Now test yourself answers

Chapter 1

What is sociology?
1 Marxism emphasises the differences that exist in society, e.g. the different interests of employers and employees.
2 Functionalists see society as based on shared values.
3 They believed it would be possible to reveal ‘laws’ governing human behaviour comparable to those discovered by physicists, chemists and biologists.
4 They mean a group of people with a common culture. The term is generally used to describe nation states, e.g. British society.
5 Sociology is an objective, systematic study of human behaviour based on research evidence.
6 People create their society one day at a time through their ongoing independent interactions with other people.

Social structures, processes and issues
1 Poverty (sociologists would usually define this as a social issue).
2 The various ways in which society contains and limits the behaviour of its members. Various systems of social stratification are an example of such structures.
3 The various ways in which people are affected by their interactions with others. Important examples include primary and secondary socialisation and social control.
4 Various concerns that affect many people and as such are widely debated in society. Important examples include poverty, social inequality and crime.
5 The idea of ‘race’ is based on the outdated classification of individuals according to physical differences such as skin colour. Ethnicity refers to cultural differences, e.g. language, history and customs.

Durkheim, Marx and Weber
1 Marx believed that ordinary workers were exploited not only by their capitalist employers but also by members of the lower middle class, who (for example) owned the shops in which they bought goods or rented them housing.
2 Wealth and power were concentrated in the hands of the capitalist class, who exploited the labour of the working class.
3 Weber.
4 No (Weber did not agree with Marx on this issue).
5 Durkheim used suicide statistics from different European countries to identify patterns, and developed sociological rather than individual explanations for this type of extreme behaviour.

Functionalism
1 Because it is a set of ideas that tries to explain everything about how society works and why people in groups behave as they do.
2 Basic needs (e.g. food and shelter) that must be satisfied.
3 Societies need stability. This depends upon socialisation (teaching each generation the norms and values of society) and effective social control.
4 Functionalism cannot adequately explain why conflict or instability happens, or why societies change, and it does not take into account the different meanings that individuals can attach to social actions.
5 Parsons believed that the family now concentrated on a more limited number of important functions, e.g. the primary socialisation of children.
6 No, he did not believe that the loss of traditional functions was evidence that the family was in decline.

Marxism
1 The technology, materials and knowledge required to enable humanity to survive.
2 Because they depended upon the wealthy and powerful exploiting the labour of the poor and powerless.
3 A communist revolution.
4 His aim was to find out not only how the system failed working-class students but also why they appeared to embrace academic failure and consciously reject the values of the school and the apparent opportunity to become socially mobile.
5 Spending time with each other (claiming school time for themselves was an important part of their sense of identity).
Interactionism

1 A group of sociologists working at the University of Chicago before and after the Second World War. They were interested in investigating the effects of Chicago’s expansion, with its rapidly growing and diverse population.

2 For example, a young person can be labelled as a criminal when they break the law and this will affect the way in which other people see that young person (they have become above all a ‘criminal’ or ‘juvenile delinquent’).

3 When an individual accepts a particular label that has been applied to them by others that label becomes a master status, e.g. problem student.

4 When an individual who accepts the label that has been given to them and acts accordingly, e.g. the problem student who behaves badly because such behaviour is expected of them.

5 It fails to adequately take account of inequalities in power or economic circumstances and it places too much emphasis on the criminal, neglecting the victims of crime.

6 Someone who breaks a minor rule is treated tolerantly because they behave like many other people in society, e.g. drinking too much at a party. A thief would be treated less tolerantly because their behaviour is very different from that of most people in society.

Feminism

1 1928.

2 Feminists in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.

3 No, they tend to support direct action (e.g. protest) to raise consciousness and challenge existing cultural assumptions.

4 Because it emphasises the exploitation of one group in society (women) by another group (men).

5 Because there is no agreement – for example, some feminists have argued that women have always been second-class members of society. Others emphasise more recent historical events, such as nineteenth-century labour reforms that reduced employment opportunities for women.

New Right

1 Because she would lose her welfare payments and Harold’s minimum wage job would not provide the security the family needed.

2 Restricting entitlement and reducing benefits.

3 Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan.

4 They believe that competition and choice will drive up standards.

5 They tend to be opposed to same-sex marriage.

Debates in sociology

1 A quality of mind (thinking like a sociologist).

2 Marxism.

3 Culture refers to the total way of life of a society, e.g. its language and history.

4 No, sex describes the biological differences between men and women. To a sociologist, gender is something different – it refers to the way in which society classifies masculine and feminine behaviour.

5 Sociologists use a number of ideas to explain racial prejudice and discrimination. These include ethnocentrism, group closure and resource allocation.

6 A value is more than a simple opinion; at its heart it is a moral judgement.

Chapter 2

Research design and practical problems

1 They believed that researchers should build a theory by ‘grounding’ their work on the basis of research data (not by imposing preconceived ideas about society).

2 Because of the need to establish objective, evidence-based conclusions (this is the ideal for all scientific research).

3 A literature review allows the researcher to establish what is already known and what theories already exist to explain what is happening in society.

4 This is when a person claims someone else’s work as their own.

5 Among the most common practical problems are time, cost and access.

Ethical issues and experiments

1 Some of her interview subjects were no longer involved in crime and did not wish their past lives to become generally known [Carlen observed the ethical principle of confidentiality in sociological research].

2 This means that research subjects understand and agree to participate in a research project.

3 Ethical considerations (questions of right and wrong) are about observing a professional code of conduct that guides the behaviour of researchers and protects all participants from physical or emotional harm.

4 The Nuremburg Code established the basic principles for ethical medical research after the Second World War.
Yes, for example sociologists have a duty to reveal anything that might be used in a criminal case.

Pilot studies and the scientific method
1 He did not believe that the leaders of the movement would give him free and open access to conduct his research.
2 Interviews (with former and existing members) and covert participant observation.
3 They were critical of his conclusions and methods. They insisted on changes to his manuscript and regarded him as a hostile commentator.
4 Detailed scrutiny of their methods, results and conclusions by other sociologists.
5 Questionnaires, interviews, observation (secondary sources/literature review would also be acceptable).

Primary and secondary sources of data
1 The original is a primary (historical) source, a first-hand description of a 1960s’ marriage.
2 A traditional patriarchal relationship.
3 It can be used as a point of comparison between marital relationships in the 1960s and those in the present day.
4 Combining different qualitative and quantitative research methods, e.g. questionnaires and interviews.
5 Comparing different forms of data.

Surveys and sampling
1 To estimate the numbers living either in poverty or on the margins of poverty, and to discover the ‘characteristics and problems’ of those who experienced poverty and to develop an explanation for the problem.
2 Probability samples are based on a known population.
3 Non-probability samples are based on an unknown population.
4 Because their particular research project requires them to select individual respondents, e.g. those who are the best informed.
5 Cluster, quota, random, snowball, stratified or systematic.

Statistics
1 Online; 468 respondents.
2 Official statistics are produced for the government.

3 Non-official statistics are produced for non-governmental organisations.
4 Methodological differences and variations in police recording practices.
5 Statistics based on police recorded crime did not meet the required standard for National Statistics.

Questionnaires
1 Closed questions only allow responses in a restricted number of categories.
2 Open questions invite an extended response.
3 When the researcher requires in-depth qualitative data.
4 Surveys involving large numbers of respondents.
5 ‘Loaded’ questions reflect the researcher’s own preferences.

Interviews
1 An interview that involves a tightly pre-arranged list of questions (almost a ‘face-to-face’ questionnaire).
2 The researcher sets the theme for the conversation (rather than a long list of questions).
3 Responses to questions can be influenced by a number of variables, including the appearance, gender, age and ethnicity of the interviewer.
4 Unstructured interviews are flexible and allow the researcher to collect qualitative data that is often high in validity.
5 Interviews can be time consuming; structured interviews do not allow qualitative data to be collected; there is the possibility of interviewer bias.

Observation
1 The observer (who stands apart from the group) records data openly without any attempt to conceal what they are doing.
2 An easy-to-use format for keeping notes; a typical observation schedule will include different types of event and the timing of such events.
3 This involves the researcher embedding themselves in a particular social situation – it can involve the researcher concealing their identity and purpose.
4 It can violate the principle of informed consent.
5 The possibility that subjects will alter their behaviour if they know that they are being observed.

Longitudinal studies
1 When participants drop out for any number of reasons, including ill health and death, or they simply refuse to take part any longer.
2 A high attrition rate can have an impact on the composition of the sample, making it less representative.

3 To track changes in the lives of the individuals involved, e.g. social mobility or changing social attitudes and behaviours.

4 40,000.

5 No (but it does contain some useful sociological insights).

Case studies and ethnography
1 An in-depth investigation of a particular aspect of social life, e.g. a prison or a school.
2 Because it reveals a particular form of social behaviour, e.g. the behaviour of religious groups with beliefs that fall well outside the mainstream of society.
3 The observation and description of a group of people and their way of life.
4 Yes, it is based on the approach taken by anthropologists who studied disappearing tribal cultures in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries.
5 No, ethnographic researchers spend extended periods of time in the field making observations and conducting interviews.

Chapter 3
What is a family?
1 A family is a group of two or more people linked by birth, marriage, adoption or cohabitation based on a long-term relationship. The term ‘household’ is used to describe a group of people who live together in the same dwelling.

2 The many different types of family structure that exist in contemporary society.

3 Lone-parent family.

4 When two adults with children from previous relationships remarry (or cohabit) to form a new family.

5 A nuclear family contains two generations – parents and their children – whereas an extended family normally contains three generations, e.g. including grandparents.

Family diversity – Rapoport and Rapoport research
1 Organisational diversity, cultural diversity, social class diversity, life cycle diversity, family life course diversity.

2 The difference in the family life of different ethnic groups or religious groups.

3 Differences created by the historical periods the family have lived through.

4 Family life course diversity.

Reasons for family diversity
1 Choose from: legal changes, changes in social values and attitudes, changing gender roles, benefits for lone parents, employment opportunities, longer life expectancy, decline in religion, immigration.

2 It led to lone-parent families, single-person households and reconstituted families.

3 It meant that women and men doing the same job would get the same pay. This encouraged women to work outside the home and gave them more independence, and so contributed to changes in the organisation of family life.


Is the nuclear family still important in modern Britain?
1 Most popular type of family; functionalists believe it is a perfect fit with a modern industrial society.

2 Family diversity; divorce rates increasing.

3 Edmund Leach.

4 Conventional family with man, woman and children.

Functions of the family: functionalists
1 250.

2 Sexual, reproductive, educational, economic.

3 Primary socialisation; stabilisation of adult personality.

4 It ignores the darker side of the family. Families may not be as harmonious as functionalists suggest. Families are influenced by ethnicity, religion and class – this is not considered. The view is out of date.

5 The family relieves the stresses of everyday life. It provides a warm, loving home where adults can be themselves and relax – ‘warm bath’ theory.

Functions of the family: Marxists
1 Families are consumer units. Private property is passed between generations. Primary socialisation – reproduces and maintains class inequalities. Families provide labour by reproducing and socialising the next generation of workers.

2 It is out of date. It ignores lots of functions of the family. It ignores the benefits of the family.

3 Both see the family as important for society.

4 Marxists argue that the family benefits the minority in power (bourgeoisie) and the economy but disadvantages the working-class majority (proletariat). Functionalists argue that the family performs essential functions for individuals and society.
Functions of the family: feminists
1 Feminists regard men as gaining the greatest benefits from family life. Traditionally men are the breadwinners and earn more money than women and tend to be in control of the family. They emphasise the harmful effects of family life for women. They see the family and marriage as major sources of female oppression and gender inequalities in society. They consider housework as work even though it is unpaid – it is hard, routine and unrewarding.

2 Liberal feminists see increasing inequalities between men and women; campaign for changes in the law to ensure equality between men and women.

Marxist feminists believe men benefit more from family life than women do; women raise children for a capitalist society; women take time off work to support children, elderly and sick relatives.

Radical feminists see the family as a patriarchal institution (male-dominated), which benefits men more than women; believe socialisation of boys and girls encourages girls and boys to behave in stereotypical ways.

3 Not all male/female relationships involve male dominance over women. The view is outdated as women now work outside the home.

4 Men having control/power in society and over its institutions.

Changes in the family over time
1 Pre-industrial: all family members worked on productive tasks; worked on the land; home and workplace were the same; average family size 4.75.

Industrial: family became more mobile; male took economic role, female stayed at home; state took over some of the functions of the family; average family size 4.4.

Modern: family diversity; more isolated from other family members; average family size 4.4.

2 Adults and older children lead increasingly separate lives. Increased technology makes it more difficult for parents to control children’s behaviour. Families have become more child-centred.

Marriage
1 Marriage rates declined.

2 People are still getting married. People get married more than once. Laws allow same-sex couples to marry. Arranged marriages are still important among Asian families.

3 Rising divorce rates. Changing attitudes – no need to get married. Women are more independent.

Divorce and its consequences
1 Number of divorces increased.

2 Number of divorces has decreased.

3 Secularisation has loosened the rigid morality which made divorce morally unacceptable. Many people don’t get married in church in a religious ceremony so divorce is not seen as morally wrong.

Marriage is becoming less sacred so people think it can be abandoned.

4 Children: spend time between both parents; need to adapt to new relationships; may lose contact with grandparents.

Grandparents: may not see their grandchildren; may need to help out more in the family home, e.g. helping with childcare.

Perspectives on divorce
1 Divorce performs a function. There is a focus on the positive functions of the family. Many people have jobs as a result of divorce. Divorce reflects the higher values of marriage.

2 There is competition for resources and power within the marriage. The economy has demanded female labour outside the home, resulting in a ‘double shift’ for women (where women work outside the home as well as having responsibility for the jobs within the house). Also, women have become more financially independent so their dependence on marriage has decreased.

3 There is inequality between men and women. Marriage favours men more than women. Marriage is a patriarchal institution.

Roles and relationships
1 Men.

2 Segregated conjugal roles and joint conjugal roles.

3 Working women who continue to perform the bulk of domestic labour are said to work a ‘double shift’, of paid employment followed by an unequal share of household work.

4 The three types of work that create a burden for women: paid work, domestic work and emotional work.

5 Women are working. Men are doing more housework.

6 Women still do more domestic work – the dual burden/triple shift. Women are more likely to work part-time. Women are more likely to take time off work when children are ill.

The symmetrical family
2 A family where there are similar roles for both men and women in terms of housework and decision making.

3 Improved living standards; increased geographical mobility; fewer children; commercialisation of housework; improved status of women.

4 What the top of the stratification system does, the bottom will eventually do, too. Lifestyles, patterns of consumption, attitudes and expectations of the higher classes will filter down to those in lower social classes.

Changing roles and relationships
1 Stephen Edgell.
2 Jan Pahl.
3 Violence may not be reported by the victim. The victim may be too embarrassed to report the violence. Men may not report domestic violence. The police may not take it seriously. The victim may not want to disrupt children’s lives. The victim may be financially dependent on the abuser.

Roles and relationships within families
1 Boys and girls are raised in a gender-stereotypical way.
2 The instrumental role: men go out to work and earn money. The expressive role: carrying out the caring role, housework and bringing up the children.
3 Socialisation of children; the nuclear family as a unit of consumption; the family supports capitalism by generating profits for the capitalist system; the family allows individuals to express their frustrations with capitalism in a non-threatening way; the family offers a haven from the harsh realities of living in a capitalist society.

4 Criticism of the functionalist views on conjugal roles: functionalists ignore conflict in the family; the views are out of date; there are no biological reasons for the functionalist view of separation into male and female roles.

Criticism of Marxist views of conjugal roles: they ignore family diversity; they focus on social class and ignore inequalities between men and women; they ignore the benefits of the nuclear family.

Conjugal roles: feminists
1 Women.
2 Ann Oakley.
3 Men do more housework but the extent is rather limited. Women make the largest contribution to family life. Family has a central role in maintaining patriarchy. Women support their husbands.
4 It puts too much emphasis on the negative side of family life. It ignores the ideas of the symmetrical family.

Chapter 4

Roles and functions of education: functionalists
1 Creating social cohesion. Learning specialist skills for work. Teaching core values (secondary socialisation). Role allocation and meritocracy.

2 Particularistic standards are subjective judgements based on individual characteristics – people are seen and judged as individuals. Universal standards mean that objective judgements are applied equally to all members of society, regardless of who they are or their abilities.

3 There may not be a single set of values to transmit. Society consists of different people with different interests, each group having its own set of values.

4 The socialisation of children to become productive and well-integrated members of society.

5 Meritocracy; pluralistic standards; particularistic standards; equal opportunities for everyone to succeed.

Roles and functions of education: Marxists
1 Serving the interests of the ruling class. Reproducing the class system. Developing competitiveness. Secondary socialisation.

2 The correspondence principle: the idea that the education system is designed primarily to serve the needs of the capitalist economic system, e.g. by producing an obedient workforce, and mirrors/ corresponds to the workplace.

The hidden curriculum: this is taught in school but not through curriculum subjects, e.g. punctuality, obedience.

3 Bowles and Gintis.

4 It focuses on social class and does not consider other factors. It focuses on negative aspects of education. It assumes pupils can’t make decisions for themselves.

Roles and functions of education: feminists
1 Gendered subject choice: occurs when girls choose subjects that are considered ‘female’ subjects and boys choose subjects considered to be ‘male’ subjects.

Gender socialisation: how girls and boys are raised in the home by parents during the early years of life.
2 There are inequalities in the education system between boys and girls. There are gendered subject choices among girls and boys. Education plays a role in the socialisation of girls and boys. Although girls are now outperforming boys at all levels of the education system, feminists still argue that the system reinforces the patriarchal views of society, leading to girls moving into lower-paid jobs when they leave school.

3 Feminists have been criticised for underestimating the change in girls’ positions educationally. For the first time in history, young women in their early 20s are earning more than men. Feminists focus on women’s positions in society rather than considering the issue of gender more broadly.

School diversity
1 Many different types of schools that exist in Britain.
2 Nursery school to primary school to secondary school to sixth-form college/school sixth form.
3 Academies, special schools, free schools, faith schools, grammar schools, independent schools.

Alternative education
1 The idea that schools should be abolished and replaced with some kind of informal education system.
2 Parents take full responsibility for the education of their children rather than allowing them to attend school. Children are educated in their own home.
3 Philosophical or religious reasons. Parents may have been home educated themselves. A child may have special needs. A child may be unhappy at school. Parents may be critical of school teaching methods. A child cannot get a place in a school of their choice.
4 The right to play; an informal atmosphere; the use of first names; students don’t have to attend classes; learning is not confined to the classroom; a focus on creativity – students create their own activities; students are encouraged to think for themselves.

State or private education?
1 Smaller class size; no need to teach the National Curriculum; better facilities; academic culture; choice; better level of achievement; better chance of getting into top universities; better job prospects.
2 Inequalities; socially divisive; lack of investment in state education.
3 Private schools are socially divisive as they split society into two: those who go to a private school will often end up in top positions in later life, in comparison with those who go to state schools.

How is educational success measured?
1 - SATs – National Curriculum tests in primary schools.
   - GCSEs – taken by pupils at the end of Key Stage 4.
   - A levels – taken by pupils at the end of Key Stage 5.
   - Degree – taken at university/college.
2 Can put pupils in the right classes. Pupils can get the help they need. Gives an assessment of the child’s level of education.
3 Puts children under pressure. Pupils might not perform as well in test conditions. They might have a bad day.

Educational achievements: factors beyond school
1 External factors can influence educational achievements. These include: socialisation; material deprivation; parents’ attitude; language; job market; education policies.
2 Socialisation; material deprivation; parents’ attitudes; language; job market; education policies.
3 Socialisation; material deprivation; parents’ attitudes; language; job market.
   Answers must be linked to the social group identified.

Educational achievements: factors within school
1 Educational achievements are also influenced by factors within school. These include: school ethos, hidden curriculum, streaming and setting, labelling and the self-fulfilling prophecy, subcultures.
2 Beachside Comprehensive School, on the south coast of England.
3 A teacher’s reaction to an individual pupil based on their ability can affect the child’s educational achievement.

Educational achievements: social class
1 They found that individuals from the service class in comparison with those from the working class:
   - had four times as great a chance of being at school at 16
   - had ten times the chance at 18
   - were 11 times more likely to attend university.
2 They found that middle-class parents:
   - had the knowledge and contacts to find the best schools
   - had the money to send their children to better schools
   - could move into a good school’s catchment area.
Socialisation; hidden curriculum; school ethos; labelling; subcultures; setting and streaming; teacher/pupil interaction.

Material deprivation; parents’ attitudes; language; socialisation; job market; education policies.

Educational achievements: gender
1. Legal reforms; changing expectations; socialisation; change in the labour market.
2. Parent/pupil interaction; school ethos; labelling; subcultures.
3. Choose from: McRobbie; Sewell; Perry and Francis; Willis.
4. McRobbie (2008): changes in the job market have meant more young women now expect to gain a degree and enjoy a rewarding career. Sewell (2010): girls are generally more willing to conform to the school rules whereas boys are not. Perry and Francis (2010): girls who are entitled to free school meals continue to do less well in education than boys and girls do who do not receive free school meals. Paul Willis’s study of subcultures can be used as evidence in several different areas of the Education topic.

Educational achievements: ethnicity
1. Material deprivation; cultural deprivation; language; parental support.
2. Teacher/pupil interaction; racism within school; ethnocentric curriculum; hidden curriculum; streaming and setting; labelling.
3. Cecile Wright.
4. They had positive expectations of Asians, particularly Asian girls. Black Caribbean pupils, particularly boys, were often seen as disruptive troublemakers.

Education as a political issue
2. League tables; national curriculum; Ofsted; parental choice; greater emphasis on exams; opting out of LEA control.
3. University fees were means-tested. EMA, academies and Sure Start were introduced.
4. Pupil premium; free school meals; change in grading of GCSEs; change in structure of A levels.

Comparison of sociological perspectives on education
1. Teaching core norms and values through the formal curriculum and hidden curriculum. Shared values of a meritocratic society.
2. Education reproduces class inequalities – middle-class children do better in school because of the advantages they bring to school.
3. Processes: labelling and the self-fulfilling prophecy in schools can lead to inequalities in achievement between different groups. Educational achievement: labelling and the self-fulfilling prophecy in schools can lead to inequalities in achievement between different groups.

Chapter 5

What is social stratification?
1. The most powerful and privileged members of society.
2. The involvement of Europeans and the establishment of the trans-Atlantic slave trade.
3. Hindu religious beliefs.
4. Individuals at the lowest level of society, e.g. those involved in ‘unclean’ tasks such as the disposal of the dead.
5. The entitlement to own land and ideas of service (feudal duties).

Different perspectives on social stratification
1. They believed that such systems were universal features of human societies and match the most able people to the functionally most important positions in society.
2. The way in which the economy was organised (capitalism in the case of nineteenth-century society).
3. No, from a Marxist perspective, an individual’s life chances are impossible to separate from the social class into which they are born. Limited social mobility is simply a mechanism that capitalism uses to preserve itself.
4. Men occupy more positions of power in society and women continue to be exploited by men (patriarchy).
5. People in poverty are either excluded from the labour market or lack marketable skills.

Socio-economic class
1. The Office for National Statistics (ONS).
2. The working class.
3. Marx believed that differences in wealth and power (between the capitalist class and the working class) would become more extreme.
4. Some workers are more skilled than others and therefore enjoy a better standard of living and greater job security.
5. By their lifestyle, e.g. the house they live in.
Life chances
1 The opportunities that an individual has to share in the cultural and material rewards that society has to offer.
2 A continuing ‘health divide’ between members of the middle and working classes.
3 Women.
4 Black Caribbean students.
5 45%.

Social mobility and the affluent worker
1 Because it undermines the idea put forward in the earlier study that the workers who came to Luton were making a positive choice and actively seeking to live a more middle-class lifestyle.
2 The movement of an individual or a group between different points on the socio-economic scale.
3 No, social mobility can be upward or downward.
4 Yes, economic expansion hugely increased opportunities.
5 Members of the working class becoming in effect property-owning members of the middle class.

Poverty
1 Yes, the report highlights how children from a disadvantaged background are likely to do less well at school and more likely not to be in education, employment or training after their 16th birthday.
2 Absolute poverty refers to individuals or groups who cannot meet even their basic needs. Relative poverty refers to individuals or groups whose standard of living falls below that which is enjoyed by the majority.
3 The poor become stuck in poverty because they would lose benefits if they got a job or earned more (if they are already employed).
4 When an individual’s income fell below a level necessary to provide them with the basic necessities of life.
5 Because they become chronically sick, disabled or elderly.

Underclass
1 Those at the very bottom of the socio-economic scale, e.g. ‘misfits, vagrants and thieves’.
2 Those members of society who are excluded for different reasons from relative social prosperity.
3 (1) Individuals respond to incentives and disincentives, (2) people are not inherently hard working and moral, (3) people must be held responsible for their actions.
4 People no longer needed to work hard in school, get a job and marry if they wanted to have a baby, or obey the law if they wanted to avoid prison.
5 New Right.

Welfare state
1 Want, disease, ignorance, squalor, idleness.
2 Slum clearance and house building, a national health service, a reformed education system, policies designed to create full employment and support those who could not find work.
3 As a positive benefit to society.
4 The government of the day questioned the increasing cost and underlying principles of the welfare state.
5 Reducing costs and restricting access.

Power
1 A form of authority based on the ‘exceptional’ personal qualities of the individual involved.
2 That it was based on bureaucratic lines, with rules and regulations designed to make sure that the best individuals were in power and did not abuse their position.
3 The candidate with the most votes in a particular constituency is elected to Parliament.
4 Who makes the decisions, who controls the agenda, who has the ability to manipulate the wishes of others.
5 Political power should not be seen as fixed or constant but variable depending on circumstances.

Power relationships
1 How one group is able to control or influence the behaviour of another.
2 That it was not ruled by a single capitalist class but by a number of elite groups which shared a common interest in maintaining the social order.
3 No, women face obstacles such as balancing family life with antisocial hours.
4 Interest (or pressure) groups seek to influence those in power in order to further the best interests of their members or in pursuit of campaigning objectives.
5 The household, paid work, the state, male violence, sexuality, cultural institutions.

Chapter 6

What is crime and deviance?
1 An illegal act; an act that is punishable by the law.
2 Behaviour that does not conform to the dominant norms of a specific society.
3 Murder, rape, stealing; any other appropriate example.
4 Picking your nose in public; wearing shorts when it is snowing; not wearing a tie for school; any other appropriate example.
5 Behaviour is considered to be criminal only if the members of a particular society define the behaviour as a crime. What is considered to be a crime can change:
   - over time
   - between places
   - between social situations
   - between cultures.

How is crime measured?
1 It increased.
2 Official statistics are crime statistics collected by the police – an important source of quantitative data. Statistics show patterns and trends over time. However, crimes are not always detected, reported or recorded.
3 People are asked what crimes have been committed against them over a given period of time. They may reveal a crime that was not previously reported, but people may not know they have been a victim of crime.
4 People reveal crimes they have committed. People are free to reveal crimes as these studies are anonymous, but their response might not be accurate as they could lie.

Data on crime
1 It might not be identified as a crime.
2 The crime is too private; victim may fear the consequences; victim may not trust the police; crime is thought to be too petty; may be too sensitive/embarrassing.
3 Crime is seen as too trivial; not actually a crime; victim may decide not to proceed with the complaint; not enough evidence.
4 The large amount of criminal activity that never appears in the crime statistics because it hasn’t been detected, reported or recorded.
5 They accept statistics as accurate and representative of most crime. Useful for establishing patterns and trends.
6 Statistics are social constructions. They reveal only the stereotypes and the institutional sexism and racism of the criminal justice system. The pattern shown in statistics provides a guide for the police of the ‘typical offender’ as they go about their work. They are more likely to favour self-report and victim surveys as they potentially involve less bias.

Factors affecting criminal behaviour: biology and psychology
1 Our biological make-up determines our behaviour – people could be biologically programmed to be criminals.
2 Genes, shape of skull are possible examples.
3 Early childhood experiences; maternal separation; maternal deprivation.
4 Maternal deprivation could cause emotional damage that leads to criminal behaviour.
5 The relationship between the infant and its mother during the first five years of life was most critical to socialisation. Bowlby found that more than half of the juvenile thieves he studied had been separated from their mothers for longer than six months during their first five years.

Factors affecting criminal behaviour: sociological explanations
1 An act becomes deviant or criminal only if it is perceived and defined as deviant or criminal. A person becomes a criminal only if they are given the label of criminal.
2 The breakdown of norms governing accepted behaviour. Occurs when rules of how individuals interact with one another disintegrate and people are unable to determine how to act. Known as normlessness.
3 A sense of frustration arising in individuals or groups because they are denied status in society.
4 Conformity, Innovation, Ritualism, Retreatism, Rebellion.

Perspectives on crime: functionalists
1 Consensus means general agreement; structuralist means society has a structure of rules that guides behaviour.
2 Durkheim.
3 Re-affirming the boundaries of society, changing values, social cohesion, safety valve.
4 Crime is not always functional, as too much crime has negative consequences. In periods of great social change or stress, people start to look after their selfish interests and crime rates increase. Individuals have free will, which is ignored.

Perspectives on crime: Marxists and others
1 The basis of laws; law creation; law enforcement; individual motivation.
2 Marxists over-emphasise class inequality in relation to crime and ignore other inequalities such as ethnicity and gender. Not all individuals are forced into crime by circumstances beyond their control.
3 Labelling theory. Looks at what is defined as crime and deviance and how people react to it rather than looking at the causes of the initial act. Explains why some people and some acts are defined as crimes and others aren’t.
4 Removes blame for deviance away from the deviant. Assumes the act isn’t deviant until it is labelled. Doesn’t explain how some people choose deviant and criminal behaviour.
5 Feminists view society as patriarchal. The feminist perspective has led to a new focus on female offending.
6 Focuses on gender and ignores other factors. Doesn’t explain how some people choose deviant and criminal behaviour.

Who commits crime: social class
1 Socialisation, material deprivation, lack of education, labelling.
2 Not being able to afford common goods or activities.
3 Crime committed by middle-class individuals in the course of their work.
4 Edwin Sutherland.
5 Occupational, professional, corporate, computer crime.

Who commits crime: gender
1 Inaccurate statistics, different socialisation, opportunities to commit crime, social control, chivalry thesis, poverty.
2 During teenage years, girls are more likely to spend time with their friends in their bedrooms rather than going out – so there is less opportunity to commit crime.
3 There is a common belief that the male-dominated police and courts are easier on women. Women offenders are seen as ‘less guilty’ as they are more vulnerable and in need of protection, and they are therefore treated more leniently than men.

Who commits crime: ethnicity
1 According to the Ministry of Justice in 2014, compared with white people, black people were:
   - more than twice as likely to be cautioned by the police
   - around three times more likely to be arrested
   - more likely, if arrested, to be charged, remanded in custody and face court proceedings than to receive a caution
   - more likely, if found guilty, to receive a prison sentence
   - five times more likely to be in prison.
2 Inaccurate statistics; labelling; institutional racism; media reinforcing views; socialisation; material deprivation; education.
3 Minority ethnic groups are often targeted more by the police and are more likely to appear in crime statistics.

Who commits crime: age
1 Status frustration; social class; edgework; socialisation; police stereotyping.
2 Cohen (1955) argues that young people in particular are frustrated at their lack of independent status in society and are caught in the transition between child and adult status.
3 Young men and an increasing number of young women look for excitement and thrills in today’s society.
4 Stephen Lyng.

Social control
1 The approval and disapproval of people around us. Unwritten rules.
2 People/organisations that ensure that we follow the rules of society.
3 Family, friends and peer group.
4 The government, schools, religion, police, courts, the Home Office.
5 – Women are more likely to conform and commit fewer crimes than males.
   – Housework and childcare control and restrict women’s time and movement. Women have fewer opportunities to offend if they are confined to the house for long periods.
   – Men as the main or sole breadwinners also have financial control over their wives.
   – Daughters are more closely controlled than sons.
6 The ruling class impose their values upon the rest of the population – the laws created are enforced by agencies of social control. Different groups are treated differently by the criminal justice system.
7 An act becomes deviant or criminal only when it is labelled by agencies of social control. Once the person and the act have been labelled, they become the focus of attention and are more likely to be targeted by agencies of social control.

Debates on crime: young offenders
1 Fine; referral order; youth rehabilitation; custodial sentences; ASBOs.
2 Ten years old.
3 CPNs can be issued by a court for persistent anti-social behaviour reported by the police, a council or a landlord; CBOs are issued if the offender has been convicted of a crime. Both types of court order are intended to make offenders alter their behaviour and avoid more severe punishments e.g. a prison sentence. Under 18s can only be given a time-limited CPN/CBO (12 months for a
Debates on crime: the prison system and violent crime

1. Prison is essential to keep people safe from violent offenders. Criminals are off the streets while they are in prison and are not a danger to the public.
2. Criminals are not rehabilitated in prison. Prisons are ineffective – they are too easy and don’t make prisoners face up to their responsibilities.
3. They are a danger to society. They should not be allowed to have freedom to do what they want because of their crime.
4. There are huge costs involved. They need education/rehabilitation rather than punishment.
5. They provide continuity so that prisoners can continue to work or attend college.
6. There is no deterrent to offenders.

Debates on crime: crime and the media

1. Media coverage of crime and deviance is filtered through what editors and journalists see as ‘newsworthy’. A newsworthy story, that people want to know about, has news value.
2. Children, violence or celebrities are involved; the event has occurred locally and is easy to understand; there are graphic images.
3. A minor criminal or deviant act occurred which is exaggerated by the media and becomes a greater issue than it was originally.
4. Where people copy what they see in the media.
5. Many studies have shown the link between the media and crime, including increased aggressive behaviour in everyday life.
6. Everyone is exposed to the media on a daily basis and not everyone commits crime.