



Sociology
Learning Journey
Year 11

Meridian High School
Challenge - Learn - Achieve

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



Further Education

6. Further Subject Examinations.



Key Topic Skills



5. Examinations.

Paper 1 – 18/05/2021 - 1h45
Education, Family and Social Stratification

Paper 2 – 27/05/2021 – 1h45
Inequality, Crime and Research Methods

Key Topic Skills



- Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:**
1. What is crime and deviance?
 2. How do you use different sociological research methods?
 3. What is inequality?
 4. What is the best way to write an extended answer?
 5. What is the structure of Paper 2?

4. Paper 2 Revision.



Key Topic Skills



3. Mocks & Paper 1 Revision.

Six sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What are social different social approaches?
2. What is family?
3. What is education?
4. What is inequality?
5. What is the best way to write and extended answer?
6. What is the structure of Paper 1?

Key Topic Skills



- Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:**
1. What are the different types of research?
 2. What are the different types of data?
 3. What different types of questions exist?
 4. What is sampling?
 5. How do we evaluate research?

2. Research Methods.



Key Topic Skills



1. Crime and Deviance.

Five sub-questions you will be able to answer:

1. What is crime and deviance?
2. What is social control?
3. What is social order?
4. Who commits crime?
5. How are young offenders treated?

YEAR 11

Across your journey...
Strive for Nine Sociology Skills



1. Linking the big picture



2. Sociological Comprehension



3. Analysis and Interpretation



4. Research Skills



5. Decision Making



6. Questioning and arguing



7. Evaluation



8. Visual source analysis



9. Written source analysis

Year 11 Sociology – Crime and Deviance (1)



1. Crime and deviance	2. Sociological perspectives of crime and deviance	3. Social control
<p>A. Crime: An illegal act punishable by law.</p> <p>B. Deviance: Behaviour that does not conform to society's rules and norms.</p> <p>C. White Collar Crime: Crimes committed by people in relatively high-status positions. E.g. tax evasion, fraud, misuse of expense account.</p>	<p>A. Functionalist: Crime is vital and necessary of all societies. It helps to remind people about boundaries of acceptable & unacceptable behaviour. When the public come together over a reaction to a major crime, it creates social cohesion. (Durkheim)</p> <p>B. Marxist: Because society is based on values such as materialism, consumerism and competition- an unequal society. Some people cannot earn enough to fit these norms & values, therefore they commit illegal activities to get them.</p> <p>C. Feminist: Women are treated and punished as double deviants- they have firstly broken the law and second the norms that govern their gender behaviour. Arguments around the 'chivalry thesis'</p> <p>D. Interactionalists: Labelling produces a self-fulfilling prophecy. Social groups create deviance by making rules and applying them to particular people and labelling them as 'outsiders'. Groups whose social position gives them power are able to label people. These people see this as a self-fulfilling prophecy.</p>	<p>A. Much of our behaviour is socially controlled.</p> <p>B. Formal control: Based on written rules and laws. Agencies of formal social control include: Houses of Parliament, the police force, judiciary, the prison service.</p> <p>C. Informal control: Based on unwritten rules and processes such as approval & disapproval. Agencies of informal social control include: family, peers, teachers and work colleagues.</p>
4. Social order	3. Crime data	7. The class deal & the gender deal
<p>A. Social Order: For people to live and work together a certain amount of order and predictability is needed.</p> <p>B. Functionalists argue social order is based on value consensus.</p> <p>C. Marxists argue social order is maintained because of class conflict. The bourgeoisie have power and control to enforce order and influence the law.</p>	<p>A. Sources of data on crime: Victim survey, self-report studies, crime survey, national statistics.</p> <p>B. How useful are statistics recorded by the police? If a crime isn't witnessed it won't be reported. Many crimes are witnessed and not reported. The dark figure of crime.</p>	<p>A. Most people conform to the rules because of the 'deals' that offer them rewards.</p> <p>B. Class Deal: Material rewards if you work for your wage</p> <p>C. Gender deal: Material & emotional rewards if you live with a male breadwinner within the family.</p> <p>D. Refusing the class deal: Not found legitimate ways of earning a decent living. More to gain than to lose by offending.</p> <p>E. Refusing the gender deal: Supposed to be rewarded with happiness & fulfilment from family life. Many women may be abused, no bonds with family & friends. Nothing to lose and everything to gain</p> <p>F. Those at high risk from crime:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Class: The poor, living in private rented housing • Gender: Males • Age: The Young • Ethnicity: Minority ethnic groups.
6. Mass Media & Deviancy Amplification	3. Crime data	7. The class deal & the gender deal
<p>A. Stan Cohen (1972). The media creates moral panics- exaggerating the extent and significance of a social problem.</p> <p>C. A particular group is set as folk devil- a threat to society's values.</p> <p>D. The media distorts the events and incidents and create a false image of young people and their activities.</p> <p>E. This can encourage other young people to behave in the way the media portrays.</p> <p>F. Recent moral panics: school violence, bullying & shootouts, benefit cheats and single mothers, refugees & asylum seekers.</p>	<p>Robert Merton (1936) (Functionalist)</p> <p>Deviance results from the culture and structure of society. All members of society hold the same values. However, because members of society have different positions in the social structure, for example in terms of social class, Merton identified five possible ways that individuals will respond to the goals of success in society.</p>	<p>Pat Carlen (1988) (Feminist)</p> <p>Control theory is the basis for her approach, this starts from the assumption that human beings are neither naturally good nor bad but will make a rational decision to turn to crime when the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Supports the view that criminal behaviour becomes more likely when social control breaks down.</p>





8. Who commits crime? Why do differences occur?		9. Debates: Crime and the Media	
Gender	Ethnicity	Class	Age
<p>Women committing less crime.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender socialisation Fewer opportunities More domestic responsibilities May be treated differently in the criminal justice system e.g. sad, rather than bad, given a lenient sentence. Chivalry thesis Others argue they are treated more harshly – double deviancy. Therefore do not commit crime. <p>Women's involvement in crime is increasing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lost a lot of their controls and restraints Women are not experiencing equality in the work place – gender pay gap. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inaccurate statistics – Labelling – racism and stereotyping within the police practice. More ethnic groups are stopped and searched. Institutional racism within the police – most police officers are white and may label particular groups (Stephen Lawrence murder) linked to their social class, higher levels of crime in the ethnic minority groups could link to the fact they are also possibly experiencing poverty and this leads to crime. Media reinforcing views – reporting in the media on particular groups can generate mistrust and hostility. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inaccurate statistics – lower-class criminals may commit crimes that are more identifiable and more likely to be targeted by the police. Socialisation Material deprivation – may commit crime to obtain the things others have Education – W/C more likely to be in the bottom sets/streams so may look for other routes to get what they need e.g. crime. Anomie – mismatch between goals and the means to achieve the goals. Labelling. White collar crime is not as easily identifiable as crimes committed at lower levels. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Status frustration – lack of independence and caught in transition. Lack of responsibilities can lead them to drift into deviant and criminal behaviour. Peer Pressure Edgework – thrill seeking and risk-taking. Getting a “buzz” from committing a crime or displaying deviant behaviour. Socialisation – Some young people are inadequately socialised and have learned criminal behaviour as a norm or value. Police stereotyping Media moral panic/folk devil. Subcultural theory
10. Debates: Treatment of young offenders		10. Debates: Punishment	
<p>A. Should young people be sentenced for crimes or educated to prevent them committing crime in the future? Age of criminal responsibility is 10.</p> <p>B. Arguments why young people should be put in custody: They must take the punishment, if they are danger the public needs to be protected, they need to learn societies norms & values.</p> <p>C. Arguments why young people should not be put in custody: 73% reoffend within a year; too much money is spent on youth offender institutes; education would be more worthwhile.</p>	<p>A. Should people be punished and sent to prison or rehabilitated?</p> <p>B. Arguments for why people should be put in prison: criminals deserve to be shamed and deprived of their liberty, prison is a deterrent, essential to keep others safe</p> <p>C. Arguments for why people should not be put in custody: Doesn't make people take responsibility for their actions, reoffending rate is 57% of adults, 73% within young people, heavily structured regime can damage a prisoners abilities to think and act for themselves, they are ineffective – too easy.</p>	<p>A. Are the media biased in their presentation of crime? When individuals do not have direct knowledge or experience of what is happening, they rely on the media to inform them. The media set the agenda in terms of what is considered to be important. The editors filter what they see as newsworthy (news value) they tend to include and emphasis elements of a story for their audience. Stories they are more likely to report (news value) are stories involving children, violence, celebrities, if the event has occurred locally, easy to understand and if graphic images are involved. 46% of media reports are about violence or sexual crimes, yet these only make up for 3% of crime recorded by the police (Ditton & Delphy 1983)</p> <p>Deviancy amplification is usually used to describe the impact of the media on the public perception of crime.</p> <p>B. Does the media create crime? Media content can have a negative impact on the behaviour of young people, particularly children. It is suggested that some people may imitate violence and immoral or antisocial behaviour seen in media. The media are regarded as a powerful secondary agent of socialisation. Video games are often blamed as a link between increased aggressive behaviour and crime.</p>	<p>A. Should people be punished and sent to prison or rehabilitated?</p> <p>B. Arguments for why people should be put in prison: criminals deserve to be shamed and deprived of their liberty, prison is a deterrent, essential to keep others safe</p> <p>C. Arguments for why people should not be put in custody: Doesn't make people take responsibility for their actions, reoffending rate is 57% of adults, 73% within young people, heavily structured regime can damage a prisoners abilities to think and act for themselves, they are ineffective – too easy.</p>



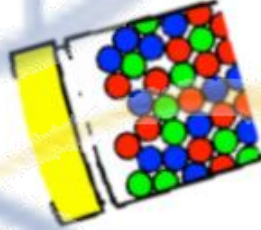
Frances Heidensohn (1985, 1996)
(Feminist)

Control theory is the basis why women commit fewer crimes than men. She argues that male-dominated patriarchal societies control women more effectively than men, making it difficult for women to break the law.

Howard Becker (1997)
(Interactionist)

Becker argued that an act only becomes deviant when others define it as such. Whether the 'label' of deviancy is applied depends on who commits the act, when and where it is committed, who observes the act, and the negotiations that take place between the various actors involved in the interaction.

Year 11 Sociology – Sociological Research Methods



1. Types of research

A. Primary research. Is collected first hand. Examples include: interviews, surveys, experiments, questionnaires, focus groups, case studies and observations. Positives = reliable, relevant, scientific, preferred by positivists. Negatives = costly, time consuming, sampling needs to be more generalisable.

B. Secondary research. Data from previously published sources. Examples include: census, websites, journals, media, books, official statistics. Positives = large-scale, cheap, quick, only way to study historical issues, preferred by interpretivists. Negatives = reliability could be questioned, interpretation issues.

2. Types of data

A. Quantitative Data: data presented in numerical form presented in graphs, pie charts or tables of statistics e.g. official statistics

B. Qualitative Data: data presented in words or visual form e.g. diary, photographs, mass media.

3. Types of questions

A. Closed questions. Fixed choice. Easy to process and present but does not allow for the respondent to expand their answer.

B. Open-ended questions. Able to give a more detailed answer but more difficult to convert into statistics and a more time consuming process to analyse.

4. Methods

A. Postal / Email Questionnaires: Positives = quick, easy to send to lots of people (representative and reliable); Negatives = response rate is about 10%, respondents might not understand the questions so it becomes less valid.

B. Structured / Semi-Structured Interviews: Positives = all participants are asked the same questions so it is reliable and comparable, interviewer can explain what the question means if the respondent does not understand making it and can probe the respondent to answer more fully if need to increase validity; Negatives: interviewer bias.

C. Informal (unstructured) interviews: Positives = participants can talk about what is important to them and the interviewer can ask the participant to clarify any answers improving validity; Negatives = every interview is different making it hard to compare interviews meaning the research is less reliable.

D. Group interviews: Positives = access to a wide range of views and experiences, participants may feel more at ease, save time and money; Negatives = some may dominate discussion so not everyone is heard, cannot ensure confidentiality.

E. Participant observation: Positives = watch how participants behave and can see the world from their point of view improving validity; Negatives = participants can act differently if they know they are being observed, the research might have to get involved in criminal behaviour which is unethical, if participants do not know they are being observed they cannot give their consent which is also unethical.

F. Official statistics: Positives = the data is usually based on the whole population so it is representative, may be the only source of data, can investigate trends over time; Negatives = cannot check the validity, could be politically biased.

5. Sampling

A. A sample is a way of choosing a subset of a population to take part in the research.

B. Samples can be representative (typical of the wider population) or unrepresentative (difficult to generalise and some groups can be overrepresented).

C. Probability (random) sampling types: (1) Simple random sampling – Use a computer to generate a random sample, everyone has as much chance as the other; (2) Systematic random sampling – The researcher uses a system to pick the participants (e.g. Every 10th name on the register); (3) Stratified random sampling – This involves picking people from different groups within the population.

D. Non-probability sampling: (1) Snowball sampling – The researcher selects one person, then asks them to put them in touch with other people, etc; (2) Quota sampling – Each interviewer has an exact number of people from categories that they need e.g. females, teenagers; (3) Purposive sampling – The sample is collected according to a known characteristic e.g. a teacher.

6. Evaluating research

A. Validity: Data is valid if it gives a true picture of social reality

B. Reliability: Data is seen as reliable if other researchers using the same methods get the same results.

C. Ethics: Research must be carried out in a morally acceptable way

D. Generalisation: Assuming the results are valid, reliable and representative you should be able to generalise.

E. Representativeness: Sociologists want the sample they are studying to represent a large group of people

F. Validity: Data is valid if it gives a true picture of social reality