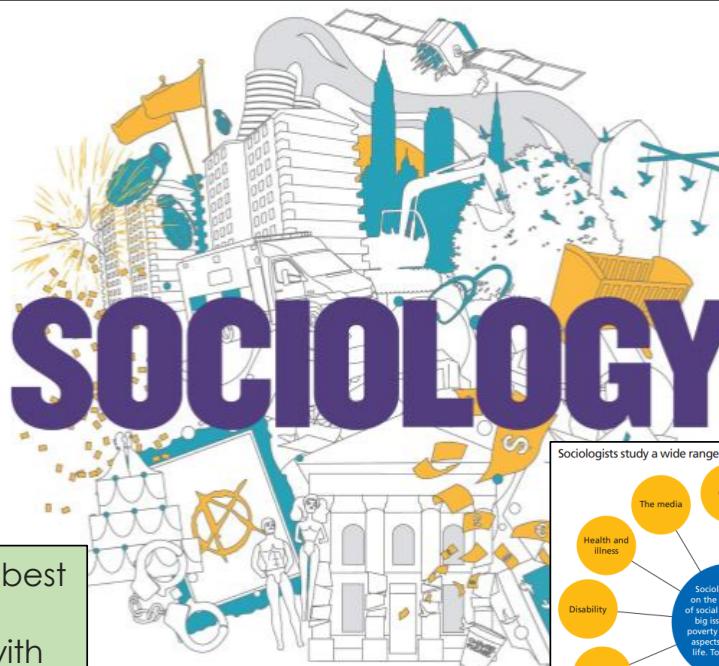
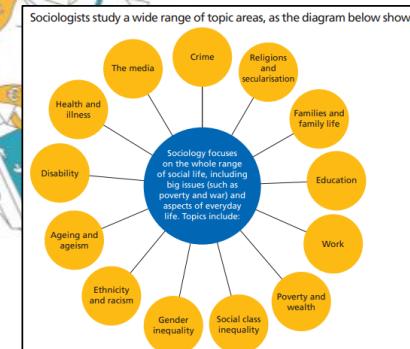


Y11 TRANSITION TO A LEVEL SOCIOLOGY



SOCIOLOGY is best studied in combination with

- Politics
- Economics
- Psychology



Section	Estimated time
Section A: What is sociology	3 hours
Section B: Sociological perspectives	3 hours
Section C: Social stratification	3 hours
Section D: Research methods	3 hours

Work through this pack and type it in a **POWERPOINT** document with your name on the first slide. Submit all work by **26th June** on a **Word** document. Please remember that if you need help, as this is A Level preparation, your first port-of-call is to do some research yourself.

If you still require help check the section and email us accordingly:

aldijana.todorovac@lambeth-academy.org

It is fantastic that you are considering studying A Level Sociology.

This pack contains a programme of activities and resources to prepare you to start studying sociology in September.

Sociology exams in 2019 at LA has been placed in the top 40% of sociology departments in the UK for progress that pour students made.

The pack is divided into four main activities, which comprise core themes that you will study in sociology regardless of the exam board, such as Marxism and functionalism. You will also learn how society is unequal for many social groups as well as understanding the usefulness of methods sociologists use to investigate social behaviour.

I recommend you engage fully with each activity so that you get a really solid understanding about what the course will provide for the next two years. To add, this course is 100% exam based – you will be sitting 3 exam papers at the end.

Section A: What is Sociology?

Sociology is the study of society, patterns of social relationships, social interaction, and culture that surrounds everyday life.

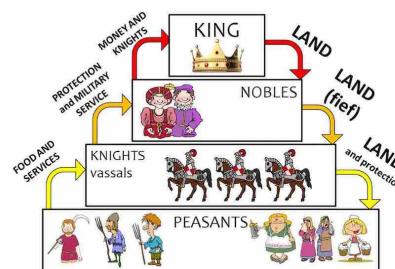
It is a social science, meaning that we try to use scientific methods (like observations, interviews, questionnaires, government data) to try to identify trends and patterns in society and seek to explain them.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LK5J0-cM-HE>

However, lots of sociologists disagree over how society works.

Some sociologists (called **FUNCTIONALISTS**) believe that society works (functions) well. They say all the separate parts of society fit together like a jigsaw, because everyone is brought up with the same values and knowledge and they all get along well.

Other sociologists believe that society is based on inequality. They believe some groups have more control and use this to their advantage. A bit like the feudal system in Britain during medieval times. These are called **CONFLICT** sociologists because they believe society is based on conflict.



We don't ever know which sociologist is correct and spend most of our time evaluating the extent to which the statements put forward by sociologists is valid.

TASK 1:

Read the information on the next few pages and complete the tasks on Page 6.

Social structures and processes

In investigating society and how it is organised, sociologists examine the various parts that make up society. They use the term '**social structures**' to refer to the parts of society such as families, the education system, the political system and the criminal justice system. Sociologists are interested in understanding the connections or relationships between the different structures (or parts) of society. They might study, for instance, the relationship between students' family backgrounds and their achievements at GCSE.

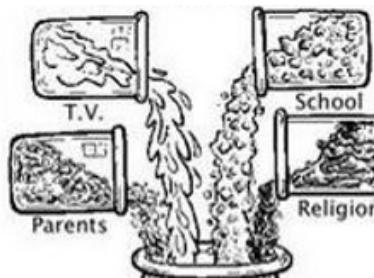
Sociologists are also interested in exploring **social processes** such as socialisation and social control.

The term '**socialisation**' refers to the process by which we learn the culture or the way of life of the society we are born into. In exploring how this process operates, sociologists focus on how we learn the culture, who is involved in this learning and what role social structures such as families and schools play in the process.

The term '**social control**' refers to the way our behaviour is regulated. In exploring how this process works, sociologists ask questions about:

- how control is exercised
- who exercises control
- how far individuals or groups resist or challenge the processes of social control
- in whose interests social control operates.

By studying these social processes, we can understand more about the workings of society. For example, we learn how such processes take place (the means or mechanisms) and why they take place.



Social issues

Social issues are the issues that affect communities, groups and people's lives. Contemporary social issues relating to education, for example, include academies and grammar schools. Issues relating to families include care of the elderly and forced marriage. Often, social issues are also **social problems**.

Social problems are the problems facing society such as racism, sexism, ageism, **poverty**, domestic violence and hate crime. Social problems are damaging to society and, as a result, they need to be tackled through social policies.

The table below gives some examples of social structures, social processes and social issues. As you read through the different chapters in this book, you will learn more about these key sociological themes.



Social structures	Social processes	Social issues
Families	Socialisation; Social control; The exercise of power	The quality of parenting; Forced marriage; Care of the elderly; Relationships between parents and children
The education system	Socialisation; Social control; The exercise of power; Labelling; Discrimination	Educational reform; Higher education funding; Academies
The criminal justice system	Social control; Social order; The exercise of power; Discrimination; Labelling	Violent crime; The media coverage of crime; The treatment of young offenders; The prison system
Social stratification systems	Discrimination; The exercise of power; Globalisation	Inequalities linked to class, gender, ethnicity, age, disability and sexuality; Racism, sexism and ageism; Homophobia; Poverty

Sociologists draw on key concepts (ideas) including **culture**, **values** and **norms**. They believe people are socialized into these norms (taught to behave this way).

Culture

The term 'culture' refers to the whole way of life of a particular society. It includes the values, norms, customs, beliefs, knowledge, skills and language of a society. Sociologists appreciate that culture is not the same in different societies around the world. It varies according to place (where you are) and time (when). You can see this when looking at food and diet. For example, roast guinea pig is a traditional delicacy in Ecuador, while guinea pigs are often kept as family pets in the UK.



Values

Values are ideas and beliefs that people have about what is desirable and worth striving for. For example, privacy and respect for human life are highly valued by most people in Britain. Values provide us with general guidelines for conduct.

Not all societies or groups value the same things. Values vary cross-culturally, which means that they differ from one culture to another. In Western societies, for example, wealth and material possessions are often highly valued and considered worth striving for. In contrast, the Apache of North America gave away the property of relatives who died rather than inherit it. They believed that keeping this property might encourage the relatives who inherit it to feel glad.

Norms

Values provide us with general guidelines for conduct. Norms are more specific to particular situations. For example, we value privacy, and the norms or rules related to this include not reading other people's emails or text messages without permission. Norms tell us what is appropriate and expected behaviour in specific social settings such as classrooms, cinemas, restaurants or aeroplanes. They provide order in society and allow it to function smoothly.

Norms are enforced by **positive sanctions** and **negative sanctions**. This means that people are rewarded for conforming to (or following) the norms, for example, by getting promoted at work. People are punished for deviating from (or breaking) the norms, for example by being 'told off'. Norms and **sanctions** vary depending on time and place. For instance, among the Apache of North America, rule breakers were banished from the group.



Primary and secondary socialisation

Primary socialisation refers to early childhood learning during which, as babies and infants, we learn the basic behaviour patterns, language and skills that we will need in later life. The agencies of primary socialisation are the groups or institutions responsible for primary socialisation. These are usually families and parents. Through interaction within their families, children acquire language and other essential skills.

Secondary socialisation begins later in childhood and continues throughout our adult lives. Through this process, we learn society's norms and values. The agencies of secondary socialisation are the groups or institutions that contribute to this process. Examples include: peer groups, schools, workplaces, religions, mass media.

Peer groups

Peer groups are groups of people who share a similar social status and position in society, such as people of a similar age or occupational status. They can exert pressure on their members to conform to group norms and values in settings such as schools or workplaces.

People who do not conform to the group's norms risk being rejected.



Schools

During compulsory schooling, students learn how to interact in groups larger than the family. They develop important new skills. They also learn that they are expected to conform to rules and regulations – regarding punctuality and dress, for example. Some students, however, resist the rules and oppose their teachers' authority.



Workplaces

On starting a new job in an office, factory or hospital, for example, newly appointed employees must learn the culture of the workplace. They learn the formal rules regarding dress, punctuality, and health and safety. They may also pick up tips informally from colleagues on things such as how much work is expected and which of the bosses to avoid.



Religions

Religions provide guidelines for behaviour and sanctions when those guidelines are broken. Christianity, for example, provides the Ten Commandments as a guide to how followers should behave. Muslims are expected to put into practice the Five Pillars of Islam, including the alms tax (giving a proportion of one's wealth to the poor). However, some sociologists argue that a process of **secularisation** is taking place and the influence of religion is declining in society. For example, church attendance within the Church of England (the **established or state church**) is falling. If secularisation is occurring, it would suggest that religion has less of a role in the socialisation process today.



Mass media

The mass media, which include television, radio and newspapers, are a powerful source of information and knowledge about the world. Magazines, for example, often give advice on life and relationships. The media sometimes put forward messages about **gender roles** by, for example, showing women advertising washing-up liquid and men advertising cars. In this way, the media contribute to **gender socialisation**. The media (along with families and workplaces) also contribute to **political socialisation**, that is, the process by which people acquire their political views.



TASK 1: Complete the following tasks. Use headings and sub-headings to structure your work appropriately.

Social structures, processes, and issues

- a) Define the following words. Social structure/institution, social processes, social issues, socialisation, social stratification and social control.
- b) Choose ONE social structure/institution and identify 2 social processes and 2 social issues linked with it.

Culture norms, values

- c) Think about the following social settings: a cinema, an aeroplane, a GP's waiting room.
 - i. Choose one setting and identify two norms related to this setting.
 - ii. Identify two sanctions that might be applied to people who deviate from the norms in this setting.
- d) Explain the norms for giving and receiving gifts such as birthday presents.
- e) In your view, which of these values in the blue box below is most important to people in British society today? Briefly explain your answer
- f) Explain what sociologists mean by the term "culture"

privacy	honesty and truth	respect for life	respect for elders
acquiring more consumer goods	educational success	'getting on' in life at any price	helping the poor

Socialisation and agents of socialisation

- h) Define the following keywords: primary socialisation, secondary socialisation, agent of socialisation
- i) Complete a table showing who the different agents of socialisation are and how they socialise people into their cultures, norms and values.
- j) Identify and explain how two agents of socialisation have affected you.

Judgement:

- j) How far do you think human behaviour is learned and how much is instinctive? Explain using a PEEL paragraph. Use as many keywords as you can.

WELL DONE!

You've now finished Section A "What is Sociology?"

Section B: Sociological perspectives

Now we're going to have a look through the key ideas of the main sociological perspectives:

- Functionalism
- Marxism

Read through the information and answer the questions on page 10.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fSQgCy_ilcc

Karl Marx and Marxism

Marx argued that in order to understand the development of societies in the past and today, we must begin by examining production.

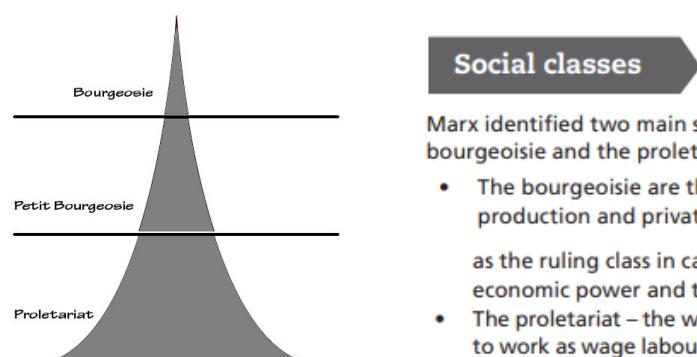
In other words, it is necessary to examine how people go about producing the things they need in order to subsist. Marx used the term 'mode of production' to describe how people produce the things they need to subsist. One example is the **capitalist** mode of production. Marx identified two key aspects of a mode of production: the means of production and the social relations of production.

- **Means of production:** the materials, such as the raw materials or machinery, that people use in production. Under capitalism, these include capital, big businesses, machinery, factories and land.
- **Social relations of production:** the relations between people as they engage in production. Under capitalism, there are two main social classes: the **bourgeoisie** and the **proletariat**.



Karl Marx
Born: Germany
(1818-1883)

Pronounce bourgeoisie
"bore - jwa - zee"
It's French, so say "jwa" with a French accent!



Social classes

Marx identified two main social classes under capitalism: the bourgeoisie and the proletariat.

- The bourgeoisie are the capitalist class who own the means of production and private property. Marx saw the bourgeoisie as the ruling class in capitalist society. As owners, they have economic power and this gives them political power.
- The proletariat – the working class – own nothing but their ability to work as wage labourers and Marx saw them as the subject class.

Other classes under capitalism included:

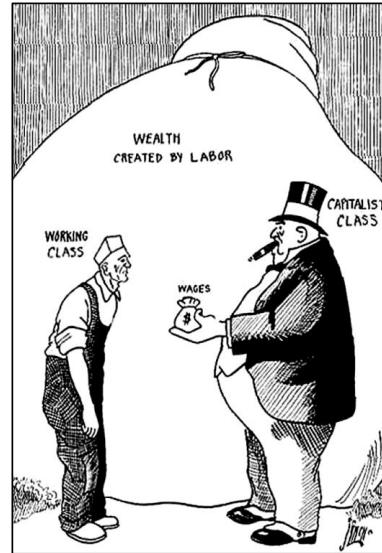
- the **petty bourgeoisie**, who own small businesses
- the **lumpenproletariat**, the 'dropouts' who sometimes sell their services to the bourgeoisie.

Marx saw the relationship between the bourgeoisie and proletariat as based on exploitation. The bourgeoisie exploit the proletariat by profiting from their labour. The bourgeoisie aim to maximise their profits and do this by paying low wages. The proletariat's interests lie in ending exploitation. These different interests lead to conflict between the classes.

Marx argued that the gap in the resources of the bourgeoisie and the proletariat would get much wider over time. Members of the petty bourgeoisie would be unable to compete with bigger companies and would sink into the proletariat.

Over time, society would split more and more 'into two great hostile camps'. In Marx's view, the **class struggle** between the proletariat and the bourgeoisie is the key to bringing about social change.

Eventually, members of the proletariat would come to see themselves as a social class with common interests and they would take action to overthrow the capitalist class. This would lead to a period of social revolution and the move to **communism**. Under communism, the means of production would be held communally rather than by a small minority. In this situation, there would be no private ownership, no exploitation and a **classless society**.



However, we can't believe everything Marx says about society, it's important for us to be **critical** of his ideas, and to try to poke holes in it. These criticisms are essential for top grades at A Level Sociology.

Criticisms of Marx

- Marx analysed class but overlooked other social divisions such as gender and ethnicity.
- He saw social class as based on economic divisions. However, critics argue that class is also based on status (social standing or prestige) differences between groups.

Émile Durkheim and Functionalism

Emile Durkheim is one of the founders of sociology as an academic subject. His **worldview** or perspective is very different from that of Marx in important respects.

The functionalist perspective

The functionalist approach explains social institutions (such as families, education systems and social stratification systems) in terms of the functions they perform for the wider society.

To understand functionalism, a biological analogy (or comparison) can be used. In other words, we can compare society to the human body. If we want to understand the human body and how it works, we could start by identifying the vital organs such as the heart, lungs or liver. We might then focus on one organ such as the heart and look at its job or function in pumping blood around the body. Next, we might examine how the heart is connected to other parts of the body such as the blood vessels. Finally, we could look at how the heart contributes to the survival of the body as a whole.

In the same way, functionalism views society as made up of different parts that interlock and fit together. The different social institutions such as the family, education and religion are important organs in the body of society. Functionalism examines these institutions in terms of their functions, that is, the job they perform to help society run smoothly. The different social institutions meet the needs of society by performing functions to ensure its survival.

Durkheim studied crime, religion and education by focusing on the functions they fulfil in meeting the needs of society. For example, he argued that the punishment of criminals has an important function in helping to bring people together. Punishment reinforces the values and beliefs that the majority of people in society hold. By binding people together in this way, crime can contribute to **social cohesion**.

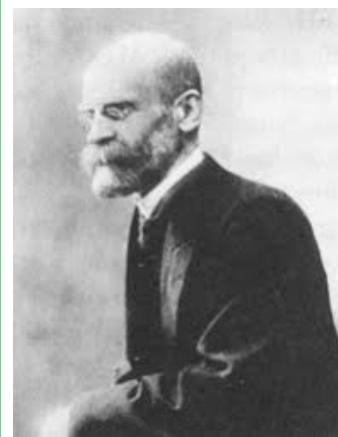
Similarities between functionalism and Marxism

Although functionalism and Marxism are different in important ways, they are both **structural approaches**. This means that they focus on the structure of society and how this influences and directs human behaviour.

However, not all sociologists agree with structural approaches. Critics argue that these approaches view people as being like puppets who are at the mercy of social forces beyond their control.

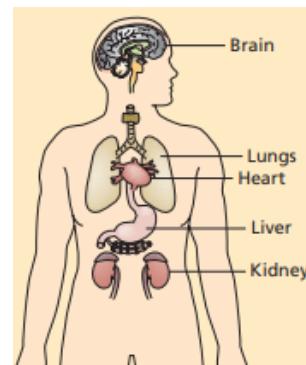
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-83vVeSC2_g

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lZfGGF-YYzY>



Émile Durkheim
Born: France
(1858-1917)

Pronounce Émile
"eh-meal"
It's French, so say "eh" with a French accent!



The different parts of the body each have a function.

Criticisms of functionalism

The functionalist approach focuses on the positive functions that things such as crime and religion perform for society. However, critics argue that functionalism overlooks their dysfunctional (or negative) aspects. In reality, crime and religion do not always perform positive functions for society. For example, knife crime can have devastating effects on individual victims and on communities; religion can cause long-term conflicts between different social groups such as Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland.

Part 1: Social context of Durkheim's work

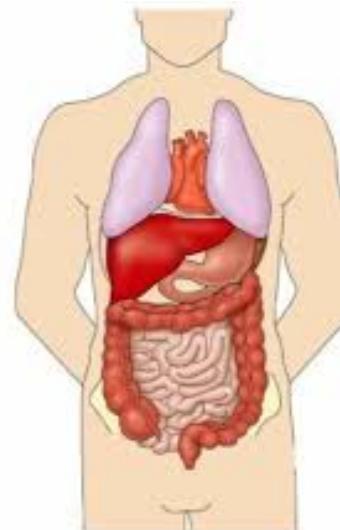
The question of 'what keeps society together' was the foundation of a new science called 'sociology'. According to Durkheim, sociology could do the following things for society:

- Understand its normal and abnormal functioning
- Diagnose how it is changing
- Deal with the consequences of societal change

Durkheim hoped that by studying society in this way France could deal with its rapidly changing society and avoid any further turmoil in the future.

For Durkheim, sociology was for society what biology was for the body. It was a method to understand how society functions, how to structure a society which is optimal for its functioning.

Each organ represent a part of society (such as family or education) which must all function correctly for the organism (or society) to work.



This made Durkheim a **STRUCTURALIST** thinker as he believed the structure of society influenced the behaviour of individuals and groups.

Part 2: Social context of Durkheim's work

Using the clip below watch from 02.00-04.45 minutes:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IZfGGF-YYzY>

If sociology is a science, then what does it study?

Social Facts

"Social facts consist of manners of acting, thinking and feeling external to the individual, which are invested with a coercive power by virtue of which they can exercise control over him"



There are three important things to note about what social facts are:

- 1) They are very broad – it essentially means anything in society which can influence how groups or individuals behave. For example, family, religion, laws, social class, urbanization, population distribution.
- 2) They are external to us – social facts live independently to us. For example, you may think the act of giving gifts at Eid is something you have decided. However, you did not originally come up with this idea yourself - it was already there.
- 3) They exercise coercive (forceful) control over us – Durkheim argued we have little control over these social facts. For example, imagine if you wanted to stop believing in birthday celebrations. If we don't believe in them, we tend to just go along with it anyway – that's the power of social facts. Language is another – it is external and constrains our ability to express ourselves.

Part 3: Collective consciousness

Using the clip below watch from 04.45-06.25 minutes:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IZfGGF-YYzY>

The study of 'social facts' can help us to understand how societies hold together as well as how they fall apart:



Social facts create the common consciousness...

**THE COMMON CONSCIOUSNESS
IS BASICALLY THE COLLECTION OF
ALL THE BELIEFS, MORALS, AND
IDEAS THAT ARE THE SOCIAL
FACTS IN A GIVEN SOCIETY.**

If these social facts are good and functional = functional society
If they weaken or are replaced by bad social facts = dysfunctional society

Part 3: Collective consciousness

Social dysfunction is when parts of society do not function well – it is like a disease to the body. A disease will cause part of your body to not function well which will potentially cause damage to all your body. The same thing can happen in society. For example, dysfunction in the family such as poor parenting may cause a child to distrust authority and lead to harm in wider society such as criminal behaviour. Remember society is interconnected (all parts of society affects each other).

Let's look at a contemporary example:

Social issue: High rates of depression

You might say that depression is caused by the brain. However, Durkheim would argue that you need to look beyond the individual and study social facts to understand the causes of this dysfunction. The cause of depression is not just biological is caused by society. For example two of these social facts may be:

Societal values – we view money and glamour as the benchmark for success over more meaningful values like love and compassion.

Weak identity – today we are a collection of individuals as opposed to a community. We are much lonelier than ever before.

Did you know: A survey in the USA found 39% of Americans would describe themselves as 'not close to anyone'!

TASK 2: Complete the following tasks. Use headings and sub-headings to structure your work appropriately.

Karl Marx and Marxism

- a) Draw an annotated hierarchy of the four social classes identified by Marx. Include a description of their position in society, examples of these people and a picture*
- b) What is capitalism?
- c) How did Marx say capitalism was exploiting the proletariat?
- d) Give an example of how the bourgeoisie may benefit from the capitalist system
- e) What did Marx say would eventually happen to
 - i) The petty bourgeoisie?
 - ii) The proletariat
 - iii) The bourgeoisie

Emile Durkheim and Functionalism

- f) In the “biological analogy”, what social feature takes the place (metaphorically) of human organs?
- g) Explain what would happen to a human if a vital organ stopped working. According to functionalists, why is this similar to society?
- h) Explain one similarity between Functionalism and Marxism.

Judgement essay:

- i) Explain the different views on society and evaluate who you agree with most and why.

To structure this, write a PEEL paragraph explaining each view (feel free to include criticism of them too!). Then write a conclusion saying which perspective you agree with and why.

****Need help drawing this for typed work:**

- 1) If in Word or Powerpoint: Along the tabs at the top click Insert>Smart Art and choose a template. Copy and paste pictures from the internet.
- 2) Draw by hand, take a photo on your phone and email to yourself. Then copy and paste the photo from your email to your document.

WELL DONE!

You've now finished Section B "Sociological Perspectives?"¹⁵

Section C: Social Stratification

Social inequality refers to the unequal distribution of:

- Resources such as power, wealth and income
- Opportunities (related, for example, to health, education and employment) Social class, gender, ethnicity and age are all sources of inequality in modern British society.

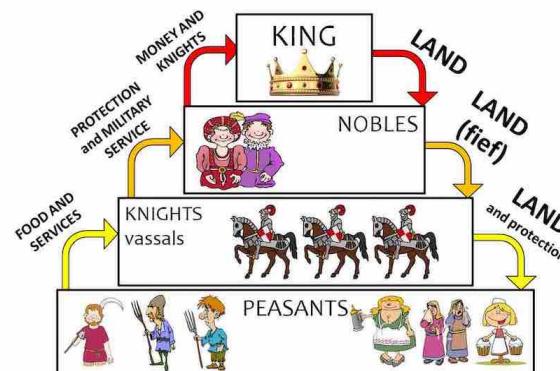
Social stratification refers to the way society is structured into a hierarchy of strata that are unequally ranked. A social hierarchy is shaped like a pyramid with each stratum more powerful than the one below it. The most privileged group forms the top layer and vice versa.

Stratification involves inequalities between groups in the distribution of socioeconomic resources such as wealth, income, status and power. These inequalities persist or continue over time.

In Britain, gender, class, ethnicity and age are the main criteria by which people tend to be stratified.

If someone is able to work hard to change their status, we refer to this as a system with "achieved" status.

If someone is born into their status and can't change it, this is "ascribed" to us.



Feudal Pyramid of Power

So we're going to look at some of the issues around social inequality and social class in the UK today.

We'll start by looking at the concept of stratification and the different forms in different times / places.

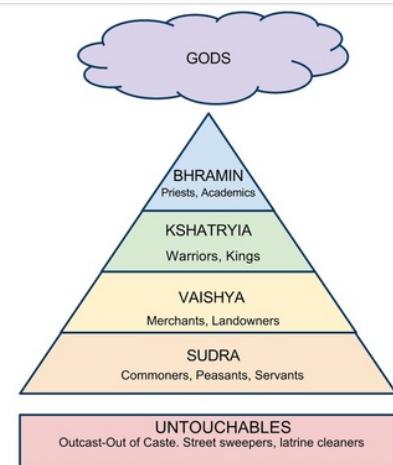
Read the information and answer the questions on the Page 14.

Mobility, status and stratification

Keywords and ideas for this section		
Social mobility	The idea that you can move up or down the social ladder/ strata of society	e.g. a job promotion can improve your social status/class
Social status	Ascribed status – your status is determined when you are born. You cannot change it.	e.g. Prince William was born with the status and title of "Prince". One day he will be King.
	Achieved status – Your status is dependent on what you achieve in your lifetime.	e.g. Mr Jones and Ms Gillam worked hard, excelled at being teachers and through hard work and dedication, became headteachers.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF STRATIFICATION

The caste system in traditional India, slavery in the southern states of the US in the 19th century, Apartheid in South Africa and the social class system in modern Britain are all types of stratification. Various forms of stratification differ according to whether status is ascribed or achieved. They also differ in terms of how open or closed they are. In an open system of stratification, status is achieved and social mobility is possible (**meritocratic**). In a closed system, status is ascribed so social mobility is highly unlikely.



SOCIAL CLASS AND STRATIFICATION

Social class note: Remember this is slightly different from Marx's ideas. Marx argues the bourgeoisie exploit the proletariat. Social class does not claim this relationship exists, but identifies differences in wealth and culture between groups.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SOCIAL CLASS

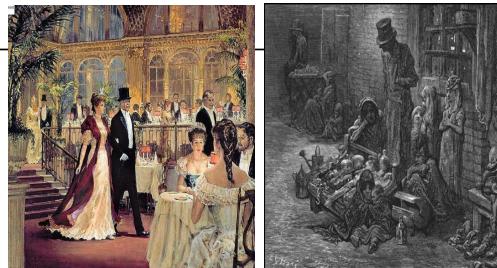
One view is that social class divisions are less clear-cut in Britain today compared with the 1950s. For example, it is argued that:

- Traditional working-class communities have declined
E.g. communities centered on heavy industry, coal-mining and shipbuilding have declined
- Class identities have weakened and people no longer strongly identify themselves as working or middle class

Think! Watch this video: How important do you think social class is **REALLY** today?
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wVPSdtE99E8>

Another version of the decline of class view suggests that class divisions have become less significant than those based on gender, ethnicity and age:

- Women, some minority ethnic groups, **children and older people** are more at risk of poverty than other groups
- Divisions based on **gender** can be seen in the gender inequalities in the workplace, the gender pay gap and the under-representation of women in political life
- **Ethnic inequalities.** Divisions based on ethnicity can be seen in the over-representation of some minority ethnic groups among low income households, and the underrepresentation of some minority ethnic groups among MPs and in the professions



Some say social class was more obvious in the 19th century Britain (above) or even the 1950s (below) but not clear-cut today.



Other sociologists will argue that inequalities based on class, gender, ethnicity and age are all significant in modern Britain.

In this view, class, gender, ethnicity and age are seen as interlinked aspects of inequality rather than as completely separate aspects. Many sociologists argue that social class remains a central concept in sociology because social class still impacts on people's daily lives. Class-based inequalities in life chances persist in the 21st century. So, while class may have changed, it has not declined.

TASK 1: Complete the following tasks. Use headings and sub-headings to structure your work appropriately.

Feel free to refer to the video and the article to help you in your answers.

Mobility, status and stratification

- a) Define social stratification and give 3 examples of how society can be stratified.
- b) Choose ONE social structure mentioned under “different forms of stratification” and identify
 - i. What are the strata (layers) in that social hierarchy?
 - ii. Is status ascribed or achieved?
 - iii. Is there social mobility in this system?
- c) What does meritocracy mean?
- d) Explain one way in which British society is meritocratic and one way in which it is not.

Social class and stratification

- a) What is social class in Britain?
- b) How was social class more clear-cut in the past? Why is it harder to define now?
- c) What other division/factors could be considered more important in Britain today other than social class?
- d) What do some people still claim that social-class is still important in dividing people in Britain today?

Challenge yourself:

Read the article and/or video and summarise what it says. How far do you agree? (give a two sided answer).

Economic and Social Inequality

Marx, Weber and functionalists have all shaped sociological views on social class.

MARX

Karl Marx believed that class membership was determined by economic factors (ownership & non-ownership).

He identified two main classes in capitalist society:

- Bourgeoisie (capitalist/ruling class): Wealthy and own property, big businesses, land and factories. Their main interests are higher profits - Proletariat (working classes): Own no property and are forced to sell their labour to the bourgeoisie in order to survive. Main interest is higher wages.

These two classes have very different interests and this leads to conflict between them (conflict theory).

Karl Marx 1818-1883

Marxist perspective – Conflict theory

❖ **Social stratification** – a mechanism to allow the privileged few to exploit the many. **Social stratification** came from the relationships of social groups to the **means of production** – those who owned the means of production and those that did not. His theory of history shows Western capitalist society developing through 4 epochs (periods of time):

1. Primitive communism
2. Ancient society
3. Feudal society

Capitalism – the most exploitative. Capitalism stratifies into 2 groups:

r/c = bourgeoisie, oppressors, own means of production

w/c = proletariat, oppressed/exploited, own labour



❖ As agriculture developed it produced **surplus wealth** and the accumulation of private property. The **ruling class** gained control of the means of production obliging others to work for them – **the subject class**. The power of the **ruling class** is rooted in its **ownership of the means of production**. **Ruling class** justify its position as being natural and normal – with ideas such as the **free market**

❖ **Capitalism** was very unstable as its conflict lay in the interest of the **subject class** whose labour was exploited and the **ruling class** who exploit that labour. Ultimately, classes would **polarise** as the gap between the subject class and ruling class work grow and differences be more extreme – revolution and **communism** would be the remedy

❖ **Criticism – New Right and functionalist** argue that capitalism is beneficial for society and creates opportunities for social mobility

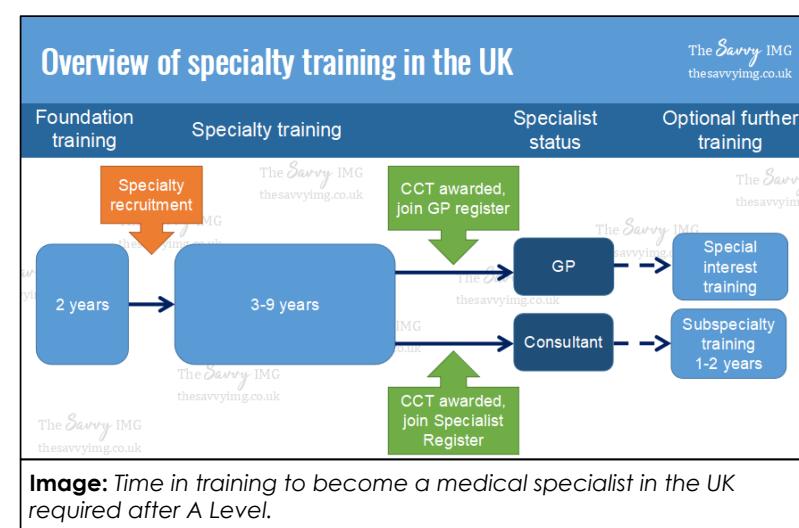
Functionalism and Social Inequality

According to the functionalist approach, modern society requires a system of unequal rewards. This provides an incentive for the most talented people to train for the key occupations that are essential for society to continue. These top positions must provide scarce rewards such as high pay/status to attract the most able people. They believe that the stratification system fulfills the function of ensuring that the most important jobs are filled by the most talented and highly qualified people. They see modern societies such as Britain as meritocratic, to a large extent.

According to Functionalists like Davis and Moore, a job's "functional importance" is determined by the degree to which the job is unique and requires skill, meaning whether only a few, or many other people, can perform the same function adequately.

Garbage collectors are important to public sanitation, but Functionalists claim they do not need to be rewarded highly because little training or talent is required to perform their job. For example, according to this theory doctors should be rewarded highly, because extensive training is required to do their job. It is logical that society must offer greater rewards (e.g., income, vacations, promotion) to motivate the most qualified people to fill the most important positions.

Davis and Moore 1945	Functionalist perspective – Consensus theory
<ul style="list-style-type: none">❖ Social stratification is a universal necessity for every human society❖ For a society to function successfully 4 things must happen:<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. All roles must be filled2. They must be filled by those best to perform them3. Necessary training must take place4. Roles must be formed diligently❖ Unequal reward and privileges attached to different positions in society was the mechanism to allow the above to take place❖ This system allowed the most able people to be matched with the most functionally important positions in society – e.g. doctors paid highly❖ Giving high rewards to these positions gives incentives for people to compete with the most talented achieving success <p>Criticisms:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ Occupations with lower rewards can also be seen as functionally important e.g. nurses✓ Differences in pay and status may be due to differences in power e.g. MPs versus nurses✓ No proof that exceptional talent is always linked to the most important positions✓ Unequal rewards may not be the best way of finding talent	 28



TASK 2: Complete the following tasks (typed) Use headings and sub-headings to structure your work appropriately.

Functionalism and Social Inequality

- a) Go back to page 9 information on Functionalists. What do functionalists believe about society?
- b) Using this, and the information on page 20, explain why Functionalists believe it is a good idea to have inequality in society.
- c) What does the word incentive mean?
- d) What is a disincentive?
- e) What incentives are there for working hard in school? List 3.
- f) Read the research by Davis and Moore (1945). They are functionalists who believe that some jobs are more “functionally important” than others. Why is this?
- g) According to functionalists like Davis and Moore, why should society incentivise (provide incentives for) “functionally important” jobs?

Economic and Social Inequality

- h) Think about a large global company. Look up the following:
 - viii. The name of their owner/CEO and estimation of company profits/net worth of owner.
 - ix. The amount they pay their lowest paid workers
I have done an example for McDonald's on the next page. Pick a different company for yours.
- i) How might this (task h) support Marx's theory?
- j) What is there conflict over between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat?
- k) What is capitalism?
- l) Why did Marx say capitalism was exploitative?
- m) Do you agree with Marx?

Judgement:

Who do you agree with the most about social inequality? Davis & Moore OR Marx? To structure this, write a PEEL paragraph explaining each view (feel free to include criticism of them too!). Then write a conclusion saying which perspective you agree with and why.

GENDER and Social Inequality

Feminist approaches explore gender inequalities in society.

Over the last 40 years, reforms in areas such as education and employment have addressed aspects of gender inequality. For example, governments have introduced anti-discrimination laws such as the Equal Pay Act (1970) to reduce gender inequalities.

Today, women are increasingly likely to achieve high level education qualifications, high status jobs and good salaries.

Feminists would still argue that gender remains the most significant social division in contemporary society. They see society as patriarchal. They see society as a patriarchal one in which men:

- Have a lot of power within families, politics and the workplace
- Generally receive a bigger share of rewards such as wealth and status

Often, men and women do not work in the same occupations. For instance, fire fighting is male dominated and nursery nursing is female dominated. When men and women do work in the same occupations, women are more likely to be in lower-level or middle-level jobs while men tend to hold the higher grade and senior management posts. For example, in 2007, 19% of men and 11% of women worked as managers or senior officials. Women on average still earn less than men. One reason for this is that women are more likely than men to work in low-paid jobs. Women are also more likely than men to be employed part-time rather than full time. One explanation for the persistence of gender inequality at work focuses on discrimination in the workplace. Another explanation suggests that women are held back when applying for promotions or developing their career because they have the main responsibility for housework and childcare. A third explanation argues that inadequate or expensive childcare provision prevents some women from participating in full-time paid work or staying in employment long enough.

Silvia Walby 1990

Feminist perspective- CONFLICT theory



- ❖ **Patriarchy** is central to an understanding of gender inequality
- ❖ Identifies six **patriarchal structures** which allow men to dominate and oppress women:
 1. **Paid work** – despite legislation (Equal Pay & Sex Discrimination Acts) women continue to be disadvantaged, restricted by cultural values (e.g. expectation of mother/housewife role)
 2. **Patriarchal relations of production** – men benefit by women's unpaid domestic labour
 3. **Patriarchal culture** – women gained more freedom but still subject to social expectations in terms of standards of behaviour (e.g. deviant behaviour)
 4. **Sexuality** – greater freedom to express sexuality but subject to double standard of sexuality
 5. **Male violence towards women** – threat of violence discourages women from challenging patriarchal authority
 6. **The state** – now not as patriarchal but does relatively little to protect women from **patriarchal power** (e.g. gender pay gap, equal opp's laws are rarely enforced)
- ❖ **Patriarchy** has changed from **private patriarchy** where women were dominated in the home to **public patriarchy** which now dominates where women are mostly segregated into low paid, low status jobs and collectively exploited

ETHNICITY and Social Inequality

Ethnicity: cultural norms and values that distinguish one ethnic group from another. Different from race.

Over the last 40 years, reforms and policies have addressed inequality based on ethnicity in areas such as education, employment and criminal justice.

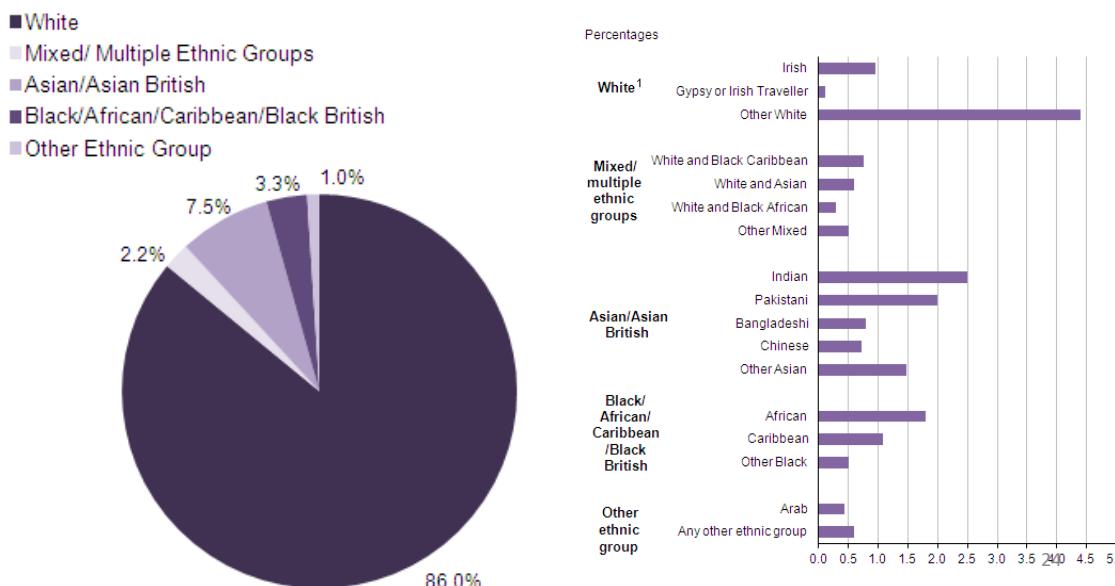
For example:

- Many employers have equal opportunities policies to support equality and diversity
- The 1976 Race Relations Act outlawed discrimination based on ethnicity
- The Equality and Human Rights Commission has powers to enforce the equality laws and to shape public policy on equality issues
- Within organizations, awareness of institutional racism has been raised

As a result of such changes, many commentators will argue that inequalities based on ethnicity are much less significant than they were 40 years ago. However, others will argue that there has been little real change in the fields of employment, education and criminal justice. For example, unemployment rates in England & Wales are higher among ethnic minorities such as Pakistani and Bangladeshi in comparison to White British or White Irish people.

Research has also found that men and women of Pakistani and Bangladeshi heritage have much worse chances of getting professional and managerial jobs than their white peers of the same age and educational level. Governments have tried to reduce inequalities between different ethnic groups by funding bodies such as the Equality and Human Rights Commission which enforces equality laws, as well as through legislature such as the Race Relations Act in the 1970s.

Figure 1: Ethnic groups, England and Wales, 2011



AGE and Social Inequality

KEYWORDS

Ageism: prejudice/discrimination upon the basis of age

Sociologists argue that age is socially constructed.

This can be seen in the historical and cross-cultural differences in expectations surrounding age. For example, although child labour is now illegal in Britain, it was the norm among working-class families in the 19th century and exists in some parts of the world today.

The status of older people can vary between cultures. In some cultures, ageing is seen as something to be avoided. In others, however, age is seen as something to look forward to and older people have a high status in society. The term ageism describes a situation in which someone is treated differently and less favourably based on their age. In Britain, there are now regulations against age discrimination in employment and training.



Ageism widespread in UK, study finds

Millennials hold most negative attitudes, with 40% believing dementia is inevitable



▲ Two thirds of people surveyed had no friends with an age gap of 30 years or more. Photograph: BSIP/UIG via Getty Images

<https://www.theguardian.com/society/2018/jun/08/ageism-widespread-in-uk-study-finds>

Stratification and Poverty

KEYWORDS

- **Absolute poverty:** people experience absolute poverty when their income is insufficient to obtain the minimum needed to survive
- **Life cycle of poverty:** movement into and out of poverty at different stages during the course of a person's life
- **Poverty line:** a government-approved line that divides people who are living below a set income level (living below the poverty line) from those who are living above it. In Britain, there is no official poverty line
- **Relative poverty:** people experience relative poverty when they cannot afford to meet the general standard of living of most other people in their society

Poverty can be defined as:

- **Absolute poverty** when people's income is so low that they cannot obtain the minimum needed to survive
- **Relative poverty** which is when people's income is well below average so they are poor compared with others in their society. They cannot afford to have the general standard of living that most other people in their society enjoy

Poverty can also be defined in terms of exclusion from everyday activities and customs. This is about people who experience poverty from the activities and living patterns that most people take for granted.

There are different ways of measuring poverty: -

- Low incomes – this is the main official UK government way of measuring poverty
- Lack of items that the majority of the population see as necessities
- Subjective measures – in which people judge themselves to be living in poverty



- IMAGINE -

Imagine you were carrying out sociological research.

It's a bit like science, you come up with a hypothesis and test it based on evidence.

So, if I wanted to see if people in poverty had the same life chances (chance of being happy, healthy, successful) as people not in poverty.

You get 100 respondents/subjects who you can interview as part of your research.
How would **YOU** decide which of your respondents are actually poor?
How might it affect your research if you don't?
Why is this surprisingly difficult?

Stratification and Poverty

Poverty is linked to different social divisions like ethnicity, gender and age.



Children and pensioners are more at risk of poverty than other age groups. Possible reasons for this include living on a low income such as state retirement pension and not claiming the benefits to which they are entitled to. This is all captured in the idea of the life cycle of poverty. The life cycle of poverty shows that people may move in and out of poverty at different points during their lives. For example, an individual may live below the poverty line during childhood. As a young adult, they can earn money and move out of poverty. If they have children, the added expense may mean they move back into poverty. When their children leave home, they may escape poverty. During old age, they no longer get a wage so they may move back into poverty. So, children and pensioners are more at risk of poverty.



People living in households headed by someone of Pakistani or Bangladeshi heritage are at risk of living in low-income households. Possible reasons for this could include racism and discrimination in the labour market. Members of some minority ethnic groups are less likely to take up the welfare state assistance to which they are entitled. Members of some minority ethnic groups are also more likely to experience unemployment and are more likely to live in low income households.

In the UK, **20% of women** are in poverty compared to **18% of men**



that's 5.1 million women to 4.4 million men

JRF
JOINT READING FOUNDATION

@jrf_uk

Women face a greater risk of poverty than men. Possible reasons could include the fact that women earn less than men, on average, because they are more likely to work in low paid jobs and to work part-time. In general, women live longer than men so there are a larger number of older female pensioners living alone. Women are less likely than men to have an income from an occupational pension. Women are also more likely than men to head single-parent families which often have to live on low incomes.

Poverty Explanations Part 1

Some approaches focus on individuals and groups while others focus on structural factors.

1. INDIVIDUAL EXPLANATIONS OF POVERTY

Individual explanations highlight the behavior/lifestyles of individuals and groups who experience poverty. They suggest that the poor are responsible in some way for their own situation:

- **Culture of poverty**

In this account, people from the poorest sections of society are socialized within a subculture of poverty. They develop a way of life and a set of values to cope with their position. For example, they live for the moment and see no point in planning ahead. However, these values prevent them from taking up educational opportunities or saving for the future, and in this way, escaping poverty

- **Cycle of deprivation**

In this view, poverty involves both material and cultural deprivation. It persists from generation to generation, locking families into a cycle of deprivation

- **Welfare dependency and the underclass**

In the 1980s and '90s, New Right approaches identified the emergence in Britain of an underclass - a group of undeserving poor whose attitudes and values are different from those of mainstream society. This group remains in poverty because they are encouraged by welfare.

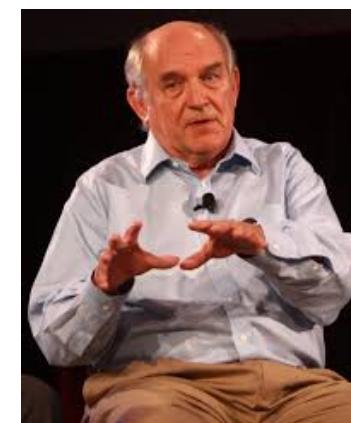
Charles Murray 1984

New Right perspective

- ❖ Government welfare reforms in American society led to a **dependency culture** and a growing **underclass**. Increased benefits leads to:
 1. Discouragement of self sufficiency (people become dependent on benefits)
 2. More single parents and breakdown of traditional nuclear family
 3. Young people losing interest in getting a job as they can live off the state
- ❖ **Underclass** threaten economic and social fabric of society as they are a burden on tax payers and responsible for rising crime rates
- ❖ Late 1980s Britain – Murray also found growing underclass
- ❖ Saw a **moral decline** in values such as honesty, family life and hard work being undermined by underclass. Whilst alternative **value system** of criminal and anti-social behaviour thrived

Criticisms:

- ❖ Ignores economic reasons that may create such a class
- ❖ Many of the so-called **underclass** hold traditional values, want stable relationships and want to work
- ❖ **Marxists** and others argue that these people are victims of **social inequality** not the cause of social problems



30

The idea of social exclusion can be used to criticize individual explanations of poverty. Socially excluded people are shut out from participating in society's socioeconomic, political and cultural life by factors beyond their control. The idea of social exclusion

Poverty Explanations Part 1

Some approaches focus on individuals and groups while others focus on structural factors.

2. STRUCTURAL EXPLANATIONS OF POVERTY

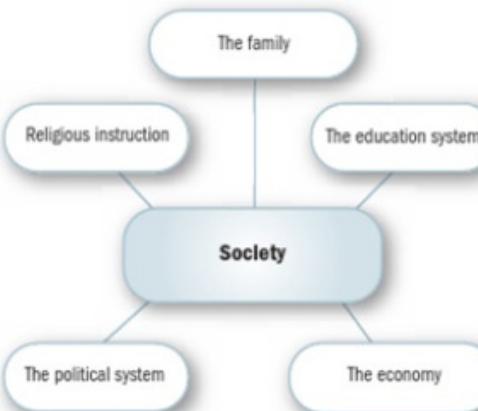
Structural approaches look at the way society is structured economically, socially and politically to create poverty and perpetuate it over time

MARXIST APPROACH

This view states that poverty is the inevitable result of the class-based inequalities that are built into capitalist society. Capitalism is an economic system that generates extreme wealth for the bourgeoisie/ruling class while producing poverty among sections of the proletariat

UNEMPLOYMENT AND THE INADEQUACIES OF THE WELFARE STATE

Unemployment is seen as a key issue in understanding the causes of poverty. During economic recessions, unemployment levels rise and, as a result, the number of people experiencing poverty also increases. Another view is that welfare state benefits are too low. In this view, the solution to the problem of poverty is to give more money to the people in poverty by increasing the value of pensions and welfare benefits.



To summarise...

- Critics argue that the culture of poverty and cycle of deprivation explanations ignore structural factors and fail to explain why people are poor in the first place
- New Right approaches focus on the underclass whose members are seen as dependent on welfare provision. Critics argue that the term underclass is used to label and blame the victims of poverty

<https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/usappblog/2017/10/03/a-generous-welfare-state-can-help-reduce-unemployment-if-there-are-good-job-opportunities-for-the-jobless/>

TASK 3: Complete the following essay (typed) using the guidance below

Task: Using everything you've learnt so far, write an essay explaining the sociological causes of social inequality and poverty. Try to incorporate as much of your learning as possible.

Statement: Evaluate the view that people in poverty are to blame for their own situation

Success Criteria

Introduction

- Describe some details and statistics about poverty
- Outline which sociological arguments you will evaluate (New Right, Marxism, Functionalism)

Paragraph 1

- Identify sociological perspective which agrees with the statement (for example New Right)
- Write a PEEL paragraph (point, evidence, explain, link (evaluate the extent to which))

Paragraph 2

- Identify a competing theory (for example Functionalism or Marxism)
- Write a PEEL paragraph (point, evidence, explain, link (evaluate the extent to which))

Paragraph 3

- Identify a competing theory (for example Functionalism or Marxism)
- Write a PEEL paragraph (point, evidence, explain, link (evaluate the extent to which))

Conclusion

- Weigh up the arguments and come to a judgment over which perspective is the most accurate reflection of reality today.

WELL DONE!

30

You've now finished Section C "Social Stratification"

Section D: Research Methods

Now we're going to look at different research methods sociologists use to conduct research. Each method has strengths and limitations.

But first, here are steps that sociologists go through when conducting sociological research.



Stage	Details
Developing research aims or hypothesis	Research aims set out what the researcher intends to investigate and provides the study's focus. A hypothesis is an informed guess. It is written as a testable statement that will either be supported by evidence or proved wrong
Choosing a research method(s)	Choice of methods is influenced by practical issues such as time and money, ethical issues and theoretical issues. Validity is a theoretical issue that assesses whether a method paints a true picture of behaviour. Whereas the reliability of a method checks to see whether other sociologists can easily repeat the same methods over and over again.
Carrying out a pilot study	A pilot study is a small-scale trial run carried out before the main research. It allows the researcher to test the chosen methods and ensure that they are appropriate and cost-effective.
Selecting a sample	Rather than studying the whole population, a researcher often selects a sample by using a sampling technique, some of which are: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Random sampling – each member in the sampling frame has a chance of being selected.• Snowball – contacting a member of the population and identifying others through them.• Stratified – involving the same proportion to numbers in the population.
Collecting data	Gathering data involves the use of evidence. Sociologists collect primary data (data collected by the sociologist) from methods such as observations and questionnaires. They also draw on secondary data (data collected by other sociologists) from methods such as official statistics. Sociologists may use quantitative data (numerical value) and qualitative data (written texts) from various methods.
Analysing data	Data analysis involves interpreting or making sense of the information

Given that there are a wide range of methods available, they all offer a range of strengths and limitations and we need to be able to evaluate these when selecting which to use.

Theoretical factors – what we think society is like

Validity – Research is valid if it provides a true picture of what is really 'out there' in world. Generally speaking, the more in depth the research, the fuller picture we get of the thoughts and feelings of the individuals acting, so the more valid the data and then more the researcher stands back and allows the respondents to 'speak for themselves' the more valid the data.

Reliability – If research is reliable, it means if someone else repeats the same research with the same population then they should achieve the same results. In order to be reliable, research needs to be easily repeatable. Self-Completion questionnaires have high reliability because it is easy for another researcher to administer the questionnaire again.

Representativeness – Research is representative if the research sample reflects the characteristics of the wider population that is being studied. Whether a sample is representative thus depends on who is being studied. If one's research aim is to look at the experiences of all white male AS Sociology students studying sociology, then one's sample should consist of all white, male sociology students.

Practical factors

Time – As a general rule, the more in-depth the method the more time consuming it is. Also, doing your own primary research tends to take longer than using secondary sources.

Money – As a general rule, the more in-depth the method the more money it costs. Also, doing your own primary research tends to be more expensive than using secondary sources.

Opportunity and Access to Respondents – Some research topics and some kinds of respondents are more difficult to gain access to. It will probably be more difficult to gain access to research pupils in schools compared to teachers for example, and some people may be less willing to engage with research than others – those engaged in deviant or illegal activity might not want to be researched.

Personal Situation, Characteristics and Skills of the researcher – Family and work commitments may prevent researchers from doing long term field work such as participant observation, and not everyone has the emotional intelligence or resilience required to engage in long-term empathetic field work. Some research topics might also be better suited to researchers with certain personal characteristics – girls in education might respond more openly to female researchers for example.

Ethical factors – issue regarding right and wrong

Harm - Researchers need to be aware of the possible effects of their work on those they study. These could include police intervention, harm to employment prospects, social exclusion and psychological harm. When possible, researchers need to prevent this.

Informed consent – Participants should be offered the right to refuse to be involved. The researcher should also tell them what the research is about so they are fully informed. Consent should be obtained before the research begins.

Confidentiality – Researchers should keep the identity of the research participants secret in order to prevent any possible negative effects on them. Personal information concerning the research participants should be kept confidential.

Vulnerable groups – Special care should be taken to protect vulnerable groups e.g. children and elderly. They need to obtain consent from both parents and child before the research.

Quantitative methods- Questionnaires

Strengths of Questionnaires:

Hypothesis Testing

Questionnaires are particularly useful for testing hypotheses about cause and effect relationships between different variables, because the fact that they are quantifiable allows us to find correlations.

For example, based on government statistics on educational achievement we know that white boys on Free School Meals achieve at a significantly lower level than Chinese girls on Free School Meals.

Representativeness

Questionnaires allow the researcher to collect information from a large number of people, so the results should be more representative of the wider population than with more qualitative methods. However, this all depends on appropriate sampling techniques being used and the researchers having knowledge of how actually completes the questionnaire.

Reliability

Questionnaires are generally seen as one of the more reliable methods of data collection – if repeated by another researcher, then they should give similar results. There are two main reasons for this:

When the research is repeated, it is easy to use the exact same questionnaire meaning the respondents are asked the exact same questions in the same order and they have the same choice of answers.

With self-completion questions, especially those sent by post, there is no researcher present to influence the results.

The reliability of questionnaires means that if we do find differences in answers, then we can be reasonably certain that this is because the opinions of the respondents have changed over time..

Practical Advantages

Questionnaires are a quick and cheap means of gathering large amounts of data from large numbers of people, even if they are widely dispersed geographically if the questionnaire is sent by post or conducted online. It is difficult to see how any other research method could provide 10s of millions of responses as is the case with the UK national census.

With self-completion questionnaires there is no need to recruit and train interviewers, which reduces cost.

The data is quick to analyse once it has been collected. With online questionnaires, pre-coded questions can be updated live



Often preferred by
Positivists. They seek
reliable and
representative data!

Quantitative methods - Questionnaires

Limitations of Questionnaires:



Firstly there is the imposition problem – When the researcher chooses the questions, they are deciding what is important rather than the respondent, and with closed ended questions the respondent has to fit their answers into what's on offer. The result is that the respondent may not be able to express themselves in the way that want to. The structure of the questionnaire thus distorts the respondents' meanings and undermines the validity of the data

Secondly, the detached nature of questionnaires and the **lack of close contact** between researcher and respondent means that there is no way to guarantee that the respondents are interpreting the questions in the same way as the researcher. This is especially true where very complex topics are involved – If I tick 'yes' that I am Christian' – this could mean a range of things – from my being baptised but not practising or really believing to being a devout Fundamentalist. For this reason Interpretivists typically prefer qualitative methods where researchers are present to clarify meanings and probe deeper.

Thirdly, researchers may not be present to check whether respondents are giving **socially desirable answers**, or simply lying, or even to check who is actually completing the questionnaire.

Issues affecting representativeness

Postal questionnaires in particular can suffer from a low response rate. For example, Shere Hite's (1991) study of 'love, passion, and emotional violence' in the America sent out 100, 000 questionnaires but only 4.5% of them were returned.

All self-completion questionnaires also suffer from the problem of a self-selecting sample which makes the research unrepresentative – certain types of people are more likely to complete questionnaires – literate people for example, people with plenty of time, or people who get a positive sense of self-esteem when completing questionnaires.

Practical Problems with Questionnaires

The fact that questionnaires need to be brief means you can only ever get relatively superficial data from them, thus for many topics, they will need to be combined with more qualitative methods to achieve more insight.

Although questionnaires are a relatively cheap form of gathering data, it might be necessary to offer incentives for people to return them.

Qualitative methods - Observations

Often preferred by Interpretivists. They seek valid data!

Strengths

- Validity - produces rich qualitative data which shows picture of how people really live. Researcher can see for themselves.
- Insight - Allows researcher to gain empathy through personal experience. By acting as a member can get insight into their meanings, view points, values and problems - gives authentic data
- Flexibility - more flexible and allows for an open mind. Researcher can follow up different directions/ideas if something interesting occurs - Whyte - 'learned answers to questions i wouldn't have had the sense to ask'
- Practical advantages - Access to more suspicious groups as can gain rapport and trust - helpful when studying groups like gangs. Also useful to use where questioning ineffective - Cicourel - study of how police categories juveniles through unconscious assumptions it would be pointless questioning them



Participant

observation: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OGXdorYr4Bg>

Limitations

- Covert participation observation raises serious ethical difficulties - deceiving people to gain info on them is wrong - or participating in illegal/immoral activity in the course of research.
- May lack validity in covert research. If the participant understands the true nature of the research, they may act differently. This is known as the Hawthorne Effect
- Practical disadvantages - very time consuming - Whyte's study took him 4 years to complete, need a trained researcher to recognise specific details, can be very demanding and stressful especially if done covertly
- Representativeness - small sample sizes as time consuming so hard to generalize from data
- Bias - risk of getting involved and therefore giving biased data, may begin to sympathise with the group so give biased data - Willis giving romanticized view of the lads to show them more positively

TASK 1: Complete the following tasks. Use headings and sub-headings to structure your work appropriately.

Task: Using everything you've learnt so far, explain reasons why you would use both questionnaires and observations to investigate the below aim.

AIM: To investigate racism in schools

- a). Why are questionnaires useful when investigating racism in schools?
- b). Why are observations useful when investigating racism in schools?

Address the top aim and both questions. Explain your reason by using the strength of the research methods and think about where the researcher can conduct their investigation using this method e.g. classrooms, playground etc. You also need to include practical, ethical and theoretical arguments.

Each explanation should be a paragraph long (5 sentences appx.)

Challenge yourself: explain both sides of the arguments – strengths and limitations of using each method to investigate racism.

If you think of yourself as the researcher conducting this investigation, it will help you bring out your sociological imagination and help you complete this task.

WELL DONE!

You've now finished Section D "Research Methods "

WELL DONE!

**Please can you ensure that
your name is on the
document / documents you
upload/submit.**



You've now finished the Sociology A Level Transition work. If you've enjoyed this and want to know more, you should do Sociology A Level! Here's some suggested readings and videos if you want to look up more.

Reading List - Sociology

- Brave New World – Aldous Huxley
- Animal Farm – George Orwell
- 1984 – George Orwell
- Chavs: The Demonisation of the Working Class – Owen Jones
- The Establishment and How They Get Away With It – Owen Jones
- The Handmaid's Tale – Margaret Atwood (also a series)
- Vox – Christina Dalcher
- The God Delusion – Richard Dawkins
- Outsiders: Studies in Sociology of Deviance – Howard S Becker
- Folk Devils and Moral Panics – Stanley Cohen
- A Glasgow Gang Observed – Patrick James
- Gang Leader For A Day – Sudhir Venkatesh
- Haralambos
- A wide range of newspapers including The Guardian and Independent

Watching List - Sociology

- Any documentaries, including Panorama, Louis Theroux, Stacey Dooley, Mind of a Murderer etc
- Black Mirror series (Netflix)
- Years and Years (BBC i-player)
- When They See Us Netflix series)
- The Godfather (part 2 is the best)
- Legend
- Deep Water Horizon Movie
- Freedom Writers Movie
- My Scientology Movie
- The 'Up' series (eg. 56 Up, 63 Up) on Netflix or Youtube
- The Secret Life of 5 year olds
- McMafia (previously BBC i-player)
- Freedom Writer's Diary
- Dangerous Minds
- Chernobyl (drama)
- The Society (Netflix)
- Blood Diamond
- A Bug's Life or Antz (for Marxism)
- Ted Talks/Sociology