Sociology

Learning Journey

Year 10

Meridian High School

Challenge - Learn - Achieve

We enable students at to 'pull back the curtain' and perceive the world around as it truly is and understand the forces and factors that have and will affect our lives.

Sociology Learning Journey – Year 10

YEAR 11

6. Mocks & Paper 1 Revision.

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is the sociological approach?
2. What is family?
3. What is education?
4. What are the theories in sociology?
5. What is social stratification?

5. Social Stratification (2).

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is sex and gender?
2. What is ethnicity?
3. What is age?
4. What is poverty?
5. What are the social perspectives on poverty and power?

4. Social Stratification (1).

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is social stratification?
2. Who was Karl Marx?
3. What is social mobility?
4. What is the culture of poverty?
5. What is the welfare state?

3. Education.

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is the role of education?
2. What are the stages of education?
3. How many different types of schooling exist?
4. What are the social perspectives of education?
5. What is the hidden curriculum?

2. Family.

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is the function of family?
2. What forms do families take?
3. What are conjugal roles?
4. How do relationships within families change?
5. What is divorce?

1. The Sociological Approach.

Key Topic Skills

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is culture?
2. What is social change?
3. What is socialisation?
4. What are beliefs?
5. What are the agents of socialisation?
6. What is identity?

YEAR 10

Across your journey...

Strive for Nine Sociology Skills

1. Linking the big picture
2. Sociological Comprehension
3. Analysis and Interpretation
4. Research Skills
5. Decision Making
6. Questioning and arguing
7. Evaluation
8. Visual source analysis
9. Written source analysis

'The function of sociology, as of every science, is to reveal that which is hidden' (Pierre Bourdieu)

Year 10 Sociology – The Sociological Approach

1. Key Concepts Part 1

Culture	Refers to the shared, learned, way of life in a society.
Collectivist Culture	This view of society means that the group is emphasised over the individual
Individualist Culture	In this type of society it is up to everybody to look after themselves.
Cultural Diversity	Culture varies across the world and change over time; this is used as evidence for the importance of nurture theories.
Deviant	Refers to someone who breaks social rules.
Social Control	This refers to the written & unwritten rules that we follow, this contributes to social order.
Formal control	Social control is done on the basis of clearly laid down written rules and laws.
Informal control	This type of control is not as clearly defined but is usually maintained through expectations of family and friends.
Social change	Over time societies change such as the expected behaviour or organisation of social institutions
Norms	The expected and accepted behaviour for a culture.
Mores	Ways of behaving that are seen as good or moral.
Values	The basic rules shared by most people in a culture which reflect what people feel should happen in society.

2. Key Concepts Part 2

Beliefs	Usually individual to the person and influence how we act, beliefs can be taken from culture or religion.
Roles	The expected behaviours for any situation that we may find ourselves in.
Status	Is a persons standing position in society , can be either referred to as high status, achieved or ascribed status.
Nature-Nurture Debate	This regards the influences on social behaviour: are we born knowing how to behave or do we learn what to do?
Feral Children	Children who do not experience the usual process of socialisation, they are under or unsocialised.
Primary Socialisation	The child learns from the immediate family in the home.
Secondary Socialisation	Where a child learns what wider society expects of its members and takes place outside the home.
Tertiary Socialisation	Adult socialisation takes place when people need to adapt to new situations.
Formal Socialisation	Where people are deliberately and consciously manipulated to ensure they learn to follow certain rules.
Informal Socialisation	Where people learn to fit into their culture by watching and learning from others around them.
Agents of Socialisation	The parts of society that help to transmit culture
Role Models.	The people we look up to and copy

3. Key Concepts Part 3

Sanctions	This can refer to giving punishment for incorrect behaviour or rewards for correct behaviour
Imitation	Learning by watching and copying others.
Collective Conscience	Durkheim introduced this term it refers to the shared ways of thinking in a society.
Hypodermic Syringe Model	Media acts as a drug directly injected into peoples minds and affecting their beliefs.
Formal Curriculum	This is what is taught in schools via timetabled lessons.
Hidden Curriculum	This is values, beliefs and norms which are taught to children in schools unintentionally.
Peer Pressure	Is the process whereby people modify their behaviour in order to fit in with the group.
McDonaldisation	Describes how workers in certain industries were trained not to show initiative and the behaviour of staff will be predictable.
Subculture	A cultural group within a larger culture, often having beliefs or interests at variance with those of the larger culture

Year 10 Sociology – Social Structures, Processes & Issues

1. Agents of socialisation

Family	The family is our primary agent of socialisation and it is how we learn the basic rules of our culture. Parents will pass on cultural rules and norms through; protection of the child and social disapproval, guided and deliberate teaching of the traditions and rules of the culture, using social control, sanction and praise.
Peer Groups	A peer group is made up of people who are the same age and status as oneself. This group are probably the first people we encounter as we develop independence from our family. Early friendships and peer pressure can have a large impact on our socialisation/behaviour.
Education	Education is a powerful agency of socialisation and help children to acquire culture both formally and informally (the formal or the hidden curriculum).
Religion	Religion can be a powerful force for socialisation even for those who do not belong to a religious group. British society and family law is based on Christian tradition such as monogamy. Religion can be influence through collective conscience and parental faith.
Media	The media can be seen as a powerful tool of socialisation and can have a major impact on children through copycat behaviour and the hypodermic syringe model.
Work	Work is a very important agent of adult socialisation. People have to adapt to the demands of their work position. This can through formal training but also through informal socialisation.

2. Identity

Primary Identity	This is our sense of self and we can choose our primary identity as it gives us meaning.
Secondary Identity	This consists of the roles we play in society. We can learn this identity through being told by other, through choice based on where we are,
Gender Identity	Our biological sex will carry it with it a set of cultural expectations. Gender identity is often learnt through socialisation from the family via manipulation, canalisation, appellations or via the media and its portrayals of men and women.
Class Identity	Social class is used to describe entire groups of people of similar education, income and occupational background. Class identity is often learnt through education and work.
Ethnic Identity	Ethnic identity is used to describe groups of individuals with similar ancestry, sense of history, traditions, beliefs and language. The socialised differences are often learnt in childhood via the family and religion.
National Identity	National identity is linked to a specific geographic region. There can be Extreme nationalism e.g. Nazism and there is Civic Nationalism which is seen as more positive because it can unites groups of people together. National identity can learnt and reinforced via the government or through sport.

Year 10 Sociology – Families

1. Function of families

A. **Functionalist:** The family is a key social structure as it performs several essential functions for individuals and society. Murdock (1949) argues four vital functions: **(1) Sexual function,** regulates sexual behaviour that is approved by society; **(2) Reproductive function,** new family members- procreation & childrearing; **(3) Economic function,** providing shelter, food & clothes. Economic cooperation between husband & wife; **(4) Educational function**, primary socialisation and discipling.

B. **Marxist:** The family is one of the key institutions that social inequalities are passed on through the generations. The bourgeoise pass on their wealth to family members. Educational advantages are passed down as people from wealthy backgrounds can afford to send their children to private schools. Through the socialisation process people learn to accept their position.

C. **Feminist:** Families have a negative impact on the lives of women. Families socially construct gender differences- canalisation. Children also learn gender expectations through the division of domestic labour e.g. Mum cleaning up.

2. Family forms

A. **Nuclear Family (cereal packet):** Father, Mother & Children.

B. **Same-Sex Family:** Gay/lesbian couple living together, possibly with children.

C. **Extended family:** Includes relatives beyond the nuclear family.

D. **Beanpole Families:** Many generations of older people and few children.

E. **Lone-Parent Families:** One parent and child(ren) who live together.

F. **Reconstituted Families:** Sometimes referred to as a step family. Children from a previous relationship, one adult is a biological parent, the other a step-parent.

3. Conjugal roles

A. **Segregated conjugal roles:** Clear division of tasks divided into male and female tasks. Husband & wife spend little time together.

B. **Joint conjugal roles:** Do not have a division of household tasks. Husband & wife spend time together.

4. Changing relationships within families

A. **How have families changed?** Smaller (less children), marriage less likely, parents older, joint conjugal roles, family diversity, increase in divorce.

B. **Why have families changed?** Laws (gay rights, divorce), rise of feminism, diversity, technology (contraception, fertility), changing norms & values, secularisation – religion is less influencing.

C. **Why are households changing?** A household consists of one person who lives alone or a group of people living at the same address. One person households increasing due to: adults remain single/childless; divorce; international migrants; people living alone through choice; cohabiting; and partners living apart.

D. **How are parent and child relationships changing?** Families used to rely on children's income until the Education Act of 1918 and childhood began. Parents are now less authoritarian – children are seen as important members of the family and their opinions are listened to. A rise in boomerang children – young people who leave home (for university or travelling) and then return to living with their parent(s).

5. Issues

A. **Contemporary social issues include:** the quality of parenting, relationships between teenagers and adults, and care for the elderly.

6. Divorce

A. **Patterns of marriage:** decline, happening later in life, increase in civil partners and same-sex marriage, an increase in cohabitation, an increase in births outside of marriage.

B. **Patterns of increasing divorce:** changing laws, changing social attitudes and values, impact of secularization, changes in the status of women, influence of the media.

C. **Consequences of divorce:** emotional distress, financial hardship, remarriage.

key thinkers

Rapoport and Rapoport (1982)– Family Diversity	Young & Wilmott (1973) (Functionalist)	Talcott Parsons (1956) (Functionalist)	Eli Zaretsky (1976)– (Marxist)	Delphy & Leonard (Radical Feminists)	Ann Oakley (1974) (Feminist)
The family is going through a process of change. There is a wider range of options available & people value choice in their family pattern. No one dominant norm anymore. Five types of family diversity: Organisational, cultural, class, life course and cohort.	Suggested the 'Symmetrical family ' is typical-similar contributions made by each spouse to the running of the household e.g. shared chores and shared decisions. Conjugal roles are not interchangeable, but they are of equal importance.	The family has lost some of its functions, such as education. The family is almost functionless, but still has two important functions. Primary socialisation and the stabilisation of adult personalities e.g. to give and receive emotional support.	He believes that the family has become a prop to the capitalist economy (eg the system depends on the domestic labour of housewives who reproduce future generations of workers) whilst also serving as a vital unit of consumption.	Men are the prime beneficiaries of the exploitation of women's labour. They believe that the family has a central role in maintaining patriarchy. When wives have paid employment outside the home they still have to carry out household tasks which are not equally shared with their male partners.	Rejects the symmetrical family. The conventional family is no longer the norm. People expect a conventional family life to bring happiness, but there are strains e.g. depression, health problems, stress, from the conventional expectations.

Year 10 Sociology – Education (1)

1. Roles of education

A. **The economic role – teaching skills for work.** *Functionalists:* Teaches skills and knowledge necessary for work. Preparation for real world. *Marxists:* This is reinforcing the class system.

B. **The selective role – Choosing the most able people for the most important jobs.** *Functionalists:* The system is a sieve. Meritocratic system, everyone has equal opportunities to succeed, those who work hard and achieve are rewarded with higher pay levels/status. *Marxists:* Education does not provide equal opportunities. Designed to benefit the powerful. This is why working-class children underperform.

C. **Social Control – teaching acceptance of rules and authority.** *Functionalists:* Society must be regulated by rules. Schools are an agency of social control. *Marxists:* Social control reflects social control in the wider society which benefits those in power.

D. **The political role –** teaching people to be effective citizens and creating social cohesion. *Functionalists:* Acceptance of the political system and will exercise their rights wisely (voting). *Marxists:* Only certain political opinions and ideas are tolerated, radical ideas are rejected.

2. Stages of education

A. **Pre-school (3–5 years):** May be provided by the local authority or privately.

B. **Primary (5–11 years):** Refers to both infant and junior schools.

C. **Secondary (11–16 years):** Provided by the state in comprehensive schools primarily.

D. **Further and Higher Education (16–18 years):** Sixth Form, college or apprenticeships.

3. Types of schooling

A. **Comprehensive:** one school for everyone.
B. **Grammar school:** more academic.
C. **Private schools:** charge fees.
D. **Public schools:** older, more famous schools such as Eton.
E. **State schools:** free schools available for everyone of all abilities.
F. **Independent schools:** private and public schools.
G. **Home education:** teaching children at home using parents or tutors.
H. **Vocational education:** work-related qualifications.
I. **Specialist schools:** raise standards of achievement based on their strengths e.g. sport.
J. **Faith schools:** schools that are run with a religious ethos.
K. **Academies:** taken out of local authority control, private sponsors help raise achievement.
L. **Free schools:** schools that can be set up and run by groups of parents, teachers and businesses.

4. Social perspectives on education

A. **Functionalist:** Education is an important agency of socialisation, it maintains social stability and social cohesion. Prepares young people for work and adulthood. Teaches specialist skills for work. Education is meritocratic.

B. **Marxist:** Prepares young people for capitalist society. Education is not meritocratic. Encourages conformity and acceptance of social position. The hidden curriculum teaches young people the expectations of society.

C. **Feminist:** There are education inequalities between boys and girls. It plays a role in socialisation of boys and girls. Even though girls are outperforming boys, education still reinforces patriarchal views.

5. Hidden Curriculum

A. **Hierarchy:** The hierarchy in school can be seen to reflect the structure of society and in the workplace.

B. **Competition:** School encourages competition between students e.g. sports, exam results.

C. **Social Control:** Rules, regulations, obedience & respect for authority. This can be formal (e.g. discipline, punishment) and informal (e.g. peer-group pressure)

D. **Gender role allocation:** teacher expectations and subject choice.

E. **Lack of satisfaction:** Preparing students for boring, meaningless and repetitive jobs is a similar experience to work.

6. Views on education

A. **Ideas of Talcott Parsons (Functionalist):** 1) Schools prepare children for the same universalistic standards: the opposite of the particularistic standards from homelife. 2) Schools promote a value consensus: encouraged to achieve high and the rewards encourage them to maximise their potential. Students are competing on equal terms in the classroom. 3) Meritocracy: students achievements are based on their abilities and efforts, not on social class, gender or ethnicity. 4) Role allocation: matched to the correct job based on skill/knowledge.

B. **Vocational education:** *FOR* – leads to a skilled, better-qualified workforce making Britain more competitive; Functionalists believe it shows the importance of education in providing skills and expertise needed by the economy / *AGAINST* – Emphasis on skills training disguises the problem that there is no work for skilled young people; Marxists argue it is viewed with a lower status compared to purely academic qualifications.

C. **Why are independent schools favoured?** Lower teacher-student ratio = smaller classes so students receive more attention; Resources/facilities are better; Academic culture; Parental input, expectations/support higher.

D. **Why are state schools favoured?** Free and not based on ability; Socially mixed; Upward social mobility; Students do not have to travel far on a daily basis.

E. **Home education (home schooling):** Teaching children at home rather than in a state or independent school. Parents or tutors usually carry this out. It is a legal option for people who want to provide a different learning environment or ethos to local schools. Recently raised issues around standards & impact on social development.

key thinkers

Emile Durkheim (Functionalist)	Bowles & Gintis (1976) (Marxist)	Ball, Bowe & Gewirtz (1994)– Parental Choice & Competition
The major function of education is learning society's norms and values. Education provides the link between the individual and society. He believed that the school provides a context in which children learn to cooperate with those who are neither their kin nor their friends. Rules should be strictly enforced in order for children to learn self-discipline and to see that misbehaviour damages society as a whole.	The major role of education is the reproduction of labour power. There is a close relationship between the rules which govern the work place and the education system e.g. the creation of a hardworking, docile, obedient. They reject the view that capitalist societies are meritocratic and believe that class background is the most important factor influencing levels of attainment.	A study of fifteen schools in neighbouring LEAs with different population profiles (e.g. class and ethnicity). The study evaluates the impact of parental choice and the publication of league tables, e.g. the pressure to reintroduce streaming and setting and the tendency for some schools to focus on the more able.

Year 10 Sociology – Education (2)

7. De-schooling

A. Illich (1995) argues schools repress children and promotes passive conformity rather than creative individuality.

B. He argues schools should be abolished and people should pursue knowledge and skills with like-minded individuals

8. Educational policies

A. 1944 Butler Education Act: Free state education, introduction of a meritocratic system in which children received an education based on their academic ability rather than the ability of their parents to pay; introduction of the 11+ exam and the Tripartite System: Secondary Modern, Secondary Technical, Grammar.

B. 1965 Comprehensive System: One school for everyone – all abilities and social classes. No labelling as a failure. Each school has a specific 'catchment'.

C. 1988 Education Act: Introduction of the marketisation of education. Consumer choice and competition. Focus on parental choice, funding based on student numbers and more freedom for schools. The introduction of the National Curriculum. Core subjects for ages 5-16. Introduction of GCSE examination.

D. 1997 New Labour Educational Policy. *Raising Standards:* providing nursery places for 3-4 year olds, reducing class sizes, national literacy & numeracy schemes, 'special measures', 'value-added' feature on league tables. *Reducing inequality:* introduction of Educational Maintenance Allowance (EMA), Aim Higher Programme.

E. Since 2010 educational policies. New style academies. Free Schools. Pupil Premium

9. Education achievement

A. The School: Teachers make judgments and classify students. These judgments can often affects a child's chances of educational achievement. ***The 'Halo effect'*** – judging a student as 'bright' while they tend to question the good performance of those children who are less well behaved. ***Streaming*** – putting students into groups, based on assessment of general ability. This can lead to a "counter-culture". The 'self-fulfilling' prophecy – if teachers have low expectations, or see a child as only being capable of reaching a certain level of academic achievement this can make students bring on their own 'self-image' into line with the teachers judgement.

B. Social Class: Statistics show that the higher a student's social class background, the greater chance they have of achieving high educational qualifications. ***Cultural deprivation*** – A middle-class students upbringing may put them at an advantage over working-class students e.g. family visits to libraries, museums or holidays, homes filled with books, are the norm in middle-class homes. ***Social capital*** – Middle-class children will socialise with children in a similar class to themselves. Their parents will be part of a network of social relationships that give them benefits e.g. friends with teachers, university lecturers, doctors etc. ***Parental attitudes – Middle-class Values:*** Desire for control over their lives, emphasis on future planning, deferred gratification, individual achievement stress vs. ***Working-class values:*** passive / fatalistic acceptance, emphasis on present or past, present gratification, collection action stressed. Middle class parents know how to "work the system" such as how to hold disagreements with teachers, which educational resources to purchase. They may also expect more from their children and show more interest in their progress. ***Material deprivation –***Costs of uniforms, sports kits and special materials may keep poorer children away from school. ***Material environment*** – Living conditions such as poor housing, overcrowding, lack of privacy or quiet places to do homework adversely affect performance and attendance.

C. Gender: Official statistics reveal some differences in educational achievement based on gender. ***Changing Job Chances*** – decreases in 'male' jobs in manufacturing and engineering, but an increase in 'female' jobs in the service industry. ***Legal Changes – The Sex Discrimination Act*** (1975), raised awareness of equal opportunities. ***Feminist Movement*** – Change in attitudes towards women's roles and expectations- encouraging educational success and the ability to have a professional career. Subject Choice. Gender stereotyping in textbooks, or role models of teachers in certain subject areas (male dominated maths & science) and continued gender stereotyping by teachers.

D. Ethnicity: Statistics show some ethnic groups under achieve, whilst others over achieve. ***Parental expectations.*** Some research into different ethnic groups has concluded that some groups put more pressure on their children achieving at school, whilst others show less interest. Some have experienced poor education in their home countries and may therefore have a strong desire to help their children's education more. However, a poor education may results in a lack of ability to help their children with homework. ***Teachers expectations.*** Some teachers may have higher or lower expectations of certain ethnic groups. ***The Hidden Curriculum.*** It is argued that certain subjects are biased towards white European culture. Some books may present stereotypical images of some minority groups. ***Home and Social Class background.*** Class position may influence achievement dependant on the types of work offered to particular groups. In other words there is a 'doubling up' of factors. Some differences could be accounted for due to class and home life. ***Cultural differences*** – Cultural norms and values may be different to 'mainstream' British norms and values. The language spoken at home may also be an important factor.

key thinkers

Halsey, Heath & Ridge (1980)– Social Class Inequality	Ball (1981)– Banding & Teacher expectations	Willis (1977)– Learning to Labour (Marxist)
The authors found evidence of clear class inequalities in education. They found that an individual from the service class, as compared to one from the working class, had four times as great a chance of being at school at 16. Whilst the chance of an individual from the service class attending university was eleven times greater than one from the working class.	This is a participant observation study. The study describes a school in the process of change and raises questions about the selection and socialisation experienced by two cohorts moving through the school, one banded by ability and the other taught in mixed ability classes.	He believes that education is not a particularly successful agency of socialisation and that education can have unintended consequences that may not be beneficial to capitalism. He described the existence of a counter culture, which was opposed to the values of the school. He concluded their rejection of the school made them suitable candidates for male dominated, unskilled or semi-skilled manual work.

Year 10 Sociology – Social Stratification (1)

1. Key terms and concepts

A. **Social class** is seen as the main source of stratification in Britain. Based on economic factors such as occupations and income. Social mobility is deemed to be possible.
B. **Social Stratification:** Describes the way society is structured in a hierarchy, shaped like a pyramid. Each layer is smaller but more powerful than the one below it.
C. **Social inequality:** Refers to the uneven distribution of resources such as money & power, life chances or opportunities related to education, employment and health.
D. **Ascribed status:** social position is fixed at birth and unchanged over time.
E. **Achieved status:** social position is earned on merit e.g. education, promotion.
F. **Other forms of social stratification:** ***Feudalism,*** ascribed, little to no chance of moving to the next strata; ***The caste system in India***, ascribed, closed and little movement, ***Apartheid***, ascribed, little social mobility.
G. **Distribution of wealth and income:** Wealth refers to assets such as houses, land, art, jewellery. Income refers to wages, benefits etc. Wealth is usually distributed more unevenly than income.

2. Karl Marx and social class (1818–83)

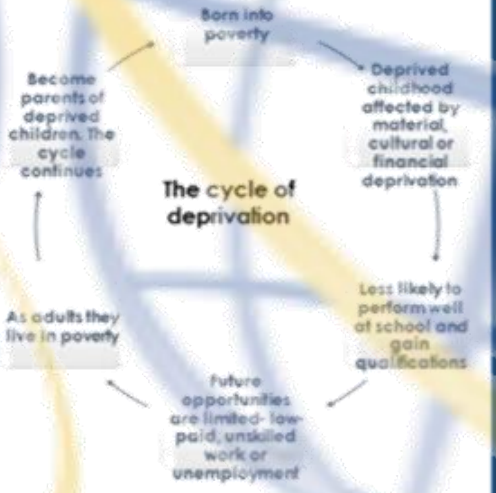
A. **The bourgeoise (the ruling class)** – owned the means of production.
B. **The proletariat (working class)** forced to sell their labour. Experience alienation and lack of control.
C. The bourgeoise exploit the proletariat.
D. Ruling- class ideology and false class consciousness.

3. Social mobility

A. **Life chances:** Peoples chances of achieving positive or negative outcomes as they progress through life. These are not distributed equally between groups. Affected by factors such as: religion, social class, gender, ethnicity, sexuality, age, disability
B. **Social mobility:** moving between social classes.
C. **Intra-generational social mobility:** movement of their lifetime e.g. promotion.
D. **Inter-generational social mobility:** movement between generations of a family e.g. when a child enters a different social from their parents.

4. Poverty and deprivation

A. **The culture of poverty:** People from the poorest section of society are socialised within the subculture of poverty. As a result they are unable to break free from poverty.
B. **The cycle of deprivation:** The policy to remove poverty involves employing social workers and using local authority provision to help break children out of the cycle of deprivation.
C. **Material deprivation:** Having insufficient money to be able to afford goods and services. As a result people may not have a balance diet. Poverty may lead to ill health during childhood and inadequate housing.



5. The welfare state

A. **The welfare state:** (a system in which the state is responsible for protecting the health and welfare of it's citizens and for meeting their social needs.)
B. **The National Health Service (NHS):** Funded by central government from national taxation. Provided GPs, hospitals, opticians and dentists.
C. **Welfare Benefits:** National Insurance Benefits: If you have paid into the system (National Insurance Contributions) you are entitled to Jobseekers Allowance and the state retirement pension.
D. **Income Support and Child Tax Credit:** Local Benefits include free school meals, educational subsidies, housing benefits.

key thinkers

Davis & Moore (1945) (Functionalist)	Max Weber (1864–1920) (Marxist)	Fiona Devine (1992)
Social stratification was a 'universal necessity' for every society. The system must match the most able people with the functionally most important positions in society. These high rewards would encourage ambitious people to compete for them, with the most talented achieving success.	Classes are formed in market places, such as the labour market. One class hire, the other sells their labour. A class is a group of people with similar life chances- being successful. Weber stressed the importance of status (prestige) and power in determining life chances and shaping patterns of stratification e.g. members of aristocracy may have no savings, but have a title that gives them status.	Devine tested Lockwood's idea that 'privatized instrumentalism' would become typical amongst the working class. This term refers to social relationships centred on the home with work only to an end, when affluent workers joined with their workmates. Paid work is a means to a comfortable lifestyle rather than having job satisfaction.

Year 10 Sociology – Social Stratification (2)

6. Social Stratification: Sex and Gender

A. **Sex:** Male or female (biology)
B. **Gender:** masculine or feminine.
C. **Gender & power:** Feminists see gender inequality as the most important source of division in society. Society is mainly controlled by men who have considerable power within politics and the workplace.
D. **The crisis of masculinity:** Men are currently experiencing this because of the underachievement of boys in school, the decline of paid work in manufacturing, women's increased participation in paid employment.
E. **Inequalities:** Gender dominated occupations e.g. fire-fighting, nursery worker. Glass ceiling for women- invisible barriers for promotion. Gender pay gap. Women's triple shift. Childcare provision- barrier preventing women from returning to work.

7. Social Stratification: Ethnicity

A. A social group that share an identity based on their cultural traditions, religion or language
B. **Ethnicity & Power:** Under-represented in political power/decision makers. Also under-represented in teaching, armed forces, police officers, particularly at high levels of the organisation. Although 40% of highest positions in the **NHS** are from ethnic minority groups
C. **Inequalities:** Unemployment. Discrimination in the labour market. Minority groups have become an underclass (see Charles Murray). Racism is built into the workings of capitalism.

8. Social Stratification: Age

A. **Age:** Chronological, biological or a social category. When does 'youth' begin and end?
B. **Childhood & Power:** Families are agency of social control so they are expected to authorise discipline of their children. Parents exercise power when they try to influence their child's behaviour against their will.
C. **Young People & Power:** Authority from teachers over students based on their status in the school setting. Some students do not conform to this authority however. See P Willis.
D. **Inequalities:** Ageism, age discrimination. Younger or older people tend to be victim of this. Negative stereotyping Older people living in poverty.

9. Poverty and deprivation

A. **Absolute Poverty:** Income is insufficient to have the minimum to survive. No access to the basic necessities in life e.g. shelter, food, clean water, heating & clothes.
B. **Relative Poverty:** Cannot afford the general standard of living of most people in their society. Income is much less than the average for that society.
C. **Gender & Poverty:** Women have longer life expectancy so more female pensioners living alone. Women more likely to head lone-parent families. Usually have a low income.
D. **Gender pay gap.** Women are more likely to be in part-time income than men.
E. **Ethnicity & Poverty:** Lower income families. Generally disadvantaged in employment, pay and quality of job.
F. **Child Poverty:** More likely to live in poverty if: Household has four or more children; Where the head of the house is a lone parent or from an ethnic minority; no paid workers.

10. Social perspectives on poverty and power

	Poverty	Power
Functionalists	Focus on the positive functions of poverty for some groups e.g. knowing you could live in poverty means people will undertake undesirable jobs, creates jobs for groups who deal with the poor. The poor also reinforce mainstream norms and provide examples of deviance such as lazy and dishonest.	Government and politics serves a purpose to regulate main stream norms and values.
Marxists	Poverty is the result from class-based inequalities. It is inevitable that some people will be poor in a capitalist society. Poverty serves the interests of the bourgeoise who can hire and fire people e.g. if they demanded higher wages, the bourgeoise could threaten to higher from the unemployed.	Weber- power is based on coercion or authority. The main sources of authority are traditional, rational legal and charismatic authority. Marxists argue the bourgeoise use their power to exploit the proletariat. They have economic and political power.
Feminists	Women face the greatest risk of poverty than men, lone-mothers and the older women living alone in particular. The gender pay gap and the inequality of the division of caring responsibilities contribute to this.	Patriarchy- the system of our social structures and practices are male dominated and they use this power to oppress and exploit women.
New Right	Focus on individuals behaviour rather than structural causes of poverty. Stress the importance of traditional values and self-reliance. Welfare dependency and the underclass are key ideas in this approach.	The government does not meet it's peoples needs, and they believe their should be minimal government intervention from the welfare state.

key thinkers

Charles Murray (1996)	Peter Townsend (1979)
Society had a growing underclass. Government policies have encouraged the members of this underclass to become dependent on benefits. Traditional values such as honesty, family life and hard work were being undermined by the members of the underclass, to be replaced by an alternative value system that tolerated crime and various forms of anti-social behaviour.	Identified 3 ways of defining poverty: **The state's standard of poverty** on which official statistics are based; **The relative income** standard of poverty based on identifying those households whose income falls below the average for similar households; **Relative deprivation,** when families are unable to have the living conditions that are widely available in society.