

# Subject

# Knowledge

# Organiser



# SOCIOLOGY

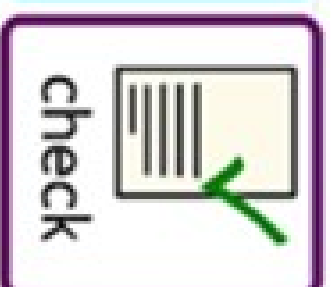
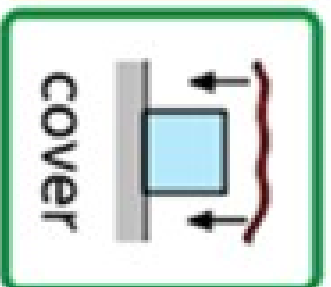
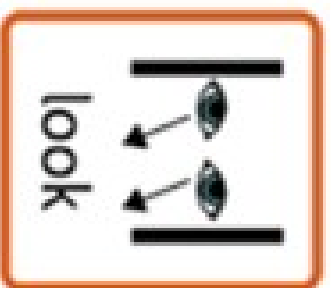
Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Year Group: **9**

**Semester 2**

## Subject Knowledge Organiser

Subject knowledge organisers have been created to help you learn a wide range of knowledge which will help you to prepare for the challenges of GCSE.



### At Home

In your Revisit and Practice Book (RAP), revise using 'Look, Cover, Write, Check'.

**LOOK:** Read the knowledge organiser.

**COVER:** Cover up the knowledge you have just read.

**WRITE:** Write the knowledge from your memory in your RAP Book.

**CHECK:** Finally, mark your work. Correct any mistakes.

You must bring your Revisit and Practice Book (RAP) to school **every day** and take it home every evening.



# GCSE Sociology Knowledge Organiser

2019-2022

## KEY SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

### WHAT IS SOCIOLOGY?

Sociology is the study of understanding and explaining what is going on in **society**.

Sociologists support their ideas with scientific, **empirical evidence**.

### SOCIETY

**Societies** are groups of people who all share a common territory or area and share aspects of a culture. Members of a society either directly or indirectly interact with one another.



### TYPES OF SOCIETIES

Societies can be categorised and organised in different ways across spaces and across time, for example they can be large or small, traditional or industrialised, or multicultural or culturally homogenous.



### SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Members of large societies will never directly interact with other but will indirectly interact through **institutions**. These are mechanisms or organisations which create order in society.



There are lots of different institutions which keep order in societies, but the main ones in sociology are family, education, economy, media, religion, and government.

### CULTURE

**Culture** is the shared way of life of a society. It can be transmitted (passed on) from one generation to another through **socialisation**.

It includes the **norms, values**, language, religion, art and fashions of a group of people.

A society can also be **multicultural**, meaning there are different cultures within one society, or they can be **culturally homogenous**, meaning that the society has one main, dominant culture.

Most advanced western countries are multicultural. For example, Britain is **multicultural** and **culturally diverse**, meaning there are lots of different cultures living in British society.



### NORMS AND DEVIANCE

**Norms** are behaviours that are acceptable in a society. It's what a society considers to be normal. Different cultures have different norms.



Norms which are very important society are usually written down. We refer to this as **law**.

Breaking the norms of society is called **deviance**.

### VALUES

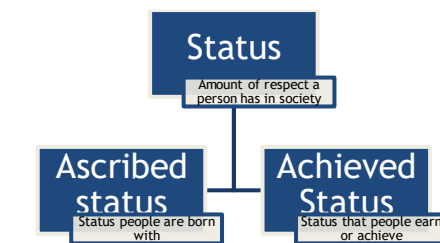
**Values** are things that a society considers worthwhile for working towards.



In Britain, values are centred around respecting and protecting laws which promote individual freedoms and beliefs

### STATUS

Status is the amount of respect or the position within a society that a person has. There are two types of status, ascribed or achieved:



Social identity can affect your ascribed status such as **gender, class and race**.

### ROLES

Roles are the parts we play in society. Each role has its own set of **norms** defining acceptable and unacceptable behaviour.



Sometimes there is **role conflict**, such as if a teacher must teach their own child. They both have different norms which will change the way the teacher will treat be in the classroom and the way they will be at home.

## KEY SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS

### IDENTITIES

Identities are how people see themselves in society.

Sociologists argue that identities are **socially constructed**, which means they are created and defined by societies.

Class	Mainly based on wealth
Gender	Mainly based on being masculine or feminine
Ethnicity	Mainly based on language and religion
National	Mainly based on which country someone is from

### SOCIAL CLASS

**Social class** refers to the way people have status and roles based on their wealth and/or occupation.



There are three main "traditional" classes in the UK, described in sociology: upper, middle and working (lower) class.

Each class has its own culture, and therefore norms, values, beliefs and worldviews.

### GENDER

**Gender** is the concept whereby society says certain norms are "masculine" or "feminine".



This is different to **biological sex**; usually determined by genitalia and chromosomes.

**Gender roles** are the expectations of males and females to conform to these norms.

**Gender role socialisation** is the idea that boys and girls are socialised to be masculine or feminine based on their biological sex.

### ETHNICITY

**Ethnicity** is the name for the group that a person identifies with, based on cultural factors such as religion, language, customs and way of life.



This is different to **race**, which refers solely to a person's physical appearance such as skin colour.

Sociologists nowadays focus on ethnicity instead of race, as race is a superficial categorisation.

### NATIONALITY

**Nationality** refers to feeling you belong to a particular nation or country, or an ethnic group that a nation is based around.



For example, the United Kingdom is a nation made up of 4 countries, England, Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales.

However, sometimes people may identify as a mixture of nationalities, even in the same country. Someone born in Wales for example may identify as British, but also as Welsh. There is also a separate Welsh language to English.

### CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Cultures change over time, and some cultures within society change more than others.

In 1960, Britain was a very different place. You could face the death penalty for some crimes, it was illegal to be gay and women had far less rights over their lives and their bodies.

It is hard to imagine that in 2020s Britain that any of these ideas would be introduced.

### CULTURAL DIVERSITY BETWEEN GROUPS

Norms and values can vary massively between cultural groups, even in the same country.

For example, some Muslim women whose families are from countries like Iran or Saudi Arabia may be encouraged in that culture to wear a hijab (headscarf).



Also, some Sikh men whose families are from Punjab in India might be encouraged by their culture to wear a turban in public.

This can create a clash of culture, for example, being required to wear a crash helmet in British culture could clash with wearing a turban.

### SUBCULTURES

**Subcultures** are groups (usually young people) which mostly follow the norms and values of mainstream society, but may have slightly different fashions and lifestyles, such as goths.

### CULTURAL DIVERSITY ACROSS THE WORLD

Culture is diverse (different) across the world, from norms of eating and fashions to family structures and languages.



### CULTURAL RELATIVISM

**Cultural relativism** is accepting that cultures are simply different, rather than just "weird" just because they don't do the same as you.



# PROCESSES OF CULTURAL TRANSMISSION

## SOCIALISATION AND IDENTITY

### NATURE-NURTURE DEBATE

In the social sciences, there is a debate about where peoples' behaviours come from.

The social sciences are subjects which look at people's social behaviours and include sociology (the study of society and social interactions) and psychology (the study of individuals' minds and their behaviours).



← Nature → Nurture

One side of the debate is **nature**, which argues that people's natural qualities, like their DNA affects their behaviour. Some psychologists agree more with this side.

The other side of the debate is **nurture**, which argues that most, if not all, of a person's behaviour is learned from the people and areas around them as they grow up. Most sociologists agree with the nurture side of the debate.

People who agree with nature say that no matter where and when you were born, you would pretty much be the same sort of person you are now.

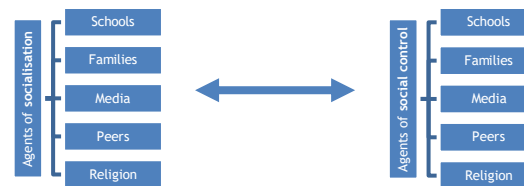
Nurture supporters say that who you are changes depending on where you were brought up.

### WHAT IS SOCIALISATION?

**Socialisation** is the process of learning the culture of a society. There is **primary socialisation** by families and **secondary socialisation** by schools, peers and the media.

**Agents of socialisation** are people and **institutions** which carry out the process of socialisation by **teaching norms**.

**Agents of social control** are people and institutions which **enforce norms**, these can sometimes be the same as agents of socialisation.



**Social control** is maintained through using **sanctions**. **Sanctions** are ways agents of social control make you conform through punishments and rewards. Control can be **formal** or **informal**

Formal control	Informal control
Based on the law	Based on norms
Exercised by police, courts & government	Exercised by families, schools & peers
Sanctions through fines and prison	Sanctions based on shame and ridicule

### PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOCIALISATION

**Primary socialisation** is a person's first stage of learning the culture of their family. This includes learning the norms, values and language of their family's culture.

**Secondary socialisation** teaches the wider culture of society through schools, media, peers and religion. Here you learn the norms, values and language needed to thrive and be successful.

### SOCIALISATION AND IDENTITY

Many aspects of a person's social identity are formed through the process of socialisation.

For example, children are socialised about the 'right' way to behave like a boy or a girl, such as giving children certain toys to play with, or dressing them up in certain colours.



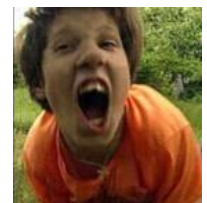
While they disagree on whether it is a positive or a negative thing, sociologists argue that all socially constructed identities are taught by the through socialisation, including ethnicity/class.

This means that ideas about gender, class and race are not fixed. They are different across the world and have been different throughout history. For example, documents from the early 1900s show that pink was considered a masculine colour! This norm only changed in the 1940s.

### FERAL CHILDREN

**Feral children** are examples of children who have either been neglected, **not been properly socialised**, or been raised by animals like dogs.

For example, Ukrainian girl **Oxana** Malaya was raised by dogs, and did not receive any socialisation by humans. She did not know common human behaviours like speaking, eating with cutlery or walking upright.



## SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE UK SINCE 1950

The end of World War Two in 1945 marked the beginning of a huge amount of social changes in Britain. This table shows the main ways British society has changed.

	1940s	1950s	1960s	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s	2010s
<b>Defining event</b>	World War Two	Elizabeth II's coronation.	First humans on the moon	Winter of Discontent	Thatcher elected as PM	End of the Cold War	Proliferation of internet	Brexit
<b>Social norms</b>	Acting and looking respectable and 'proper'	Acting and looking respectable and 'proper'	Being freer with mind and body, more fashion conscious and having fun	Being freer with mind and body, more fashion conscious and having fun	Spending more money on material things, showing off money	Spending more money on material things, showing off money	People spending much more time using digital technology	People spending much more time using digital technology
<b>Secularisation and religion</b>	Most people in the UK are Christian, and go to church	UK is around 80% Christian, most people go to church	UK is around 75% Christian, amount of people going to church drops	UK is around 70% Christian, non-religious increasing	UK is around 65% Christian, non-religious people around 30%	UK is around 55% Christian, non-religious people around 40%	UK is around 45% Christian, non-religious people around 50%	UK is around 40% Christian, non-religious people around 50%
<b>Values and laws</b>	Make-do-and-mend, get on with things, keep traditions going	Make-do-and-mend, get on with things, keep traditions going	Homosexuality decriminalised, easier divorce, comprehensive schools	Equal pay and rights for women, greater demands for an equal society	Individualism becoming more popular than egalitarianism	Desire for a fairer and more rewarding society	Equality Act 2006 - protections for minorities, Civil Partnerships created	Ethical and eco-consciousness. Same-sex marriage allowed
<b>Economic changes</b>	Poor - lots of rationing. Welfare state.	Still poor at the start of the 1950s. Rationing until 1954	Much wealthier than 1960s, very low unemployment	Higher wages, but higher prices. Winter of Discontent.	High unemployment. Privatisation.	High government spending, big growth in wages	Wealthy until 2008 economic recession	Recession and austerity. Big drop in wages.
<b>GDP (in today's money)</b>	£8,615 (↑ 6%) (1949)	£8,665 (↑ 28%) (1959)	£11,578 (↑ 35%) (1969)	£15,694 (↑ 34%) (1979)	£19,912 (↑ 35%) (1989)	£26,761 (↑ 15%) (1999)	£31,553 (↑ 9%) (2009)	£34,865 (↑ 4%) (2019)
<b>Changes in technology</b>	Not much change - new technology focused on winning WW2	'Mod Cons' for the house, telephones more common.	Car ownership becoming more common. Contraceptive pill introduced	Recordable media - tapes changes how people use media	Digital computers much more common in workplaces	Mobile phones, game consoles and personal computers (PCs)	Fast broadband internet, smartphones created	Social media platforms created
<b>Changes in immigration</b>	Unrestricted immigration from Caribbean countries	Unrestricted immigration from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh	Increased immigration from Commonwealth countries	Immigration Act stops all unrestricted immigration	Nationality Act further restricts immigration for children of immigrants	Britain joins EU, allowing unrestricted immigration for EU citizens	Increase in immigrants from Eastern Europe after they join the EU	Decrease in immigrants from the EU after Brexit vote
<b>Feminism and gender equality</b>	Men expected to work or study, women expected to stay at home	Men expected to work or study, women expected to stay at home	Start of 2 <sup>nd</sup> wave feminism, women questioning their status and roles	Equal Pay Act 1970 and Sex Discrimination Act 1975	First female Prime Minister.	3 <sup>rd</sup> wave feminism	Increase in number of female MPs	Reduction in the wage gap between men and women

# SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE UK SINCE 1950

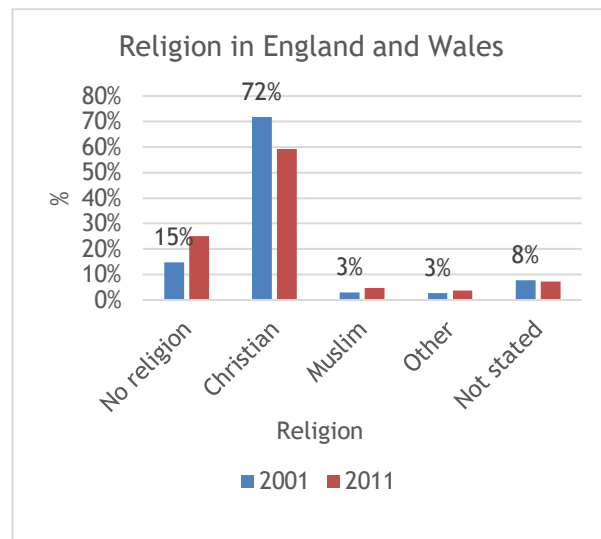
## SECULARISATION

Secularisation is when there is a reduction in religious belief, or the importance of religion in society.

Up to about 100 years ago, nearly every person in the UK would have been a Christian. Over the past 50 years, Britain has greatly secularised. This has led to a big increase with the amount of people who describe themselves as non-religious.

There are two main measures of secularisation that sociologists use. The first is official statistics collected by the census.

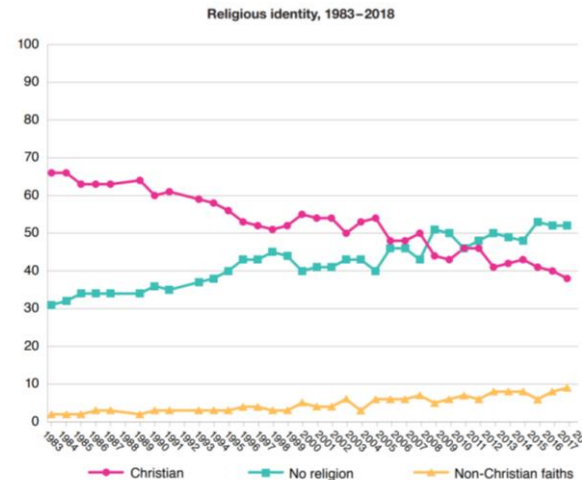
## CENSUS DATA AND SECULARISATION



Religion has only been asked on the census since 2001, but it does show that a decrease in Christians and an increase of Muslims, other religions and non-religious people.

## BRITISH SOCIAL ATTITUDES SURVEY (BSAS) DATA AND SECULARISATION

The second method used to measure religion is the BSAS. Unlike the census, the BSAS has collected data more regularly on religion, and since 1983. It also surveys people across the whole of Britain. This is what the BSAS shows.



The BSAS shows that there has been a long term decline in people identifying as Christian, and a long term increase in non-Christian religions and non-religious people. It suggests in 2018, that there are more non-religious people than Christians.

## ECONOMIC CHANGES

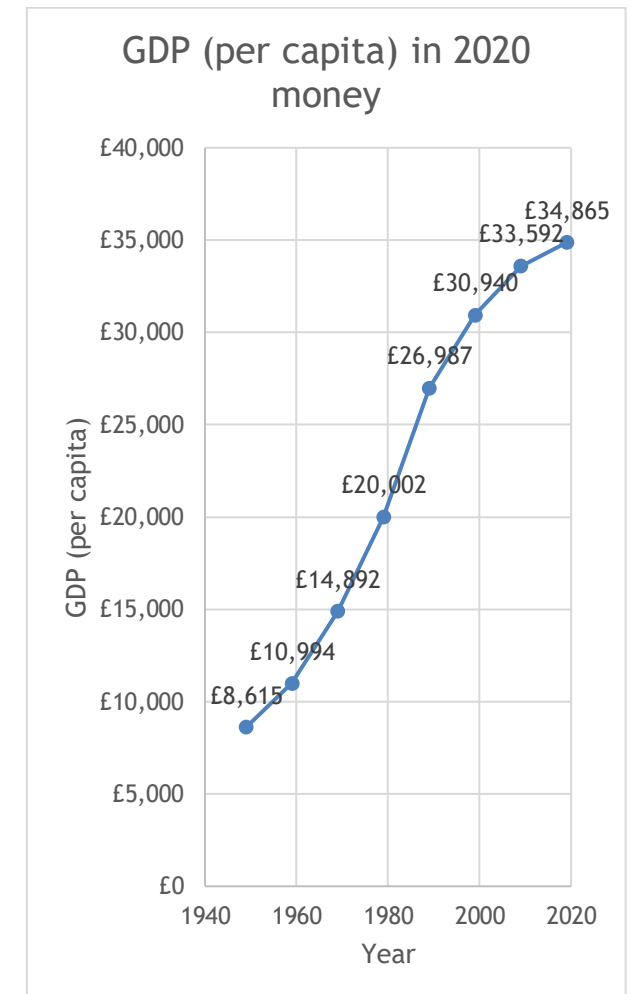
Simply put, the economy is the system of money which controls exchange of the goods, products, and services that people create.

Economic changes quite often affect the way society works, and vice versa. Some sociologists, such as Marxists, argue that that the whole of society reflects its economic base.

## GDP

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the way which a societies' economies are mainly measured. GDP is effectively the amount of wealth created in a country. A type of GDP is GDP per capita, which divides the GDP total by the amount of people in that country.

Here is the how the UK's GDP (per capita) has changed, in today's money:





# SOCIAL CHANGE IN THE UK SINCE 1950

## IMMIGRATION

Immigration is when a person arrives in a country from another country. When a person immigrates to another country, they and their families will often keep aspects of their old culture with them. The levels of immigration can have a large effect on how a society can operate in many ways.



## THE BRITISH EMPIRE

British society has a complex relationship with immigration as it used to rule the British Empire which lasted from around 1600 until 1997. At its peak, the British Empire colonised a quarter of the world and its people - often without the permission of the people it ruled over.

All the areas on this map which are in red were ruled by the British Empire:



The last country to leave the British Empire was Hong Kong, which was handed to China in 1997. In 2020, due to problems with China's strict

control over Hong Kong, Britain will allow 2.6 million Hong Kongese people to live in the UK.

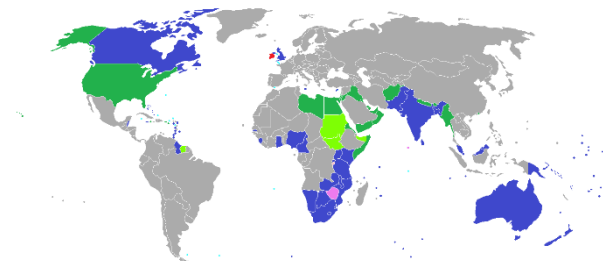
## THE COMMONWEALTH

When the British Empire began to end in 1949, the UK formed a loose club of countries called the Commonwealth of Nations with its old colonies.

At the end of World War Two, a law called the British Nationality Act was passed which allowed any of the 800 million Commonwealth citizens to live and work in the UK without any restriction.

This freedom was then stopped by the Commonwealth Immigrants Act 1962.

All the countries below are or have been members of the Commonwealth.



## THE EUROPEAN UNION

Until 2019, Britain was a member of the European Union. When the European Union was created in 1992, it allowed any citizen of any EU country to live and work in any

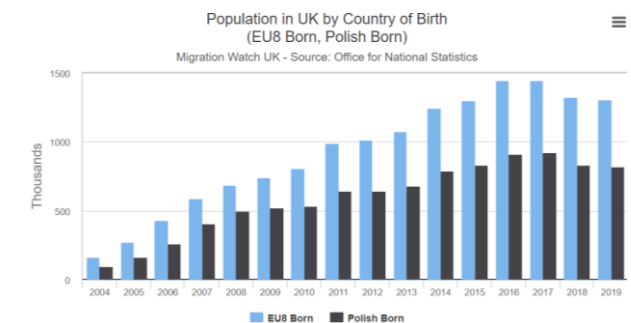
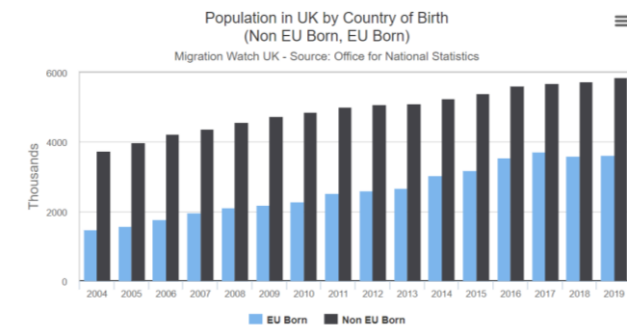


other EU country without restrictions.

The EU expanded in 2004 to include 8 Eastern European countries called the EU8. With the new freedom to live and work in the UK without restriction, there was an increase in migration to the UK by Eastern Europeans, especially those from Poland (see the graph).

This freedom will stop on January 1<sup>st</sup> 2021 when Britain fully leaves the EU.

## IMMIGRATION STATISTICS



ONS statistics show us that since 2004 immigration from the EU8 countries, particularly Poland has increased, but it is still smaller from immigration from non-EU countries.

## RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods are the ways in which sociologists carry out their research..

### TYPES OF DATA

Which method sociologists decide to use can change the data they gather, and their understanding of whatever they are researching.

### QUANTITATIVE DATA

Quantitative data is numerical and is therefore useful for mathematical/statistical analysis and to be presented graphically.

Some sociologists argue this is more objective (although statistics can be manipulated) and they deem it more scientific.

Other sociologists argue that this form of data is not able to give a deep, valid, or real picture of society. It can reveal trends and correlations, but it cannot reveal valid reasons for either.

### What is quantitative data? This bookcase...

- Is 3 feet tall
- Weighs 100 pounds
- Has 15 books on it
- Has 3 shelves
- Has 2 cabinets
- Sells for \$1500



### QUALITATIVE DATA

Qualitative data is normally non-numerical and is in the form of longer, written text.

Some sociologists argue it can include a great deal of detail and can explore motivations and emotions rather than just empirical descriptions and correlations.

Other sociologists argue it is difficult to analyse in a systematic or reliable way, is likely to be subjective and is unscientific.

### What is qualitative data? This bookcase...

- Is made of wood
- Was built in Italy
- Is deep brown
- Has golden knobs
- Smells like oak
- Has a smooth finish



### PRIMARY RESEARCH METHODS

Primary research methods are methods where the sociologist gathers the data themselves. Sociologists can be confident that data collected is up-to-date, relevant and specific to their research aims and objectives

### SURVEYS AND QUESTIONNAIRES

There are two main types of questionnaire - fixed response and open-ended.

Closed or fixed questionnaires ask a series of questions, but only allow coded answers. This means they only let the respondent to answer in a certain way - by for example providing several answers, e.g. a), b) or c), or yes/no answers.



Closed questions tend to create quantitative data.

Open-ended questions leave a small amount of space and allow the respondent to fill it in as they please.



Open-ended questions tend to create qualitative data.

Advantages	Limitations
They are generally quick and easy to complete.	Questionnaires can limit or distort the way respondents answer
If coded, answers can be fairly easily collected and analysed	Respondents can be influenced to answer in certain ways by the researcher or the questions.
A large amount of data can be collected fairly quickly.	If the questionnaire is a postal questionnaire, there can be a high level of people who decline to answer.
In general terms, questionnaires are relatively cheap - although not necessarily if it is a large project.	Questions may be interpreted by respondents in ways the researcher did not foresee or intend.
If sampled carefully, the data should be reliable and representative.	Lack validity as researcher chooses the questions

## INTERVIEWS

An interview is a researcher directly asking a series of questions to one or more interviewees.

They can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured and can be conducted in groups or with individuals.

Advantages	Limitations
A sociologist can gain a large amount of qualitative data and to avoid problems of low response rates.	The interviewee may give the answers that they think the interviewer wants to hear rather than be honest.

## STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

A structured interview is one where the interviewer sticks rigidly to a pre-written set of questions. It could have open or closed ended questions, or both.



Advantages	Limitations
Compared to questionnaires, there will be a high response rate and people are more likely to give honest responses.	Compared with other types of interview is that it is much less valid.
Compared with semi-structured or unstructured interviews they can be more reliable, as the exact same interview can be repeated.	Compared with a postal questionnaire, it is time-consuming and unlikely to be able to get as large a sample.

## UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

An unstructured interview is one without any pre-planned questions. Instead the interviewer might have some basic questions to guide a free-flowing discussion where interesting but unexpected responses can be recorded.



Advantages	Limitations
Produce qualitative data that is thought to offer deeper understanding and be high in validity	They are time consuming and require a skilled interviewer.
Interviewers can offer their subjects support and be sensitive in a way that isn't possible with a questionnaire	Some sociologists argue this method lacks reliability and is therefore unscientific and subjective.

## SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

A semi-structured interview is one where the interviewer does have a list of questions they want to ask, but they are happy to ask additional follow-up questions if they are required or to leave out questions if necessary.



## OBSERVATIONS

Advantages	Limitations
Produce qualitative data that is thought to offer deeper understanding and be high in validity	They are time consuming and require a skilled interviewer.
Interviewers can offer their subjects support and be sensitive in a way that isn't possible with a questionnaire	Some sociologists argue this method lacks reliability and is therefore unscientific and subjective.

Observation is where sociologists watch people in a social situation and record what is said and done.

Observation can be overt or they can be covert. They can also be participant or non-participant observations.

## OVERT OBSERVATIONS

Overt observation is where those being observed are aware that they are being watched.

Advantages	Limitations
Most ethical form of observation, as it requires no deception and participants are able to give their informed consent.	Most at risk of the Hawthorne Effect - when people know that they are being observed they behave differently (consciously or unconsciously)

## COVERT OBSERVATIONS

Covert observation is where the researcher is "undercover"; the participants are unaware that they are being observed.



Advantages	Limitations
high in validity, as people are observed in natural surroundings, and the Hawthorne Effect is avoided.	Ethical concerns - if people are unaware that they are being observed, they have not given informed consent.

## PARTICIPANT OBSERVATIONS

Participant observation is the researcher does not just observe but interacts with the subjects in their everyday life.



Advantages	Limitations
Deep and personal understanding of an issue.	Very affected by the Hawthorne Effect

## NON-PARTICIPANT OBSERVATIONS

Non-participant observation is where the researcher chooses not to play any part in what is being observed.



Advantages	Limitations
Gives a more objective view of what is occurring than participant observations.	Hawthorne Effect - people are likely to change their behaviour because they are aware that they are being observed.

## SECONDARY RESEARCH METHODS

Secondary data refers to data that is already available to the sociologist as opposed to primary data which they collect themselves. This can be quicker and easier than getting primary data.

### PERSONAL DOCUMENTS

Personal documents are things such as letters and diaries.



Advantages	Limitations
Letters and diaries can give a deep insight into what individuals were thinking.	People do not always reveal their true feelings, even in diaries
	Understanding people's true meanings and feelings is very difficult.
	Ethical issues - letters were intended to be read by a particular individual; diaries might not have been intended to be read at all.

### OFFICIAL STATISTICS

Official statistics are any set of data collected by the government or other government organisations, such as official crime statistics, unemployment figures or census statistics.



Official statistics in the UK are collected by the government's Office for National Statistics (ONS).

Advantages	Limitations
Likely to involve a much larger sample than a sociologist could ever achieve	Data was collected by somebody else for a different reason
Free and easily accessible.	Official statistics can be manipulated to make governments look good

## CENSUSES

The census is a very important source of secondary data for sociologists.

It is a questionnaire sent to every household in the UK every 10 years by the ONS. By law, all people must complete the census and return it.

The first census in the UK was in 1801. The previous census was in 2011, the next will be in 2021.

It is mainly used to help governments track changes in the population and help them decide where things like new hospitals and schools are needed.

For sociologists it is helpful as it asks a variety of questions about things like place of birth, family size and type, or religion, and track those changes over a long time.

All the statistics are the available to access on the ONS website:

<https://www.ons.gov.uk/census>

**Household Questionnaire**  
Person 1 - continued

15 How would you describe your national identity?  
Tick all that apply  
☐ English  
☐ Welsh  
☐ Scottish  
☐ Northern Irish  
☐ British  
☐ Other, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

16 What is your ethnic group?  
Choose one section from A to E, then tick one box to best describe your ethnic group or background

**A White**  
☐ English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British  
☐ Irish  
☐ Gypsy or Irish Traveller  
☐ Any other White background, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

**B Mixed/multiple ethnic groups**  
☐ White and Black Caribbean  
☐ White and Black African  
☐ White and Asian  
☐ Any other Mixed/multiple ethnic background, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

**C Asian/Asian British**  
☐ Indian  
☐ Pakistani  
☐ Bangladeshi  
☐ Chinese  
☐ Any other Asian background, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

**D Black/African/Caribbean/Black British**  
☐ African  
☐ Caribbean  
☐ Any other Black/African/Caribbean background, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

**E Other ethnic group**  
☐ Arab  
☐ Any other ethnic group, write in: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Limitations
Large sample - comes very close to including 100% of the target population	Relies on accurate self-reporting - some people may not take it seriously.
Data is very reliable and representative.	Lower validity as ONS chooses the questions
Track changes over a long period of time.	Questions change - not always comparable to previous years

## NON-OFFICIAL STATISTICS

Just like official statistics, non-official statistics are quantitative data.

Unlike official statistics which are collected by the government, non-official statistics are collected and published by a variety of public and private organisations which are not run by the government.

This makes them independent from government influences and there is less risk of them being manipulated.

### BRITISH SOCIAL ATTITUDES SURVEY (BSAS)

One of the main sources of non-official statistics, the BSAS surveys 3,000 people every year since 1983 to see what it is like to live in Britain.



It is collected by the National Centre for Social Research, a charity run by social researchers.

New questions are added each year to reflect current issues, but all questions are designed so they can be compared over time.

Advantages	Limitations
Comparable data is collected much more often than the census	Much smaller sample than the census - less representative.
Asks a much wider range of questions than the census	Relies on accurate self-reporting - some people may not take it seriously.
Up to date - new questions are added each year about recent and current events and changes	Lower validity as BSAS chooses the questions

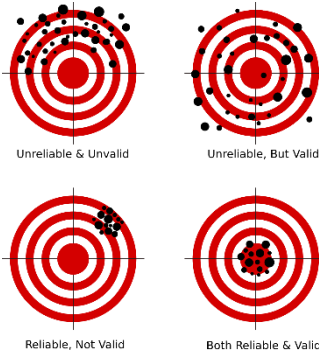


## EVALUATING RESEARCH METHODS

When deciding if research can be trusted, sociologists evaluate, or weigh up, the strengths and limitations of the research method.

There are 4 main ways which research is evaluate: validity, reliability, representativeness and ethics.

All scientific research is subject to evaluation of validity and reliability.



### VALIDITY

Valid research reveals a true, deep and accurate picture of what is being researched.

Data that is high in validity tends to be qualitative and is often described as "rich". It seeks to provide the researcher with a deep, true understanding of their research object.

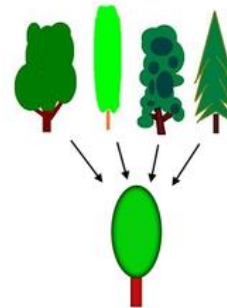
Validity can be undermined by the use of closed questions which limit respondents' answers and also by the Hawthorne Effect that means that people don't behave in a way that is true to life because they know they are being researched.

### RELIABILITY

The reliability of a method means that if the study was to be repeated, would be likely to get the same results? If no, then some sociologists would say that the research is not good enough.

## REPRESENTATIVENESS

Representativeness simply means how much a researcher's sample reflects the wider population. The more representative a sample is, the more reliable the research is likely to be.



For example, if we imagine I was researching trees, and I only did research on the round tree, would it also apply to all other types of trees?

To make sure that research is representative, sampling techniques need to be carefully chosen. Please look at this section for more information.

## ETHICS

Ethics are problems that relate to how moral your research or research method is.

### DECEPTION

The first consideration in ethics is **deception**. Deception is tricking or lying to people. This is obviously immoral, and if you are collecting information about people, you should not deceive your participants.

This can be avoided by telling participants what you want to research, and asking them to give their full, **informed consent** (permission) to do research on them.



## HARM

The second consideration is **harm**. Your participants should not undergo any physical, emotional or psychological harm in your research, and you must plan and take care to prevent that from happening.



## ILLEGAL ACTIVITY

Thirdly, research must not draw the participant or the researcher into illegal activity. This could cause a great deal of harm to a great number of people!



## CONFIDENTIALITY AND PRIVACY

Finally, participants must remain anonymous and their data must be private. This means they should not be able to be identified from your research. Using pseudonyms (fake names) is a good way to do this.

Any information and data a researcher collects must also be safely and securely stored so anyone who does not have permission to see it, cannot access it.





## SOCIOLOGICAL THEORY/APPROACHES

Sometimes we can all have different interpretations of the same things - a bit like the way some people see this dress as being blue and black, and others see it as white and gold.



These people have a different approach to looking at the dress, or a different theory or perspective about which colour it is.

There are 4 main approaches/theories/perspectives in sociology.

## CONSENSUS THEORIES

The word **consensus** means “agree”.

In sociology, consensus theory says that society is made up of different groups who share the same values and work together towards similar goals.

The main consensus theory is called **functionalism**.

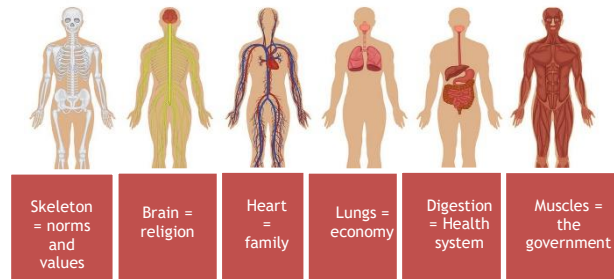
## FUNCTIONALISM

Functionalists believe that people have the same values and goals, and they work together for the good of society.

People create social **institutions** to help people work together for society such as family, education, religion, economics and the government.



**Functionalists** use an analogy saying that society is like a human body - for the whole body to work, all the organs need to work together, like:



## CONFLICT THEORIES

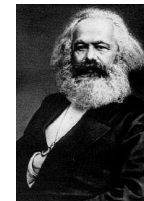
The word “conflict” means “fight” or “struggle”.

In sociology, conflict theory says that society is made up of different groups who oppose each other and have competing interests.

The main conflict theories are **Marxism** and **feminism**.

## MARXISM

**Marxists'** arguments are based on the writings of Karl **Marx**. Marx argued that all of history has been the result of different **social classes** of people conflicting over **wealth** and **status**.



STAGE OF HISTORY	RULING WEALTHY CLASS	SUBJECT POORER CLASS
Ancient /pre-modern (Egyptians, Greeks and Romans)	Slave owners (Emperors, kings and pharaohs)	Slaves
Feudalism/early modern (Middle Ages)	Landowners (Kings, lords, knights)	Peasants (poor farmers)
Capitalism/modern (today)	Bourgeoisie (Upper class)	Proletariat (Working class)

Marx argued that in the current stage of history, the **capitalist** stage, the rich **bourgeoisie** exploits the labour (work) of the poor **proletariat**

He says that the proletariat will one day realise this and rise up together in a **revolution**, destroy the bourgeoisie and rule themselves. This will lead to a classless society called **communism**.

## FEMINISM

**Feminists** are people, both men and women, who are against a social system called the **patriarchy**.



The word patriarchy is made of two ancient Greek words: “Patri” meaning “rule”, and “arkhia” meaning “father”.

Patriarchy is the system in society which favours masculinity and men over femininity and women. It is present in all social institutions. It teaches men to be masculine, and women to be feminine.

Feminists argue that in order to have true gender equality, the patriarchy must be dismantled.

## INTERACTIONISM

**Interactionists** argue that both consensus and conflict theories are too focused on the big picture of society, they don't see the small details between people's **interactions**.



They argue that each interaction between people tells a **different** and **unique** story.

They are more interested in looking at what happens when people, or small groups of people mix and interact with each other.

## FAMILY DIVERSITY AND DIFFERENT FAMILY FORMS

### WHAT IS A FAMILY?

A family is a group of people related to each other. This may be by blood, adoption, living together, or through marriage/civil partnerships.

### DIFFERENT FORMS OF FAMILY

#### NUCLEAR FAMILY

A family of two generations: usually defined as a married mother and father and their children, either their own or adopted.



#### EXTENDED FAMILY

A family type consisting of relatives other than the immediate family, such as grandparents or cousins.



#### BLENDED OR RECONSTITUTED FAMILY

Also known as a "step" family. A family type made up of one or both partners with children from a previous relationship or marriage living with them.



#### LONE-PARENT FAMILY

A family arrangement of one parent (mother or father) with their dependent children.



#### SINGLE-SEX FAMILY

A family type which consists of two partners of the same sex (such as two men). This is also known as a same-sex family.



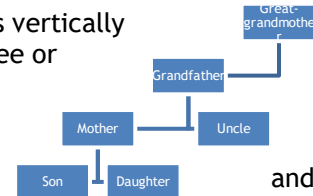
### COHABITING FAMILY

A situation where a couple live together as partners but are unmarried. This family may or may not include children.



### BEANPOLE FAMILY

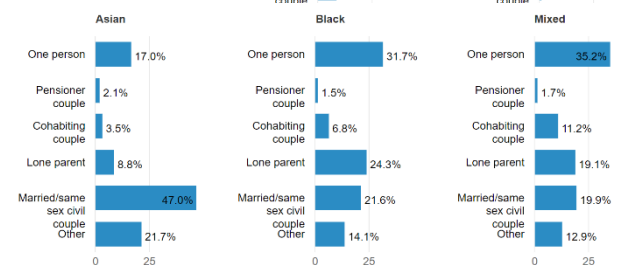
A family type which is vertically extended and has three or four generations who live together or close by, but not many brothers and sisters, aunts and uncles.



This means a long and thin family tree, like a beanpole (pole to help bean plants grow),

### ETHNIC MINORITY FAMILY FORMS

Ethnic minorities are groups within the UK who do not identify with being "White British".



Different social and cultural factors can affect different norms of family types.

### GLOBAL FAMILY FORMS

Although the family types mentioned here are the ones mainly found in the UK, there are other family types which can be found more commonly around the world.

Although the nuclear family is the most common, there are lots of other different family types too.

### POLYGAMY

A system where one of the partners is legally allowed to marry more than one partner at one time - lots of cultures allow and encourage it:



### ARRANGED MARRIAGES

An arranged marriage is a marriage where the partners are chosen for each other by someone else, usually family members. This happens in some cultures, such as in India.



Sometimes, this may be a person they have not met, or only met through sending letters, and other times it could be a person they are introduced to by their family. In India, the bride or groom can refuse their parents' choices.

### CHINA'S ONE CHILD FAMILY POLICY

China has the largest population on Earth (1.4 billion people). As a result, since 1979, the Chinese government made it illegal to have more than one child (unless the first child was a girl!).



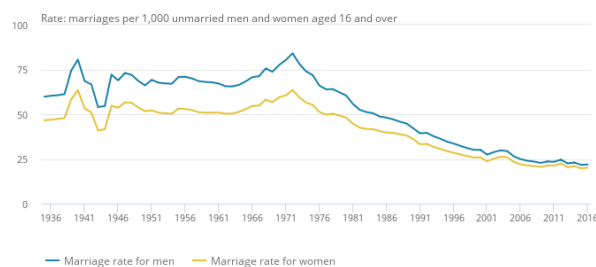
Parents who broke this were heavily fined. This law changed in 2016 to two children.

## FAMILY STATISTICS

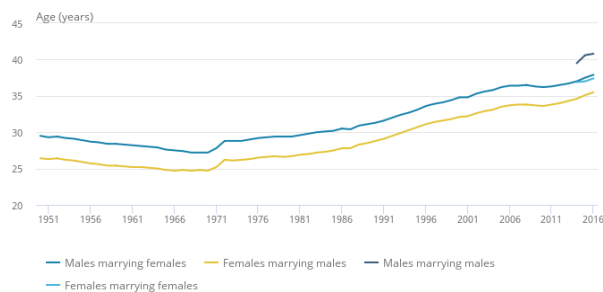
### CHANGES IN FAMILY STRUCTURES

The government's **Office for National Statistics (ONS)** collects data about changes in family in England and Wales. These show changes in family structure over the last few decades.

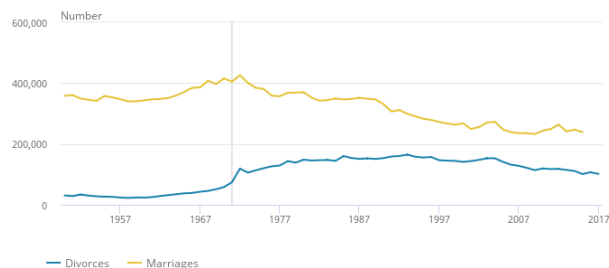
### MARRIAGE RATES SINCE 1935



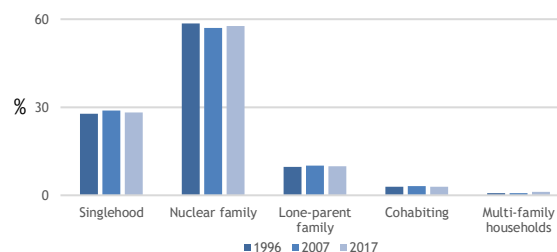
### AV. AGE OF MARRIAGE SINCE 1950



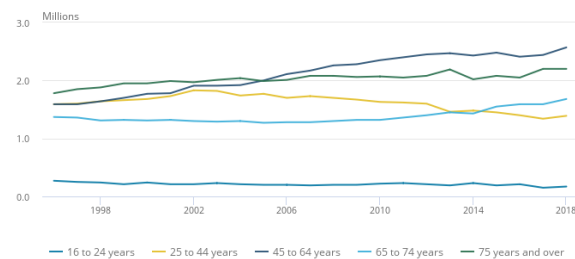
### DIVORCE RATES SINCE 1950



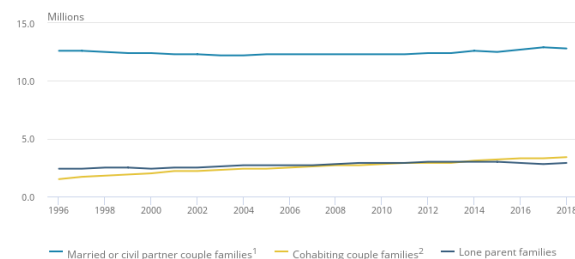
### CHANGES IN FAMILY DIVERSITY SINCE 1996



### CHANGES IN SINGLEHOOD SINCE 1996



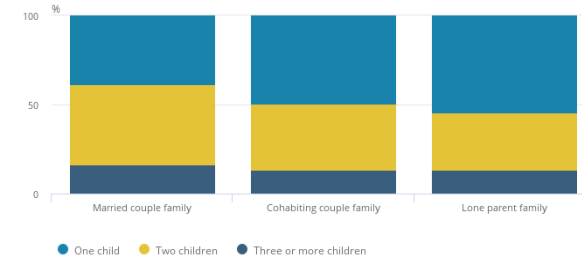
### CHANGES IN COHABITATION SINCE 1996



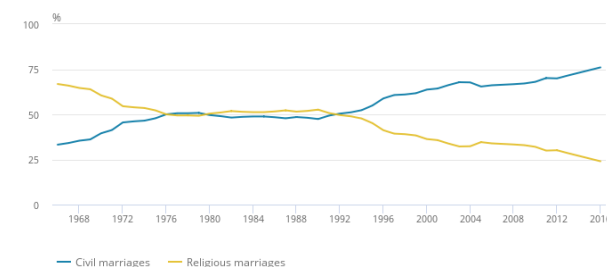
### SAME-SEX MARRIAGE SINCE 2015



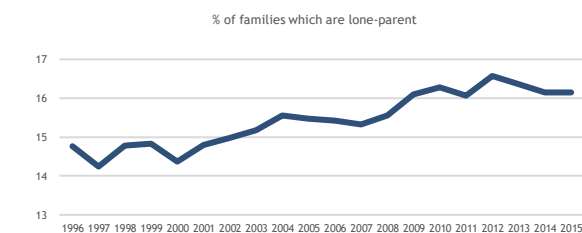
### NO. OF CHILDREN PER FAMILY FORM (2018)



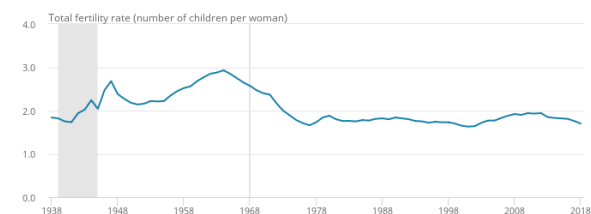
### RELIGIOUS MARRIAGES SINCE 1966



### LONE-PARENT FAMILIES SINCE 1996



### TOTAL FERTILITY RATE SINCE 1938



## FUNCTIONALISM AND THE FAMILY

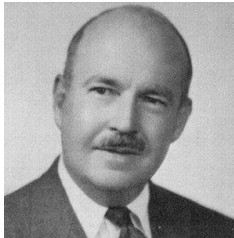
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### TALCOTT PARSONS

Talcott Parsons is one of the best known functionalist sociologists. In 1959, he wrote a classic text on the sociology of families and households called "The social structure of the family". He took an interest in the question "what are families for"?



Parsons suggested that there are two main functions of the family:

- 1) Primary socialisation
- 2) The stabilisation of adult personalities

### PRIMARY SOCIALIZATION

Parsons divided up socialisation into primary and secondary socialisation. Primary socialisation takes place in the family, where we learn the norms and values of our family and community, mainly through providing examples.

Parsons argued that men were the instrumental leader while women were the expressive leader and that both were necessary.

Men as the instrumental leaders, carried out discipline and earned money, and women as the expressive leaders cared and nurtured and raised children.

Parsons argued that boys saw the example from their fathers, and girls saw the example from their mothers, and ensured they continued to behave in the same way and give the same example to the next generation.

This idea is now seen as rather outdated. In 1950s America, married women were much more likely to be housewives than to pursue their own careers, and the idea of a clear gender division of labour (men and women performing very different roles) was not controversial.

### WILLMOTT AND YOUNG

Peter Willmott and Michael Young were functionalist sociologists carried out ground-breaking research into family life in the UK in a longitudinal study (a study over a long period of time). In 1973, they wrote a book called "The Symmetrical Family".



As functionalists, they supported the ideas of Talcott Parsons, but recognised that families had changed since the 1950s. So, they carried out their research by doing surveys in East London about housework. They found families were different to the way Parsons said, becoming more equal. They called this "The March of Progress".

## THE SYMMETRICAL FAMILY

Whereas Parsons argued that families had segregated gender roles in nuclear families, Willmott and Young argued that in modern families men and women both did paid work and both did work around the house, including childcare, making them "symmetrical".

They did not find that men and women did the same type of jobs, in the workplace or at home, but (compared with 1950s) family life was becoming more shared and equal.

Part of this was also that men and women and children spent more time together in the home rather than separately outside the home (e.g. men going to the pub).

## STRATIFIED DIFFUSION

Another important concept (idea) for Willmott & Young was stratified diffusion. Stratified means separate, diffusion means spread.

Stratified diffusion therefore meant that changes in norms and values tend to start among the wealthier in society and then others start to behave in the same way (the behaviour is "diffused" from one strata (class) to another).

## EVALUATION OF FUNCTIONALIST VIEWS OF THE FAMILY

Strengths	Limitations
Explains why nuclear families are so popular around the world.	Feminists argue that functionalists show family life as idealistic, but women usually lose out.



## FEMINISM AND THE FAMILY

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Patriarchy is the system in society which favours masculinity and men over femininity and women. It is present in all social institutions. It teaches men to be masculine, and women to be feminine



### ANN OAKLEY

Feminist sociologist Ann Oakley is well known for her book "Housewife", published in 1974. She carried out extensive research on housework using unstructured interviews to gain deep, valid data about families and women.



At the time not many people who wrote about housewives and housework actually interviewed the women who were doing it to find out what they really think.

She was mainly investigating the nuclear family, and the way it was considered the "normal" or "conventional" family of the time.

## THE CONVENTIONAL AND CEREAL PACKET FAMILY

Ann Oakley defined the conventional family as "nuclear families composed of legally married couples, voluntarily choosing parenthood of one or more children".

This is otherwise known as the cereal packet family: the image of a normal family that was portrayed in television advertisements and soap operas at the time when she was writing.



She looks at the work of other sociologists and considers where the idea that this was the "normal" way to live came from, and the influence it has over society and individuals.

## CONTROL AND ALIENATION

She argued that the conventional family worked as a form of social control: people were expected to live in these families, and this controlled them by making it harder to live alternative lives.

She also argues that as people get older - especially women - they would be regularly asked when they were going to get married and have children, as though alternatives to this life plan were unthinkable.

She found that the most of housewives in she interviewed were experiencing monotony, or the same things day in day out, fixed work tasks and pressure of doing things quickly is compared with factory workers.

There is a close match between the frustrations of factory work and housework, which supports the feminist idea that being a housewife can be alienating - lonely and dehumanising.

## DELPHY AND LEONARD

Christine Delphy and Diana Leonard were feminist sociologists who looked at the role of women in families and particularly at housework and the idea that women were exploited by their husbands. In 1992, they wrote a book called "Familiar Exploitation".



They directly disagreed with the idea put forward by Wilmott and Young that families were becoming "symmetrical". Like Ann Oakley, they focused their research on the work women did at home.

They argued that housework benefited the patriarchy. They saw the main role of the family as keeping patriarchy: keeping men in charge.

Delphy and Leonard looked at the family as an economic system: who did the work and who benefited from it? It was clear to them that it was women who were exploited in this system.

Women did the bulk of the domestic labour - regardless of whether they also went out and did paid work outside the home too. Time at home for men was leisure time, whereas time at home for women was also work time.

## EVALUATION OF FEMINIST VIEWS OF THE FAMILY

Strengths	Limitations
Explains the inequality between men and women in families	Some argue that not all families are unequal and this is improving.



