

# 1. SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH

## AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

A. WHAT IS SOCIOLOGY?	
<b>Sociology</b>	The study of the development, structure and functioning of human society
<b>Norms</b>	Behaviour that is accepted as "normal" in a society
<b>Values</b>	Ideas which are considered important in a society
<b>Culture</b>	The shared norms, values and language of a particular group in a society
<b>Socialisation</b>	The process of learning the norms, values and culture of a society
<b>Primary Socialisation</b>	A child learning basic norms and values in early childhood
<b>Secondary Socialisation</b>	Learning society's norms and values outside of the family
<b>Gender Socialisation</b>	Learning of behaviours as appropriate for different genders in society
<b>Agents of Socialisation</b>	Groups who teach norms and values, e.g. family, mass media
<b>Social Control</b>	The way behaviour is managed through positive and negative sanctions
<b>Agents of Social Control</b>	Groups who manage and control behaviour, e.g. police, parents
<b>Anomie</b>	A "normless" society where they don't share norms and values

B. FUNCTIONALISM	
<b>Functionalist</b>	Sociologists who look at how and why society works as it does
<b>Social Cohesion</b>	People have shared norms and values, creating a united society
<b>Value Consensus</b>	Everyone in society agrees on the same values
<b>Organic Analogy</b>	The idea that society is like a human body. Structures are like organs, all must work for society to function
<b>Criticisms</b>	1. Ignore negative impacts of society on individuals 2. Ignore different experiences of social groups, e.g. CAGE

C. MARXISM	
<b>Marxist</b>	Sociologists who look at social class inequality in society
<b>Proletariat</b>	The lower social class who sell their labour to the bourgeoisie
<b>Bourgeoisie</b>	The highest, ruling class who own the means of production and control society. They exploit the proletariat for profit
<b>Capitalism</b>	A social system where people own companies and try to make profit
<b>Communism</b>	A social system where the government (state) owns everything and shares it equally between the people
<b>Social Class Inequality</b>	The Marxist idea that the bourgeoisie always benefit from social structures and the proletariat always suffer
<b>Criticisms</b>	1. Out of date, we now have four social classes 2. Ignores other social strata, e.g. CAGE

D. FEMINISM	
<b>Feminism</b>	Sociologists who look at gender inequality in society
<b>Patriarchy</b>	The idea that society is controlled by and benefits men
<b>Marxist Feminist</b>	Believe women are oppressed due to Capitalism
<b>Radical Feminist</b>	Believe women are oppressed due to the patriarchy in society and can be very extreme in views
<b>Liberal Feminist</b>	Believe women are oppressed due to socialisation and laws
<b>Criticisms</b>	1. Ignore that women have different experiences of society dependent on their class, age and ethnicity (CAGE) 2. Ignore progress that has been made since the feminist movement in the 20 <sup>th</sup> Century

E. INTERACTIONISM	
<b>Interactionist</b>	Sociologists who look at individual actions to explain social behaviour
<b>Labelling</b>	Giving someone a label can affect their behaviour as they're treated according to that label
<b>Self-fulfilling Prophecy</b>	The idea that labelling can lead to a person fulfilling this label
<b>Free will</b>	The idea that people can choose how to behave and aren't restricted by social structures

F. WEBER	
<b>Status</b>	The amount of prestige an individual has. It can be ascribed (inherited) or achieved (worked for)
<b>Power</b>	Ability to make people do things for you through force or persuasion
<b>Stratification</b>	The way society is divided into groups (class, age, gender, ethnicity - CAGE)
<b>Weber's Four Social Classes</b>	1. Ruling class 2. White-collar workers 3. Petty bourgeoisie 4. Manual working class

G. TYPES OF SOCIOLOGISTS	
<b>Structural Theory</b>	A theory which believes social structures (family, education, CJS) control behaviour in society, e.g. Marxists, Functionalists, Feminists
<b>Action Theory</b>	A theory which believes the behaviour of an individual is determined by their own actions, e.g. Interactionist

# 2. RESEARCH METHODS

## AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

A. RESEARCH DESIGN	
<b>Hypothesis</b>	A prediction of what will happen in the study
<b>Literature Review</b>	Reading other sociological studies on similar topic to help identify the aim of your research
<b>Pilot Study</b>	A small-scale version done before the real study to identify any issues, e.g. language in questionnaires
<b>Sampling</b>	When they can't study the whole group so a "sample" is chosen to be studied to represent this group
<b>Data Analysis</b>	Where sociologists analyse their data to identify trends and explanations
<b>Peer Review</b>	Where research is evaluated by other sociologists before publication

B. TYPES OF RESEARCH	
<b>Positivist</b>	Believe society should be studied like a science. Favours quantitative data to prove or disprove hypotheses
<b>Interpretivist</b>	Believe society should be studied by trying to gain understanding of individual decisions. Favours qualitative data to get understanding of individuals
<b>Mixed Methods</b>	Using both qualitative and quantitative data in one project
<b>Triangulation</b>	Process used to cross-check qualitative findings with quantitative findings
<b>Longitudinal Studies</b>	Studies which look at change over time by following a cohort (group) at intervals in life

C. PRIMARY DATA METHODS	
<b>Questionnaires</b>	1. Postal      2. Self-complete      3. Online
<b>Interviews</b>	1. Structured (set list of questions) 2. Unstructured (discussion of ideas) 3. Group (more than one participant at a time)
<b>Observations</b>	Overt (open) <b>OR</b> covert (under-cover) Non-Participant (watching) <b>OR</b> Participant (joining in)

D. SECONDARY DATA METHODS	
<b>Official Statistics</b>	Quantitative data. Government based statistics, covering whole populations, e.g. Census, crime statistics
<b>Non-official Statistics</b>	Quantitative data. Non-government based statistics gathered by large organisations, e.g. British Cohort Study (1970) by the Institute of Education
<b>Content Analysis</b>	Analysing qualitative data by categorising information from newspapers, photographs blogs, letters

E. SAMPLING	
<b>Representative</b>	The extent to which data from a sample can be generalised to the larger study group
<b>Random</b>	Randomly choosing a sample
<b>Systematic</b>	Using a system to choose a sample, e.g. every 5 <sup>th</sup> name on a list
<b>Stratified</b>	Dividing sample into groups and selecting a percentage from each group
<b>Snowball</b>	Asking one person and getting them to introduce you to more similar people

F. TYPES OF DATA	
<b>Primary</b>	Data collected by the researcher themselves
<b>Secondary</b>	Data collected for another purpose by another group
<b>Quantitative</b>	Data based on numerical data
<b>Qualitative</b>	Data based on images, words and ideas

G. RESEARCH ISSUES	
<b>Practical</b>	Time, cost, access to groups
<b>Ethical</b>	Consent, confidentiality and harm
<b>Reliable</b>	Reliable data is data the would be collected by another person and achieve the same results
<b>Valid (accurate)</b>	Valid data is data that is factually true

H. ETHICAL ISSUES	
<b>Ethical Issues</b>	Whether something is morally right or wrong
<b>Informed Consent</b>	Participants must agree (consent) to the study with full understanding of its aims
<b>Confidentiality</b>	Participant names and details will not be shared when report is published
<b>Harm (Psychological or Physical)</b>	Participants must not become distressed (upset) by your study or face any physical harm

### 3. FAMILIES

#### AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

A. WHAT IS A FAMILY?	
<b>Household</b>	A person or group of people living in a house
<b>Nuclear</b>	A family with a mother, father and children. Most common family type in UK
<b>Extended</b>	Families with more than just nuclear members, e.g. grandparents, cousins
<b>Reconstituted</b>	A family created when two divorcees, marry and join families creating a step-family
<b>Lone-parent</b>	A family with only one parent. 90% of these are headed by women in 2015
<b>Single-sex</b>	Family with parents of the same sex

B. FAMILY DIVERSITY	
<b>Kibbutz</b>	A group who live together communally, e.g. 2% of Israel live in Kibbutz
<b>Commune</b>	Group who share accommodation, possessions, wealth and property, based on shared political beliefs
<b>Government Policies</b>	China's one child policy affecting birth rate and family shape
<b>Rapoport and Rapoport (1982)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Organisational</b> The way conjugal roles are divided</li> <li><b>Cultural</b> Cultures have different lifestyles and gender roles</li> <li><b>Life Course</b> People live in different families at different stages in life</li> <li><b>Cohort</b> Time period baby-boomers different views to millennials</li> <li><b>Social Class</b> Working class more likely to be authoritarian</li> </ol>
<b>Five Types of Family Diversity</b>	

C. FUNCTIONS OF THE FAMILY	
<b>Murdock 's Four Functions (1949)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sexual</li> <li>Reproductive</li> <li>Educational</li> <li>Economic</li> </ol>
<b>Parsons' Two Functions (1956)</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Primary Socialisation</li> <li>Stablisation of adult personalities</li> </ol>
<b>Criticisms</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ignores family diversity</li> <li>Ignores negative effects of family life, e.g. domestic violence</li> </ol>
<b>Marxists</b>	Believe family is a structure which maintains social class inequality and benefits capitalism
<b>Zaretsky (1976)</b>	Separating genders has allowed for families to benefit from capitalism
<b>Criticisms</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ignore that people are happy in families</li> <li>Ignore family diversity</li> </ol>
<b>Feminists</b>	Believe family is a structure which maintains gender inequality and benefits men
<b>Delphy and Leonard (1992)</b>	Women are exploited in family for free labour, this is continued through gender socialisation and canalisation
<b>Canalisation</b>	Channelling children's interests in toys, games and activities considered appropriate for their gender
<b>Criticisms</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Ignore families with shared power</li> <li>Ignore class and ethnic group differences</li> </ol>

D. CONJUGAL ROLE RELATIONSHIPS	
<b>Conjugal Roles</b>	Roles within a marriage / relationship
<b>Instrumental Role / Breadwinner</b>	Traditionally male role to provide for the family by working to earn money
<b>Expressive Role / Home-maker</b>	Traditionally female role looking after home & child
<b>Domestic Division of Labour</b>	How a couple choose to divide up household jobs (decisions, cleaning)
<b>Dual Career Families</b>	Families with two parents who work and earn money
<b>Child Rearing</b>	Bringing up children
E. CONJUGAL ROLE STUDIES	
<b>Young and Wilmott (Functionalist)</b>	Believe the "symmetrical" family had become typical
<b>Symmetrical Family</b>	Family where roles of parents are more equal, and decisions are shared
<b>Principle of Stratified Diffusion</b>	Social change (new values) starts at top social classes (middle class) and filter through to working class.
<b>Criticisms</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Men make biggest decisions</li> <li>Women have double-burden (work and children)</li> <li>Study considered washing up once a week as "helpful in home"</li> </ol>
<b>Oakley (1982)</b>	Conventional nuclear family is based on traditional gender roles and puts strain on women and limits their money
<b>Criticisms</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Oakley based her study on interviews with London housewives</li> <li>Oakley ignores satisfaction with family by women</li> </ol>

F. PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS	
<b>Authoritative Relationships</b>	Relationships often held by working class. Children expected to do as they're told, and their opinions are less important
<b>Democratic Relationships</b>	Relationships often held by middle-class families, children's opinions are valued and involved in decision making
<b>Child-centred</b>	Families investing in their children as there's a low infant-mortality rate
<b>Pester Power</b>	The power children have to make their parents give into something
<b>Extension of Childhood</b>	Children are increasingly dependent on parents financially as they are being "protected" by laws

G. REASONS FOR DIVORCE PATTERNS	
<b>Legal Changes</b>	Divorce Reform Act -1971 Legal aid made more difficult since 2013
<b>Changing Attitudes and Values</b>	More liberal attitudes since 1960s, famous figures reducing stigma
<b>Secularisation</b>	Less religious influence = less pressure to stay married
<b>Changing Status of Women</b>	Financially dependent women are less likely to stay in empty-shell marriages
<b>Media Influence</b>	Represent marriage as "perfect", people divorce when this doesn't happen

H. IMPACTS OF DIVORCE	
<b>Structure</b>	New family relationships
<b>Distress</b>	Relationship breakdown
<b>Finances</b>	Less income = more stress
<b>Remarriage</b>	More reconstituted families

# 4. EDUCATION

## AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

1. PURPOSE OF EDUCATION		
Functionalism	<b>Four Functions (Durkheim)</b>	1. Serving Economy 2. Social Mobility 3. Social Cohesion 4. Role Allocation
	<b>Parson's Bridge</b>	Parsons says education is a bridge between the family and the rest of society
	<b>Universalistic Values</b>	In school children are treated according to the same standards as everyone else, unlike at home
Marxist	<b>Four Functions</b>	1. Serves ruling class 2. Reproduces class inequality 3. Creates competition 4. Socialisation
	<b>Correspondence Principle</b>	Bowles and Gintis' idea that expectations in school and workplace correspond (are linked) to prepare students for work

2. CHANGES IN EDUCATION	
<b>Independent Schools</b>	Fee paying private and public schools, attended by 7% of population. Often selective in students
<b>State Schools</b>	Non fee-paying non-selective schools with more diversity
<b>Tripartite System</b>	1944 – where students sat the 11+ exam and were allocated a school based on results
<b>Comprehensive Education</b>	1960s – students attend their closest comprehensive school
<b>Alternative Education</b>	Instead of going to school, some students have home tuition. This is becoming increasingly popular (deschooling)
<b>1988 Education Reform Act</b>	Introduced: 1. Core subjects 2. GCSEs 3. OFSTED 4. League tables
<b>Marketisation of Education</b>	A market where parents could choose where to send their children to school based on league tables

3. CLASS AND ACHIEVEMENT		
External (home) factors	<b>Material deprivation</b>	Lack of money meaning students lack resources and private tuition for success
	<b>Parental Values</b>	Idea that working class have fatalistic attitudes from parents that they'll not be successful, so shouldn't try
	<b>Cultural Deprivation</b>	Idea that working class students lack the home environment and experiences for success
	<b>Cultural Capital</b>	Middle-class parents have better knowledge of education system and take advantage
Internal (school) factors	<b>Setting</b>	When students are put in different classes based on their perceived ability in subject
	<b>Streaming</b>	When students are put in a class based on their general ability for all subjects
	<b>Labelling</b>	Interactionist idea that students are given a label by teachers and this affects their behaviour and therefore students' results
	<b>Pupil Subcultures</b>	A group who oppose school values as a result of being labelled as failures in education

7. SOCIOLOGICAL STUDIES	
<b>Ball (1981)</b>	Participant observation study in south-coast comprehensive school comparing mixed ability classes and one in bands
<b>Ball et al. (1994)</b>	A study of 15 LEA (areas) comparing the impact of parent choice in schooling across the LEAs with different ethnicities and classes
<b>Bowles and Gintis (1976)</b>	(Marxist) Argues the role of education is to support capitalism. The correlation between school and work makes obedient workers
<b>Durkheim (1925)</b>	(Functionalist) Education transmits societies norms and values and create social solidarity
<b>Halsey et al. (1980)</b>	Fond evidence of social class inequalities in education (11x less likely to go to university), but only studied boys based on father's jobs
<b>Parsons (1961)</b>	(Functionalist) Education functions to act as a bridge between the family and society
<b>Willis (1977)</b>	(Marxist) Studied a group of working class boys who created a anti-school subculture and argued that rejecting school leads to working class jobs

4. ETHNICITY AND ACHIEVEMENT		
External (home) factors	<b>Material Deprivation</b>	More likely to face material deprivation than white peers (especially Bangladeshi & Black Caribbean)
	<b>Parental Values</b>	Different cultures place different emphasis on education, e.g. Chinese
	<b>Cultural Capital</b>	Parents from outside UK might find it hard to take advantage of system
Internal (school) factors	<b>School Type</b>	More likely to attend state school
	<b>Labelling</b>	Teacher labelling according to ethnic group stereotypes can have an affect
	<b>Ethno-centric Curriculum</b>	Curriculum covers white culture, so ethnic minorities may feel less valued
	<b>Institutional Racism</b>	Relatively high rate of fixed-term exclusion of Black-Caribbean students

5. GENDER AND ACHIEVEMENT		
Girls Improvements	<b>Feminism</b>	Since the 1960s Feminist movement, girls see education as a route to success and independence
	<b>Law Changes</b>	Equal Opportunities and Sex Discrimination Act have motivated girls to show them success
	<b>National Curriculum</b>	Students can no longer opt out of core subjects, giving girls and boys equal opportunities
Boys Underachievement	<b>Feminisation of Education</b>	Lack of role models in primary school to reduce "laddish" behaviour
	<b>Crisis of Masculinity</b>	The idea of a what a man "is" has changed in society leading to a lack of motivation in education
	<b>Teacher Expectations</b>	The idea that some teachers have lower expectations of boys, leading to a self-fulfilling prophecy
	<b>"Laddish" Subcultures</b>	Subcultures which see working hard as "uncool"

6. ANTI-SCHOOL SUBCULTURES	
<b>Subculture</b>	A smaller group within a group whose norms and values differ from mainstream society.
<b>Counter-school Subculture</b>	A subculture described by Willis which valued masculinity and viewed "ear'oles" as "cissy" for doing school work
<b>Lads</b>	The subculture who ended up in working class jobs after leaving school as a result of their counter-school subculture

# 5. CRIME AND DEVIANCE

## AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

A. MEASURING CRIME	
<b>Victim Surveys</b>	Survey asking if people have been victims of crime
<b>Self-Report Surveys</b>	Surveys asking people whether they have committed crime
<b>Dark Figure of Crime</b>	Crimes not in the official statistics
<b>British Crime Survey</b>	A yearly study about crime patterns

B. FUNCTIONALISM & CRIME	
<b>Anomie</b>	When society breaks down and there is normlessness
<b>Social Cohesion</b>	Social unity, which gives a sense of belonging to society
<b>Boundary Maintenance</b>	Durkheim's idea that crime reminds people not to cross boundaries of society
<b>Strain Theory</b>	The pressure society puts on people to achieve culturally defined goals, e.g. the "American Dream"

C. STRAIN AND CRIME	
<b>Culturally Defined Goals</b>	Goals are determined by the values within culture, e.g. economic success
<b>Response One: Conformity</b>	Individual accepts the goals of success and can achieve it
<b>Response Two: Innovation</b>	Individual accepts the goals of success but they lack opportunities to succeed through legal means so turn to crime
<b>Response Three: Ritualism</b>	Individual makes their own easier goals but they accept legitimate means rigidly
<b>Response Four: Retreatism</b>	Individual rejects the goals of success and they reject legitimate means to achieve it, e.g. "drop-outs"
<b>Response Five: Rebellion</b>	Individual rejects the conventional goals of success and the means to achieve them, and replace them with alternative goals and means

D. MEDIA AND CRIME	
<b>Deviancy Amplification</b>	Mentioning behaviour draws attention to it, making it seem as if it has been amplified (there is more of it)
<b>Moral Panic</b>	When the media exaggerate an issue or group causing panic
<b>Folk Devil</b>	Group identified as threat to society

E. MARXISM ON CRIME	
<b>Materialism</b>	Belief in the value of possessions and physical comfort, e.g. cars, houses
<b>Consumerism</b>	The need to buy products
<b>Reasons for More Working Class in Prison</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Blue collar crimes are easier to see</li> <li>2. Victims to pity = longer sentences</li> <li>3. Cost of lawyers</li> </ol>

F. CRIME AND SOCIAL CLASS	
<b>White Collar Crime</b>	A crime requiring a high social status to commit, e.g. embezzlement
<b>Corporate Crime</b>	Crimes committed by a company, e.g. Tesco horsemeat scandal
<b>Blue Collar Crime</b>	Physical crimes against an individual by an individual, often by working class
<b>Cohen</b>	Sociologist who argued working class boys rejected middle class culture to form delinquent subcultures
<b>Status Frustration</b>	The idea that working class boys try and fail to achieve middle class success and become frustrated with their status

G. INTERACTIONISM & CRIME	
<b>Becker</b>	Interactionist who says labelling leads to criminal and deviant behaviour
<b>Deviant Career</b>	The process by which individuals come to see themselves as deviant
<b>Labelling</b>	The process of attaching a characteristic or definition to a person or group, e.g. thief
<b>Master Status</b>	A status which overrides all of an individual's other status', e.g. "junkie" not "daughter"

H. ETHNICITY AND CRIME	
<b>Institutional Racism</b>	The way the organisations work is discriminating against an ethnic group (can be unintentional)
<b>Canteen Culture</b>	This is when lower ranks of the police force have racist, sexist and homophobic attitudes
<b>MacPherson Report (1999)</b>	Report into investigation on Stephen Lawrence murder finding the Metropolitan Police institutionally racist

I. AGE AND CRIME	
<b>Delinquency</b>	Offences and anti-social behaviour by young people
<b>Anti-Social Behaviour Order</b>	ASBO - Punishment given to teens, but often seen as status symbol. Cancelled in 2014

J. FEMINISM & CRIME	
<b>Control Theory</b>	Heidensonhn's theory that women commit less crime because their behaviour is controlled at work, home and in public
<b>Double Deviancy Thesis</b>	The idea women are treated more harshly because they break laws, and social norms (unfeminine)
<b>Chivalry Thesis</b>	The CJS treat females more leniently as they feel females need protecting
<b>Carlen</b>	Sociologist who carried out unstructured, taped interviews of 39 female offenders
<b>Class Deals</b>	The class deal offers them material rewards such as consumer goods if they work for a wage
<b>Gender Deals</b>	The gender deal offers them material and emotional rewards if they live with a husband

K. GENDER AND CRIME	
<b>Gender Socialisation</b>	Learning to behave according to their gender, e.g. socially acceptable behaviour for boys and girls
<b>Lack of Opportunity</b>	No chance to actually commit a crime
<b>Bedroom Culture</b>	Girls being supervised by their parents and spend a lot of time indoors, reducing their opportunity to commit crime
<b>Ladette</b>	Young women having more "laddish" behaviour

# 6. Social Stratification

## AQA GCSE SOCIOLOGY (9-1)

A. WHAT IS STRATIFICATION?	
<b>Social Stratification</b>	The way that society is divided into layers (strata)
<b>Ascribed status</b>	Status is given at birth, e.g. royal titles
<b>Achieved status</b>	Status is earned based on hard work
<b>Three Examples of Social Stratification</b>	1. Caste System in traditional India 2. Feudalism in Medieval Europe 3. Social Class in the UK
<b>Social Mobility</b>	The ability to move up or down the social strata
<b>Closed System</b>	No social mobility
<b>Open System</b>	Ability to move social strata
<b>Davis and Moore (1945)</b>	Stratification is necessary to fill most functionally important jobs with talented people

2. SOCIAL CLASS	
<b>Karl Marx</b>	Identified two main social classes; bourgeoisie and proletariat
<b>False Class Consciousness</b>	When proletariat are unaware that they're being exploited
<b>Lumpen-proletariat</b>	Drop-outs and criminals of society
<b>Weber's Four Social Classes</b>	1. Property Owners 2. Professionals 3. Petty Bourgeoisie 4. Working Class
<b>Market Situations (Weber)</b>	The idea that different social classes have different life chances as a result of the labour market
<b>Status vs Class (Weber)</b>	Status (power) and class (wealth) are different as people can have status without being property owners, e.g. aristocrats

3. LIFE CHANCES		
<b>Life Chances</b>		People's chance of having positive or negative outcomes in their life, e.g. education, employment, health, housing
<b>Gender</b>	<b>Glass Ceiling</b>	Invisible barrier to promotion for women
	<b>Sex Discrimination Act 2010</b>	1975. Made it illegal to discriminate based on sex and marital status
<b>Ethnicity</b>	<b>Institutional Racism</b>	The idea that an institution or company disadvantages ethnic minorities
	<b>Race Relations Act 2010</b>	Made it illegal to discriminate based on ethnicity
<b>Age</b>	<b>Ageism</b>	Age discrimination
	<b>Equality Act (2010)</b>	Protecting against age discrimination at work and access to services
<b>Other</b>		Life chances can also be affected by disability, sexuality, religion

4. AFFLUENT WORKERS		
<b>Em-bourgeoisie Thesis (1950s)</b>		Affluent working class families become middle-class in norms and values
<b>Devine (1992) Revisited</b>		Criticised Goldthorpe's (1969) Luton study. Interview 62 people; found working class lifestyles hadn't changed much
<b>Inter-generational Mobility</b>		Movement between the generations of a family when a child has a different social class to parents
<b>Intra-generational Mobility</b>		Movement of an individual between social classes over their lifetime, e.g. through promotion

5. WEALTH, INCOME AND POVERTY	
<b>Wealth</b>	Ownership of assets, e.g. houses and land
<b>Income</b>	Flow of resources received annually/monthly
<b>Absolute Poverty</b>	When their income is insufficient to obtain the minimum to survive
<b>Relative Poverty</b>	When income is well below average so they are poor relative to society
<b>Social Exclusion</b>	When people are shut out from every day activities
<b>Low Incomes</b>	Below 60% of the median after housing costs
<b>Subjective Poverty</b>	Based on whether people see themselves as in poverty
<b>Environmental Poverty</b>	Measuring deprivation in terms of conditions such as adequate housing and air pollution
<b>Townsend (1979)</b>	Created a deprivation index including 12 items to measure relative deprivation and found 23% of the UK population lived in poverty

6. EXPLANATIONS OF POVERTY	
<b>Cycle of Deprivation</b>	Idea that people are "trapped" in poverty as they develop values which stop them from being free
<b>Murray (1996) and the New Right</b>	UK's underclass is growing rapidly as a result of welfare reform taking away incentive to work
<b>Globalisation</b>	Global economic recession between 2008-2010 led to increased unemployment, and rising fuel and food prices.

7. POWER AND AUTHORITY	
<b>Power</b>	Is based on either coercion or authority
<b>Authority</b>	When people willingly agree to do something because they see it as right
<b>Coercion</b>	Threat or use of force to ensure people obey
<b>Traditional Authority</b>	Authority based on custom and tradition, e.g. monarchy in Britain
<b>Rational-legal authority</b>	Authority based on people following set laws or rules, and obeying those enforcing them
<b>Charismatic authority</b>	Obeying a leader who they believe have extraordinary qualities and inspire them
<b>Walby (1990) on power</b>	Six Patriarchal Structures: Paid employment, household, culture, sexuality, male violence against women, the state

7. POWER AND THE STATE	
<b>Democracy</b>	People vote for leaders Rational-legal authority
<b>Dictatorship</b>	Power in hands of dictator censoring media to benefit them
<b>Proportional Representation</b>	Seats allocated according to total number of votes for each party
<b>Pressure Groups</b>	Groups who lobby (influence) governments to make decisions
<b>Pluralist view on State Power</b>	Idea that no single group dominates decision making, state is neutral
<b>Conflict view on State Power</b>	Those in powerful positions come from certain groups and make decisions to benefit them
<b>Trade Union</b>	Organisation looking after the welfare and wellbeing of workers