristic of the label. For example if you are labelled as a thief, you are then more likely to commit theft again because people already think that you are a thief and expect it from you. This means that you are more likely to continue reoffending and have a deviant career.

Master Status

This is when you have lived upto the label through the self fulfilling prophecy but that label has now become your identity. Instead of just living up to the label of a thief, you are now a thief through and through. This is all that society, and you believes that you are. All other identities (mother, father, teacher, student, brother etc) all go away and only the master status is left.

Moral Panics

The increase in labelling of a particular crime can cause a moral panic. A moral panic is where a particular crime is over reported within the media and in turn causes the general public within society to think that it is more of an issue that it actually is. This in turn causes a crack down on that particular crime and then an increase in arrests which backs up the point that there was an issue in the first place. A couple of years ago there was a surge in teenagers and young adults wearing clown outfits and walking around parks carrying knives and attacking others. This was reported on the media and in social media as being a big problem - it was labelled. This then caused the police and the government to crack down on anybody wearing a clown costume as society started to worry about them. In the grand scheme of things the clowns were not an issue but they were made out to be by the labels attached by the media.

Test your Knowledge

1. Durkheim sees crime as inevitable. What does he mean?

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2. What are Durkheim's main functions of crime?

Function	Explanation	Example

3. Merton states that society is based on the American Dream. What is the American Dream?

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4. Why does the strain theory believe that people commit crime?

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5. What does Merton believe about anomie?

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6. Are you deprived when you face relative deprivation? Why / Why not?

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7. What is a subculture?

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8. Why do people turn to a subculture?

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9. How does being in a subculture lead to more crime?

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10. What does the labelling theory believe?

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11. Explain the process of having a self fulfilling prophecy

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12. How does something become a master status?

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13. What do labeling theorists believe about moral panics? How do they link to crime?

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Gender and Crime

Statistically, men commit much more crime than women. In the USA there are 2 million men in prison vs around 200,000 women in prison. In the UK, roughly 95% of the prison population is male. This suggests that men commit much more crime than women. In England in 2011, the crime most likely to be committed by a woman was fraud, followed by theft. Men are most likely to commit sexual offences, burglary and violent acts.

Nature vs Nurture

The nature vs nurture debate is the question of whether somebody is born a particular way with their genetics playing a part in their life and experiences (nature) vs whether environment and surroundings are more important in determining somebody's life and experiences (nurture). In the case of gender and crime it is an interest thought as to whether a male is biologically more predisposed to crime rather than a female.

Chivalry Thesis

Male-dominated police forces and courts of law may be easier on women, often cautioning women but convicting men. We are socialised to be chivalrous to women. This means that we treat women with respect - opening doors, carrying their bags, giving up a seat for a woman. It is almost as if society treats women as helpless and therefore judges, police and society are more likely to treat women more leniently than men.

Socialisation

Boys are socialised to be tough, rule breakers and girls are socialised to be more passive, following the rules and to stay inside. Boys are also socialised into the instrumental role - they are the breadwinner within the family and will need to look after their family at all costs. This could explain why they commit more crime to be able to feed, house and clothe their families.

Heiderschon - Opportunity

Girls and women are controlled by society and the patriarchal family. This means that they are more likely to stay at home cooking, cleaning, taking care of the children and fulfilling the expressive role. Because of this, they have less opportunity to commit crimes out on the street and in gangs as they are more likely to have stricter curfews, not be allowed to stay out after dark or parents picking them up from social events.

Carlen - Social Control

Carlen studied working class women and found that men may constrain women by forcing them to take family centered roles when they are an adult therefore controlling the woman so that she cannot commit a crime. Men control women inside the household in return for the safety, security and financial gain of having a breadwinner. Once social control breaks down, this is when female crime starts to rise as they may start to live in poverty once the nuclear family breaks down and they not longer have their 'deal'.

<u>Labelling</u>

Police stereotypes of young male youths may provide for inaccurate statistics. Because the police see a young male as a stereotypical offender, they are more likely to be stopped and searched rather than a young female. This produces inaccurate statistics and leads society to believe that men commit more crime than women.

Test your Knowledge

1. Who commits more crimes? Men or women?

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2. Complete the table to typical male and female crimes

Male Crimes	Female Crimes

3. What is the chivalry thesis? How does it explain the difference in crime statistics?

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4. How are boys and girls socialised differently? How does it explain the difference in crime statistics?

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5. What does Heiderschon mean by differing opportunities to commit crimes?

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6. How does social control affect crime according to Carlen?

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7. How does labelling affect crime statistics?

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Ethnicity and Crime

Before they have even commited a crime, black people were 6 times more likely to be stopped and searched by a police officer than their white counterpart in 2011. This dropped to 5 times more likely in 2015 with a decline in the amount of police. Black young adults are 4 times more likely to be in prison compared to white young adults. In 2011 there was roughly 8/1000 black youths in prison compared to 2/1000 white youths. This is when the ethnic makeup of the UK is 39% white.

1/20 judges in the UK are non-white with even less being female.

Institutional Racism

It is said that the police are institutionally racist. This means that the whole of the police force - from the top to the bottom is racist. The whole structure, workings and day to day running of the police force is racist. This was found during the enquiry into the Stephen Lawrence case whereby he was racially attacked and the police actively didn't do anything to find the attackers, even went as far as to hinder the investigation. The report states that the racist jokes, 'banter' and running spilled out into their work which explains the difference in stop and search statistics, as well as the prison statistics.

Ethnicity and Poverty

Is it proven that ethnic minorities are more likely to live in poverty. In areas of high crime rates, and when in poverty, it is more likely for somebody to commit a crime. They are likely to face strain and see no other way of surviving other than committing a crime.

Ethnic minorities also have higher levels of unemployment which can also lead to a higher crime rate.

Finally, black working class boys are more likely to fail at education and turn to a criminal subculture.

The Media

There is a distorted view of crime among ethnic minorities within the media. Male criminals are often played by black men and the use of violent culture and music is often found within the black community. There is a lack of positive black male role models within the media and as such it can turn to boys idolising the wrong people.

Scapegoating

It is found that crimes are often 'blamed' on ethnic minorities by the criminal justice system which makes it appear as if there is more crime being committed by ethnic minorities when it is actually a reflection of the racism within society and specifically the criminal justice system.

Use this space to summarise your ideas in a mind map, a list or drawings - the choice is yours.

18

Test yourself

1. Who is more likely to be stopped and searched? What are the statistics?

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2. Is the prison population equal in relation to the wider population? Why / why not?

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3. What do sociologists mean by institutional racism?

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4. How can you link ethnicity and poverty? List as many ways as you can:

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5. How does the media portray ethnic minorities? How can this cause more crime?

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6. What do sociologists mean by scapegoating? How does this affect crime?

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Class and Crime

Marxists believe that the way in which society is organised (capitalism) causes crime for both classes as it socialses you into having a need for the best at all times. It is proven that higher levels of income (money) inequality within society correlates directly with higher rates of crime. The UK is a very unequal society in terms of wealth - the top 100 people have the same amount of wealth as the poorest 18 million people. This can explain why there is a high crime rate, as there are high levels of poverty.

Criminogenic Capitalism

The very nature of capitalism leaves crime as the only option for a lot of people. Capitalism encourages people to focus on themselves and unaffordable luxuries that are shown throughout the media. It creates an abundance of inequality and poverty by socialising people into wanting unrealistic goals.

Strain Theory

Merton's strain theory helps to explain why working class people are statistically more likely to commit a crime than the working class. Merton argues that when people cannot achieve what society expects them to achieve, they turn to crime to fill the gap.

Status Frustration

Cohen argues that working class boys often fail in education as they cannot get their status from academic achievement. Because of this cultural deprivation, the working class boys are likely to turn to crime as a way of gaining status in other ways. By becoming part of a criminal subculture, working class boys are more likely to gain status through this like vandalism, truancy, theft, carrying a knife etc.

Material Deprivation

The working class are more likely to suffer from material deprivation - a lack of material possessions (clothes, food, books, shoes, phones, TVs etc). This can cause them to commit a crime to be able to survive fully.

Lack of Education

Working class people are less likely to achieve 5 A-C grades at GCSE. This leads to a lack of opportunities in later life therefore leading to strain, poverty and a sense of deprivation. 1% of people sentenced to less than 12 months in prison achieved 5 or more GCSEs (or equivalents) graded A* - C including English and Maths.

Relative Deprivation

The sense of feeling deprived compared to somebody else. You are not actually deprived but in comparison to somebody else you feel it. For example, if somebody has the brand new iphone and you have an iphone 5, you may feel deprived because what they have is better and what society expects of you, but actually you are not deprived of anything at all.

The underclass

Charles Murray argues that there is a new "underclass" which is made up of unemployment, welfare dependency (relying on benefits), drug use, lone parents families and a lack of aspiration. Murray argues that this growing class of people rely on crime as a way of achieving the mainstream goals of society.

Marxism and the Law

The capitalist class (bourgeoisie) implement and manipulate laws to help themselves rather than society as a whole. The government will not pass (or if they do, not enforce) laws which threaten the profits of large businesses and in turn reduce the money that the upper class are making. An example of this is tighter laws against pollution (reducing plastic etc) as this will cost more money for the companies and reduce the profit margin.

People also have an unequal access to the law. The upper class have more access and money to top lawyers to be able to get them out of a particular problem that they may face which in turn can lead to a lack of punishment. Recent examples of this are: Ant McPartlin who didn't get punished for crashing his car whilst drink driving, David Beckham who hired a lawyer to get him out of a speeding fine and Brock Turner whose upper class status meant he got a very light sentence for raping an unconscious girl.

Upper Class Crime

Marxists argue that upper class crime is as much of a problem as working class crime. Snider (1993) argued that the cost of white collar crime is more costly than working class crime to society and the economy.

Occupational Crime

These are crimes that are committed whilst working for a company. It can range from stealing stationery, to goods, to money. It can be small scale or large scale theft but is always from the occupation or company that they are working for.

Corporate Crime

This is committed through the company that you work for, but instead of being committed by the workers, it is committed by the bosses of the company. It is as a result of the need for maximum profit and usually consists of large scale money laundering.

Professional Crime

This is where crime is a profession - it is a lifestyle and a job. This usually refers to large gangs, the mafia. Crime becomes their master status which is internalised and therefore becomes their identity.

Computer Crime

The rise in technology has meant that there has been a large scale increase in computer crimes - identity theft, fraud, intercepting money, hacking etc. Employees in positions of trust often abuse their power by stealing from the company by using their computing skills to launder money away from the company and into their personal bank accounts.

Use this space to summarise your ideas in a mind map, a list or drawings - the choice is yours.

Test Yourself

1. What do Marxists believe is the main cause of crime? Why?

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2. What does the term criminogenic capitalism mean?

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3. List as many ways as you can to link class, crime and the strain theory

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4. What does the term status frustration mean? How can you link education and crime together with this term?

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5. What is material deprivation? How might it make you turn to crime?

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6. Why does Murray believe we have an underclass? What are the main characteristics? How does this link to crime?

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7. Who makes the laws? How does this affect the way that crime is reported, treated and sanctioned?

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8. Fill in the table about upper class white collar crimes

Type of crime	Explanation	Example
Occupational Crime		
Corporate Crime		
Professional Crime		
Computer Crime		

Controlling Crime

Sociologists believe that the best way to control crime is through agents of social control. These are groups of people that can control your behaviour. They are similar to agents of socialisation, but instead of teaching you the norms and values, they enforce your behaviour.

Formal Social Control

Formal social control agents are people who are in no way related to you, nor do they educate you. They can enforce sanctions from the government and they follow rules and laws. Examples of formal social control are the police, the law, prison officers, juries, military officers etc.

Informal Social Control

Informal social control agencies are the people that surround you who control your behaviour. This can be your friends, family, people that are around you at the time, the education system. Informal social control does not rely on formal rules and sanctions, but rather controls your behaviour through social stigma and peer pressure.

Prison population

There are roughly 80,000 prisoners in England and Wales, 95% of them are male. The UK doesn't have the highest imprisonment rates - the USA does. 724 people per 100,000 are imprisoned in the USA. This equates to 2,220,300 people in prison in the USA. It costs roughly £37,000 to keep one prisoner in prison for one year.

The purpose of prisons

There are four main purposes to a prison. These are listed below:

- Punishment/retribution
- Rehabilitation (changing criminal behaviour in non-criminal behaviour.
- Protection (of the public)
- Deterrence (putting would-be criminals off)

Reoffending Rates (2015)

- 33% of black criminals reoffend
- 30% of white criminals reoffend
- 29% of all adult offenders reoffend
- 43% of juvenile offenders reoffend

Does Prison Work?

With the high rates of reoffending, prison doesn't meet its main goals of rehabilitation, punishment or deterrence. It does however protect society from offenders for the duration of their sentence.

Functionalism and Social Control

Functionalists believe that social control is important for society to work. All institutions and parts of society need to work together for society to function properly. This means that social control is important to ensure that we have boundary maintenance and social cohesion. Functionalists don't believe that social control is negative or bias in any way.

Marxism and Social Control

Marxists believe that social control is necessary to stop a revolution which will overthrow the bourgeoisie and stop the capitalist system. Marxists also believe that the upper class don't face equal social control. By this they mean that the working class are exploited, targeted and treated unfairly by the criminal justice system. This means that it will appear as if the working class commit more crime, when in actual fact it's that the face more control and therefore more working class crime is recorded.

Feminism and Social Control

Feminists believe that social control enables society and men to keep the patriarchy going. They believe that women face more gender control than men in every aspects of life which leads to less crime being committed by women. Through the control of the family women have less opportunities to commit crime and are socialised into their specific expressive gender role which keeps them at home in the caring role.

Interactionism and Social Control

You need to look at individuals interactions and their ideas about power and authority to understand social control. Criticises all other theories for being too deterministic - your class or your gender does not determine whether you become a criminal or not.

Controlling Crime - Test Yourself

1. What is social control?

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2. What is the difference between formal and informal social control? Give an example for each

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3. Fill in the table below about the views of the different theories in relation to social control

Theory	How they see society	How they see social control
Functionalism		
Feminism		
Marxism		
Interactionism		

4. List as many ways as you can think of to punish a criminal

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5. What is the British prison rate?

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6. What is the purpose of prisons?

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7. Does prison work? Include evidence in your answer

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Researching Crime

The exam will give you a specific scenario and ask you to pick a method to research that scenario and then ask you for advantages and disadvantages of the method that you chose. You will need to be able to relate it to the specific scenario that you are asked about. For example if you are studying young offenders you will need to be conscious of their age as they are a vulnerable group. This means that there is a practical issue of access to the participant but also an ethical issue of their age and consent - are they old enough to give consent or do you need their parents consent?

Research Step	What do you need to do?	What's the method? How do you do it?
1	Create your hypothesis and aim.	Do you want quantitative or qualitative data to support this? Are you going to use a primary method or a secondary method?
2	Choose a sampling method to find your participants.	Random sample
		Opportunity sample
		Systematic sample
		Stratified sample
		Snowball sample
4	Think of any possible issue you may have	Practical: Time Money Access to participants
		Ethical: Consent Right to withdraw Deception Confidentiality
		Theoretical: Hawthorne effect Validity Reliability Generalisability
5	Conduct your research	Observations: Participant / Non Participant_____ Overt / Covert
		Interviews: Structured / Unstructured__ Group
		Questionnaires: Postal / Online / Phone Closed Question Open Question
		Secondary Methods: Journals Diaries Newspapers Official Statistics

Method	Type of data	Advantage	Disadvantage
Interviews can be individual (researcher and participant) or in a group (researcher and a group of people). Interviews can also be structured (a set of questions that you cannot stray from) or unstructured (like an informal chat).	Qualitative	You can get in depth information about that particular subject that you are researching	If it's in a group then the participant may be affected by their friends or other participants and not tell the truth.
Observations are the researcher watching a particular group or situation. This can be one of two ways: Participant observation where the researcher is taking part in the activity that they are researching. Non participant observation where the researcher is just watching and not taking part in the research. Observation can also be covert or overt. Overt is where the participant is fully aware that you are there researching and what you are researching. Covert is where you are undercover and the participants are unaware that you are researching.	Qualitative and can sometimes be quantitative.	You can be part of the group and see people in their natural habitats and surroundings.	Your presence can change the actions of the group. If you are covert you could also put yourself as a researcher in danger.
Pilot Studies are small scale studies that you do before your full scale research to test your hypothesis and smooth out any problems with the research.	Qualitative and / or Quantitative	You can solve any problems that may occur before you conduct your main research	Takes time and money

Questionnaires can be conducted in person or by distance (e.g. post). They can have a mixture of questions but generally have either closed questions or open questions. Closed questions get quantitative data so that you can only choose a particular answer (e.g. strongly agree, agree, unsure, disagree, strongly disagree). You can then say that 6/90 people strongly agree with smoking when pregnant etc. Open questions allow the participant to express their ideas and opinions and allows them to write as much or as little on the topic as they wish. This is qualitative data.	Closed = quantitative Open = qualitative	You can get a large sample as they can be sent out by post or email to thousands of people relatively cheaply and quickly	As it is not face to face, people may be less inclined to respond leaving your sample skewed.

Social Stratification

3 x 2 markers

43 x 4 markers

3 x 9 markers

Social Stratification Checklist

Conflict (Marxism and Feminism) vs Consensus (Functionalism) theories
Functionalist view of stratification
Davis and Moore's role allocation theory
Meritocracy
Marxism and stratification
Two class system (ruling class and working class)
How the bourgeoisie exploit the proletariat
False class consciousness
Weber's theory of stratification
Feminist view of stratification
Formal and Informal power
Weber's types of authority (traditional, charismatic, legal-rational)
Inequality in education
Inequality in crime
Inequality in income and wealth
Inequality in health
Inequality in family
Inequality in work
Inequality in the media
Social construction of identity
Discrimination of CAGE (class, age, gender and ethnicity)
Labelling of CAGE
Media representation of CAGE
Idea of scapegoating
Idea of moral panics
Subcultures
Devine's work on life chances
Social class and life chances
Patriarchy and life chances
Ethnicity and life chances (including institutional racism)
Ageism
Models of disability
Types of poverty (absolute and relative)
Who is most likely to be in poverty
Culture of poverty (the underclass)
Cycle of deprivation / poverty
Globalisation and poverty

Social Stratification

Social Stratification

Social stratification is the idea that people are organised into groups based on their occupation, their income, their wealth, their status and / or their power. This means that we then have a social class system which is a hierarchy meaning that some people have a greater status and wealth than others.

Life Chances

Max Weber says that life chances are the opportunities that an individual has to improve their quality of life. It describes how likely it is, given the chances that a person has, that their life will work out in a particular way. Weber argues that if you are of a high socioeconomic status (the middle and upper classes), your chances are positively correlated to better chances within life. This can be linked to other units such as crime and deviance, education and the family. If a child is an upper class child, their life chances are much higher because they statistically go to a better rated schools, have opportunities to network with other upper class professionals, have more material possessions etc. This then in turn leads to a higher quality of life through having better life chances.

Life Chances and Class

Devine makes the link between life chances and stratification. In 1992 she studied working class culture and how it has changed in Britain over time. She found that the majority of workers said that the working conditions had raised over time but that there was still a major inequality in terms of inherited wealth and the class inequalities that are prevalent in today's society.

Wealth Inequalities

- In 2016, 74% of the judiciary (judges) had attended private school, this has been the same since the 1980s and continues to be a factor that affects their life. Those who attend a private school are said to have higher life chances than those who did not.
- Free School Meals is often used as a measure of income - only 15% of all boys who are eligible for free school meals achieved 5 or more GCSEs.
- The top directors in companies have had their pay increased by 40% since 2009. In contrast, the average worker has taken a 9% pay cut.
- There has been an increase of 35000% of families needing to use a foodbank since 2009.
- Children from high-income backgrounds who show signs of low academic ability at age five are 35 per cent more likely to become high earners than their poorer peers who show early signs of high ability
- Graduates from disadvantaged backgrounds who do make it to the top jobs still earn, on average, over £2,200 a year less than their colleagues who happen to have been born to professional or managerial parents – even when they have the same educational attainment, the same role and the same experience
- Unexceptional children with rich parents are more likely to earn a big salary when they grow up than children who are bright but poor, according to a study by the Social Mobility and Child Poverty Commission.

Social Stratification - Test Yourself

1. What does the term social stratification mean?

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2. What do Sociologists mean by life chances?

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3. Write as many examples of life chances that you can

4. How does your wealth and income affect your life chances?

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5. Plan the following 9 mark question: "Assess whether low income means low life chances"

Agree:	Disagree:

Conclusion:

Functionalism and Stratification

Functionalism
Functionalists believe that everything in society works together like a human body in order for society to function properly. If one institution (the family, the education system, the criminal justice system etc) stops working, then society will not work properly.

Their view on social stratification
They believe that stratification is important - everybody has a role to play within society. If everybody has equal powers and roles within society then there would be no reason to work hard or people to fill less desirable jobs. Social stratification is natural and healthy.

Why is social stratification important?
Davis and Moore argue that social stratification occurs in every society to enable all jobs within society to be filled. Those who work hard in important jobs should earn more money because they are needed by society. For example a doctor is well paid and is accorded high status in the community because the functional importance of his/her work is widely recognised. Therefore these social status differences are also functional for societies because they provide another incentive for individuals to opt for difficult but functionally important occupations.

Socially Mobile
If somebody is socially mobile, they are able to move from one social class to another. This could be moving up or down the social ladder. Social mobility is prominent in society today because through the education system and laws governing equality, people have equal opportunities to access life chances.

Meritocracy
This is the idea that with hard work and determination you can become socially mobile. If society is meritocratic, it is organised in a way that allows for social mobility. For example, everybody has an opportunity to go to school and work hard, achieve good grades, go to university and get a top rated job. Functionalists believe that the chances that are given to people in society allow for them to move up the stratification ladder and be socially mobile.

Functionalism and Stratification - Test Yourself

1. How do functionalists see society? Why?

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2. Do Functionalists see stratification as a positive or a negative thing? Why?

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3. What do Functionalists mean by socially mobile? Give an example

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4. Do you think the UK is meritocratic (based on meritocracy)? Why?

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5. Plan the following 9 mark question: "Assess the view that inequality is needed for society to function"

1.6.

Agree:	Disagree:
Conclusion:	

Marxism and Stratification

Karl Marx, the key founder of Marxism, stated that we live in a capitalist class society. This is that the bourgeoisie (upper class) control the means of production (the factories, businesses etc) and exploit the proletariat (working class) for their cheap labour. This system then keeps the rich people rich and the poor people poor.

According to a Marxist, there is absolutely no reasons for the inequality as it is harmful to society. They believe that institutions such as the family and the education system keep the social stratification of classes and does not allow for meritocracy.

Alienation

Marx argued that workers face alienation in an industrial society - they do not see the point that their work has in the wider sense or in the bigger picture. Because a worker is just a cog in a much larger business, they can be replaced instantly by either another worker or technology. This lack of connection with their work means that workers are alienated.

False Class Consciousness

This is a Marxist idea whereby the proletariat are aware that they are being exploited by the bourgeoisie but that they have come to accept it as inevitable meaning that there is nothing that they can do about it. It is a normal system that happens in society regardless of how they feel about it.

Marxism and Education

Marx believed that children from wealthy backgrounds have an unfair advantage in the educational system though material and cultural capital. The education system just created the next set of workers to be exploited.

Marxism and the Criminal Justice System

Marxists believe that the criminal justice system treats the upper class with more leniency than the working class. Judges and juries (themselves middle class) treat the working class more harshly by giving more custodial and longer sentences. The rich can also afford better lawyers to be able to get out of situations that the working class cannot.

Max Weber

Weber is also a Marxist although he wrote at a later time than Marx and argued that classes develop in societies where people earn different amounts of money. He said that a class is a group of people who share the same types of job and the same wage level. Because of this, the group shares similar life chances. He says that the inequalities come from those who control the means of production (factories) and those who do not. He also takes into consideration those who get paid a lot of money because their services are in demand - he believes that footballers singers, actors etc get a high amount of money but do not own any means of production. If you take his definition of class these people are still upper class.

Evidence
Britain's five richest families worth more than poorest 20% (Oxfam research published in The Guardian, March 2014). A January 2014 report by Oxfam claims that the 85 wealthiest individuals in the world have a combined wealth equal to that of the bottom 50% of the world's population, or about 3.5 billion people.

Absolute Poverty
Absolute poverty means that you cannot afford basic means necessary to survive. This includes food, shelter, clothes, electricity, sanitary products etc. Once you are in absolute poverty it is very difficult to get out of it.

Subjective Poverty
You have enough to survive but you still cannot afford enough to be able to fit into society. You are excluded from the majority of things that society tells you that you need. This could be things such as a mobile phone, wifi, fridge, kettle, sofa, wardrobes etc. These things do not threaten your survival but they mean that you cannot fit properly into society.

Relative Poverty
Similar to relative deprivation, relative poverty is where you feel in poverty compared to somebody else - you may be able to have afford a phone but it it not the best phone.

The Poverty Trap
The poverty trap shows how difficult it is for somebody to get out of poverty in the UK today.

Can't afford to attend school

Fewer life chances

Children forced to work

Poverty Trap

Marry young and have children

Children have no further education

Child grows up into a low paid job
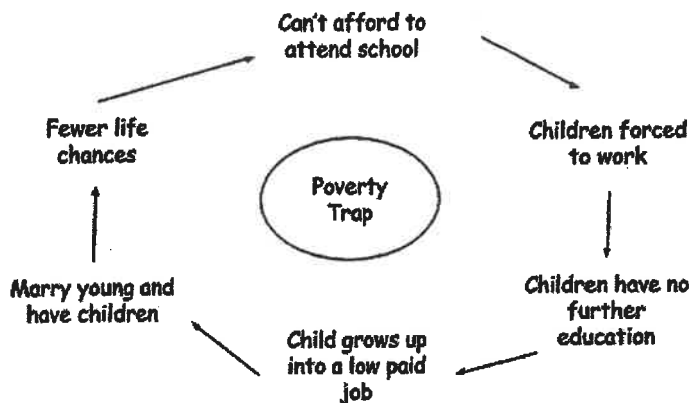
Poverty Statistics

- 7.3% of the UK population are experiencing persistent poverty, equivalent to roughly 4.6 million people.
- From 2012 to 2015, roughly 3 in 10 (30.2%) of the population were at risk of poverty for at least 1 year
- In England's most deprived areas, 40% of children were overweight or obese in the last year, compared to 27% in the most affluent. Repeated studies show poverty negatively impacts the health of children: both physical and mental.
- It is estimated that the wealthiest 80 individuals own more wealth than half the entire population of the earth (UN, 2017)

Marxism and Stratification - Test Yourself

1. List all of the ways that the education system continues capitalism and the poverty cycle

2. List all of the ways the family family continues capitalism and the poverty cycle

3. What do Marxists mean by alienation? Who is alienated?

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4. What is the false class consciousness?

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5. How are Marx and Weber different?

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6. Fill in the table below explaining the different types of poverty

Type of Poverty	Explanation	Example
Absolute Poverty		
Subjective Poverty		
Relative Poverty		

7. What is the poverty trap? How is this affected by your education and your family?

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8. Complete the table to plan the question: "Assess the view that once you are in poverty, there is no way out"

Agree:	Disagree:
Conclusion:	

Power and Authority

Societies are organised in different ways. Some societies have one person at the top of the hierarchy who dictates power, some have an equal distribution of power and others revolve around religion, Royal Families etc.

Democracy - decision making is by the people, usually through elected representatives (Prime Ministers and Members of Parliament). The UK has a democracy so every major decision has to be voted on by society and final decisions made by the elected representative. So something like Brexit is controlled by the elected representative - society has had it's say on the matter and the elective is executing the decision.

Monarchy - a king or queen rules and make most of the decisions. We have a monarchy in the UK and technically the Queen has the power to overrule any decision made by the democracy but she does not execute the power. A country like Saudi Arabia has a true Monarchy - the Royal Family rule and make all of the decisions.

Weber

Charismatic Authority
Max Weber talks about this type of authority stating that it relates to an individual person who has a lot of charisma - this is that they can rally people together because of their personality.

Traditional Authority
This type of authority is based on the traditions of a particular society. In Britain, we have a monarchy and the Queen has a form of authority because of the power and status that they have been given over time. Somebody who is a Lord, Lady, Duke, Sir, Dame ect would also have this type of authority - it's embedded in the culture of the country.

Legal Rational Authority
Some people are given authority by the law and the profession that they are in. Teachers, police, judges, security guards all have power and authority when working. This is legal rational. If a teacher asks a student not to do something in a lesson they have a power and authority over the student, but if a teacher asked a stranger in the street not to do something on a weekend they wouldn't have power or authority over the other.

Although we have all of these formal ways in which society is organised and power is distributed, you can still have informal sources of power which control your behaviour.

Formal Power and Control

This is where you have power and control due to your job and your occupation. Almost like a legal rational authority. Anybody with a position of power (whether it be a shop manager to a politician) has power over people. This is formal and is accepted by everybody.

Informal Power and Control

There is no formal position of power or control but you can naturally lead a group of people and persuade them to do something. This is like in a peer group when one person is the natural leader of the group. This can lead to either positive or negative peer group pressure and can create subcultures in both education and crime.

<u>Power and Authority - Test Yourself</u>

1. Fill in the table to explain the different types of society

Type of society	Description	Example
Democracy		
Monarchy		

2. What is power?

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3. What are the different types of power that you can have?

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4. What's the difference between formal and informal power and authority?

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5. Plan out the following 9 mark question: "Some sociologists argue that democracy leads to more equality. Do you agree with this view?"

Agree:	Disagree:

Conclusion:

Feminism and stratification

Women are exploited in society through the idea of patriarchy running through every institution within society. The family, the education system, religion, the media all reproduce patriarchy and oppress women according to Feminists. Sylvia Walby argues that patriarchy is central to our understanding of society. There are 6 main ways that men maintain the patriarchy and their domination:

1. Paid Work - women have their opportunities blocked when in work. Women are still seen as wives and as mothers and as such have less opportunity to climb the career ladder.
2. Unpaid Work - The domestic labour given by women is still unequal. Women do most of the housework as well as the paid labour.
3. Social Expectations - Women may have more freedom today but there is still an expectation of what a woman should be like, act like and dress like.
4. Violence - Men still use violence against women when the man's authority is threatened.
5. Sexuality - Women have greater freedom to explore their sexuality but they are held to double standards - women who have had multiple sexual partners are labelled negatively where this is praised for men.
6. The state - the government doesn't enforce equality laws as it should. There is an equal pay act and an anti discrimination act but these aren't enforced as rigorously as they should be.

When looking at stratification and power within society, you can always bring in the ways in which patriarchy is continued in both the family, the education system and the criminal justice system. Look back at the Feminist modules for more detailed information.

Feminism and Stratification - Test Yourself

1. What does patriarchy mean?

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2. What are the 4 main types of Feminism? What do they believe?

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3. What are the ways that Feminists believe society is patriarchal?

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4. Has the position of women got better over time? Why / Why not? (Think about the different topics that we have covered over to help you answer this question)

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5. Plan an answer to the following question: "Some sociologists believe that there is not equality between men and women. Do you agree with this view?

Agree:	Disagree:

Conclusion:

Age

Different societies, cultures and time periods have differing views on age. Some societies believe that you should respect your elders and some societies believe that children deserve respect. This proves that age is socially constructed. It isn't a social fact but is something that is made by society. Traditionally, society respect age, older people had high status due to their accumulated and experienced.

Ageism

Ageism is the discrimination of somebody or a group of people based only on their age. Ageism is a big problem in society. Elderly people in modern Britain aren't treated with respect. The Guardian (2018) reported that "ageist behaviour and language is trivialised, overlooked or even served up as the punchline to a joke – something we would rightly not tolerate with other forms of prejudice." The study also found that half of women and a quarter of men said they felt pressure to stay looking young. Society believes that old people are incapable, a burden to everybody and Ageism isn't only a problem for the elderly, but is also a problem with the young.

The Elderly in the Media

The media often shows the elderly as vulnerable, insecure, fearful and helpless. Any elderly person that is not portrayed in this way is shown as being a comical character. Think about Norris in Coronation Street, he is not shown as vulnerable but is shown as a comical character. The same goes with the Simpsons.

Elderly Inequalities

By law, employers used to be able to force out employees from the workplace if they are aged 65 or older. This only changed in 2006, when it became more accepted that people are living longer and as such would still be healthy enough to work and be a part of the labour force. Insurance companies for things like cars, and travel put the premium up for those who are considered to be older. This is despite any previous records of clean health, a good driving record etc. Driving licences also have to be renewed more often with health assessments being compulsory. In terms of healthcare, the elderly are not always given "routine" operations that may improve their quality of life if it is not seen as life threatening. This may include new knees' hips etc and they are reserved for those who are younger. In the workplace, people over a certain age (generally around 45/50) stop getting promotions as they are given to younger people whose training will give longer benefits to those who own the company.

Inequalities and the young

There has been a lot of criticism of "millennials" recently, with the generation being branded as carefree, damaging, lazy and disrespectful by the media and wider society. As a result of this, there are laws to stop young people from doing things. This could be smoking, drinking alcohol, having sex, voting, driving a car, buying knives, getting married etc. These laws are put in place to "protect" young people. The age of sexual consent was put in place to stop child prostitution but in today's society it could be argued that some of the restrictive laws don't make sense.

The Young in the Media

As well as having laws in place to restrict activities of the young, they are also demonised in society and used as a scapegoat for problems that are occuring in society. An example is the rising crime rate. This is often blamed on young, bored teenagers who turn to gangs or anti social behaviour to fill their time. Children are often called "yobs" or "thugs" in media headlines.

Age - Test Yourself

1. What does the term ageism mean?

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2. Who can be affected by ageism?

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3. How are the elderly shown in the media? Give examples

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4. What sorts of things are young people blamed for?

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5. How are youths shown in the media?

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6. Plan out an answer to the following question: "Assess the view that age is the main cause of inequality in the UK"

Agree:	Disagree:

Conclusion:

Ethnicity

In the UK, ethnic minorities are not treated as equally as the ethnic majority. This is in every aspect of society.

The Criminal Justice System

The police is considered to be institutionally racist. This means that they target ethnic minorities more in their stop and searches and also the courts are more likely to convict an ethnic minority than a white person. On top of this, black people are more likely to be murdered and be a victim of crime.

Poverty

Ethnic minorities have a higher rate of unemployment (double the percentage - 4% compared to 8%). Children who are born into families with unemployment are more likely to face material and cultural deprivation, in turn underachieve at education and be stuck in the poverty trap.

The Education System

Ethnic minorities are less likely to engage in the British education system as it has a very ethnocentric curriculum - this is the idea that the national curriculum revolves around one ethnicity - white. Racial abuse is rife within society.

Black people who go to university are less likely to be paid the same wage as their white counterpart. 17.2% of ethnic minority applicants were admitted to Oxford University, compared to 25.7% of white applicants. This is where the ethnic minority groups reached the entry criteria.

Life Chances

6% of MPs are from an ethnic minority, 5.9% of judges and 5.5% of the police. This shows that black people who go on to take on jobs with authority and a position of power is very low.

Ethnicity and the media

Ethnic minorities are often targeted with negative language in the media with language like "terrorist" making the ethnic minority seem to be dangerous and a threat to society. Recently in America there was a lone shooter (Stephen Craig Paddock) who opened fire on a crowd in Las Vegas and was branded a "lone wolf killer" by the media. If Stephen was from an ethnic minority he would have been branded a terrorist by the media.

If you think of ethnicity and music, most ethnic minority music videos are focused around gangs, drugs and crime. This reinforces societal stereotypes.

Marxist view on Ethnic Inequality

Marxists believe that the capitalist class exploit the ethnic minorities for their cheap labour. If you think of the low paid manual labour jobs within the UK there is a high proportion of immigrants and ethnic minorities working. There has been a large scandal in recent years of immigrants working for below minimum wage in car washes and takeaways run by White British capitalists.

Marxists also argue that ethnic minorities are used as a scapegoat - this is that they have problems within society pinned on them as a 'way out' or explanation of a problem.

Feminism and Ethnic Inequality

Feminists argue that ethnic minorities are more likely to face patriarchal oppression as well as ethnic oppression. This could be through the family, the education system or wider society.

Functionalism and Ethnic Inequality

Functionalists believe that migration and the role allocation of jobs in society is important and inevitable for a diverse society which is healthy. It has a good impact on culture, food, arts and clothes. Having said this, too much ethnic diversity is bad for society though as it breaks the value consensus.

Ethnicity - Test Yourself

1. How can you link crime, ethnicity and stratification?

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2. Why are ethnic minorities more likely to be in poverty?

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3. How does the education system affect the achievement of an ethnic minority pupil?

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4. How are ethnicities portrayed in the media?

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5. What is institutional racism?

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6. Fill in the table below to summarise how the theories would see ethnicity and stratification

Theory	View on ethnicity and stratification
Functionalism	
Feminism	
Marxism	

7. Plan an answer to the 9 mark question "Assess whether a person's ethnicity is the biggest factor which affects their position within society"

Agree:	Disagree:

Conclusion:

Sexuality

Disability in the UK carries some social stigma. It is a subject which is avoided but which is governed by law for equality within the UK. Under the equality act of 2010, you are considered to be disabled if "you have a physical or mental impairment that has a 'substantial' and 'long-term' negative effect on your ability to do normal daily activities" (gov.co.uk). Under the equality act, it makes it compulsory for companies to make their services accessible for any form of disability. This could be a physical disability which means that every public service should have ramps, lifts, escalators etc for physical impairments. For visual impairment companies have to have their written documentation in other formats - braille, bigger writing or in audio format. Because of this, you would think that societies impression of people with disabilities is equal to those who are not disabled.

Disability and the State
Although in the UK we have the Equality Act, there are two split ideas as to whose responsibility it is to make sure that somebody with a disability can access things the same as everybody else. Under the social model, it is the responsibility of society - this is where society adapts everything to ensure that there are no barriers for the individual. It is society's duty to ensure that it adapts to include disabilities.
Under the medical model, it is the responsibility of the individual to make sure that they can access society fully. They must make sure that they have everything that they need to be able to adapt into society's way of working.

Disability in the Media

Disabilities in the media are shown in one of two ways - similarly to the elderly, they are either shown to be completely vulnerable and incapable or as a comical character. Think of Dory in Finding Nemo, she has a memory impairment and is made fun of in the way that she can never remember anything. If you think of Matt Lucas' character in little Britain he constantly makes fun of being impaired.

Disability in Sport

The Olympics are a world wide sporting event that happens every 4 years. It features only non disabled people and has major media coverage and support from big businesses. The Paralympics however, is held separate after the main Olympics have taken place and after the "closing ceremony". There is a lot of debate as to whether the should be combined. There is mess media coverage of the Paralympics, ticket prices are lower and the status of the athletes is much lower than the olympic athletes.

Disability and Life Chances

People with disabilities face a lot of discrimination and social exclusion. Employment levels of people with a disability has decreased since 2013, meaning that unemployment is high. With unemployment comes lower life chances. Those who are employed face up to 25% less pay than those who are not disabled.

Sexuality and Stratification

Between 2010 and 2015, the government provided £2 million worth of funding to raise awareness of homophobic bullying in schools. This has come a long way since the 1980s when it was illegal to talk about same sex relationships in school. Same sex relationships were decriminalised in 1967. Although it was not illegal, the age of consent for same sex relations was 21. Only in 2010 did it become equal at 16. The life chances of LGBT+ people are much lower than others. Although there is much more equality in the law, the discrimination and homophobia that people face in everyday life means that LGBT+ people are more likely to suffer from mental health - higher levels of anxiety, depression and other mental health.

Sexuality and Disability - Test Yourself

1. What is a disability?

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2. How does the government respond to disabilities?

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3. What are the two types of models for adapting to disability

Model	Description

4. How is disability shown in the media?

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5. How is your sexuality likely to affect your life chances?

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6. Plan a question to the following 9 mark question: "Disability is one of the biggest barriers to social mobility. Do you agree with this view?"

Agree:	Disagree:
Conclusion:	