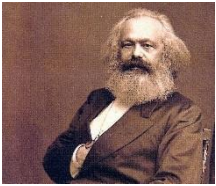
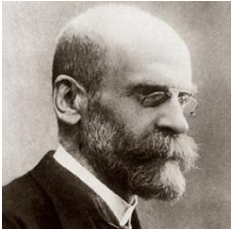
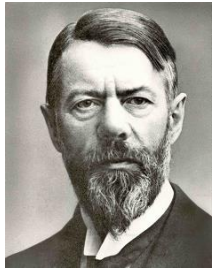




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GCSE Sociology Revision guide



Marxism 	A theory developed by Marx and Engels that describes society as being in a state of conflict between the ruling class (bourgeoisie) and the workers (proletariat) who work for them. The whole of society is organised in ways that benefit the ruling class and allow them to exploit the workers. Marxist sociologists think that the structure of society causes inequality and are interested in exposing and studying these systems of exploitation.
Functionalism 	A theory developed by Durkheim that describes society as being in a state of balance or agreement (consensus). Each aspect of society (education, family, work etc) serves a function that helps maintain society as a whole but also acts as a 'social glue' that keeps people together as a group. Without this social glue, people feel they are disconnected from wider society and experience anomie (a breakdown of norms). Functionalist sociologists are interested in studying the ways in which different aspects of society function to maintain consensus and prevent anomie.
Feminism 	A theory developed by many different people, mostly women, that describes society as an unequal relationship between men and women that keeps them in a state of conflict. The whole of society is organised in ways that keep power in the hands of men (even though not all men may benefit from this power, or it may even be harmful to men). This system is called the patriarchy. Feminist sociologists are interested in exposing and studying this system of power and exploitation and showing how it affects women.
Interactionism 	A micro theory developed by a number of sociologists that focuses not on looking at society as a whole but instead looks at how people interpret the world around them and interact with each other. Our lives are made up of social interactions that communicate what we mean to other people and try to make sense of what they are meaning. Interactionist sociologists are interested in studying how people communicate with and interact with each other to share ideas of culture, norms and values.
Weberianism 	A theory developed by Weber that describes society as being in a state of conflict between those with status, wealth and power and those without. Weberian sociologists are interested in studying where power, wealth and status exists in society and how they are used by people.

Research Methods Knowledge Organiser

Stages of carrying out research	Ethical Issues	Sampling
• Generate a testable hypothesis: a statement/question that can be investigated. • Design your study: choosing the correct research methods and sampling strategy • Conduct a pilot study (practice research investigation): designed to see if the main study is feasible. • Apply your revised research method/s by collecting primary/secondary data • Analyse data to see if it is reliable, to make it into useful information, and to represent it using graphs/chart to investigate trends, patterns and correlations. • Draw reasoned conclusions that are presented in a clear and useful manner.	• Consent - Participants must give their consent (permission) to take part. • Informed consent - Participants must be made aware of any dangers/risks, and be made aware of their right to leave the research at any stage (right to withdraw). • Safety - Researchers have a duty to protect their participants (and research team) and not to expose them to undue risks. This includes causing emotional distress. • Sensitivity - Researchers should be sensitive when dealing with vulnerable groups. • Debriefing - At the end of the experiment, participants must be debriefed: given an explanation of the nature of research and how the experiment works. • Confidentiality/Anonymity - Researchers must respect the confidentiality of their participants. This also includes storing all relevant data securely. • Not misrepresenting data - Researchers must have integrity: they must be honest and not tamper with data.	• Random sampling – This is when everyone has an equal chance of being selected. • Systematic sampling – Choosing randomly from a list. E.g. every 5th, 10th or 20th person on a register or from a list. • Stratified sampling – to make the sample as representative as possible, the sample frame will be divided into a number of smaller groups, such as social class, age, gender, ethnicity etc. Individuals are then drawn at random from these groups. • Snowball sampling – This is when you ask your participants to recommend other participants • Opportunity sampling – Where the most convenient or suitable persons are picked. • Cluster sampling – This is when the researcher divides the population into separate groups, called clusters. A random sample of clusters is selected from the population. • Quota sampling – interviews must question an exact quota (number) of people from categories such as females, teenagers, in proportion to the numbers in the wider population.

Different Methods of Research

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Overt Observations	• Can collect detailed and in-depth qualitative data which is likely to be high in validity so it can help you understand what people do and why. • If non-participant then you are likely to remain apart from your research subjects and so will remain more objective. • If participant observation is used you will really understand the group under study and see things from their point of view. • There is no deception involved in the research so nobody feels compromised. • If structured using grid tally observation and operationalised terms then you can get reliable data.	• Overt observations may result in the group under study changing their behaviour due to the observer – the Hawthorne effect. • Time consuming and likely to be expensive to complete as many observations are longitudinal. • It can often be difficult to gain access to the groups you wish to observe. • Often difficult to take notes when observing so many researchers have to rely on their memories later which means much can be forgotten or misconstrued. • If participant observation is used, many researchers find that they become too involved with the group they are studying and start to lose their objectivity. • It doesn't get reliable data (participant observation is unstructured).
Covert observations	• Allows the researcher to see participants in their natural environment – improved ecological validity; • Prevents people from changing their 'normal' behaviour – avoids the Hawthorne Effect. • Increases validity as people do not know they are being studied. • If using participant observation, it allows the researcher to act as part of the group under study and to really understand things from their point of view – improved validity. • May allow research to be conducted upon groups that would not normally allow researchers in i.e. prostitutes, the homeless, criminals, gangs etc.	• Covert observations have a number of ethical issues • Difficult to gain access to the group you wish to study e.g. for a covert participant observation, as groups are often deviant/taboo i.e. drug dealers, gangs etc. • Not ethical – difficult to morally justify spying on people; • May put the researcher in danger if the group finds out they are being researched and have not given their consent. • Danger of the researcher 'going native' and losing their objectivity. • Research conducted covertly is typically small-scale and therefore is unlikely to be representative meaning generalisations cannot be made.

		Taking notes/recording information in a covert research study would be very difficult meaning information could be forgotten/changed and therefore lessen its validity.
Longitudinal study	- Allows a researcher to build up a picture of social life that recognises changes over time. - Helps to prevent the study from going out of date - Allows for lots of depth and detail. - Helps the researcher to build a rapport with the participants which helps to gains more valid data.	- Difficult to manage as people's circumstances are constantly changing Time consuming for the researcher - Interviews are quite time intensive as they involve a conversation Costly for the researcher - Researcher may have to cope with participants dropping out of the study or moving away
Interviews	- The researcher gets to speak to the respondents face-to-face so can persuade people to answer thus reducing the problem of non-response. Interviews can be conducted by phone, avoiding the expense and possible issues of social desirability/interviewer bias. - In unstructured and semi-structured interviews, the researcher can probe to really find out what the respondent means, so increasing validity. - They produce qualitative data that can be used to find out about attitudes and opinions; Interviews are good for gathering in-depth and detailed information. - Questions can be rephrased and explained if respondents aren't sure what they're being asked; Group interviews allow discussions to take place to really explore feelings and viewpoints. Structured interviews allow for respondents' answers to be compared and are a reliable method. - Interviews involve interaction between the researcher and the respondent encouraging open and honest responses which are likely to be more valid. - Seeing body language helps you to build rapport/tell if someone is telling the truth. High response rate – difficult to say no to a researcher face-to-face.	- Can cost a lot to conduct as interviewers have to be trained. Sample sizes are often quite small when interviews are used as a research method which may lead to issues with a lack of representativeness and generalisability of data. - Interviews are conducted in artificial situations therefore you can never be certain that what is said in an interview is actually what the respondent really thinks. - Interviews are only as successful as the researcher carrying them out, particularly true in an unstructured interview where probing is essential. - If respondents are not asked the same questions i.e. in unstructured interviews, then comparisons between findings are hard to make. - There is a risk of interviewer bias which may affect the validity of the data. - Sometimes respondents may give answers that they feel the interviewer wants to hear, so reducing validity – socially desirable responses. - Recording errors may reduce the validity of the data collected. - Respondents can lie e.g. because they don't want to look bad in front of someone, which reduces validity.
Questionnaires	- Relatively easy and cheap to complete research therefore can target a large sample and gain more data. - If comprised (made up) of closed questions, is good for gathering quantitative data which can be used to compare the responses of different social groups. - Relatively quick and easy to complete as a respondent so shouldn't be any problems in terms of knowing what to do. - If self-completion can be completed at leisure allowing people time to complete properly and fully. - If postal can be sent out to a wide geographical sample and so improve representativeness of data gathered - Often completed in private, so avoids any researcher effects. Standardised questions means the reliability of the data gathered should be high.	- Often uses closed questions so unlikely to produce detailed, qualitative data therefore not good for finding out why people think/act as they do. Closed questions may mean people have to tick an option box closest to what they think rather than what they actually think thus reducing validity of data gathered - May be rushed or not taken seriously meaning answers may lack validity. - If self-completion no way of checking the person you intended to complete the questionnaire actually did so - Problems of non-response may result in a distorted sample and thus less representative data. - If self-completion no way for respondent to raise any queries about any part of the method meaning that it may not be completed in the way that was intended. - Any leading questions may bias respondents answers.
Content Analysis	- Cheap to complete research – only really need some media to analyse. - Can target a sample and gain more data. - Easy to research - the rapid growth of the internet has made the process even easier with a vast array of media now available online to access and analyse.	- The media is often biased so the researcher needs to be aware that results may also be biased. - Success of the method depends on the quality of the categories - if important points are missed out then these will also be missing from the results which results in an incomplete picture. - If categories aren't clearly operationalised then there will be a lack of consistency when completing research leading to issues of reliability - especially important if research is being completed by

	• Straightforward to complete research as you really just need to tally up the number of times each category in your grid/chart is shown. • Reliable method – others can check the findings by using the same grid and applying it to the same sample to see if they get the same results. • Produces quantitative data which can be turned into statistics so various comparisons can be made to establish any patterns.	a team as they would all be recording different information in different categories. • The quantitative data produced will not be detailed or in-depth or explain why the content is as it is, leading some researchers to question its usefulness. • Results are often based on the judgements and opinions of just one person, which is likely to make any conclusions biased
Official National Statistics	• Many official statistics are freely available to researchers and the general public. • Easy to access and to navigate by using the ONS website. • Enable us to make comparisons between social groups and regions, for example the UK National Census. • Enable us to make historical comparisons over time because they often go back a long way. • Allow us to spot trends, find correlations and make generalisations. • Allow the research to remain detached so there is less room for the subjective bias of the researcher to interfere with the research process.	• Statistics are free, but they are expensive and time consuming to collect. • The data which exists and the categories and indicators used might not fit a researcher's specific research purposes. • Some Official Statistics lack validity, for example crimes may go unreported and so aren't counted. • The way that some social trends are measured changes over time – sometimes making historical comparisons difficult. • Official statistics may also lack validity because they are collected by the state and massaged to make things look better than they actually are.

Research Methods Glossary

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1. Hypothesis	A supposition, hunch or informed guess, usually written as a statement that can be tested and then either supported by the evidence or proved wrong.
2. Ethical issues / considerations	Issues such as informed consent and confidentiality that sociologists must consider in order to conduct morally acceptable research.
3. Data: Qualitative and Quantitative	Qualitative: information presented as words or quotations. Quantitative: information presented in numerical form, e.g. as graphs, tables of statistics.
4. Research methods: primary & secondary	Primary: information that is generated and collected at first hand by doing research using techniques such as questionnaires, interviews or observation. Secondary: information that already exists and has previously been generated by or collected by other people. Sources include official statistics, the mass media, autobiographies, and sociological studies.
5. Sample	A subgroup of the population selected for study. See knowledge organiser for different sampling methods.
6. Questioning: open and closed	Open: a question that allows respondents to put forward their own answers rather than choose a response from several pre-set answers. Closed: a fixed-choice question that requires the respondent to choose between a number of given answers.
7. Observer / Hawthorne Effect	In an observation, individuals or groups of people may modify, change or improve an aspect of their behaviour because they are aware they are being observed. It can affect the validity of the findings.
8. Validity	Findings are valid if they truly measure or capture what they are supposed to be studying.
9. Reliability	Refers to consistency. Research findings are reliable if, after the research is repeated a second time using the same methods, the same or consistent results are obtained the second time round.

10. Representative sample	Reflects the characteristics of its population. It is just like the population but a smaller version of it.
11. Generalisability	In designing their study, researchers think about the extent to which their findings can be applied to the larger population of which their sample was a part.
12. Sampling frame	A complete list of all members of the population from which a sample is drawn. Examples include membership lists, school registers and a list of postcode addresses.
13. Triangulation	Cross checking the findings from a qualitative methods against the findings from quantitative methods. Doing this can improve the validity/generalisability of the research.
14. Mixed methods research	The use of different methods within one project to generate both quantitative and qualitative data
15. Content analysis	The analysis of documents and images (e.g. media products) by constructing a set of categories, coding sections of the content according to these categories, and then counting the number of times a theme appears.
16. Pilot study	A small scale trial that is carried out. This is done prior to the main study. It is carried out in order to test that there are no flaws in the methodology of the main research.
17. Case study	A detailed study of a particular institution (such as a school or hospital) or a series of related events (such as the moral panic surrounding teenagers wearing hoodies).
18. Confidentiality	An agreement that all information (e.g. gathered from research participants) will only be accessed by those who have the authority and permission to access it.
19. Ethnography	The study of people's culture and practices in everyday settings, usually based on qualitative methods such as participant observation and unstructured interviews.
20. Focus group	A type of group interview that focuses on one particular topic. It explores how people interact within the group and how they respond to each other's views.
21. Longitudinal study	A study of the same group of people conducted over a period of time. After the initial survey or interview has taken place, follow-up surveys or interviews are carried out at intervals over a number of years.

Family Glossary

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1. Nuclear family	Two generational families containing a heterosexual married or cohabiting couple and their dependent children.
2. Extended family	Group of relatives extending beyond the nuclear family but have regular contact.
3. Reconstituted family	A blended or stepfamily in which one or both partners have a child/ren from previous relationships living with them.
4. Social stigma	Disapproval of a person based on perceived characteristics.
5. Patriarchy	Male dominance over women.
6. Household	Made up of people who live in one unit.
7. Double shift	When a woman takes on a career and the housework. This then can lead to the triple shift, which also involves emotional support.

8. Primary socialisation	How a child is taught the norms and values of a society.
9. Monogamy	Being married to just one person. This can be serial monogamy, which is when you may divorce and then get remarried.
10. Cohabiting	Live together but are not married.
11. Dysfunctional families	Conflict, emotional distress and potential abuse. (This is used to criticise the functionalist perspective as it ignores dysfunctional families in its findings).
DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
12. Empty nest	When the children have moved out and no longer live with their parents.
13. Canalisation	The way a parent channels their children's interest into toys/ games and other activities.
14. Egalitarian Families	Sharing power between members of the family.
15. Principle of stratified diffusion	Social changes start at the top of the social class system and work down (Young and Willmott, 1973).
16. Polygamy	Practice of having more than one spouse.
17. Polygyny	Men who have 2 or more wives.
18. Polyandry	Women who have 2 or more husbands.
19. Instrumental role	Men take on this role as the breadwinner (Parsons, 1959).
20. Expressive role	Women take on this role as the housewife and mother (Parsons, 1959).
21. Joint conjugal roles	No rigid division of household tasks. Shared leisure activities.
22. Segregated conjugal roles	Division in domestic labour due to gender. Separate leisure activities.
23. Symmetrical family	Spouses perform different tasks but both contribute to the home.

Education Glossary

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1. Formal curriculum	The timetabled subjects taught in schools, such as English, Maths, Religious Studies and Spanish. This is called direct learning and refers to the formal things that you learn (for example in a GCSE course).
2. Hidden curriculum	Things learned indirectly in school that are not formally taught, such as valuing punctuality, or conformity and obedience. Occurs through things like assemblies, tutor periods, the attitudes and behaviours of staff in school.
3. Labelling	The process of attaching a label (a sticky tag), characteristic or definition to individuals or groups. For example, labelling a middle-class student as someone who is clever/bright.

4. Self-fulfilling prophecy	This occurs when a person who has been labelled comes to fit the image people have of them; i.e. the prediction becomes true.
5. Meritocracy	A system in which individuals' achievements are based on their own talents and efforts rather than their social origins and backgrounds. Functionalists would agree with this.
6. Material deprivation	Refers to the inability of individuals or households to afford the goods and activities that are typical in a society at a given point in time.
7. Teacher expectations	Assumptions that teachers make about students' future academic achievements based on their knowledge of students' current performance.
8. Streaming	Dividing students into different groups or bands based on a general assessment of their ability rather than their performance in a particular subject.
9. League tables	League tables measure school performance data. This is statistical information showing how well pupils in England have done in public examinations taken at key points during their school careers. They are available for all members of the public to see.
10. Marketisation	An attempt to improve education standards and opportunities by making schools and colleges compete for students in an 'education market'.
DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
11. Home schooling / tuition	Teaching children at home rather than at school, usually by parents or private tutors.
12. De-schooling	The idea that the education system as it is currently organised should be abolished (stopped/eliminated).
13. Gendered curriculum	A curriculum in which some subjects (including high status subjects such as maths and science) are associated with masculinity) and others (such as languages and humanities) are associated with femininity.
14. Ethnocentric curriculum	The curriculum is seen as judging things in a biased way from the point of view of one culture. For example, the National Curriculum may value white, Western literature, art, history etc.
15. Anti-school subculture	A school-based group of students who resist the school, its teachers and their authority and openly challenge the school rules.
16. Counter-school culture	A group within a school that rejects the values and norms of the school and replaces them with anti-school values and norms. Willis demonstrated this in his study of working-class lads in his study called 'Learning to Labour' (1977).
17. Correspondence Principle	Bowles and Gintis' (Marxist) term used to describe the way that education and work connect or fit together (correspond) in capitalist society.
18. Competition	A struggle or contest between individuals or groups to obtain (gain) something desirable (such as qualifications, school places, status, power or wealth) that is in limited supply.
19. Cultural capital	Bourdieu's idea that the knowledge, attitudes and values that the middle class provide for their children gives them an advantage in the education system.
20. Cultural deprivation	A theory which suggests that some working class and minority ethnic students lack the 'correct' values, behaviours and attitudes from socialisation to succeed in education.

Crime and Deviance Glossary

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1. Crime	Any form of behaviour that breaks the law
2. Custodial sentences	Punishment where offenders will be sentenced to go to prison or Young offenders institute
3. Crime rate	A measure of the level of criminal activity in a society based on crimes recorded by the police
4. Dark figure of crime	The unknown amount of criminal activity that is not reported or recorded to the police
5. Deviance	Any form of behaviour that does not conform to the norms of a society – this can be influenced by time, place, social situation and culture
6. Formal agencies of social control	Formal rules and social controls that tell everyone within society what is and is not acceptable e.g. the police, the courts, the government
7. Informal agencies of social control	The approval or disapproval of people around us that can influence and control our behaviour e.g. family , friends, peer group, schools, work, religion
8. Official crime statistics	Government statistics on crime based on official sources e.g. police records
9. Self-report study	A survey that asks respondents to identify crimes they have committed, but for which they have not been caught
10. Social construction of crime	What is considered criminal and deviant changes over time or when it takes place, therefore is socially constructed. No act is in itself criminal or deviant- it largely depends on how other member of society see it e.g. homosexuality
11. Victim survey	A survey that asks respondents about their experience of crime, regardless of whether or not those crimes have reported
DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	
12. Anomie	When norms that usually regulate people's behaviour break down
13. Chivalry Thesis	The idea that the criminal justice system treats female offenders (especially those who conform to stereotypes) more leniently than male offenders
14. Collective conscience	The shared beliefs that bind communities together and regulate individual behaviour
15. Deviant career	Deviant behaviour that develops over time due to labels. e.g. labelled a troublemaker at school and then goes onto commit crime later in life
16. Deviancy amplification	The exaggeration of a particular social issue as a consequence of media coverage, e.g. anti-social behaviour by groups of young people
17. Edgework	Behaviour at the edge of what is normally allowed for accepted; risky or radical behaviour, e.g. stealing and racing a car
18. Hate crime	Crime based on prejudice towards others because of their race, religion, sexual orientation, disability or because they are transgender

19. Probation	Prisoners are allowed to leave prison and enter the wider community under supervision, provided they follow certain conditions set by the court
20. Status frustration	A sense of frustration arising in individuals or groups because they are denied status in society
21. Violent crime	Recorded as 'violence against the person', which covers grievous bodily harm (GBH), assault, kidnap, child abduction, harassment and threats to kill
22. White collar crime	Criminal acts committed by people in high status positions, such as accountants, doctors or solicitors, during their work, fraud, tax evasion and 'fiddling' expense accounts at work.

Social Stratification Glossary

ESSENTIAL VOCABULARY	
1. Poverty (2x definitions)	Absolute poverty: is when people have incomes that are insufficient to obtain the minimum needed to survive (i.e. shelter, food, water, clothing) Relative poverty: is when people cannot afford to meet the general standard of living of most other people in their society
2. Status (2x types)	Achieved: Social positions that are earned on the basis of personal talents or merit. Ascribed: Social positions that are fixed and birth and unchanging over time, including hereditary title linked to family background (e.g. Princess, Lord)
3. Cycle of deprivation	The idea that deprivation and poverty are passed on from parents to their children
4. Life chances	An individual's chances of achieving positive or negative outcomes as they progress through life. Life chances are related to health, education, housing, employment
5. Authority and power	Authority: the exercise of power based on consent of agreement Power: the dominance and control of one individual or group over others
6. Embourgeoisement	A hypothesis suggesting that working class families are becoming middle class in their norms and values as their incomes and standard of living improves.
7. Poverty trap	People can be trapped in poverty if an increase in income reduces the benefits they are entitled to. For example, an employed person receiving means-tested benefits could be worse off after a wage rise if they now earn too much to qualify for benefits.
8. Social mobility (3x types)	Vertical: movement up or down between the layers or strata of society. Inter-generational: movement up or down between the layers as measured between generations of a family. Intra-generational: movement of an individual over the course of their life up or down from one occupational classification to another.
9. Affluence	Having a lot of money and material possessions
10. Social Stratification	The way that society is structured into hierarchical strata (layers) with the most privileged at the top and the least favoured at the bottom. Social class is an example of a social stratification system.
DESIRABLE VOCABULARY	

11. Bureaucracy	An organisation (such as a government department, e.g. DfE – education), that operates as a hierarchy with a clear set of rules. Bureaucratic authority is based on a set of rules that operate within a bureaucracy.
12. Relative income standard of poverty	A measure of poverty based on how much income a household has compared to other households. Households could be put in rank order, and then you can identify 10% of the households with the lowest incomes.
13. Class dealignment	Weakening of the links between social class and voting behaviour
14. Classless society	A society in which there is no private ownership of property and so no clearly structured social classes.
15. Environmental poverty	A way of measuring deprivation in terms of conditions such as inadequate housing, a lack of a garden, inadequate outdoor play facilities and air pollution.
16. Functionally important roles	Key positions in society that, for example, provide essential services and ensure society's survival over time.
17. Instrumentalism	An attitude or approach to something (such as paid work) where it is a means to an end (e.g. the wages provide a comfortable lifestyle) rather than an end in itself (e.g. job satisfaction).
18. Welfare state	A system in which the state takes responsibility for protecting the health and welfare of its citizens and meeting their social needs. The state does this by providing services (e.g. the NHS) and benefits (e.g. Income Support).
19. Pluralism	An approach which argues that a range of views, interests and opinions exists in society and no one group dominates the political process.

Family Key Studies			
Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Parsons	Functionalist	Secondary sources	Two key functions of the family: 1. Primary socialisation – children are taught the shared norms and values of society 2. Stabilisation of adult personality – family relieves stress of life, like a 'warm bath'
Zaretsky	Marxist	Secondary sources	The family serves capitalism through: 1. Women's unpaid labour 2. Passing on of advantage in families e.g. inheritance 3. Unit of consumption
Delphy and Leonard	Radical feminist	Secondary sources	Family is patriarchal because: 1. Women are exploited economically – labour is used by their husbands 2. Family is hierarchical – men at the top 3. Patriarchal family reflects patriarchal society

Oakley	Feminist	Secondary sources	Analyses the 'conventional family' finding: 1. Women are expected to do unpaid work 2. Idea of the conventional family is powerful 3. People expect happiness, but nuclear family can be stressful 4. Middle class – more family diversity
Rapoport and Rapoport	NA	Secondary sources	Pioneers in researching family diversity. 5 types: 1. Organisational – structure of families 2. Cultural – cultural/ religious differences 3. Social class – class differences 4. Cohort – historical differences 5. Life course – differences in life cycle of the family
Willmott and Young	Functionalist	Survey; Face-to-face structures interviews	Found that the family was becoming more symmetrical – similar but not identical roles, equal contribution to household work, and shared decision making and friends. Home-centred. Principle of stratified diffusion: changes in family life start with higher social classes and trickle down

Education Key Studies			
Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Parsons	Functionalist	Secondary sources	- School is an agent of socialisation and is the bridge between family and wider society promoting 2 values: achievement and equality of opportunity. - Education teaches the difference between particularistic (individual) and universalistic values; children have ascribed status in families but in schools everyone is judged by the same standards in schools. - Role allocation and meritocracy: education matches individuals to their future jobs based on talent. In a meritocracy the most able reach the top jobs.
Durkheim	Functionalist	Secondary sources	- Main function of education is to transmit and teach shared norms and values and build social solidarity. - This is achieved through lessons such as history which help students see themselves as part of a bigger society. - Teaches children specialised skills for work
Bowles and Gintis	Marxist	Interviews and secondary sources	- There is a correspondence or similarity between work and school – hierarchy, uniform, tasks are boring etc. - Education creates an obedient workforce to serve capitalism - This is done through the way schooling is structured and the hidden curriculum - Meritocracy is a myth
Willis	Marxist	Case study; Participant observation	- Studied the lads – an anti-school subculture – for two years - Found they were not obedient but their subculture was similar to WC workplaces

Ball	NA	Case study; participant observation and interviews	- Examined the way a mixed comprehensive school was organised – banding. - Working class students more likely to be in lower bands - Teachers had different expectations of different bands – i.e. top band students were encouraged, were viewed as well-behaved and hard working. Lower bands were steered towards more practical subjects and were labelled as low ability. - Mixed ability classes were introduced which reduced this but labelling still happened
Ball, Bowe and Gewirtz	NA	Interviews and secondary sources	- Parental choice and competition has increased inequalities in education - Middle class parents have more choice – greater cultural capital and material advantage. - Schools focus on image and results and compete with one another through results, facilities, etc.
Halsey, Heath and Ridge	NA	Face to face survey	- Examined social class origins and educational destinations of a large survey of 8000 men - Respondents social class based on father's occupation and divided into 3 types: service, intermediate, working - Service class boy 11 times more likely to go to university than working class

Crime Key Studies			
Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Merton's (1938) strain theory	Functionalist	Secondary sources	- People's aspirations and goals are shaped by their culture e.g. American Dream = economic success - Some people experience a strain between the goals of society and the means of achieving them. This may lead to anomie (normlessness) - They may seek out an illegitimate route to economic success e.g. crime
Becker's (1963) interactionist perspective	Interactionist	Secondary sources	- Argues deviance is created by society - Powerful social groups create deviance by making the rules and applying these to others - People can develop deviant careers if labelled as deviant - The deviant label can become a master status (main identity) - Labelling can lead to the self-fulfilling prophecy
Heidensohn's (1985) control theory	Feminist	Data from her study of delinquent girls; secondary sources	- Women commit less crime because they are more closely controlled in society - In a patriarchal society, women have stronger social control placed on them which can reduce opportunities for crime - At home, women are controlled by domestic responsibilities, at work by fear of damaging reputation and in public by fear of male violence

Carlen's (1988) class and gender deal	Feminist	Unstructured interviews	- Carlen explains why working-class women commit crime - She argues they are promised two rewards for conforming- 'class deal' (money and material items from working hard) and 'gender deal' (happy domestic life with husband and children) - She found WC women committed crime when these rewards were blocked due to: poverty, living in care, drug addiction. - They had nothing to lose and everything to gain
Cohen's (1955) subcultural theory	Functionalist	Secondary sources	- Argues delinquency is carried out by groups not individuals, and that groups often commit non-utilitarian (not motivated by money) crimes - Working class boys experience status frustration at not succeeding in middle class school - They join/ form a delinquent subculture with an alternative status hierarchy where they will gain status for deviance

Social Stratification Key Studies

Sociologist	Perspective	Research Method	Key Findings
Davis and Moore (1945) theory of stratification	Functionalist	Secondary sources	- Societies must allocate people to different roles – some roles are functionally important (essential for society e.g. doctors) – this is meritocratic - These roles have high status and rewards to attract best people to them - Stratification is necessary to ensure the most talented people get best jobs (therefore inequality is functional)
Marx's theory of social class	Marxist	Secondary sources	- Argues there are two main social classes: bourgeoisie and proletariat - Bourgeoisie have more power- those who own means of production - Proletariat are exploited and experience alienation – class conflict exists - Bourgeoisie impose their ideology on working class and create false class consciousness
Weber's theory of social class	Weberian	Secondary sources	- Classes are formed in the labour market – a class is a group who have similar life chances - 4 main classes: property owners, professionals, petty bourgeoisie, working class - Classes based both on economic factors and status and power too
Weber's theory of power and authority	Weberian	Secondary sources	- Power is based on coercion (use of threat/ violence) or authority (when someone obeys you as they think they should). 3 types of authority: - Charismatic authority (inspiring qualities) - Traditional authority (based on tradition) - Rational legal authority (based on a set of rules and laws which are accepted)

Devine's (1992) Affluent Workers revisited	NA	Intensive (unstructured) interviews	- Revisited Luton to see how far WC life had changed – compared to Goldthorpe's - Found WC lifestyles had not changed as much as Goldthorpe suggested - Home life not purely home-centred and privatised, interviewees did not have a purely instrumental attitude to work, plenty of evidence of solidarity
Townsend's (1979) relative deprivation theory	NA	Face to face survey	- Developed a deprivation index to measure relative deprivation - Found almost 23% of population were in poverty - Much higher than 6% (state measure of poverty)
Murray's (1984) New Right perspective on poverty	New Right	Secondary sources including statistics	- Argues welfare benefits create dependency – discouraging people to find work, and actually creating more poverty - The underclass are a threat to society – a group who drain resources and do not work – associates it with rising crime and single-parent families
Walby's (1990) theory on patriarchy	Feminist	Secondary sources	- Patriarchy = a system of structures in which men dominate and exploit women - 6 patriarchal structures: Paid employment, household, culture, sexuality, male violence against women and the state

Checklist

Topics	RAG	Next Steps? (e.g. do you need to practice more Qs?)	Complete
What is Sociology? • Norms • Values • Culture • Status and Roles			
Nature vs Nurture debate • Feral Children • Cultural Diversity			
Socialisation • Primary and secondary • Agencies of socialisation • Subcultures			
Gender • Gender Socialisation • The social construction of gender identity (agencies of socialisation)			
Class • Social construction of class identity (agencies of socialisation)			
Ethnicity • Social construction of ethnicity identity (agencies of socialisation)			
Nationality • Social construction of national identity (agencies of socialisation)			
Social Control • Formal social control • Informal social control • Socialisation • Sanctions			

Norms, Values, Culture, Status & Roles

The term '**culture**' refers to the whole way of life of a particular society, including its values and norms.

Values are the things people consider important to them e.g. being honest, and **norms** define expected behaviour in particular contexts, such as at school or in the cinema.

Norms come from our values. For example, in Britain we value punctuality therefore, a norm is for us to be on time. We also value politeness as a culture therefore it's a norm for us to use please and thank you.

Norms and values are different in every country / religion / culture.

For example, It is a norm for us to eat food with a knife and fork in the UK but in China it is a norm for them to eat with chopsticks and consider it unusual to eat with a knife and fork.

Norms and values can also change over time.

For example, going to university was considered a rare thing 50 years ago but today,

education is more valued by society therefore it is a norm for people to stay in education longer.

Roles are the 'parts' we play in society. These can be the jobs we can do, each role has a collection of norms that go with that position.

Status refers to the position a person hold within a setting. Everybody is born with an **ascribed status** based on the individual's age, sex, gender, ethnicity. Whereas **achieved status** is something that you have earnt.

Exam Practice

Read the sentences below. Fill in the missing space with either culture or norm.

1. is a way of life.
2. An expected behaviour in society is known as a
3. It is part of the Peruvian to eat guinea pig.
4. Language is part of

Also: If people share similar values, what can this encourage for society? Think Functionalism!

Socialisation and agencies of socialisation

Socialisation: the process whereby people learn cultures, values and norms of society.

Type of socialisation	Definition	Agencies
Primary	Early childhood learning Babies and infants learn the basic patterns for behaviour and language	Families/ parents Interaction with parents means that children acquire language and skills
Secondary	Begins in later childhood Continues through adulthood People learn societies' norms and values	Peer group, education, workplace, religion and mass media.

Agency of socialisation	How socialisation occurs
Family	Using positive sanctions (rewards) OR negative sanctions (punishments) Acting as role models for children to imitate Guiding children through play
Education	Through the formal curriculum , hidden curriculum and sanctions . Formal curriculum: the set subjects you are taught as students. Hidden curriculum: Hidden social communication passed onto children e.g. how to speak to your peers vs teacher. Sanctions: informal or formal.
Media	Can socialise people in two ways: through role modelling and stereotyping Role modelling: encouraging people to copy appearances/behaviours Stereotyping: influencing the way people think about certain groups
Religion	Sanctions are used to reinforce socialisation e.g. the promise of heaven or a reminder of the consequences (Hell).

Workplace	Sanctions are also used e.g. promotions or being fired.
Peer group	Through role modelling, peer pressure and informal sanctions. Role modelling: peer groups may have certain key individuals who others look up to and follow/copy. Peer pressure: peer groups may put pressure on its members to follow similar ways of thinking, dressing, speaking and behaving. Informal sanctions: peer groups may have sanctions for those who do not follow group norms such as exclusion or bullying.

Exam Practice:

(d) Identify and explain **two** ways schools socialise children.

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(c) Explain, with examples, which **two** children may be socialised by their peer groups. [4]

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(b) Explain, using examples, **two** ways the family teaches children the culture of their society. [4]

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Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Agents of socialisation such as the family, peer groups and schools have an important role in teaching children the culture of their society. These *agents of socialisation* are also agents of social control.

(a) Explain what is meant by *agents of socialisation*.

[2]

Hint: use words like 'bodies' or 'institutions' of society to describe agents and given an example. What do they teach children?

Gender Socialisation

Sex is the biological differences between males and females e.g hormones, genitalia whereas **gender** refers to the characteristics and behaviour considered appropriate for males and females in society.

Sex = biological. **Gender** = socially constructed.

How are children socialised into their gender?

Agency of socialisation	Gender socialisation
Family	Through: Manipulation: encouraging children to behave in ways normal for a boy and girl e.g. it's ok for boys to play-fight but not girls. Canalisation: pushing children to act in certain ways e.g. painting walls pink for girls, buying Barbie for girls. Verbal appellation (language): reinforcing gender identification e.g. 'sport' Different activities: joining activities deemed appropriate for their gender

	e.g. ballet for girls.
School	Through: Hidden curriculum: teachers pay attention more to boys and boys demand more playground space whereas girls dwell in the corners of the playground. Gendered subjects: girls are encouraged to take subjects deemed more stereotypically 'girly' e.g. Home Economics/Arts and same for boys.
Media	Gender stereotyping: where individuals are generalised according to their gender e.g. for jobs, males must be doctors/businessmen and women must be housekeepers or mothers. Men are more likely to be in leading roles. For example, in video games, men are the heroes and women are the helpless damsels in distress e.g. Mario. Role modelling: children might adopt significant individuals in the media as role models and copy their looks, body form, behaviour, etc. such as boys looking up to sports male personalities.
Peer group	Gendered activities: among male peer groups, activities may center around football, cars or computers. Among females, it may focus on fashion. Sanctions: punishing behaviours that aren't gender-appropriate e.g. through exclusion or bullying. By promoting double standards: boys are encouraged to be sexually promiscuous whereas girls are condemned and shamed.

Exam Practice

Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Children are socialised into different identities throughout their lives. They are introduced to gender, ethnic, class and national identities by the agents of socialisation. Identities are socially constructed.

(a) Explain what is meant by *gender identity*.

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(b) Explain **two** ways the media may socialise children into gender identities.

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(d) Identify and explain **two** ways in which schools pass on gender identities.

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Nature vs Nurture (Feral Children and Cultural Diversity)

The debate of whether we act and behave the way we do because we are born to do so (nature) or do we act the way we do because we have been taught to do so by the agents of socialisation (nurture).

Nature believes that behaviour is mostly determined by our genetics. Scientists suggest we inherit behaviour traits from our parents, just like we would eye colour.

Nurture believes that human behaviour is mostly learned. Individuals are socialised into the culture of their family and society and taught how to live in society by the agencies of socialisation.

Feral Children:

Feral children have been removed from normal human contact and have missed out on normal processes of human socialisation. They have not learned social behaviour and are unable to participate as humans within their society. **This proves human behaviour is learned.** The main example you should use to back this up is Oxana Malaya from Ukraine who was neglected by her parents at birth and started to adopt dog like behaviour. She was born as a normal child and through "living with dogs" her mannerisms became more dog like than human like.

Do cases like Oxana support the NATURE or NURTURE side of the debate?

Cultural Diversity:

Cultural diversity refers to difference in culture. Norms, values and customs vary a lot between different cultures.

For example, in Thailand it is a norm to take your shoes off when entering a home, whereas in the UK it is not.

This proves that human behaviour is learned: all societies and cultures would be the same if behaviour was natural. This isn't the case so we must learn behaviour.

Exam Practice

Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Cultures vary a great deal. Cultural diversity can be found in food, clothing, customs and symbols. Different cultures also have different values and norms. For example, it is the norm to eat horse in some cultures but not in Britain. It is the norm in some cultures for marriages to be arranged, whereas in Britain, couples choose their own partners.

(a) Describe what is meant by *cultural diversity*.

[2]

(b) Identify **one** example of cultural diversity in the passage above.

[1]

(c) Explain how cultural diversity may be used to support the nurture theory.

[2]

Ethnic Identity

Identity: is what makes up who you are and how you behave. You gain your identity through socialisation and the learning of norms and values from your parents. Like gender, your identity is socially constructed.

Ethnicity or ethnic group usually refer to a group of people who share a culture, history and way of life. They may share a common nationality i.e. 'British'. This can include shared language, religion, clothing, food, music and art.

Ethnicity is a **social concept**.

Race refers to one's **biological** characteristics for example the colour of your skin.

How are children socialised into their ethnic identity?

Agency of socialisation	Ethnic identity
Family	Parents may teach their children their native language. For example many Pakistani households speak Urdu as well as English. It could also be through values e.g. Sikh families teach their children to value 'seva' meaning selfless service. Children are encouraged to work in hospitals and homeless shelters in the hopes that this provides spiritual fulfilment. Ethnic identities could also be taught through traditions e.g. Polish families celebrate Easter with a 3 day food event teaching children about the value of family, religion and Polish heritage.
School	The following 3 areas teach ethnic groups they are different: Ethnocentric curriculum: studying or looking at the culture of one ethnic group whilst ignoring others. Many ethnic groups are not represented in the British National Curriculum. Teacher attitudes: some teachers are likely to treat students differently due to their ethnic origin. Teachers may ignore certain ethnic groups due to language barriers and secretly send a message that some ethnic groups are valued more than others. Class sets: Some schools might give some ethnic groups a negative identity by having low expectations of how they will do in school and putting them in lower ability groups.
Media	Negative stereotyping/presentation: Some ethnic groups might be presented negatively by the media and even shown as causing problems for the rest of the population. For example, brown people are more likely to be associated with terrorism by the media.
Peer group	Collective identity: Peer groups might give their members a collective identity and might be important shaping norms and values. This can explain why often times ethnic groups tend to sit together in schools.

Exam Practice

Identify and explain two ways in which children are socialised into their ethnicity in the family. [4 marks]

What is the examiner looking for?	Sentence starters
• AO1= 2 marks and AO2 marks =2 • The examiner is testing your knowledge and ability to apply examples. • 1 mark for <u>each</u> 'way'. This should be identified in a clear sentence. Use words such as: <i>Norms, Values, language, dress, tradition</i> • You will be awarded another mark for an explanation and example for each 'way'.	• One way individuals are socialised into their ethnicity could be... • Another way could be..... • British families tend to.... • For example Polish families....

Mark the following answer out of 4:

One way children are socialised into their ethnic identity is through language used at home. Most British children will speak English, but children with parents from another ethnic background may speak and teach their children their native language at home. For example, Pakistani's tend to speak Urdu at home with their children.

Another way could be through traditions. For example, Polish families living in the UK often transmit their cultural traditions within the family unit such as Easter. Polish families celebrate Easter with a 3-day food event-teaching children about the value of family, religion and Polish heritage.

/4

Read the following passage and answer the questions.

As soon as children are born they begin to be socialised into gender identities. Boys and girls are treated very differently: they are dressed in different colours and styles; they are given different types of toys and to some extent they are treated differently by their parents. They learn how to act and behave as boys and girls. This process continues throughout their childhood and adulthood.

(a) Describe what is meant by *identity*.

[2]

Explain, using examples, two ways children may be socialised into ethnic identities in schools.

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Social Class Identity

How are children socialised into their social class identity?

Agency of socialisation	Social Class identity
Family	Families have an impact on class identity by the language, attitudes and values they live with and pass on to the children. Values: Working class parents for example tend to put less value on education in comparison to the middle class. This means that lower class children are more likely to fall behind in school Language: Upper/middle-class families may socialise their children to speak in a more elaborate and sophisticated manner, giving them more of a chance to succeed academically. Working-class families may socialise their children to speak using slang/restricted language.
School	Class sets: Some schools might give working-class pupils a negative identity by having low expectations of how they will do in school and putting them in lower ability groups. Labelling: teachers may treat the social groups differently; labelling the middle-class pupils as 'clever' and therefore pushing them more to succeed academically. Working-class pupils are labelled as lazy and far from the 'ideal pupil' so are treated more negatively by schools.
Media	Negative stereotyping/presentation: Working-class groups might be presented negatively by the media and even shown as causing problems for the rest of the population. For example, unemployed people relying on benefits are shown as 'lazy' and 'scroungers' and 'chavs'.
Peer group	Peer pressure: Peer groups often are made up of people from the same social class and may put pressure on its members to do certain things or behave in ways appropriate for their class e.g. mess about. Peer groups can enforce stereotypes based on social class e.g. being lazy if working-class.

Exam Practice:

Explain, using examples, two ways children may be socialised into social class identities in families. [4]

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National Identity

Nationality: Having citizenship of a nation state, including things like voting rights, a passport and the right of residence.

National identity: our sense of belonging to one state or nation. It is represented by traditions, culture and language.

How are children socialised into their national identity?

Agency of socialisation	Social Class identity
Family	Supporting national team: Families encourage their children to support their national team e.g. Great Britain at the Olympics. Language: Families can encourage their children to speak the national language at home e.g. speaking Welsh.
School	Schools might teach national identity by teaching the national language and religion, celebrating national festivals and singing anthems and learning folk stories about the history of the country. For example, in Wales all schools teach some Welsh language & will teach about Welsh culture & society. We also have national festivals like Eisteddfod.
Media	Promotes national identity by encouraging anti-immigration stand. National events like the Olympic Games or the Royal Wedding are broadcasted so many people will make an effort to watch. The media can create an Us vs Them culture which can lead to discrimination.

Exam Practice:

(c) Explain **one** way in which children are socialised into national identities at school. [2]

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Explain **one** aspect of identity other than gender. [2]

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Social Control

Social Control: systems and processes in society that aim to prevent, discourage and/or punish deviant behaviours e.g. laws/police.

Formal social control: The control enforced by the government to make people obey laws. It includes the police, law courts and sometimes, the army. For example, if people break the law the police have negative sanctions they can use, such as; cautions, arrests and charging people.

Informal social control: The influence of socialisation on us and the sanctions used by informal agents of socialisation e.g. family, peers, media and schools. Informal sanctions can be positive or negative.

Activity:

Using the list below, add in the informal control which is used commonly by the agent of socialisation. Remember these can be positive and negative!

- Have your toys taken off you for a period of time
- Comments made by your friends that the behaviour is odd
- Praise postcard sent home by the teacher
- Parents rewarding you with positive praise
- Your friends complimenting you on helping somebody who is being bullied,
- Teacher asking you to stand outside the classroom for shouting out

Family

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Education

+

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Peer group

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-

Grading questions

Read the following passage and answer the questions.

The family is a primary agent of socialisation. In the family, children are introduced to the culture of their society and learn acceptable ways of behaving. Children learn the norms and values of their society as well as other basic skills such as language, so that they can communicate with others and, in the UK children are taught how to eat with a knife and fork to respect their parents.

Describe what is meant by culture. (2 marks)

Suzie <i>Culture is how people live together with different cultures</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Margarida <i>Culture is a person's way of life.</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Mya <i>Culture is a shared way of life, which includes norms, values, beliefs and language.</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Cody <i>Culture involves the way that people live together in society. It includes the different customs and practices that people do. Cultures are different in different societies. All cultures have a family, a cultural universal, but family forms may vary.</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Identify a norm in the passage (1 mark)

Suzie <i>Respect for their parents.</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Mya <i>How to eat with a knife and fork</i>	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Explain why socialisation by the family is important. (2 marks)

Tim Family is an important part of socialisation because it is where children learn a lot about society in their early years.	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Cody The family is where people spend their early years, which are the most powerful in socialisation. In the family children, learn the difference between right, wrong, and important values that will stay with them throughout their lives.	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Suzie Families teach children norms and values before other agencies of socialisation. The case of Genie, the feral child, shows what can happen when the family does not do its role of socialisation properly. Society would not work properly.	<u>Feedback and mark</u>
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Family: the first major section of the paper and consists of:

2 marker

4 marker

8 marker

15 marker

C1 Understanding Social Processes			
Section 2: Families and Households			
Topics	RAG	Next Step	Complete
What is a family? - Family types (Nuclear, extended, lone parent families etc) - Global Families (One child policy, polygamy, arranged marriage)			

Changing marriage patterns ● Cohabitation ● Marriage trends ● Reasons for marriage, remarriage and cohabitation.			
Family Diversity ● The Rapoport's ● Robert Chester ● Ethnic families ● Reasons for family diversity		Chester argued against Rapoport's - the nuclear family is still the main type of family. Most people live in nuclear families at some point in their life.	
Lone Parents ● Reasons for the rise ● New Right perspectives			
Singlehood ● Reasons for the rise			
Divorce ● Reasons for the rise ● Divorce Laws ● New Right perspectives ● Feminist perspectives			
Changes to family size ● Reasons for the change			
Is the family in decline? ● Reasons for ● Reasons against			
Conjugal Role ● Joint and segregated roles ● Symmetrical families ● Decision making			
Changing role of men ● Traditional masculine jobs ● Reasons for the change in male roles ● Crisis of masculinity			

Childhood • Change in the position of the child • Child centredness			
Role of Elderly • Ageing population • Modified extended families • Beanpole families • Sandwich generation		Outline the effects of the ageing population on the family and society. [8 marks] Free babysitting - women to go to work earlier. Financial support However - could be a burden on the NHS.	
Functionalism • Functions of the family • Warm Bath Theory • Criticism of Functionalist views		Warm bath theory = stabilisation of adult personalities	
Privatised Nuclear Family • Loss of traditional functions			
Marxism • Functions of the family (how it serves capitalism) • The cult of private life • Zaretsky			
Feminism • Patriarchy • Domestic Violence • Position of women in the family. • Social control of women			

What is a Family?

The traditional definition is:

'a group of people related to one another by blood or marriage'

Different types of family:

The nuclear family: This is seen as the ideal family in Britain. It consists of two parents, male and female and their children.

The extended family: Consists of relatives in addition to the immediate family.

Vertically extended family: has three or more generations living together or very nearby: children, parents and grandparents.

Beanpole family: a type of vertically extended family with up to 4 generations living together/nearby, but it is long and thin with few children/aunts and uncles/grandparents.

Horizontally extended family: has two generations with relatives other than the immediate family living together or nearby, such as cousins, aunts or uncles.

Modified extended family: an extended family whose family do not live together but they keep in regular contact through visits, calls and texts

Reconstituted families (Step-families): This is when two partners live together with children from a previous marriage

Same sex families: They consist of a couple of the same sex living together.

Cohabitation: Where the couple live together in a close relationship but are not married. Some may have children.

Lone parent families: Where one parent live with children from a marriage. Most lone parent families consist of a mother and children (90%).

Global Family types

Polygamy: Where one partner can marry several partners at the same time legally. Now found in many smaller traditional societies e.g. North Africa

Usually it is only the wealthy members of society who practice polygamy as you must be rich enough to support your wives and children.

Comparison to the UK

Within the UK we practice **monogamy**, in the UK the law dictates that men and women can marry only one person at a time.

Serial monogamy occurs in the UK where men and women have several marriages over a lifetime, one after another.



Arranged marriage: Parents organise their children's marriages, often being unknown to each other.

The marriage is usually organised between families of similar social/economic standing. This custom is usually found in India and Pakistan.

Comparison to the UK

Within the UK it is the norm for partners to find one another and to fall in love. Historically though, amongst wealthy families, something similar would happen where children would be expected to marry someone of a similar economic standing.

One child policy China: A policy was introduced by the Chinese government in 1979. Each family was allowed 1 child.

This was due to concerns regarding population growth.

Couples were encouraged to have one child by giving them free childcare/health care/education.

Those having more than one child could face punishments such as- fines, loss of benefits, loss of jobs. In some cases they could be forced to have abortions.

China ended this policy in 2015 over fears about the ageing population.

Couples are allowed two children.

Comparison to the UK

Within the UK you are free to choose as many children as you like. Especially with the advancement of contraception and the reduction in the influence of religion.

Exam Practice Questions

(a) Describe what is meant by a *nuclear family*.

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Hint: Define the nuclear family (1) and give a more developed description e.g. what is it seen as by politicians? Is it still popular today? Is it associated with a particular culture?

(a) Describe what is meant by *serial monogamy*.

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(a) Describe what is meant by a *beanpole family*.

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Mark out of 2:

Describe what is meant by cohabitation. (2 marks)

Cohabitation refers to couples who live together in a sexual relationship, but they are not married. The couple could have children. This family is popular with the younger generation.

(a) Describe what is meant by same-sex families.

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Is there family diversity in the UK?

In 2017, the most common family type in the UK was the married or civil partner couple family (12.9 million families). The second largest family type was the cohabiting couple family at 3.3 million families, The third largest family type at 2.8 million lone parent families.



Rapoports.
"Yes we do have more family diversity"

VS



Chester
"We are not as diverse as you think, the nuclear family is still the main family type"

What do we mean by family diversity?

There is an argument amongst sociologists as to how much diversity (different family types) we have in the UK. Some sociologists believe we have lots of diversity, however some say this isn't as much as we think because most people still strive for the nuclear family.

The Rapoports (1982)

- Families are becoming more diverse - we are moving away from one main family form.
- Families are more diverse in many ways including the roles that men and women play.
- Trends such as divorce, remarriage and cohabitation have made family structures more unpredictable and they no longer follow set patterns.

Robert Chester

Argued that the nuclear family is still the main family type. He argues that:

- Most children are still brought up for most of their lives by their two natural parents.
- Most cohabiting couples go on to marry and become nuclear families
- Many divorced people remarry and become nuclear families
- Most people live in a nuclear family at some point in their lives and the nuclear family is what many people aspire to.

Reasons for Family Diversity in the UK

The 1969 Divorce Act (and the 1984 Divorce Act)

Previous to 1969, one partner had to prove that the other was 'at fault' in order to be granted a divorce, however, following the Divorce Reform Act of 1969, a marriage could be ended if it had irretrievably broken down, and neither partner no longer had to prove "fault".

Marriage (Same-Sex Couples) Act 2013

Allows same-sex couples to enter into a marriage in England and Wales on the same basis as heterosexual couples, and to convert Civil Partnerships to Marriages.

The Legal Aid and Advice Act which gave financial assistance with solicitors' and court fees

E

Economic changes can appear due to the cost of living within the UK, leaving many people postponing marriage for example. The average cost of a wedding in the UK is £27, 161 the highest it's ever been. It is also cheaper now to divorce, leading to more lone-parent families.

F

There has been a significant change in the position of women in the UK. Women have more support and independence to pursue a career.

There are now changes in stereotypes for women, we now challenge the view of women as just housewives. Opportunities at school have improve and now girls are achieving better exam results.

T

Technological advances in contraception have had a huge impact on women and family diversity. Women can now control when they have children in life, leading to more single households or cohabitation as people no longer feel the need to marry as they have children. It was introduced in the UK on the NHS in 1961 for married women only - this lasted until 1967.

Technological changes such as IVF has enabled same sex couples to reproduce independently, leading to family diversity.

I

Immigration may have led to an increase in family diversity in the UK as they follow the customs and norms of their culture. For example British African- Caribbean have a higher rate of single parent families than any other ethnic group.

Another impact may be from Pakistani or Bangladeshi families, for example they are more likely to have larger families and women are less likely to work. They have much lower rates of divorce and typically live in extended families.

N

Norms have drastically changed since the 1950s in the family. The norm in the 1950s was that young people got married and have children. The nuclear family was the desired form. **Stigma** was attached to those who deviated away from this, such as having children outside of marriage. Norms have changed over time, such as same-sex relationships are accepted and legalised, many people cohabit before marriage and children outside of marriage are not stigmatised.

S

Secularisation means that religion has increasingly lost its influence. During the 1950s it was the norm in the UK that most people followed the Christian faith. It is argued that the decline in influence of religion has led to many social changes and the lack of influence on the nuclear family being the most desired.

Explain why family types other than the nuclear family are on the rise in contemporary UK. [8]

You should explore **at least two** reasons in your response.

(Remember: at least 2 PEEL paragraphs with links back to Q!)

This image shows a full page of white paper with horizontal blue ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page, providing a template for handwriting practice or general writing. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the page.

Discuss how far sociologists would agree that the main reason for the increase in family diversity is changes in social attitudes and secularisation. (15)

In your answer you are advised to refer to social ideas and any other relevant factors to support your judgement.

Introduction (e.g. “Some sociologists may agree that...however others may disagree and state that....):

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Paragraph 1 (social attitudes/secularisation – follow PEEL structure):

Firstly, some may argue that the main reason for family diversity is changes in social attitudes and secularisation.

For example.....

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Paragraph 2 (disagreeing with statement - PEEL):

On the other hand.....

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Paragraph 3 (disagreeing with statement – what else has led to family diversity? PEEL):



Conclusion – short summary of the argument:

To conclude,

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Changing marriage patterns

Traditionally young people lived at home until they were ready to be married.

Marriage was the norm for most adults in the 1950s and most marriages lasted until one or other partner died.

The number of marriages in the UK peaked in 1972 at 480,000 that year. Since then, the number has continued to fall with just 242,842 marriages in 2017.

Compared with the 1970s, the average age of first marriages is also increasing.

Reasons why marriage patterns are changing

- **Norms** to do with marriage have changed - it is now perfectly acceptable now to remain single.
- **Secularisation:** The declining significance of religion in UK society; for many, marriage is no longer a religious ceremony.

- **Divorce:** treated with less stigma; thus the number of divorces have increased, often leading to more remarriages.
Divorce rates have increased dramatically, which may have been putting people off getting married.
- **Increase in cohabitation:** official statistics show that the number of cohabiting couples - living together unmarried - in the UK has doubled over the past 20 years. This is common among younger people and is often seen as a long-term alternative to marriage. People may choose to save money for a mortgage, holidays or other goods instead of paying for a wedding.

Explain why fewer people are getting married in contemporary (modern) UK compared to 50 years ago.

[8 marks]

*You should explore **at least two** reasons in your response.*

One reason why fewer people are getting married is because of secularisation. For example, 50 years ago the UK was very religious, and for many people marriage was seen as a religious ceremony. In the 1950s it was a norm that most people followed the Christian faith which highlighted that marriage was a gift from God; the idea of getting married in a church, in front of God, is very important and was the only appropriate way to start a family. However nowadays, religion has declined and many people now don't see marriage as a religious ceremony, but see it as a matter of individual choice based on love and trust. This decline in religion explains why less people are getting married.

Can you do one more PEEL paragraph like this below?:

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Divorce

Figures for divorce have risen dramatically over the last century. 42% marriages end in divorce.

Reasons why divorce rates are increasing

- **Divorce Reform Act (1969):** Before 1971, divorce was allowed only on strict grounds such as adultery. The innocent husband or wife was allowed to divorce so they could be freed from their guilty partner. People who were just unhappily married could not divorce. Divorce was also a very expensive legal process. The 1969 Divorce Reform Act allowed people who were unhappily married to divorce on the grounds of 'irretrievable breakdown'- meaning the relationship had broken down and cannot be mended.
- **Changing expectations of marriage:** Many couples have different expectations and want love and companionship. These high expectations can lead to them being disappointed. Giddens argues that couples expect intimacy, closeness and emotional satisfaction and not as prepared as their parents and grandparents may have been to remain in 'empty' marriages.
- **Decline of religion (Secularisation)** - Divorce is no longer a sin and there is less religious significance to marriage.
- **Changing role of women:** Women more educated which means they can now support themselves and there is less stigma attached to single parents.
- **Changes in norms and social attitudes:** there is less stigma around divorce - socially acceptable.

Exam Practice:

'Changes in norms and values are the main reason for changes in the divorce rate.'

However, others may argue that _____ is the main reason for divorce rates.

For example.....

Therefore, some might argue that _____ is the biggest reason for the increase in divorce rates.

Paragraph 3 (agree OR disagree):

Furthermore, some sociologists might argue that the main reason for the increase in divorce rates is the changing position of women.

For example, women nowadays are much more _____-driven and no longer feel the need to remain_____.

In the past, women's priorities were_____

However nowadays women other priorities such as a career, rather than marriage and a family.

Women are no earning money and contributing more which has enabled them to...

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This means that the changing positions of women have contributed to the rise in divorce rates.

Conclusion: (Summarise the arguments in 2 sentences!):

To conclude.....

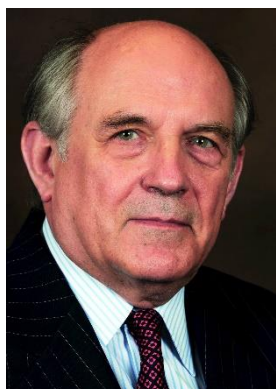
Lone-Parent Families

- Since the 1970s single parent families have Tripled in the UK
- About 25% of all families with dependent children are single parent families
- About 90% of them are headed by women
- One child in Five now lives with a lone parent
- Britain has the highest rate of lone parenthood in Europe

<u>Law</u> • Divorce Reform Act 1969 • Adoption Act 2002	<u>Possible reasons....</u> • Changes in Law: Divorce Reform Act 1969  • Changes in attitude   • Reproductive technology  • Secularisation  • Welfare Benefits 	<u>Welfare Benefits</u> Provided by the government and fathers are required to pay child maintenance to support their children.
It's more <u>socially acceptable</u> to be a lone parent. It's more socially acceptable to divorce.		And don't forget- <u>change in the position of women!</u> 
<u>Reproductive Technology</u> Women and men can have children without having sex. IVF and Surrogacy.		
<u>Secularisation</u> The decline of religious belief, thinking and practises.		

New Right views on the Family:

- The New Right and Functionalists agree that the nuclear family is the family type that works best in meeting the needs of both society and its children.



- It views families other than the nuclear family as damaging to society.
- The group of sociologists known as the New Right see lone-parent families as an inadequate form of family.
- Charles Murray argues that boys brought up without a male role model in the family will not see fatherly behaviour to aspire to nor understand that the role of men is, according to the New Right, to work and provide money for the family.

Feminist views on Lone-Parent Families:

Feminists support female lone-parent families as they see them as offering women a choice to escape traditional marriages where men have power over women.

Exam Practice:

Explain why the New Right argue single parents are bad for society. (4 marks)

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Explain why lone-parent families are on the rise in (modern) UK. [8]

One reason why lone-parent families are on the rise is because of changes in the law.

For example, the Divorce Reform Act (1969) allowed people who were unhappily married to divorce on the grounds of 'irretrievable breakdown'. This made it easier for people to divorce, leading to more lone-parent families.

Another law is the Equal Pay Act (1970). This law allowed working women to earn the same amount of money as working men. This has given women the financial freedom to provide for themselves, leading to more lone-parent families.

Can you do one more PEEL paragraph like this below?:

Is the nuclear family in decline?

- The **New Right** view the nuclear family as the 'right type' but this family is in decline - Lone parent families are on the rise due to perverse incentives (financial gains)- Benefits!
- **Secularisation** results in society no longer being as religious as in the past. This means people can now cohabit or divorce without the stigma of committing a sin, leading to the decline in the nuclear family.
- **Norms** have drastically changed since the 1950s in the family. The norm in the 1950s was that young people got married and have children. The nuclear family was the desired form. Stigma was attached to those who deviated away from this, such as having children outside of marriage. Norms have changed over time, leading to the decline of the nuclear families.
- **Changes in the law:**

Statistically, the nuclear family is still the most common.

Robert Chester - most people live in nuclear families at some point in their lives

Even when people get divorced, the chances are that they get remarried, forming new nuclear families.

The Rapoports that traditional nuclear families are in decline, but regard the increase of other family forms as desirable.

The family has not declined. It's changed.

People are now free to choose how they want to live their lives, including what family they want to live in.

Exam Practice

'Some sociologists suggest that the nuclear family is under threat.'

Do you agree with this view? [15]

Introduction (2-3 sentences.) Outline the argument:

Some sociologists such as _____ would agree that that the nuclear family is under threat. Other sociologists such as _____ and _____ would disagree and state that the nuclear family is still the main family form.

In this essay I will be..

Paragraph 1 (agree): New Right

Some sociologists believe that the nuclear family is under threat.

According to the New Right sociologists like

Therefore, New Right sociologists would agree with the statement that the nuclear family is under threat.

Paragraph 2: Agreeing with the statement.

Furthermore, _____ supports the view that the nuclear family is in decline.

For example,.....

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Paragraph 3: Disagreeing with the statement.

e.g. what did Robert Chester claim? What do statistics claim?

However, other sociologists believe that the nuclear family is not in decline.

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This view is supported by the Rapoports, who believe.....

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Therefore, sociologists like Chester and the Rapoports would _____ with the statement.

Conclusion:

(Summarise the arguments in 2 sentences!)

To conclude.....

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Changes in conjugal roles:

Key terms:

The domestic division of labour: Who does which chores around the house.

Conjugal roles: The domestic roles of married or cohabiting partners.

In the past conjugal roles were separate and unequal – sociologists call this segregated conjugal roles.



Women were expected to take full responsibility for housework and childcare.



Men were expected to be 'breadwinners' and take full responsibility for earning money.

Conjugal roles today: Some sociologists argue that conjugal roles are now more shared and equal – they call this joint conjugal roles.

Revision task:

Using the evidence below and two different highlighters, highlight the evidence which shows:

- Conjugal roles are more equal
- Conjugal roles are not equal

Hours spent on household tasks

Time Use Study 2006

Women who worked spent 21 hours on housework, whereas men who worked spent 12 hours on housework.

Women still did the majority of cooking/cleaning and men still did most the DIY and gardening

Decision making

Edgell 1980 found that women controlled decisions in the home, clothes and domestic spending whereas men had control on finances and moving house.

Pahl found that the most common form of financial management was 'husband controlled pooling'. The money is shared but the husband decides how it was spent.

Childcare

Esther Dermott found many fathers wanted to be involved in childcare and wanted to spend more time with their children.

Media representations

There has been changes in the representation of roles in the media. For example an advert on Tide (washing powder) shows a stay at home dad who cleans and braids his daughters hair.

New man

Some sociologists would argue that in society today we now have men who share the domestic labour more equally, in touch with feminine side and emotions, treats women as equals, cares more about his appearance than the traditional man

Triple Shift

Ann Oakley argued that women who worked ended up with a Dual Burden. (housework + paid work)

Dunscombe and Marsden added emotional work to this. (all 3 is the triple shift)

'Gender roles are now more equal in families in the contemporary UK.' Do you agree with this view? [15]

Intro	Many sociologists like Wilmott & Young would agree that gender roles are now more equal in families. Whereas, other sociologists like Ann Oakley would disagree and say that families are patriarchal.
Paragraph 1 Agree	Point: Willmott & Young would argue that families have become more symmetrical. Evidence/example: They conducted studies to investigate the domestic division of labour within families in London from the 1950s to the 1970s and discovered the family had changed significantly. Explain: Link: Willmott & Young therefore agree that with the statement that..
Paragraph 2 Disagree	Point: On the other hand, Ann Oakley (a Feminist sociologist) rejects the idea that gender roles are more equal in families. Evidence/example: <i>What do men do with regards to household work?</i> Link (link back to question): A/A* push: <i>Any counter-evidence to this point? Hint: New Man?:</i> However, the rise of the New Man means that.....

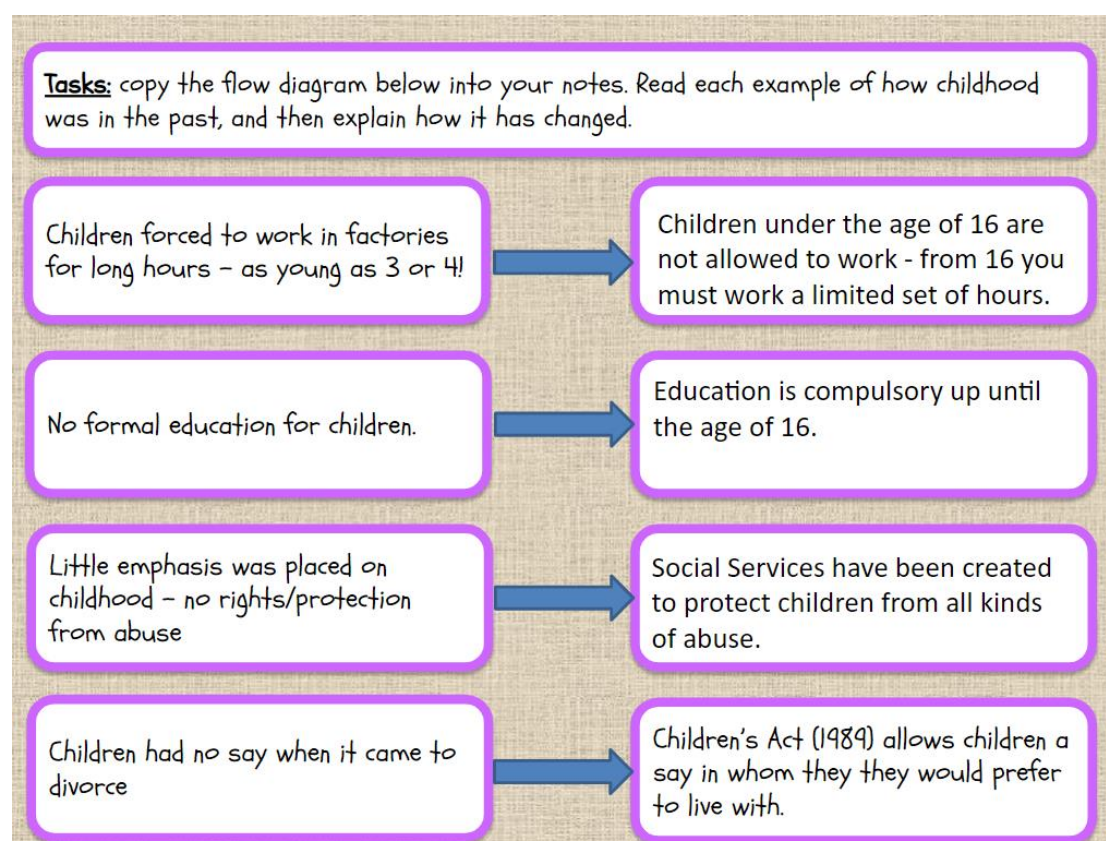
Paragraph 3 Optional Agree/ Disagree	Point: Furthermore....further evidence agrees with the idea that gender roles are becoming more equal in families today. Evidence/explain: Link (link back to question): Therefore..... <i>A/A* push: Any further support or counter-evidence to this point?:</i>
Conclusion	To conclude, sociologists such as _____ would agree that... Whereas others such as _____ would disagree and claim that..

The changing role of children

Childhood is a 'social construction' - how children are viewed and treated varies between societies.

For example, in modern Britain, childhood is viewed as a stage of life where young people are protected from adult concerns.

In some parts of the world, at the same age, children might be working or even fighting in wars.



Child-centred families:

It can be argued we now live in a 'child-centred' society.

Living standards have risen and families are smaller, allowing people to focus their money, attention and care on fewer children.

Working hours for most parents have reduced so parents can spend more leisure time with their children.



Exam Practice

Explain why it is argued Britain is a child-centred society.

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The changing role of men

Traditional masculine roles:



Many working-class men would have jobs that required strength and hard physical work, such as coal mining and steel manufacture.

Men were hard-working breadwinners who could expect to come home from work and

be 'waited on' with little involvement with childcare and housework.

Men had authority in the home and were regarded as head of the household.

All these factors gave men status and respect. Young boys were socialised in a way that would prepare them for this.

Reasons for the changing masculine role:

- Many of the traditional industries such as coal mining have declined, Leading to male unemployment and the loss of the breadwinner role.
- Some of these jobs have been replaced by jobs in service industries which do not require physical strength, therefore can be done by men or women.
- More women are succeeding in education, challenging the male role as breadwinner and expecting more involvement from men in the home. This has challenged the respect and status men have traditionally had.
- Men receive conflicting messages from the media and reality. In the media men are still portrayed in traditional 'masculine' roles. But, this is not how men are expected to act by women.

The changing role of older people

There has been an increase in life expectancy over the last 100 years.

This has led to an ageing population of more older people than there were in the past.

There have been several results of this increased life expectancy on families:



- Increase in beanpole families/modified extended families
- Emotional, financial support for families.
- The ability to look after grandchildren whilst parents work
- The negative impact on the NHS, pension costs and over-population.

The modified extended family:

This is where family members may not live close to each other, but they keep in regular contact.

There are more grandparents about today so the modified extended family is very common.

For many families, the extended family is an important source of support, providing services such as helping out financially, babysitting/ caring for children.

With the increase in women working and the high cost of childcare, many grandparents look after the children while both parents work.

Both generations benefit from this arrangement, as grandparents enjoy spending time with their grandchildren and parents benefit from the support and freedom to pursue their careers while bringing up children.

Support - Janet Forster in a study in the East End in London in the 1990s found that the adults in the family lived only a few streets from each other and saw each other most days, particularly mothers and daughters. The family supported each other with monetary help, emotional support and childcare.

However, People in their 50s have become a 'sandwich generation' - they are now caught between having to provide care for their elderly parents, while still having their children living at home.

Increasing numbers of pensioners also puts a strain on the NHS because pensioners use health services more than younger people. With increasing

numbers of pensioners 'sucking money' out of the welfare state' (government) there is less left for everything else - services for the young are being cut to compensate.

This is because healthy life expectancy is not keeping pace with life-expectancy, and there are increasing numbers of people in their 80s who spend several years with chronic physical conditions such as arthritis, and also dementia both of which require intensive social care.

Exam Practice

'The ageing population plays an important and positive role in British society and families.' Discuss how far sociologists would agree with this statement. (15 marks)

Intro	What is the key area I need to discuss in this essay?	
Paragraph 1 Agree	What point could I use for agreeing with the opinion? (Theories, approaches or examples)	Point: Firstly, some sociologists claim that the ageing population has provided support for families. Explain: For example, Janet Forster conducted a study in the East End in London in the 1990s. She found that.... Link (link back to Q): This therefore supports the argument that....

		<i>Grade 8/9 push - any counter-arguments? Hint: Sandwich generation?:</i>
Paragraph 2 Disagree	What point could I use for disagreeing with the opinion? (Theories, approaches or examples)	Point: On the other hand, other sociologists may disagree with the statement and claim that the increasing numbers of pensioners puts a <u>strain on the NHS</u>. Explain: Link: This therefore supports the argument that....
Paragraph 3 Optional Agree / Disagree	What point could I use for further disagreeing with the opinion? (Theories, approaches or examples)	Point: Alternatively, sociologists may agree with the statement and claim that the increase in the elderly population has led to growth in new types of families. Evidence/example: One type of family created from the ageing population is beanpole families. These are.... Without the ageing family, families like these would not exist. Link (link back to statement): Therefore.....
Conclusion		

The Functionalist view of the family

- Consensus theory
- Family is vital for society
- Functionalists argue that the family is a particularly important subsystem - a building block for society.

Murdock



Found the family to be the **most important institution** as they perform four key functions:

1. **Sexual**

Married adults enjoy a healthy sex life which prevents them having affairs and ensures children are raised by their natural parents.

2. **Reproductive**

The nuclear family reproduces the next generation.

3. **Economic**

The family provides food and shelter for family members. Ideally, the man will go to work and the woman will look after the house and children.

4. **Educational Socialisation** refers to the process where individuals learn of a culture, norms and values. Children learn socially acceptable behaviour and the culture of their society. Socialisation helps build shared ideas and values in a society (a value consensus).

Parsons



Argues that the family has two key functions

1. **Primary socialisation** occurs during the early years of childhood. That is socialisation in the family environment. Children learn norms and values of their society

2. **Stabilisation of adult personalities** (warm bath theory)

- Families give each other emotional support.
- Families provide relaxation from the stresses of modern life

Family life provides adults with the release from the strains and stresses of everyday life - like a warm bath.

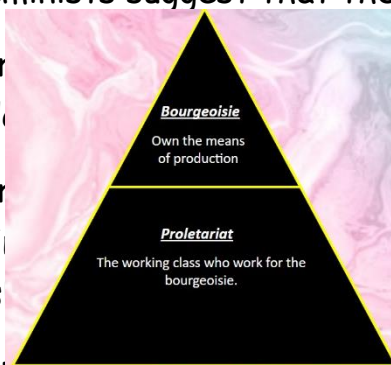
Criticisms of the Functionalist view

•Feminists suggest that the family benefits men more than women.

•Parsons is based on the white American family. Does this represent wider society?

•Parsons is seen as sexist, as he sees the woman/wife as having the main role in providing warmth and emotional support and distressing the husband.

•Functionalism is seen as positive and optimistic. It ignores negative aspects or (dysfunctions) such as the dark side of the family. For example domestic violence.



Exam Practice:

Explain why it is argued that families are necessary for society.

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Have you:

- Outlined what Functionalists think of the nuclear family?
- Mentioned that families perform vital functions for society and its members (and why)?
- Used EITHER Murdock OR Parsons as evidence?
- Linked back to the Q?

Marxist view of the family

Society is made up of two groups with competing interests in life. These two groups in a capitalist society are the proletariat and the bourgeoisie.

Marxists see the family as serving the interests of the bourgeoisie and capitalism. Families are organised to keep capitalism going through their structure and activities.

How do families serve the interests of capitalism?

Marxists believe that capitalism is a very unfair system for the workers and that they should try to change things. Marxist **Zaretsky** argues that this 'revolution' does not happen because workers are persuaded that happiness lies in family life, not working for a fairer society. There is a 'cult of private life' where people bury themselves in family life and close their eyes to the injustice of capitalism.

This is made worse because capitalists focus on the family to sell their products to. Families are persuaded through advertising that happiness lies in having the latest products and labels, this message is passed on to their children.

Also - Children are brought up to 'do as they're told'. Which gets them used to accepting authority in the workplace.

Criticisms of the Marxist view

- Functionalists argue that Marxists ignore the benefits that families provide for their members.
- Feminists argue that Marxists are ignoring the power men exercise over women of whatever class.
- It is hard to think about how bringing up a child without some form of rules and adult instruction would work.

Feminist view of the family

Traditionally, men have dominated the top jobs in society. Feminists say that men also get more out of family life, they make the important decisions.

IN WHAT WAYS ARE WOMEN OPPRESSED IN THE HOME?

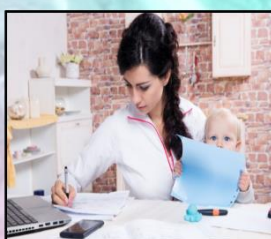
Oppression- prolonged cruel or unjust treatment or exercise of authority.



Abuse



Housework



Work/ helping children with homework



Childcare

Triple shift

Delphy and Leonard (radical feminists) say that the family is patriarchal. They argue that women contribute the most to family life in terms of domestic work, emotional work and support while men benefit the most from family life.

However - Many women now go out to work and there are men who participate in domestic chores and looking after the children.

Ann Oakley

Little boys are often given toys such as Action man and superhero figures, which teaches them that their role is the stronger one.

This supports a family system where men play the dominant role and women look after the children. Oakley argues that the division of roles in the family benefits men, as it gives them more power, status, money and choice.



Criticisms of the Feminist view

- Some sociologists would say that they ignore the benefits family life has on women. For example, the pleasure many women have from bringing up their children.
- Functionalists would argue the family benefits both society and its family members.

Exam Practice (Model Essay):

- (d) Some sociologists suggest that nuclear families, with two parents of opposite sexes, are good for society. Do you agree with this view? [15]

Examiner
only

In your answer you are advised to consider different sociological ideas and theories to support your judgement.

Some Sociologists argue that the nuclear family is the best family type and the most beneficial for Society. However, other perspectives disagree and argue it only benefits negatively.

Functionalists argue that the nuclear family, consisting of two parents of opposite sexes, is the best and most beneficial family type. As argued by Murdock and Parsons the nuclear family carry out many functions. Murdock argues the nuclear family carries out 4 main functions: reproduction, Primary Socialisation, Stabilisation of adult relationships / personalities and economic Stability. This means that children are taught the right norms and values too fit in to Society. Additionally, functionalists would argue that having one parent of each Sex is beneficial as it teaches the correct behaviour for each gender, and gives children role models to look up to.

However, Marxists would disagree with functionalists and would instead argue that the nuclear family is negative instead of positive. Zaretsky argues that the family props up Capitalism and also works as a unit of consumption where people

buy things especially for the family such as family holidays and cars. Therefore, Marxists would disagree with functionalists and instead argue that the nuclear family is exploited by the Bourgeoisie and used for the benefit of Capitalism.

Furthermore, feminists would also disagree with ~~marx~~ functionalists that the nuclear family is positive and would instead argue that the nuclear family is used to oppress women. This is because women are forced into gender stereotyped roles and are expected to be housewives and carry out their expressive role. This leads to women not having a career and being used for the benefit of men.

To Conclude

~~Overall~~ functionalists argue that the nuclear family is the most beneficial family type whereas, Marxists and feminists argue that it is used and exploited for the good of others.

Task:

- In one colour, underline or highlight where AO1 (knowledge/key terminology) has been covered.
- In another colour, underline or highlight where AO2 (examples) has been covered.
- In a different colour, underline or highlight where AO3 (evaluation) has been covered.
- Has an introduction and/or conclusion been included? Circle them to indicate.
- What score (out of 15) would you give this answer? Why?