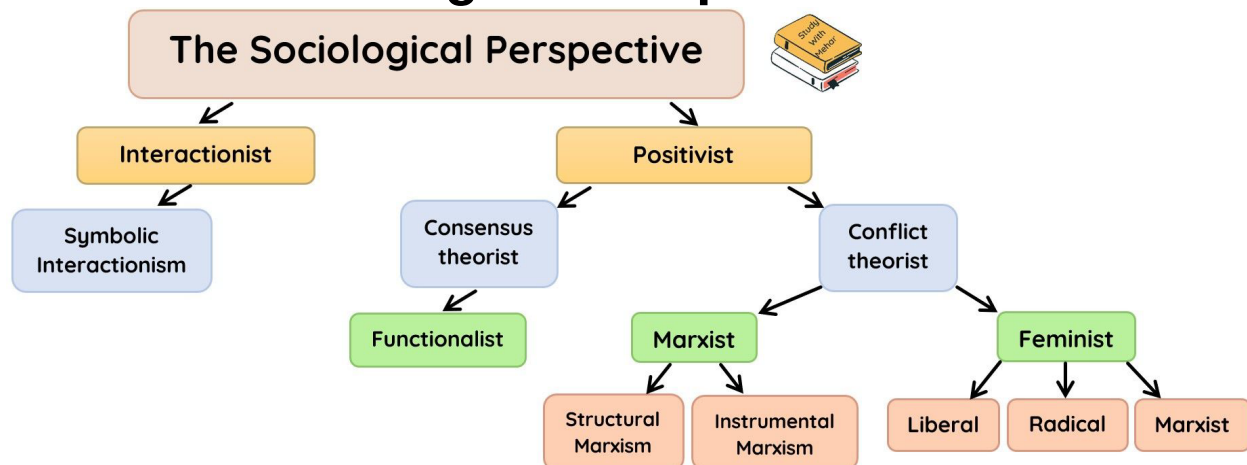


Sociology

The Main Sociological Perspectives



The **Sociological Perspective** is the view that an individual's social backgrounds influence their attitudes, behaviour, and life chances. The Debunking Motif involves looking for levels of reality other than those given as the official interpretations of society. The debunking motif is related to the Sociological Imagination. According to **C. Wright Mills**, the 'Sociological Imagination' is the ability to recognise that private troubles are rooted in public issues and structural problems.

Auguste Comte questioned how social order was created and maintained. Comte supported the positivists' consensus approach to studying society and wanted to establish 'social facts'.

Karl Marx believed that social order was created and maintained due to conflict.

→ The theory believes that people are controlled through force and persuasion.

→ Marx focuses on economic determinism, which is the idea that economic forces determine and mould all aspects of a society, and individuals' life chances.

Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels (he's related to Communism) believe that the economic system was the foundation for the society to be built on. In capitalist societies: i) the dominant group → **bourgeoisies** → those who own the means of economic production ii) working class → **proletariat** → owns nothing, hence works for the bourgeoisie to survive. Strength of Marxism - It helps understand the role of conflict in bringing about social change. Weakness of Marxism

- Too much emphasis is given on the role of economic factors in causing social change.

Important

- Theory fails to recognise other forms of conflict that would cause social change, i.e. religion, gender.
- Too deterministic – individual behaviour is explained in terms of how social forces would shape them.

Max Weber examined how societies were modernised. → Weberian theory examined how and why pre-industrial societies developed into industrial societies. Modernization included industrialization, urbanisation and rationalisation. Weber argued that modernisation in Europe was fuelled by the ideas of the Protestant religion. → Social Action Theory stated that social change is the result of individuals acting purposefully/meaningfully with their own free will. Emile Durkheim followed the value consensus theory that social order is created and maintained due to a common agreement. → People developed social solidarity in 2 ways: i) Pre-industrial society - Mechanical solidarity ii) Industrial society – Organic solidarity → He believed that societies can only be understood in terms of the relationship between various institutions. Supported Parsons' Organic Analogy. → His study on suicide helped prove that quantitative data can be produced when conducting sociological research. Strength: A scientific approach can be taken to study society. Weakness: Sociologists criticise that the official statistics used in the suicide study were unreliable.

Science: a logical method of producing knowledge that is reliable and valid. Procedural Rule of Sociology → Popper's Hypothetico Deductive method: 1. Choose a research topic 2. Review the literature 3. Form a testable aim and hypothesis 4. Choose a research method 5. Collect data 6. Analyse data 7. Present conclusions

This method can be implemented because we try to prove cause and effect relationships to establish statements predicting social behaviour. Ethical rules of sociology → Value freedom → Researchers should focus on falsification (they must try to falsify their hypothesis) → Researchers shouldn't have a personal/financial stake in the outcomes of their research (big sciences manipulate findings to make results favourable to them – capitalists, media, govt). In sociology, scientific knowledge is produced by mainly outlining 2 theories: positivism and interpretivism. Positivism – believes that the social world can be studied the same way that natural scientists study the natural world. The objective of the research is to falsify the hypothesis. Sociologists must be personally objective – value-free. Positivists try to collect quantitative data. Research methods: Experiments, official statistics, content analysis, close-ended questions in questionnaires, and structured interviews. Interpretivism – believes that social behaviour can only be understood subjectively, by understanding how people interpret situations and give them meaning. They study how individuals interact in

everyday life and group settings. Interpretivists say it's not possible to predict human behaviour. Social reality and behaviour can only be understood by the one who creates it, hence, sociologists should empathise/demonstrate verstehen (verstehen - take the role of the other). Interpretivists try to collect qualitative data. Research methods: Participant observation, open-ended questions in questionnaires, and unstructured interviews. Postmodernism – the idea that people construct stories – narratives. Metanarratives are created at different times and societies to explain how the world works. In the pre-industrial era, religion was the metanarrative. In industrial societies, science was the metanarrative. People in postmodern societies have disbelief towards meta-narratives. Their research method suggests the idea that it's impossible to study people as they may show demand characteristics in one way or another.

The difference between Positivism and Interpretivism

1. Harris identified that Positivists suggest that human behaviour is controlled by forces an individual cannot resist. Interpretivists however, argue that people are different from inanimate objects as they have consciousness which allows them to think and act rather than just react in a pre-determined way.
2. Positivism explains people's behaviour 'from without' interacting with the people and the behaviour being studied. Interpretivists develop explanations 'from within' by understanding how people make sense of the behaviour they're involved in. They suggest sociologists should empathise and take the role of the other to truly understand individuals' behaviour and actions. This research technique is called verstehen.
3. Interpretivism focus on collecting qualitative data which explains feelings, but the reliability is low as it cannot be accurately replicated. Validity is higher, however as the reason for the behaviour is found. Positivist research is objective, and it tests whether the hypothesis is true or false. The research design is firm, and they collect quantitative data which is less valid but more reliable.
4. Positivist research makes judgements based on the data to collect and the conclusions to make on whether a hypothesis is true or false. Interpretivist research is non-judgemental, and the reader is left to draw their own conclusions.
5. Values The data collected and analysed in sociological research must be value-free.
 1. Research topics are influenced by personal views. The danger and difficulty level of conducting the research influence the research method as well.
 2. Topic choice is influenced by the funders. They influence what is studied and how it is studied.
 3. Data analysis - the researcher makes decisions on what to include/exclude, hence bias/values are exhibited again.

4. The research method is influenced as the chosen method reflects the researcher's beliefs on how to best achieve validity and reliability.

5. Becker: it is impossible to achieve value-neutrality when it comes to social issues. Sociologists should choose to either promote the interests of the disadvantaged or support state activities.

6. Use of sociological knowledge: Before, sociological knowledge was used to explain ideas of social order and change. For example, Marx on capitalism & social exploitation, Weber on modernisation, and Durkheim on social forces of religion producing change. Now, sociological knowledge is being used to improve the position of women for example, with the Suffragette movement, Equal Pay Act, and Sex Discrimination Act. → Townsend & Abel-Smith's UK poverty research has helped the UK government to improve its method of collecting official statistics. → Painter & Farrington conducted a study and found that crime was less likely to occur in well-lit areas than in dimly lit areas. Social Policies and Social Problems A Social Problem is a behaviour that causes public friction in the form of a public outcry. It is defined by the powerful (the capitalists, media, and government). Ex. Climate change, gender equality, poverty, crime, and race discrimination. A Sociological Problem is a behaviour that does not cause public friction, but if unchecked, it has the potential to cause or become a social problem. Ex. Domestic abuse, child abuse, corruption, and divorce. → 2016 Wadeemah Law in the UAE. It is difficult to investigate social problems as it's not possible to stay value-neutral. If they accept the reasons of the powerful, they may fail to recognise the role of the powerful in causing those social problems. If they over-identify with the interests of the powerful, they may be accused of being agents of social control. Becker argues that it's impossible to achieve value neutrality and that sociologists should make a choice to either promote the interests of the disadvantaged, or support state activities. Mirsa: social policies relating to employment, poverty, and children in the USA have been influenced by women's activism. Diversity Cross-cultural diversity - the differences between societies. E.g. The UK has an elected monarch as head of state, but Mauritius is a republic with an elected president. Intra-cultural diversity - the differences within the same culture. Cultural diversity is described through social categories: class, age, gender, ethnicity, and religion. Examples of intra-cultural diversity: → Class - Working class & Middle class. High culture characteristics and interests of the middle & upper class: opera, theatre, art, uniqueness, and quality. Pop culture characteristics and interests of the working class include TV shows, mass-produced products, mainstream interests & trends, and pop concerts, seen as unique by the elite, seen as worthless & disposable by the elite. → Age - Differences between childhood, youth, and elderly lifestyles. Adulthood & responsibilities. Marriage consent in different countries. The consent laws within

each country for different types of sexual relationships. Kagan notes the following: Tamil Nadu (thalaikoothal) - senicide of elderlies by own family members, Columbia - elders are seen as wise people, Sierra Leone - elders are seen as being brought closer to god. → Gender - Gender inequalities exist within families as women do most of the unpaid domestic work. In various cultures, men take the greater personal share of 'family' resources.

1. In terms of education, girls in the UK generally outperform boys, however, ethnic factors can affect this as Asian boys may outperform white British girls.

2. In the US women can freely take on paid employment, however women in Saudi Arabia need a male guardian's permission to do so.

7. → Ethnicity - Ethnicity refers to the cultural differences between social groups based on background & history.

1. Britain predominantly consists of people of white British ethnics. However, this group is made up of a range of ethnicities (English, Scottish, etc.).

2. Favell: London is actually the fourth largest French city.

8. → Religion - There are various types of religious practices: monotheism (Islam), polytheism (Hinduism), atheism. Individual level – communal practices, personal commitment. Social level – religion acts as a secondary agent of socialisation to inculcate beliefs, values, and establish social solidarity & unity. There is diversity within religions (Shia and Sunni Muslims). → Global Culture - Globalisation involves the exportation and spreading of trends across societies over digital devices. People develop fragmented identities. People have a pick-and-mix approach towards culture. Globalisation results in cultural hybridisation. Cultures become more alike and people from various countries develop common cultural bonds by sharing mutual interests. Social Order – How is social order maintained? The structuralist perspective involves the consensus, and conflict approaches. The 2 approaches believe in structural determinism (the idea that society is a powerful force controlling people's thoughts and behaviour).

1. Functionalism – functionalists believe that social order has been created and maintained because of a consensus between people. → Organic Analogy - Durkheim → Social institutions were created to satisfy institutional purposes & needs. → Individuals fit into the overall structure of society on the basis of functional prerequisites. Parsons' Functional Sub-systems:

- Family sub-systems → Solves the problem of socialisation.
- Cultural (media, religion, and education) sub-system → Solves the problem of social integration.
- Economic sub-systems → Solves the problem of survival needs.
- Political sub-systems → Solves the problem of social disorder.

2. Feminism — feminists share the belief that contemporary societies are patriarchal to some degree. → Interpersonal power – exploitation of women within the family. → Cultural power – male-dominated societies are structured to oppress and exploit women. → Marxist feminist - E.g. In capitalistic societies men are encouraged to exploit women's 'weaknesses'. → Radical feminist - E.g. In the public, women are paid less, but in the private at home, women become dual-workers as they perform unpaid work.

3. Marxism — focuses on economic determinism, which is the idea that the natural resources that we have, decide our life chances. Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels proposed Marxism. They believe that the economic system is the foundation on which society was built and, that society is in order due to conflict and power differences between the relations of production (owner and non-owner), and others.

4. Neo-Marxism — a new form of Marxism. Neo Marxists say that power differences are not just due to economic determinism, because for example, we obey a police officer regardless of his economic standing but because of his status and authority.

- Ideological State Apparatus - Structural Marxism (Althusser) – Ideologies shaping a state (society). Religion, media (norms, values), education (hidden curricula-obedience). The ideologies brainwash us to think in a certain way, and thus control individuals. The ISAs teach the principles of a capitalistic society which leads individuals to develop ideologies favouring the capitalistic structure of society.

- Repressive State Apparatus - Humanist Marxism (Gramsci) – formal social mechanisms used to maintain social order. The law/judiciary/prison are repressive social institutions.

5. Therefore, those institutions that control us through ideology and oppression are more powerful as they enforce inequality through power and authority.

6. Interpretivism - Interpretivists argue that social order is created through interaction by labelling. The labelling theory suggests that when a label is associated with an individual's set of characteristics, these characteristics influence or control the individual's behaviour.

9. Social Change

1. Functionalism – Parsons' organic analogy or structural differentiation is the idea that social institutions are interrelated, and that the change in one causes a change in another. During the change from the pre-industrial to the industrial era, they required literate workers, so a social institution of education was built. This further resulted in changes within institutions as well as they lost or gained a function.

2. Marxism – Marx argued that social change was driven by economic forces and power differences between the relations of production. Conflict comes about when people compete with one another. → Microsocial changes would be workers having a strike for more money. → Macro social change is when conflicts lead to wider political and economic changes. → Weber however argued that other factors such as political issues and religion can also contribute to social change. → Weber does not recognise that conflict between economic relations does contribute to causing social change but it's not the biggest factor.

3. Feminism

- Liberal feminism promotes a range of anti-discriminatory laws such as the Sex Discrimination Act, Equal Pay Act, and the Suffragette Movement.
- Marxist feminists challenge capitalism as a route to free women.
- Radical feminists see female oppression in terms of patriarchal relationships. They believe a social change can only come about by overthrowing the ideas on which male domination is based.

4. Interpretivism Small-scale social change includes changing attitudes towards gender and globalisation. E.g. Western cultures have exhibited gender equality in areas such as employment and education. Globalisation has led to the exportation of culture. Change in the macro-level in relation to religion would be how Weber said that Calvinism (Protestant ideologies) helped promote a strong and lasting transformation in the form of capitalism.

10. Sociology as a Science Positivists say that value-free sociology is possible and that the natural science research method can be followed however it's not practical due to difficulty in controlling variables, and ethical issues. Hypothetico deductive method is the scientific procedure that can be used. sociologists can avoid personal judgments from interfering; quantitative methods can be used to lower researcher bias. Science is empirical, and data can be obtained by objective observation & systematic testing of causal relationships. Comte said that we should look for causal relationships and measurable patterns. Durkheim agrees that society is made up of social facts, and also says that sociologists must apply 'induction' (data accumulation) and 'deduction' to studies. Induction and deduction allow patterns of a society to be deduced, which can then be used to predict future behaviour. We'll form a 'general law' that is open to interpretation. Mayhew and Rowntree collected government statistics on income, drugs, education, poverty, and crime. Durkheim's study on suicide (he conducted a cross-sectional survey), Le Suicide implemented the comparative analysis method to look for causal relationships between statistics to see what led to suicide. He found that suicide rates were higher amongst Protestants than Catholics. He found that when the inclusiveness level was low, people suicide. Sociology as a Science - Positivism Science community. Responses of the positivists

1. Science is empirical, but sociology is not. Durkheim argues that there are social facts that can be observed and measured. Marx argues that capitalistic structure is a social fact that can be measured. Ex. Poverty.
2. Science seeks causal relationships that rely on predictable phenomena. Sociology studies unpredictable matter, therefore, no causal, predictable relationships can be found. Durkheim says that individual behaviour cannot be predicted, but group behaviour can be, as individuals conform.
3. Science has no bias or preferences. It is value-free. Sociology is not, as it is created by value-biased individuals. Durkheim says that it can be value-free when the hypothetico deductive method is strictly followed.
4. Science agrees with sociology on linear progression. Linear progression is when knowledge builds on old knowledge over time. Relates to Darwin's theory on the origin of life.
5. Science is open to verification. Anything 'social' is value-laden, so it is open to refutation (prove wrong) due to different perspectives.
11. Criticisms of Sociology as a Science Popper: Science is unique: Falsification
 1. Sociology can be objective through verification, induction & deduction however, falsification is required instead of verification.
 2. Sociology cannot be science until it is value-free, but then sociology wouldn't exist.
 3. He values sociology as it helps in forming new theories.
- 12.
13. Kuhn: Science is unique as it shares universal truths. Sciences are based on paradigms. Sociology is not like science because different sociological theories disagree on fundamental issues. (Paradigm provides scientists with a basic framework to work from. Paradigms are a set of norms that unites followers.) New scientists are socialised to fit into existing paradigms. Those that think outside the paradigms are shunned. Dr Velikovsky had a theory that opposed Darwinism, so he got boycotted. Why strive to be scientific? Billig: Sociology should embrace different 'knowledge paradigms' instead of trying to be purely scientific. Bauman: Postmodernity suggests that all knowledge paradigms are worth investing in. Conclusion on sociology as a science We can only consider whether sociology is a science or not by looking at the perspective and the topic being studied. For example, if looking at the effect of external forces on society, and individuals' reactions to them, it can be a science. Or, if studying the interpretivists' view on how society is a creation of shared meanings, it isn't possible to study society objectively.

Ch. 2 Socialisation and the creation of social identity

Structuralist & Interactionist Views on the Individual vs Society Interactionism The 3 main interactionist perspectives: phenomenology, ethnomethodology, and symbolic interactionism. Phenomenology - Schutz: the meaning of a phenomenon (anything existing) in the social world is negotiated and interpreted through interaction. For example, our reaction to people fighting outside and people fighting in a boxing ring would be different. Ethnomethodology - H. Garfinkel: Theory examining how individuals use everyday social interactions to construct a common-sense view of the world. If the meaning given to a social situation is known, then the behaviour would also be known. Harold Garfinkel conducted breaching experiments which aimed to seek and examine people's reactions to violations of commonly accepted social rules. In one experiment, he sent researchers into restaurants and told them to deliberately mistake customers for waiters. Garfinkel secretly observed the reactions of the waiters. From this it was understood that society is only a label we give to rules and responsibilities as a product of social interaction. As labels are only developed through social interactions, this means that meanings can change. Symbolic Interactionism - G. H. Mead: understands society in terms of the subjective meanings people impose on behaviour. D. Wrong criticised the Over Socialised Conception of Man – Wrong criticised the claim that people are the product of their socialisation. He said that we need to consider the nature aspect of human development as we can be genetically predisposed to certain behaviours. Social Action Theory – M. Weber's: people act/interact in socially meaningful ways with their own free will to create a sense of society. Criticism: the theory is too individualistic.

Structuration Marx & Durkheim – Structuralist perspective – An individual's actions should be explained in terms of the overall structure of society. When we play a role, we experience the effect of social structures (rules) shaping our behavioural choices. Difference between the 2 theories: Structuration theory would focus on how an individual's behaviour is controlled by constraints that control or determine their behaviour. Whereas the social action theory would focus on the individual's ability to make choices on how to act. Giddens' Structuration theory: Structure and action are equally important when understanding the relationship between the individual and society.

- People develop relationships when behaviours are formalised into practices so that a sense of structure is developed.
- Some rules are discarded, and others aren't because some rules are negotiated (friendship) and others are non-negotiable (punishment for murder).

Process of socialisation - how do individuals become competent social actors?
Socialisation: the process of transferring norms, values, culture, tradition, language, and customs, from one generation to another. Feral Child → Genie, a 13-year-old girl, who was discovered in California was found to have been isolated & malnourished in a small room since infancy. She could not stand, or speak, but only whimper. When children are raised without human contact, they fail to develop socially and physically.

- Arguments from sociologists: If human behaviour is instinctive, why couldn't feral children have grown up like normal children even without human contact? But this is not the case. If human behaviour had been instinctive, then there would be almost no cultural differences between societies.
- Podder and Bergvall: Culture isn't something we are born with; it is taught to us.

G. H. Mead – The 'I' and the 'Me' – The Self has 2 aspects, for Mead.

- 'I' – unsocialised self - is our opinion of ourselves.
- 'Me' - social self - is our awareness of how we are expected to behave in a given situation.
- For example, swearing loudly at home would be okay (I) but in the public, it would not be (Me).
- Criticisms: Ignores the role of social institutions in shaping societies (power inequality). Doesn't explain where norms come from.

G. H. Mead – Taking the role of the other – The Self has 2 aspects, for Mead.

- As children, we imitate those important to us through play.
- Later, we see ourselves from the viewpoint of the wider community – the generalised other.

Presentation of the Self E. Goffman – Dramaturgy: People's behaviours are scripted with people being the role takers. Personal identity is in play when we say our own lines. External influences are in play when we follow scripted roles. Impression management: adopting an identity to perform, to maintain the impression others have of us. C. H. Cooley – Looking Glass Self: People imagine how they appear to others and mould their personalities. They observe their own behaviour and correct it or make it part of their personality. Biological Programming & Social Darwinism – E. Darwin: we are predisposed to behave in particular ways.

- For example, men and women are biologically programmed differently: women are caring and thus suitable for childrearing & upbringing; men are aggressive and thus suit a providing role.

- Parsons agrees with this, as most societies have segregated conjugal roles based on evolutionary biological principles → Male & female stereotypes.
- Although people can refuse to follow biological instincts, sociobiologists claim that attempts to limit the effects of Biogramming will cause social problems.
- Wortley: although genes may be responsible for certain behavioural predispositions, they do not themselves produce behaviour.
- Fallon's neurological research revealed that the brain structure of psychopathic killers was not always significantly different from the brain of people who did not engage in deviant behaviours. The difference was the way in which people were raised. For example, people who were abused as children were more likely to develop murderous impulses in adulthood.

Agencies of Socialisation Social control – Social mechanisms or sanctions that regulate a person's actions. There are 2 types: Formal controls involve written rules such as laws, which apply to everyone. Informal controls are rewards/punishments in everyday informal settings such as the family. Primary socialisation: when the process of socialisation is done by the Family or immediate Peers; they are people we have an emotional connection to.

- Family: parents are significant others because they teach basic and moral values. Positive and negative sanctions are mainly informal. Positive sanctions – facial expressions, verbal approval, and physical rewards. Negative sanctions – disapproval through language, and physical punishment. Mead refers to parents as significant others.
- Peers: people that we interact with that are the same age.
- Peer groups may include youth sub-cultures such as punks and hippies.
- An individual may be influenced by peer groups through peer pressure, as a form of social control.
- Sub-culture – a culture within a larger culture, which develops its own norms, and values. Social sanctions include disparaging comments or seeking company.

Secondary socialisation: when socialisation is done by others: Education, Mass Media, Religion; we don't have an emotional connection to those in charge of socialising us, but we develop instrumental relationships.

- Education: Schools offer a formal curriculum (explicitly taught subjects) and a hidden curriculum (obedience).
- Parsons said that the education system is a secondary agent of socialisation because of 2 reasons: 1) it emancipates the child from primary attachment; 2) it allows children to internalise society's norms & values that are a step higher than those learnt within families.

- Marxists say that schools prepare children for adult work by socialising them to function well, and under the capitalistic structure without complaint. Bowles & Gintis - Correspondence principal: explains the way in which the education system mirrors the world of work. Ex. (sanctions): Showing obedience to authority figures, daily need for attendance.
- Mass Media
- Short-term effects are imitation, desensitisation, and learning new content.
- Long-term effects such as consumerism (increasing desire to purchase), and fear (exposure to violent content).
- Positive sanctions – praise, flattering pictures. Negative sanctions – unflattering pictures.
- Religion: religious values affect those who believe, as they take it as a design for living. Legal systems and moral values are often influenced by religious values as well. Religious values are displayed often through dressing styles.
- Positive sanctions are applied through promises of a better time (Hinduism – reincarnation, and Islam - heaven). Negative sanctions – hell, exclusion from the church.

Elements of the Social Construction of Reality Societies are mentally constructed by geographic borders, a system of govt, a common language, customs, traditions, and a sense of belonging. The social construction of reality involves a relationship between beliefs, ideologies, & power (structural elements), on one side and everyday ideas about roles, values, & norms on the other.

- Roles: Roles contribute to the creation of culture because they demand social interaction and an awareness of others. Roles have a label and a meaning with the label on how the person is expected to behave.
- Values: Values provide a sense of order and predictability. Values provide broad guidance for role behaviour. Values are general ideas supporting the norms.
- Norms: Specific rules dictating how people should act in a particular situation. They are behavioural rules used to perform roles acceptably. Norms are open to negotiation.
- Beliefs: Fundamental, deep-rooted ideas that shape our values.
- Ideologies: Ideologies are patterns of ideas which claim to explain & legitimise the social structure & culture of a particular group in society. Ideologies are important in the social construction of reality because they help structure society, as ideologies are mental maps that guide the development of different aspects of society.

- Power: the ability to make others do what you want, even against their will. Giddens: power relates to the social construction of reality because those with power can impose their definition of social reality on others, to bring about order and stability. Foucault: Power is exercised in subtle ways in modern society, through CCTV surveillance or through smartphones.

Social Class, Gender, and Ethnicity in Constructing Social Identities
 Class Identities: Social class can be stratified in terms of occupation, to working, middle and upper class. Lower class – blue-collar workers; mainly manual work, or in the manufacturing industry. The lower class develop this social identity when they are continually reinforced through socialisation. Middle-class – white-collar workers; middle-class identities are constructed around a range of occupational identities including professionals (such as doctors), intellectuals (such as university lecturers), etc. The middle class is identified as so because:

- they are not the working class – they are below the upper class and aspire to be like them.
- the middle class has social capital, which refers to their level of connections.
- according to Bourdieu, the middle class has cultural capital which refers to the background, educational qualifications, and status they have which gives them an advantage over others.

Upper-class – upper-class identities are based on 2 groups: the landed aristocracy, and the business elite. Davies et al. note that the world's richest 1% own 40% of the total global wealth. Of this 1%, 60% are from the USA and Japan.
 Gender Identities Biological sex refers to the physical characteristics that cause people to be labelled male or female. Gender refers to the social characteristics given to each sex.

- The 2 dominant gender groups are hegemonic masculinity and emphasized femininity.
- Male identity – Contemporary societies are experiencing a crisis of masculine identity because of long-term unemployment, and lower educational achievement relative to girls. Hence, they are no longer able to provide for the family or control economic resources. Marginalised masculinity: men that are no longer able to perform traditional masculine roles.
- Female identity
- Normalised identities involve women playing a secondary role to women.
- Sexualised identities involve women being seen & treated as sexual objects that exist for male gratification.
- Assertive identities reflect the changes in women's rights in societies. 'Girl Power' movements. Modern feminists have tried to raise female power within

the family. Ageing feminists help maintain the rights of elderly women on being fashionable, active, and sexual.

- Autonomous identities refer to women free from traditional constraints such as childcare & pregnancy. They are likely to be highly educated, successful, and career-focused.

Ethnic Identities

- Ethnic identities can be developed based on a common country of birth, traditions and culture, shared history, or religious beliefs.
- There are 2 types of ethnic hybridisation: 1) Conventional hybridisation which mixes different ethnic styles to produce new identities. 2) Contemporary hybridisation which suggests old identities are changed and re-established.

Culture & Identity with reference to Modernism & Postmodernism Culture & identity help systemise the way people do things. According to Adams & Marshall: Identities provide individuals with a framework of rules on how to perform roles, identities create a sense of purpose for individuals by setting goals, identities help ensure self-control. Culture & identity are used to identify one's status in society in term of high culture & low culture. Those who prefer high culture is seen as socially superior. Those who prefer low (mass) culture is seen by the ruling class as worthless, inauthentic, and disposable. The elite would usually identify an individual's status via their birth, or background, but (crisis) since mass education has allowed the working class to achieve a higher social standing through educational attainment, individuals' preferences are used to identify their social class.

Postmodernism Globalisation has exposed societies to new behaviours and ideas, leading individuals to become identity consumers. This has resulted in individuals forming fragmented identities. The primary sources of identity are less important when defining 'the Self'. Consumption and cyber identities are becoming increasingly significant when defining 'the Self'. Monolithic identities (the correct way of being a certain individual), OR, the centred social identities are no longer sustained. Social rules are relaxed; thus, people are free to invent and adapt identities to their personal style. Fragmentation results in identities becoming decentred; people are less certain on how to behave. As social standards no longer set rules on how to behave, individuals shape their own unique personal identities throughout their life. J. Lyotard: Science has helped in destroying metanarratives. Knowledge is available to everyone; not just the powerful. J. Baudrillard: We are constantly surrounded by the ecstasy of communication, and this is sickening. We also pursue images attached to the product hence, we are identity consumers. Simulacra is a make-believe value that has no real value in the real world. We believe in hyper-realities in which

appearances are everything. J. Derrida: Social structures are constantly changing. All meaning is now relative I'm socially constructed.

Ch. 3 Sociology Research Methods

Primary, Secondary, Quantitative and Qualitative Data

Primary Data: Information collected personally by a researcher. Strengths

- The researcher has control over how the data is collected, the purpose, and who it's collected for.
- The researcher has control over the reliability, validity, and representativeness.

Weaknesses

14. Time-consuming and expensive to conduct.
15. There may be difficulty gaining access to the target group, in terms of danger, and availability (may be dead).

Secondary Data: Data already existing (official statistics, reports, personal letters, and diaries – at archives, libraries). Strengths

- Saves time, money, and effort, when investigating crime, marriage, divorce, and suicide.
- Official statistics are seen as being highly reliable.
- Secondary data is helpful for historical & comparative purposes.

Weaknesses

- Official definitions of concepts being studied by researchers may differ from sociological definitions.
- Official statistics may not reflect all incidents, but only those reported to the authorities.

Official Statistics – Government-generated secondary sources of data on areas such as crime, marriage, and employment.

Quantitative Data – Data that is numerically expressed. Strengths

- Allows for easy comparison of results between categories & time.
- Allows conclusions to be easily drawn.
- Reliable as it is easier to replicate the study.
- Personal biases are less likely to affect the findings and the researcher can stay more objective & value-free.

Weaknesses

- Collects only limited information, limits respondents to a few lines. Hence, we do not find the reasons & meaning for behaviours.
- Difficult to collect the natural responses of people as quantitative data is usually collected in artificial settings. Hence, results are likely to be low in validity due to demand characteristics or SDB.
- Issues can only be investigated if the variables being measured are initially defined.

Qualitative Data – Non-numerical data that expresses the quality of a relationship.

Strengths

- Subjects are allowed to talk and act freely which allows researchers to collect data and find the reason behind behaviours.
- Researchers are able to build a rapport with respondents, hence they are likely to be give answers which are highly valid.

Weaknesses

- Data is difficult to generalise, as qualitative research is usually based on small groups.
- It's difficult to compare qualitative research across time and location as no 2 groups will be the same.
- Data may lack objectivity as it is affected by the researcher's view.
- As findings are in-depth, they are difficult to replicate; they are less reliable.

2 studies which aimed to find the quality of people's behaviour: → Sudhir Venkatesh studied a Chicago gang from the viewpoint of the members. → Goffman covertly studied the patients in a mental institution to understand how nurses labelled patients.

Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methods 1. Questionnaires:

Consists of a list of written questions. Strengths

- Highly reliable data is collected as everyone answers all questions.
- Respondents are anonymous, so responses are likely to be valid (less biased answers).

Weaknesses

- Low response rate, and this can result in the sample being unrepresentative.
- Participants may ignore questions or select numerous answers.
- No way to know whether respondents understood the question properly because of ambiguous and leading questions.

Questionnaire methods: Postal questionnaire, online questionnaire. Close-ended questions have sets of pre-coded responses.

- Quantitative data is collected.
- Results are quick and easy to interpret and compare.
- This research method is preferred by positivists.
- Highly reliable data is collected.
- Lack of detailed information (reasons for behaviour/response) can limit the validity of responses.
- Types of questions: Likert-type scales, multiple-choice, checklists, rank order, and rating scales.

Open-ended questions allow participants to respond in a freestyle manner.

- Participants can include their opinions, feelings, and their complete knowledge about the topic.
- Qualitative data is collected.
- This research method is preferred by the interpretivists
- Highly reliable data is collected.
- Highly valid data is collected.

→ A few of the below & above issues can be eliminated using a pilot study. → The following are (unintentionally) biased questions:

- Ambiguous questions.
- Leading questions.
- Questions with unbalanced options.

→ Callendar and Jackson: Investigated whether the fear of debt deters students from higher education. They had a low response rate as only half of the distributed questionnaires were returned. → Eileen Barker Conducted a 41-page questionnaire to study the Moonies.

2. Social Surveys: Obtains information in a standardised form from a large group of people.

- Objective and quantitative data is collected
- There is minimal involvement of the researcher.

- The data is reliable and representative.
- There is low validity as there are chances of social desirability bias and demand characteristics affecting results.
- No way to know whether respondents understood the questions.

→ Example: UK National Consensus and The British Social Attitudes Survey.

3. Content Analysis: Research method which systematically analyses media texts and communication. Collects both quantitative and qualitative data. Quantitative data is collected by counting the frequency of people's behaviour in media texts.

Strength: Content analysis helps identify underlying patterns in society.

Weaknesses: Not replicable, low reliability. → Hogenraad: used content analysis to identify the recurring themes & words which lead to conflicts.

4. Experiments: Involves changing different variables to test their effect on behaviour. The IV is manipulated to see its effect on the DV. They try to find causal relationships. Correlations are statistical relationships that suggest a probability of a true relationship. Causation is when one action occurs, another always follows. They help researchers to predict future behaviour.

1. Laboratory Experiment — an experiment conducted in artificial settings where conditions are controlled by the researcher. There's usually a control group and an experimental group. Strength:

- Easy to replicate as the situations are controlled. Standardisation results in a high level of reliability.
- Helps establish causal relationships and social facts.

2. Weakness:

- Rarely used in sociology, because of ethical issues and impracticality.
- The Hawthorne effect can lead participants to show demand characteristics or social desirability bias.

3. → Milgram: investigated destructive obedience.

4. Field Experiment — an experiment conducted in natural settings, but the conditions of the study are controlled.

- Behaviour is more likely to be ecologically valid.
- There is less control over extraneous variables.

5. → Rosenhan: studied how staff in mental hospitals labelled people.

Longitudinal Survey: A form of comparative analysis which track changes of a sample participating in research over time. Strength: The vast amount of data collected allows comparison to be made over time. Data is high in validity.

Weakness: Not possible to replicate. Cross-sectional Survey: Involves identifying groups which share broad similarities and measuring difference in a single

variable. → Durkheim's study on suicide used cross-sectional surveys to build a comparative analysis.

5. Official Statistics: Includes government-generated data on crime, marriage, employment. Patterns of behaviour are understood. Strength:

- Official statistics may be the only data source available to cover a particular topic, i.e., crime.
- They are highly representative as data is collected via a national survey.

Weakness

:

- Validity is an issue because governments & coroners choose what to include & exclude. Not all people crimes are reported.
- Data that would be expensive and time-consuming for researchers to collect would be readily available.
- Does not reveal reasons for people's behaviour.

Comparative Analysis — Compares different situations to understand the similarities and differences between the two situations. → Durkheim: Looked at suicide rates amongst the Protestants and Catholics. → Atkinson: Challenged the objectivity of crime statistics by looking at preconceptions of coroners.

6. Interviews

1. Structured Interviews — A set of standard questions are asked by the researcher to the respondent. Strength:

- Consistent comparable results are gained as the same questions are asked in the same order.
- Respondents' misunderstandings can be cleared.
- The response rate is likely to be 100%.

2. Weakness:

- Lack of anonymity can cause demand characteristics due to the researcher effect, halo-effect, or social desirability bias.

3. → Goldthorpe: Conducted a structured interview where he studied the attitude of high-wage earners in 3 Luton-based companies.

4. Unstructured Interviews — a free-form interview where the respondents talk freely about a broad topic. Strength:

- Highly valid data is collected.

5. Weakness:

- A strong rapport needs to be established to encourage respondents to talk.
- The researcher has little control over the direction of the conversation.
- It is difficult to generalise, interpret, and analyse the data.

6. → Becker: Studied Chicago schoolteachers' stereotypes.
7. Semi-Structured Interviews — An interview involving both open and closed questions. Strength
 - Respondent is allowed freedom to talk about what they want and this helps gain valid data.
8. Weakness:
 - Researcher has to build a rapport and think of relevant questions quickly.
 - Large amounts of data are collected, and they need to be studied, which can be time-consuming.
9. → Myhill and Jones: Conducted a semi-structured interview to understand students' perspectives on teachers' treatment of students according to gender.
10. Group Interviews — Respondents discuss a topic as a group. Strength
 - The researcher can control the direction of the conversation.
 - Data is collected quickly and efficiently.
 - Encourages respondents to speak up.
11. Weakness:
 - The researcher must control the behaviour of the group to allow people to speak freely.
12. → Paul Willis: Observed how 'lads' developed anti-school culture.

7. Observation Overt — The subjects being studied are aware that they are being studied. Covert — The subjects are unaware that they are being studied. Non-Participant Observation: The researcher observes the participants' behaviour from a distance without participating in that behaviour. Strength

- It allows people that do not want to participate (i.e., criminals) in research to be studied.
- Researcher gets to observe objectively the subject's natural behaviour however, there may be demand characteristics.

Weakness:

- Observation from a distance can produce invalid data. Researchers are not able to ask questions as a way of gathering data.
- Difficulty in gaining access to some groups.
- There are ethical issues when people are observed without their consent.

→ Flanders studied interaction in the classroom.

Participant Observation: The researcher participates in the behaviour that they are studying. It allows researchers to demonstrate Verstehen, which is the ability to take the viewpoint of the subject. There are 2 types of participant observations:

1. Overt Participants Observation Involves the researcher openly participating in the behaviour of people who are aware that they are being studied. Membership is often required to get access to some groups. Strength

- The researcher is free to ask participants questions. This allows in-depth reasons for the behaviour to be collected, hence the data is high in validity.

2. Weakness:

- If a group refuses to give permission, then the research cannot be carried out.

- An awareness of the researcher's presence may make participants behave unnaturally – demand characteristics & SDB. This leads to data with low validity.

- It is impossible to replicate. And as the researcher cannot be documenting everything that happens, the bias from reconstruction of events is likely to occur.

3. → Eileen Barker studied the Moonies, a religious group, for 6 years to build rapport.

4. Covert Participants Observation The researcher studies participants undercover so that the subjects are unaware that they are being studied.

Strength

- Participants would show their natural unbiased behaviour & actions; hence the researcher is able to collect in-depth data that's high in validity.

- Highly valid data which explains the meanings behind behaviour is gathered, hence it's insightful in sociology.

5. Weakness:

- It's difficult to gain access to these groups.

- If a researcher lacks 'insider knowledge' they would risk exposure. They should also be able to blend in easily in terms of characteristics & behaviour.

- In a covert observation, there are ethical issues of invading privacy.

- There is danger posed to the researcher, especially if the subject group uncovers that the researcher was working undercover.

- It can be difficult to stop participating. Further, there's the ethical issue of deserting people who came to trust you.

6. → James Patrick learnt the ways of a Glasgow gang. → Venkatesh studied a black American gang from Chicago. He required sponsorship to get into the gang. → Goffman covertly studied the patients in a mental institution to understand how nurses labelled patients.

8. Case Studies (research technique): In-depth qualitative study of a particular group or person. Strength

- Provides great in-depth detail on how people view the world, thus it has high validity.

- Uncovers meanings & reasons behind the behaviour.

Weakness:

- Consumes a lot of time, effort, and money.
- Data is difficult to generalize results, so it is not representative.

→ Westwood conducted a 12-month study on female workers in a stitching factory.

9. Semiology: Involves the analysis of language and cultural signs from media texts to uncover hidden meanings within texts. 10. Documents Historical: Newspapers, reports, and books. They are free to access but can be outdated. Personal: Letters and diaries. They are free to access but, can be outdated and biased (validity is in question).

Research Design

1. The research problem — Decide the research topic.
2. Research hypothesis — A testable statement that predicts the outcome of a research.
3. Data Collection Sampling frame (similar to target population) — A list of names of all those people included in the survey population from which the sample is selected. Sample — A group of people, representing a target population, that are taking part in the research. Sampling techniques:
 - Random Sampling – People are randomly selected.
 - Systematic Sampling – People are selected at regular intervals from the sampling frame.
 - Stratified Random Sampling – A random sample is chosen from a subdivided group of people.
 - Stratified Quota Sampling – The sample frame is divided into categories and people are selected until the size is reached.
 - Snowball Sampling – The researcher contacts one member of a group, gains trust and connects the researcher to others.
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4. A pilot study is conducted to realize the practical and financial risks and feasibility of the research.
5. Data analysis Private/internal analysis – Uses validity/reliability concepts to ensure data is logical and consistent.
6. Presenting results Analyse related researches to discover trends. Reflect on the research and its hypothesis. Data can be represented in the following forms: findings, conclusions, limitations, suggestions, and improvements.

Ch. 4 Relationship Between Theory & Methods

Overview of Positivism, Interpretivism, and Realism
Positivism — Positivists aim to explain social phenomena in terms of the ‘collective conscience’ bearing down on individuals’ choices. Scientific research involves the ability to discover ‘social facts’ that determine individual behaviour. • The researcher must be personally and systematically objective. • Scientific research involves the ability to quantify and measure behaviour. • They conduct research using quantitative research methods.
Interpretivism — Interpretivists aim to describe social behaviour in terms of the meanings and interpretations of the person who creates it. • People have free will and they decide how to act rather than instantly react. • Behavioural rules shift according to the context of the situation. • The research method of participant observation is often used. • The importance is on achieving greater validity. • They conduct research using qualitative research methods.

→ Humphries: Although participation is desirable to get a deeper insight into behaviour, there would be no objectivity that the positivists want. The importance is on achieving greater validity. Qualitative methods.

Realism — Realists believe that objective and subjective data is important to collect. For example, if studying crime, the empirical reality should be captured, and also the meanings/reasons for those actions. • Realists use different methods to collect both quantitative and qualitative data.

Theoretical, Ethical, and Practical Considerations of Research

Theoretical Issues	Ethical Issues	Practical Issues
Validity	Informed consent	Cost
Reliability	Vulnerable groups	Time
Representativeness	Psychological harm	Sample size
Positivism	Anonymity	Access to the sample
Interpretivism	Confidentiality	Cooperation of participants
Generalisability	Privacy	Researcher characteristics
	Disclosure	Choice of research method

Theoretical Considerations The theoretical issues related to the Positivist and Interpretivist dichotomy within sociology:

- The concept of validity: The extent to which a research method measures what it intends/claims to measure.
- The concept of reliability: The extent to which a research method effectively generates consistent results and replicable findings.

Positivists and interpretivists want to collect different types of data. Realists, therefore, say that a mix of methods (data triangulation) can be used to satisfy

different types of research questions within the same topic. In turn, this relates to the theoretical perspectives (Functionalism, Marxism, Interactionism, and Realism) held by sociologists.

- **Functionalism:** Functionalists focus on the aspects of society which show how social institutions contribute to the maintenance of society.
- **Marxism:** Marxists focus on aspects of society relating to inequality, conflict and division.
- **Feminism:** Feminists focus on issues within society that are related to gender inequality and patriarchy.
- **Interpretivism:** Interpretivists focus on how individuals interact to create a sense of society. They also try to find the reason behind behaviours.

Practical Considerations

- **Access to those being studied:** It is easier for researchers to study easily accessible groups such as the general public. However, if the sample is only accessible in a closed setting, it will be difficult gaining access. Schools, hospitals, religious cults, etc., are examples of closed settings from which it would be difficult gaining access to a sample.
- **Time:** Does the research have a short or long period?
- **Cost:** How much money does the researcher have? Large-scale research is very expensive and beyond the means of most sociologists. Hence, they will require a funding source. However, your funding sources will limit aspects of your research. For example, the data and results found.
- **The Researcher:** The values held by the researcher. Whether the researcher has any personal or financial stake in the outcome of the study. Whether the research is ethical to study, and the topic is safe for the researcher to study?

Ethical Considerations

- **Informed Consent:** Research participants should be offered the right to withdraw. They should know enough about the research to give informed consent. Participants must be debriefed after the study.
- **Confidentiality and Privacy:** Participants' identities should be kept anonymous. Data must be kept confidential.
- **Effects on Research Participants:** Researchers should be aware of the possible effects of the research on the participant; for example, legal issues, and psychological harm.
- **Vulnerable Groups:** Particular care should be taken when researching certain vulnerable groups in society. For example, their age, disability, and physical and mental health.

- Safety: Everyone involved in the study must be physically and psychologically safe.

Studies which are deemed unethical: → Milgram: Experimenting and causing distress to people who were unaware that they were being studied. Explain in the exam paper the reasons - electric shocks and authority. → Rosenhan's study tricked doctors into cooperating with students who faked schizophrenia.

Three ways in which a study may be influenced by sources of funding:

1. Bias and interference: The research funding agencies expect the research to be to their advantage. Funding agencies might interfere with every part of the study, and the choices of researchers would be scrutinised by funders.
2. Distortion of data: Funding agencies could distort the data as they have an ulterior motive.
3. Selection and presentation of research subjects/respondents - a biased sample leads to biased responses.

Validity, Ecological Validity, Reliability, Objectivity, and Representativeness in Research

- Validity – The extent to which the study measures what was intended to measure.
- Ecological validity – The extent to which findings represent behaviour in real-life situations.
- Reliability – Refers to the effectiveness of the research approach in producing consistent results. Reliability can be checked by replicating the study.
- Objectivity – The concept that truth is independent of individual subjectivity.
- Representativeness – The extent to which the findings are generalisable to the target population.

Triangulation and Methodological Pluralism Triangulation: When more than one research method is used to collect data on the same topic. All data collected can only be either quantitative or qualitative. Triangulation is used to assure the validity of the research. 3 types of triangulations in research:

- Researcher triangulation – When different researchers used to interpret data to ensure validity.
- Data triangulation – When different sampling strategies (data collection at different times, and contexts, from different people).
- Theoretical triangulation – When different theoretical viewpoints are taken to explain social behaviour in the best way.

Methodological Pluralism: To ensure validity and reliability, more than one method is used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. A holistic picture of the topic is gathered. → Eileen Barker studied a religious sect, the 'Moonies' who were accused of brainwashing students. Barker implemented methodological pluralism to collect data about the Moonies. Research methods used in the study: Overt participant observation, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews. → Weber said that a study should use both qualitative and quantitative data. Implementing more than one research would require more time effort, funding, and researchers to carry it out.

Ch. 5 The Family

Topic 1 – Perspectives on the family Functionalism Murdock: 4 Functions of Family

- Stable satisfaction of the sex drive.
- Biological reproduction.
- The socialisation of the young.
- Providing economic needs of members.

Criticisms:

16. Feminists argue that the traditional family structure disadvantages women.
17. Other social institutions could perform some functions of the family.
18. Some cultures do not have families, such as the 'Nayar'.

Parsons: Functional Fit Theory As society changes, the type of family that is most suitable to society changes as well. In pre-industrial society, the extended family was predominant as the family was responsible for the education of the children, producing food and caring for the sick. In the modern industrial society, the isolated nuclear family became the norm because it fits the requirements of industrial societies, which is that the workforce needs to be geographically mobile and flexible. Criticisms:

- It is too 'neat' - social change is not so orderly.
- Laslett found that church records show only 10% of households were of extended families. This shows that nuclear families existed in preindustrial society.
- Young & Willmott found out that extended families were still existing in East London in the 1970s.

Parsons: 2 Family Functions

- Primary socialisation – When the process of socialisation, which is to teach the norms and values of the society, is done by the family unit. If primary socialisation is

done correctly, then boys learn the instrumental role, and girls learn the expressive role.

Why do we socialise? To learn the behaviour expected of an individual by the society; to maintain social order; to help define our identity; to preserve the culture.

Instrumental role: Functionalist understanding of the role of the father in a family, which is to be the breadwinner, and discipline the family. Expressive role: Functionalist understanding of the role of the mother in a family, which is to be caring and do household chores.

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- Stabilisation of adult personalities – Emotional security achieved within a marital relationship between the partners. According to Parsons, the husband and children return home from work stressed and is ‘de-stressed by the wife’, thus reducing conflict in society. This are also known as the ‘Warm Bath theory’.

Criticisms:

- Too deterministic to think that children’s personalities are shaped by all-powerful adults.
- Marxist Zaretsky says that emotional support is given to encourage members to continue working under the harsh realities of capitalism.

Criticisms of Functionalism:

- Downplays conflict – Paints a rose-tinted picture, ignoring domestic violence against women, and child abuse.
- Out of Date – Parsons’ view of segregated conjugal roles are old-fashioned. In contemporary societies, families are more symmetrical.
- Ignores female exploitation – Women have to take on double shifts, and maybe even triple shifts, as they are also treated as reserved labour.
- Marxist feminists: Women absorb the anger that is directed at capitalism.

Marxism The bourgeoisie (elite class) gained their wealth from exploiting the proletariat (working class). Family performs the function of ‘ideological control’ which maintains the capitalistic structure of society. The nuclear family emerged because of the needs of the capitalist system. Engles: Emergence of the nuclear family When capitalism emerged, there was private ownership. When the bourgeoisie wanted to pass on their wealth, the patriarchal monogamous nuclear family emerged. This reproduces inequality. Children of the rich stay rich. Children of the poor stay poor. Women are seen as mere instruments for reproduction. Criticisms:

- Gender inequality preceded (existed long before) capitalism (can be seen in tribes).
- Capitalist economies such as the UK and USA have seen the fastest improvements in gender equality.

Families support capitalism in 3 ways:

- Ideologically - Socialisation involves the transmission of a ruling class ideology (Zaretsky). Family is an ISA through which children learn norms and support the economic status quo (Althusser).
- Politically - Privatised family encourages members to focus on private problems rather than on wider social concerns. Reducing the focus on social exploitation is done by giving a false class consciousness to workers.
- Unit of Consumption (Althusser) – Families are important targets for advertisers as they encourage consumption and, families become a major source of profit. Unit of production - The family produces a socialised workforce for the capitalistic structure and takes on the cost of replacing dead labour.

Overall criticisms of Marxism:

- Many women now work full-time in capitalist societies.
- Feminists find that Marxists ignore inequalities between genders, which is the source of female oppression.
- Marxism ignores the benefits of the nuclear family.

Feminism Liberal Feminism: They believe that women can be empowered through legal reforms such as the Sex Discrimination Act and the Equal Pay Act. Sommerville argues that women's roles within families have significantly improved as they now have better access to divorce, control over their fertility, less social pressure to marry, and better job opportunities. However, further reforms are required for women to achieve full equality.

Criticisms: Marxist feminists point out that women still do major work and are still primary childcarers. Marxist Feminism: They argue that the cause of women's oppression in the family is not men, but capitalism. Women's oppression serves several functions: women reproduce the labour force, absorb anger, and are a 'reserved army of labour'. Marxist feminists tackle gender inequality by placing an economic value on women's work - childcare/housework. Ansley argues that women absorb anger that is directed at capitalism. They also experience domestic violence because of this.

Criticisms: patriarchal oppression is overt in many pre-capitalist societies. Also, gender equality has increased as capitalism has developed. Radical feminism: Sees female oppression in terms of patriarchal relationships. Against liberal feminists, they argue that paid work is not liberating, but rather a dual burden of paid work and unpaid housework. Some women have to take triple shifts where they do paid work, domestic work, and emotional work. They advocate for the abolition of the traditional patriarchal nuclear family. they suggest radical separatism where women live away from men. British Crime Survey found that domestic violence accounts for 1/6 of all violent crimes. Nearly

one in four women will experience domestic violence. Kate Millett was a feminist.

Criticisms: separatism is too unrealistic due to heterosexual attraction.

New Rights They prefer the traditional nuclear family. Husbands and wives only have time for 'one shift'. Divorce is too easy to obtain. Society is stable when children live with married parents, thus the divorce process must be difficult. They argue that UK's welfare state creates a dependency culture. Most single-parent families are created because of this. Children from broken homes are 9 times more likely to become young offenders. Young people whose parents are split are 3 times more likely to become aggressive. Margaret Natasha was a New Right. She felt that the rate of divorces in the UK was alarming. She was also pushing for the welfare benefits system to have more criteria for people to avail benefits. Criticisms: the New Rights exaggerate the decline of the nuclear family; traditional gender roles are oppressive to women; the divorce process being easier helps women escape abusive relationships. Benefits of the nuclear family:

- Segregated conjugal roles.
- Transfer of wealth is easy because it goes directly to children.
- Stability in the relationship in the long term.
- Sufficient socialisation.
- A stable personality is developed.
- Security is given to children.
- Provision of economic needs
- Motivates children for economic pursuit.
- Imposes social control.
- Women absorb anger and this prevents conflicts in society.

Postmodernism Modern society is fragmented because of globalisation, and this has weakened the influence of society on behaviour. Technology makes lives less predictable. As a result of the two, family life is diverse and there is no dominant family type.

Haraven: Life Course Analysis Sociologists should focus on individual family members and their choices. This will help to realize that there is flexibility and variation in people's lives on choices they make, and on when they make it. Criticisms: Giddens says that although people have more freedom, there is still a structure shaping people's decisions.

Giddens: Choice and Equality Family and marriage have been transformed due to greater choice to a more equal relationship between men and women. Family and marriage have been transformed because of contraception and feminism (women gain independence). As a result of the 2, couples are free to define their relationship. Couples stay for love, happiness, and sexual reasons, rather than for traditional reasons. People try different relationships as a process of self-discovery. Ulrich Beck: Risk Consciousness & Individualism Fewer people get married because of risk consciousness; they see

people getting divorced in society, so they choose not to get married at all. Individualization makes people less likely to marry as individual desires are more important than social commitments.

Topic 2 – Divorce, Marriage, and Cohabitation Marriage and Cohabitation

The Office for National Statistics has found the following:

- there has been a long-term decrease in marriage.
- people are more likely to cohabit.
- people marry later.
- the number of remarriages has increased.
- a recent increase in the marriage rate.

Although there has been a long-term decline, most households are still led by married couples and, couples cohabit which most likely would lead to marriage. Reasons for long-term decrease in marriage:

- Economic factor: Increasing living costs and wedding costs.
- Liberal feminist - Women are financially secure.
- New Right - Moral decline & too much acceptance of diversity. This causes the inability to commit; is bad for society and the socialisation of the next generation.
- Postmodernism - Greater choice and freedom. Consumer society involves picking and choosing, so we choose whether to marry or not.
- Secularisation - less stigma on cohabitation, remarrying, or divorce.
- Risk consciousness - people see many marriages ending in divorce; hence they would not want to marry.
- Individualisation - Individual desires are more important than social commitment.

Divorce There has been a long-term increase in divorce rates, especially since the release of the Divorce Act. Since 2005, divorce rates have increased. Reasons for the increase in divorce rate:

- Social Policy - The Divorce Act made divorce easier to attain.
- Economic factors - Low pay and high living cost → both partners work → strain on the marriage.
- New rights - Welfare benefits may cause mothers to desire a divorce. Moral decline.
- Feminism - Women are financially independent.
- Postmodernism - Secularisation has led to less social stigma around the concept of divorce.

Reasons for short-term decrease in divorce (since 2005):

- Few people get married, so fewer people divorce.
- People can't afford a divorce, so they live apart.

Evaluation: there are social changes that underlie the decline in marriage. In the previous years, as people were getting married later, the marriage rate is likely to stabilise now.

What replaces married couples?

6. Cohabiting couples, household diversity, more single parent, single person, or reconstituted households.
7. Feminism → Feminists see an increase in divorce as a good thing. However, they say that divorce may not necessarily benefit women as 90% of children live with them after a divorce.
8. New Right → Without the family, there is a risk of less effective primary socialisation.
9. Postmodernism → Increase in divorce shows that we are a consumer society. Divorce is good as it shows that the nuclear family is not better than other family forms.
10. Cohabitation occurs because of the fear of getting divorced; hence, pre-nuptials or marriage guidance can help cope with fear.

Topic 3 – Family Diversity Factors that explain the increase in household diversity:

- People get married later and this leads to developing Kidult or Single-person households.
- Divorce creates single-parent households and reconstituted families.
- Cohabitation is more likely to break down than marriages.
- Divorce explains an increase in the multi-generational family as single mothers may move in with their parents.

Postmodernism – Postmodernists argue that the increasing diversity in family types is due to society being diverse and tolerant. This allows people to freely choose their desired family type with reduced social stigma. Further, there is less social pressure to get married. Economic factors – Rising living costs explain the increase in single-person households. When people are financially independent, they choose to live alone and when they can't afford to live alone, they live with their parents creating multi-generational and Kidult households. Feminism – Feminists believe that when women are financially secure they focus on building a career rather than on starting a family. This explains the increase in single-person households. They may raise babies on their own, hence leading to an increase in single-parent households. Women being financially secure makes relationships fragile. Social Policies – The Divorce Act & Equal Pay Act have

caused family diversity. New Rights - The New Rights argue that teenagers get benefits when they are single-parents, hence they get pregnant to avail the benefits. This leads to the development of an underclass. However, there is evidence that only 2% of single parents are teenagers. A social policy and its benefits cannot convince a person on its own to have a child. Benefits only provide enough to exist, not enough for a comfortable life.

Late modernists – Late modernists oppose postmodernists. They claim that people do not create single-parent, single-person, or multi-generational households only because of choice. They can also be made due to:

- Financial necessity.
- People want to get married, but they do not because of risk consciousness (Beck).
- Individualisation (Beck) – People try relationships to see what suits them.
- Pure relationship (Giddens) couples stay in a relationship for love and sexual reasons rather than for the children.

Analysis:

13. Increase in single-person households does not necessarily mean that people do not have relationships.

14. People could be 'living apart together'.

Evaluation – Is the nuclear family really in decline? Conventional family: Traditional nuclear family with segregated conjugal roles. Neo-Conventional family: Dual-earner family – similar to Young & Willmott's symmetrical family. Chester: The Neo Conventional family → There is increased family diversity in recent years. Sees conventional families transforming into neo-conventional families. He argues that most people are choosing to not live in families other than the nuclear family on a long-term basis. How does family life vary by ethnicity, social class, and sexuality?

- South Asian families are patriarchal, and men have to protect their honour to do business. Therefore, they keep women in their control by secluding them from having any relationship with a man.
- Arranged marriages are common among British Asians.
- Marriage is seen as a key milestone in Brit-Asian life.
- Forced marriages are common among Asian families.
- Single parents are common among African Caribbean families.
- Birth rates are higher among Muslim parents.

Topic 4 – Changes within the family Gender Roles Characterised by Equality:

The 1950s – Traditional Nuclear Family and Segregated Conjugal Roles Parsons suggested that in the 1950s, the ideal family had segregated conjugal roles where the husband had an instrumental role of a breadwinner, and the wife had the expressive role

of doing emotional work and household work. The 1970s – The Symmetrical Family and Joint Conjugal Roles Young and Willmott by studying couples in East London, saw that family life was gradually improving for all members, by it becoming more equal and democratic. Families with segregated conjugal roles were declining and one with joint conjugal roles were increasing. Young and Willmott also identified the emergence of the 'symmetrical family' which is where partners have similar roles: women work full time; men help with housework/childcare. Relationships today are characterised by choice and equality Giddens: Recently, family life has become more egalitarian because of:

- Contraception allows sex and intimacy rather than reproduction to become the main reason for the existence of the relationship.
- Women gain independence due to increased education/job opportunities.

Beck: traditional patriarchal nuclear families are given less importance because of 2 trends:

7. Greater Gender Equality: women expect equality at work and in marriage.
8. Greater individualism: decisions are made on self-interest rather than by societal pressures.

The above trends lead to a 'negotiated family' where family life is according to the wish of the members who decide what is best for them through discussion.

Evaluation – to what extent are gender roles becoming more equal? Women having paid work has led to greater equality since women become financially independent. However, radical feminists argue that paid work has led to dual burdens and triple shifts. They say that men benefit from women's paid earnings and domestic work. Women usually also further take up the role of emotional work (caring for children). Evidence which suggests greater gender equality: Kauffman identified 2 new types of dads:

- New Dads: Dads adjust work practices (in a minor way) to increase involvement with children.
- Super Dads: Largely adjusts work-life to fit in with their family life, for example, by changing careers and changing work hours.

Domestic Division of labour characterised by equality: Evidence/reasons for the domestic division of labour becoming more equal recently.

- Surveys since the 1950s show a narrowing gender gap in the domestic division of labour.
- Liberal feminists Young & Willmott argue that women with paid work cause families to become more symmetrical.
- 'Commercialisation of housework' – new technologies (washing machines, refrigerators, hoovers, microwaves) have reduced the amount of housework and this helps narrow the gender divide in the domestic division of labour.

Evidence for the domestic division of labour still being very unequal.

7. In 70% of households, laundry is still seen as women's work.
8. Women still do the largest share of cooking in 55% of couples' households.
9. Most women still shop for groceries, clean, and care for sick family members.
10. Men mostly do tasks such as changing lightbulbs, taking out the trash, and DIY. Whereas women do cooking, cleaning, and childcare.

Analysis:

- Women going into paid work has not resulted in total equality.
- Women still do double and triple shifts according to radical feminists.
- Middle-class women are more advantaged than working-class women because they can become stay-at-home mums since the husband has a high salary. Hence mums do not have to suffer triple shifts.

Power and Control in Relationships Radical Feminists view relationships as the main means through which men control women. Evidence supporting this would be that the British Crime Survey found that 1/6th of all violent crimes are domestic violence. 1 in 4 women experiences domestic violence. Radical feminists explain that domestic violence occurs in a patriarchal society to help men maintain power over women. Criticisms: Wilkinson says that the reason for DV is that poverty causes stress which leads to domestic violence. Evidence that men and women have an equal role in decision-making: Pahl and Volger found that the pooling of household income leads to joint decision-making. Feminists criticise that even though there is joint decision-making, women make decisions on daily expenses and men make decisions on important matters such as changing houses. To what extent have women going into paid work made relationships more equal? Evidence that paid work benefits women:

- Gershuny found that women in paid work spend 10% less time doing housework than unemployed women. Evidence that paid work does not benefit women: (Feminist view).
- Oakley: women's primary role is still as a housewife. Also, many female jobs are extensions of traditional female roles such as cleaning and nursing.
- There is little evidence of the 'new-man'. Women have acquired dual-burden and the family remains patriarchal.
- Dunscombe and Marsden: women suffer from triple shifts.

Topic 5 – Childhood Social construction is the development of jointly constructed understandings of the world that forms the basis for shared assumptions about reality.

Childhood = state or period of being a child. Wagg: Postulated that childhood is socially constructed and that the definition of childhood differs across times, places, and cultures.

The social construction of childhood: Throughout many societies (mainly Western societies) it is assumed that children need a lengthy, protected period of nurturing and socialising to prepare them for 'adult society'.

- **Childhood:**

Becomes socialised into society's expectations.

Practise social order.

Economically dependent on parents.

- **Teenage:**

Economically dependent but can work.

Maintain social order.

Act in a socially accepted manner.

Build a stable personality.

- **Adulthood:**

Economically active, thus works.

Support the economically dependent.

Impose social control and maintain social order.

Socialise children.

Allows the continuity of society.

- **Old age:**

Economically dependent on the government or children.

Transfer of wealth to the offspring.

Transfer of knowledge and experience to the younger generation.

Pilcher: Social construction of childhood in modern Britain. In modern Britain, childhood is partially constructed through having a high degree of separation between the spheres of childhood and adulthood. For example, there are certain areas where only children are allowed to go. Some laws prevent children from doing certain things which only adults are allowed to do. Comparing other cultures: Ruth Benedict: argues that children in traditional, non-industrial societies are generally treated differently from children in modern Western societies.

- In some cultures, children are economic assets that engage in paid work. They have more responsibility at an earlier age. Punch: 5-year-olds in rural Bolivia took on work responsibilities at home.

- Obedience to adults is not considered as important. Firth found that the Tikopia of the Western Pacific believe that children can dismiss their parents' orders.

- Sexual behaviour is tolerated. Malinowski: Trobriand Islanders were tolerant of children's sexual explorations. In other cultures, children are married off at 14 and become young wives/mothers.

Historical differences in childhood: Aries: In the Middle Ages, the idea of 'childhood' did not exist. Children were seen as and treated like adults. Evidence:

4. Children were expected to work at an early age.
5. Artworks depict children as small adults who wore the same clothes and appeared to work and play together.

Shorter: Parents' attitudes towards children were different in the Middle Ages.

- The high infant mortality rate encouraged neglect towards infants.
- Parents neglected giving names to newborn babies. They'd be referred to as 'it' or had their dead sibling's name.

The Child-Centred Family and Society (March of Progress view) Improvements in children's positions made through:

- Compulsory education.
- Changes in children's rights. For example, child labour is banned.
- Paediatrics.
- Child Protection Services and the welfare state.
- Smaller families (due to industrialization).
- Decrease in infant mortality rate and increase in the divorce rate.
- Media and moral panic.
- Consumerism.

Toxic Childhood and Paranoid Parenting (criticisms of the March of progress view)

Children's lives have gotten worse because:

- Technology has harmed children. They experience fewer face-to-face interactions.
- Furedi: says children are overprotected and controlled too much.
- There are inequalities between children. There hasn't been equal progress.
- Parents have control over children's space (camera), time and bodies (dress).

Toxic Childhood – where advances in technology and changes in culture cause psychological and physical damage to children. Palmer: Palmer argues that childhood is toxic in the following ways:

- Less outdoor play.
- The commercialisation of childhood (advertisers exploiting kids).
- The decline of listening, language and communication skills (because of shortened attention spans).
- Screen saturation.
- Tests in schools increase anxiety among children.

The Disappearance of Childhood Postman: argues childhood is disappearing because children wear the same clothes as adults and children also cause adult crimes (murder, rape). Criticism: children are protected and controlled.

Topic 6 – Social Policy The following are a few social policies to note:

1. Divorce Act (1984): A divorce could be granted within one year of marriage. Before this, partners had to wait for 5 years and prove their partner to be guilty.
2. Maternity & Paternity Policy: Before, women were routinely sacked when they got pregnant. So the UK introduced maternity leaves so that mothers got time off during childbirth and a few weeks after childbirth. The Paternity Act allowed fathers to take time off as well.
3. Civil Partnership Act: gave same-sex couples rights and responsibilities similar to that of a civil relationship.
4. Adoption Act: Gave unmarried and gay parents the ability to adopt children.
5. Child Benefit Act: Parents were given a weekly payment for their children depending on their income.
6. Pension scheme: a retirement plan that requires an employer to make contributions to a pool of funds set aside for a worker's future benefit.
7. Healthcare

Functionalist view: Policies are good for society and help families perform their roles effectively. Fletcher: health, education, and housing policies developed a welfare state which helps families. New Right: Murray argues that social policies encourage irresponsible behaviour. For example – fathers may abandon children because they know they are cared for by the state. Lone Parent families increase. Teenage girls get pregnant for state housing. Criticisms: Cutting benefits may simply drive many into poverty. Feminism: Some social policies have helped women; however, some social policies are counterproductive. The overgenerous maternity leave and the short paternity leave reinforce the idea that women should be primary child carers, unintentionally disadvantaging women.

Topic 7 – Demography Keywords:

- Demography – The study of the population which is based on gender, age, social class, etc.
- Birth rate/Fertility rate – Number of live births per 1000 per population.
- Death rate/Mortality rate – Number of crude deaths per 1000 per population.
- Infant mortality – The number of infants that die before reaching the age of 1 per 1000 live births.
- Migration – The movement of people from one place to another.

- Emigration – Moving out of a place.
- Immigration – Moving into a place.
- Ageing population – Increase in median age in a population due to declining fertility rates and rising life expectancy.
- Population pyramid - Shows the age-sex distribution in a country. Gives an idea about life expectancy. Shows the economically dependent and economically active class.

1. Factors that influence birth rates in MEDCs and LEDCs LEDCs:

- Labour-intensive economy.
- Early marriage.
- Lack of education.
- Infant mortality.
- Lack of healthcare.
- Lack of contraception and family planning.

MEDCs:

- Late marriage.
- High standard of living.
- Family planning and contraception.
- Female education.
- Increased healthcare.

2. Factors influencing the death rates in LEDCs and MEDCs LEDCs:

- Unhygienic conditions.
- Poor healthcare.
- Poor standard of living.
- Self-medication and treatment.

MEDCs:

- Access to good healthcare facilities.
- Good standards of living.
- Specialised institutions such as old age homes.
- Reduction in infant mortality.
- Abundant resources for survival.

3. Push and pull factors of a country Push:

- Poor healthcare.
- Bad economy.
- Natural disasters.
- Poor educational standards.

- Lack of job opportunities
- Poor living standards.

Pull:

- Better healthcare.
- High educational standards.
- Job opportunities.
- High living standards.
- Better social amenities.
- Room for social mobility (get away from caste system)