



<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Defining sociology</u></p> <p>Sociology is the study of society; it explores the social factors that shape human behaviour, the ways in which society influences people’s lives and the ways in which people shape society. Sociologists examine society’s <b>social structures</b> and explore the connections between these parts – for example the relationship between students’ family background and their GCSE achievements. Sociology asks questions about <b>social processes</b> such as socialisation, labelling and social control. They also look at the <b>social issues</b> that face our society.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Making sense of the social world</u></p> <p>Sociology is different to ‘common sense’- Sociologists use a body of specialist key terms and concepts. There are also several sociological perspectives that examine the relationship between individuals and society. They also use a variety of research methods to test out their ideas and gather evidence- this makes their information more reliable than other sources.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Socialisation</u></p> <p>The term socialisation refers to the process by which people learn the culture, values and norms of the society they live in. There are two types of socialisation – primary and secondary. This process continues throughout a person’s life.</p> <table border="1" data-bbox="1164 247 2168 683"> <thead> <tr> <th>Type</th> <th>Definition</th> <th>Agencies (groups, institutions )</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Primary socialisation</td> <td>Early childhood learning, during which babies and infants learn the basic behaviour patterns, language skills they need for later life</td> <td>Usually families and relatives – through interactions in the family children get learn the key skills</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Secondary socialisation</td> <td>Begins later on in childhood and continues throughout adulthood. Through this process, people learn society’s norms and values.</td> <td>Agencies Include peer groups, schools, religion, workplaces and the mass media.</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Type	Definition	Agencies (groups, institutions )	Primary socialisation	Early childhood learning, during which babies and infants learn the basic behaviour patterns, language skills they need for later life	Usually families and relatives – through interactions in the family children get learn the key skills	Secondary socialisation	Begins later on in childhood and continues throughout adulthood. Through this process, people learn society’s norms and values.	Agencies Include peer groups, schools, religion, workplaces and the mass media.
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Comparing sociology with other subjects

<p style="text-align: center;"><u>The sociological approach</u></p> <p>Involves collecting information about society and the way groups behave.</p> <p>Involves looking at current events and trends. Uses a range of research techniques.</p> <p>Avoids deliberate bias and prevents the information in a balanced and fair way. Information is gathered through systematic planned methods. Sociological information goes out to select audiences.</p> <p>Sociological research can be carried out over a long period of time</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>Psychological/ Biological approach</u></p> <p>Psychology is about studying people. It focuses on individuals rather than groups, why they behave in the way they do and how their minds work.</p> <p>Uses a range of research techniques. Tries to avoid bias and personal experience and instead focuses on evidence.</p> <p>Psychological information goes out to select audiences.</p> <p>Information is gathered through systematic planned methods.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><u>The Journalistic approach:</u></p> <p>Is about gathering of news and information about the state of society. Looks at current events, trends and issues.</p> <p>Often focuses on the experiences of individuals and gives personal accounts. Information reported back to inform large numbers of people. It is there for the masses.</p> <p>Good journalism is about trying to avoid bias and present information in a fair way.</p> <p>Journalism however reaches conclusions that facts don’t justify and can often be biased. Journalists don’t always use systematic methods of collecting information. Journalists work within very tight time constraints.</p>
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Key term	Definition	Example
<b>Norms—</b>	Informal rules that influence social behaviour, e.g. what is normal.	Wearing black to a funeral
<b>Culture</b>	Everything made, learned, and shared by the members of a society.	In Britain we use a knife and fork
<b>Objective</b>	Judgements that are not influenced by personal prejudices e.g. unbiased.	Science is seen as objective
<b>Role</b>	patterns of behaviour expected by individuals in different situation,	Teacher, Student
<b>Society</b>	A collection of people with territory, interaction, and a culture	British society
<b>Social construct</b>	An idea that has been created and accepted by the people in a society	Gender, class, age
<b>Social structures</b>	The different parts that make up society	Family, Education, Mass Media
<b>Values</b>	important beliefs held by individuals & social groups	Honesty, respect
<b>Social processes</b>	How norms and values are transmitted to members of a society	Socialisation, social control,
<b>Social issues</b>	An issue that is of concern to us in society- it affects the daily lives of people	Violent crime, Poverty, quality of education

Social Structures:	Social Processes:	Social Issues:
Family Education Legal System Stratification Political System	Socialisation Learning Labelling Discrimination Exercising Power	The Quality of Parenting Education Reform Teenage Crime Class, Age, Gender & Ethnic Inequalities Participation in election

## Functionalism and Durkheim

Functionalism is one of the first sociological theories (ways of seeing society). Functionalism tries to give one big explanation for how the whole of society works. It is classed as a consensus theory because functionalists see society as based on a set of shared values that everyone agrees on. The way society functions is positive for people. Functionalism is also known as a **consensus theory**

All functionalists agree on a set of key principles:

- All societies have certain basic needs or **functional prerequisites** that they need to keep functioning and survive. These could include producing enough food or housing for the population.
- When people in society agree on the important values in society there is a value consensus. This keeps everyone and every institution in society functioning together so society doesn't break down.

### Emile Durkheim: (1858-1917)

Born in France and is regarded as one of the founders of sociology - believed that sociology needed to be more scientific. Durkheim thought society could be understood scientifically, and that human behaviour is made up by a set of 'laws' or certain rules that people follow. These laws are based on the values of society e.g. using manners. When everyone plays their part and follows the rules it keeps society functioning together. We all play our part by having roles in institutions in society. For example in the education system there are roles such as the head teacher, teachers, heads of year, catering staff and caretakers. All these people work together to make the education system function.

There are others such as the family, political system, the law system etc. All these institutions in society work together like a well-oiled machine. Durkheim explained this as the organic analogy, for example each institution in society is like each part of the human body is, for example the

Within every society there S.P.I

**S**ocial **S**tructures:

The institutions that make up society such as the family, education

**P**rocesses:

Processes in society that involve interaction between people, groups and institutions.

An example is socialisation

**I**ssues:

Issues that affect communities, groups and people's lives.  
Often social issues are also considered to be social problems

· Functionalists believe society needs order and stability if it is to survive and prosper. The way the **social order** works (way society is constructed) depends upon **socialisation** and **social control**.

heart might be the family system, the lungs the education system. If one organ fails, the whole body dies. In the same way functionalists believe if one institution fails the whole of society will fail

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
<b>Anomie:</b>	The breakdown of norms and social bonds in society; a 'normlessness' state.
<b>Consensus theory</b>	The idea that social behaviour is built upon agreed norms and values
<b>Crime:</b>	Any form of behaviour that breaks the law.
<b>Deviance</b>	Any form of behaviour that does not conform to the norms in society, can also be criminal actions.
<b>Division of labour</b>	The separation of any form of work into various parts, industry bosses use cheap workers.
<b>Functionalism</b>	A perspective that sees society as a complex system of parts that work together
<b>Social solidarity</b>	Everyone feeling connected
<b>Functional prerequisites</b>	The basic needs of society
<b>Institutions</b>	Important systems in society. These tend to be based on social norms, for example family, Education, the legal system
<b>Social order</b>	How society is constructed and functions
<b>Value consensus</b>	Beliefs that are commonly shared by those in society

**Evaluation**

Functionalism overlooks the dysfunctional (or negative) aspects of things such as crime and religion. In reality, crime and religion do not always perform positive functions for society. Marxist sociologists point out that

Functionalists fail to see that social class is a source of inequality. Feminists also highlight that functionalism fails to see that gender is a source of oppression.

Several critics also point to the fact that functionalism is an outdated theory.

## Marxism and Marx

Marxism is known as a **conflict theory**- This is because they see society as being in a state inequality due to the **exploitation** of the working classes by the **bourgeoisie** (the minority capitalist or ruling class). The **bourgeoisie** own the means of production and private property.

The **proletariat** – (the majority working class) work for the **bourgeoisie** and own nothing other than their ability to work as wage labourers. Other classes include the **petty bourgeoisie** and **lumpenproletariat**. The **bourgeoisie** exploit the proletariat by profiting from their labour- this gap would widen over time. The petty bourgeoisie would be unable to compete with bigger companies which would then force them to sink into the proletariat.

### Marx (1818-1883)

Karl Marx studied economics and philosophy in Germany before moving to France. He spent a lot of his time studying the changes that had happened since the Industrial Revolution. He argues that everyone should live in a fair and equal society with wealth is based on what people need. This is called a **communist state**. It means that the Communist Party is in government and works on behalf of the **working-class** people.

In this society big companies no longer own the means of production, but instead the government is in control of production.

This communist state would only come about with a revolution by the working-class people, and this is why people in positions of power thought his ideas were dangerous

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>	<u>Evaluation</u>
<b>Bourgeoisie:</b>	the middle class who have an interest in preserving capitalism	<p>Marx saw social class as based on economics divisions. However, critics such as Weber argue that class is also based on status differences between groups.</p> <p>Marx overlooked other social divisions such as gender and ethnicity</p> <p>Critics argue that a revolution has not happened in capitalist societies such as Britain and that Marx's ideas are now outdated</p>
<b>Capitalism</b>	A system of economic organisation in which businesses are owned by private individuals who profit from the labour of the workers they employ	
<b>Conflict theory</b>	A perspective that sees society based on inequality – for example Marxism	
<b>Communism</b>	Marx believed that a future ideal communist society would be one in which the community would own all property and there would be no social classes	
<b>Communist Manifesto</b>	Political pamphlet outlining the principles of communism	
<b>Economics</b>	The study of the production and consumption of goods and services	
<b>False consciousness</b>	The mistaken belief that capitalist society is basically fair and opportunities are open to all	
<b>Forces of production</b>	The materials, technology and knowledge required to produce the things we need in society	
<b>Infrastructure</b>	The forces of production and social relationships that form the basic foundation of society	
<b>Left wing</b>	Political beliefs that emphasis social equality, e.g. socialism	
<b>Liberalism</b>	Political belief in systems of government in which the rights and freedoms of the individual are protected by laws and a constitution	
<b>Lumpenproletariat</b>	Those who Marx referred to as 'the dropouts' who sometimes sell their services to the bourgeoisie	
<b>Petty bourgeoisie</b>	Those who Marx argues own small businesses	
<b>Proletariat</b>	Terms used by Marx to describe the working class in the nineteenth century	
<b>Ruling class ideology</b>	The ideas and beliefs of the ruling class	
<b>Wealth</b>	Material resources owned by individuals, e.g. property, savings and businesses	
<b>Working class</b>	Members of society who are engaged in some form of manual work	

**Feminism**

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
<b>Conflict theory</b>	A perspective that sees society based on inequality – for example Feminism
<b>Discrimination</b>	Unfair treatment based on a person's characteristics such as gender
<b>Feminism</b>	The perspective that examines the ways gender operates within social structures such as the family
<b>Feminist</b>	A sociologist who explores how gender operates in society and wants gender equality

Feminism is known as a conflict theory- This is because they see society as being in a state inequality due to the exploitation of the women by men. Feminist approaches that society is patriarchal – it is based on male power over women

Society is understood in terms of patriarchy. Men and women are not equal in society; society is designed to protect male power. Society oppresses women more than it oppresses men. Despite laws that should guarantee women equal pay and protection against sex discrimination in employment, men still tend to earn more money and hold higher status positions. Equal pay and sex discrimination laws were not introduced until the 1970's.

### Radical Feminists

These types of feminists argue that women have always and will always be second-class citizens. They blame all men for all of women's problems and say that this patriarchal society would be better without men. Some radicals support 'separatism', where women should live separate to men, even proposing lesbianism for all women.

### Liberal Feminists

Liberal feminists don't think that all men are to blame and they emphasise the importance of social and cultural differences. For example, some societies that allow polygamy (having more than one spouse) tend to exploit the labour of women more. Liberal feminists argue that within British culture the laws and social reforms are gradually making things more equal for women. In the past the idea that husbands should put their career on hold in order to provide childcare would have seemed ridiculous but it is now an increasingly an option.

<b>Gender</b>	The characteristics that are seen as either 'masculine' or 'feminine'
<b>Patriarchy</b>	Male power, authority and dominance over women
<b>Sex</b>	The biological characteristics that make a person biologically 'man' and 'woman'
<b>Sexism</b>	Discrimination based on sex (or gender)
<b>Equal pay and sex discrimination laws</b>	laws introduced in Britain in the 1970's to stop gender-based discrimination (now incorporate into the Equality Act 2010)
<b>Life history research</b>	type of qualitative research that uses life experiences to provide insights into the workings of society

## Feminist approach to society

## Feminism



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For feminists society is best understood in terms of **patriarchy**- this is because Men and women are not equal in society. Society is set up to protect men and oppress women. Society oppresses women more than it oppresses men. Sexism and gender stereotypes are the root of the problem for feminists.

Feminists see sex and gender as different to each other. The term ‘sex’ is used to refer to the biological characteristics of males and females. The term gender is used to refer to the different cultural expectations and rules about what is seen as ‘feminine’ or ‘masculine.’

## Different types of feminists:

Not all feminists are the same. There are different types of feminism out there. This is because not all women go through the same experiences as each other’s.

Radical	Radical feminists stress the main enemy of women to be men! Radical Feminists see the exploitation of women as being a result of having men dominate society – we should get rid of men to solve the problem!
Liberal	Liberal Feminists believe that laws such as the Sex Discrimination act are making life better for women. Equality still doesn’t exist but it is getting better.
Marxist	Marxist Feminists say women suffer oppression because of gender and capitalism. Women work free in the house doing all the cooking and cleaning while the man goes out to work!

Other types of feminism also exist – such as Black Feminism that explores the experiences of black women. These feminists look at how black women are oppressed due to their gender but also because they are black which means they are also likely to suffer from racism in wider society.

## Key terms

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<b>Gender</b>	The characteristics that are seen as either ‘masculine’ or ‘feminine’
<b>Oppression</b>	When a person or group is treated unfairly
<b>Patriarchy</b>	Male power, authority and dominance over women
<b>Sex</b>	The biological characteristics that make a person biologically ‘man’ and ‘woman’
<b>Sexism</b>	Discrimination based on sex (or gender)
<b>Social construction</b>	The idea that society creates (‘constructs’) ideas about what is seen as normal – for example ideas around what a girl or boy should do

## Max Weber

### Weber

Weber (1864-1920) born in Germany and concerned about changes in society. In 1904 he published '*The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*,' one of his most famous studies. Weber was concerned about the changes since the Industrial revolution. In 1904 he published the Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, before founding the German Sociological Association.

He believed that an objective approach was possible when studying society. Weber. He thought people's ideas and values were more important. He looked at history and thought that things such as religion, in particular the Christian Protestant religion, had brought about capitalism (a way the economy works)

The Protestants believed God wanted them to work hard, live morally and not drink alcohol, and not spend their money on things they don't need. Weber called this the **Protestant work ethic** and he believed it explains how capitalism developed in Western countries such as Europe and America.

Weber also believed in three types of authority:

1. Charismatic authority e.g. church leaders
2. Traditional authority e.g. aristocrats owned the land
3. Bureaucratic (or legal) authority e.g. legal framework or the administration behind how the state is run

Weber described societies based on scientific knowledge, technology and bureaucratic (legal) systems as **rationalisation**. In other words instead of basing modern society on superstitious beliefs and God, society should instead be based on knowledge and organised in the most efficient way possible.

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
<b>Authority</b>	A form of power in which people willingly obey commands that they believe to be lawful
<b>Establishment</b>	In sociology, the term is generally used to describe dominant elites (superior groups) who hold power and authority
<b>Immigration</b>	The movement of the population from one part of the world to another e.g. People who leave their country to live in another country
<b>Nationalism</b>	A strong belief in the importance of a particular nation state
<b>Objective approach</b>	Sociologists who attempt to study the social world without allowing their personal thoughts to influence the outcome of their research. Being unbiased.
<b>Protestant work ethic</b>	A set of principles someone has about working hard.
<b>Rationalisation</b>	When society is based on rational (or logical) laws, knowledge and science.

Weber (1864-1920) was born in Germany and was concerned about changes in society, like other sociologists. He was an excellent student, then became a lawyer, and eventually a Professor of Economics, before focusing on sociology.

In 1904 he published *'The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism,'* one of his most famous studies. In *'The Protestant Work Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism,'* Weber links the rise of capitalism with the work ethic developed through protestant Christianity.

In societies where Protestantism was the main religion, hard work was seen as morally good, and laziness as sinful. Weber argues this is why capitalism developed in Western Europe and America. He co-founded the German Sociological Association and encouraged an **objective approach** in sociology. He fought in the First World War, and afterwards helped to found a new liberal political party. Weber believed Sociologists needed to understand and empathise with members of society. He called this *'verstehen'*

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nationalism	A strong belief in the importance of a particular nation state
Objective approach	Those who attempt to study the social world without allowing their personal values to influence the outcome of their research
Protestant ethic	The moral and spiritual virtue of individual effort and hard work
Rationalisation	A society based on rational authority, technical and scientific knowledge

### Social class

Marx and Weber were both interested in issues such as the development of capitalism and social class. Marx saw social as the key division in society and defined

Like Marx, Weber saw class as based on the distribution of economic resources such as wealth. However, Weber also stressed the importance of non-economic factors such as status (prestige) and power (political influence) in determining life chances and in shaping patterns of stratification.

Weber argued that a class is a group of people who have similar access to life chances; that is, chances of being successful (or otherwise) in life and opportunities in education, health and so on. Weber identified four main social classes:

1. Property owners
2. Professionals
3. The petty bourgeoisie (for example, shopkeepers)
4. The working class.

### Power

Weber also developed ideas about authority which are still important in sociology. He argued there are three types of authority:

<b>Type</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Example</b>
Charismatic authority	A person who has certain traits that make them extraordinary. This type of leader is not only capable of but actually possesses the superior power of charisma to rally people	Jesus Christ Adolf Hitler Ghandi
Traditional authority	This leader is someone who depends on established traditions or order	The Queen Monarchy
Rational (legal) authority	Power is due to defined laws. The obedience of people is not based on the capacity of any leader but on the legitimacy and laws	The police The courts

## The New Right perspective

Although Charles Murray could be said to have started New Right ideas, it is mostly associated with Margaret Thatcher in Britain and Ronald Regan in America, who were the political leaders in the 1980's.

However, now the same types of views are called **neo-liberal & neo-conservative** approaches to society:

- There is more of an emphasis on the individual or looking after your own family, rather than of thinking about the group or society as a whole
- A strong support for free enterprise, which is an economic system in which private business operates in competition and largely is free of state control
- Importance of competition and choice as a way of driving up standards in public services such as health care and education
- Support for a separate cultural **identity** based on the nation state (British)
- Reduced state provision of welfare benefits (stopping benefits)

New Right sociologists discuss culture of dependency, the culture of poverty, the underclass, the Marketisation of education, traditional moral standards (for example, against same-sex marriage), welfare reform and the importance of the family and traditional gender roles.

The culture of poverty: Oscar Lewis believed that the culture of poverty passed from one culture to the next. In his research he found that the poor felt helpless to change the direction of their lives and instead focused only on the present. Their marriages were unstable with high levels of child abandonment and divorce. The poor were less likely to participate in the wider community.

The underclass: Charles Murray's ideas have changed government welfare policies, he said the underclass weren't just poor but behaved badly, are unwilling to take jobs and are more likely to commit crimes. Many underclass were having children out of marriage, particularly teenage mothers and these children were more likely to be involved in anti-social behaviour. Furthermore he sees these underclass as people who see welfare benefits as an entitlement and an alternative to employment.

A return traditional values of marriage would discourage the underclass and lone parenting.

<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
<b>Culture of dependency</b>	The idea that social welfare systems encourage people to stay on benefits rather than support themselves through work
<b>Culture of poverty</b>	An acceptance repeated across generations that if you are poor you will always be poor
<b>Identity</b>	Sense of self (who you believe yourself to be)
<b>Market capitalism</b>	An economic (money) system that supports private business (a person owns it, rather than the state) in a competitive market
<b>Marketisation of education</b>	Systems designed to encourage competition between schools in an attempt to raise standards
<b>Neo-liberalism and neo-conservatism</b>	Right-wing political perspectives that support market capitalism
<b>Underclass</b>	A group of people at the very bottom of the social scale who are dependent on welfare benefits

## The New Right perspective

### New Right Ideas about society:

New Right ideas are often associated with the governments of Margaret Thatcher in Britain. The term can also be used to describe **neo-liberal** and **neo-conservative** approaches. There are a number of key ideas you need to know for this perspective:

1. An emphasis on the individual rather than the group
2. A strong support for free enterprise and markets
3. Emphasis on competition and choice
4. Reduced state intervention

The New Right are also associated with traditional ideas surrounding the family and how children should be raised- They argue that the traditional nuclear family where parents are married is the best. They are not supportive of family diversity; they argue single parents are to blame to several of society's problems including rising unemployment and crime rates.

### Charles Murray and The underclass:

Murray developed the idea of the **underclass** – this refers to the idea that there are a group of people who are below the working class. Murray argued that members of the underclass include:

1. The poor
2. People who behave badly and break societies rules
3. People unwilling to take jobs that are available for them
4. Criminals

Murray argues that cohabiting couples relationships are not as strong as married couples. Children from non-married households are more likely to become involved in crime and anti-social behaviour rather than become productive members of society.

Murray points out that in the 1980s and 1990s there was growing number of lone parent families with an increase in crime rates. Murray also argues that many people now see benefits as normal and think that they entitled to them rather than seeking employment – this has made people lazy and dependent on the welfare system as even when jobs are available some people still choose to remain on benefits.



<u>Key term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Culture of dependency	The idea that social welfare systems encourage people to stay on benefits rather than getting a job to support themselves
Culture of poverty	An acceptance repeated across generations that if you are poor you will always be poor and that there's nothing you can do to change it
Identity	A sense of self (who you believe yourself to be)

### Criticisms

Feminists point out that New Right views are sexist and reflect stereotypical gender ideas about the family

It assumes that all people who claim benefits are 'scroungers' and lazy – research shows that many people who claim benefits are also looking for work.

## Research methods knowledge organiser

### The research process

Stage	Description of stage
Aim	- An aim is something that the researcher wants to investigate or find out. It can be a general or specific idea, but this is the purpose of the research.
Hypothesis	This is an idea which a researcher guesses might be true, but has not yet been tested against the evidence.
Review Existing Literature	Before you carry out research you need to look at what has been researched in the area before.
Plan a Research Method	Once you have established what you are trying to find out, you choose which research method you will use.
Sampling	A sample is made up of your research participant (people you are studying). It is a smaller representative group drawn from the population you want to study.
Pilot Study	This is a small-scale practice of your research. This is carried out before the main body of research to check for initial patterns, issues with questions, practical problems etc.
Carry out Research	Here you need to look at your initial research plan and adjust it based on the findings of your pilot study. Then you carry out your research on your sample.
Gather Results	Depending on the research method chosen, the way you gather your results will vary
Analysis	This is the part where you try to make sociological statements from your findings. Here you link what you have found with ideas in society
Evaluation	Before you publish your work it is important you evaluate what you have done. You consider the strengths of your research and the method you use. However, you also consider the weaknesses.
Publish	The researcher now decides how to publish the results. This can be in many forms: book, magazine, T.V show

### Types of data:

The type of data they want to gather influences a researcher's choice of method. Data is the information collected by sociologists when they research society and it can be divided into several types.

Type of data	Definition	Example
Primary data	This is information that researchers have gathered themselves.	questionnaires, interviews, observations
Secondary data	This is information that has been collected by somebody else & then used by the researcher.	official statistics, historical documents & diaries

When data is collected it is divided into quantitative data and qualitative data

Term	Definition	Example	AO3 – Evaluation points
Quantitative data	Numerical, often presented as numbers shown in statistics	Graphs, Bar charts Pie charts	+ Can spot patterns and trends + More reliable form of data + Quicker form of data collection -Doesn't uncover meanings
Qualitative data	In-depth material, usually descriptive and presented in a written form	Transcripts	+ can uncover meanings +More valid for of data -More time consuming

Positivism	Interpretivism
<p>The idea that the only way to obtain knowledge about the world is through scientific methods.</p> <p>Focus on behaviour that can be observed and measured rather than on people's feelings or emotions.</p> <p>They prefer quantitative research methods such as surveys</p> <p>Sociology can be a science if studied in the same way as the natural sciences</p>	<p>Sociologists who argue that the subject matter of sociology – people – is completely different from that of the natural sciences.</p> <p>People do not behave like objects or animals.</p> <p>Interpretivist sociologists prefer qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews and participant observation that collect rich, detailed accounts rather than statistics.</p> <p>Sociology cannot be a science as it is different to the natural sciences</p>

### Evaluating Sociological Research

Whenever Sociologists conduct or look at research they evaluate it. They want to look at the advantages and disadvantages of the research and data.

Evaluation point	Definition
Reliability	The research should be able to be repeated in a different time and place and similar results will be gained.
Validity	concerned with whether the research has uncovered truth about social life
Generalisability	If the research can be generalised (applied) to all people who are similar to the sample, it is considered generalisable.
Representativeness	How much does a study or a sample represent the wider population

### Practical issues

<u>Issue</u>	<u>Information</u>
Time	Different methods require different amount of time to complete and this may influence a researchers choice and they may have a deadline to meet.
Access	The ability to gain access to the group you wish to study will determine which type of method you are able to use.
Cost	Research funding can influence the research method used not just due to the requirements of the funding body but also the amount it could cost as the researcher will need to stay within budget.
Subject matter	The subject you are studying may lend itself more to one research method than another. For example it may be difficult for a male researchers to interview victims of domestic violence and questionnaires may not be appropriate for participants who have English as a second language.

### Ethical issues

When carrying out research, sociologists need to think about the ethical considerations: (Making sure that your research is not offending or harming anyone – that you are doing the right thing)

Ethical issue	Definition	Example
Confidentiality	Keeping personal details between you and the respondent	Not telling others about the personal details of your participants
Anonymity	Making sure that no names are mentioned in your finished report or in the data collection	Changing the names of your participants so they can't be identified
Informed consent	Making sure that participants know what the research is about and what will happen so they can agree	Make sure you do not lie or attempt to deceive your participants
Protection from harm	Making sure your participants do not come to any psychological/ physical damage.	Making sure you do not put your participants in harm's way
Right to withdraw	Participants should have the right to withdraw from the research at any point	People should never be made to feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or threatened.
Gatekeeper	When someone gives permission for a participant to take part in the study due or the age or vulnerability	For example asking parental permission in the case of children

## Observations: Primary data

### What is it?

When a researcher watches for a behaviour this can be a **covert observation** (where the participant doesn't know they are there) or **overt** (where the participant is aware they are being watched.) It can also be **participant observation** (where the researcher takes part in the activity the participant is doing) or **non-participant observation** (where the researcher just watches.)

### Overt and Covert:

Overt observation		
Definition	Strength	Weakness
The group you are observing know why you are there and what you are doing	This is more ethical and allows us to get informed consent	The participant may not act in a way they normally would if someone is watching
Covert observation		
The researcher is 'undercover' and the group are not aware of the fact that you are observing them	If the participant doesn't know they are being watched they won't change their behaviour and it makes the study more valid.	It is unethical to deceive participants as they have not given informed consent for this to happen (see ethics for further details)

### Participant observation

The researcher is actively involved in the group's activities as well as observing the group's behaviour. The researcher will more fully understand the reasons why a participant behaves the way they do if they take part in the activity. It may help the researcher gain the trust of the group.

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Participant observation allows the researcher to study a group in its natural everyday settings and observe its activities as they occur.</li> <li>Some groups such as religious cults, violent football supporters or users of illegal drugs may not agree to be interviewed.</li> <li>By participating in its activities, the researcher can see things from the groups perspective and develop a</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Entry and trust-at the outset, it may be difficult for the researcher to gain entry to the group under study.</li> <li>The observer effect - with overt PO, the very presence of the researcher may influence the group.</li> <li>Taking notes and recording activities as they happen can be challenging.</li> </ol>

### Non- Participant observation

The researcher watches and records what is happening but is not involved in the group activities. This is when the researcher is like a 'fly on the wall', observing the group's activities in a natural setting without participating in them. The observer (person acting upon the research) may be present in the setting while studying behaviour or they may videotape the group instead.

Advantages	Disadvantages
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Non-participant observers may be objective than participant observers.</li> <li>They may be less influenced by their personal feelings or opinions about the group, its members and activities.</li> <li>Non-participant observers are less likely than participant observers to get too drawn into the group's activities.</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The observer effect may develop into a non-participant observation, meaning that group members may change their behaviour if they are aware that they are being observed.</li> <li>Difficulties are faced for observers to see the perspective of different group members, since they do not participate in the same social world.</li> <li>The group may not trust that the researcher will not get them in trouble unless they take part in an activity with them- plus it is harder to be covert if you do not take part in the activity</li> </ol>

	<u>Description</u>	<u>Strength</u>	<u>Weaknesses</u>
Participant Observation	<p>This can be done overtly or covertly. Overt means that the researcher explains his aims and intentions to the group they are observing. Covert means that that the researcher is working under cover.</p> <p>In a participant observation the researcher joins in with the group.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It allows the observer to study the group in their everyday setting.</li> <li>• Studies tend to take place over a period of time so the researcher can build a bond with the participants.</li> <li>• By participating in activities the researcher can see things from the group's perspective and develop a deeper understanding.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It may be difficult for the researcher to gain entry to the group and for the group to trust them.</li> <li>• Taking notes and recording activities as they happen can be challenging especially if the research is covert.</li> <li>• The research is time consuming and therefore expensive.</li> <li>• The observer effect – the presence of the observer can cause the group to act differently.</li> </ul>
Non Participant Observation	<p>In non-participant observation the researcher sits back from the group and observes without joining in.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Researchers are less likely to get drawn into the group's activities.</li> <li>• They can remain objective as they are less likely to let their opinions be influenced by the group.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is more difficult to see the world through the eyes of group members if they do not participate in their activities.</li> <li>• The observer effect may change the behaviour of the participants as they are aware of being watched.</li> </ul>
Covert	<p>Covert research means it is done secretly. This is usually covert participant observation (e.g. going undercover with a gang).</p>	<p>Valid – you are getting a truthful picture, as they do not know they are being watched.</p> <p>Good for topics where it might be impossible to study them without it being a secret.</p>	<p>Ethics – researcher may get hurt if found out, researcher might have to do illegal activities, respondent doesn't have informed consent.</p> <p>Difficult to take notes (may have to sneak off to toilet!) – miss/forget things.</p>
Overt	<p>Overt research is NOT done secretly – the people know about it and why its being done.</p>	<p>Ethical – you have informed consent.</p>	<p>Respondents might change their behaviour if they know they are being studied.</p>

## Questionnaires- Quantitative method

A questionnaire is simply a written list of pre-set questions that the sociologist wishes to put to a group of respondents. A questionnaire can be posted, handed directly to participants, be online or delivered face to face.

**Types of questions:** Questions can either be **closed** (tick boxes) or **open** (write the answers in words)

Type	Strengths	Weaknesses
Extended responses where the participant writes their answer	More choice of answers Data is more valid so you can uncover meanings	Longer to complete than closed questions  May lack reliability as findings might not be repeated and results difficult to analyse
Closed or restricted responses which include: 1. Tick boxes 2. Yes/ No	Quick to complete and more reliable.  More able to generalise findings and to spot patterns and trends	Limited choice of answers.  Respondents cannot explain their views fully

**Evaluation points for questionnaires**

Advantages	Disadvantages
More cost effective than other research methods	Low response rate can affect validity of data
Can overcome access issues	Pre-coded questions can be biased and reflect the researcher's opinions rather than those of the respondent
Generates quantifiable data	Questionnaire offer limited chance to check for truth or validity
Questionnaires are more reliable	
Questionnaires can be more accessible for respondents ; its easier to find time for an online interview than face to face interview	

**Types:** There are three main types of questionnaires:

Type and Description	Strengths	Weaknesses
Online – these are sent to online to respondents usually via email	Quicker to conduct than other methods  Respondents can answer in their own time  Researcher is not present so respondents might feel more comfortable	Might end up in the spam folder  Low response rate  Might not understand the questions which can impact on results
Surveys – these are large scale questionnaires that can be done face to face	Can generate a large sampling frame  More representative picture of society  Cost effective in comparison to other forms	Large amounts of data can be difficult to analyse  People may lie for a variety of reasons which can impact on the validity of the results
Postal- these are mailed out to respondents households	Questions are standardised so the it's easy to replicate results  Closed questions provide quantitative data  Researcher is not present so respondents might feel more comfortable	Can be expensive to carry out  Low response rate if they have to post back to researcher  Interviewer not present to clarify any misunderstandings  Respondent might not answer all the questions

## Interviews - Primary method

These interviews are unstructured and therefore each one is unique. The researcher has an idea of the topic they want to discuss but they do not have set questions to follow. They allow the interview to flow. This produces qualitative data. A semi- structured interview is a mix of the two. The research has a guide of questions but allows the participant to speak freely.

Type of interview	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses
<b>Structured interviews</b>	<p>These are based on a structured, closed-ended/ pre-coded questionnaire.</p> <p>The questionnaire in an interview is referred to as an interview schedule</p>	<p>High Response Rate</p> <p>Interviewer reads &amp; writes</p> <p>Useful in finding factual data</p> <p>Lessens Interviewer Bias</p>	<p>The interviewer might make some people feel uncomfortable about telling the truth.</p> <p>The interviewer can also influence answers by their body language.</p> <p>Interview Schedule is Restrictive</p> <p>Lack of Probing means lack of detail</p>
<b>Semi-structured interviews</b>	<p>Each interview consists of the same questions (usually in the same order)</p> <p>Uses a mix of open and closed questions</p>	<p>More natural behaviour rather than a private interview (Validity)</p> <p>Can build a Rapport with the respondent more easily than structured interview</p> <p>Flexible but still structured to some extent (Keeps Focus)</p>	<p>Never fully Reliable or Valid.</p> <p>Difficult to compare &amp; Quantify 2 types of Data (Non-Compatible)</p> <p>Time Consuming compared to Structured Interviews</p> <p>Still Restricts responses.</p>
<b>Un-structured interviews</b>	<p>An Interview Schedule might not be used.</p> <p>Will contain Open-Ended questions that can be asked in any order.</p> <p>Questions can be added / missed</p>	<p>More flexible so any</p> <p>High in Validity (Open-Ended Qs)</p> <p>Can build a Rapport with the respondent</p> <p>Can explore new ideas (Less Restricted)</p>	<p>In depth interviews are time consuming and expensive.</p> <p>No Structure (Go off the point)</p> <p>Difficult to Quantify Qualitative Responses</p> <p>Small-Scale (Unrepresentative)</p>

<b>Group interviews</b>	<p>Refers to interviews more than one person is been interviewed at a time</p> <p>They can be Structured or Unstructured but usually are Semi-Structured.</p>	<p>Lots of information quickly</p> <p>Respondents can help each other develop their answers &amp; introduce each other to new ideas &amp; views</p>	<p>Group dynamics mean that respondents might 'blend into the background</p> <p>Could cause conflict between respondents</p> <p>Group dynamics mean that respondents might exaggerate/ lie.</p> <p>Could be difficult to control the interview</p>
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<b>Secondary Methods</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Strength</b>	<b>Weakness</b>
Official Statistics from Office of National Statistics (ONS)	<p>Statistics are a form of secondary data. This means that they are pre-existing as they have been collected by somebody else.</p> <p>Statistics are presented in the form of quantitative data such as birth rates or crime rates.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• They save time and money because they have already been collected.</li> <li>• They are based on large samples.</li> <li>• They may only provide limited information.</li> <li>• They allow for comparisons between data and information on trends.</li> <li>• They can be used as part of a mixed methods study</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• They can tell us numbers but not meanings. For example we can know how many divorces are occurring each year but we do not know why.</li> <li>• Sociologists cannot check the validity of official statistics.</li> </ul>
Longitudinal Studies	<p>Longitudinal studies follow a group of people over time. Changes in people's social attitudes and experiences can be examined.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Longitudinal studies allow researchers to examine social changes over time. Changes in individuals' daily lives, experiences, behaviour, values and opinions can be identified</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• However, they are expensive to conduct and there are practical problems in retaining the original sample. People often drop out</li> </ul>
Content analysis	<p>A content analysis studies the content of the media. It can measure and analyse the messages produced by the media.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cheap method: You only need access to the media to be able to carry out a content analysis e.g. access to TV or newspapers</li> <li>• It's a reliable research method: If you use a content analysis grid to measure the output of the media, then it is easy for other researchers to repeat your content analysis and test your results.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It lacks validity: If the content analysis is just quantitative data it will lack detail and depth of information. E.g. It can show that the media is violent and sexist, but it cannot explain why the media is violent or sexist.</li> </ul>

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is too subjective: This means the results are based on the opinions of the person doing the content analysis; they decide if something they see is violent and sexist.</li> </ul>
Ethnography	Ethnography is the observation & description of group of people & their way of life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Based on the direct observation of social behaviour which provides a valid, well-rounded picture of the social behaviour under study</li> <li>• Type of qualitative research providing detailed in-depth data</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• with regard to the privacy of informants who can reveal their intimate details.</li> <li>• The observer effect – when people are aware they are under study, they may change their behaviour</li> </ul>

## Sampling Methods

When you do research, it would be difficult or impossible to ask questions to everybody in the group you are studying as it would take too long and be too expensive. For example, if you are studying whether '*girls do more work around the house than boys*', you cannot ask every boy and girl so you only ask a sample of the group.

Population: the whole group your are studying. E.g. Year group or school.

Sampling Frame: A list of names from the population. E.g. electoral register, school registers, phone books.

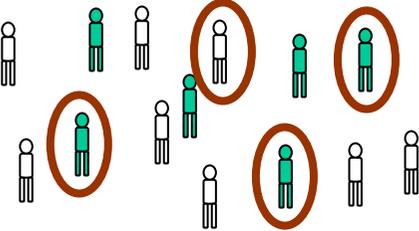
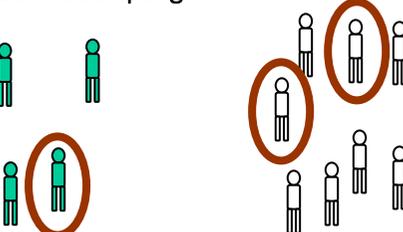
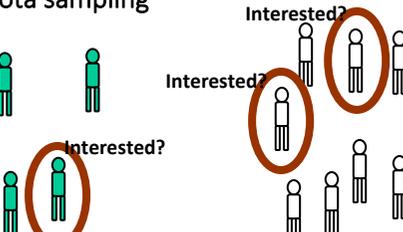
Sample: those taking part in the research. This sample is usually drawn from the sampling frame.

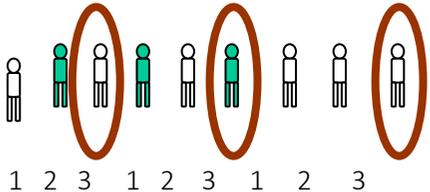
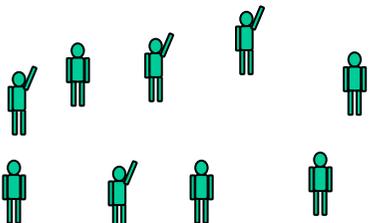
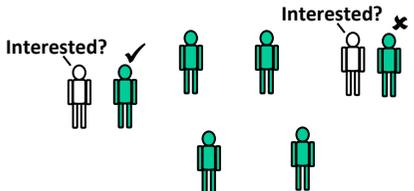
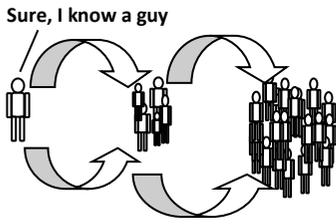
### Probability Sampling – Anyone in the population can be selected using a sampling frame

<b>Simple-Random Sampling</b>	To be truly random, everyone in the Population being studied must stand an equal chance of being selected.
<b>Systematic Random Sampling</b>	To be truly random, everyone in the Population being studied must stand an equal chance of being selected.
<b>stratified Random Sampling</b>	This sample is divided up into groups to accurately represent the people being studied, e.g. you might have 50% boys and 50% girls, 20% ethnic minority. You could also divide the group by age and by where they live.

### Non-Probability Sampling – Samples that are selected on purpose by the researcher. This is used when a sampling frame is unavailable

<b>Snowball Sampling</b>	This is where a member of your sampling group introduces you to another participant and helps you recruit further participants.
<b>Quota Sampling -</b>	Often used in market research, this is when respondents are selected because they represent certain groups in the total population (e.g. due to their age, gender, marital status, etc
<b>Purposive Sampling</b>	This is selecting a sample according to a known characteristic (being a headteacher or being homeless)

	<u>Description</u>	<u>Strengths</u>	<u>Weaknesses</u>
<p><b>Random sampling</b></p> 	<p>Every member of a population has an equal chance of being selected</p> <p>E.g. Pulling names out of a hat</p>	<p>For very large samples it provides the best chance of an unbiased representative sample</p>	<p>For large populations it is time-consuming to create a list of every individual.</p>
<p><b>Stratified sampling</b></p> 	<p>Dividing the target population into important subcategories</p> <p>Selecting members in proportion that they occur in the population</p> <p>E.g. 2.5% of British are of Indian origin, so 2.5% of your sample should be of Indian origin... and so on</p>	<p>A deliberate effort is made to make the sample representative of the target population</p>	<p>It can be time consuming as the subcategories have to be identified and proportions calculated</p>
<p><b>Quota sampling</b></p> 	<p>Dividing the target population into important subcategories</p> <p>Selecting members in proportion that they occur in the population</p> <p>E.g. 2.5% of British are of Indian origin, so 2.5% of your sample should be of Indian origin... and so on</p>	<p>A deliberate effort is made to make the sample representative of the target population</p>	<p>It can be time consuming as the subcategories have to be identified and proportions calculated. There might be a bias in the sample making it unrepresentative because researchers just ask people until you have enough.</p>

<p><b>Systematic sampling</b></p>  <p>1 2 3 1 2 3 1 2 3</p>	<p>Choose your participants from a sampling frame using a system, e.g. numbering the participants 1,2,3 and then selecting every 3<sup>rd</sup> person to be a participant.</p>	<p>It's a bit like random sampling and can therefore give unbiased samples from large populations.</p>	<p>In some situations using a system to select participants can make the sample biased, e.g. by picking every 10<sup>th</sup> house you might only pick out 'corner houses' etc.</p>
<p><b>Volunteer sampling</b></p> 	<p>Individuals who have chosen to be involved in a study. Also called self-selecting</p> <p>E.g. people who responded to an advert for participants</p>	<p>Relatively convenient and ethical if it leads to informed consent</p>	<p>Unrepresentative as it leads to bias on the part of the participant. E.g. a daytime TV advert would not attract full-time workers.</p>
<p><b>Opportunity sampling</b></p> 	<p>Simply selecting those people that are available at the time.</p> <p>E.g. going up to people in cafés and asking them to be interviewed</p>	<p>Quick, convenient and economical. A most common type of sampling in practice</p>	<p>Very unrepresentative samples and often biased by the researcher who will likely choose people who are 'helpful'</p>
<p><b>Snowball sampling</b></p> 	<p>Participants are selected from an initial contact who puts the researcher in touch with other possible participants.</p>	<p>A useful way of finding participants with a certain attribute (e.g. they're a member of a cult, or a drug user), who might not wish to be found otherwise.</p>	<p>Can be very biased, people with more friends are more likely to be selected as participants. Some people might not want to be 'found' by sociologists.</p>

Key Word	Definition	Example
Hypothesis	A testable statement that can be proven or disproven by research.	Black Caribbean males are underachieving due to high exclusion rates.
Research Methods	The ways in which sociologists carry out their research.	For example; observations and statistics
Ethical Issues	Rules about moral and immoral approaches to sociological research; established by academic institutions (e.g. universities) and laws.	For example; informed consent or confidentiality.
Practical Issues	These are problems that involve time, access, money/cost and organisation. These problems can also effect the work of sociologists.	For example; time and money/cost.
Pilot Study	A smaller practice investigation before the real one to see if your method/s work and are collecting relevant information.	You may test a questionnaire to see if questions are appropriate and relevant.
Primary Research Methods	When sociologists carry out their own research.	They may carry out observations and interviews.
Secondary Research Methods	When sociologists use the research of other sociologists or use other sources of data.	They may use official statistics collected by the Police or the Home Office.
Mixed Methods	When a sociologist combines research methods.	For example; They have used observations and interviews.
Triangulation	The accuracy of the data gathered using one method can be compared with data using a different method.	Using statistics to see how accurate the data you gathered by conducting observations is (compare them).
Sample Frame	The group of people that you will target for your research.	The age group, ethnicity, race etc.
Sampling Methods/Techniques	The ways in which sociologists find participants for their research.	For example; stratified or random sampling.

Open Questions	Questions which allow people to expand on their answers.	For example; what are your views on...?
Closed Questions	Questions which require limited responses or which options are provided from the researcher.	For example; Do you agree that there is racism in the education system? Yes/No/Maybe
Response Rate	The number of people who have replied to or answered the questionnaire/survey.	For example; the postal questionnaire had a low response rate.
Content Analysis	The analysis of documents or visual materials.	For example; doing a word count of a newspaper or making a tally chart of behaviour in a TV show.
Interviewer Bias	This occurs when interviewers influence the answers given by a respondent.	The interviewer using the tone of his voice to get the interviewee to answer a specific way.
Observer Effect/ Hawthorne Effect	Participants alter their behaviour because they are being observed.	Children behaving themselves during a teacher observation.
Validity	Data shows a true picture of what you are researching.	You are researching New Man, if your findings show that 100% of participants say they are an example of the New Man then this shows low validity.
Reliability	You can use the same methods again for the same research and get the same results.	When you carry out questionnaire to find out if New Man exists you find that 50% say yes, carry out the same research method again on the same issue and find that now only 20% say yes this will mean your research and the method is not reliable.
Representative	How accurate your research is in presenting the population of the area/country you live in.	If you carry out a research in Newham in order for it to be representative of the area you need to ensure a variety of age groups and ethnicities are used for the research.
Qualitative	Qualitative data includes virtually any information that can be captured that is not numerical (numbers).	For example; one participant thought the main cause of poverty was unemployment.
Quantitative	Quantitative data is numeric data and can be used for statistical analysis.	For example; 35% of participants thought poverty is increasing.