

GCSE



Final Revision Pack

Paper 1: Family and Education

Paper 2: Crime and Deviance and Social Stratification

Exam Board: AQA 8192

Name

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Dear Yr11 Sociology Students

This pack has been designed to provide some additional materials alongside your official revision guide. You should also refer to module specific knowledge organisers and other materials in your exercise books.

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How to use this pack:

- ✓ Read the advice and materials given to you
- ✓ Test yourself on: key words, concepts and sociological studies
- ✓ Practice as many exam questions as you can and plan for essay questions

Overview of Exam Papers

Paper 1: The sociology of families and education	+ Paper 2: The sociology of crime and deviance and social stratification
What's assessed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The sociology of families The sociology of education Relevant areas of social theory and methodology <p>Students will be expected to draw on knowledge and understanding of the entire course of study to show a deeper understanding of these topics.</p>	What's assessed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The sociology of crime and deviance The sociology of social stratification Relevant areas of social theory and methodology <p>Students will be expected to draw on knowledge and understanding of the entire course of study to show a deeper understanding of these topics.</p>
How it's assessed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written exam: 1 hour 45 minutes 100 marks 50% of GCSE 	How it's assessed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written exam: 1 hour 45 minutes 100 marks 50% of GCSE
Questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Section A has two multiple choice questions followed by a range of short and extended responses. Section B has two multiple choice questions followed by a range of short and extended responses. 	Questions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Section A has two multiple choice questions followed by a range of short and extended responses. Section B has two multiple choice questions followed by a range of short and extended responses.

Command Words

The command words in an exam question tell you exactly what the examiners will be looking for in your answer and which skills you must demonstrate in order to earn full marks.

Here are some examples of command words along with an explanation of how you should respond to these words.

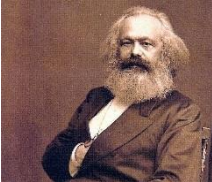
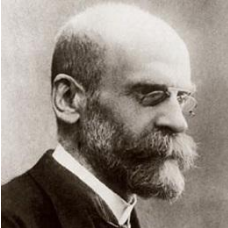


- Identify...** State a point briefly or name
- Describe...** Set out the main features or characteristics; give an account of
- From Item B...** Draw on relevant material – but do not just copy it out!
- Identify and explain one reason why...** Briefly state a relevant reason and develop this by discussing the reason in more depth
- Discuss how far sociologists agree...** Explain one side of the debate and criticise it, present other sides of the debate and come to a conclusion.

How to Answer the GCSE Questions

		Advice	Marks
1.	Key Term Multiple choice	Which term... Tick only one of the four word options available	1
2.	Key Term Multiple choice		1
3.	Identify / Describe	[Identify and] describe – Show good knowledge and understanding of relevant sociological theories, concepts, evidence and methods	3
4.	Identify / Describe		3
5.	Examine (Source)	Examine one [strength/weakness] from research – identify a relevant point and briefly say why it is a strength or weakness	2
6.	Identify and Explain (Source)	Identify and explain relevant factor	Write one paragraph in which you identify the point clearly [1 mark] and then give a detailed and well developed explanation of relevant sociological theories, concepts, evidence and methods relevant to question. Make sure you apply this information by linking it to the context of the question [3 marks]
7.	Identify and Explain	Identify and explain relevant advantage /disadvantage	
8.	Identify and Explain	Identify and describe relevant research method	
9.	Identify and Explain	Identify and explain relevant [sociological concept]	
10.	Evaluative Essay Question	Discuss how far sociologists agree that [argument] <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 PEEL paragraph for 1 PEEL paragraph against Mini conclusion to link back to question 	12

11. Evaluative Essay Question		Link (say how the material in this paragraph links to the essay question)	12
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Overview of Sociological Theories

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

Weberianism



A theory developed by Weber that describes society as being in a state of conflict between those with status, wealth and power and those without. Weberian sociologists are interested in studying where power, wealth and status exists in society and how they are used by people.

Research Methods Knowledge Organiser

Stages of carrying out research	Ethical Issues	Sampling
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generate a testable hypothesis: a statement/question that can be investigated • Design your study: choosing the correct research methods and sampling strategy • Conduct a pilot study (practice research investigation): designed to see if the main study is feasible • Apply your revised research method/s by collecting primary/secondary data • Analyse data to see if it is reliable, to make it into useful information, and to represent it using graphs/chart to investigate trends, patterns and correlations • Draw reasoned conclusions that are presented in a clear and useful manner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consent - Participants must give their consent (permission) to take part. • Informed consent - Participants must be made aware of any dangers/risks, and be made aware of their right to leave the research at any stage (right to withdraw). • Safety - Researchers have a duty to protect their participants (and research team) and not to expose them to undue risks. This includes causing emotional distress. • Sensitivity - Researchers should be sensitive when dealing with vulnerable groups. • Debriefing - At the end of the experiment, participants must be debriefed: given an explanation of the nature of research and how the experiment works. • Confidentiality/Anonymity - Researchers must respect the confidentiality of their participants. This also includes storing all relevant data securely. • Not misrepresenting data - Researchers must have integrity: they must be honest and not tamper with data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Random sampling – This is when everyone has an equal chance of being selected. • Systematic sampling – Choosing randomly from a list. E.g. every 5th, 10th or 20th person on a register or from a list • Stratified sampling – to make the sample as representative as possible, the sample frame will be divided into a number of smaller groups, such as social class, age, gender, ethnicity etc. Individuals are then drawn at random from these groups. • Snowball sampling – This is when you ask your participants to recommend other participants • Opportunity sampling – Where the most convenient or suitable persons are picked • Cluster sampling – This is when the researcher divides the population into separate groups, called clusters. A random sample of clusters is selected from the population. • Quota sampling – interviews must question an exact quota (number) of people from categories such as females, teenagers, in proportion to the numbers in the wider population.

Different Methods of Research

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Observations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can collect detailed and in-depth qualitative data which is likely to be high in validity so it can help you understand what people do and why • If non-participant then you are likely to remain apart from your research subjects and so will remain more objective • If participant observation is used you will really understand the group under study and see things from their point of view • There is no deception involved in the research so nobody feels compromised • If structured using grid tally observation and operationalised terms then you can get reliable data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overt observations may result in the group under study changing their behaviour due to the observer – the Hawthorne effect • Time consuming and likely to be expensive to complete as many observations are longitudinal • It can often be difficult to gain access to the groups you wish to observe • Often difficult to take notes when observing so many researchers have to rely on their memories later which means much can be forgotten or misconstrued • If participant observation is used, many researchers find that they become too involved with the group they are studying and start to lose their objectivity • It doesn't get reliable data (participant observation is unstructured)

C o v e r t o b s e r v a t i o n s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allows the researcher to see participants in their natural environment – improved ecological validity; ● Prevents people from changing their ‘normal’ behaviour – avoids the Hawthorne Effect; ● Increases validity as people do not know they are being studied; ● If using participant observation, it allows the researcher to act as part of the group under study and to really understand things from their point of view – improved validity; ● May allow research to be conducted upon groups that would not normally allow researchers in i.e. prostitutes, the homeless, criminals, gangs etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Covert observations have a number of associated ethical issues ● Difficult to gain access to the group you wish to study e.g. for a covert participant observation, as groups are often deviant/taboo i.e. drug dealers, gangs etc; ● Not ethical – difficult to morally justify spying on people; ● May put the researcher in danger if the group find out they are being researched and have not given their consent; ● Danger of the researcher ‘going native’ and losing their objectivity; ● Research conducted covertly is typically small scale and therefore is unlikely to be representative meaning generalisations cannot be made; ● Taking notes/recording information in a covert research study would be very difficult meaning information could be forgotten/changed and therefore lessen its validity
L o n g i t u d i n a l s t u d y	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Allows a researcher to build up a picture of social life that recognises changes over time ● Helps to prevent the study from going out of date ● Allows for lots of depth and detail ● Helps the researcher to build a rapport with the participants ● Gains more valid data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Difficult to manage as people’s circumstances are constantly changing ● Time consuming for the researcher ● Costly for the researcher ● Data is not reliable ● Researcher may have to cope with participants dropping out of the study or moving away
I n t e r v i e w s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The researcher gets to speak to the respondents face-to- face so can persuade people to answer thus reducing the problem of non-response ● Interviews can be conducted by phone, avoiding the expense and possible issues of social desirability/interviewer bias ● In unstructured and semi-structured interviews, the researcher can probe to really find out what the respondent means, so increasing validity ● They produce qualitative data that can be used to find out about attitudes and opinions; ● Interviews are good for gathering in-depth and detailed information ● Questions can be rephrased and explained if respondents aren’t sure what they’re being asked; Group interviews allow discussions to take place to really explore feelings and viewpoints ● Structured interviews allow for respondents answers to be compared and are a reliable method ● Interviews involve interaction between the researcher and the respondent encouraging open and honest responses which are likely to be more valid ● Seeing body language helps you to build rapport/tell if someone is telling the truth ● High response rate – difficult to say no to a researcher face-to-face 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Interviews are quite time intensive as they involve a conversation ● Can cost a lot to conduct as interviewers have to be trained ● Sample sizes are often quite small when interviews are used as a research method which may lead to issues with a lack of representativeness and generalisability of data ● Interviews are conducted in artificial situations therefore you can never be certain that what is said in an interview is actually what the respondent really thinks ● Interviews are only as successful as the researcher carrying them out, particularly true in an unstructured interview where probing is essential ● If respondents are not asked the same questions i.e. in unstructured interviews, then comparisons between findings are hard to make ● There is a risk of interviewer bias which may affect the validity of the data ● Sometimes respondents may give answers that they feel the interviewer wants to hear, so reducing validity – socially desirable responses ● Recording errors may reduce the validity of the data collected ● Respondents can lie e.g. because they don’t want to look bad in front of someone, which reduces validity

Q u e s t i o n n a i r e s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Relatively easy and cheap to complete research therefore can target a large sample and gain more data ● If comprised (made up) of closed questions, is good for gathering quantitative data which can be used to compare the responses of different social groups ● Relatively quick and easy to complete as a respondent so shouldn't be any problems in terms of knowing what to do ● If self-completion can be completed at leisure allowing people time to complete properly and fully ● If postal can be sent out to a wide geographical sample and so improve representativeness of data gathered ● Often completed in private so avoids any researcher effects ● Standardised questions means the reliability of the data gathered should be high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Often uses closed questions so unlikely to produce detailed, qualitative data therefore not good for finding out why people think/act as they do ● Closed questions may mean people have to tick an option box closest to what they think rather than what they actually think thus reducing validity of data gathered ● May be rushed or not taken seriously meaning answers may lack validity ● If self-completion no way of checking the person you intended to complete the questionnaire actually did so ● Problems of non-response may result in a distorted sample and thus less representative data ● If self-completion no way for respondent to raise any queries about any part of the method meaning that it may not be completed in the way that was intended ● Any leading questions may bias respondents answers
C o n t e n t A n a l y s i s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Cheap to complete research – only really need some media to analyse ● Can target a sample and gain more data ● Easy to research - the rapid growth of the internet has made the process even easier with a vast array of media now available online to access and analyse ● Straightforward to complete research as you really just need to tally up the number of times each category in your grid/chart is shown ● Reliable method – others can check the findings by using the same grid and applying it to the same sample to see if they get the same results ● Produces quantitative data which can be turned into statistics so various comparisons can be made to establish any patterns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The media is often biased so the researcher needs to be aware that results may also be biased ● Success of the method depends on the quality of the categories - if important points are missed out then these will also be missing from the results which results in an incomplete picture ● If categories aren't clearly operationalised then there will be a lack of consistency when completing research leading to issues of reliability - especially important if research is being completed by a team as they would all be recording different information in different categories. ● The quantitative data produced will not be detailed or in-depth or explain why the content is as it is, leading some researchers to question its usefulness ● Results are often based on the judgements and opinions of just one person, which is likely to make any conclusions biased
O f f i c i a l N a t i o n a l S t a t i s t i c s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Many official statistics are freely available to researchers and the general public. ● Easy to access and to navigate by using the ONS website. ● Enable us to make comparisons between social groups and regions, for example the UK National Census ● Enable us to make historical comparisons over time because they often go back a long way. ● Allow us to spot trends, find correlations and make generalisations. ● Allow the research to remain detached so there is less room for the subjective bias of the researcher to interfere with the research process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Statistics are free, but they are expensive and time consuming to collect. ● The data which exists and the categories and indicators used might not fit a researcher's specific research purposes. ● Some Official Statistics lack validity, for example crimes may go unreported and so aren't counted. ● The way that some social trends are measured changes over time – sometimes making historical comparisons difficult. ● Official statistics may also lack validity because they are collected by the state and massaged to make things look better than they actually are.

Glossary: Research Methods

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY

1. Hypothesis	A supposition, hunch or informed guess, usually written as a statement that can be tested and then either supported by the evidence or proved wrong.
2. Ethical issues / considerations	Issues such as informed consent and confidentiality that sociologists must consider in order to conduct morally acceptable research.
3. Data: Qualitative and Quantitative	Qualitative: information presented as words or quotations. Quantitative: information presented in numerical form, e.g. as graphs, tables of statistics.
4. Research methods: primary & secondary	Primary: information that is generated and collected at first hand by doing research using techniques such as questionnaires, interviews or observation. Secondary: information that already exists and has previously been generated by or collected by other people. Sources include official statistics, the mass media, autobiographies, and sociological studies.
5. Sample	A subgroup of the population selected for study. See knowledge organiser for different sampling methods.
6. Questioning: open and closed	Open: a question that allows respondents to put forward their own answers rather than chose a response from several pre-set answers. Closed: a fixed-choice question that requires the respondent to choose between number of given answers.
7. Observer/Hawthorne Effect	In an observation, individuals or groups of people may modify, change or improve an aspect of their behaviour because they are aware they are being observed. It can affect the validity of the findings.
8. Validity	Findings are valid if they truly measure or capture what they are supposed to be studying.
9. Reliability	Refers to consistency. Research findings are reliable if, after the research is repeated a second time using the same methods, the same or consistent results are obtained the second time round.
10. Representative sample	Reflects the characteristics of its population. It is just like the population but a smaller version of it.
11. Generalisability	In designing their study, researchers think about the extent to which their findings can be applied to the larger population of which their sample was a part.
12. Sampling frame	A complete list of all members of the population from which a sample is drawn. Examples include membership lists, school registers and the Royal Mail's list of postcode addresses.
13. Triangulation	Cross checking the findings from a qualitative method against the findings from quantitative method. Doing this can improve the validity/generalisability of the research.
14. Mixed methods research	The use of different methods within one project to generate both quantitative and qualitative data
15. Content analysis	The analysis of documents and images (e.g. media products) by constructing a set of categories, coding sections of the content according to these categories, and then counting the number of times a theme appears.
16. Pilot study	A small scale trial that is carried out. This is done prior to the main study. It is carried out in order to test that there are no flaws in the methodology of the main research.
17. Case study	A detailed study of a particular institution (such as a school or hospital) or a series of related events (such as the moral panic surrounding teenagers wearing hoodies).
18. Confidentiality	An agreement that all information (e.g. gathered from research participants) will only be access by those who have the authority and permission to access it.
19. Ethnography	The study of people's culture and practices in everyday settings, usually based on qualitative methods such as participant observation and unstructured interviews.
20. Focus group	A type of group interview that focuses on one particular topic. It explores how people interact within the group and how they respond to each other's views.
21. Longitudinal study	A study of the same group pf people conducted over a period of time. After the initial survey or interview has taken place, follow-up surveys or interviews are carried out at intervals over a number of years.

Glossary: Family

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

Glossary: Education

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

Glossary: Crime and Deviance

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

23. White collar crime	Criminal acts committed by people in high status positions, such as accountants, doctors or solicitors, during their work, fraud, tax evasion and 'fiddling' expense accounts at work.
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Glossary: Social Stratification

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

19. Pluralism

An approach which argues that a range of views, interests and opinions exists in society and no one group dominates the political process.

Family Key Studies

Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Parsons	Functionalist	Secondary sources	Two key functions of the family: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Primary socialisation – children are taught the shared norms and values of society 2. Stabilisation of adult personality – family relieves stress of life, like a ‘warm bath’
Zaretsky	Marxist	Secondary sources	The family serves capitalism through: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Women’s unpaid labour 2. Passing on of advantage in families e.g. inheritance 3. Unit of consumption
Delphy and Leonard	Radical feminist	Secondary sources	Family is patriarchal because: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Women are exploited economically – labour is used by their husbands 2. Family is hierarchical – men at the top 3. Patriarchal family reflects patriarchal society
Oakley	Feminist	Secondary sources	Analyses the ‘conventional family’ finding: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Women are expected to do unpaid work 2. IDEA of the conventional family is powerful 3. People expect happiness, but nuclear family can be stressful 4. Middle class – more family diversity
Rapoport and Rapoport	NA	Secondary sources	Pioneers in researching family diversity. 5 types: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Organisational – structure of families 2. Cultural – cultural/ religious differences 3. Social class – class differences 4. Cohort – historical differences 5. Life course – differences in life cycle of the family
Willmott and Young	Functionalist	Survey; Face- to- face structures interviews	Found the family was becoming more symmetrical – similar but not identical roles, equal contribution to household work, and shared decision making and friends. Home-centred. Principle of stratified diffusion: changes in family life start with higher social classes and trickle down

Education Key Studies

Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Parsons	Functionalist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - School is an agent of socialisation, and is the bridge between family and wider society promoting 2 values: achievement and equality of opportunity. - Education teaches the difference between particularistic (individual) and universalistic values; children have ascribed status in families but in schools everyone is judged by the same standards. - Role allocation and meritocracy: education matches individuals to their future jobs based on talent. In a meritocracy the most able reach the top jobs.
Durkheim	Functionalist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main function of education is to transmit and teach shared norms and values and builds social solidarity. - This is achieved through lessons such as history which help students see themselves as part of society. - Teaches children specialised skills for work
Bowles and Gintis	Marxist	Interviews and secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is a correspondence or similarity between work and school – hierarchy, uniform, tasks are boring etc. - Education creates an obedient workforce to serve capitalism - This is done through the way schooling is structured and the hidden curriculum - Meritocracy is a myth
Willis	Marxist	Case study; Participant observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Studied the lads – an anti-school subculture – for two years - Found they were not obedient but their subculture was similar to WC workplaces
Ball	NA	Case study; participant observation and interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examined the way a mixed comprehensive school was organised – banding. - Working class students more likely to be in lower bands - Teachers had different expectations of different bands – i.e. top band students were encouraged, were viewed as well-behaved and hard working. Lower bands were steered towards more practical subjects and were labelled as low ability. - Mixed ability classes were introduced which reduced this but labelling still happened
Ball, Bowe and Gewirtz	NA	Interviews and secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Parental choice and competition has increased inequalities in education - Middle class parents have more choice – greater cultural capital and material advantage. - Schools focus on image and results and compete with one another through results, facilities, etc.
Halsey, Heath and Ridge	NA	Face to face survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Examined social class origins and educational destinations of a large survey of 8000 men - Respondents social class based on father's occupation and divided into 3 types: service, intermediate, working - Service class boy 11 times more likely to go to university than working class

Crime Key Studies

Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Merton's (1938) strain theory	Functionalist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - People's aspirations and goals are shaped by their culture e.g. American Dream = economic success - Some people experience a strain between the goals of society and the means of achieving them. This may lead to anomie (normlessness) - They may seek out an illegitimate route to economic success e.g. crime
Becker's (1963) interactionist perspective	Interactionist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Argues deviance is created by society - Powerful social groups create deviance by making the rules and applying these to others - People can develop deviant careers if labelled as deviant - The deviant label can become a master status (main identity) - Labelling can lead to the self-fulfilling prophecy
Heidensohn's (1985) control theory	Feminist	Data from her study of delinquent girls; secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Women commit less crime because they are more closely controlled in society - In a patriarchal society, women have stronger social control placed on them which can reduce opportunities for crime - At home, women are controlled by domestic responsibilities, at work by fear of damaging reputation and in public by fear of male violence
Carlen's (1988) class and gender deal	Feminist	Unstructured interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Carlen explains why working-class women commit crime - She argues they are promised two rewards for conforming- 'class deal' (money and material items from working hard) and 'gender deal' (happy domestic life with husband and children) - She found WC women committed crime when these rewards were blocked due to: poverty, living in care, drug addiction. - They had nothing to lose and everything to gain
Cohen's (1955) subcultural theory	Functionalist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Argues delinquency is carried out by groups not individuals, and that groups often commit non-utilitarian (not motivated by money) crimes - Working class boys experience status frustration at not succeeding in middle class school - They join/ form a delinquent subculture with an alternative status hierarchy where they will gain status for deviance

Social Stratification Key Studies

Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Davis and Moore (1945) theory of stratification	Functionalist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Societies must allocate people to different roles – some roles are functionally important (essential for society e.g. doctors) – this is meritocratic - These roles have high status and rewards to attract best people to them - Stratification is necessary to ensure the most talented people get best jobs
Marx's theory of social class	Marxist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Argues there are two main social classes: bourgeoisie and proletariat - Bourgeoisie have more power- those than own means of production - Proletariat are exploited and experience alienation – class conflict exists - Bourgeoisie impose their ideology on working class and create false class consciousness
Weber's theory of social class	Weberian	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classes are formed in the labour market – a class is a group who have similar life chances - 4 main classes: property owners, professionals, petty bourgeoisie, working class - Classes based both on economic factors and status and power too
Weber's theory of power and authority	Weberian	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Power is based on coercion (use of threat/ violence) or authority (when someone obeys you as they think they should). 3 types of authority: - Charismatic authority (inspiring qualities) - Traditional authority (based on tradition) - Rational legal authority (based on a set of rules and laws which are accepted)
Devine's (1992) Affluent Workers revisited	NA	Intensive (unstructured) interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Revisited Luton to see how far WC life had changed – compared to Goldthorpe's - Found WC lifestyles had not changed as much as Goldthorpe suggested - Home life not purely home-centred and privatised, interviewees did not have a purely instrumental attitude to work, plenty of evidence of solidarity
Townsend's (1979) relative deprivation theory	NA	Face to face survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Developed a deprivation index to measure relative deprivation - Found almost 23% of population were in poverty - Much higher than 6% (state measure of poverty)
Murray's (1984) New Right perspective on poverty	New Right	Secondary sources including statistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Argues welfare benefits create dependency – discouraging people to find work, and actually creating more poverty - The underclass are a threat to society – a group who drain resources and do not work – associates it with rising crime and single-parent families
Walby's (1990) theory on patriarchy	Feminist	Secondary sources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Patriarchy = a system of structures in which men dominate and exploit women - 6 - Paid employment, household, culture, sexuality, male violence against women and the state

Sentence Stems for 4 and 12 Markers

‘Identify and Explain’ 4 Markers – Useful Sentence Stems

1 mark for...	Up to 3 marks for...
Identifying a relevant, accurate and precise point	Quality of your explanation (including reference to evidence and link to the context)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● One factor... ● One function of ... is ... ● One way that ... ● Item A states that... ● One advantage/disadvantage ● One norm / value ● Marxists / Functionalists / Feminists would ● One type of ● Item A / Source A shows that... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● One example of this is... ● The study...shows that... ● This is an advantage/disadvantage because... ● Functionalists / Marxists / Feminists would explain this by... ● This means that... ● This demonstrates the idea... ● Sociologists think this is because... ● The reason for this is... ● It would have an affect on the reliability/validity of the data because...

‘Discuss how far sociologists agree...’ 12 Markers – Useful Sentence Stems

Point	Evidence	Explanation and Linking
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● On the one hand [Marxists] might argue... ● On the other hand [interactionists] might think... ● [Feminists] would agree with the idea that... ● Some sociologists would support this idea because... ● One argument in favour of...is... ● Another point linked to this issue is... ● Alternatively, other sociologists 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● One example of this is... ● The study by...shows that... ● The sociologist [name] argued that... ● For example, in this study [name] it was found that... ● For example [describe a situation] ● This is evidenced by... ● Marxist sociologist ... said that... ● Feminist sociologists would refer to / use the example of ... to... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● The data shows that... ● This means that... ● This evidence demonstrates ● This study shows that... ● The consequence of this is... ● This links to the idea that...because... ● This evidence helps show that... ● This supports the idea that...because... ● This criticises the idea that...because..

Practice Exam Questions for Family: 3, 4 and 12 Markers

Family: 3 Markers

- Identify and describe **one** example of how patriarchy can affect the power relationship within families. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and describe **one** example of how patriarchy can affect the power relationship within families. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe how the domestic division of labour may be organised in families. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and describe **one** type of family diversity identified by the Rapoport. (*Specimen 2*)

Family: 4 Markers

- Identify and explain **one** factor that may have led to an increase in the number of children raised in single-parent families referred to as a concern in **Item A**. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using unstructured interviews to investigate relationships between family members. (*Specimen 1*)
- From **Item B**, identify and describe the research method used by the Rapoport including what you know of their perspective on the family. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify **one** function of the family and explain how you would investigate this function using questionnaires. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe the type of statistical data shown in **Item A**. Identify the trend shown by the data and explain **one** factor which may account for this trend. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using postal questionnaires to investigate the domestic division of labour within families. (*Specimen 2*)
- From **Item B**, identify and describe one way in which Delphy and Leonard believed that the family could be patriarchal, including what you know of their sociological perspective on family. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify **one** ethical issue that you would need to consider when investigating the domestic division of labour and explain how you would deal with this issue in your investigation. (*Specimen 2*)

Family: 12 Markers

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that feminism has changed marriage in modern British society. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that in Britain today social classes have different experiences of marriage and family life. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that changes in the status of women in society are the main reason for the pattern of divorce in Britain since 1945. (*Specimen 2*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that the family has lost its importance in Britain today. (*Specimen 2*)

Practice Exam Questions for Education: 3, 4 and 12 Markers

Education: 3 Markers

- Describe the hidden curriculum in education. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and describe **one** example of the cultural capital which middle class parents can use to give their children advantages at school. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe a home-based factor that could influence a student's educational achievement. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and describe **one** example of a type of secondary school in Britain today. (*Specimen 2*)

Education: 4 Markers

- Identify and explain **one** alternative factor that may have led to the relatively poor performance of working class pupils referred to as a concern in **Item C**. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** disadvantage of using questionnaires to investigate the literacy skills of parents. (*Specimen 1*)
- From **Item D**, identify and describe the research method used by Willis including what you know of his perspective on education. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify **one** possible label that might be attached to students who fail to conform and explain the possible impact that label might have on their school career. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using a longitudinal study to investigate the relationship between social class and educational achievement as referred to in **Item C**. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using group interviews to investigate school subcultures. (*Specimen 2*)
- From **Item D**, identify and describe the research method used by Ball including what you know about his perspective on education. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** possible effect on students of setting in schools. (*Specimen 2*)

Education: 12 Markers

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that the main function of the education system is to serve the needs of the economy. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that a student's socialisation experiences in the home are the main reason for differences in their educational achievement. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that gender differences in educational achievement are mainly due to factors inside schools. (*Specimen 2*)
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that the main function of today's education system is to transmit the norms and values of society. (*Specimen 2*)

Practice Exam Questions for Crime and Deviance: 3, 4 and 12 Markers

Crime and Deviance: 3 Markers

- Describe **one** example of a criminal subculture. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and describe **one** informal agency of social control. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe **one** factor that determines whether an act is considered to be a crime. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and describe **one** formal agency of social control. (*Specimen 2*)

Crime and Deviance: 4 Markers

- Describe the type of crime survey in **Item A**. Identify the trend shown by the data and explain **one** factor which may account for this trend. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using observation to investigate policing in urban areas. (*Specimen 1*)
- From **Item B**, identify and describe the method used by Frances Heidensohn including what you know of her perspective on female criminal behaviour. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify **one** ethical issue that you would need to consider when investigating anti-social behaviour in a community and explain how you would deal with this issue in your investigation. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe the type of statistical data shown in **Item A**. Identify the trend shown by the data and explain **one** factor which may account for this trend. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** advantage of using victim surveys to research the level of crime in society. (*Specimen 2*)
- From **Item B**, identify and describe one example of a criminal act which Cohen believed was typical of delinquent subcultures, including what you know of his sociological perspective. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** disadvantage of using self-report studies to investigate crime. (*Specimen 2*)

Crime and Deviance: 12 Markers

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that official statistics of crime do **not** accurately reflect the true level of middle class criminal behaviour. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that the level of youth crime reflects how well parents control their children. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that crimes are more likely to be committed by members of the working class rather than members of the middle class. (*Specimen 2*)
- Discuss how far sociologists would agree that the mass media can affect people's awareness of how much crime there is in society. (*Specimen 2*)

Practice Exam Questions for Social Stratification: 3, 4 and 12 Markers

Social Stratification: 3 Markers

- Describe **one** example of ascribed status. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and describe **one** example of how the traditional role of women in society may make them more likely to experience poverty. (*Specimen 1*)
- Describe **one** example of achieved status. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and describe **one** example of social mobility. (*Specimen 2*)

Social Stratification: 4 Markers

- Identify and explain **one** factor which might limit a young person's opportunities to find secure long-term employment as experienced by many of the young people referred to in **Item C**. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** disadvantage of using structured interviews to research young people's experience of unemployment. (*Specimen 1*)
- From **Item D**, identify and describe one group that Marx believed had failed to benefit from the development of industry, including what you know of his perspective on these events. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** feature of British society which led the sociologist Charles Murray to conclude that there was a growing underclass in Britain. (*Specimen 1*)
- Identify and explain **one** factor which might account for less well-off students earning less than their wealthier peers as referred to in **Item C**. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify and explain **one** disadvantage of using official statistics to measure social mobility. (*Specimen 2*)
- From **Item D**, identify and describe one group that would benefit from social stratification, including what you know of Davies and Moore's sociological perspective. (*Specimen 2*)
- Identify **one** reason why individuals might experience poverty and explain how you would investigate poverty using interviews. (*Specimen 2*)

Social Stratification: 12 Markers

- Discuss how far sociologists agree that social class rather than gender or ethnicity is the most important division in British society. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that a breakdown of the traditional family is one of the most important reasons that child poverty exists in modern British society. (*Specimen 1*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that official statistics underestimate the actual level of poverty in society. (*Specimen 2*)
- Discuss how far sociologists agree that Britain is a meritocratic society in which everyone has equal opportunities to succeed. (*Specimen 2*)

Key Study: Delphy & Leonard

Familiar Exploitation (1992)

- 1) Read the study as a class and highlight key information
- 2) Identify key terminology used in the study
- 3) Write your own definition of the key terms
- 4) Answer the questions on the board

Feminist sociologists Delphy and Leonard studied the role of women in families, especially housework. They argued that women are exploited (treated unfairly) by their husbands.

Some sociologists, especially Marxists and Marxist feminists, believed that women's housework helped capitalism—by keeping workers (men) well-fed, clothed, and cared for without bosses having to pay for it. But Delphy and Leonard disagreed. They argued that the real beneficiaries of women's work were not the rich bosses, but men. They said housework supports the patriarchy—a society where men are in charge. In their view, the main role of the family was to keep men in power.

Delphy and Leonard studied the family as an economic system—who does the work, and who benefits? They found that women do most of the housework and childcare, even if they also have paid jobs. For men, time at home was leisure time (time to relax), but for women, time at home was still work time. Delphy and Leonard also found that men usually made the big decisions in the family.

Their work built on earlier research, such as Ann Oakley's idea that women have a dual burden—paid work and housework. Later, Duncombe and Marsden expanded on this, introducing the idea of a triple shift, where women also do emotional work (such as supporting their partner and children).

Key Terms Bank

Key Study: Oakley

Conventional Families (1982)

- 1) Read the study as a class and highlight key information
- 2) Identify key terminology used in the study
- 3) Write your own definition of the key terms
- 4) Answer the questions on the board

Sociologist Ann Oakley studied families, housework, and childbirth. In her research, she examined the nuclear family and how it was seen as the "normal" family structure at the time.

Oakley described the conventional family as a legally married couple with one or more children. This type of family was often shown in TV adverts and soap operas and is sometimes called the cereal packet family. She questioned why this family type was considered "normal" and explored how society encouraged people to live this way. Women were often expected to marry and have children, and those who chose a different lifestyle were seen as unusual.

Even in the early 1980s, Oakley noticed that people were beginning to challenge this idea. Some found new ways to live that did not follow traditional family structures. Others realised they did not have to live in a family at all—they could choose different types of households or living arrangements.

Since then, family life has become even more varied. Today, there are many different types of families. However, sociologist Robert Chester, who was a functionalist, argued that most people still live in neo-conventional families. This means that while family structures have changed (for example, more step-families exist, and fewer people get married), most people still live in a form of nuclear family and prefer this way of life.

Key Terms Bank

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Key Study: Parsons

Family: Socialization and Interaction Process

- 1) Read the study as a class and highlight key information
- 2) Identify key terminology used in the study
- 3) Write your own definition of the key terms
- 4) Answer the questions on the board

Talcott Parsons (1951) updated Murdock's theory. He argued that in modern, Western societies, the state provided education and could perform an economic function (through welfare provisions) but that the family still had two irreducible functions:

Primary socialisation

Similar to Murdock's educational role, Parsons agreed that families taught children social norms and values. However, he argued that it specifically taught children the norms and values associated with their family and/or community, while other institutions, such as schools, the media, religion, etc. taught children the universal norms and values of wider society. Parsons called this first process primary socialisation and the latter secondary socialisation.

Stabilisation of adult personalities

Parsons also argued that families helped to prevent adults from behaving in disruptive or dysfunctional ways, instead encouraging them to conform to social norms, especially at times of stress. The family provides emotional support to its members.

Parsons famously described this in his *warm bath theory*. This was the idea that when a man came home from a hard day at work, he could relax into his family like a warm bath and it would take away the stress and refresh him for the next day's work.

Key Terms Bank

Key Study: Rapoport & Rapoport

British Families in Transition (1982)

- 1) Read the study as a class and highlight key information
- 2) Identify key terminology used in the study
- 3) Write your own definition of the key terms
- 4) Answer the questions on the board

The Rapoport conducted pivotal research on family life, challenging the notion that the nuclear family is the universal norm. They identified five types of family diversity that highlight variations in family structures and dynamics:

Organisational Diversity: Variations in family roles and structures, such as traditional male-dominated families versus symmetrical (more egalitarian) families.

Cultural Diversity: Differences in beliefs and values among families, often influenced by ethnic backgrounds, such as varying emphasis on family cohesion or gender roles.

Class Diversity: The impact of socioeconomic status on family life, including disparities in resources, housing, and leisure opportunities between social classes.

Life Course Diversity: Families evolve over time as individuals move through different stages of life, transitioning from nuclear families to other arrangements like lone-parent, reconstituted families, or living independently.

Cohort Diversity: Family norms change across generations, reflecting shifts in societal trends. For instance, newer generations may experience smaller family sizes, higher divorce rates, or single parenthood more commonly than previous ones.

Their research highlighted that family diversity has continued to expand, with more contemporary family forms like same-sex parenting emerging prominently.

Key Terms Bank

Key Study: Zaretsky

Capitalism, the family and private life (1973)

- 1) Read the study as a class and highlight key information
- 2) Identify key terminology used in the study
- 3) Write your own definition of the key terms
- 4) Answer the questions on the board

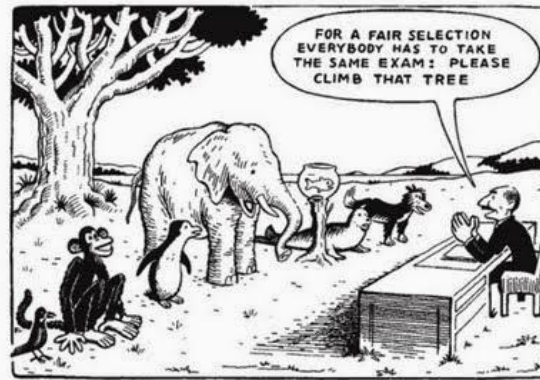
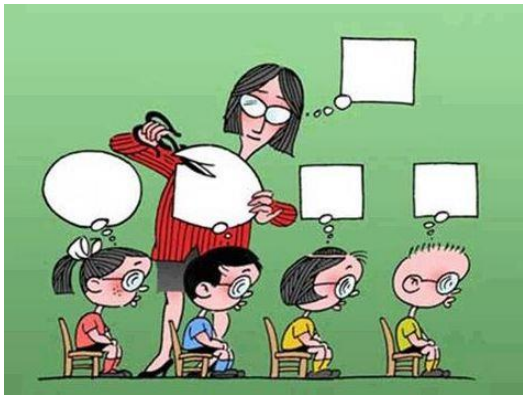
Zaretsky believed that the family works in the interests of capitalism, not individuals. The idea of the family being private and separate from capitalism is not true. Instead, the family helps keep capitalism going by softening the negative effects of work. While families may seem to nurture and support people, Zaretsky believed this doesn't solve the real issue: exploitation under capitalism. Like Parsons, he said the family helps people recover from work, but he thought this was bad because it stops workers from realising they are being exploited and fighting back.

The family also supports capitalism by providing free labour. Women often work unpaid as housewives, looking after workers, raising children, and preparing the next generation of workers. Families also discourage workers from striking or rebelling because they have dependents to support. Zaretsky believed the family could only truly support its members if capitalism was replaced with socialism.

Key Terms Bank

AQA GCSE Sociology

Knowledge Organiser Education








Name:



Class:

The Functions of education:

<u>Roles of education</u>	<u>Description and example</u>	<u>Sociological views on the role</u>
Selective role – choosing the most able people for the most important jobs	The education acts like a sieve to sort students into the correct job roles. Society needs a diverse workforce with a variety of roles in order to function. All jobs are important for society to function	<p>Functionalists believe that education teaches the skills necessary for the work place which benefits the economy.</p> <p>Marxists see this as only benefitting the middle classes as working class children will end up in working class jobs.</p>
The political role – teaching people to be effective citizens and creating social cohesion	The idea that teaching the norms and values of British culture develops a sense of 'Britishness'.	<p>According to functionalists, people learn about society through education and in doing so they accept the political system, and are able to vote wisely at election time.</p> <p>Marxists disagree, they say that only certain political opinions and ideas are tolerated in education—those accepted by the bourgeoisie. Radical ideas of are rejected.</p>
Social control Role - teaches us to accept rules and authority to keep society running smoothly.	Education teaches us to accept rules and authority to keep society running smoothly.	<p>Functionalists say school should act as an agent of social control by teaching rules such as obedience and punctuality. In this way people learn to conform to rules and authority in later life.</p> <p>Marxists see social control at school as benefitting the bourgeoisie by reflecting social control in the wider society, e.g. obeying a teacher is seen as preparation for obeying a boss in the workplace</p>
Economic role - Teaching us the skills needed for work	School teaches the norms and values that are important in British culture.	<p>Functionalists say school teaches literacy, numeracy, and vocational courses, which aim to train young people for the world of work. Education therefore prepares young people for their future occupational (job) roles and this benefits the economy.</p> <p>Marxists say education reinforces the class system because children from the working classes learn the skills necessary for lower-status occupations, while children from middle and upper classes gain qualification needed for higher-status occupations.</p>
Socialisation role -	Schools build on Primary socialisation. It helps children to develop an understanding of the norms and Values of society.	<p>Functionalists see education as teaching the norms and values of society to a new generation. School is seen as an agent of secondary socialisation, teaching children from different backgrounds a common culture, beliefs and expectations.</p> <p>Marxists see education as socialising individuals into accepting the values of the bourgeoisie, e.g. valuing hard work in school is seen as preparing the future workforce of hard work.</p>

The Hidden curriculum

Feature	Description and Examples
Social control 	Schools teach rules, regulations, obedience and respect for authority.
Competition 	Schools encourage competition as society is based on competition. For example there is always competition for jobs.
Lack of power 	In schools today you may be prefects or leaders, sit on a school council, discuss, and debate in the classroom. Actual powers are limited. You will be very unlikely to have any say in financial or subject decisions made by the leadership team.
Hierarchy 	Students learn about hierarchy in schools i.e. those at the top and those at the bottom.
Lack of satisfaction 	Some critics of schools argue that the school day is purposely taken up by meaningless and boring activities which prepare people for boring, meaningless and repetitive jobs.

Feature	Description and Example
Gender role allocation 	There is a link between expectations, subject choice and gender in school and gender role allocation in the wider society. In other words, job segregation begins at school.
Inequalities 	We still have a relatively 'white' curriculum in our education system. A lot of topics for study, many of the authors and a lot of the illustrations still tend to focus on white history, for example. We learn that the more intelligent you are, the more likely you are to gain the teachers praise, to win awards and to be seen as a 'good' student. Many argue this teaches us to accept that we will not be treated the same in society and that this is normal and acceptable.

Within schools, there are two types of education – formal and informal:

Formal education	Subjects that are studied and examined in schools and colleges Example: Sociology, History, English for example.
Informal education (also known as the hidden curriculum)	Non-directed learning that occurs and does not have a curriculum to follow. Example: Learning of rules, routines, relationships, discipline, gender roles and expectations.

Functionalist view of education-

<u>In a nutshell:</u>	<u>Criticisms</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ There is a link between education and other institutions ✓ Education is an important agency of socialisation ✓ Education helps to maintain social stability and social cohesion ✓ Education prepares young people for adulthood and working life ✓ Education passes on core values of society so that young people know what to expect ✓ Education teaches specialist skills for work 	<p>Functionalists ignore the inequalities that exist in education.</p> <p>Many groups in society underachieve more than other groups.</p> <p>They assume the educational system is beneficial to all- they are ignoring those who have negative experiences in school</p>

<u>Key study: Durkheim</u>	
Social Solidarity:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Durkheim believed the main purpose of education was to teach young people society's norms and values. He believed this would unite members of society and prevent individuals from being selfish – creating social solidarity. • This happens because children learned shared values from the hidden curriculum and through subjects such as history which instil a sense of shared past and commitment to wider society.
Society in Miniature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Schools are 'society in miniature' they prepare people for wider society where adults have to cooperate with people who are not family or friends, such as colleagues or even strangers. • Schools set rules and guidelines which teach children how to interact with other people which prepares them for following society's rules when they have to interact with people they do not have a personal connection with.
Skills for Work:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For goods or services to be made, many different specialists need to cooperate and work together. • Every individual needs to learn specialist skills to help them in the workplace and children can learn skills for their future jobs from the education system.
<u>Criticisms of Durkheim:</u>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Durkheim says education transmits a shared culture, but there may not be one single culture in a multi-cultural society. This links to the debate on what we mean by 'British values'. • The education system actually teach the skills needed for the workplace? • Marxists: the culture being transmitted is one that benefits the ruling class, not society as a whole • Feminists: the culture being transmitted is one that benefits men and is patriarchal. • Not all students come to accept the values of society that are being are being taught, some rebel. 	

Key study: Parsons

According to Parsons, education acts as bridge between the family and wider society where students prepare for their adult roles. He said this happens because schools are **meritocratic** and **allocate roles** to students.

Achieved status People have achieved status in society – they earn their rewards (e.g. you get a good job from hard work and good qualifications)

Meritocracy Students' achievements are based on their abilities and efforts and not on social class, gender or ethnicity. The education system mirrors the wider society because society is based on achieved status of abilities and effort.

Particularistic Standards: A child has **ascribed status** (e.g. eldest girl) and the family treat and judge their child individually based on their values and norms.



Role Allocation Schools matches people to their correct jobs based on their ability. This is **role allocation**. Based on their qualifications, the most able should reach the top jobs in society and this is fair because the system is meritocratic

Universalistic Standards: A person is judged against norms and values which are the same for everyone (e.g. the law is the same for all people - universal).

Criticism of Parsons

- Marxists: the values being transmitted are ones that benefit the ruling class, not society as a whole
- Feminists: the education system is not meritocratic; gender can have an influence on achievement and subject choice
- Role allocation has been criticised because some of the highest earners in society have left school with no qualifications

Glossary spot

Key term	Definition
Agent of social control	The groups in society that control people's behaviour
Formal learning	Subjects studies in the school curriculum
Hidden curriculum	Things learned in school that are not formally taught, e.g valuing punctuality or obedience
Meritocratic	Where people's achievements are based on their own talents and efforts, instead of their background
Role allocation	Young people are sifted and sorted in terms of their talents and abilities into particular roles in the future e.g. academic people become doctors and lawyers
Secondary socialisation	Learning social norms and values through agents such as education, peer groups, media
Social cohesion	Idea that people should have a shared set of values to unite society and bring people together
Social mobility:	Movement up or down between layers or strata in society (intra-generational = moving from one class to another)
Social solidarity	When a group has unity based on a shared set of values

Marxism and Education

Marxism is a critical perspective of society so they view the role of education in society in a critical way, seeing it as a form of social control that creates obedient and passive workers for the capitalist economy. Marxists also argue that education reproduces the class inequalities by ensuring that working-class students are less likely to achieve good qualifications and therefore go into the lower paid jobs.

<u>In a nutshell: The Marxist Perspective</u>	<u>Criticisms of the Marxist Perspective</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education prepares young people for capitalist society • Children are socialised into their class positions • Education is not meritocratic • The education system acts as a means of social control, encouraging conformity • The hidden curriculum prepares them for their place in society (hierarchy)- this is not a good thing 	<p>Functionalists disagree and say education is meritocratic</p> <p>Marxists assume that young people have no real ability to make choices or have control over what happens to them.</p> <p>Marxists exaggerate the extent to which schools provide a willing and qualified workforce</p> <p>Fails to consider other factors that may affect educational achievement e.g. ethnicity, gender.</p> <p>Doesn't acknowledge any positives of the education system.</p>

Key study: Bowles and Gintis: Schooling in capitalist America

Bowles and Gintis see the role of the education as reproducing a workforce with the characteristics that help capitalism continue e.g. hard work, disciplined, obedient. In their study of 237 New York high school students they found that schools reward students who display these characteristics, while students who show greater independence and creative thinking are more likely to gain lower grades.

Key point	Description
Correspondence principle	The idea that school mirrors the workplace. What is expected and valued in school is what is expected and valued in the workplace. <u>Example:</u> 1. Students obey rules -> Employees learn not to question the boss 2. Students learn to accept the hierarchy of staff -> Manager or bosses have authority over them.
The myth of meritocracy	Bowles and Gintis say ' myth of meritocracy ', people are led to believe the rich deserve paying jobs because they have earned them. Bowles and Gintis suggest say this is a lie. Class determines whether someone does well; the higher classes succeed and the lower classes fail.

Criticisms of Bowles and Gintis' Marxist approach

- Businesses these days do not want passive and unthinking workers, they want creative and independent workers capable of taking on responsibility and developing new ideas as part of a team.
- Bowles and Gintis' view is too deterministic—it assumes all working class children will accept the values being taught by the hidden curriculum. But many students reject the values and rebel

How is the education system organised in contemporary

Britain

<u>School type</u>	<u>Description</u>
Pre-School Education:	This refers to the care and education of children under the age of 5 years. It can take a variety of forms: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Day nurseries (these can be state (LEA), voluntary or privately run). 2. Playgroups, which provide care and learning experiences mainly for 3-5 year olds. E.g. 3. Nursery education (this may be provided in a nursery school or in a nursery class attached to a primary school).
Primary Education:	This refers to infant and junior schools, which usually are co-educational (they take both boys and girls) and tend to take students from a local area from age 5-11. Most primary education is provided by the state but some schools are private and fees must be paid by parents.
Secondary Education:	Students from the ages of 11-16 years, although many may also provide sixth form education up to the age of 18. Most are provided by the state in comprehensive schools. Other types of schools such as grammar schools, academies, free schools and faith schools also provide state funded education where parents do not have to pay fees.
Further Education: (FE)	From 16-18 years students can study for a range of qualifications (for example, A Levels) at sixth form colleges or further education colleges. Instead, they can take skills courses and apprenticeships or seek employment which includes training.
Higher Education: (HE)	The higher education sector include universities that provide higher level academic and vocational courses (such as degrees)

Type	Description	Evaluation points
Academy	Academies are managed schools set up by sponsors from business, faith or voluntary groups. These schools have greater control over their finances, the curriculum and teacher's pay and conditions.	Worries over staffing
Faith schools	Faith schools are mostly run in the same way as state schools. Their faith status is often reflected in their religious education curriculum, admissions criteria and staffing policies. RS a core subject in these types of schools with 10% of the timetable being given to RS,	Admissions policies and staffing
Free Schools	Free schools are normally brand new schools set up by teachers, charities, the community or faith groups, universities or groups of parents where there is parental demand. They are set up as academies and are funded in the same way – directly from central government.	Can be seen as selective and favoring m/class families
Grammar schools	Grammar schools select all or most of their pupils based on academic ability	Based on ability can reproduce class inequalities as
State-funded comprehensive schools	Comprehensive schools aim to educate all pupils regardless of their ability or background. The aim is to ensure that all children have access to the same level and quality of education.	
Special schools	Pupils at a special school have been assessed and given a statement of special needs (SEN). These may include learning difficulties or physical disabilities. Some special schools are funded by the local authority and some are independent	Can leave students feel segregated from other non-special students
Private / Independent schools	Independent schools set their own curriculum and admissions policies. They are funded by fees paid for by parents and investors.	Seen as elitist and reproducing social class inequalities
Specialist schools	These receive additional funding to support a subject expertise, and are able to select up to 10% of their students based on their ability in this subject. They are an important part of the government's ability to raise standards in secondary education.	

Key historical changes in Britain's education system:

1944 Butler Education Act

Before this policy was introduced many working class children didn't go to school or left early to work in factories and other places. The aim was to introduce a fairer system where every child received an education based on their own academic ability, not what their parents could afford. The result was the **tripartite system**.

Children's ability was tested at the age of 11 by the **11-plus exam** and based on these results children went to one of three types of school:

<u>Secondary Modern</u>	<u>Secondary Technical</u>	<u>Grammar</u>
General education for less academic students.	Practical education, e.g. crafts, skills.	Academic education for more academic students.

- Critics argued that the 11+ exam gave middle class students an advantage as they were more likely to have been prepared – therefore very few working class students passed the tests.
- Some sociologists argue that the tripartite system worsened social class divisions:
 - Middle class students went to grammar schools while working class students went to secondary modern schools.
 - This meant students did not mix and working class pupils got a poorer quality education as money and good teachers went to the grammar schools.

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
11-plus exam	an exam given in the last year of primary school to determine entry to grammar schools
Comprehensive system	a system introduced in 1965 where all children attend the same type of secondary school regardless of ability
Mixed-ability groups	where children of different abilities are put together in one class or group
Tripartite system	created by the 1944 Education Act, this system used the 11-plus exam to determine which students should go to one of three types of school e.g. grammar, secondary modern or technical

1965 Comprehensive system

In 1965, the Labour government reorganised secondary education so that all students would attend the same school. This is known as the 'comprehensive' school.

Benefits	Problems
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social reasons: social barriers are broken down as children from all backgrounds mix together. • Educational reasons: no child is labelled as a 'failure' by not passing the entry exam so it's fairer. • Geographical reasons: all children from the catchment area (area of a city) go to their local school so children of all abilities have the same, equal opportunities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents don't get a choice in picking a school because each child is expected to go to their local school, no matter how good or bad that school's reputation. • More academically able students are held back by the less able, particularly in mixed-ability groups. • Comprehensives can accept lower standards compared to grammar schools as grammar schools have more middle class children and so tend to expect more middle-class standards.

Do comprehensives break down class barriers?

- Comprehensives are not really mixed social class, as they are based on a local neighbourhood e.g. inner-city comprehensives are usually working class and suburban ones are usually middle-class.
- Some argue that most comprehensives are not really comprehensive at all because, for instance, they stream or band students within the school according to ability. Critics claim that streams reflect social class differences.

Alternative forms of educational provision

Home schooling means parents or tutors teaching at home. It is a legal alternative to schools but concerns have been raised about how good the standards of learning are and if it's affecting the social development of children. Home education is when a child is educated at home rather than at school. It's perfectly legal in the UK to educate your child at home and you don't need to be a qualified teacher to do so. Children who are home educated receive all their education from their parents or carers, sometimes with the help of outside tutors. If you decide to home educate your child you don't have to follow formal rules about how you teach or when you teach. De-schooling is the process of removing your child from school life, getting them used to being taught without time constraints/deadlines/classroom environment.

Reasons	<u>Positives</u>
Parents may religious reasons.	Individual attention and instruction (a teacher will have a class of 28 or 30) with home education,
The child may start off in school but later be taken out and educated at home – for example a child may have special needs or be unhappy at school in some way.	Can tailor a child's education precisely, working at their pace, to their specific need (SEN) answering questions as they come up.
Sometimes parents feel that the methods of teaching in school are not right for their child and that they can provide a better education for them at home.	Children's interests can be followed. Some home educators choose to use a curriculum, or follow school subjects,
Parents sometimes home educate because they can't get a place for their child in a school of their choice.	More time for relaxation and flexibility with holidays. Lack of peer pressure.
	<u>Negatives:</u>
	it can be expensive
	There's a fee for every exam taken as a private student. There could be a lack of friends when educated at home.
	Home education can feel isolating. This is particularly so if you live in an area where there are no other home educating families around.
	Home educated students don't have careers advisors to help or Head teachers to give references

De-schooling




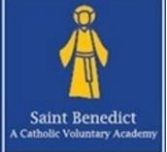
Ilich (95) argues that schools repress children and promote passive conformity rather than developing creative individuals able to think for themselves.

He argues that the school fails those who don't conform or who question the role of education. He argues for de-schooling, suggesting that education in its current form should be abolished, with people instead encouraged to pursue knowledge and skills in smaller networks with like-minded individuals rather than attending schools.

KEY TERMS

Term	Definition
Co-educational	The education of students of both sexes at the same school
De-schooling:	The idea that the education system as it is currently organised should be abolished
Home education (or home schooling)	Teaching children at home by either parents or private tutors
Vocational education	Work-related education e.g. Apprenticeships

Internal factors that affect achievement

Factor	Description	
Setting and streaming 	Pupils are sorted into classes according to their ability based on a subject-by-subject basis, for example top set English or bottom set for Maths.	
	Advantages <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students receive a level of work that is appropriate to their needs and abilities • Teachers will be able to produce materials and lessons that meet their needs more effectively • Stretches the brightest pupils, whilst allowing the less able to work at their own level and pace. • Easier to teach pupils of one ability 	Disadvantages <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students in the lower streams tend to be disheartened and this may result in them not trying to improve • Even if these students are not disheartened, teachers may pay less attention to the students in the lower stream than to those in the higher stream. • Streaming is often linked to social class- lower-stream students are mainly working class.
Subcultures  <p><small>"It looks like you have everything under control"</small></p>	Pupil subcultures are groups of children who share the same norms, values and behaviour. This gives them a sense of group identity providing them with support and peer group status. However, these values and norms may differ from the dominant school subculture within the school. These subcultures can be positive school or anti-school subcultures and can have either a positive or negative effect on pupil achievement	
Labelling and self-fulfilling prophecy 	Teachers are unavoidably involved in making judgements about pupils. Pupils' are continuously assessed and placed in particular classes based on the label they have been given. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The "halo effect": labelling a student as bright, based on early impressions. • If teachers have low expectations of working-class children they may see the student as only being capable of reaching a certain level of academic achievement, and may see no point in trying to develop the student's performance any further- this is called a self-fulfilling prophecy. 	
School Ethos: 	The ethos of a school refers to the character, atmosphere and climate of a school. This might include an emphasis on academic achievement, the moral, spiritual and religious development of pupils, zero tolerance for bullying and racism or active participation in school life.	

Core study: Willis: Learning to labour-subcultures

Willis's research combined both Marxist and Interactionist approaches. He agrees that education serves capitalism like Bowles and Gintis but he argued that working class students are not simply brainwashed into ruling class values without questioning them. He argued that some students resist them in the form of anti/counter school subcultures.

Lacey (1970) found that one of the effects of streaming is the development of **anti-school subcultures**.

These are also known as counter school subcultures. These students reject the academic values.







Instead of gaining status through achieving high grades, they misbehave and ignore teacher's instructions in order to gain status amongst their peers.

Ball's research on banding and teacher expectations

Ball found that teachers had higher expectations of those children in the top sets or streams so they 'pushed' the children in these top sets even more. Ball found children placed in the lower bands or streams were taught with lower expectations.

Students in the top sets achieved better grades and went onto university while those in the lower sets could get fewer or 'lesser' qualifications.

Differential educational achievement: Social Class

Factor	Explanation and link to social class achievement	Evidence						
Material Deprivation: 	<p>The idea that working class children cannot afford the materials needed to be successful at school</p> <p>They might live in cold and overcrowded houses</p>	<p>Cooper and Kitty found: money makes a difference as some pupils might be able to buy:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Textbooks 2. Uniform 3. A private tutor 						
Cultural Deprivation: 	<p>Working class children lack of the norms, values and attitudes to be successful in education. Cultural deprivation may include: Parents attitudes to schools</p> <p>Includes a lack of experiences such as visiting museums and going on holiday, a lack of parental attitude/interest in education.</p>	<p>Bourdieu argues: middle class children have the cultural capital needed to be successful in education – this makes them more successful</p> <p>Lack of cultural experiences for example museum visits Lack of support with homework</p>						
Speech Codes: 	<p>Working class children lack the language skills needed to be successful in schools.</p> <p>Schools are middle class institutions – middle class students can access the language more than working class students can.</p>	<p>Bernstein found differences between how the working class and middle classes spoke:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="963 790 1444 981"> <thead> <tr> <th>Elaborate code</th> <th>Restricted code</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Greater vocabulary</td> <td>Simple sentences</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Correct grammar</td> <td>Grammar mistakes</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Elaborate code	Restricted code	Greater vocabulary	Simple sentences	Correct grammar	Grammar mistakes
Elaborate code	Restricted code							
Greater vocabulary	Simple sentences							
Correct grammar	Grammar mistakes							
Teacher Pupil Interactions 	<p>Teachers are unavoidably involved in making judgements about pupils. Pupils' are continuously assessed and placed in particular classes based on the label they have been given.</p>	<p>Becker interviewed 60 high school teachers and found that they had judged their pupils based on their appearance, language and attitude. Becker argued that middle-class pupils were more likely to be seen as 'the ideal pupil'</p>						
Setting and Streaming 	<p>Middle class students are more likely to be placed into higher sets</p> <p>Working class students are more likely to be placed into lower sets</p>	<p>Ball found that middle class pupils were more likely to be placed in higher sets and streams than their working class counter parents were.</p>						
Working-class Subculture 	<p>Some working class students rebel against school and form anti- school subcultures</p>	<p>Willis found observed 12 working class boys from a school in the midlands and found that there was an anti-school subculture</p>						

Evidence of the gap:

One way in which researchers attempt to measure social class is the eligibility of children for free school meals.

Children who live in low incomes are eligible for free school meals (FSM). Children are eligible for free school meals if parents receive certain benefits, for example income support and child tax credit. Statistics show that children who are eligible for FSM:

- Only 54% of pupils eligible for FSM reach the expected level of progress at KS2.
- Are disproportionately likely to be in care and/or have special educational needs.
- Are more likely to start school unable to read
- Are more likely to be placed in the low streams and sets
- Only 1/3 get 5 or more GCSE A*-C
- Are less likely to go on to further education and higher education.

School receive **pupil premium** which is additional funding for state-funded schools in England to raise the attainment of disadvantaged pupils of all abilities to close the gap between them and their peers.

Pupil premium funding is available to schools for each child registered as eligible for free schools meals at any point in the last six years.

Material Deprivation

A lack of money can mean cold and overcrowded houses, inadequate levels of food and nutrition, a lack of books and computers, limited internet access, lost opportunities for school trips and sports equipment.

Middle-class children may therefore have a head start as their high social class position and income may lead to better-quality housing and a greater availability of books and study facilities at home e.g. their own room, internet access, private tuition.

Different values

Middle Class Values	Working Class Values
Desire for control over their lives.	A more passive attitude to life, believe it's out of their control
Emphasis on future planning	Emphasis on present or past
'differed gratification' – being prepared to make sacrifices now to fulfill future ambitions. Sacrificing money and time now to ensure a better future	Parents socialise their children to live for the moment and not to plan for the future (present gratification).
Work hard at school, and to strive for individual success. These values are highly thought of by teachers in school. Teachers probably like these values because they themselves are usually middle class.	Taught by their parents to accept their place in society and that there is nothing they can do to change their situation. Therefore, less likely to work hard at school.

Parents' attitude

Key study: Ball S. J. Bowe R. and Gerwitz S. "Market forces and parental choice."

Research by Ball, Bowe and Gerwitz investigated the process of choosing a secondary school They studies 15 schools in neighbouring LEAs (Local Educational Authorities) with different population profiles e.g. different classes and ethnicities.

They found that middle-class parents had a significant advantage over working - class parents when selecting a school for their child because:







- They had knowledge and contacts for finding the best school for their child
- Money to send their children to better but more distant schools, or even more into the catchment area of the best schools
- Cultural capital and material resources to ensure success. Working-class parents lacked the cultural capital and material resource required.

Some argue that the values parents pass onto their children can influence their attitude towards education






Gender and Educational achievement: Evidence

<u>Trends</u>	<u>Evidence in the form or studies to use in your answers</u>		
<p>2013 Teacher assessments showed that girls were out performing boys in literacy, language and maths</p> <p><u>Key Stage 1 -3</u></p> <p>Girls continue to do better in boys especially in English where the gap continues to widen but the gap begins to narrow in the sciences and maths.</p> <p><u>Key Stage</u></p>	<p><u>Harris</u></p> <p>Boys have low self-esteem and motivation and are less keen to struggle to overcome and improve</p> <p>Boys are also more easily distracted but girls are more willing to do homework</p>	<p><u>Moir and Moir</u></p> <p>Argue that schools are too “girl friendly” and now boys don’t learn in ways that suit them. With a focus on verbal skills and less competition.</p>	<p><u>Katz</u></p> <p>Argues that boys not trying is based upon a fear of ridicule and there is a peer pressure to not try.</p> <p>Also the growth in incompetent/ stupid male characters in the media has influence boys to have low self esteem in education</p>
<p>The average gap at KS4 stands about 10 points but the gap is increasing.</p> <p><u>Keys Stage</u></p> <p>The gap at A Level is much narrower than at GCSE but girls still out perform boys even in the so called ‘boys subjects’ such as maths and science.</p>	<p><u>Mitsos and Brown</u></p> <p>There work looks at how schools may affect different genders in education. For example gender stereotyping in textbooks or less role models for girls in science.</p>	<p><u>Murphy and Elwood</u></p> <p>Argue that children learn their gender roles within the home. This is due to parental expectations. This can influence the subjects that are chosen to study further.</p>	<p><u>Mac and Ghail</u></p> <p>Argues boys are experiencing a crisis of masculinity. Where the jobs they have been socialised into seeing for themselves are declining and being replaced with “female centric” jobs.</p>
<p><u>Vocational Education</u></p> <p>Although boys are more likely to take a vocational qualification than girls, girls are still more likely to receive a distinction.</p>	<p><u>Statistics show that girls:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do better at every stage in the National Curriculum tests in English and Science 2. Do better than boys in language and literacy 3. Are more successful than boys in most GCSE subjects, outperforming boys in every major subject 4. Are more likely to get three or more A-level passes and achieve higher average point scores than boys 5. Are more likely to get top First-class and Upper Second-class university degrees 		

Gender and education: Explanations for why girls are doing better than boys

	<u>Factor and Explanation</u>	<u>Impact on achievement</u>
<p>Legal changes and Equal opportunities Policies</p> 	<p>Government policies for education that have aimed to create more opportunities for girls to take part in what have traditionally been male subjects for example GIST & WISE. The national curriculum also levelled the playing field as girls and boys had to study the same subjects</p>	<p>These policies are the key reason for the changes in girls achievement as they removed many of the barriers faced by girls and has made education more meritocratic.</p>
<p>Changing expectations</p> 	<p>The 'Feminist Movement' has improved the rights of women as well as raising expectations & self-esteem/ motivation of women – women can now have aspirations beyond being a housewife and mother</p>	<p>Having role models to look up to in non traditional positions Girls are more likely to work harder to achieve these goals themselves which leads to them achieving more educationally</p>
<p>Socialisation</p> 	<p>Parents tend to buy girls different toys which encourages their language skills. Boys relate to their peers by being active, whilst girls relate by talking.</p>	<p>This puts girls at an advantage as most subjects need you to be good at writing and comprehension tasks – given the increased opportunities girls have the skills to do well</p>
<p>GCSE and coursework</p> 	<p>Course work was introduced in 1988. Before this the achievement gap was constant between 1979 and 1989, but once coursework was introduced girls began to out perform boys and the gap widened</p>	<p>Mitsos and Browne suggest that girls are more successful in coursework because they are more conscientious and better organised than boys which puts them at an advantage</p>
<p>Teacher / pupil interaction</p> 	<p>Teachers interact with girls and boys differently. Boys get more attention in the classroom but it is negative attention. Boys also tend to dominate in whole class discussion where as girls tend to be more democratic.</p>	
<p>Challenging stereotypes</p> 	<p>The removal of gender stereotypes from textbooks, reading schemes and has removed a barrier to girls aspirations and achievement. In the 1970's and 1980's girls were portrayed as wives and mothers and textbooks would reinforce this image as well as putting girls off science and maths</p>	<p>since the 1980's there has been significant change with teachers and textbooks challenging the traditional stereotypes which has led to greater achievement in girls as they are presented with more positive images of what they can achieve. League</p>

Gender and achievement: Boys achievement

Factor	Explanation	Impact on achievement
 <p>Literacy</p>	The 'Gender gap' is the result of poor literacy amongst males. Reading is seen as a feminine activity as it is generally mothers who read with their children. Bedroom culture –Girls are socialised to talk and discuss which increases their vocab.	Lower vocabulary limits achievement through language code and the ability of students to express ideas coherently.
 <p>Lack of male primary teachers</p>	Teaching is a feminine profession, and schools lack many 'real' men role models. This is especially critical at primary schools where women dominate.	This could help explain why learning is seen as 'girlie' by many boys and not worth their time.
 <p>Feminisation of education</p>	Schools do not nurture masculine traits, such as competitiveness and leadership and instead celebrate qualities such as attentiveness in class, methodical working Sewell thinks coursework should be replaced with exams and emphasis in outdoor education within the curriculum.	Boys become bored with education and schools
 <p>Laddish subcultures</p>	Boys gain status by joining anti-school subcultures. More disruptive –boys tend to get excluded more and seek status from exclusion. Doing well in school or asking for help leads to bullying and belief that they are weak.	Exclusion from school leads to underachievement.
 <p>Crisis of masculinity</p>	Due to globalisation (1980's) there has been a decline in heavy industries, such as iron and steel, engineering etc. Mitsos and Browne-decline in male employment opportunities has led to 'identity crises'	Results in belief that they will not get a 'proper job' and lose motivation to get grades.

Gender and subject choice:

Traditional subject choices		Subject choice patterns at different levels		
Boys	Girls	Trends in subject choice at GCSE	Trends in subject choice at A Level	Trends in subject choice: Vocational Education
Maths Science Technology	English Humanities Languages	There is very little choice given in the national curriculum and at GCSE however trends can be seen in options with boys taking more practical and vocational based subjects such as Business and girls opt more for the humanities and arts based subjects.	The difference in subject choice are much more apparent at A Level with wider choice available. Boys take technical subjects such as computing, physics and maths and girls taking subjects such as sociology, English and Languages.	Gender segregation is very noticeable within vocational education, with girls opting for careers which are more caring and traditionally female such as Child Care, Health and Beauty and Social Care. Boys tend to go for more technical courses such as mechanics, engineering and construction.

Patterns of educational attainment for ethnicity and achievement

What do the statistics tell us?

Statistics show that educational achievement is, to some extent, related to ethnicity. Students from some ethnic background tend to underachieve educationally (that is, they do not achieve their full potential and tend to perform relatively poorly in exams), while others over achieve.

Chinese	74.4
Indian	72.9
White and Asian parents	67.2
Irish	65.9
Bangladeshi	61.3
Any other mixed background	60.6
White and Black African parents	56.8
Black African	56.8
National	56.6
White British	56.4
Pakistani	51.4
White and Black Caribbean parents	49.0
Black Caribbean	47.0
Gypsy/Roma	8.2

Educational attainment among ethnic groups:

Percentage of pupils achieving 5+ A*-C GCSE grades including English and Maths, England, state-funded schools 2015:

Problems with using these statistics?

- Note that many studies use categories to classify ethnic groups that are too general. For example, studies that use the term 'Asian' would not allow us to see differences in achievement levels between Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi students.
- Most of the statistics produced do not allow us to examine the possible influence of social class background in relation to ethnicity.

Explaining the relationship between ethnicity and educational achievement





As with social class and gender, it is clear that factors other than nature or genetically inherited abilities may be more important in explaining the relative success or failure of different ethnic groups.

The Swann Committee, which was appointed by the government in 1985 to examine the position of ethnic minorities in the education system, ruled out IQ as a





KEY TERMS

Key term	Definition
Anti-school subculture	the values shared by a group of pupils that run counter to the values shared by a group of pupils that run counter to the values of the school as a whole
Biased	having a one-sided opinion
Counter-school subculture	a group within a school that rejects the values and norms of the school and replaces them with anti-school values and norms
Ethnocentric curriculum	the curriculum is seen as judging things in a biased way from the point of view of one culture, e.g. the National Curriculum may value white, Western literature, art, history etc.
Stereotype	fixed image or set of characteristics of particular groups such as women or ethnic minorities. Stereotypes are often based on prejudice

Explanation for differences in ethnic achievement: The role of school – the internal factors

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>More information</u>
<p>Types of school</p> 	<p>Different schools can achievement minority group students like Black Caribbean students are more likely to go to comprehensives schools.</p>	<p>Some research suggests that the main factors in explaining differences in educational attainment is not a student's ethnic background or culture but the school they attend.</p> <p>Smith and Tomlinson (1989), in a study of 18 comprehensive schools, identified differences between the types of schools the ethnic minorities attended. They found the better schools had better quality of teaching and resources available. They concluded that ethnic minority students who went to the better schools would do just as well as white students in these types of schools.</p>
<p>Labelling and Teacher Expectations</p> 	<p>Teachers may have stereotyped views due to a child's origin. For example teachers may have higher expectations of Asians they are considered hard working. Asian girls especially</p>	<p>Teachers have stereotyped views and expectations of students, which are influenced by the children's ethnicity. Teachers expect less, so these students do not receive as much encouragement as other students. However, as Mirza (1997) notes, there is evidence that young Africa-Caribbean girls have a strong desire and motivation to succeed, which may allow them to reject the negative labels given to them.</p> <p>Wright (1992) – Asian pupils also victims of labelling. British culture and standard English are seen as superior. Teachers assume Asians have a poor grasp of language so leave them out of class discussions or speak to them in a childish manner</p>
<p>The Hidden Curriculum</p> 	<p>Books and resources might be biased towards white European cultures. They may ignore or leave out minorities all together. Some sociologists explain the underachievement of some ethnic groups in terms of the hidden curriculum</p>	<p>For example, it is argued that subjects that students study (for instance, history) are biased towards a white European culture. Some books may present stereotypical images of some minority groups, or they may ignore ethnic minorities altogether. This may lead, for example, to a sense of not being valued for some students, which may, in turn, lead to underachieving. This is known as the ethnocentric curriculum.</p>
<p>Institutional Racism</p> 	<p>This is when the educational system unknowingly discriminates against some groups. Teachers may set minorities into lower sets. African- Caribbean students are more likely to be excluded from school as well.</p>	<p>Sewell (1998) examined the responses & strategies black pupils adopt to cope with racism. Studied boys in a secondary school and found that many teachers have a stereotype of 'black machismo' which sees all black boys as rebellious, anti-authority and anti-school. Black boys more likely to be excluded from school.</p>

Explanation for differences in ethnic achievement: The external factors

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Evidence</u>
<p>Cultural Deprivation</p> 	<p>Minority groups may have different cultural values compared to those from mainstream society. Some minority groups place different levels of importance on education. Some groups such as Indian and Chinese see education as important and encourage children to work hard. However, some groups may not share the same ideas on education.</p>	<p>New Right – Charles Murray (1984)</p> <p>Argues that a high rate of lone-parenthood and lack of positive role models leads to the underachievement of some minorities. Cultural deprivation is a cycle – where inadequately socialised children from unstable families go on to fail at school & become inadequate parents themselves</p>
<p>Language</p> 	<p>Minority group students may be EAL (English as an additional language) or many children is not their first language, this places them at a disadvantage straight away because all of their lessons at school will be in English,</p>	<p>Bereiter & Engelmann (1966) consider the language spoken by low income black American families as inadequate for educational success</p>
<p>Material Deprivation:</p> 	<p>Many immigrant families achieve low income jobs and are therefore many minority group students are from working class background</p>	<p>Swann (1985) Estimated that social class accounts for at least 50% of the difference in achievement between ethnic groups. If we fail to take the different class positions of ethnic groups into account when we compare their educational achievements, there is a danger we will over-estimate the effects of cultural deprivation and under-estimate the effect of poverty and material deprivation</p>
<p>Parental Expectations and support</p> 	<p>Some minority group’s parents may have higher expectations of their students such as Asian and Indian parents. Whilst some show least interest.</p>	<p>Bhatti (1999) found that for some Asian parents, who were often poorly educated themselves, there was a strong desire to help their children’s education more. However, the parents in her sample felt frustration at their lack of knowledge about how the school worked and they felt the school didn’t understand or what to understand the children’s daily lives.</p>

Policy	Description	AO3: Evaluation
<p><u>1988 Education Reform Act: Under New Right. Introduced</u></p>	<p>National Curriculum: Core subjects for all. Science, Maths, English. Parental Choice: <u>Marketisation</u> – not allocated a school, choose. National Testing (SATs) Standardisation of attainment. Tested 7, 11, 14 and 16. OFSTED: school inspection to raise standards New Vocationalism: NVQ, GNVQ, YTS</p>	<p>+ more information and choice for parents + OFSTED and SATs help raise standards in education + schools more aware of employers needs</p> <hr/> <p>Ball the reforms make education less equal and more divisive as Middle class have more cultural capital to choose. (Marxist) New vocationalism reproduces young workers to be exploited by and accepting of capitalism - British children are tested more than children in Europe</p>
<p><u>New Labour and Policy 1997 – 2010: ‘Education, education, education!’</u></p>	<p>More Nursery places - Focus on Literacy and numeracy - Reduced Primary school class size - Home school contracts, target setting - Improve standards in Post16 – FE and training - <u>EAZ and SUREstart</u> in poorer areas - <u>New Deal</u> – lone parents back to work - <u>EMA</u></p>	<p>+ built many new schools in deprived areas and put in BSF building schools for the future +EAZ, EMA and reduction of class size helped reduce inequality + Trowler (2003) educational funding increased lots; more resources for deprived areas, lifelong learning enabled those who hadn’t achieved at school to try later.</p> <hr/> <p>-Marxists criticise New Labour for not reducing inequality of opportunity but increasing social class divisions through parental choice -introduction of tuition fees for University affected the working class more than Middle and Upper classes. -some say rise in exam success is because A Levels are ‘<u>dumbed down</u>’ -Wrongly assumed education could affect social change in other areas.</p>
<p><u>Coalition Government 2010 – present Day:</u></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Free schools - English Baccalaureate for state schools - Rise in University tuition fees - Increase in Academies - Outstanding schools (OFSTED) opt out of LEA control - Privatisation of education - Linear exams (no more modular) - More powers for teachers to punish and search students 	<p>+ more parental choice and freedom -Lots of criticism for aiming education at the privileged and not raising equality of opportunity or Meritocracy. - Fears that the lower class pupils will not have opportunities to go to University. - Class divide widening – the gap between rich and poor</p>

Marketisation and educational achievement

<p><u>The 1988 Education Act (Conservative government)</u></p> <p>This government introduced Marketisation. This was the focus on parental choice, funding based on pupil numbers and more freedom for schools to make their own decisions.</p> <p>Education becomes like a product which parents and students would invest in.</p> <p>The National Curriculum was introduced in 1989 in all state schools. It established core subjects which all students must study.</p> <p>This would then include national tests at the end of key stage. The aim of this was to provide equality of education as all students took the same subjects. It also provided a measure of who was working above or below average.</p>	<p><u>How else has marketization influenced education?</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Parents can choose the type of school their child attends. 2. Schools must have a prospectus and hold open days. 3. League tables. 4. Students can now attend schools outside of their catchment area. 5. More students = more money = better facilities. 6. Parents encouraged giving feedback and acting as consumers (parentocracy). 	<p><u>Key study:</u></p> <p>Ball et al looked at 15 schools and focused on the effects that parental choice and competition between schools had on the education system. He wanted to know if it was leading to greater inequality between social groups.</p> <p>They found that the publication of league tables led to schools to focus in recruiting more academically able students who would get the results to boost them in the table. Some schools introduced setting and streaming in order to focus resources on students who were more likely to be successful in exams. Less able students were neglected and this also applied to students with special needs.</p> <p>Ball et al argued that marketization policies have made education less equal and that schools were now more concerned with selecting the gifted than helping those who are disadvantaged.</p>
<p><u>New Labour policy – 1997</u></p> <p>This government tried to raise standards through providing nursery places for 3 and 4 year olds, reducing class sizes, national literacy schemes and measuring progress made by students.</p> <p>They also tried to reduce inequality through EMA (post 16 education bursary), AIM higher programme to raise aspirations of higher education for disadvantaged students, Sure Start programme to support families with preschool children and Connexions services which helped young people make careers decisions.</p> <p>These policies were criticised as the services were not just used by working class children and therefore could have also benefitted the middle class.</p>	<p><u>Policies since 2010.</u></p> <p>Academies – all schools are encouraged to become academies. They are allowed to control their own funding and they do not have to follow the national curriculum.</p> <p><u>Free schools</u> Schools which are funded by the government but can be set up by groups such as parents or businesses. They do not have to follow the national curriculum.</p> <p><u>Pupil Premium</u> This is when funding is provided to schools to improve the education of disadvantaged students e.g. Text books or school trips. This was to encourage schools to take more disadvantaged students however some critics have argued that the funding gets used in other areas and not on these children</p>	

7 Education Key Studies – YOU MUST KNOW

Sociologist	Theory	Method	Key Findings
Parsons	Functionalist – Positive about Education	Work of other sociologists	School is a bridge between the home and wider society. School plays central role of secondary socialisation, taking over from family (primary). School teaches universal standards – e.g. same rules apply to everyone and everyone is judged the same. He believed in meritocracy where people are rewarded for the amount of work they put in. This links to role allocation – most appropriate jobs are given to those who are talented.
Durkheim	Functionalist – Positive about Education	Work of other sociologists	Main function of education is the transmission of normal and values in order to make society into a united whole. Education helps to develop a sense of commitment to society, thus preparing them for the wider world where co-operation is vital.
Bowles and Gintis	Marxist – Negative about Education	Interviews and secondary data	- They created the correspondence principle. This is when school mirrors the workplace and prepare children for their future roles as hardworking, docile, obedient and motivated workforce. - This is done through the hidden curriculum – unintended lessons learnt that are not a part of the curriculum but prepare you for your future job – e.g. respect authority.
Willis	Marxist - Negative about Education	Case study; Participant observation	Disagree with B+G as his research showed that school is not necessarily a good agency of socialisation (for capitalism). Found existence of a counter-culture who opposed the values of the school (the lads). They did not follow rules, were disobedient and hated attempts to control their time. Willis believed their rejection made them suitable candidates for working class jobs.
Ball	NA	Case study for 3 years (Beachside); Used participant observation.	Lower class students more likely to be in lower bands. Teachers had different expectations of different bands. Even in mixed ability classes labelling still happened.
Ball, Bowe and Gewirtz	NA	Interviews and secondary data in 15 schools	- Parental choice and competition has increased inequalities in education -They found middle class parents had knowledge, contacts and money to send their children to better and more distant schools. -Middle class parents also had cultural capital and material resources to ensure success.
Halsey, Heath and Ridge	NA	Face to face survey	- Survey of 8000 men from all 3 classes - service, intermediate, working -Found that the higher the class you are, the further in education you will go. -Service class boy 11 times more likely to go to university than working class.

Education Policies/Laws – You Must Know These To Use as Evidence

Name of Law/Policy	What did the policy/law change?
1870 Education Act	Made a commitment to provide education nationally .
1918 Education Act	The age of compulsory education was raised to 14 years old .
1944 Butler Act	The age of compulsory education was raised to 15 years old . The act introduced the ‘tripartite’ system whereby there types of schools were introduced to suit different types of students (after they did the 11+ exam). These were 1) Grammar schools (high able), 2) Secondary modern schools (middle/low ability) and 3) Secondary technical schools (school based on practical subjects for low ability).
1965 Comprehensivisation	Comprehensive schools were introduced. This merged all three schools from the tripartite system together into one . However setting and streaming still allowed the separation of students based on intelligence/ability .
1988 Education Reform Act	Introduced the ‘marketisation of education’ . This is when services like education become more like a business based on competition and consumer choice . This was introduced by the Conservative Government and it introduced the following: - 1) A national curriculum . 2) Introduced league tables to encourage competition . 3) Created OFSTED to monitor schools. 4) Schools could have more control over finances . 5) Parents no longer had to send child to local school but had a choice . 6) Greater focus on vocational education for less academic students .
1997 New Labour	Labour party took over and their focus was to reduce inequality and provide equal chance to all. Policies included the following: - 1) Introduced Academies – a new type of school partially funded by local businesses to tackle underperforming schools . 2) Free childcare for every pre-school child (women could return to work). 3) Early intervention/support was provided to improve chances from disadvantaged backgrounds . 4) Tuition fees for universities became based on parents income, meaning it was available to those who could afford it . 5) Introduced educational maintenance allowance (EMA) which is when a small amount of money was given to students from poor backgrounds to encourage students to attend further education.
Educational Policies since 2010	The Conservative Party joined with the Liberal Democrats and introduced the following: - 1) They cut EMA . 2) University fees increased to £9000 a year . 3) A student premium for disadvantaged students was introduced to provide additional classroom support/resources. 4) FSM were introduced from 2014 and every child in Year 1 to 3 were eligible . 5) Changed A-level system and reintroduced 2 year system . 6) Structure of GCSE grading was changed from A*-G to 9-1 . These policies were very controversial as they were based on spending cuts which effected equality of achievement.

Extra Education Sociologists – YOU DON'T HAVE TO KNOW BUT YOU CAN USE AS EVIDENCE!

Sociologist/s	Theory	Method	Key Findings
The Sutton Trust	N/A	N/A	Found independent school pupils are nearly 7 times as likely as pupils in comprehensive schools to be accepted into Oxford and Cambridge. This rises to 55 more times likely than the most disadvantaged pupils who are on FSM.
Pierre Bourdieu	Marxism	N/A	Suggested that middle class cultural capital is as valuable to education as material wealth. He believed the middle class had an advantage as they have cultural capital.
Basil Bernstein	Marxism	N/A	Argued that middle class parents passed on better language skills to their children which benefits them in education – these language skills were the same used by teachers.
Howard Becker	Interactionism	Interviewed 60 teachers	He found that children are labelled by teachers based on their appearance and conduct. He argued the middle class pupils were seen as ideal students. Labelling can lead to different classes being put into different sets.
Sue Sharpe	Feminism	N/A	In 1976 she found that girls priorities were love, marriage, husbands, children, jobs and careers. When she repeated the research in 1994 she found those priorities had changed to job, career and being able to support themselves.
McRobbie	Feminism	N/A	Argues that the bedroom culture of girls (girls spend time in their bedrooms chatting with their friends) can create their own subcultures. They chat and read, which allows them to develop communication skills that are valued in school.
Tony Sewell	N/A	N/A	He argued that girls are generally more willing to conform to school rules, where as boys are not.
Murphy and Elwood	N/A	N/A	Showed how early socialisation can lead to different subject choices in school. Boys read hobby books and information texts, while girls are more likely to read stories about people. This explains why boys prefer science subjects and girls prefer subjects such as English.
Cecile Wright	N/A	N/A	Found that in inner-city primary schools some teachers hold ethnic-based stereotypes with more positive expectations of Asians (especially girls). However Black Caribbean boys were labelled as disruptive and troublemakers.

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Education Statistics – You Must Know These To Use as Evidence

Topic	Statistic	What is the trend?
Private V State	% achieving 3 A*-A grades (A-Level): - State – 10.5% / Private – 29.5% % achieving 4 A-B grades (A-Level): - State - 17.6% / Private – 42.6%	Students who attend independent schools do better then those who attend state schools – this is for secondary schools and colleges/sixth forms. The statistic on the left is evidence of this.
FSM V Non-FSM	5 or more A*- C Grades (2015): - FSM – 33.1% / Non-FSM – 60.9%	This shows students who are not on FSM get better grades then those on FSM . There is a gap of 27.8% . Furthermore in every ethnic minority and both genders those on FSM get worse grades .
Girls V Boys	5 or more A*- C Grades (2015): - Girls – 58.9% / Boys – 49%	Girls are year on year achieving better grades then boys . The gap in 2015 (shown on the left) shows a gap of 9.9% There are a number of reasons for this.
Subject Choices	A Levels (2015) : - Boys – Computing 91.5%, Physics 79%, <u>Maths</u> 72% Girls: - Sociology 77%, Psychology 76%, English 72% & Art 76%	This shows striking differences in subject choices . Boys tend to pick more practical subjects whilst girls are picking more writing/Humanities/Language based subjects .
Ethnicity	5 or more A*- C Grades (2014/15): Chinese 87%, Indian 81% where as Pakistani 62% and Black Caribbean 58.1%	This shows Chinese and Indians are consistently getting the best grades . Black Caribbean are one of the lowest achieving ethnic minorities .
Exclusion Rates	2003/4: - Black Caribbean – 0.41% permanently excluded 2009/10: - Black Caribbean – 0.34% permanently excluded	This shows black Caribbean students have had the highest exclusion rates for 6 years despite it falling by 0.7% . Perhaps this explains low achievement? Second lowest performing is black African.

EDUCATION – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – TYPES OF EDUCATION AND PERSPECTIVES

TYPES OF SCHOOL AND SCHOOLING

FORMAL EDUCATION	Takes places in educational establishments such as schools and universities.
INFORMAL EDUCATION	Takes place when people learn from their everyday life.
PRIMARY	Schools for children aged 5-11
SECONDARY	Schools for children aged 11-16. Includes comprehensive schools, free schools, special schools and academies.
INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS	Fee paying schools. These include private schools and public schools (older fee paying schools). Around 7% of English schoolchildren attend independent schools.
STATE SCHOOLS	State schools do not charge fees. Their intake is more socially mixed.
HOME SCHOOLING	Children are taught at home by parents or tutors.
DE-SCHOOLING	Illich argues that schools repress children and promote passive conformity. He argues that education should be abolished and that children should be able to decide what to learn based on their natural curiosity.
FORMAL CURRICULUM	The content of the planned lessons that learn at school.
HIDDEN CURRICULUM	The unintended lessons that children learn at school. These can be through the school rules, things that happen at break times etc.

Perspectives on education

FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE	1. Education serves the needs of the economy. It gives people the knowledge and skills that people will need for work.
	2. Education facilitates social mobility. Gifted students from disadvantaged backgrounds can achieve qualifications and move up to a higher social class.
	3. Education fosters social cohesion. Schools help to reinforce the social bonds, norms and values that unite different people in society.
DURKHEIM'S FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE	The main function of education is socialisation ; teaching children the norms and values of their society. Through history, for example, children learn that they are part of a community. By following school rules, children learn the difference between right and wrong

PARSONS FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE	The education system helps society to be meritocratic . Children are successful because of their abilities and effort not their family background. Education acts like a sieve , grading students and allocating them to jobs based on their abilities (this is known as their achieved status).
MARXIST PERSPECTIVE	1. Education serves the interests of the ruling class . For example, it promotes the idea that capitalist society is fair and meritocratic.
	2. Education reproduces the class structure . Children from privileged backgrounds are more likely to leave with better qualifications and get better jobs.
	3. Education is a form of negative secondary socialisation . Children learn to accept hierarchy and obey rules which prepare them to accept their role in a capitalist society.
BOWLES AND GINTIS'S MARXIST PERSPECTIVE	Bowles and Gintis use the term correspondence principle to describe the way that education (through the hidden curriculum) trains children for life in the capitalist system and prevents rebellion or revolution. School and work, for example, both involve uniforms, strict time-keeping, hierarchy, rewards, punishments, boring tasks etc.
EDUCATION – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – ACHIEVEMENT	
SOCIAL CLASS AND EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT	
SOCIAL CLASS	In general, middle class students achieve better exam results than working class students .
HALSEY'S STUDY ON EDUCATIONAL DESTINATIONS	Halsey, Heath and Ridge researched the educational destinations of school children. They conducted a large, fact to face study that divided people into three social classes based on their father's occupation; service class (e.g. professionals such as doctors), intermediate class (e.g. office workers) and working class (e.g. manual labourers). Children born into the service class did much better at school and were more likely to go to university than the intermediate class and both did better than the working class .
EXPLANATIONS FOR CLASS DIFFERENCE	1. Economic circumstances : Students from affluent backgrounds usually have the facilities to help them study (space, PC etc), parents often employ tutors and live in the catchment areas of good schools.
	2. Parental values : Parents from the upper and middle classes often value education and expect their children to do well. Parents from the working class might be less interested or have lower expectations.
	3. Cultural Capital : Middle class parents often have the knowledge and skills to be able to help their children with school work and revision.

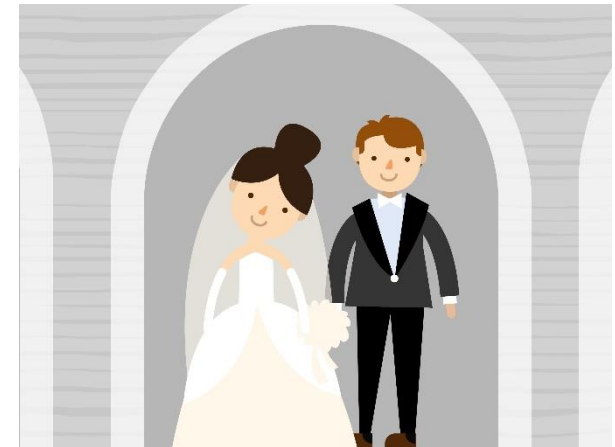
BALL'S STUDY ON PARENTAL CHOICE	Ball, Bowe and Gewirtz argue that the publication of league tables has led increased competition between schools . However, middle class parents have an advantage in this competition because they can afford to move to good schools or to pay for their children to travel further to those schools.
GENDER AND EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT	
GENDER	In general, girls do better than boys in both GCSEs and A levels than boys.
	Girls are more likely to study subjects such as English and Art at A level, whereas boys are more likely to study physics and maths.
EXPLANATIONS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES	1. Women's rights: Changes to the law have made gender discrimination in education illegal. Feminism has meant that girls now are expecting to get a job and be financially independent.
	2. Anti-school sub-culture amongst boys: Peer pressure may encourage boys to see school and educational success as 'uncool'.
	3. Gendered curriculum: The hidden curriculum encourages the perception that some subjects are masculine whilst others are feminine.
ETHNICITY AND EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT	
ETHNICITY	In general, students from some minority ethnic groups (e.g. Chinese) achieve better exam results than others (e.g. Black Caribbean).
EXPLANATIONS FOR ETHNICITY DIFFERENCES: HOME FACTORS	1. Economic circumstances: Students from some minority ethnic groups (e.g. Black Caribbean) are more likely to experience material deprivation than those from others.
	2. Parental values: Some ethnic minority parents (e.g. British Chinese) are more likely to value education and educational success.
	3. Cultural capital: White, middle class parents often have the knowledge and skills to be able to help their children with school work and revision.
EXPLANATIONS FOR ETHNICITY DIFFERENCES: SCHOOL FACTORS	1. Ethnocentric curriculum: The idea that the formal curriculum is biased towards white, European culture
	2. The hidden curriculum: The hidden curriculum emphasises white, mainstream norms and values (e.g. school uniform policy).
	3. Institutional racism: When the policies and procedures of an organisation result in discrimination. Some people argue that the high rate of fixed-term exclusions of Black Caribbean boys is evidence of institutional racism in schools.

EDUCATION – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – PROCESSES WITHIN SCHOOLS

STREAMING	Students are allocated to a band based on their overall ability and are taught in this band for most of their subjects.
THE EFFECTS OF STREAMING	1. Promotes class differences in achievement: A disproportionately high number of lower stream students are drawn from the working class.
	2. Creates an anti-school sub-culture: In response to being labelled as failures, some lower stream students reject the school's values and rules.
SETTING	Students are allocated to a class based on their achievement in that subject. They will be taught in different classes for different subjects.
THE EFFECTS OF SETTING	Students are often set because of their behaviour rather than their achievement. Students are often not moved up or down a class for practical reasons (e.g. class size).
MIXED ABILITY TEACHING	Students are taught in mixed ability classes.
LABELLING AND THE SELF-FULFILLING PROPHECY	Negative labelling of students can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy. For example, students who are told that they are low ability in maths come to believe that and give up more easily in maths lessons.
THE INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVE	Interactionism focuses on small-scale interactions between teachers and students. Research suggests that teachers label students based on factors such as their appearance, gender, ethnicity and how well they conform to the school's rules, norms and values.
BALL ON TEACHER EXPECTATIONS	Ball undertook a case study of streaming in a secondary school. Some students changed their behaviour over time as a result of teacher expectations. For example, teachers expected students in the 'top' band to be well-behaved and hard working and students in the 'bottom' band to be slow to complete work and poorly behaved. Over time, students' behaviour began to mirror these expectations.
THE KEY IDEAS OF WILLIS ON THE CREATION OF COUNTER SCHOOL CULTURES.	Willis carried out a study of 12 working class boys ('lads') in a single sex school. He used qualitative methods to explore their counter-school culture. They resisted the school and its rules and focussed on 'dossing' ad 'having a laff.' They saw the more conformist boys as 'cissies.' They saw manual work as masculine and white collar work as effeminate. Willis followed the 'lads' into their jobs and argues that the anti-school culture prepared them for working class jobs where they adopted similar attitudes.

AQA GCSE Sociology

Family and households knowledge organiser



Name:

Class:

Family types and alternatives to the family

It is hard to define 'a family' as they all look different but generally: 'A married couple and their **dependent** children who live together'. The following tries to explain the increasing **family diversity** (variety) in the UK today: 'Two or more people linked by birth, marriage, civil partnership, adoption or **cohabitation** based on long-term relationships'.

KEY TERMS

Key term	Definition
Beanpole families	long and thin vertical family with lots of generations but very few children in each generation
Blended families	Another way of describing a reconstituted family
Civil partnership	when people of the same sex have their relationship registered so it is legally recognised (gave same rights as married people before gays could marry)
Cohabitation	partners who live together without getting married
Dependent family members (or children)	people or children who depend on others within the family because of their age or disability
Extended families	families that include distant relatives such as grandparents or aunts and uncles
Family	Two or more people linked by birth, marriage, civil partnership, adoption or cohabitation based on long-term relationships
Family diversity	different types of family structures that exist in Britain
Family household	A household in which family members live together.
Lone-parent families	families with one parent because of divorce, death or choice
Household	People who live at the same address who share at least one meal a day or facilities such as a living room.
Nuclear families	families with parents who are married and have children
Reconstituted families	when two adults with children from previous relationships marry (or cohabit) to form a new family. (otherwise known as 'step families')
Same-sex families	families with parents of the same sex
Step-parent	someone who is the parent of their partner's child but not biological parent


Alternatives to the family

Key term	Definition	Additional information
Household	one person who lives alone or a group of people who live at the same address who share at least one meal a day or facilities	
Kin	relatives	
Looked after children	when children are placed in children's homes or with foster carers.	2015: 69,540 children looked after, 60% due to abuse. 75% of looked after children are in foster care, some specialise in emotional/ behavioural issues, others are secure units for offenders. Older people can live in residential care. 2011: 3.2% 65 or over lived in care homes
One person household	(lone person household): when a person lives on their own	One-person households: this has increased from 6.6 million in 2010 to 7.7 million in 2015 (29% of households). This is due to older people living longer, often women living on their own after their partner has died. But it's also due to younger people who: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are divorced • Live alone before marrying • Remain single and childless throughout their lives • Choose to live apart from their partner Are international migrants including students, who have moved to Britain to study
Residential care	the institution older people or disabled people live in such as a nursing home	Some older people live in institutions such as residential care and nursing homes. in 2011, 3.2% of people aged 65 and over lived in care homes.

Family diversity and the life course analysis KO

Key study: the Rapoport's: Think C.L.O.G. S

Rapoport and Rapoport (wife and husband) in 1982 were pioneers in the field of family research with an interest in the issue of family diversity. They believe that we have moved away from the traditional nuclear family as the dominant family type in society. Families in Britain have adapted to a society in which cultures and lifestyles are more diverse. In their view, family diversity reflects greater freedom of choice and the widespread acceptance of different cultures and ways of life in today's society.

Type of diversity 	Explanation	Example
Cultural diversity	Different cultural, religious and ethnic groups have different family structures. These differences between families in their beliefs and values affect their lifestyles and ideas about gender roles , the domestic division of labour and childrearing , education and work.	Different marriage practices 1. Polygamy 2. Monogamy 3. Size of family
Life-course diversity	Individuals are likely to experience living in many different family types throughout their lives. Families at a specific stage in the life-cycle develop lifestyles that reflect their circumstances. Their concerns are not the same as those of families at other stages in the family life-cycle	1. Might grow up in a nuclear family but parents get divorced 2. One spouse might die 3. An adult might cohabit but then get married 4. Childless couple might have baby
Organisational diversity	Referring to how 'Roles' are organised within the family. It was found that there are differences between families in the way they are structured, e.g. the way	Some families the mother performs most of the domestic tasks
Generational Diversity	The Rapoport's highlight how family diversity can be affected by different generational views. This can include how economic issues at the time can affect the roles in a family. Older & younger generations have different attitudes & experiences	Older people might have more traditional views around family Younger people might be more accepting of same-sex families
Social class diversity	Different Classes = Differences in family structure, roles & child-rearing practices.	social classes socialise and discipline their children differently

They believe that we have moved away from the traditional nuclear family as the dominant family type in society.

Families in Britain have adapted to a society in which cultures and lifestyles are more diverse.

In their view, family diversity reflects greater freedom of choice and the widespread acceptance of different cultures and ways of life in today's society

KEY TERMS

Key term	Definition
Childrearing	Bringing up children
Dual-worker families	Both adults partners work in paid employment
Gender roles	The behaviour expected of people based on their gender & associated with masculinity & femininity.
Life-course	The stages that an individual passes through over their lifetimes e.g. childhood, teenager etc., or the course of a family's life over time e.g. from a nuclear to an empty nest family.
Lifestyles	The way people live, including their leisure and work patterns. Lifestyle is influenced by factors such as religion, age, income & social class.
Social networks	A network of relatives and friends
Social stigma	The shame or disgrace attached to something. E.g. having a child out of marriage was a source of shame for women in the past.

How families differ in global context:

Communes - Communes were popular in the 1960s and 70s, especially in the USA and some still exist today. Commune is a group of people who share living accommodation, possessions, wealth and property. Members of the commune make decisions together and try to achieve equality of the sexes and ages. Communal households may be based on shared political beliefs or environmental principles such as avoiding products that harm the environment.

Kibbutzim - Kibbutzim were agricultural settlements set up by Jewish settlers in Palestine a century ago. It consists of a group of people who live together communally and value equality and cooperation between members. Each family has their own apartment and children sleep separate from mothers.

Functionalism and the family:

Functionalists take a Positive view of the family they believe that the family is one of the corner stones of society. It performs essential functions which support social stability and social cohesion.

- Nuclear family is the norm in modern society
- Family performs useful functions for both society as a whole and individual family members

Functions of the family: Murdock

Murdock studied 250 societies from small hunting and gathering societies to modern industrial societies like the USA and found that and claimed there are four *universal residual functions* of the family:

Function	Description	Example
Reproductive	The biological reproduction of the next generation –without which society cannot continue.	Families create the next generation to live in society
Economic	The family meets the economic needs of its members	Family provides: 1. Food 2. Clothes 3. Housing
Sexual	Ensures that adult sexual relationships are controlled and socially acceptable. This meant stable monogamous heterosexual relationships	Monogamy (having only one partner) is encouraged Cheating is frowned upon
Educational	Teaching basic norms and values so children to they know how to behave	Learning of norms and values

Functions of the family: Parsons

Parsons saw the modern family as “stripped” down to just two ‘basic and irreducible’ functions. Parsons believed that the family was like a warm bath – as it comforts and soothes members from the harsh realities of the outside world just like a warm bath soothes and relaxes you

Function	Description
Socialisation of children	The family is vital for passing on norms and values. Parsons saw mothers as playing a major role in the process of nurturing and socialising children
Stabilisation of adult personalities	The specialised function of the family is to relieve the stresses of modern day life this enables the family to stabilise adult personalities by providing loving and relaxing haven where people can be themselves.

Evaluation:

Point	Explanation
Out of Date	Women now go out to work and the biological roles as set out by Parsons no longer apply as clearly.
Down plays the role of conflict	In particular the oppression of women and domestic violence. The family is not always the safe and warm place suggested by Parsons.
Ignores family diversity	Assumes that all families are best when nuclear however many family structures are apparent in todays society and still fulfil the same functions.
Not always functional	Cheal points out that functional relationships within the family can easily turn into dysfunctional relationships and therefore are not as positive as functionalists would believe

KEY TERMS

Agency of socialisation: a social group or institution responsible for carrying out socialisation, e.g. family or education etc

Dysfunctional families: a family where functions such as providing emotional support are not being carried out. E.g. domestic violence or child abuse

Isolated (or isolation): the idea that the nuclear family has become more isolated or separated from the wider family

Idealisation: showing the nuclear family as the idea type of family to live in

Marxist perspective on families

The Marxist perspective is different to the Functionalism as they take a negative view of the nuclear family as an institution and the role it plays in society. Rather than viewing the family as meeting the needs of individuals and society. Marxists see it as serving the interests of capitalism

- The bourgeoisie (who own the means of production and the land and factories) are able to pass on their wealth to family members – inheritance keeps the middle classes rich whilst the working classes don't have much wealth or assets to pass on to their children
- Working class people will learn to accept their lower status in the capitalist society through socialisation as they are taught to respect the hierarchy and follow orders from their parents.
- Families also support capitalism by providing unpaid labour and reproducing and socialising then the next generation of workers. Babies = workers. Workers = Money. This money goes back into the hands of the bourgeoisie

Capitalism exploits the proletariat and promotes inequality. The family does the same.

KEY TERMS

Key term	Definition
Economic function	view the family has an economic function because women carry out unpaid domestic labour such as cooking and cleaning
Economy	A system based on money that allows goods and services to be produced and consumed. E.g. capitalism or socialism
Separate spheres	the split between the private world of home and the public world of work

Eli Zaretsky (1979) — focus on key thinkers

Before the industrial revolution Eli Zaretsky says that the family all worked together on farms or in the early stages of the textile industry—the family was a 'unit of production'.

After the rise of capitalism and the industrial revolution led to a split between family life and work. As a result the family and the **economy** are now seen as two **separate spheres** but this is an illusion:

Family = the private sphere

Work = the public sphere

Women became responsible for the family and for the emotional well being of the family.

Women now had to keep a home going to be a refuge against the harsh conditions of work and society.

Zaretsky believes that the family cannot meet all people's emotional and social needs, all it can do it cushion them from the harsh affects of work.

1. The family provides 'a cushion' from the effects of capitalism as family allows the worker to relax, refresh and unwind after a days work so they can then feel revitalised for work the next day.
2. Families separate individuals from the rest of community. ***This is the cult of private life.*** This stops a revolution from happening. (Divide & Conquer) as family members are able to go back to work the next day
3. Capitalism also encourages ***pester power*** as children pester parents to buy them toys, food and products which makes businesses richer
4. Children are brought up to do what parents tell them. This prepares children for accepting authority at school and work- this teaches them to be obedient

Evaluation:

Functionalists – argue that the family can be a positive force for society and family members

Feminists – Argue that the Marxist view is based on the traditional nuclear family with the mum staying at home whilst the Dad goes out to work – this is now an outdated view with the rise of family diversity

Feminists - Argue that Marxists ignore the patriarchal nature of the nuclear family where women are exploited

Many people still see marriage and having children as a central family goal

Feminists are critical of the family and see it as being negative for women. Feminists argue the differences between men and women are **socially constructed** through primary socialisation.

The term **canalisation** describes the way parents channel boys to wear blue and play with boys toys, and girls to wear pink and play with girl toys.

Girls may watch the mother cleaning and ironing and assume these are a woman's role, while boys may help the father with DIY and think this is the man's role. In this way, families are preparing children for their gender roles in a male-dominated society.

There are different types of feminist approaches as different strands have different opinions.

Type of feminism	Explanation
Radical feminism	<p>Radical feminists stress the main enemy of women to be men! Radical Feminists see the exploitation of women as being a result of having men dominate society – we should get rid of men to solve the problem!</p> <p>Delphy and Leonard (1992)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Family role → maintains patriarchy ● Family is an economic system whereby men benefit at the expense of women.
Liberal feminism	<p>Liberal Feminists don't blame capitalism or men for unequal treatment of women. Liberal Feminists believe that laws such as the Sex Discrimination act are making life better for women although equality still does not exist and believe individuals should be treated according to their independent merits.</p>
Marxist Feminism	<p>Marxist Feminists say women are exploited and this benefits the capitalist society. Women work for free in the house doing all the cooking and cleaning while the man goes out to work! Due to women having children it means that they spend less time in the workplace</p>

Key study: Delphy and Leonard— Radical feminists

The family is **hierarchal**. The husband is at the top and other family members are lower. The husband provides for his wife and gets to control her labour for his own use.

When women have well-paid, fulltime employment, they still do most of the domestic work and childcare. Family relationships involve economic exploitation—men use and benefit from the unpaid work of women within families. Wives are exploited in terms of:

- ☒ The way their labour is used by their husbands
- ☒ Their work not being valued
- ☒ Their financial dependence on their husbands
- ☒ Their subordinate (lower) position within the family

Delphy and Leonard argue that the family is **patriarchal**. Families maintain men's domination over women and children. In this way, patriarchal families keep patriarchy going in society.

Evaluation:

Functionalists – argue that the family can be a positive force for society and family members

Many people still see marriage and having children as a central family goal

Feminists assume that all male /female relationships involve male exploitation of women- this is not always the case

Feminists also assume that women are passive and accepting of their role in the family – however not all women play the traditional homemaker role as in some cases the men stay at home instead.

KEY TERMS

KEY TERMS	Definition
Canalisation	The way parents channel their children's interests into toys, games and other activities that are seen as appropriate for their gender
Hierarchy	A system that ranks people like a pyramid
Social construct (social construction)	patterns of behaviour based on the norms and values of society e.g. masculinity and femininity are social constructed by people in society

Role and relationships within families: Traditional roles and perspective on conjugal roles

Key term	Definition
Conjugal relationships	The relationship between a married or cohabiting couple
Conjugal roles	The roles (jobs) that are performed by each person in a cohabiting relationship.
Dual burden	Women taking part in both paid work and housework.
Expressive role	The caring and nurturing role in the family. Parsons sees this as women's natural or biological role.
Instrumental role	Instrumental role: the breadwinner role in the family. Parsons sees this as a male's role
Joint/integrated roles	Contemporary - Husband and wife perform similar tasks and have similar interests and activities.
Principle of stratified diffusion	The idea that social changes such as values and attitudes start at the top of the social class system and work downwards
Segregated roles	Traditional - Husband and wife perform different tasks and have a number of separate interests and activities.
Symmetrical family	A family form in which partners carry out different tasks but each makes a similar contribution within the home
Triple shift	As well as working full time and doing most of the housework, it has been suggested that mothers are also responsible for the 'emotion' work in the household. This means they are responsible for THREE things: Cooking, childcare, cleaning
Conventional family:	A nuclear family—married couple with one or a small amount of children, living together
Gender roles	The behaviour expected of people based on their gender, linked to masculinity and femininity

Theory	<u>Key ideas on conjugal roles within the family</u>	<u>Evaluation points of perspective</u>						
<u>Functionalism</u>	<p>Parsons said segregated roles are 'natural'. Each partner has a role to play which makes the family more stable and is the most effective way of keeping society running smoothly. An important part of primary socialisation is <i>gender role socialisation</i> as if done correctly both girls and boys learn to adopt their gender role:</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="230 336 1377 568"> <thead> <tr> <th data-bbox="230 336 568 379">Name of role</th> <th data-bbox="568 336 1377 379">Description</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td data-bbox="230 379 568 453">instrumental role performed by men</td> <td data-bbox="568 379 1377 453">breadwinner as they go out to work and bring in the main wage for the family</td> </tr> <tr> <td data-bbox="230 453 568 568">expressive role performed by women</td> <td data-bbox="568 453 1377 568">caring and emotional role where the 'mum' does the caring work such as childcare and housework</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Parson's argues that men and women have naturally different roles and that both are necessary for the smooth running of the family.</p>	Name of role	Description	instrumental role performed by men	breadwinner as they go out to work and bring in the main wage for the family	expressive role performed by women	caring and emotional role where the 'mum' does the caring work such as childcare and housework	<p>Parsons view of the expressive and instrumental roles in the family are old fashioned in our modern society as the majority of women now go out to work.</p> <p>There is now a blurring of gender roles with both men and women participating in both expressive and instrumental roles.</p> <p>Functionalists ignore the way women suffer from the sexual division of labour in the family – even today women still end up being the primary carer giver in 90% of families, and suffer from the extra burden of having a paid job on top compared to men</p>
Name of role	Description							
instrumental role performed by men	breadwinner as they go out to work and bring in the main wage for the family							
expressive role performed by women	caring and emotional role where the 'mum' does the caring work such as childcare and housework							
<u>Marxism</u>	<p>Argues men and women having different roles proves the power of capitalism to control family life. Women and men have unequal roles because that structure supports capitalism.</p> <p>Women who stay at home doing unpaid work in the home (housework and emotional work) are supporting the capitalist society because they are providing workers who are fit, happy and healthy who will be ready for work later on in life. It also means women can bring up children who will be the future labour force.</p> <p>Zaretsky claims that the family cushions members from the pressures of living in a capitalist society, allowing them to express their frustrations with capitalism in a non-threatening way. The family offers a haven from the harsh realities of capitalism – this benefits capitalism as it helps to reduce the stress caused by the exploitation experienced by the workers at work.</p>	<p>They ignore family diversity in a capitalist society as their ideas reflect the traditional nuclear family.</p> <p>Feminists argue that Marxists focus too much on social class and ignores the gender exploitation in families which is the real source of oppression.</p> <p>Marxists see women's' exploitation as the result of a capitalist society – but ignores other possible causes.</p> <p>Marxists ignore the benefits of living in a nuclear family – for example both parents supporting the children</p>						
<u>Feminism</u>	<p>Feminists argue that conjugal roles enforce patriarchal values and that there Ferri and Smith's research showed that women are still more likely than men to be responsible for childcare . The man was the main carer in only 4% of the families studied.</p> <p>Radical Feminists see the exploitation of women as being a result of having men dominate society – we should get rid of men to solve the problem!</p> <p>Delphy and Leonard (1992)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family role → maintains patriarchy • Family is an economic system whereby men benefit at the expense of women. 	<p>Functionalists argue that that feminists too much emphasis on the negative side of family life as it ignores the fact that some women might enjoy running the home and looking after the children.</p> <p>Feminists tend to ignore Willmott and Young's ideas on the symmetrical family and how there are greater equalities in family life with shared conjugal roles.</p>						

The Symmetrical family – true or false? Knowledge Organiser

Key thinker: Young and Willmott – Functionalist

They suggested that we now have symmetrical families in the UK.

Stage	Description
Stage one: Pre-Industrial Period	At this point the family works together as an economic production unit – they tend to produce many of their resources themselves
Stage two: Early Industrial period	Extended families became broken down into individuals who leave home to work- families move out of the countryside and into urban areas
Stage three: The Privatised Nuclear (symmetrical family)	<p>The family is based on consumption rather than production. At this stage husband and wives had joint roles – this is known as ‘symmetrical roles’.</p> <p>In a symmetrical family...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The roles of husband and wife are different e.g. wife looks after the children and the husband looks after the DIY – however an EQUAL amount of time is spent on these tasks. • There is more leisure time spent in the home together. • Extended families become more distant. • Decision making on finances are shared.
Stage four: The principle of stratified diffusion	Young and Willmott looked at the changes in family life and they developed the principle of stratified diffusion. According to this principle, many social changes (e.g. values) start at the top of the social class system and work downwards. E.g. they filter from the middle class to the working class

Explaining the move to symmetry

Willmott and Young offer several explanations for the emergence of the symmetrical family

Factor	Explanation
Improved living standards	People are more likely to spend time in their homes due to the rise of technology e.g. Games and televisions. As a result men are now more likely to spend time at home and become more involved with their family.
Feminism	Women are more likely to be educated and therefore more likely to be in paid employment
Reduction in the number of children in the family	Effective forms of contraception so women can choose when to have children. More effective forms of contraception mean that women can decide whether to have children, when and how many. Women can combine motherhood with paid employment and a career
Improved status of women	The rise of feminism since the 1960’s has had an impact on gender roles. Feminism has influenced women’s attitudes towards education and work and has led them to reject the traditional homemaker role.
Women in paid employment	As a result of their increased participation in paid employments many women are financially independent and how have more freedom, equality and status, both inside and outside the home
Geographical mobility	As people are able to move further away for employment this means families no longer live near each other so there is less support from other family members. Both husband and wife therefore have to complete the household tasks without help from other family members.

Key thinker: Ann Oakley (1982) *Conventional families*

Oakley studies families from a feminist approach. She points out that the conventional family (nuclear family) is no longer the norm, according to the statistics. However, despite this the conventional family is still a powerful idea in society. Central ideas include:

- Family members have different roles based on their age, occupation and gender.
- Women are expected to work inside the home without pay, while men are expected to work for pay outside the home.

Oakley identifies social class differences in people's views on gender roles. Working class couples are more likely to hold a traditional view of gender roles than middle-class couples are.

Key idea	Explanation of factor
The strains of conventional family life	In Oakley's view, people expect conventional family life to bring them happiness. However, beneath the surface, there are strains. For example, mothers based in the home may experience depression, or dissatisfaction with housework. Men may experience health problems linked to the stress of being the family breadwinner.
Financial inequality in conventional families	<p>Oakley argues that, in a conventional family, one aspect of inequality is the woman's dependence on the man's wages. The man's economic power is linked to his income from paid work. This power increases when children are young and mothers care for them full time. During this period, women lack income and they become dependent on men's economic power.</p> <p>When married women work outside the home, they tend to be concentrated in low-paid, part-time jobs. Their wages may be spent on household bills, while men keep a greater proportion of their wages for themselves.</p>
Signs of change?	According to Oakley, some groups, particularly among educated middle classes, are exploring other ways of living. There is an increase in dual-worker families and lone-parent families. However, norms are not changing across all social groups. One reason is that conventional families teach their children the same patterns.

Evidence to suggest the symmetrical family doesn't exist and is a myth

Gatrell (2008) used the term '**cherry picking**' to describe men's role in the home.

She argued that men might appear helpful, but they are actually just choosing the most desirable tasks, leaving the harder chores to the women.

Scott and Clery (2013) argue that, in most cases, women usually still do the laundry and men usually still do the small repairs around the house. People's attitudes to gender roles may have changed, their actual behaviour has not necessarily altered significantly.

Women continue to feel that they do more than their fair share of housework and caring for family members

Scott and Clery argue that gender inequalities in the home make it difficult to achieve equality in the workplace. Women's responsibilities for domestic work and caring mean that, in practice, many of them do not compete on equal terms with men in paid employment

Charter (2007)

Since the 1990s those who support the idea of more equality between men and women existing point to the idea of the 'New Man' - which sees men in modern families helping out more with the domestic and childcare chores.

However **Charter (2007)** suggest that the idea of the 'New man' is nowhere to be seen when the cleaning needs to be done

Young and Wilmott believed...	Evidence to support this	Evidence against this
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ After industrialisation families moved from extended to nuclear. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Families on average have smaller. ➤ People are more geographically mobile, they move around for jobs, especially the middle class 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ South Asian families tend to be extended. ➤ Some working class communities tend to have extended families.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Families became more home centred. Men and women spent more time at home together so men helped out more with housework and child-care. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ➤ Labour saving devices make housework quicker so the home was a nicer place to spend time in. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Families can be dysfunctional. ➤ Families are still patriarchal, men tend to get more leisure time than women do.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Conjugal roles became symmetrical. ➤ They are not interchangeable – men and women have different roles, but they are of equal importance. ➤ Men and women make similar contributions in housework, childcare and decisions. They do different tasks, but they are of equal importance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Women have higher status in society- Laws changed ➤ Conjugal roles are becoming equal. ➤ Men do contribute more towards housework and child-care ➤ Status of women has improved- Women have more educational and job opportunities than in the past. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ ➤ Conjugal roles are still segregated- Women do the double shift. ➤ Ann Oakley believed that women do the majority of housework - Men cherry-pick the most pleasurable child-care tasks. Women still do majority of childcare and care for the sick, elderly, disabled.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ In the principle of stratified diffusion. ➤ This means that where m/c families started as more symmetrical, the w/c would eventually be the same. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Conjugal roles are becoming equal for m/c and w/c women. ➤ Attitudes have changed towards traditional gender roles. Men do contribute more towards housework and child-care ➤ Status of women has improved- Women have more educational and job opportunities than in the past. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ W/c couples are more likely to have traditional gender roles, which are segregated. ➤ Working class families are more extended – with extended kin living close by. ➤ W/c are not as geographically mobile. They are less likely to go to university and move away for a job/promotion.

Marriages around the world

Type	Definition
Arranged marriage	Where parents find partners they consider to be suitable but it is ultimately the young person's decision to consent. Garrod (2005) notes that arranged marriages are traditional in many communities such as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh
Bigamy	Being married to another person- in the UK this is a criminal offence
Monogamy	In the UK marriage is based on monogamy— being married to just one person at a time. It is backed by law and the Christian religion so people have to divorce before they can marry someone else
Serial monogamy	when a divorced person enters into a second marriage, then divorces, then marries, then divorces and so on. Marriage isn't necessarily considered to be a lifelong commitment
Polygamy	Polygamy occurs when a person has more than one husband or wife at the same time. Although it is illegal in Britain, it is accepted elsewhere
Polygyny	when a man has two or more wives. In some Mormon traditions in the 19th century in the USA they thought it was ordained by God. A minority of Muslim men are allowed up to four wives, but only if the first wife approves and has it written into her marriage contract
Polyandry	when a woman has more than one husband, this is less common but has been known to happen in Tibet and some brothers have married the same wife in China

Reason	Explanation
The decline in the number of marriages	the number of marriages in the UK peaked in 1972 at 480,00. Since then, the overall number of marriages has fallen, and in 2011 there were just 286,00
People are getting married later	compared with the 1970's, people are now putting off marriage until they are older. This is linked to increased education and employment opportunities and a changing attitude towards premarital sex.
Civil partnerships and same-sex marriages	since the Civil Partnership Act 2004 came into effect same sex couples could have their relationships legally recognised and have the same benefits of married people. The same-sex Marriage Act was introduced in 2014, which has made the number of civil partnerships drop from 6,276 to 1,683.
Increase in cohabitation	the proportion of cohabiting couples has doubled over the last 20 years, with cohabiting couples with children attending to be much younger than married couples with children
Increase in births outside of marriage	during the 1970's births outside of marriage became commonplace, rising to 44% of all births in 2006. This has changed a lot since the stigmatisation and disapproval of 'illegitimate babies' of the 1950's. By 2014, this proportion had increased to 1/3 babies.

A divorce is the legal ending of a marriage. In general the number of divorces per year has rise since 1945, although there have also been decreases.

Explaining the increase in the divorce rates:	
Reason	Explanation
Changes in the law	Made divorce easier, quicker and cheaper to obtain. The divorce reform act 1969 allowed divorce on the grounds of 'irretrievable breakdown of marriage' as a result of separation, desertion, adultery or unreasonable behaviour. This made it easier for people to get divorced.
	1984 allowed couples to request divorce after just a year, rather than wait three years previously. And legal aid became available, meaning people who couldn't afford lawyers could still get representation paid for by the state. However, this availability became limited in 2013.
Changing social attitudes	Since the 1960's liberal attitudes about divorce have changed public opinion so it is no longer stigmatised and is now socially acceptable
The impact of the secularisation process	Secularisation means the idea that religion is losing its influence in society. Not as many people now go to church on a sunday and rather than a church wedding many people prefer to have a civil ceremony in a registry office. There is therefore less of a religious barrier to getting divorced
Changes in the status of women in society	In the 1950's, many women in empty shell marriages were tied to their husband through economic dependence because they were at home looking after children and not working. Nowadays women tend to work and so they have their own economic independence and financial security so they feel they can leave their husband if they wish.
Government help	The availability of welfare benefits, mothers with young children will be looked after. However, women with young children can still experience financial hardships after divorce, it is still often easier for the male to walk away from a marriage than a woman
Influence of the media	Popular media, (such as pop music, magazines and soap operas) emphasis the importance of 'romantic love' in relationships. As a result individuals have high expectations of marriage. These expectations may not match the daily realities of married life and this may lead to more people getting divorced.

Sociological perspectives on divorce:	
Theory	Views
Functionalist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Parson's shows that divorce can contribute to the stability of society, the increase is not necessarily a threat to marriage as an institution, but is a reflection on the higher values people now put on marriage. ➤ Many people remarry suggesting that marriage is still important and necessary to maintain a stable society.
Marxists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Divorce is the inevitable conclusion when partners have to compete for resources and power within a marriage, the stress that results could explain why the divorce rate among the working class is higher. ➤ Hart argues that divorce rates have been brought about by the changes to the economy (1976), the economy has demanded a need for women to work as well as do household duties, causing a double shift for women. Women then become more financially independent as they earn their own money.
Feminist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Divorce is the result of men not wanting to relinquish power and resources to the woman. They are not necessarily against marriage but they generally see it as favouring men, new divorce laws now allow women to leave violent or empty shell marriages. ➤ Most divorces are initiated by women, showing that women are no longer prepared to put up with this, and some say it proves marriages are patriarchal.

Consequences of divorce:

Consequence	Explanation
Changes to family structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ More divorces creates more reconstituted families, and this can be a strain on family members, for example children have to adapt to a step-father or children that have step-siblings or half-siblings.➤ However, there may be more people around to give more support and love. Because around 90% of children live with their mother estimates suggest that between 1/3 and 1/2 of fathers lose all contact with their children over time.
Relationship breakdown and emotional distress	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ Conflict doesn't finish with divorce as there may be disputes around parenting and property such as money, houses etc. This may mean the relationship with the father suffers.➤ Pressure groups such as fathers4justice (f4j) aim to draw attention to the cause of fathers and their treatment following separation and divorce. For example f4j point out that fathers do not have a legal right to contact with their children, in fact they argue there are more laws to protect animal than there is to protect fathers. This also means that the father's parents often suffer not seeing the children also.➤ Pryor and trinder note that emotional support can be lost for men if friends and family situations change, although mothers do tend to keep their own support networks.
Financial hardship	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ After assets such as property and money are divided up, people's financial circumstances often change and lone-parent families with dependent children can be at risk of poverty.➤ They can also face the difficulty of juggling the demand of a job and home life.
Remarriage	<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ These seems to be declining, for example, between 1995 and 2000, 19% of all marriages were all remarriages. However, in 2013, this figure was 15%. Divorced people remarry because:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Just because people are rejecting their spouse doesn't mean they're rejecting the institution of marriage, people still hope to succeed in a marriage.• Divorcees with young children may want a partner to help them raise their children.• People may remarry for companionship and love.• In the past, marriage was a source of status, particularly for women. While this is not true today, in many ways marriage remains the norm.

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Childhood – what is it and how has it changed?

What is it?

The concept of childhood varies depending on culture, place, and time. For example, age restriction laws may influence what age we believe childhood to be, and these can differ vastly across the world.

Relationships between parents and children in the 19 th century	Relationships between parents and children now
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. More authoritarian 2. Children in school for a shorter period of time 3. Children had less individual attention 4. Children may have had more attention from mothers 5. Children often worked and contributed wages 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. More equal 2. Children in school for longer 3. Children have more individual attention 4. Both mothers and fathers more likely to work 5. Children rarely work

Reasons for these changes:

- Increased rights for children
- Children financially dependant on parents for a longer period of time
- View of children as innocent and needing protected
- Smaller family size
- Dual worker families more common
- Principle of stratified diffusion: Young and Wilmott argue that changes in the family start in higher social classes and ‘trickle down’ to lower social classes

How has childhood changed over time?

Time period	Description
Pre-industrialisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children were ‘little adults’ who took part in the same work and play activities. • Toys and games for children did not exist. • Aries: children seen as an economic asset, rather than something to be cared for • Children were punished for crimes in the same way that adults were
Industrialisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children from W/C families still worked in mines and factories • BUT!!! • M/C attitudes started to change- parents investing emotionally in children as the death rate of children was starting to fall
Mid-19 th Century	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children were banned from working in the factories and mines where many had been killed. • BUT some W/C parents resisted changes as they depended on children wages and many children continued to be badly treated
20 th Century	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Child- centred society: children are valued, loved and protected • Improved standards of living= major decline in infant mortality rates • Increased availability of contraception meant couples could choose to have fewer children • Young people are now much more dependent on their parents financially for longer as the school-leaving age has increased to 18 and their working hours are restricted by law. Youth unemployment also makes it difficult for young people to achieve independence, this can cause conflict and stress within families.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prior and Trinder (2004) say middle class families are more likely to have relationships where parents involve the children in decision-making. • Scott (2004) questions this view. For example, many children still help out with housework or in the family business, and children of immigrant parents may have to translate for their parents. 	

Demography

How has childhood changed over time?

Key term	Definition
Ageism	Prejudice or discrimination on the grounds of a person's age.
Birth Rate	The number of childbirth per 1000 people per year
Death Rate	The number of deaths per 1000 people per year
Demography	Is the study of populations and their characteristics- <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Size- is the population large or small? Growing or declining? Age structure- is the average age of the population rising or falling?
Emigration	Leaving your country origin to go to another country.
Globalisation	The growing interconnectedness of cultures and societies around the world, due to technological advances.
Life Expectancy	Average length of time the members of a population can expect to live.
Infant Mortality Rate	The number of deaths of infants (age 0-1) per 1000 live births
Immigration	Moving into a country that is not your country of origin.
Total Fertility Rate	The average number of children that would be born to a woman they experienced the age-specific fertility rates of the year

Impact of changing fertility rates	
Reduction in the workforce	With less people being born gaps are starting to show in the labour force, meaning that there are not the people to fill the gaps left by those retiring.
Dependency Ratio	The dependency ratio is an age-population ratio of those typically not in the labour force and those typically in the labour force. With fewer children being born the ratio becomes unbalanced due to ageing populations.
Immigration	Immigration becomes more important with declining birth rates as this will fill gaps in the labour market.
Growth of Bean pole family	Julia Brannon – <i>the growth of the Beanpole family into one of the more dominate family types as generations are living longer but have fewer members in each generation.</i>
Voluntary Childlessness	<p>Family Policy Studies Centre found that in 2000 1 in 5 women aged 40 had chosen not to have children compared to 1 in 10 in 1980. Hakim suggest that this has a direct link to the availability of contraception.</p> <p>Gillespie also suggest the push/pull idea where women feel the pull factor as greater freedom and better relationships where as the push factor of seeing parenthood as conflicting with careers and leisure activities.</p>
Decrease in Full time mothers	Less and less women are choosing to be a full time stay at home mothers (meaning not working till the child has left home) as there are many childcare options available including nurseries, grandparents and breakfast and after-school clubs. These are more affordable with only one child to pay for.

Key word	Definition	Tre nd	Reasons for the trend	Impact of the trends
Birth Rate	The number of live births per year per 1000 of the population	Decline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Availability of Contraception •Changing roles of women •Decreasing in infant mortality Rate •Growth of Child Centeredness •Economic Factors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Smaller families •Unequal dependency ratio •Few schools needed
Total fertility Rate	The average number of children a women will have during her childbearing years (15 –45)	Decline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Availability of Contraception •Women leaving pregnancy to later in life •Changing attitudes to child bearing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Few Health and Maternity services needed.
Death Rate	The number of deaths per 1000 of the population per year.	Decline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Improved Nutrition •Medical Care •Public health Measures •Decline in dangerous occupations •Life style changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Vanishing Children –Lonelier childhood due to less friends. •Children become more precious
Infant mortality Rate	The number of deaths of children before their first birthday per 1000 live births per year.	Decline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Improved housing and sanitation •Better nutrition •Improved pre and post natal understanding •Improved health of the mother •Improved knowledge of Hygiene. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Aging Population •Bigger strain on public services such as health care and housing.
Life expectancy	The average number of years a person can expect to live within a specific culture and gender.	Increasing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Decreased infant mortality •Less dangerous working conditions •Better health care and nutrition •Social Care facilities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Increasing in single person households
Aging population	The extent to which a population is living longer but are not matched by the number of new births.	Increasing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Increased life expectancy •Declining infant mortality •Declining fertility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Policy implications such ass social housing and Pensions
Migration	The movement of peoples from one place to another, it can be in the same county or to another country.	Increasing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Push Factors •War, Poverty, Lack of job opportunities or oppressive government. •Pull Factors •Welfare state, Education systems, Standard of living, Weather, job Opportunities. •Legislation and Boarder Controls •Globalisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Cultural Diversity •Dual Heritage and hybrid Identities

Family Key Studies – YOU MUST KNOW THESE

Sociologist	Theory	Research Method	Key Findings
Talcott Parsons	Functionalism – Positive about family	Work of other sociologists	Two key functions of the family: Primary socialisation – children are taught the shared norms and values of society Stabilisation of adult personality – family relieves stress of life, like a ‘warm bath’
Eli Zaretsky	Marxist – Negative about family	Work of other sociologists	The family serves capitalism through: Women’s unpaid labour (women exploited by Capitalism) Reproducing a labour force Passing on of advantage in families e.g. inheritance Unit of consumption – They buy products and this benefits Capitalism and Bourgeoisie. He also believed family cushions the pressures of capitalism (reduce stress of exploitation) allowing individuals to express frustrations in a non-threatening way – husband take if out on wife?
Delphy and Leonard	Radical feminism – Negative about family	Work of other sociologists	Family is patriarchal because: Men exploited women rather than capitalism – against Zaretsky. Family is hierarchical – men at the top Men make the important decisions in the family Dual burden – women who had to work outside had to also do most of the housework Patriarchal family reflects patriarchal society
Ann Oakley	Feminism - Negative about family	Interviewed 40 women about housework	She believed women played a dual burden – work long hours outside and do majority of housework. Her research on housework showed that: - - 70% of women were dissatisfied – They liked the autonomy (being their own boss) – They disliked housework the most – Worked on average 77 hours. – Dissatisfied with low level of interaction with others.
Rapoport and Rapoport	NA	Work of other sociologists	Organisational – Structure of families organised differently Cultural – cultural/ religious differences between families Social class – class differences – e.g. middle class different to working class Cohort – historical differences – family changing over time Life course – families going through different stages and having different priorities over time.
Willmott and Young	Functionalist – Positive about family	Survey; Face-to-face structures interviews	Found the family was becoming more symmetrical – similar but not identical roles, equal contribution to household work, and shared decision making and friends. Home-centred. Principle of stratified diffusion - changes in family life start with higher social classes and is eventually copied by other classes. E.g. Working class eventually copy middle class.

Family Laws –To Use as Evidence

Name of Law	What did the law change?
Divorce Reform Act 1969	Made it easier for couples to escape unhappy marriages. Neither partner had to prove that fault lay with their husband or wife and as a result divorce rates rose significantly. Divorce rate had more than doubled between 1969 and 1972. Today 42% of marriages end in divorce which has led to an increase of single-parent and reconstituted families.
Divorce Law 1984	Reduced the time before a divorce could take place from three years to one year.
Family Law Act 1996	No longer necessary to prove breakdown, just had to state that it had broken down. Period of reflection was introduced before a divorce could be finalised and greater use of mediation was encouraged.
Equal Pay Act 1970	Meant women and men doing the same job would get equal pay. This contributed to changes in the organisation of the family life, including encouraging women to work outside of the home and giving them independence.
Marriage Act 2013	Allowed same-sex couples to get married in England and Wales. This led to 15,098 same-sex marriages between 2014-2015.

Family Statistics – You Must Know These To Use as Evidence

Topic	What is the trend?
Nuclear Family	Shows nuclear family still the most popular type of family in the UK.
Same-Sex Family	Rise in same-sex family due to Marriage Act 2013.
Cohabitation	Shows rise in cohabitation – living together without being married.
Lone – Parent Family	Rise in lone-parent families. Due to things such as divorce and female independence.
Singlehood household	More people are living alone now – mostly elderly people. Growing number of young people living alone. Twice as many men are living alone compared to women.
Marriage	In the last 50 years, the marriage rate in England and Wales has declined significantly. People are also getting married later (M from 25 in 1985 to 32 in 2015) (W from 24 in 1985 to 30 in 2015).
Divorce	This shows divorce rates have drastically increased over the last 50 years. However more recently, there has been a decline in divorce. According to ONS there were 111,169 divorces in 2014.
Secularisation	Shows an increase in secularisation – a decline in religious beliefs in society.
Domestic Violence	Shows the number of cases of domestic abuse recorded by the Police has increase every year. It shows a 43% increase. What about the cases of domestic violence that are not reported? Or against men? (Dark Figure).

FAMILIES – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – A quick summary

FAMILY FORMS

NUCLEAR FAMILY	A heterosexual couple and their children living together.
EXTENDED FAMILY	Relatives outside of the nuclear family (e.g. grandparents, aunts etc).
RECONSTITUTED FAMILY	A blended or step family that includes children from previous relationships.
LONE PARENT FAMILY	A family with one parent .
SAME SEX FAMILY	A family where a gay or lesbian couple live with their children.
EMPTY NEXT FAMILY	A nuclear family where the children have left home .

THE RAPOPORTS'S 5 TYPES OF DIVERSITY IN UK FAMILIES – C.L.O.G.S

CULTURAL DIVERSITY	1. Families are different in their culture, values and beliefs .
LIFE COURSE DIVERSITY	2. Families are different in the stage that they are at (e.g. newly married compared to an empty nest family).
ORGANISATIONAL DIVERSITY	3. Families are different in the way they are organised (e.g. nuclear compared to reconstituted or lone parent).
GENERATION/ COHORT DIVERSITY	4. Families are different depending on the year they were born (e.g. couples married in the 1950s often expected marriage to last for life).
SOCIAL CLASS DIVERSITY	5. Families are different in their social classes and wealth .


CONJUGAL ROLE RELATIONSHIPS

CONJUGAL ROLES	Segregated conjugal roles are when there is a clear division of domestic labour and tasks are divided by gender. This was normal in the early 20 th century.
	Joint conjugal roles are when there is no rigid division of household tasks into male and female jobs. Some sociologists suggest that conjugal roles are becoming more joint .
	Symmetrical families are when spouses perform different tasks but men and women share household responsibilities equally. Some sociologists, such as Young and Willmott, argue that over time families in Britain are becoming more symmetrical .

THE FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE OF OAKLEY ON THE IDEA OF THE CONVENTIONAL FAMILY.	<p>Oakley defines the conventional family as a nuclear family where the male and female parents are married and live with their children (aka cereal packet family).</p> <p>She considered the conventional family to be a form of social control and that women often have a dual burden (meaning they go out to work but also do the majority of the housework and childcare). However, she noticed that other forms of family are becoming increasingly popular, such as lone parent or same sex families.</p>
FAMILIES – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – CHANGING FAMILIES	
CHANGING RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN FAMILIES	
HOW RELATIONSHIPS WITHIN FAMILIES HAVE CHANGED OVER TIME.	1. Children’s needs and rights are more widely recognised.
	2. People see their extended family much less .
	3. The extended family are still important but that their role is more likely to take the form of phone calls and financial help .
THE PRINCIPLE OF STRATIFIED DIFFUSION.	Young and Willmott developed the theory of stratified diffusion . This is the idea that changes in norms and values start amongst the wealthier people in society and then over time others start to behave in the same way.
CHANGING PATTERNS IN UK MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE SINCE 1945	
Changing patterns in marriage	1. There are fewer marriages and more people are cohabiting .
	2. An increasing number of babies are born to couples who aren’t married and these births are no longer stigmatised.
	3. Civil partnerships for same sex couples have been legal since 2005, while same sex marriage was introduced in 2014.
	4. People are putting off marriage until they are older .
Changing patterns in divorce	The number of divorces per year has increased since 1945 although there have been times when it decreased and the number peaked in 1993.
THE CONSEQUENCES OF DIVORCE	1. There has been an increase in lone parent and reconstituted families .
	2. Some children lose contact with parents or extended family following a divorce.
	3. Divorce can lead to loss of income for the former partners.
	4. Divorced people, particularly men, may experience a loss of emotional support if their friends and social networks change.

FAMILIES 3 – KNOWLEDGE ORGANISER – PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILIES


FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILIES


<p>THE FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVE</p> 	<p>Nuclear families are positive both for individuals and society because</p>
	<p>1. They control sexual activity</p>
	<p>2. They encourage reproduction</p>
	<p>3. They ensure that children are socialised</p>
	<p>4. They help to maintain the economy because parents buy things for the family</p>
<p>PARSONS (FUNCTIONALIST) ON THE TWO MAIN FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY</p>	<p>1. The nuclear family supports primary socialisation, ensuring the children learn the culture and values of their society.</p>
	<p>2. The nuclear family also supports personal stabilisation for the adults. This means that the adults support each other emotionally if their lives are stressful (aka 'warm bath' theory).</p>

CRITICISMS OF FUNCTIONALIST PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILIES

<p>UNREALISTIC IDEALISATION</p>	<p>Functionalists such as Parsons have an unrealistic idea of 'perfect' families. The reality is usually more complicated.</p>
<p>DYSFUNCTIONAL FAMILIES</p>	<p>Functionalists ignore dysfunctional families and marital breakdown where there might be conflict, child abuse, stress and domestic violence.</p>
<p>LOSS OF TRADITIONAL FUNCTIONS</p>	<p>Functionalist views are no longer relevant and are based on an outdated, traditional view of families. Families now are much more diverse.</p>
<p>LACK OF CONTACT WITH WIDER KINSHIP NETWORKS</p>	<p>In the past families used to maintain close contact with the extended family. Nowadays people move around more and so often don't have much contact with the extended family.</p>

MARXIST PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILIES

<p>THE MARXIST PERSPECTIVE</p> 	<p>Marxists are usually critical of the nuclear family because</p>
	<p>(1) They keep society unequal (e.g. the bourgeoisie send their children to private schools and pass their wealth and property on to them)</p>
	<p>2) Through primary socialisation working class children learn to accept their position in an unfair, capitalist society.</p>

ZARETSKY'S MARXIST PERSPECTIVE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF FAMILIES	The family was originally a unit of production (e.g. all members of the family worked together) but now there is a split between the 'private sphere' and work . This means that women are expected to work for free (e.g. cleaning and childcare) while men go to work to support the economy . Only socialism can end this artificial separation.
FEMINIST PERSPECTIVES ON FAMILIES	
THE FEMINIST PERSPECTIVE 	Feminists are usually critical of the nuclear family because Through primary socialisation families help to reproduce gender inequalities . The word canalisation describes how parents channel children towards gendered toys and activities e.g. girls get dolls, boys get action figures.
DELPHY AND LEONARD'S FEMINIST CRITIQUE OF FAMILIES	The family is patriarchal . Men benefit from the unpaid work of women even when women have jobs they still do most of the housework. The family is hierarchical . The husband usually has more power and makes most of the decision.

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser

Crime and Deviance

Definitions of crime and deviance

Crime - an illegal act which is punishable by law e.g. theft, murder	Deviance - n act which goes against societies norms but may not be illegal e.g. face tattoos
It varies by place - where the act takes place could mean it's seen as criminal	Why is crime and deviance difficult to define? It varies by time - what is seen as criminal before may not be criminal now

Statistics on crime and deviance

Police recorded crime	All crimes recorded by the police. Advantage - Large scale data, can compare trends over time and between different places Disadvantage - Does not include the dark figure of crime, crimes may not be witnessed (e.g. drug taking, domestic violence), reported (due to fear) or recorded by the police (seen as trivial or time wasting) Only 60% of crimes are reported, only 40% of then recorded
Victim surveys	Crime survey for England and Wales (CSEW) - These surveys question people about their experiences of being victims of crime in the past 12 months Advantage - Can uncover crimes not reported/recorded by the police, can look at trends in who is likely to be a victim Disadvantage - People may not be honest due to fear or may over exaggerate crimes, people may not realise they have been a victim of crime so don't report These surveys question ask people to report any crimes that they have committed themselves in the past 12 months
Self-report surveys	Advantage - Can uncover crimes not reported/recorded by the police, can look at trends in who is likely to be a criminal Disadvantage - People may not be honest due to fear or may over exaggerate crimes - means statistics might not be accurate

Social control

Formal social control	Informal social control
Agencies associated with the government which enforce formal rules/written laws Examples: The police, courts, prison service, probation Sanctions can include fines, imprisonment	Agencies which enforce informal rules/norms/unwritten rules in society Examples: Family, peers, religion, media Sanctions can include social pressure, approval, disapproval, grounding etc.
Functionalists view social control positively as it maintains social order/cohesion Marxists view it negatively as it is used by the ruling class to control the working class Feminists view it negatively as it is used by men to control women	

Key terms

Agencies of social control - The groups in society who control and regulate our behaviour

Anomie - A sense of normlessness where people feel like there are no strict rules (a cause of crime)

Chivalry thesis - The criminal justice system (police, courts) are less harsh on women as they are less likely to be seen as 'bad'

Corporate crime - Crime committed by businesses with the aim of making profit for that business

Crime - An illegal act which is punishable by law

Criminal justice system - The system of police/courts/prisons to manage offenders and reduce re-offending

Dark figure of crime - All crimes that are not witnessed, reported or recorded by police

Deviance - An act which goes against societies norms but may not be illegal

Deviancy amplification - The process whereby the mass media can exaggerate the significance of a crime or deviance in society

Formal social control - Where behaviour is controlled by official agencies associated with the government

Informal social control - Where our behaviour is controlled by social pressure/agencies such as family

Institutional racism - Where an organisation e.g. police shows racism and discrimination overtly or covertly

Relative deprivation - Where an individual feels as though they are lacking the things that individuals who are similar to them have

Sanctions - The consequences of behaviour which are given by society

Self-report studies - Where individuals report crimes that they have committed themselves in a survey

Status frustration - Where working class males are disappointed with their position in society and cannot achieve well due to education

Strain theory - Where individuals do not have the legitimate means to achieve the goals of society

Subculture - A group of individuals whose norms and values are different from mainstream society

Victim survey - Individuals complete a questionnaire to report crimes that they have been victims of

White collar crime - Crime committed by middle class professionals

Functionalist theories

Crime is inevitable and universal. It occurs when individuals can't achieve the goals of society.

Durkheim - Crime can be positive for society through -
1) Boundary maintenance 2) Changing society 3) Acts as a warning device 4) Provides jobs

Merton - Crime occurs due to strain - people cannot legally achieve the goals of society due to poor education/opportunities. 5 reactions - conformity, innovation, retreatism, rebellion and ritualism.

Marxist theories

Crime is negative and helps to maintain capitalism/keep the class divide. The ruling class create laws which benefit them and scapegoat the working class
The working classes are targeted by police and so are more likely to appear in crime statistics.
Middle class/white collar crime less likely to be detected.

Feminist theories

Crime is negative and helps to maintain patriarchy in society. Crimes such as domestic violence and sexual crimes are not taken seriously and female victims are not supported.
Female criminals are seen as 'double deviants' as they go against the law and expectations.

Interactionist theories

An act is only seen as criminal/deviant if it is labelled as such by society. Labelling can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy and criminal becoming a master status.
Individuals can spiral into a 'deviant' career and join deviant/criminal subcultures (Becker)

Subcultural theories

Criminal subcultures involve young males, show behaviour which goes against society's norms and are likely to show anti-social acts.
Cohen - working class boys experience status frustration and join delinquent subcultures to gain status/fight back against society

Key studies

Merton (functionalist)

Merton argued that all members of society hold the same values. However, Merton believed that they did not have the same opportunity to realise their shared goals. Strain theory says crime occurs when individuals cannot legally achieve the goals of society. There are 5 reactions to strain, not all are criminal – conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism and rebellion.

Cohen (functionalist)

Cohen argues that working class boys hold the same goals as the rest of society, but that because of educational failure and poor employment prospects, they have little or no opportunity to realise those goals. They experience status frustration and join delinquent subcultures where they show vandalism, graffiti, joyriding etc. to gain status in their group.

Becker (interactionist)

An act only becomes seen as criminal/deviant when it is labelled as such. An individual could accept the label through a self-fulfilling prophecy which becomes their master status (what they see as their most important characteristic). They could spiral into a deviant career by joining a criminal or deviant subculture and commit further acts.

Carlen (feminist)

Used unstructured interviews with 39 working class women to understand reasons for crime. They turned to crime because they had less to lose and couldn't conform to the gender deal or the class deal. For example, they were less likely to have stable and happy relationships or well-paid jobs – they were more likely to turn to crime as they had less to lose.

Heidensohn (feminist)

She uses control theory to explain how patriarchy in society means women commit less crime. Women are controlled at home (by husbands), at work (by male bosses) and in public (by the threat or fear of male violence). Girls develop a bedroom culture. They have less opportunity for crime due to more controls being put over their behaviour.

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser Crime and deviance

Social class and crime

Trends – Working class are more likely to be convicted offenders / in prison

Reasons – Material and relative deprivation, Inadequate socialisation, Poorer education (strain theory), Status frustration (Cohen)

Why might statistics not be accurate?
Bias within the criminal justice system – working class crimes (blue collar) are targeted more by police than middle class (white collar)
White collar crimes (e.g. fraud, tax evasion) are less likely to be detected – they take place in private, may not have a direct victim and are not policed
Corporate crimes (e.g. horse meat scandal) are less likely to be detected – may not have a direct victim and can be covered up

Gender and crime

Trends – 94% of the prison population are male, ¾ of convicted offenders are male

Reasons – Gender socialisation (men are socialised to be tough, risk taking)
Lack of male role models in society
More opportunity for crime / subcultures

Why might statistics not be accurate?
Chivalry thesis – women may be treated more leniently in the CJ system, seen as 'sad not bad' so don't appear in statistics
Female crime is increasing – women are committing more crime than before
Ladette subcultures – women committing typically 'male crime'
Carlen – working class women have less to lose by committing crime

Ethnicity and crime

Trends – 13% of the prison population are black vs. 3% in the general population, 9x more likely to be stopped and searched

Reasons – Higher chance of poverty/deprivation, poorer family backgrounds (more lone-parent), more chance of joining criminal subcultures

Why might statistics not be accurate?
Institutional racism / Macpherson Report – police/courts are more likely to target BAME individuals
Stop and searches – 9x more likely for black individuals, 3x more likely to be arrested – more likely to appear in crime statistics
Chief of Met policed voiced it is still racist, some forces have no BAME officers
But... anti-racism training, increased recruitment of BAME officers

Age and crime

Trend – 15-24 year olds most likely to appear in crime statistics

Reasons – Socialisation, opportunity, subcultures, media
But... The police might target young people, crimes may be easier to detect

Treatment of young offenders

Sanctions available for young offenders: fines, referral orders, community sentences, CBOs, custody

Should young offenders be sent to prison/custody?

Yes

Protects the public, can access rehabilitation programmes, can act as a deterrent

No

Prisons may act as universities of crime, 73% reoffend, may join prison gangs

Prison as a punishment

Is prison the best form of punishment?

Yes

Functionalists – can rehabilitate offenders, act as a deterrent

No

Universities of crime, 45% reoffend, not suitable for those with disabilities/mental health issues

Violent crime

Is violent crime an issue in society?

Yes

Statistics may not show true extent of violent crime

No

Some statistics suggest violent crime has decreased since the 1990s
Anti-violence and anti-gang education introduced into schools
Influence of the media in promoting violence

The media and crime

Does the media show crime accurately?

Yes

Functionalist view – the media shows a range of views, pluralism, no one group dominates

No

Marxists – conflict view, agenda setting, media owned by ruling class, scapegoats working class, exaggerates violent/sexual crimes

How can the media encourage crime?

Copycat crimes e.g. Daniel Bartlam, violence
Deviancy amplification – the media creates moral panics, labelling and a self-fulfilling prophecy e.g. mods&rockers
But... other factors may affect criminal behaviour

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser

Education

Key terms

Comprehensive school - A type of school introduced in 1965 where all students are educated together regardless of ability.

Correspondence principle - schools reflect the workplace and through learning routine and obedience, children are prepared to be exploited in capitalist life.

Cultural capital - The skills and knowledge middle class parents have that they can use to give their children an advantage in the education system.

Deschooling - An alternative form of education proposed by Illich where formal schools are replaced by other methods of education such as home schooling.

Ethnocentric curriculum - A curriculum (things that are taught) that focuses on a particular ethnicity

Formal curriculum - The subjects and topics that are directly taught in schools

Further education - Education after compulsory level

Gendered curriculum - How stereotypes and expectations about gender are promoted through both the formal and hidden curriculum.

Hidden curriculum - Things that are indirectly learnt in school (in and outside on lessons) e.g. competition.

Labelling - Attaching a name or trait to a person or group e.g. smart. This is often based on a stereotype

Marketisation - 1988 act and aimed to bring competition and choice into education

Material deprivation - When students lack the money and the things that money can buy to succeed

Meritocracy - The functionalist view that all students have an equal chance in education and success is based on ability and effort

Selective schools - Where students are selected for a school based on certain criteria such as academic ability or religion

Social capital - The networks of relationships/contacts that middle class parents have to help pupils succeed

Social cohesion - When individuals in society are brought together and share the same norms and values.

Social mobility - Movement up the social ladder (e.g. working class to middle class)

Vocationalism - Education focused on more practical or technical skills aimed at a certain job or career

Sociological views of Education

Functionalist

Education is positive as it prepares individuals for work and creates a stable society

All pupils have an equal chance to succeed as education is based on meritocracy

Durkheim - Education transmits shared norms and values, promoting social cohesion. Schools act like a 'mini society' encouraging cooperation.

Parsons - Education acts as a 'bridge' between family and society, children are judged by 'universalistic standards' and have an equal chance to succeed.

- × Education may not benefit all students equally (due to class, gender)

Marxist

Education is negative as it helps to maintain the class divide and benefits the middle classes who have a better chance of succeeding.

Education prepares working class pupils for low paid jobs and to accept capitalism.

Bowles and Gintis - 'correspondence principle' - school corresponds to (reflects) the workplace through teaching obedience, accepting boredom and to be motivated by external rewards (qualifications or pay)

- × Could be outdated as pupils are prepared for a range of jobs today

Feminist

Education is negative as it helps to maintain the gender divide and transmits patriarchal values and ideas.

Females learn to adopt the stereotypical 'expressive'/'housewife' role in society through gender stereotypes shown in textbooks, the majority of headteachers being male and being encouraged to take 'softer' subjects which could lead to lower paid jobs than males.

- × Could be outdated as girls are encouraged to take 'STEM' subjects and more females are becoming headteachers.

What is taught in schools

Formal/official curriculum - Things that are directly taught in schools (e.g. English/math) and this is mainly through the National Curriculum in England

Hidden curriculum - Things that are indirectly taught in education (rules, routines, regulations) and competition, hierarchy and gender roles

Functions of education

Serving the economy Education provides qualifications/skills which prepares pupils for jobs. This helps the economy as essential roles are filled in society.	Social mobility Education helps pupils move up the social class ladder through gaining qualifications and skills (through work and effort)	Social cohesion Education teaches shared norms and 'British' values which unites society and brings everyone together with shared beliefs.	Secondary socialisation Education is an agency of secondary socialisation teaching norms, values, beliefs, ideas through the formal curriculum and hidden curriculum.
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Types of schools

State	Funded by the government (state) Free to attend (admissions by catchment) Teach the National Curriculum
Independent/private	Not funded by the government (state) Parents usually pay for their children to attend Do not have to teach the National Curriculum Usually have smaller class sizes and improved facilities / opportunities
Grammar	These select pupils based on academic ability Pupils must pass the 11+ to attend High ability pupils can be 'challenged' and 'stretched' in these schools
Faith	These select students if they are of a certain faith (e.g. Christian, Catholic, Muslim) Religious beliefs are promoted in school life and focused on in RE
Academies	These receive funding directly from the government (rather than the local authority) and have more control over how to spend it Do not have to follow the National Curriculum and may have different term dates
Free school	These can be set up by charities, universities, communities etc. and have control over how to spend funding, set term dates etc. Do not have to follow the National Curriculum and are 'all ability' schools
Special schools	These educate children with Special Educational Needs (SEN) and may follow a different curriculum Pupils can receive more one-one support and the use of special facilities/equipment

Alternatives to schooling

Deschooling - Illich believed schools should be replaced with alternative forms of education (e.g. homeschooling) where their learning is more personalised and less likely to promote capitalism

Homeschooling - Where children are educated at home by parents/tutors etc. rather than in school. They must receive a full time education and are inspected by the local authority. Gives children more personalised one-one support and less chance of behaviour issues.

Key studies

Durkheim (functionalist)

Major function of education is the transmission of society's norms and values. Education (especially history) provides the link between the individual and society. School enables children learn to cooperate with those who are neither their family or their friends so they can function in society. Rules should be strictly enforced to promote self-discipline and for society to run smoothly.

Parsons (functionalist)

School acts as a bridge between the family and society, taking over as the main agency of socialisation. Schools are based on meritocracy – ability and effort, not money. In school an individual is judged on universalistic standards. Schools socialise children into the basic values of the wider society, maintaining value consensus.

Bowles and Gintis (Marxist)

Correspondence principle – Schools reflect the workplace, students are prepared for work e.g. accepting authority (hierarchy), this means that they don't question their position. They do not believe that schools are meritocratic. Class determines achievement.

Willis (Marxist)

Conducted a participant observation of boys in a Midlands secondary school. Working class boys joined a counter school subculture where they avoided attending lessons and resisted any attempt to control their behaviour. They were not obedient. Willis concludes that this prepared them for the kinds of jobs that they would have in the future. These would be unskilled or semi-skilled and quite repetitive.

Ball (Interactionist)

Conducted a participant observation at Beachside Comprehensive to look at the effect of setting / teacher expectations on achievement. Pupils in lower sets were more likely to be working class, were not given as much support, were labelled and more likely to be disruptive as a result.

Ball and Gerwitz (Interactionist)

They used a range of methods to look at the effect of marketisation and parental choice. They found that increased parental choice and league tables led to pressure for schools to introduce setting and streaming, and to focus on higher ability students to improve their exam results. Middle class parents were better able to use their choices to get their children into higher achieving schools.

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser Education

Factors affecting achievement

In school factors

Setting and streaming
Setting – pupils are in different sets for different subjects, streaming – in the same ability set for all subjects
Improves achievement – pupils in higher sets could be challenged
Could decrease achievement in lower sets

Mixed ability teaching

The opposite to setting/streaming where all abilities are taught together
Improves achievement – higher ability could help lower ability but could mean they are not 'challenged' or are held back

Teacher expectations/labelling

Teachers could label pupils because of stereotypes which could lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy
Improves achievement – if pupils accept positive label, could decrease achievement if pupils accept negative label

Subcultures / peer groups

Pupils may join subcultures who have their own set of norms and values
Improves achievement – joining 'pro-school' subcultures which value education, working hard (more likely with females), could decrease achievement if join 'anti/counter school subcultures who don't value education (more likely with males)

Out of school factors

Parental values

1) Parents may value education and see it as important so encourage their child to work hard, get them a tutor etc.
2) Parents may not value education and don't see it as important so don't encourage their children

Cultural deprivation

Children may not learn the correct norms and values to succeed in education (could affect working class children)

Material deprivation

Parents may 'lack money and the things that money can buy' so cannot afford resources for their child to succeed (e.g. revision books, a computer) or may not have a quiet place for them to study

Ethnicity and achievement

Trends

Chinese students are the highest performing ethnic group, black pupils and gypsy/Roma pupils are among the lowest performing (also white British)

Ethnicity is important

Material deprivation – some ethnic groups are more likely to be living in low income households so pupils could lack money to buy resources and succeed
Cultural deprivation – some cultures may not value education as highly as others (such as Chinese families) and so do not encourage/push pupils
Ethnocentric curriculum – the national curriculum may only be focused on White British culture and show negative aspects of other cultures (e.g. in history) – could decrease motivation
Teacher labelling – teachers may label some ethnicities - self-fulfilling prophecy

Not important

Higher % of ethnic minorities going to University
Worst performing group = white, working class boys

Class and achievement

Trends

Working class pupils achieve less 5 A*C grades than middle class pupils
Achievement gap between FSM and non-FSM
Working class less likely to go to University

Class is important

Material deprivation – w/c may lack resources to study
Cultural deprivation/parental values – w/c parents may not value education as highly
W/c parents may lack cultural capital (knowledge/skills) and social capital (social networks) to help their children succeed
W/c pupils more likely to join counter school subcultures (Willis)

Class is not important

Functionalism – education is based on meritocracy (ability and effort not money)
A higher % of w/c pupils are going to Uni
Other factors (gender, ethnicity) more important

Gender and achievement

Trends

Girls are more likely to achieve 5 A*C than boys, girls outperform boys at A Level in most subjects

Gender is important

Gender socialisation – girls may be socialised to be more hard-working and obedient so are better suited to achieve in school (boys may be more boisterous and less hard-working)
Teacher expectations – girls may be labelled as bright but boys could be labelled as lazy or trouble makers
Subcultures – girls more likely to join pro-school whereas boys more likely to join anti-school

Gender is not important

Functionalism – all pupils have an equal chance
Marxists – class is more important in achievement
The gender gap in achievement could be narrowing

Policies in education

To improve standards – Ofsted, league tables, academies

To increase competition – Marketisation, league tables, Ofsted

To improve opportunities for low income pupils – EMA, longer compulsory education

To make education fairer – comprehensive system (1965) which replaced the tripartite system)

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser

Families and Households

Key terms

Breadwinner - The person in the family who earns the money, usually the male.

Cereal packet family - The 'ideal' nuclear family shown in the media and advertising.

Cohabitation - When two partners live together in a relationship without being married.

Commune - Self-contained and self-supporting communities where childcare, property etc. are shared.

Conjugal roles - The domestic roles of married partners who does what in the home.

Domestic division of labour - The division of tasks such as housework and childcare in the family.

Double shift - When women are in full time employment and be responsible for household tasks.

Expressive role - Traditionally a woman's role in the family according to Parsons, where they look after the emotional needs of the family.

Extended family - A family which contains members beyond the nuclear

Family diversity - This means there are a range of families in society today e.g. lone-parent, reconstituted, same-sex.

Household - One or more people who live at the same address but may not related e.g. university students.

Instrumental role - Traditionally the male's role within the family to be the breadwinner and provide financially for the family.

Lone-parent family - A family of one parent and their dependent children Usually headed by the mother.

Neo-conventional family - A typical nuclear family but where both parents go to work.

Nuclear family - A family of one man and one woman with their dependent children. Patriarchy - Male power and dominance over women.

Reconstituted family - A family of one man and one woman with children from previous relationships.

Secularisation - A decline in religious belief and activity.

Stratified diffusion - How the roles adopted by those at the top of the social hierarchy (richer families) filters down to the rest of society.

Symmetrical family - Families which are equal on both sides where partners have joint roles

Sociological views of families

The family is a key social structure as it performs several essential functions for individuals and society. Murdock argue it performs four vital functions:

1. Sexual Function: regulates sexual behaviour that is approved by society, prevents breakdown and maintains stability
2. Reproductive function: creates the next generation to fill roles needed
3. Economic function: providing shelter, food & clothes, economic cooperation
4. Socialisation function: provides primary socialisation and learning of shared norms and values

Parsons – the family performs two important functions today

1. Primary socialisation
2. Stabilisation of adult personalities (warm bath theory)

X Functionalists ignore the dark side of the family and the impact of diversity

The family helps to maintain the class divide and benefits capitalism. This happens in three main ways:

1. Inheritance: money and wealth is passed down in richer families through inheritance and is not shared with the working classes
 2. Consumerism – families are targeted as consumers who buy products, children use 'pester power', profits go to the ruling class
 3. Socialisation – children learn to accept hierarchy and that someone is in charge meaning they accept it in the workplace and don't revolt
- Zaretsky – The family provides an 'illusion' that society is fair and this maintains capitalism as it prevents a revolution

X Marxists ignore positive functions and that not all families benefit capitalism.

The family helps to maintain the gender divide and promotes patriarchy in society (male dominance and power). This happens through:

1. Men acting as the breadwinner in the family (they usually earn more) so have more control and power
 2. Women often have a double shift or triple shift and take on the majority of unpaid housework
 3. Domestic abuse from men in the family
 4. Gender socialisation in families teaching stereotypical roles for boys and girls
- X Feminists ignore that some women may enjoy/choose the housewife role and that positive changes have been made

Nuclear families are the ideal family type and are the best for members and society because:

- They promote traditional values such as marriage
- Children grow up with two role models (for better socialisation)
- They are more likely to be financially stable and less likely to be reliant on benefits (and become part of the underclass)

They see lone-parent and same-sex families as causing problems for society

Family diversity

	Increase or decrease	Reasons why
Nuclear	→	Secularisation Increase in divorce Changing position of women
Reconstituted	←	Increase in divorce Changing attitudes Greater individualism
Lone parent	←	Increase in divorce Changing position of women Changing attitudes
Same sex	←	Changing laws (gay marriage is legalised) Changing attitudes
Beanpole	←	Increase in life expectancy Decrease in the birth rate
Neo-conventional	←	Changes in law (equal pay) Changing attitudes Changing position of women
Cohabiting couple	←	Changing attitudes Changing position of women Increase in divorce
One person household	←	Increase in divorce Longer life expectancy Greater individualism

Alternatives to families

Living alone (increasing among younger and older individuals)
Living in a commune (shared property, resources, childcare etc.)
An example: Living in a kibbutz

Key studies

Rapoport and Rapoport (functionalist)

Families are changing, there is increasing diversity
Five different aspects of family diversity: organisational (eg internal divisions of domestic labour), cultural (beliefs and values), class (eg how the family's position in the social class system affects the availability of resources), life course (stage in the family life cycle) and cohort (historical period).

Parsons (functionalist)

Family has two basic functions which are common to all families in all societies: primary socialisation of children and the stabilisation of adult personalities, e.g to give and receive emotional support

Young and Willmott (functionalist)

Large scale social survey (over 2,000 respondents in Greater London and surrounding areas)
Families are more symmetrical with both husband and wife make similar contributions to the running of the household eg shared chores and decisions. More common in working class families.
Stage 4 is the 'managing director family'. This is work centred and the wife is responsible for home and children – more common in middle class families

Zaretsky (Marxist)

The family also helps to maintain capitalism in society. He thinks that the family helps to provide an 'illusion' that society is fair and provides a safe haven away from exploitation at work. Women become responsible for personal relationships within the family. This cushions them from capitalism.

Delphy and Leonard (Feminist)

Men benefit the most from the exploitation of women's labour. They believe that the family has a central role in maintaining patriarchy. Women are oppressed because even when wives have paid employment outside the home they still have to carry out household tasks which are not equally shared

Oakley (Feminist)

Segregated conjugal roles adopted by men and women are part of the conventional family also known as the 'cereal' packet family. This contains married parents and at least one child, the father is the breadwinner and the mother stays at home to look after the house and children. This type of family may actually exploit women and support patriarchy.

Criticisms of families: isolation, loss of functions, lack of contact, dysfunctions, patriarchy

GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser Families and Households

Changing patterns of marriage

Trends	Reasons	Impacts
First time marriages are decreasing	Secularisation / changing attitudes Changing position of women Increasing cost of marriage	Less married nuclear families More cohabitating couples
Remarriages are increasing	Secularisation / changing attitudes Increase in divorce / changes to divorce laws	More reconstituted families Serial monogamy
Age of first time marriage is increasing	Changing position of women Increasing cost of marriage Changing attitudes	More couples cohabit before marriage
Increase in same-sex marriages	Changing attitudes Changes in law	

Is marriage still important?

Yes	No
Remarriages are increasing Same sex marriages are increasing Married persons tax allowance was introduced (policies encourage marriage) People still aspire to be married	First time marriages are decreasing Cohabitation is more acceptable Divorce is increasing (suggesting marriage isn't valued) Some couples choose a civil partnership

Changing patterns of divorce

Trends in divorce	42% of marriages end in divorce The divorce rate has increased compared to 30 years ago The divorce rate has declined slightly over the past 10 years but is still high
Reasons for increases in divorce	Changes in law – Divorce reform act (1969) widened the grounds for divorce (to include irretrievable breakdown), waiting time for a divorce decreased from 3-1 years Changing attitudes – More acceptable to divorce Changing position of women – greater financial independence
Sociological views of divorce	Functionalist – divorce can lead to fewer dysfunctional families and greater harmony. Divorce creates jobs to help the economy. Divorce shows people have higher expectations of marriage. Marxist – divorce is more common in working class families due to stress/inequality caused by capitalism, Feminist – divorce can be positive to allow women to escape patriarchal relationships.

Changing relationships

Families over time

Pre-industrial: Extended families, worked as a productive unit, families performed most functions
Industrial: Nuclear families, male took on breadwinner role, government took over functions from families
Contemporary: Family diversity, diversity of roles, smaller families

Gender roles

Wilmott and Young: Families are more symmetrical with shared contributions and equal roles.
Reasons for symmetrical families: changing attitudes, commercialisation of housework.
Stratified diffusion: roles filter from middle to working class (will become less equal)

Are gender roles more equal?

Yes	No
Symmetrical families – joint conjugal roles The New Man Women take part in decision making	Double shift/triple shift The New Man is myth – women still responsible (men cherry pick) for housework/childcare Men still make the most important decisions ¾ women are victims of domestic abuse (evidence of patriarchy)

Parents and children

Relationships in the past: Parents had authority, strict discipline, children 'seen and not heard'
Relationships today: Parents show less discipline, children have more freedom, families are more child-centered
Reasons for changes: women are having less children (families are more child-centered), greater emphasis on children's rights; families more likely to be dual worker
Toxic childhood: children poisoned by junk culture of media and food, leading to poor behaviour and development

Extended families

In pre-industrial era, extended families were important
Extended families may be less important today due to: seeing less of each other (living far away), may only see for special occasions
Extended families may still be important today due to: Grandparents helping with childcare, better technology to keep in contact, still common in some cultures

Unit: Crime and deviance

Topic: What is meant by crime and deviance?

<p>1. Define the keywords crime and deviance</p>	<p>2 Define what positive sanctions means Define what negative sanctions means</p>
<p>3 Identify and explain which one of these scenarios can be defined as deviant behaviour: Using a fake ID to get into a club. (OR) Sitting on an empty bus next to a stranger.</p>	<p>4. Explain what Goode means when he says Mild deviance Extreme deviance Give an example of each definition.</p>
<p>5. Is all deviance illegal? Give an example of this.</p>	<p>6 Is all crime deviant? Give an example of this.</p>
<p>7 Define the word identity.</p>	<p>8 Identify and explain one difference between crime and deviance.</p>

<p>2 Positive sanction occurs when person is given approval or reward for actions and/or obedience by members of one's own social group.</p> <p>Negative sanctions are punishments for violating norms.</p>	<p>1 A crime is an illegal act that is punishable by law.</p> <p>Deviance is behaviour that the majority of people disagree with, or which goes against the rules and norms of society.</p>
<p>4 <u>Goode:</u> Explains that Mild deviance says are treated as petty in soc for example parking illegally or telling a little lie .</p> <p>Extreme deviance is when someone goes further away from the norms and values of society and incur stricter hello sanctions.</p>	<p>3 Sitting next to a stranger on an empty bus is a good example of deviant behaviour. It is not illegal but it breaks with the norms of society.</p>
<p>6 Some acts are illegal but not considered deviant by all in society.</p>	<p>5 Legal deviance is behaviour that is considered abnormal in some way by most people in society.</p>
<p>8 Crime is illegal and punishable by law whereas deviance is not necessarily illegal .</p>	<p>7 Identity is the qualities, beliefs, personality, looks and/or expressions that make a person or group.</p>

Unit: Crime & Deviance

Topic: When is an act seen as deviant?

<p>1 Define the terms: Social stigma. Socially defined behaviour.</p>	<p>2 Define Situational deviance Historical deviance Cross-cultural deviance.</p>
<p>3 Identify and explain why the fact that an act is considered to be deviant depends on who did it and when it took place.</p>	<p>4 Give an example of: Situational deviance (punching someone in the face)</p>
<p>5 Give an example of: Historical deviance (Homosexuality)</p>	<p>6. Give an example of Cross-cultural deviance. (Carrying guns)</p>
<p>7 Define the term 'Social construct'.</p>	<p>8 Is there a link between deviance being a social construct and the work of Howard Becker?</p>

<p>2</p> <p>Situational deviance =Something that is deviant only in certain situations.</p> <p>Historical deviance = Something that is deviant only at a certain time.</p> <p>Cross-cultural deviance =Something that is deviant in some cultures but not in others.</p>	<p>1</p> <p>Social stigma, is an attribute, behaviour, or reputation which is socially harming the (reputation) of someone or group of people in a particular way.</p>
<p>4.</p> <p>Situational deviance...punching some in the face.</p> <p>Socially acceptable in a boxing ring. Deviant if an assault in the street.</p>	<p>3</p> <p>For an act to be labelled as deviant it depends on who did it where they did it when and why they did it.</p>
<p>6</p> <p>Cross-cultural deviance. (Carrying guns) In the USA it is acceptable to open carry firearms but not so in the UK.</p>	<p>5</p> <p>Historical deviance (Homosexuality) It had been frowned upon to be gay in previous decades but now it has become more socially acceptable.</p>
<p>8</p> <p>Howard Becker states that An act only becomes deviant when others describe it as deviant.</p>	<p>7</p> <p>Social construct. an idea that has been created and accepted by the people in a society</p>

Unit: **Crime and deviance.**

Topic: **What are social order and social control?**

<p>1 Define the term Conformity.</p>	<p>2 Explain the term Social order.</p>
<p>3 Explain what Social control means.</p>	<p>4 Explain The consensus approach to social order.</p>
<p>5 Explain the conflict approach to social order.</p>	<p>6 What is meant by the term methods of social control ?</p>
<p>7 Briefly describe Howard Becker's ideas on social control.</p>	<p>8 Describe the functionalists is approach to social order.</p>

<p>2 Social order. Social order is a important concept in sociology that refers to the way the various parts of society work together to maintain a safe and harmonious society.</p>	<p>1 Conformity. Following the rules.</p>
<p>4 The consensus approach. Means that society as a whole has an agreement regarding norms and values.</p>	<p>3 Social control. The process by which the members of a society are persuaded to conform to the rules of that society.</p>
<p>6 Methods of social control. Refers to the process by which people are encouraged or persuaded to conform to the rules .</p>	<p>5. The conflict approach to social order. This is the idea that there are two main classes in society, the bourgeoisie (ruling class) and the proletariat (working classes). Theses classes are in conflict and the bourgeoisie have the power to make rules and laws to suit their own interests.</p>
<p>8. The functionalists approach to social order is that there is a broad agreement to norms and values by the majority of society.</p>	<p>7. Howard Becker's ideas on social control. He states that an act becomes deviant when others describe it as deviant.</p>

Unit: **Crime & Deviance**

Topic: **What is the difference between formal and informal social control?**

<p>1 Define the words Judiciary and legislature.</p>	<p>2 What is formal social control? Identify the agencies of formal social control.</p>
<p>3 What is informal social control? Identify the agencies of informal social control.</p>	<p>4 How do functionalist view social control?</p>
<p>5 How do Interactionist view social control?</p>	<p>6 How do Marxists view social control?</p>
<p>7 How do feminists view social control?</p>	<p>8 What is the difference between formal and informal social control?</p>

<p>2</p> <p>Formal social control Is based on written rules and laws. It is usually associated with the ways in which the state regulates and controls peoples actions and behaviour.</p> <p>Agencies of formal social control. Houses of Parliament. The police. The judiciary. The courts. The Home Office. The Ministry of Justice</p>	<p>1</p> <p>Judiciary = The system of courts that interprets and applies the law in a country.</p> <p>legislature. A group of people who vote for new laws, for example in a state or country.</p>
<p>4</p> <p>Functionalism and social control. Functionalist is believed the criminal justice system reflects the dominant ideas about what is considered to be right and wrong within society.</p> <p>Functionalists emphasise the positive role that agencies of socialisation play in promoting informal social control by shaping behaviour especially of children.</p>	<p>3</p> <p>Informal social control? Based on unwritten rules and processes such as the approval or disapproval of other people it is enforced via social pressure by the reactions of agencies of informal social control.</p> <p>Agencies of informal social control. Family. Peers. Education. Work. Religion</p>
<p>6</p> <p>Marxism and social control. Marxist argued that the criminal justice system reflects the values of the ruling class who dominate the criminal justice system.</p> <p>Marxists also highlight the importance of socialization in promoting informal social control, but view it more negatively as helping to maintain capitalism.</p>	<p>5</p> <p>Interactionism and social control. Interaction is argue that laws tend to reflect the interests of those in a position to exercise power in society.</p> <p>Interactionist would see socialisation as resulting in meaningful behaviour by individuals. Since soc and its members all benefit from the stability that informal social control brings, it follows that people will see shared norms and values positively.</p>

8

The difference between formal and informal social control?

Formal social control is based on laws and written rules.

Informal social control is based on informal social processes and is enforced through social pressure.

7

Feminism and social control.

Feminist see laws existing to protect men at the expense of women.

Feminists see the mechanisms of informal social control as there to promote patriarchy in society.

Unit: **Crime and deviance.**

Topic: **What is the difference between formal and informal rules?**

<p>1 Define the term anarchy.</p>	<p>2 What are formal rules?</p>
<p>3 Give an example of a formal rule.</p>	<p>4 What are informal rules?</p>
<p>5 Give an example of an informal rule.</p>	<p>6 Identify and explain one difference between formal and informal rules.</p>
<p>7 Define the word convention.</p>	<p>8 Define the word statutory.</p>

<p>2 Formal rules? They guide people's behaviour in many social settings such as schools, workplaces, police stations, motorways and on public transport.</p>	<p>1 Anarchy. A state of disorder due to absence or non-recognition of authority or other controlling systems.</p>
<p>4 Informal rules. They are taken for granted or unwritten rules or guidelines on how we are expected to behave in particular social settings.</p>	<p>3 Example of a formal rule. The Highway Code is a formal rule book.</p>
<p>6 Explain one difference between formal and informal rules. Formal rules are written down informal rules are unwritten and some are taken for granted</p>	<p>5 An example of an informal rule. Wearing suitable clothing for a job interview</p>
<p>8 Statutory. If something is statutory, it is related to or set by laws or statutes</p>	<p>7 Convention. A custom or a way of acting and doing things that is widely accepted and followed</p>

Unit: Crime and deviance

Topic: How does functionalism explain crime and deviance?

<p>1 Define the terms Popular press and Quality press.</p>	<p>2 How do functionalist explain crime?</p>
<p>3 Explain Durkheim's four functions of crime 1</p>	<p>4 Explain Durkheim's four functions of crime 2</p>
<p>5 Explain Durkheim's four functions of crime 3</p>	<p>6 Explain Durkheim's four functions of crime 4</p>
<p>7 What role do the quality\popular press play in the reporting of serious crime?</p>	<p>8 What are the criticisms of Durkheim's theories?</p>

<p>2 Functionalist explanations of crime. Crime, in small amounts is a necessity for society to function.</p>	<p>1 Popular Press tabloid newspapers (=ones that contain shocking stories, especially about people's private lives, as well as serious news)</p> <p>Quality Press the more serious newspapers which give detailed accounts of world events, as well as reports on business, culture, and society.</p>
<p>4 Durkheim's functions 2 Changing values Sometimes the prosecuted person receives sympathy from the general public. This public outcry sometimes signals a change in the law.</p>	<p>3 Durkheim's functions 1 Reaffirming the boundaries of society. Crimes in the public eye remind society what happens if the boundaries are crossed</p>
<p>6 Durkheim's functions 4 Safety valve Deviant act may function as a form of pressure release releasing stresses in society.</p>	<p>5 Durkheim's functions 3 Social cohesion According to Durkheim, when horrific crimes have been committed the entire community draws together .</p>
<p>8 Criticisms of Durkheim's theories? His theories are more relevant to small scale societies. Many crimes harm the victims and damage communities. some Marxist argue that Durkheim the issue of power in society.</p>	<p>7 Quality\popular press reporting. Serious court cases are reported in the quality and popular press the offender is punished this reaffirms the boundaries in society.</p>