

Knowledge organiser



Sociology

RAYNES
PARK HIGH SCHOOL

Crime and Deviance knowledge organiser page 2

Social class and age		Gender and ethnicity		Crime statistics		Contemporary issues	
Class and crime: patterns	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Working-class people are over-represented in prisons Upper-class people appear to commit less crime in crime statistics 	Gender and crime: patterns	Women only commit around 25% of crime according to official statistics, and are less likely to commit violent crimes	Two main sources of crime statistics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Crimes recorded by the police Surveys such as victim surveys and self-report surveys 	Deviancy amplification	When a media reaction to deviance increases deviance
						Folk devil	Group presented in the media as a threat to society's values
Explanations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Merton's strain theory explains why WC people may commit more crime Marxists argue the CJS is biased against WC people – upper class people may commit more crime, but it is less likely to be detected 	Explanations	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Gender socialisation – girls are socialised to be gentle and caring compared to boys – less likely to commit crime Fewer opportunities to commit crime (Heidensohn's control theory) Chivalry thesis – female offenders are treated more leniently by police and judges. Women seen to need help, not punishment 	Disadvantages of police recorded crime	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Not all crimes are discovered Not all crimes are reported eg sexual assault, domestic abuse Not all crimes are recorded 	Media and deviance amplification	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Cohen looked at how the media created moral panics – exaggerating social problems The mods and rockers were 2 groups who clashed in the 1960s and were labelled as folk devils The media exaggerated the clashes, making the police act more harshly The media coverage meant more young people took part
White-collar crime	Crime committed by individuals in high-status positions eg lawyers in the course of their work eg fraud			Interpretivist	Crime statistics are a social construct and not valid		
				Labelling	Crime statistics show police biases and labels		
Corporate crime	Crime committed by employees on behalf of their company eg pollution of rivers	Carlen's (1988) class and gender deal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feminist perspective Working class women expected to make the class deal (money for working hard) and gender deal (emotional rewards of being a parent/wife) When they cannot achieve these deals due to poverty, WC women sometimes turn to crime 	Marxists	Crime statistics lack corporate and white collar crime	Media coverage of crime	The media play a role on agenda setting – deciding what is a problem. Editors (gatekeepers) choose topics according to news values (what is newsworthy)
				Feminists	Crime statistics lack crimes against women		
Age and crime patterns	Young males are the group most likely to commit crime, according to statistics	KEY STUDY		Victim surveys – ask people about experiences	Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gives data not recorded by police Can look at trends and make policies 	Concerns about Youth Crime	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teenage crime costs a lot of lives Knife crime and anti-social behaviour are seen as issues Young people can be scapegoats (blamed for problems in society)
Explanations	1. Functionalists argue poor socialisation leads to youth crime ie not learning society's norms and values	Ethnicity and crime	Black people are x8 more likely to be stopped and searched, and are over-represented in prison	Crime Survey of England and Wales (CSEW)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Excludes some crimes eg murder Respondents may lie or forget- less valid 	Prison system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prisons are overcrowded and there are high levels of reoffending, self-harm and suicide
	2. Cohen's delinquent subculture theory explains why young WC boys commit crime as a result of status frustration			Self-report studies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ask people about their offending Offending Crime and Justice Survey (2003-6) Respondents may lie 	Sentencing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some prisoners are released before the end of their sentences. This is criticised as too 'soft' Sentences are seen as too short

Functionalist perspective on education		Marxist perspective on education		Organisation of the education system		Social class and education	
Formal education	Takes place in educational establishments eg schools	1. Serves ruling class interests	Passes on ideas and beliefs of the ruling class	Early years	3-4, nursery schools and classes	General trends	Middle class students do better in education than working class
				Primary	Ages 5-11		
Informal education	Takes place when people gain knowledge from everyday life	2. Breeds competition	Exams/ sport encourage competition - helps capitalism	Secondary	11-16, range of schools	Halsey, Heath and Ridge (1980) RM: face-to-face survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Divided social class into service (upper), intermediate and working class - Evidence of social class inequalities in education - Boy from service class – 11x more likely to go to university
				Further	16+ sixth form and colleges		
Hidden curriculum	The attitudes and values transmitted informally - not explicitly taught	3. Reproduces social class inequalities	Education APPEARS to reward fairly, but actually more privileged students do well – advantages are passed on	Higher	18+ universities		
Meritocracy	A society where rewards are allocated on the basis of merit, not background	4. Secondary socialisation	WC students learn norms and values for working class jobs	Tripartite system: 1944-1965	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students allocated to school based on 11+ exam - Grammar, secondary modern and secondary technical - Some counties still have this - Criticised for 'labelling' 	Explanations for inequalities	
1. Durkheim: Building social cohesion	Education builds social solidarity (feeling of being part of society) by teaching shared norms and values: society in miniature	Bowles and Gintis: Correspondence Principle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Role of education is to produce an obedient workforce who obey orders - Schools reward the same traits as a working class workplace - This is through the hidden curriculum - Meritocracy is a myth 	Comprehensive system: 1965 onwards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No entrance exam, comprehensive schools accept all students - Achievement still affected by background, however 	2. Parental values	Middle class parents tend to value education and be more involved which impacts attainment
2. Durkheim: Teaching skills for work	In a complex industrial society, different people must know different skills which they learn in education	RM: questionnaires and secondary data					
				Types of school today		3. Cultural deprivation	Low income students lack cultural resources to succeed eg visits to museums, classical music etc
				Comprehensive	Run by local council, with no entry requirements		
3. Parsons: teaching core values	Education prepares children for society by treating them with universalistic standards, not particularistic like the family. Achieved, rather than ascribed status is given: meritocratic	Willis: anti-school subcultures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Studied 12 boys 'The Lads' who rejected the norms and values of the school - an anti-school subculture - School did not make them obedient and submissive 	Academy	Not controlled by local council, but by trusts, funded by government	4. Cultural capital	Middle class students know the skills and values of the middle-class, whereas WC may not
		RM: participant observation		Special school	Caters for students with additional learning needs		
				Free school	Funded by the government, can be set up and run by any group		
4. Parsons: role allocation	The education system matches individuals to future jobs based on their talents and skills	Criticisms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Exaggerate power of the education system 2. Functionalist – value consensus 3. Workers must be creative 	Independent (fee-paying) schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Private schools are not run by the government and they charge fees - 7% of population attend one - Better facilities etc but unequal 	Ball, Bowe and Gewirtz (1994) RM: interviews/ secondary data Marketisation = schools more like businesses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Schools must look good in league tables to attract students, so try to attract more able students 2. Middle-class parents have an advantage in choosing a school as they have material and cultural resources 3. This has made the education system less equal and given an advantage to the middle classes
Criticisms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Marxists argue ruling class ideology is transmitted 2. Not all students accept values 3. Not all skills for work Opportunity is not equal 			Feminist perspective	Argue that schools pass on patriarchal values		

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Internal processes		Ethnicity and education		Gender and education	
Interactionism	Sociological approach focusing on small-scale interactions between people, such as between teachers and students	Patterns of achievement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Chinese and Indian students are most likely to succeed Black Caribbean and Pakistani students are least likely to succeed Ssocial class is also important White working class boys do the worst 	Patterns in achievement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Before the 1980s, boys did better than girls in education By the early 2000s, girls did better than boys at every stage in education However, with the introduction of 100% exam GCSEs, the gap has started to narrow
Labelling	Evidence suggests teachers classify students based on their perceptions of them – this labelling can be positive or negative. It may be based on a pupil’s social class background. It can affect how a teacher treats a pupil				
Self-fulfilling prophecy	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher labels student eg deviant Teacher changes behaviour towards pupil Student internalises label and acts how the teacher expects 	External (home) factors		Patterns in subject choice	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Girls are more likely to choose English and Art at A-level, whereas boys are more likely to choose physics and maths This is linked to the gendered curriculum – different subjects being seen as masculine or feminine
		Material deprivation	Students from some backgrounds eg Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean are more likely to live in poverty		
Streaming	Students allocated to classes based on their general ability eg BDA rank order classes	Cultural factors	Schools are organised around white, mainstream culture so some ethnic minority students may be disadvantaged	Reasons for girls’ achievements	
Setting	Students allocated to classes based on performance in that subject <ul style="list-style-type: none"> More lower class students in lower sets Negative labelling/ self-fulfilling prophecy 	Parental values/ attitudes	Chinese culture values education highly, so Chinese parents are more likely to encourage their children to do well	Feminism	Girls’ ambitions are no longer to be housewives,
		Language	If students do not speak English as their first language they may struggle in lessons	Legal changes	Equal Pay Act and Sex Discrimination act
Ball (1981) Banding and Teacher Expectations RM: Participant observation	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Case study of comprehensive school ‘Beachside Comprehensive’ School sorted pupils into ‘bands’ based on ability – linked to social class too Teacher expectations differed in bands When bands were abolished, teachers still labelled students and treated them differently 	Internal (school) factors		Equal opportunities	Schools have equal opportunities policies to help girls
		1. Type of school attended	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Some sociologists argue ethnic minority students are more likely to attend a poorer school with less resources etc. Teachers may have higher expectations of, for example, Chinese students and lower expectations of others and therefore treat students differently 	National curriculum	Means schools can no longer offer a gendered curriculum
Pupil subcultures Willis: Anti-school subculture (Marxist perspective)	Streaming/ setting and labelling can lead to anti-school subcultures – groups of pupils who reject the norms and values of the school <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Subculture focused on ‘having a laff’ Values of subcultures stressed masculinity and toughness - saw learning as ‘unmanly’ Willis argues the subculture prepared the boys for working class manual jobs eg plumbers, thus serving capitalism 	2. Teacher expectations and labelling		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Formal curriculum focuses on white history, books etc excluding BME pupils Unintended consequence of how schools are organised – racism within organisations eg high exclusion rate for black pupils 	Reasons for boys’ underachievement
		3. Ethnocentric curriculum	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Unintended consequence of how schools are organised – racism within organisations eg high exclusion rate for black pupils 		Feminisation of schools
		4. Institutional racism		It is illegal for schools to discriminate on ethnicity	Crisis of masculinity
		Government policy	Reasons for differences in subject-choice		Laddish subcultures
					<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Gender socialisation eg boys encouraged to play with science kits, and girls encouraged to read and draw Gender stereotyping in textbooks, by teachers, gendered curriculum and socialisation in schools

1. Different family structures	2. Family diversity	4. Nuclear families	5. Alternatives to the family
Family: A group of two or more people linked by blood, marriage, adoption or cohabitation.	Rapoport and Rapoport: Pioneers in family diversity research, who used the work of other sociologists. 5 types of diversity Organisational diversity: Different family structures and different divisions of labour (jobs) Cultural diversity: Different ways a family is organised and structured based on cultural/religious differences Social class diversity: Different ways families are organised and work based on social class differences Life cycle (cohort) diversity: Particular periods of history families pass through and its impact on families	Cereal packet family: Leach – the idea that the nuclear family is presented as the ‘perfect’ family in the media Oakley argues: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Conventional family is still powerful - Strains beneath the surface exist - Inequality between men and women - Signs of limited change 	Communal living: this describes living with people not from your family. Eg: university halls, care homes for the elderly and flatshares Communes: a group of people who live together and share jobs and responsibilities and skills equally. Kibbutz: A type of communal living established in Israel that traditionally revolved around agriculture Global diversity: China – patriarchal family Caribbean family – absent father South Asia – extended family
Nuclear family: parents and their children			
Beanpole family: many generations represented but few from each generation			
Extended family: parents and children plus members of the wider family			
Reconstituted family: a family in which one or both partners have children from previous relationships			
Same-sex family: family with parents of the same sex	Family life course diversity: Different stages families pass through from nuclear, to empty nest etc	The media: presents nuclear as ideal Chester: nuclear family is still the main type; people aspire to it Thorne: gender inequalities in nuclear family	
Lone-parent family: a family with a single mother or father due to divorce, separation or death			
3. Reasons for family diversity:			
Legal changes: Equal Pay Act and benefits for single parents, plus divorce act, same-sex marriage= more lone-parent/ same-sex families			Gender roles: more women work now so do not need to rely financially on men = more lone-parent families
Values and attitudes: less stigma attached to divorce/ same-sex relationships			Life expectancy: people living longer = more reconstituted families
Decline in religion: marriage = less important and divorce has less stigma = more lone-parent families	Immigration: more cultural diversity, also more extended families	6. Marriage	
		Trends in marriage	Marriage has declined significantly in the last 50 years The average age of marriage has increased for men and women
		Reasons:	Changing role of women: women have more more freedom to choose relationships and prioritise careers
			Social attitudes: marriage is seen as less important, and the social stigma attached to divorce and cohabitation has declined
			Reduced family functions: the nuclear family has fewer functions, so is seen as less important
			Secularisation: less religion= less marriage for religious reasons
			Rising divorce rate: people less inclined to marry due to likelihood of divorce
			Expense of marriage: average cost of wedding is over £20,000 – cohabitation is cheaper

7. Functions of the family		8. Divorce		9. Conjugal roles (Bott)	
Functionalists – the family plays a positive role, socialising children and helping society run smoothly	Murdock - 4 functions of the family: 1. Sexual 3. Economic 2. Reproductive 4. Educational	Trends in divorce	Divorce has increased hugely in the past 50 years 43% of marriages are estimated to end in divorce	Joint	Household tasks equally shared
				Segregated	Man = breadwinner Woman = responsible for housework
	Parsons - 2 main functions of the family: 1. Primary socialisation – norms and values, expressive/ instrumental roles 2. Stabilization of adult personality – warm bath	Reasons for these trends	Changing role of women: financial independence	Functionalist (Parsons)	Unequal conjugal roles = necessary for smooth running of society Expressive/ instrumental
			Social attitudes: less stigma in divorce		
			Expectations of marriage/ media: high expectations plus individualism	Marxist	Unequal conjugal roles support capitalism
Secularisation: no religious barrier	Feminist		Unequal conjugal roles exist in which women are exploited by men		
Laws: Divorce Act made divorce easier					
Marxists – the family helps to maintain an unequal capitalist society and passes on inequalities	Zaretsky: the family supports capitalism by... 1. Acting as a unit of consumption ie buying things, keeps bourgeoisie rich 2. Economic function – unpaid labour of women allows men to work 3. Passing on social class inequalities – inheritance, education, socialisation	Consequences of divorce	For parents: emotional distress, financial issues esp women For children: emotional distress, less time with one parent For wider family: see less of children	10. Changes in the family	
		Functionalist perspective	Divorce is positive because: - Keeps lawyers and judges employed - Fewer dysfunctional families - Many divorced people remarry	Changes in family structure (Parsons)	Pre-industrial: extended family Industrial: nuclear (mobility needed) Contemporary: family diversity
		Symmetrical family (Young and Wilmott)	1. Equal but opposite roles 2. Home-centred 3. Shared decision making 4. Extended family less important However feminists criticize it		
Feminists – the family passes on gender inequalities and exploits women	Delphy and Leonard: the family exploits women because... 1. Womens' labour is not valued and is used by husbands 2. Financially women must depend on husbands 3. They have a subordinate position in the family	Marxist perspective of divorce:	Divorce results from the tensions of capitalism – competition for power in a marriage. Divorce is more likely to affect the working classes as they are more likely to experience family tensions as a result of capitalism and inequality.	Changes in parent-child relationships	1. Less authoritarian in middle-classes 2. Family is more child-centred 3. Children may spend less time with mum/ more with dad
	The family passes on gender inequality through gendered socialisation – canalisation, ie childrens' interests being channelled to different activities			Feminist perspective	Divorce results from the power struggle between men and women. Divorce is positive because it allows women to escape unhappy, patriarchal marriages.

Functionalist theory of class		Class divisions		Life chances	
Social stratification	Strata' means layers. So social stratification means layers in society.	Measuring class Problems:	1. Registrar General's classification -1998 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Doesn't include wealth, only jobs No category for unemployed/retired 	Life chances	Chances of achieving things throughout someone's life e.g. healthy life Marxists: they're not distributed equally
Social stratification based on social class	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The UK class system is based on 'achieved status'; a person's class is linked to social mobility, moving up or down the social ladder 	Measuring class Why it's better	2. The National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Covers unemployed and students It covers status & levels of authority 	Gender Feminists:	Feminists: inequalities exist in socialisation, wealth, political power & gender pay gap Persistence of inequalities due to: triple shift & child care provision However, crisis of male masculinity?
Other forms of social stratification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> UK feudal system of serfs, knights, lords was based on 'ascribed status' of being born into that 'estate' Indian caste system is also based on 'ascribed status'; being reborn into a higher caste 	Karl Marx	Ownership decides class divisions in society, and status' arise from these	Ethnicity	Inequalities exists in political power, racism, prejudice, BAME unemployment Persistence of inequalities: discrimination in jobs, underclass, capitalism (Marxism)
Davis and Moore Key points:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All roles (jobs) in society must be filled, including the lower roles The 'functionally important roles' should be filled by the most able e.g. clever people This means costly education & training and so deserves a higher salary <p>All societies must therefore treat people differently and accept it as fair</p>	Karl Marx Key points:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The bourgeoisie are 'owners of the means of production' Proletariat are forced to sell their labour to survive; leads to feeling alienated Bourgeoisie use ruling-class ideology (ideas) to distort reality about inequalities Leads to false class consciousness; w.class don't realise they're being exploited 	Age	How we see age is socially constructed – it changes depending on history & culture Inequalities exist in ageism, employment, youth subcultures, education (NEET's)
		Criticisms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Where is the revolution he describes? A large m.class does show social mobility 	Other factors	Sexuality – homophobia Disability – stereotyping disabilities Beliefs – prejudice and hate crime
		Max Weber	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A person's status may differ from their class e.g. nurse high status, low pay 	Initiatives	Equality Act 2010 based on previous policy
		Max Weber Key points:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Class comes down to which people hire labour and which people sold their labour <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Property owners ➤ Professionals petty ➤ Bourgeoisie e.g. shop keepers ➤ Working class Each class reflected different market situations (life chances). However, non-economic factors e.g. status and power are also important in determining life chances 	Fiona Devine	Revisited Goldthorpe's affluent worker study in Luton. No embourgeoisement. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Found workers were not purely instrumental in their motives for geographical mobility Geographical mobility did not necessarily lead to separation from family & family-centred lifestyles There was plenty of evidence of solidarity, not individualism
Criticisms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Marxists: Society is not meritocratic Pay can be linked to power, not how 'functionally important' their role is 				
Social mobility	<p>Routes to social mobility: education, marriage, windfalls (lottery), or changes in occupation</p> <p>Barriers to social mobility: discrimination and lack of skills/education</p>				

Poverty as a social issue		Poverty as a social issue continued...		Power	
Wealth	Houses, land, art. Or savings and shares Passed down through generations Top 10% own 45% of UK wealth	Individual explanation of poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The culture of poverty: being socialised into a subculture of poverty with values of fatalism & present-time orientation. Cycle of deprivation: material and culture deprivation passed down through generations & children unable to break free 	Max Weber 1947	Power is based on either: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Coercion; use of force Authority; when we willingly obey Three types of authority: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Traditional authority: based on customs Rational legal authority: based on people accepting the rules or laws e.g. operates within a bureaucracy (an organisation with a clear set of rules) Charismatic authority: obeying a leader that inspires us e.g. Nelson Mandela
Income	The money households receive e.g wages, pensions or benefits Redistribution of income is done by tax				
What is poverty	Absolute poverty: do not have shelter, food etc. to survive Relative poverty: can't afford to meet general standard of living; poor compared to others	Criticism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Blames the individual themselves Ignores structural issues e.g. recession 		
		Structural explanation of poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Functionalism: inequalities is good as boring, dirty jobs wouldn't get done. Marxism: poverty comes from inequalities of capitalism. 'Fear of poverty' is used Feminism: Lone mothers & older women living alone are at most risk. Pay gap and care responsibilities. 'shock absorbers' 		
How to measure poverty	Official UK government measure is 60% of median (middle point of income)			Marxism	Bourgeoisie hold political power
Peter Townsend 1979	Townsend's Deprivation Index examined 12 items that measured relative deprivation & found 23% in poverty <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Groups at risk using the index: unskilled elderly and children in unskilled one-parent families Compared to 6.1% of population that are poor enough to claim benefits 	New Right Charles Murray	Although structural, it focuses on the individuals' behaviour e.g. an underclass. He used official statistics to measure underclass e.g. rising crime rates, illegitimate births & labour drop-outs. He determined welfare created a 'culture of dependency'	Feminism	Patriarchy is a males in power over women
				Criticism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Blames and stigmatizes victims Marxist: should focus on the rich 'overclass'
Explaining increases in poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An increase in unemployment An increase in the pay gap between low-skilled and high-skilled workers Reductions in income tax, which benefit the more well off 	Impact of globalization on poverty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2008 a world financial crisis led to a recession in the UK. Resulted in job losses, unemployment, rising fuel and food costs Globalization has led to global inequality 	Contrasting views on the role of state	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pluralism: no single group dominate – power is shared & state regulates this Conflict approach: Marxists see one powerful group in charge of the state
		How have governments tried to help	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Means tested benefits those most in need. This can lead to a 'poverty trap' where a wage rise might make people lose benefits Universal benefits don't stigmatise people National minimum wage 	Contrasting views on the role of pressure groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pluralists: pressure groups/trade unions are essential to democracy; providing opportunities to participate in politics Conflict: big business have too much influence & dominate policy making
Life cycle of poverty	Official statistics only give a snap-shop of a household but people might move in and out of poverty at different times				

Stages of carrying out research	Ethical Issues	Sampling
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generate a testable hypothesis: a statement/question that can be investigated • Design your study: choosing the correct research methods and sampling strategy • Conduct a pilot study (practice research investigation): designed to see if the main study is feasible • Apply your revised research method/s by collecting primary/secondary data • Analyse data to see if it is reliable, to make it into useful information, and to represent it using graphs/chart to investigate trends, patterns and correlations • Draw reasoned conclusions that are presented in a clear and useful manner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consent - Participants must give their consent (permission) to take part. • Informed consent - Participants must be made aware of any dangers/risks, and be made aware of their right to leave the research at any stage (right to withdraw). • Safety - Researchers have a duty to protect their participants (and research team) and not to expose them to undue risks. This includes causing emotional distress. • Sensitivity - Researchers should be sensitive when dealing with vulnerable groups. • Confidentiality/Anonymity - Researchers must respect the confidentiality of their participants. This also includes storing all relevant data securely. • Not misrepresenting data - Researchers must have integrity: they must be honest and not tamper with data 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Random sampling – This is when everyone has an equal chance of being selected. • Systematic sampling – Choosing randomly from a list. E.g. every 5th, 10th or 20th person on a register or from a list • Stratified sampling – to make the sample as representative as possible, the sample frame will be divided into a number of smaller groups, such as social class, age, gender, ethnicity etc. Individuals are then drawn at random from these groups. • Snowball sampling – This is when you ask your participants to recommend other participants • Opportunity sampling – Where the most convenient or suitable persons are picked • Cluster sampling – This is when the researcher divides the population into separate groups, called clusters. A random sample of clusters is selected from the population. • Quota sampling – interviews must question an exact quota (number) of people from categories such as females, teenagers, in proportion to the numbers in the wider population.

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relatively easy and cheap to complete research therefore can target a large sample and gain more data • Often completed in private so avoids any researcher effects • Standardised questions means the reliability of the data gathered should be high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often uses closed questions so unlikely to produce detailed, qualitative data therefore not good for finding out why people think/act as they do • May be rushed or not taken seriously meaning answers may lack validity • Problems of non-response may result in a distorted sample and thus less representative data
Content analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheap to complete research – only really need some media to analyse • Can target a sample and gain more data • Easy to research - the rapid growth of the internet has made the process even easier with a vast array of media now available online to access and analyse • Produces quantitative data which can be turned into statistics so various comparisons can be made to establish any patterns 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The media is often biased so the researcher needs to be aware that results may also be biased • The quantitative data produced will not be detailed or in-depth or explain why the content is as it is, leading some researchers to question its usefulness • Results are often based on the judgements and opinions of just one person, which is likely to make any conclusions biased

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Overt observation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can collect detailed and in-depth qualitative data which is likely to be high in validity so it can help you understand what people do and why If non-participant then you are likely to remain apart from your research subjects and so will remain more objective If participant observation is used you will really understand the group under study and see things from their point of view There is no deception involved in the research so nobody feels compromised 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overt observations may result in the group under study changing their behaviour due to the observer – the Hawthorne effect Time consuming and likely to be expensive to complete as many observations are longitudinal It can often be difficult to gain access to the groups you wish to observe If participant observation is used, many researchers find that they become too involved with the group they are studying and start to lose their objectivity It doesn't get reliable data (participant observation is unstructured)
Covert observations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows the researcher to see participants in their natural environment – improved validity; Prevents people from changing their 'normal' behaviour – avoids the Hawthorne Effect; If using participant observation, it allows the researcher to act as part of the group under study and to really understand things from their point of view – improved validity; May allow research to be conducted upon groups that would not normally allow researchers in i.e. prostitutes, the homeless, criminals, gangs etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Difficult to gain access to the group you wish to study e.g. for a covert participant observation, as groups are often deviant/taboo i.e. drug dealers, gangs etc; Not ethical – difficult to morally justify spying on people; May put the researcher in danger if the group find out they are being researched and have not given their consent; Research conducted covertly is typically small scale and therefore is unlikely to be representative meaning generalisations cannot be made; Taking notes/recording information in a covert research study would be very difficult meaning information could be forgotten/changed and therefore lessen its validity
Longitudinal study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Allows a researcher to build up a picture of social life that recognises changes over time Allows for lots of depth and detail - Gains more valid data Helps the researcher to build a rapport with the participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Difficult to manage as people's circumstances are constantly changing Time consuming for the researcher Costly for the researcher Researcher may have to cope with participants dropping out of the study or moving away – unreliable
Interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In unstructured and semi-structured interviews, the researcher can probe to really find out what the respondent means, so increasing validity They produce qualitative data that can be used to find out about attitudes and opinions; Seeing body language helps you to build rapport/tell if someone is telling the truth High response rate – difficult to say no to a researcher face-to-face 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can cost a lot to conduct as interviewers have to be trained There is a risk of interviewer bias which may affect the validity of the data Sometimes respondents may give answers that they feel the interviewer wants to hear, so reducing validity – socially desirable responses Respondents can lie e.g. because they don't want to look bad in front of someone, which reduces validity
Official statistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Many official statistics are freely available to researchers and the general public. Enable us to make comparisons between social groups and regions, for example the UK National Census Allow us to spot trends, find correlations and make generalisations, historical comparisons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Statistics are free, but they are expensive and time consuming to collect. The data which exists and the categories and indicators used might not fit a researcher's specific research purposes. Some Official Statistics lack validity, for example crimes may go unreported and so aren't counted. Official statistics may also lack validity because they are collected by the state and massaged to make things look better than they actually are.