

# **Teaching Pack for A Level AQA Sociology**

## **Paper 1: Education with Theory and Methods**

Version 1.1, May 2024

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# Teacher's Introduction

This is a teaching pack resource to cover the 4.1 *Education with Theory and Methods* A Level AQA component. It is designed to provide you as a teacher with a comprehensive resource to teach the component, as well as offer the information and course content that students will need to know to complete the exam. The resource is written specifically for the Education with Theory and Methods component, but the content and activities are designed to support the development of wider key sociological skills and understandings. For example, it ties into the broader aims of studying Sociology so as to foster the development of critical and reflective thinking with a respect for social diversity, and, more specifically to the A Level course, provides mutually enforcing knowledge and skills for the other Sociology A Level components.

## Teaching Arrangements

This pack contains the following materials:

1. A single-page overview scheme of work  
*This is useful when planning and time managing, as well as to understand the movement of the resource in relation to the specification.*
2. 22 lesson plans  
*These include learning objectives designed to be manageable objectives for each lesson, which collectively amount to cover the specification. The lesson plans also include a starter, main and plenary activity. There is usually scope for you as the teacher to tailor the activities to the needs of the class, for example by having the students complete the activities individually, in small groups or as a class together. Please note that some of the activities require certain resources such as access to the Internet, but if your classroom does not have these facilities you may wish to set the students preparatory homework to prepare for the given activities. The lesson plans are designed to give you as the teacher as much variety and flexibility as possible; therefore, it is recommended that if there are a variety of activities suggested, to complete the ones most relevant or significant to class and exam requirements when under tight time restrictions.*
3. Lesson notes  
*The lesson notes are designed to provide a photocopiable resource for the students. The notes include all the content which is needed to cover the specification. As well as being used as handouts, they are useful in providing you as the teacher with all the information and content that will be needed to sufficiently cover the specification. You may wish to use these notes and materials as standalone resources, or they may be used to supplement existing materials or to vary your teaching of the topic.*
4. Questions activity  
*To accompany each lesson a set of questions is provided. These are included to reinforce learning, and provide a gauge of students' knowledge. The answers to the questions are provided at the back of this resource. If time permits, have the students complete the questions in class; however, it is also an option to have the students complete the questions as a homework task. You as the teacher may mark the answers, or alternatively it can be an added starter or plenary activity to, as a class, go through and mark the answers.*

## Resource Content

As 'Theory and Methods' is an aspect of the course that is integrated in both the *Crime and Deviance* and *Education* modules, the theory and methods section of this resource has been replicated in both resources that ZigZag offer. The bulk of the content for this section, i.e. lessons 1–6, is the same; however, some of the content and activities have been adapted so it is relevant to the accompanying course content. After these initial lessons, the content moves into the *Education* requirements but an underlying theme of research methods is kept consistent throughout the entire resource.

The following table breaks down what the assessment objectives are for this course, as well as the worth of each aspect in relation to this component and the A Level as a whole:

## Assessment Objectives

AO1 (15%)	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of:
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• sociological theories concepts and evidence</li><li>• sociological research methods</li></ul>
AO2 (11%)	Apply sociological theories, concepts, evidence and research methods to a range of issues
AO3 (8%)	Analyse and evaluate sociological theories, concepts, evidence and research methods in order to:
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• present arguments</li><li>• make judgements</li><li>• draw conclusions</li></ul>

It is advised to go through this with the students so that they are aware of what is being assessed in the exam, particularly important when tailoring revision strategies. For context, it is important to note that this topic (Paper 3) is worth 33.3% total of the A Level, and is assessed with a 2-hour exam which is worth 80 marks.

While the class notes extensively cover the requirements of AO1 (knowledge) and to a lesser extent AO2 (application of knowledge) and AO3 (analysis and evaluation), the activities have been designed to strengthen and expand the capabilities of AO2 and AO3. For example, evaluation is done through cross-comparison tables, and research tasks allow students not only to strengthen AO2, but to nurture independent research skills.

The research tasks have been heavily included in this resource to satisfy the sought-after goal of AQA's new Sociology specification; that is, to encourage 'an active involvement with the research process' and for students to 'use examples drawn from their own experience of small-scale research'. This is particularly important in light of the fact that the 'methods in context' section of the exam is an extended writing piece worth 20 marks. Boxes of information in the class notes, the class questions and lesson activities are used in this resource to incorporate and develop the students' skills in applying research methods knowledge to the content of the Education component.

Moreover, broader transferable skills are foregrounded in the nature of the activities: oral and research skills through presentations, creativity and peer-to-peer learning in group presentation and feedback lesson layouts, critical thinking in report summaries, as well as source-finding and research skills in independent research projects.

It is advised, in keeping with the specification and aims of Sociology A Level, that students actively research and engage with social issues and sociological content outside of the classroom as well as within class. To do this, the resource has been designed, both in terms of the content and type of activities, to be used as a springboard to provide a framework for guiding further sociological interest, interaction and research.

Please note that some of the YouTube links given as a support resource may contain offensive language, and some of the external links, as well as course content, may contain sensitive content so it is advised to be mindful and sensitive to certain topics dependent on the class. For example, topics such as mental health, sexual violence and racism are featured in this resource.

*S Kneis, July 2015*

#### **Version 1.1, May 2024**

Minor corrections and updates: Corrected references to 'crime' to 'education' on pages 1, 12, 44, 81. Corrected specification reference column for Lessons 17–19, page 4. Corrected link (page 12). Updated reference to tweeting (page 36). Corrected project briefs and removed broken link (page 38).



*A webpage containing all the links listed in this resource is conveniently provided on ZigZag Education's website at **zzed.uk/6022***

*You may find this helpful for accessing the websites rather than typing in each URL.*

### **Free Updates!**

Register your email address to receive any future free updates\* made to this resource or other Sociology resources your school has purchased, and details of any promotions for your subject.

\* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

**Go to [zzed.uk/freeupdates](https://zzed.uk/freeupdates)**



## Suggested Outline Scheme of

Lesson Plan	Title	Content
1	Positivism and Interpretivism	Concepts of objectivity and subjectivity. The relationship between positivism, interpretivism and sociological methods. The nature of 'social facts'. Social action theories; difference between structural and social action theories.
2	Types of Data, Piloting and Sampling	Qualitative and quantitative data; primary and secondary data
3	Research Methods	Sources of data
4	Practical and Ethical Considerations in Research	The practical and ethical considerations influencing choice of topic, choice of method(s) and the conduct of research
5	Theoretical Considerations in Research	Relationship between theory and methods. Research design.
6	Sociology as Science	Debates about subjectivity, objectivity and value freedom. Nature of science, and extent to which Sociology is scientific. The relationship between Sociology and social policy.
7	Functionalist Perspective of the Education System	Functionalist social theory and their explanations of the role and functions of the education system
8	New Right Perspective of the Education System	New Right social theory and their explanations of the role and functions of the education system
9	Marxist Social Theory	Conflict and structural theories of society
10	Marxist Perspective of the Education System	Marxist explanations of the role and functions of the education system
11	Differential Educational Achievement: Social class (i)	Patterns and trends in differential education achievement by social class; different sociological explanations for these trends
12	Differential Educational Achievement: Social class (ii)	Different sociological explanations for social class differences in attainment: internal and external factors
13	Differential Educational Achievement: Gender (i)	Patterns and trends in differential education achievement by gender; different sociological explanations for these trends
14	Differential Educational Achievement: Gender (ii)	Different sociological explanations for gender differences in attainment: internal and external factors
15	Differential Educational Achievement: Ethnicity (i)	Patterns and trends in differential education achievement by ethnicity; different sociological explanations for these trends

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Lesson Plan	Title	Content
16	Differential Educational Achievement: Ethnicity (ii)	Different sociological explanations for ethnicity differences in attainment: internal and external factors
17	Relationships and processes in schools: Labelling theory	Teacher/pupil relationships, labelling, self-fulfilling prophecy
18	Subcultures in schools	Pupil identities and subcultures
19	Organisation of teaching and learning and the hidden curriculum	The organisation of teaching and learning, internal factors and process hidden curriculum
20	The Significance of Educational Policy	The impact of educational policies such as marketization and privatisation
21	The Significance, Impact and Experience of Recent Educational Policies	The impact of educational policies aimed at achieving greater equality of opportunity or outcome. Educational policies in relation to gender, class and ethnic differences. Different sociological explanations of the impact of educational policies
22	Vocational Education, Higher Education and the Impact of Globalisation	Policies to achieve greater equality of opportunity or outcome; the structure, experience, role and impact of education; the impact of globalisation on educational policy

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# Lesson Plan 1: Positivism and Interpretivism

## Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Positivist approach to research
- ✓ Interpretivist approach to research



## You Will

- ☐ Lesson 1
- ☐ Lesson 2
- ☐ Lesson 3 (from 1)
- ☐ Lesson 4

## Starter

### New topic discussion:

Get students to discuss the following ideas either as a class or in groups of 4.

- What is sociology? How can you define the subject? How and where is it used?
- Is sociology valued?
- What is research? Why, when and where is it used? Is all research good?
- Does sociology need research?
- How do we know what we know now about society?

## Main

### Teacher Talks:

Through discussion, encourage students to consider the role of sociology in society. Be sure to cover themes of sociology as a science and the function of social research. Use discussions to gauge the level of understanding of sociology and research. Move on towards considering the role of research in sociology, and then move on to the next section.

### Handouts:

Give out the handouts.

Work through the handouts one paragraph at a time, together as a class. Give students 2 minutes to read the paragraph individually, or choose someone to read the paragraph, stop to recap the content and ensure comprehension of the content. Ask students to explain to you the concept they have just read, to give their own examples. Questions to be raised. Before answering any questions, see if other students can answer.

After the 'positivist' section, as a class, work through an example of understanding the education sector. For example, use the following link to find GCSE results: <http://www.theguardian.com/education/ng-interactive/2014/aug/21/-sp-gcse>

Relate the ideas learnt from the handout to the data on the website and discuss the strengths/weaknesses, what it might tell us about education.

As you go through the notes, pause before the 'Weber: social action theory' section. Do the 'Lesson 1 worksheet: extension task' activity. Have students do the activity. Test the levels of understanding. Afterwards, check that students complete the activity. Clarify any mistakes.

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Following this, continue to finish reading the class notes, pausing for discussion.  
For a video explanation to aid the understanding of ethnomethodology, visit [videos.ed.ac.uk/eric-laurier-social-interaction/](https://www.videos.ed.ac.uk/eric-laurier-social-interaction/)

Once you have finished reading and discussing the class content, give students 5 minutes to answer the 'Lesson 1 questions' individually. Then work through the answers together.

### Plenary

Get students to summarise in no more than four words the following ideas: ontology, epistemology, methodology, positivism, interpretivism, *verstehen*, objective, subjective

While sharing students' four chosen words, discuss whether the class agree with the best definitions.

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# Lesson 1: Positivism and Interpretivism

## Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Positivist approach to research
- ✓ Interpretivist approach to research

Sociology aims to understand the world around us. But how do you reach this understanding? How can you tell which idea is accurate, or better than another? To ensure research is not based on sense or founded on unjustified assumptions, social research is carried out systematically and with rigour and understanding. We need research to help produce sociological knowledge and challenge existing understandings. Social research is also important in terms of its application. Research and theories are used to shape and guide social policy, which can improve the lives of people. While it is agreed that social research is important, the reasons why, and how it should be carried out by sociologists does not have a single overarching answer. To explore social research, look at the differences among sociologists and researchers, the methods of social research, and see what happens to research findings.

## Approaches to Research

There are two main approaches that underpin doing sociological research: positivism and interpretivism. These two frameworks are used to inform ontological, epistemological and methodological concerns. These three notions are explained below:

- *Ontology* is the approach to understanding reality; what is reality and how does it exist?
- *Epistemology* refers to how knowledge is produced, including the methods used in the research. It asks questions such as: what is valid knowledge and how is it produced?
- *Methodology* is the strategy and design of research using certain methods to achieve certain outcomes, for example choosing a particular research method to collect data, such as unstructured interviews for primary qualitative data.

## Positivism

Using a positivist approach to research is to apply a traditional scientific standpoint to the social world; the sociologist is to be understood as a scientist, and sociology as another form of science. Scientific methods are used to achieve knowledge, which is done by carrying out research in the pursuit of measuring facts. These facts are what the social world is made of; they are seen as an **objective** reality. People are understood as acting under social laws and norms which exist *externally* from the individual. Durkheim says that '*collective ways of acting or thinking have a reality outside the individual*', and he argues that these external laws can be measured.

Durkheim underpinned his work with a positivist stance, which means he understood the social world as having laws of human behaviour waiting to be uncovered and analysed. These laws can be defined as *social facts*, a term Durkheim also used to describe any social element, such as institutions, people or beliefs, to explain how he saw these things as objects of the natural world which could be identified, measured and classified. They contain an internal logic and as an external source, exercise control over the individual.

**Objective**  
factual  
**Subjective**  
feelings

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To prove that individuals have external forces acting upon them, and the will, Durkheim studied official statistics to understand suicides. While seen as an individualistic and personal occurrence, Durkheim's work found that suicides are four types, relating to the relationship between the individual and society and regulation.

Positivists see the job of sociological research as to measure social facts that correlate to one another or may have a causal effect. For this reason, any bias is sought to be eliminated from the research process, and research should be based on objective facts to be found. To ensure this, research priorities for positivist research is accurate; reliability – whether it can be repeated; and *generality* – conclusions have wide-ranging applicability. These concepts will be covered in more detail in the next section.

### Interpretivism

For an interpretivist, research is used to gain in-depth understanding to build sociological knowledge. In particular, meanings and experiences are the focus, and empathy is used to understand social life. This pursuit is underpinned by the belief that the social world is distinct from the natural world, and that this social world is made up of people's **subjective** experiences and meanings. For this reason, a sociologist is likened to a detective, in comparison to the scientist role that positivists see.

To explore these ideas through a specific example, the work of Jack Douglas is particularly useful. His work, *The Social Meanings of Suicide*, criticises Durkheim's positivistic study of suicide, using interpretivist approaches to unpick key criticisms in Durkheim's (1897) work. Douglas argues that when studying suicide, sociologists should focus on meanings rather than patterns. He highlights how suicide statistics to inform his theory, different meanings and agendas should be given consideration. For example, when a death is recorded as suicide, it is the decisions made by various factors such as the police, and these decisions are influenced by family and friends. These interactions and decisions produce social reality.

Secondly, while Durkheim looks at a group of incidents that are 'suicides', Douglas highlights that these incidents are a group of different acts which contain multiple meanings; they all have their own social, cultural, historical and political context. While Durkheim used official statistics on the premise that these were social facts, Douglas' theoretical framework meant that he sought a qualitative method, and found that by analysing suicide notes, he could uncover the contexts and meanings of action to gather a richer understanding.

On a different note, Atkinson (1978) argues that while it is important to recognise that definition of suicide is a social construct, this does not mean that these definitions are not important or that they don't have social impacts. Instead, Atkinson argues that sociologists should take the processes that create these definitions and meanings into account as part of their understanding of the social world.

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**Weber: social action theory**

The prominent sociologist Max Weber was an interpretivist, and argued not only **not** possible in sociology, but not desirable either. Instead, Weber's approach is based on *'verstehen'*, which can be loosely translated from German to mean *empathy* or *understanding*; to look at life through someone's understanding of subjectivity and perspective. Weber incorporated these ideas into the development of social action theory. This approach is in contrast to macro-sociology (such as Marxism or functionalism, which will be explored in later lessons), and uses *verstehen* to investigate micro-level interactions. These research decisions are based on notions of social action, which prioritise and understand the social world as being more about individuals than structures. The 'social action' concept refers not just to the behaviour, but also crucially also the meaning that these actions carry.

**Blumer: symbolic interactionism**

Symbolic interactionism is a framework that seeks to understand the meaning of the social process of interaction. In contrast to Durkheim's notion of social facts, symbolic interactionists believe that society exists through people's understanding and experience, because it is created in different ways, under multiple layers of influence. The symbolic interactionist approach is that people apply meanings and create the world around them, so that the social world is outside of these meanings. Therefore the role of the sociologist is to interpret and understand meanings, and understand the process of how individuals see and experience the world. Symbolic interactionists extend this thinking to sociology itself, understanding that social action cannot be separated from values or ideologies.

With the social world being seen as so distinct from the natural world, this led to a very different approach to research. Symbolic interactionists tend to use qualitative research process with methods and analysis that will gather insight and understanding, with these aspects being prioritised over elements such as reliability.

**Ethnomethodology**

Garfinkel (1967) developed this approach in the aim of overcoming structuralist theories', to instead focus on the practices and processes of people. Emergent from phenomenology, Garfinkel was keen to emphasise that ethnomethodology should be used to gain a deeper understanding rather than a prescriptive theory or methodology.

The aim of the approach is to understand the reality and experience of the social world. It looks at the routines and activities that go on in the realm of the social, where relationships, interactions and meanings are created, conducted and maintained. It is not only to understand social codes, processes and practices, but also to see how they are used and used. This is the object of inquiry, instead of gaining truth or validity. Ethnomethodology may be understood as political, shifting to seek out to understand society and social order.

Applying this to the research process, ethnomethodology seeks to gain a deeper understanding of everyday routines and meanings to uncover social norms, in contrast to those that use ethnomethodology often use methods such as conversational analysis, participant observation and oral histories, to gain a rich and deep account of social life. It is known in the social science realm for using and developing creative methodological research methods.

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To help clarify the difference in approaches, the following table signals the difference between each approach:

	<b>Positivist</b>
<b>Nature of social world/ reality (Ontology)</b>	Objective Measurable
<b>Aim of research (Epistemology)</b>	Explain
<b>Knowledge created from research (Epistemology)</b>	Laws Causes and correlations Universal
<b>Relationship between the researcher and the participant (Methodology)</b>	Distinct and separate
<b>Research questions and focus (Methodology)</b>	How many people experience something What causes events to occur

## Lesson 1 Questions

1. Explain what is meant by ontology, epistemology and methodology.
2. What is meant by Weber's term '*verstehen*'?
3. How did Durkheim use positivism in his study of suicides?
4. How does using positivism or interpretivism as a framework impact on research?

### Extension Task

Using 'Lesson 1: Extension task worksheet' provided, cut out the boxes from the table. Try to complete the exercise without looking at the class notes.

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## Lesson 1: Extension Task Worksheet

Durkheim – study of suicide	Sociologist as detective
Gain knowledge of facts, and to understand causes and correlations	Reality as objective
Weber – <i>verstehen</i>	Yes, research findings
Reality as subjective	No, research findings place, culture
Gain meaning, insight and perspective	Sociologist as scientist

	Positivist	
Ontological approach		
Key thinker and concept		
Role of sociologist in research		
Reason for sociological research		
Is the research applicable to everyone?		

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## Lesson Plan 2: Types of Data and

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Qualitative and quantitative data
- ✓ Primary and secondary data
- ✓ Techniques of sampling



### You Will Need

- ☐ Lesson 21
- ☐ Lesson 20
- ☐ the back of
- ☐ Lesson 21
- ☐ Internet a

### Starter

#### Interviewing and data analysis:

Watch the following clip of an interview: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=...>

In small groups, apply the knowledge they have learnt so far by discussing and assess the usefulness of the interview. The following information/topics: data for the interviewer, and provides qualitative data– shows strengths data; strengths: it shows subjective insight, interviewer able to clarify co limitations: interview may go off tangent, relies on ability of interviewer

### Main

#### Handouts:

Give the handouts out to the class, and give students five minutes to read and 'Qualitative and Quantitative' section of the notes.

Once they have read this, put the students in pairs and label one person 'qualitative'. Students must take it in turns to give their partner the definitions and disadvantages of their type of data.

#### Teacher Talks:

Download and listen to a podcast from the following site:

<https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p02nrss1/episodes>

Choose a podcast which has interesting content to engage the students; if any relating to education and the later content of this unit. Listen to the podcast and discuss data. Have the students in small groups discuss the data and findings. Bring the discussions back together as a class by applying this to understanding of secondary data and the importance of being aware of the source should

Have students complete section A of the extension task from the Lesson Plan. Summarise and make a useful revision note of primary and secondary data.

As a class, work through the rest of the handout. Read together the 'summary' section of the handouts, by selecting students to read aloud.

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To consolidate the sampling sections, complete the following activity:  
Divide the class into three groups. Get each group to decide who they would interview, what topics, and how they would go about getting their participants.

- A: Chinese students' perceptions of the importance of school
- B: Male teacher teaching styles
- C: Female student use of break times

Once groups have decided, report back to the rest of the class. After comparing the class notes, refer back to the start activity and see if students would do the same.

Give the students five minutes to individually answer the questions on the worksheet.

Afterwards, mark the answers as a class.

Depending on time, after this, have students complete part B of the extension worksheet. If in class, put students into small groups to work through the rest of the worksheet. If not, set it as a homework activity for students to do individually. At the beginning of the next lesson, discuss their decisions and approaches to sampling.

## Plenary

### Noughts and crosses:

Draw a noughts and crosses grid on the board, and put the class into two teams. Each team takes turns to put a nought or cross in their chosen box if they answer the question correctly. If the question passes to the other team.

Question bank:

- Q: True or false: quantitative data may be presented as a percentage.
- A: True
- Q: True or false: qualitative data is quick and easy to code and group.
- A: False
- Q: Define operationalisation.
- A: Defining and agreeing on a definition of key concepts and terms that ensure clarity and consistency
- Q: Which is usually cheaper to obtain, primary or secondary data?
- A: Secondary
- Q: A list of the population to choose a sample from is called a \_\_\_\_\_.
- A: Sampling frame
- Q: Which sampling technique is often used in market research?
- A: Quota
- Q: What is the name of the sampling technique that begins with a few people and then grows from their recommendations and referrals?
- A: Snowball sampling
- Q: Which of the following is an important consideration in selecting a sample?
- A: Representativeness
- Q: Does qualitative or quantitative data have higher reliability?
- A: Quantitative

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## Lesson 2: Types of Data, Piloting and

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Qualitative and quantitative data
- ✓ Primary and secondary data
- ✓ Techniques of sampling

### Types of Data

#### Qualitative and Quantitative

*Quantitative* data is data which can be measured in numbers, and may be analysed using statistics. This type of data is favoured by positivist research approaches. The data is quantifiable, meaning that it can be counted or mathematically calculated and is favoured by positivist research approaches. Examples of quantitative data are the results of a survey which has multiple-choice answers. The diagram below explores the strengths and limitations of quantitative data:

- Strengths**
- Can span large numbers – in terms of number of questions and number of respondents
  - Able to generalise
  - Useful and able to make systematic comparisons
  - Distance between researcher and participant limits personal bias

#### Quantitative

- Limited range of responses
- Able to generalise results
- May be more accurate
- Less likely to be biased
- No need for complex analysis

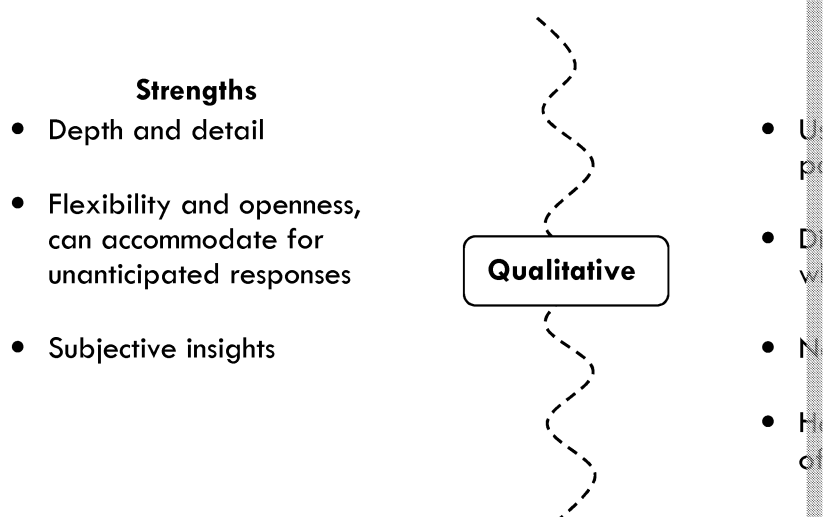
On the other hand, *qualitative* data is data that is made of words, in an oral or written sense, and produces in-depth answers to reveal understanding, which reason interpretivists favour this type of data. An example of this is the responses of an unstructured interview, or a diary. Data focuses on experiences, subjectivity and meanings which are gained through an individual's sharing and participation in a research method.

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The diagram below shows the strengths and limitations of qualitative data.



### Primary and Secondary

*Primary* data is the term to describe data that the researcher collects themselves. When a researcher conducts an interview, the transcripts that come from this are examples of primary data. The strengths of using this approach to data collection are that the data is produced exclusively for the researcher and is tailored to the **hypothesis**. However, the downsides to using primary data collection method, consuming time, money and resources which aren't always readily available. It also entails many ethical implications, which are considerations for the researcher and the impact of the research.

This is in contrast to *secondary* data, which is when a researcher analyses and uses data which is already in existence. This may be from someone else's research method, such as official statistics, or it may be sources such as newspaper articles or personal documents. Although researchers do not have a role in the creation of the data or the research-gathering stage, researchers analyse, interpret and compare the data to inform their theory. Secondary data is likely to be used over primary data for any of the following reasons:

- The data required is already *in existence* and so it is more time-efficient. Sociologists can use the data that is already available.
- *Access* – groups or events may be difficult to access or reach, be in a restricted area, involve illegal activity or be in a different geographical location, and so it is easier to conduct research using existing information. It is useful for covering a wide range of topics within one study as the data is already available and may be accessed from multiple sources. Secondary data is often (although not always) easy, cheap and accessible.
- *Resources* – time and money restrictions may lead researchers to use secondary data rather than collect their own; secondary data is normally much cheaper.
- *Historical* – depending on the research topic, the events or participants may not be available now, such as if the participants are dead or the data has been lost. Secondary sources may be the only access into the research topic.

**Hypothesis**  
predicted research outcome

**Operationalisation**  
agreeing on definitions and terms for research

However, secondary sources are less useful if they do not cover the exact researcher is attempting to explore, and so cannot provide the information. **Operationalisation** must be considered; key questions include who compiled the data and motivations, and their use of certain terms. For example, if a business provides data, is the research free from bias, or is it possible there is an agenda involved? If a researcher cannot change the data of a secondary source, they must be careful to consider this when interpreting and analysing it.

## Sampling

Before we explore the different methods of gathering data, some care must be taken as to what is going to be researched. A research population may be a nation, school or group of individuals with certain criteria; it is the defined group of people that are being studied. However, it is difficult to include an entire population. If you are interested in French boys' attitudes to gangs, for example, it is not going to be possible to study everyone in France. Instead, sociologists use a sample, which is a small proportion of the population relevant to the study. However, for obvious reasons such as time and money, it is not possible to include everyone. Therefore, in choosing the sample, it is the people that are representative and reflect the population.

First, a sampling frame is compiled, which is a list of all the possible participants. This provides a list so that a sampling approach can then be used to choose the sample. The sample may be collected from within the sampling frame. A sampling frame is a list of all the individuals which may be used, such as the electoral register, the school register or the telephone directory. There are different approaches to gaining a sample; listed below are some of the ways in which data can be gathered:

- *Random* sampling – this may be done by assigning a number to each individual in the sampling frame and using a random number generator to select the sample. This approach is used to ensure that every individual has an equal chance of being chosen from the sampling frame completely at random.
- *Systematic* sampling – using a set way or a rule to choose people from the sampling frame. For example, every ninth person from the sampling frame.
- *Stratified* sampling – here, the sampling frame divides people by certain characteristics. Individuals are chosen by criteria so that the sample is proportionately representative of the population. For example, if 55% of a given population are female, then 55% of the sample must also be 55% female.
- *Quota* sampling – a number of people is set who must contain certain characteristics. The sampling is carried out until this quota is filled. This is often the approach used in market research. For example the set criteria could be for 50 males under the age of 35.
- *Snowball* sampling – often used for participants who are difficult to reach. The researcher starts with one participant and the researcher then goes on recommending further participants.
- *Volunteer* sampling – when an advert is placed and individuals participate in the research.
- *Opportunity* sampling – these participants are gained because of their availability. For example, if you want to research teachers, approaching people in a school would be an opportunity sample.

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When considering what type of sample to use, the researcher must consider the type of method being used. For example, quantitative methods lend themselves to large samples, while it is impractical for qualitative methods to include a lot of samples. Every sampling approach has a different degree of representativeness, and it is important being representative is to the research aims and motivations.

### Piloting

As it can sometimes be particularly difficult to predict all situations or problems in the research, a pilot study is usually carried out. A *pilot study* is when a small amount of research is done before the entire research methods are executed. They are carried out for the following main reasons:

- To check the feasibility of the research project
- To allow the researcher to practise and prepare their method before the larger project
- To develop and refine the approach to the research, such as checking the order of questions
- To indicate unintended or previously unforeseen logistical or theoretical issues
- A source of initial data: useful for the researchers and if needed to inform the main study
- To help to devise time and resource budgets for the research project

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## Lesson 2 Questions

1. Define quantitative data.
2. List advantages of qualitative data.
3. What is the difference between primary and secondary data?
4. In what instances would a researcher use secondary data?
5. Why do researchers use a sample?

### Extension Task

A: Complete 'Lesson 2: Extension task worksheet'.

Fill in the table to summarise advantages and disadvantages of p

B: Using your knowledge of sampling techniques, decide which ap  
gather a sample for the following research projects.

Remember to consider aspects such as representativeness, conver

- i) Research question: To understand police perceptions of youth  
Method: Unstructured interviews
- ii) Research question: Is there a pattern or trend between who t  
Method: Closed questionnaire
- iii) Research question: Do pre-existing conceptions and judgment  
Method: Semi-structured interviews
- iv) Research question: Does criminal activity occur in boardroom  
Method: Semi-structured interview

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Data type	Strengths	
Primary data		
Secondary data		

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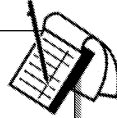


## Lesson Plan 3: Research Methods

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Different research methods, their strengths and limitations
- ✓ Open and closed questions



### You Will

- ☐ Less
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- ☐ Inter

### Starter

#### Recap:

Feed back ideas and finish working through ideas from the extension task regarding sampling techniques. Have students compare and contrast the methods and have them justify why they chose each technique.

#### Initial ideas spider diagram:

As a class on the board, write down all the research methods that students come up to the board to write them on, and as they do, in another column. As more students come to the board to add as much information as they can to each method. E.g.: someone writes 'interview', then another student writes qualitative

#### Discussion:

Has anyone ever been at school when an Ofsted inspector was there? How do you think observations as a method in an educational setting, and the possibility of being observed, change from its normal behaviour or routine? How has this method shaped your behaviour? Have an effect? Try to have students realise the impact and effect that change has on their behaviour.

### Main

#### Handouts:

Give the handouts to the class. Read the introduction on the class notes and the examples demonstrated in the starter activity; reflect on the lesson learning objectives and the collection methods.

Then, break students up into small groups so that there are nine groups. Give each group a handout, assign each group a research method. Give the students three minutes to prepare their allocated research method, and have the students come up with a 30-second demonstration of their method. Work your way through the table on the handout. For each row on the table, have the group act out their example of the method. For each column on the table, discuss the strengths and limitations of each method. This will give students an understanding of when the method is best used.

Watch the following video clips as you get to each method to further illustrate the method. Participant observation: Louis Theroux clip <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6hsov0jRvYk> Documents: the difficulty between public and private sources, issues of access to information: WikiLeaks story – <http://www.theguardian.com/media/wikileaks> Example of a focus group: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6hsov0jRvYk> Example of semi-structured interview: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6hsov0jRvYk>

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Have students answer the questions on the Lesson 3 question sheet. Work together as a class immediately afterwards.

Have students independently read the 'types of questions' and 'Hawthorne

To understand the Hawthorne effect, split the class into four groups. Send one group out of the room; they have the role of 'researcher'. Instruct students, or 'participants', to discuss what they are doing at the weekend. After talking for 30 seconds, bring the group back in, and instruct them their job is to be a non-participant observer for teenagers in the area. After two minutes of talking, bring the class together. Ask the 'researcher' and 'participants' to express how it felt being in that role, and whether they noticed the Hawthorne effect. Did it make a difference? Why?

If there is time, have students complete the extension task activity on the worksheet. If time does not allow, set the extension task as a homework.

## Plenary

### Pass the hat

Get the class to stand in a circle. Give a hat full of paper slips to someone. Each piece of paper has a theme, concept or term on it. The person picks a slip and give as much information as they can about the concept that is written on it. If they successfully cover their chosen concept, they sit down. If they cannot and no one else is picked, they must pass and let someone else talk about it. Students choose a new slip and it continues until everyone in the circle has explained a concept and sat down.

Suggestions for topics for the paper: strengths of each method, limitations of each method, operationalisation, qualitative, quantitative, open question, closed question, sampling frame, positivism, interpretivism, subjective, objective, ontology

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## Lesson 3: Research Methods

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Different research methods, their strengths and limitations
- ✓ Open and closed questions

### Research Methods

There is a wide range of research methods available to sociologists. The methods that are used in the research designs in contemporary sociology suitability. Remember to apply understandings of key terms learnt in previous lessons to the uses of these methods.

Research Method	Strengths	Limitations
<b>Primary data collection methods</b>		
<b>Structured survey/questionnaire/interview</b> – this may be in the form of a questionnaire or interview and may be done face to face, in the post, via email or over the phone. The researcher writes the questions and usually provides a choice of answers as well. There is little to no scope for changing the questions or topics of the research.	Quick to administer and complete Reliable Able to cover large numbers of people and areas Researcher has control – may keep research on topic Able to standardise which means there is high reliability	Issues of response rate Limited depth and complexity Concerns of the sample Operationalisation of concepts is difficult to keep consistent Researcher has a lot of control which reduces status of participants Allow for unanticipated responses
<b>Questionnaire/interview using open questions</b> – usually in the form of an interview, uses open questions. A semi-structured interview is also sometimes used, and this means the interviewer when interviewing a person follows a guide and suggestion of questions but has room to change the questions and be flexible.	Depth, complexity and unanticipated responses are found in the data	Costly Time-consuming – doing transcription, analysis
<b>Participant observation</b> – A researcher interacts and becomes part of a situation or group. A high level of involvement; the researcher immerses themselves in the situation and with the people. The researcher may be covert, meaning the participants are not aware of the researcher's role, or overt, meaning the other participants know the role of the researcher and the research.	Depth of knowledge, perspective and experience Understand micro-level social world Access to groups that are often inaccessible	Ethics – it is difficult to get researcher is covert Even ethical implications of being in a situation to such an extent poses issues Difficulty of access for observation such as subcultures Time-consuming – it is costly for researchers to spend months conducting this research It can be difficult for the researcher to leave once the research has started Difficult to record notes while participating If the researcher is overt Hawthorne effect

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Research Method	Strengths	Limitations
<b>Non-participant observation</b> – A researcher enters a setting and observes things such as relationships, processes, activities and interactions but does not take part in any of the occurrences in the setting. The researcher may be overt or covert.	Able to be close to the event or people but have enough distance to systematically record observations	Difficult for the research participants to participate once in the setting. If the researcher is overt, Hawthorne effect
<b>Focus groups</b> – Group of people that will be guided to discuss and share ideas or experiences. The researcher may have a varying degree of involvement; some may guide conversation and have an interview structure, while others may let the group talk between themselves.	Can often give power to participants if they are controlling the conversation Reveals people's views in a context Shows how the process of thoughts and opinions form Reveals group dynamics Group formats can sometimes bring out themes or content that would not have been raised in one-on-one interviews	Group dynamics – sometimes the louder people dominate the discussion and do not let quieter participants speak Hard to get a conversation between participants Data can be difficult to analyse
<b>Case study</b> – In-depth research of one case. A case may be a person, situation or event. A single case is understood and researched, as opposed to a whole population, and usually done over a long period of time.	Gain detailed, holistic and in-depth understandings/observations Able to research participants or situations that are not widely available	Time-consuming Difficult to generalise to a population
<b>Experiments</b> – Applying natural sciences approach to sociology and social life. Laboratory experiments are when variables are controlled in laboratories to find causal relationships. Field experiments differ because while they still attempt to manipulate a variable, the research is conducted in normal, everyday environments which are natural to the participants.	Reliable Laboratory experiments – control over the research process	Laboratory experiments are reflective of the usual environment Field experiments – difficult to control the variables
<b>Secondary data collection methods</b>		
<b>Official statistics</b> – Secondary quantitative data published by governments and other official bodies. Examples would be the census provided by the UK government, or development indicators compiled by the World Bank.	Cheap and accessible to obtain Useful for historical contexts or to research things that are in the past Useful for comparisons across time	Hidden statistics – as the data is often quantitative, sometimes the depth needed to understand the data collection, political and economic factors

Research Method	Strengths	Limitations
<b>Documents</b> – Secondary sources of data that are analysed by researchers. Can be categorised in four main categories: (1) personal documents such as letters and diaries, (2) public documents such as government reports and school records, (3) mass media such as newspaper articles and TV shows, (4) historical documents which are items from the past, such as political treaties and agreements.	Cheap to do research – often documents are free to obtain and easily accessed Useful for historical understanding or comparison Good source for content or discursive analysis	Not reliable Can be difficult to verify if researcher did not gather information, it can be difficult to determine the motivation

Although the table has separated primary and secondary research methods, in many ways already official statistics or documents are available for sociologists. Data can also be collected from interviews, experiments, case studies and other primary data collection methods. Other sociologists may use their research to inform or be part of their research, at which point they may use secondary data.

### Types of question

For methods where the researcher is asking the participant questions, such as a survey or interview, two types of question may be used. *Closed* questions may be used where there are a set of possible answers that have answers already supplied, and simply require the participant to select the answer that suits their response. An example of this is multiple-choice questionnaire. The scope of the question is specific and has a set of given answers. These types of question produce quantitative data, and are useful for coding information or understanding patterns. They are often included with these types of answer to cover any cases that cannot be covered by the options. An example of a closed question is shown below.

**In the past year, how many criminal offences have you committed?**

☐ 0      ☐ 1      ☐ 2      ☐ 3      ☐ More than 3 (or more)

In contrast to this, *open* questions, which are usually used for qualitative research, allow participants to provide their own answers, allowing personal opinion, experience and feelings to be explored. These questions usually provoke more in-depth responses, and require more analysis; instead of inputting the data into graphs, it must be analysed in words or language. An open question-and-answer format is used in unstructured interviews. An example of an open question is shown below.

**How do you feel about police presence in your local area?**

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## Hawthorne effect

Sometimes known as the observer effect, the Hawthorne effect is the recognition that during the research collection, participants may act differently or say things that are not true because they are aware that they are being researched. This is particularly experienced in certain methods such as overt participant observation, or for topic areas that may be sensitive or illegal.

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## Lesson 3 Questions

1. Explain the difference between closed and open questions.
2. List some quantitative research methods.
3. Why are experiments not often used in sociological research?
4. List the types of document that may be used as data sources.
5. Compare and contrast a researcher's different options if they require

### Extension Task

Write questions for the following social research requirements:

- a) Structured questionnaire wanting to investigate students' approach to exams
- b) Semi-structured interview guide to interview female students to explore their perceptions towards exams
- c) Semi-structured guide for a researcher to conduct a focus group with African-Caribbean males and their attitudes towards university

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## Lesson Plan 4: Practical and Ethical Considerations

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Practical considerations in the research process
- ✓ What ethical considerations are and how they enter the research process



### You Will

- ☐ Lesson 4
- ☐ Lesson 5 (from 1911 to 1918)
- ☐ Lesson 6
- ☐ Internet access

### Starter

Recap from last lesson; go over answers from the extension task.

Put students in small groups, and ask them to brainstorm factors that may affect the research process. After they have spent 4–5 minutes coming up with ideas in groups, create a board to collate all the ideas together.

### Main

Have the students independently read through the first half of the handout: the **'ethical considerations'** section. Pause here to ask students questions to check up on any questions or queries they have about the content. See if the students can support the content, as the case study box does.

Have students answer questions 1 and 2 from the Lesson 4 question sheet.

As a class, read the rest of the handout: the **'ethical considerations'** section. Go into any further detail about the concept, clarifying anything the students may not have understood. For comprehension, have students explain some of the key concepts back to the class.

Answer questions 3 and 4 from the Lesson 4 question sheet. If internet access is available, have students research the BSA website and complete the extension task activity as listed on the Lesson 4 extension task.

### Plenary

#### BSA Ethics Committee:

The **'Lesson 4: Plenary activity worksheet'** provided gives four different tasks. Divide the class into four groups and allocate them each a research task. The groups will then present their findings to the ethics committee (which will be formed by the class) to try to obtain approval for their research. Students must ensure their pitch explores the bullet points listed. Allow 10 minutes to prepare, but presentations will be given at the beginning of the next class.

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## Lesson 4: Practical and Ethical Considerations

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Practical considerations in the research process
- ✓ What ethical considerations are and how they enter the research process

As we have seen so far, at every stage of the research process decisions must be made – from the beginning in choosing what to research, to the methods used to explore the research question, and until the end with the process of which theoretical approach to use to analyse and interpret the data. It is therefore important for a researcher to be **reflexive** when conducting research, and for others to understand how decisions and other factors affect the data generated by research.

### Practical Considerations

The first element of research considerations are any practical constraints and logistics that may influence the research process. They can be understood in three broad categories;

- **Resources.** Research is a long process from start to finish, and *time* as a factor can often be overlooked. Researchers must compile research teams, find participants, complete the method, and spend time on transcribing and then analysing the results, and producing a theoretical purpose from the data. Time available for this process will influence which method is chosen and how results are analysed. Another key resource factor is funding. The research process costs money, from the equipment needed to paying salaries for employees and academics involved. Often money is available from governments, organisations and institutions such as universities. However, for sociology particularly, funding is limited and therefore very competitive. The availability of funding will therefore determine whether research goes ahead or not.
- **Access.** The 'who' and 'where' element to your research topic will influence whether the research can be carried out, and if so, in what form. Groups or individuals may not be forthcoming to participate in the research, or access. This may be because their activities are illegal, or the research is too personal. Power dynamics may also factor in, as the rich and powerful deny access to researchers, more so than vulnerable groups. The location can also be an influencing factor; for example, a geographically remote area may be difficult to access.
- **Researcher characteristics.** A researcher may have particular skills, which lends itself better to particular forms of research. For example, a researcher with a career as a police officer may be particularly suited to conducting observations with the police because they are aware of the processes specific to this field. Other researcher characteristics may also influence the research, such as race, ethnicity and age. For example, a male researcher may be more suited to participant observation research on female prisoners.

#### Case Study

In 1990, a researcher added to this already existing work was to complete a comparison of the work in a school after completion of a department would be added to the sales and the comparison on the

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These aspects may not just influence how the research is carried out, but are not just logistical considerations; they have the capacity to shape the discipline of sociology as a whole.

### Ethical Considerations

Morals, understood as what is right or wrong, are an important element. Researchers have a moral duty to be ethical in all aspects and stages of their research. In other terms, ethical considerations equate to ensuring no one is harmed by the research. Of the research on participants are an obvious consideration, the impacts on wider society should also be considered. This is because sociology plays a key role in social policy, and so researchers should be considerate of the effects that their research may have. For example, studying a social problem area such as delinquent youth should attract attention to this group, which could result in the creation of harsher punishment and a greater understanding towards the group.

The three main aspects that researchers consider when devising their research are: *Harm*, *Honesty* and *Privacy*.

- *Harm* refers to any physical, emotional or social effects that are caused by the research. This may be for the participants, the researcher, or wider society. For example, if research is published about schools and teachers, this may negatively impact the reputation of people in the profession. For some research methods it is easier to avoid harm. For example, a postal questionnaire is almost guaranteed to cause no harm. Participant observation which may encounter moral grey areas.
- *Honesty* is the notion that deception should be absent or kept to a minimum. The purpose of the research, what will happen during the process, and the risks should be fully explained to all of those involved. With honesty, research is ethically sound, and this can be proven by gaining **informed consent**. However, difficulties arise when covert methods are used, if researchers are required of the research to minimise the Hawthorne effect, or vulnerable groups. In some instances within sociology whereby research has been approved without deception, based on the fact that the purpose of the data is overall benefit to participants than any harm caused by the process.
- *Privacy* is ensured to protect and keep identities and places confidential. It is not acceptable to reveal the identities of participants of the research. Anonymity is an ethical consideration is not a concern. Participants must also be able to withdraw from the research at any time, and that they have the right to refuse to take part in any part of the research they do not wish to engage with.

Informing participants usually means that research means participants know why they are taking part in the project and what will happen.

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**Vulnerable Groups**

This refers to groups or individuals who, because of a circumstance or condition, are vulnerable or open to being exploited or deceived. This damage could be on a physical, emotional or psychological level. Vulnerable groups are usually considered to be elderly, those with mental health issues, and minors.

The British Sociological Association (BSA), in its guidelines to research, calls for care to be taken to ensure that vulnerable groups are safeguarded and that they are able to participate in research.

The concern for these groups is that they are disempowered in society, and this is replicated in the research process. However, some argue that it is important to be vulnerable as a category/label is imposed on people, and that this description is to their experience.

Ethics can be a difficult element of the research process, as it is rarely black and white. In some areas, the BSA publishes a set of guidelines that must be abided by when conducting research. It outlines areas that are either acceptable or inappropriate in terms of conducting research. If research is carried out, it must be approved by an institution or organisation to satisfy ethical expectations. So although it is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that there are safeguards in place that monitor research which helps to regulate it, keep its research respectable.

To read the full ethical statement visit <http://www.bsa.ac.uk/ethicalstatement>

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## Lesson 4 Questions

1. How may funding impact sociological research?
2. List the practical considerations that impact the research design.
3. How is the participants' privacy ensured?
4. What is the definition of ethical considerations and why are they important?

### Extension Task

Find and read the British Sociological Association's Ethical Guidelines at <http://www.britsoc.co.uk/media/27107/StatementofEthicalPractice.pdf>. Write more than two sentences the points under each subheading.

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**Ethical Considerations in Research**

- A: You want to understand differences in male and female education ethnographic research of overt observation and interviews with boys in schools. You are aware that during the observations, some of the boys drink and smoke.
- B: You are exploring the impact of family life on educational attainment with 40 families of different classes and ethnicities from the same school exploring all aspects and dynamics of family life, to include relationships.
- C: To understand organisational structures within schools, you do cover staff offices. You want to understand how some students are selected for 'gifted for elite universities group'.
- D: You want to conduct a focus group with parents of disabled children to explore experiences of families of disabled students. This research is needed to support these students and to understand their current experiences.

You must outline and explain:

- What the research is
- How you are going to conduct the research
- What the practical considerations are
- What the ethical considerations are
- Why the research is important
- How you are going to ensure ethical conduct is achieved

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## Lesson Plan 5: Theoretical Consideration

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Theoretical influences in choosing a research method
- ✓ Theoretical approaches to the role of sociology



### You Will

- ☐ Lesson 5
- ☐ Lesson 6 (from 1950s)

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### Starter

To follow from last lesson's plenary activity; allow each group to present afterwards allow time for a Q&A. After this, the class must vote on whether to happen or not. When deciding whether the research is approved, the ethics guide as the criteria for whether the research is permitted.

### Recap:

Without looking at previous notes, have students explain positivism and cover ontological, epistemological and methodological points to the front two teams within the class (each group has either positivism or interpretivism) / small groups where discussion is summarised and shared afterwards.

### Main

Hand out the reading material for this lesson, and take it in turns for students to read the text with students making their own notes as they go along, from the section 'The relationship of theory and methods'. After each paragraph, discuss new concepts in relation to previous lesson content, such as their bearing on data; primary / secondary data; positivism/interpretivism.

Split the class into three groups and assign them one of the following: inductive, deductive, grounded. Give the groups 10 minutes to read the whole section, and then have each group present and informing the rest of the class specifically about their topic. Then take a class vote on which method is best to present their findings/presentation.

Answer the questions on the Lesson 5 question sheet. In small groups, have students contrast their answers, and spend time with each group so that they can explain their reasoning.

Have students complete the extension task activity on the Lesson 5 question sheet.

### Plenary

#### Yes or No:

Assign one side of the classroom as the 'no' side, and one side as the 'yes' side of the classroom depending on whether they feel they could answer the question. Once students have stood on one side, get students from the 'yes' side to move to the 'no' side. If everyone is on the yes side, double-check students' understanding as a class, work through the knowledge needed.

#### Suggested statements/concepts to check:

Reliability, Hawthorne effect, validity, representativeness, inductive, deductive

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## Lesson 5: Theoretical Considerations

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Theoretical influences in choosing a research method
- ✓ Theoretical approaches to the role of sociology

As well as practical and ethical dimensions, as covered in the last lesson, considerations that enter the research process. These revolve mainly around the effectiveness of research methods, as well as the extent and role of value

Three criteria are often used to decide and influence which methods to use in the research design, and they are explored below.

#### Reliability

If research is reliable, it is possible to repeat the research, and give the same results every time. This is done to check the data, ensure accuracy and minimise errors. If research has been tested in this way, it is then possible to allow generalisation to be made from the data. While reliability is a factor easily attained in the natural sciences, it is more difficult to achieve in social sciences. Different types of data have different levels of reliability; for example, quantitative data is more likely to be reliable than qualitative, and closed questions more reliable than open. However, not all social scientists look for reliability to measure research; positivists tend to use this criterion to measure research's effectiveness while interpretivists do not place reliability with high priority and instead prefer to ensure research is valid.

#### Validity

This is a term to convey the extent to which data is a reflection of what it represents. For example, if someone says in an interview that they are concerned with the validity of research, because it is important that the data is true in its reflection of social life. A concern in research that can arise through research is the *Hawthorne effect*.

#### Representativeness

A concept which is important in making the research relevant to context. Representativeness means the extent to which the research is applicable to a population. Usually, the larger the number of participants there are, the more representative the data is. However, if data is in depth and valid, a smaller sample can be representative of a certain group or population.

#### Exam Tip

There is a link between reliability and the research process. Validity and consistency in research design or methodology may be used in an exam:



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## Triangulation

Although quantitative and qualitative methods and evaluation criteria are markedly different, they do not have to remain distinct from one another. As Bryman (1988) argues, research does not have to be an either-or approach; the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative methods, positivist and interpretivist approaches can be utilised together in a complementing manner. One way in which this is achieved is through the technique of *triangulation*, which is when multiple methods are used within the research process to enhance the results and build on their reliability, validity and representativeness. Bryman encourages this technique, arguing that individually a method cannot give a whole picture, but that by combining approaches, a more holistic insight into social life can be achieved. In particular, quantitative methods are useful in finding correlations, while qualitative methods have the capacity to understand these relationships.

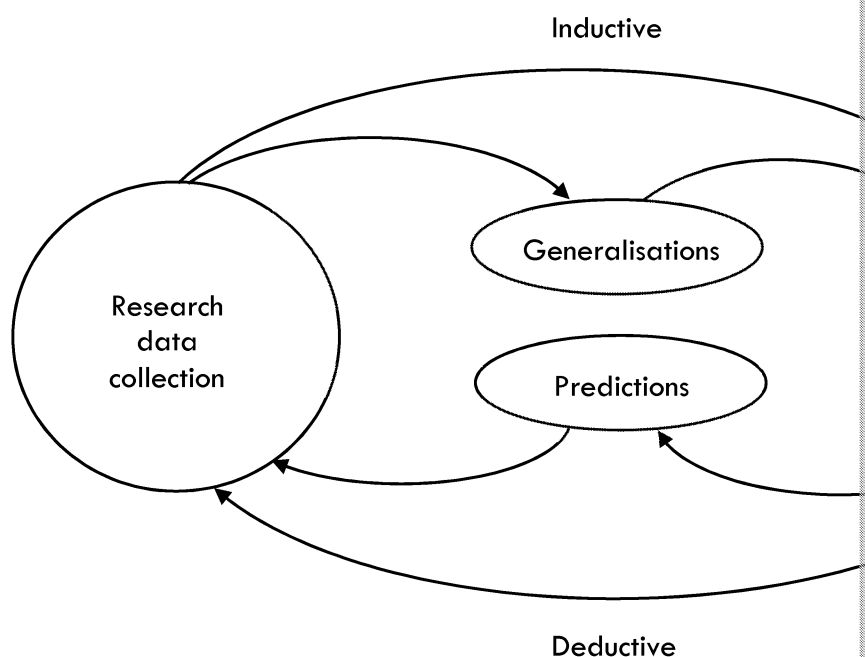
## The Relationship of Theory and Methods

### *Inductive and deductive approach*

The following are two routes in which theory or data may guide or shape the outcome of the research pursuit.

The **inductive** approach begins with observations and research. Researcher gather and obtain data, which is then analysed to find patterns and trends. There is no theoretical framework, allowing the theories to be applied after the data patterns emerge. Usually the research data is relevant to the context of the research. As the process goes on, generalisations evolve and theories are formed.

In contrast, the **deductive** approach begins from a theoretical standpoint which is informed by sociological theory, and then data is collected to test the theory. At this stage, the data and hypothesis are examined to shape and inform the theory. The feedback then feeds back into the broader theory. The diagram below shows the difference between the two approaches.



However, the relationship between theory and methods does not have to be limited to these two categories.

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## Grounded theory

Developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), grounded theory's purpose is to develop theory from data. They argue that the relationship of data should draw on both inductive and deductive methods. Theory and methods may work to both *generate* and *verify* theory. Although Glaser and Strauss formed the foundations for grounded theory, since their initial writings, many other researchers have developed it in different directions. Today, grounded theory is popular as a methodology that can be used in both inductive and deductive, positivist and interpretivist schools, and there are many different theorists that work on, and use, the theory.

Aspects of objectivity that are used in grounded theory are a desire to be open to new ideas and an approach, such as that there is theory waiting to be 'discovered'. Interpretive grounded theory through its use of qualitative methods, and its influences of symbolic interactionism. Strauss' grounded theory understands that humans act based on meanings that are derived out from interactions. It blends these two opposing notions into practice with a positivist framework; for example, in the data collection process, researchers must be aware of preconceptions and assumptions when designing the research topic and in obtaining a sample or data collection techniques. In terms of analysis, researchers must identify themes, which then guide the next set of data collection. In grounded theory, question/topic and data collection are not distinct stages but both inform each other. Data collection, analysis and returning for more data collection continues until the researcher is confirmed to a point when theory is generated or discovered.

Grounded theory therefore uses systematic forms of research usually for qualitative research while subjectivities are accounted for and included, which is the priority. The continual process that grounded theory uses to inform as well as generate theory means that a blend of both inductive and deductive methods are used.

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## Lesson 5 Questions

1. Define reliability, validity and representativeness.
2. What is triangulation?
3. If a researcher didn't want to use an inductive or deductive approach, process, outline and explain what approach a researcher might use.

### Extension Task

#### Microblog Recap

In no more than 280 characters, write a social media post (this could be a tweet or a video) for each of the following topics to recap/define the concept:

- Practical considerations in research
- Ethical considerations in research
- Theoretical considerations in research
- Relationship between theory and methods

*Tip: Be concise and informative! These will serve as great revision summaries.*

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## Lesson Plan 6: Sociology as Science

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Concepts of objectivity, subjectivity applied to understanding sociology as a science
- ✓ Role of values in theory and methods, the pursuit of value freedom
- ✓ Relationship between sociology and social policy



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### Starter

#### Washing line task:

To recap last lesson / aspects which bear on the research process, and to begin, have students identify as many elements as they can of *aspects of the research process*. Write each idea on a piece of paper. (Aspects from practice should arise.)

Next, ask for as many volunteers as there are written ideas, and give one. The task is to, as a class, order the ideas in a line, with one end of the class 'most impact on the research process' and the other end 'least impact on the research process'. Voicing their understandings of these concepts as well as assessing and

### Main

#### Teacher Talks:

Remind students of the opening discussion for this unit in Lesson 1, where we discussed the nature of sociology, its credibility and its function in both academia and wider society. Over the content over the past few lessons, raise the same questions now to note any changes in debates, but to mark how far along students' comfort and knowledge of

#### Handouts:

Give the handouts to everyone in class, and work through them paragraph by paragraph. In the 'Sociology and social policy' section. Have students read out a paragraph to consolidate the new concept. Ensure students, when discussing the concepts, refer back to previous lessons such as positivism, interpretivism, etc. Ensure students write key points in their own notes.

Have students complete the extension activity on the Lesson 6 questions worksheet immediately afterwards as a class.

Before reading the final section of the handout, ask students in small groups to discuss the relationship between sociology, the government and social policy. Have students come up with and write down key ideas/topics/themes. After this, read the 'Sociology and social policy' section.

Have students answer the questions on the Lesson 6 questions worksheet. A

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## Plenary

### Students as researchers:

Having come to the end of the theory and methods content, students will be encouraged to think about the research process by using the '**Lesson 6: Plenary Activity Worksheet**' provided to design their own research project. *Due to time and resource constraints, the plenary activity may be suited to being a written task.*

Below are five suggested project briefs; students may complete this task individually or in small groups.

As an extension to this activity, have students carry out the research using the data provided by the participants in the research.

### Project briefs:

- A: To examine the role of the education system in perpetuating or mitigating social inequalities
- B: To compare and contrast rates of educational achievement between different countries
- C: To investigate the factors contributing to the educational achievement of different groups of students with a focus on class, gender, and ethnicity
- D: To assess the impact of selective education on equality of opportunity
- E: To explore teacher-pupil dynamics within schools

There are no exact right or wrong answers for the research proposals. Children should be encouraged to provide a clear explanation and justification, ensuring that appropriate methods have been chosen and that the data collected is covered and sufficient explanations have been given for decisions.

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## Lesson 6: Sociology as Science

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Concepts of objectivity, subjectivity applied to understand
- ✓ Role of values in theory and methods, the pursuit of value
- ✓ Relationship between sociology and social policy

Other theoretical considerations revolve around the role and influence of values and their place in sociology more broadly.

### Is sociology value-free? Can it be a science?

The accepted and agreed aim of the natural sciences is to be objective and to measure facts. But as a social science, where does sociology fit in?

#### Positivists: Sociology as an objective science

Positivists would argue that sociology can and should be considered a science. It should be informed by the natural sciences. Comte, an early figure in sociology, sought to find 'social laws' through a scientific approach to theory and research. He was in the context that he was situated in, around the first half of the nineteenth century, the dominant position of power and knowledge instead of the Church. But Comte differed by presenting theory which looked for 'social facts' rather than religious ones. He approached sociology in a way that regarded it as an **objective** pursuit of knowledge. Positivists are realists because they argue that objects and realities exist independently of externalities may be measured with accuracy and certainty.

#### Popper: Falsifiability

The philosopher Popper (1959) argued that any subject could be considered a science if its theories were 'falsifiable', i.e. that they can be rigorously tested and potentially disproven. He sent shockwaves through the science community by arguing that nothing could be proven true, and that rather than trying to prove theories as true, science should focus on falsifying them. Theories can be supported for a long time, but are never considered permanent. They may be falsified at any time.

Popper's theory of falsifiability suggests that Sociology may be scientifically testable and falsifiable. However, some argue that there are many areas where sociology cannot generate specific hypotheses to test, and that this does not mean that the theory is not scientific. Interpretivists emphasise the importance of understanding social life, rather than just testing hypotheses.

#### Interpretivists: Contesting the objectivity of sociology

In contrast to a positivist stance, interpretivists guide their work by the principle that sociology should not be treated as a natural science, but instead be guided by **subjectivity**. They argue that we apply subjective meaning to the world, and it is not possible to understand social life in terms of laws/facts. Instead, concepts such as Weber's *verstehen* are used by using empathy to understand complex subjectivities that are present in the social world. From this, it may be argued that interpretivists do not view sociology as a science but as a social science – one that cannot be objective/value-free, but instead seeks to identify and understand these subjective realities. They may be realists, meaning that they argue external realities and objects exist independently of our subjectivities we can never be certain in our judgments. Other interpretivists argue that not only can we not see truthfully, but that external objects and realities are made of subjective realities and existences.

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## Kuhn: Paradigms

Research may also be influenced by the wider academic context in which forward the concept of paradigms to describe how research questions are theory used and data analysed within a certain framework.

Writing about the natural sciences, Kuhn identifies how science and knowledge with three distinct eras, characterised as:

- *Pre-science*: There is no overarching or central framework; lots of competing.
- *Normal science*: Theories and research are conducted under a paradigm that is consistent and stable. Questions are raised, answers are sought. Knowledge is built around for a long time, giving boundaries and confines to knowledge.
- *Revolutionary science*: When a moment emerges in which the existing paradigm is in contradiction or a crisis occurs. It is in this time that the normal science paradigm which creates the opportunity for change. This usually means that a new paradigm emerges, and a different paradigm defines scientific pursuit.

Kuhn used the example of the history of physics to illustrate his idea. Until everyone thought that the Sun went around the Earth, and so physics was in a state, with all questions, analysis and results being controlled by this unchanging paradigm. Copernicus raised contradictions in this system with his ideas, and Galileo's observations of motion – suggesting that the Earth went around the Sun – led to revolutionary science, during which research was in flux, and then physics returned to science under the Copernican paradigm.

Kuhn was writing about the natural sciences, but many have attempted to apply his ideas to sociology. Most agree that sociology does not work under one paradigm, implying that Kuhn's ideas do not apply to the natural sciences, or that sociology is currently in a pre-paradigm state.

## The influence of values in research

The current understanding is that value-free research in sociology is not possible. The works of Durkheim and Popper. Decisions involve human judgment and are influenced by personal and underlying level and these values may seep through, even if unintended. This can influence the research process. For example, values influence:

- Topic or area of chosen study
- Assumptions on human behaviour and the nature of reality
- Research method, data collection
- Data interpretation and analysis
- Presentation and distribution of results

Theoretical stances, personal values and researcher bias can therefore influence research from the start, even before the data collection has begun. For example, if a researcher is biased against the exploitation of women, bias has entered the process because simply by choosing to study this topic, the researcher signals that this is something they see as important in society. Moreover, the current political and public discourse can often shape and influence research. If a topic is popular in the media and with the public, or if social policy is not in place, funding and attention will be paid to those areas/topics.

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Gouldner (1962) argues that facts and values are inseparable, and uses the Minotaur to explain that they have an entwined dependence. He argues that it is dishonest to pursue research as if it is possible to remove values from social research. He proposes instead that sociology considers values in the context of its ideas about honesty and reflexivity. Gouldner thinks that as long as a researcher's values are recognised and communicated, readers of the research are not ignoring the effects of bias in the data. Therefore bias and values do not represent a feared concept in research, but instead they should be recognised and acknowledged.

Other sociologists not only acknowledge values in their research, but embrace them to guide and shape their research design, potentially in order to effect social change. For example, Marxists use sociology to raise class consciousness, defend the exploited and deconstruct capitalist power structures. In a similar vein, feminists use research to expose patriarchal structures, empower women and contribute to achieving gender equality. These two camps of sociology are therefore open and promote using values, often through an understanding of **ideology**, to inform and guide the purpose of research.

**Ideology** – A set of ideas that work together to set by a particular group. A **Grand narrative** is a framework of ideas that shape social life, for example, Marxism.

In a different stance, postmodernists reject the notion that sociology can provide a single truth. They take their stance that social life is made of multiple shifting realities, whereby facts are subjective. They reject any **grand narratives** and see all social life as contextual. Their understanding of social life and reality means that, in research, if you observe one place, that is that person's subjective understanding of that experience, not other people's experience. Moreover, this experience is only relevant to that context. It is not possible to apply this to any other context. For this reason, research has been criticised by sociology for postmodernists.

### Sociology and social policy

Having debated and discussed the nature of sociology, and explored opportunities research can offer, you might be left wondering: what is the point, what is the purpose of theoretical and research worlds?

Sociology is fundamental to politics and public life. It informs, shapes and guides action through both its empirical research and theoretical contributions. One practical way it can be used is through its relationship to social policy. Social policy is action taken by a government which affects a population; it is done with the aim of improving social conditions. For example, it could be in the form of legislation, or by offering a facility or service, such as education or public health. Sociology has a conscious purpose to identify social problems, and then to predict outcomes, or recommend solutions which can inform social policy.

Giddens (2001), a prominent sociologist who is notably active in UK politics, sees sociology as being present in the relationship between social policy and social science.

1. Sociology has the capacity to identify and inform policy of a variety of social issues from different perspectives. For example, through research and by providing a theoretical framework, a sociologist may be in the position to consider, understand or represent minority cultural traditions, and it has the capacity to change and evolve as society does.

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- Using sociology as a theoretical framework allows for an assessment of the impact of existing policy. Giddens argues this is important to guide and respond to any unintended or unforeseen consequences and outcomes.
- Giddens argues that one of the roles of sociology in the political process is to act as a mirror, to allow for reflexivity. The nature of sociology means that it is encouraged and this may foreground others to get involved in policy-making pressure groups, whose role (to varying extent) shapes social policy.

However, the relationship between sociology and social policy is criticised. The following are important in considering the role of sociology in wider society:

- The practical, ethical and theoretical considerations that apply to a context of social policy as well. For example, who funds the research, the discourse and landscape, are going to impact what research is carried out. Policy research is carried out by government funding, a think tank or a research institution. However, it is important when using or assessing the research that these institutions often have a particular political orientation or agenda.
- Similarly, social policy is usually situated (in terms of thought, theory and practice) within mainstream politics and government, which can overlook smaller-scale issues. The role of ideology should be considered; government research tends to be theory-driven, such as the New Right perspective and tends to overlook practical issues.
- The status and reception of qualitative and quantitative research methods in sociological pursuits. While quantitative is usually more reliable, qualitative may always be the most relevant to the area of interest.
- Some postmodernists argue that the use of categories is not only problematic for the group and research people according to class or gender, but that it is also causing damage by creating and perpetuating labels through the research process.

## Lesson 6 Questions

- How do some sociologists argue that sociology is a science?
- Outline a perspective that argues sociology should not be valued as a science.
- State and explain one example of an approach that attempts using an interpretivist stance to understand whether sociology can be considered a science.
- State and explain one example of how sociology may be used to influence public life.

### Extension Task

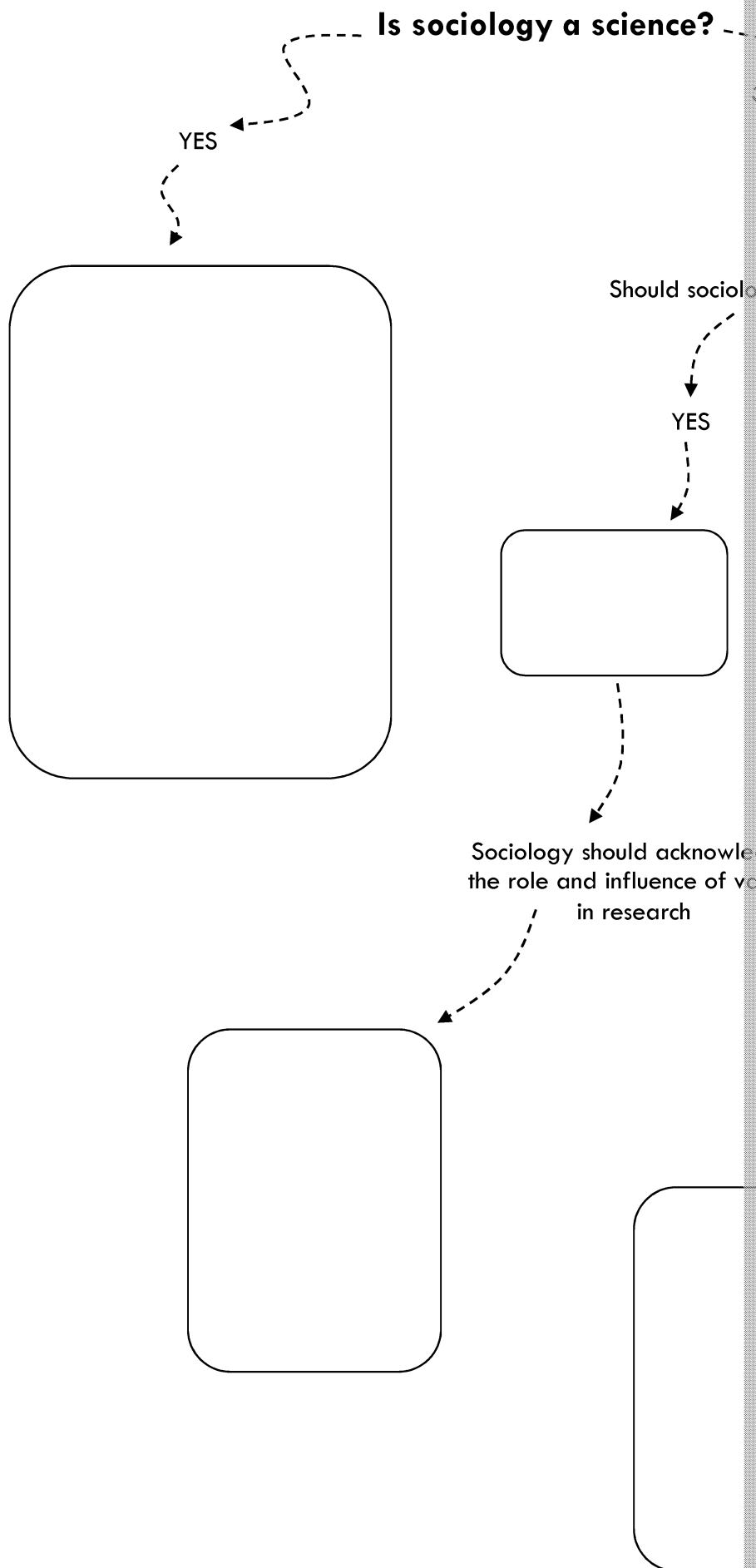
Fill in the blank boxes in the flow chart on the 'Lesson 6: Extension Task' page. Enter names of key theorists, concepts and theories to complete the diagram.

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## Lesson 6: Plenary Activity Worksheet



**BRITISH SOCIOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION**

Thank you for your application for the role of social researcher. Having received your application, we are pleased to announce we have selected you for the researcher role in education team! Please read below for instructions of your first task.

We have just received funding from the UK government to explore social education. We need you to write a research design proposal. Remember to use your knowledge and notes from your social research training in class.

The proposal must outline:

- What research method you will use and why
- Who your participants are and how you will find them
- Which theoretical framework will guide your research
- Practical and ethical considerations
- Values that have and may influence the research process

Remember to make sure your research design is the most effective way to collect data, is brief, and ensure the proposal fully explains each decision you have made.

We look forward to reading your proposal.

Many Thanks

President of the British Sociological Association

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## Lesson Plan 7: Functionalist Perspective of the

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Functionalist perspective of the role and function of the education system
- ✓ Relationship between education, the economy and class structure from a functionalist perspective



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### Starter

#### Review task:

Have students share their research proposals from last lesson. Discuss with the groups, and have the groups inform each other of their task and suggestions.

### Main

Watch this video to begin the class to enter into a discussion on the role of education in society: [https://m.youtube.com/watch?v=\\_kOEg55vewU](https://m.youtube.com/watch?v=_kOEg55vewU) (pledge of allegiance in US schools)

What values does this instill? What is the role of education here? Would you want your child to go to school here? Then encourage the discussion to go wider into the general role of education in different cultures do we have? What do they promote? Why do you go to school? What if you didn't? What do we learn by being at school? Do all countries have the same role for education? What impact does education have on society? What people and institutions are involved in education?

Discuss these ideas as a class or as pairs and then feed back.

Have students independently read the class notes section on 'Functionalism' and watch this video for consolidation of an overview of functionalism as a social theory: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5jOZqVnQmdY>

Then have students individually read the 'Functionalist perspective of education' section of the handout.

Give out the 'Role and function of the education system' worksheet, and have groups fill in the functionalist box. In the left column, students should put their own ideas and thinkers. In the right-hand side, have students write key strengths and weaknesses. The table should act as a useful revision guide, and provide structure and key points. Have students complete the Lesson 7 questions. Before marking the answers, have pairs compare and contrast their responses.

### Plenary

#### Glossary:

Have students write definitions of the following key words and concepts:

- Functional prerequisite
- Value consensus
- Socialisation
- Meritocracy
- Human capital
- Anomie
- Social stratification

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## Lesson 7: Functionalist Perspective of the

### Learning Objectives -

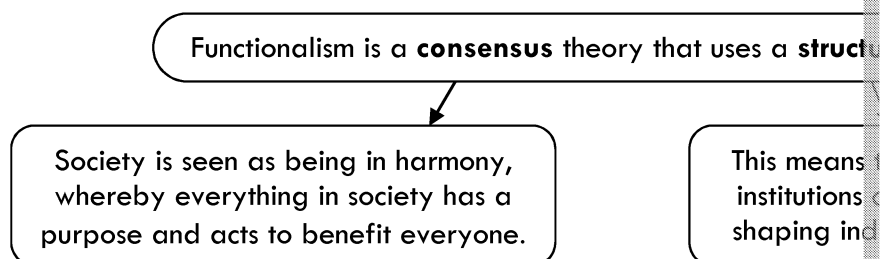


#### After this lesson you should understand:

- ✓ Functionalist perspective of the role and function of the education system
- ✓ Relationship between education, the economy and class structure from a functionalist perspective

While education has already begun to be explored in this unit, it is worth taking a moment to think about what education is, and why it is studied in sociology. Education is not a given; it is a social construct. The way school is organised, what we learn, the fact that schools exist at all, are all products of a changing existence across time and place. Doing this component as part of your research gives you a particularly interesting perspective because as students you are already part of the system. You analyse the processes and institutions you are embedded within. To begin with, we will look at the functionalist perspective, used to understand one way of looking at the role and function of education.

### Functionalism Social Theory



For functionalists, society is a web of interconnected institutions that depend on each other. They see everyone and everything as having an important function or purpose to help keep society running. The functionalist Talcott Parsons developed this concept with the analogy of a human body. He explains how each part of the body has its own role, and all of these parts combined work together to make the body function as a unit, which mirrors the way institutions fulfil their own roles to achieve a collective aim of successfully running a society.

Parsons called this unit of institutions working together a *social system*. The institutions in the system are guided and work to fulfil specific requirements of society. Parsons identified four aspects which need to be fulfilled by the social system, and he calls these prerequisites. Below, the four functional prerequisites are explained;

1. *Adaptation* – This prerequisite uses the economy to ensure basic needs are met, ensuring all members of society have requirements such as food and shelter.
2. *Goal Attainment* – The collective aims for society, both on a structural and individual level, are set. The institution of the government organises the resources of a society to achieve these goals.
3. *Integration* – Relationships between institutions, and between individuals, must coordinate and function successfully. If aspects of conflict arise in the system, formal and informal control must be in place to regulate and coordinate society. The legal/justice system and police are formal ways of doing this, and the family and peer groups informally act to ensure cohesive relationships.

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4. *Pattern Maintenance* – Collective values and norms are needed to bind society together and ensure its cohesive existence and successful continuation. Through institutions such as the family, media, education and religion, members of society are socialised to adhere to the collective norms and maintain society.

**Functional prerequisite**  
that functionalist  
exist and continue  
**Value consensus**  
agreed social norms

This consensus approach to how society is formed and functions shapes our understanding of education, which will be explored below.

### Functionalist perspective of the role of education

Functionalists have a positive outlook on the education system. They see schooling as a **functional prerequisite** within society that helps to maintain **value consensus** and existing social order.

Durkheim saw the education system as crucial in providing *regulation* and *integration*. Regulation refers to ways in which children learn how to behave, such as through formal or official rules and punishments such as detention. Norms and expectations are also learnt subtly or passively, such as through the organisation and experience of school, and these elements teach and reinforce how to behave and interact socially.

Schools provide integration also, and Durkheim outlines two main ways in which schools are seen as a 'society in miniature' and so it provides a place for children to experience a communal setting. Before school, a child's only experience is life in the home, which is seen as a place for learning and practising how to be a good member of society. Durkheim saw that schools provide a sense of shared heritage, by teaching history. In contemporary society whereby a multicultural and diverse society exists, we argue this is particularly important as it facilitates diverse populations to share a common purpose. As a functionalist, Durkheim saw this as a crucial element of socialisation; individuals must feel a commitment to the collective and have a desire to conform. Therefore, schools provide not only an understanding of how to act as a good member of society but give motivation for individuals to participate in society and act cohesively. Schools combine to provide *secondary socialisation* for children. The family provides the initial instilling of norms and values, while education extends and continues this, introducing children into being aware of the norms and values of society.

Socialisation, integration and regulation are crucial to ensuring society functions smoothly and facilitate *social solidarity* by achieving consensus across a population. If these elements are missing, individuals would be at risk of experiencing *anomie*, which is a state of lawlessness and chaos. It occurs when there is a breakdown between society and the individual. We pick up with this concept when looking at causes of suicide. Therefore, schools, by providing structure and purpose to an individual's life, are important in keeping individuals and society together.

Part of the socialisation process in which a child learns to transition from the family to one of wider society requires children to accept a shift in their understanding that the family is based on *affective* relationships, which are relationships based on love. This is evident by how a parent says they would do anything for their child, which is unconditional. However, in life outside of the home, Durkheim categorised relationships as *instrumental*, which are based on self-interest.

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*instrumental*, meaning they are goal-orientated, and existing because of self-interest. Schools introduce and facilitate instrumental relationships for society and bridge the gap between the home and the wider world.

Hargreaves (1998) questions Durkheim's approach to understanding education as more a prescriptive analysis than a descriptive one. He argues that in contemporary society, schools are too individualistic and instil values which Hargreaves sees should be altered to nurture more collectivist values. He draws on the way that qualifications are emphasised in schools and social conflict to arise within stratification. Hargreaves warns that schools should not be seen as belonging to the working classes, otherwise they may rebel, which would undermine the value consensus.

Talcott Parsons, a key functionalist thinker, focused more upon these notions of individualism within school. He built upon Durkheim's identification of the school as a space to connect the family with wider society, but focuses less on its cohesive function and more on the type of values it instils. He argues that the education system is an agent of socialisation, teaching children to accept the **meritocratic** principles that society is built upon. This is done by inciting a shift in the way individuals are recognised. Status in wider society, which is first experienced in schools, is **achieved** and measured by **universalistic** standards. This means that children are acknowledged according to their abilities, and compared against one another from a level playing field. This is in contrast to the **ascribed** status judged by **particularistic** standards of the home, which sees roles and expectations assigned to individuals based on their characteristics, such as being a girl or a boy.

**Meritocratic**  
and all  
deserve  
**Achievement**  
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**Ascribed**  
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gender  
**Particularistic**  
are specific  
a group  
**Universalistic**  
expectations  
members

### Education and the Economy

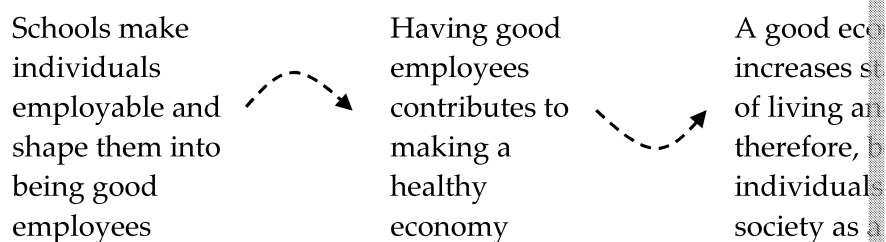
Although functionalists have a strong emphasis on the collective and the need for a cohesive sense of community, Parsons highlights how meritocratic principles and individualism are needed to keep capitalism functioning successfully. In schools, they teach the skills a workforce needs. For example, schools ensure a population with basic knowledge and numerical skills. However, it also provides specific skills and knowledge for a wide variety of occupations. In contemporary society, there is a highly specialised division of labour. This is since the economy has seen a shift to an emphasis on the service and knowledge industries. To match the service economy, schools have shifted their purpose also, evident in the rising number of people participating in further education, the increase of the legal-leaving age, and the proliferation of vocational schools.

As well as offering preparation for the job market, education serves to sort people into the most suitable people. Schools contain mechanisms such as grades and exams, which, on a meritocratic basis, guide and assign people to employment. Davis and Moore argue that this is a fair way to organise society. They see education as filtering people into different jobs, so those with the top grades and top degrees get the best jobs. This is seen as not just a practical way to organise society, but as a fair and legitimate way. Functionalists see school in terms of equality of opportunity, meaning that everyone has the opportunity and access, and so those that work hard get the best grades and, with the best jobs.

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Functionalists also highlight the positive interaction between education and the economy. The roles interact in a way that is beneficial when looking at society in a holistic way.



Shultz (1962) and Becker (1993) use the notion of 'human capital' to explain how education carries an economic advantage; their research finds that having a good education contributes to economic growth, and so it makes sense in monetary and economic terms to invest in education and skill training. Functionalists, therefore, have a positive view of the relationship between education and the economy, seeing them as mutually reinforcing and as contributing to the well-being of society as a whole.

## Lesson 7 Questions

1. What role does the education system have according to Durkheim?
2. Do all functionalists agree on the function of the education system?
3. Define a meritocratic society.
4. Why is a functionalist view seen as a consensus perspective?
5. What is the relationship of the economy and the education system?

### Extension Task

Fill in the functionalist boxes on the 'Role and function of the education system' diagram.

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## Role and function of the education system worksheet

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Theory: Key points, thinkers and concepts	
Functionalism:	Criticisms:          Strengths:
New Right:	Criticisms:          Strengths:
Marxism:	Criticisms:          Strengths:

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Theory: Key points, thinkers and concepts	
Feminism:	Criticisms:
	Strengths:
Interactionism:	Criticisms:
	Strengths:

## Lesson Plan 8: New Right Perspective of the

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ New Right social theory
- ✓ New Right perspective of the role and function of the education system



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### Starter

Explore the government's policies on education and see if you can identify if the government uses a functionalist approach to education:

<https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/departments-for-education>

Discuss either as a class or in small groups.

For example, the extension of training and skills and the role of education:

<https://www.gov.uk/government/policies/improving-the-quality-of-further-education>

### Main

Have students independently read the class notes section on 'New Right

#### Springboard:

Watch the following Little Britain clip: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=...>

Open up a discussion to discuss New Right themes and relate the class notes to the video and have students discuss what they think a New Right view specific to education is. Then discuss the implications and criticisms of both the video and the perspective.

Then have students individually read the 'New right perspective of the role of education' handout.

#### Discussion:

To what extent are Chubb and Moe's policies used in educational policy? Have students discuss if they used these concepts, or refused these notions? If students can, they should be able to identify if the government uses a functionalist approach to education. Have students complete the Lesson 8 questions. Before marking the answers, have the pairs compare and contrast their responses.

### Plenary

Using the 'Role and function of the education system' worksheet, have students complete the worksheet. The worksheet was initially handed out alongside the New Right box. The worksheet was initially handed out alongside the New Right box and contrast the groups' notes.

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## Lesson 8: New Right Perspective of the Education System

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ New Right social theory
- ✓ New Right perspective of the role and function of the education system

### New Right social theory

Functionalism grounded a new sociological approach which is used in the New Right theory. New Right thinkers are a contemporary branch of right realist thought. The time the New Right approach was used was in the 1980s when Margaret Thatcher was prime minister of the UK (1979–1990) and Ronald Reagan was president of the USA (1981–1989). They had distinct ideas about the role that education plays in ensuring social order, the nuclear family, on the grounds that it is a useful mechanism for social control and gender role socialisation.

The consequences of not having a nuclear family are outlined by Charles Murray, a New Right thinker, as being characteristic of what he identified as an *underclass* – a social group that is hierarchically considered below the working class, the unemployed, those dependent on welfare and lone parents. Using ideology of **individualism**, Murray sees those in this category placed there as a result of lifestyle choice, and views it as the problem and fault of the individual, not the state or structural elements. Often referring to those in the underclass as the 'New Rabble', he contrasts those to what he identifies as the 'New Victorians', which is explained in the diagram below.

**Meritocracy** – Those who are rewarded for their achievements and recognises achievement of the individual.

**Individualism** – The belief that the individual is more important than the group.

#### New Rabble

Characterised by lone-parent families, educational underachievement, welfare dependency and viewed as an 'underclass'

versus

**New Victorians**  
This is the middle class, employed, and gender roles are traditional.

The 'New Victorians' are rewarded and promoted within New Right policy work towards, while the 'New Rabble' are blamed for their situation and the media and blamed for other social ills.

### New Right perspective on education

Based on this theoretical approach to the state and society, a New Right thinker advocates for minimal state intervention, and a market-based approach. Chubb and Moe's (1990) research and conclusions have supported these policies. Pupils in the USA, they argued that parents should shape educational institutions because schools must be flexible and adapt to the needs of the pupils: if they do not, they will fail. Rights such as Chubb and Moe argue that change from the state is ineffective. They advocate for minimal state control, and maximum governance by local education authorities.

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Chubb and Moe look to the private school model to shape their policy, a comparison to state schools stem from the fact that private schools, as fee-paying institutions, are seen to meet the demands of the consumers (parents). Schools as institutions are seen to be more flexible and adapt to pupils' or parents' needs. With this minimal state intervention, New Right theorists outline the role of the state to provide league tables and free-market principles to apply to educational institutions. With a free-market landscape, it is argued that competition will increase, which will raise standards and close any unfit schools.

### Criticisms of a New Right perspective to education

While this approach has had success in the political realm and in shaping Conservative governments, many criticise these free-market principles and the associated strategies:

- Having a system dependent on parental choice opens education up to marketisation, reproducing class inequalities, in both a structural and cultural sense. A study by Hoxby (2001) found that marketisation and increased competition among schools led to the marginalisation of ethnic-minority groups experiencing marginalisation.
- Those who support, or work in, the educational sector would argue that there is a lot to deal with, and that the extra pressure and stress to provide high-quality education to a healthy workspace. Moreover, this emphasis on results (to improve teaching and students towards exam-based knowledge, which reduces the social functions and socialisation that schools are supposed to provide).
- In criticisms of Chubb and Moe's study, you could argue that other factors, such as economic status and class, enter the relationship of fee-paying schools compared to state schools.

## Lesson 8 Questions

1. How does Charles Murray argue that education is linked to the 'Victorians'?
2. Murray argues that meritocracy decides a pupil's educational attainment.
  - a) Explain the concept of 'meritocracy'.
  - b) Outline one criticism of this argument.
3. What policy do Chubb and Moe advocate using for schools and education?

### Extension Task

Fill in the New Right boxes on the 'Role and function of the education system'.

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## Lesson Plan 9: Marxist Social Theory

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Traditional Marxism as a social theory
- ✓ Variants of Marxist social theory: structural Marxism, neo-Marxism, humanistic Marxism



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#### Two-word Recap:

As a group, the class must answer the question: *How do functionalists understand social structure?* In the two-word recap, students must go round and take it in turns each saying two words. The words must keep going round the circle until a satisfactory answer is given. As the words are said, the teacher keeps responses up and project this onto the board.

### Main

Watch this video to begin the class, for an overview of Marxism as a social theory: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WOGFSUu5UzA>

Have students independently read the class notes section on 'Marxism as a social theory'. Allow 5 minutes for students to discuss and ask questions about the notes they have read.

Have students fill in the Marx column on the extension task worksheet.

Work through the rest of the handout, and finish filling out the extension task. Have students answer the questions for lesson 8 in pairs. Then go through the answers.

### Plenary

#### Lyrical Marxism:

Split the class into smaller groups, and give them five minutes to write and perform a song that expresses the key idea of Marxism as a social theory. This may be in the form of a rap, a poem, a sketch or role play – encourage them to be creative!

After five minutes, have students present their work to the rest of the class. Some examples to inspire:

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LVIV3WuCoKA> (Billy Bragg)
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xhgE5bfcFTU> (Pink Floyd)

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## Lesson 9: Marxist Social Theor

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Traditional Marxism as a social theory
- ✓ Variants of Marxist social theory: structural Marxism, neo-Marxism

### Marxism social theory

Marxism is a **conflict** and **structural** theory.

This perspective sees society as based on inequality and differing interests, some benefiting, and others being at a disadvantage. They critique the **status** of society and how the dynamics need to be understood to see how society is structured and organized.

### Class and capitalism

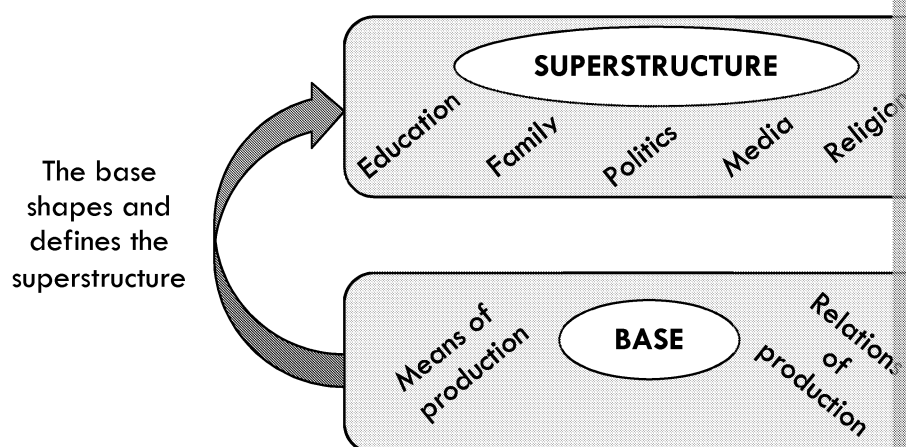
One of the key points in Marxism is to understand that modern society is structured by classes in a *capitalist* society.

Capitalism is a system that is based on the economic principles of markets, for the buying and selling of goods, based on the ideas of Karl Marx, who founded the theory, identified two social classes in social and economic terms: the ruling class are known as the *bourgeoisie*, and the working class. As part of the bourgeoisie, you have to own the means of production, and the labourers.

Status of society referring to the landscape

The relationship between these two classes is hierarchical, and involves the ruling class exploiting the working class. Marxists argue that capitalism functions and survives depending on this relationship. For example, the bourgeoisie pay the proletariat with low wages, allowing them to keep the majority of the profits. This system is enforced through *ideology*, which means that the ideas and beliefs of the ruling class are dominant, and followed by the working classes, even if it is in conflict with their interests.

Marx sees society as being structured and continued through a *base* and *superstructure*, which allows for the economic relations of capitalism to determine and define the



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The superstructure contains elements of the state, such as the political and legal systems, which are defined by the base of society, which is capitalism. This means that the state and laws are ruled by the bourgeoisie, and as a result of this Marxists believe that the laws that shape society and social order, are done so in favour of capitalist class dynamics; they enforce particular forms of social order, regulate the economy, and control crime and deviance. However, it seems unlikely that the majority of the proletariat, would be complicit in a system that exploits them. Marx uses *consciousness* to identify that the way the superstructure works and instils a false consciousness in the working classes not being able to recognise their own oppression and exploit the bourgeoisie to continue exploitative functions and ensures the working classes accept the capitalist order, despite it not being in their favour.

### Social change

In his writings, Marx outlined that because of the way capitalism functions, a social revolution will happen which brings about **socialism**, and the end state of **communism**. The famous phrase 'workers of the world, unite!' is an attempt to bring the working classes together to achieve this state of communism is the desired situation, and that for this to come about a revolution is necessary. Since Marx, other Marxist writers have expressed different ideas about social change, with many arguing that socialism, not communism, should be the desired end state. Some argue the necessity of a revolution, and argue that social change may occur more gradually.

**Communism** – Economic and political theory in which the means of production are communally owned, and then allocated and distributed across all members of the community. Labour is organised to advantage all members of the community.

**Socialism** – Economic and political theory that advocates for the community to regulate the means of production, distribution and exchange. People that subscribe to socialism argue it would allow for human needs to be prioritised over profits, something seen as incompatible with capitalism.

### Criticisms of Marxist social theory

Despite many themes of Marx's work still being relevant today, his work has been criticised for the following reasons;

- Some look to the growing number of people in the middle classes and argue that the bourgeoisie categorisation is too simplistic: contemporary society is more complex than dividing society into two classes. Social theorists that follow the Frankfurt school of thought use this criticism.
- Conflict theorists and those that look at power relationships may be criticised for not clearly defined power relationships and the basis for exploitation. For some, it is not as useful, as it takes into consideration economic wealth as well as social status and the ability for classes to change. For example, do you think the prime minister holds power and influence? According to Marx, it is the owners of the means of production that shape social relations, which overlooks the role and impact that other factors have.
- Foucault argued that power is obtained through knowledge, and not just economic power. Marx equates power to owning the means of production, which overlooks other ways in which power may be expressed in contemporary society.
- Those that subscribe to theories of free will would argue that Marx's theory denies people the ability to make their own decisions and actions. They criticise the theory as being too deterministic, meaning that economics not only shapes but determines human behaviours, which some argue is not an accurate way of understanding the social processes that occur in humans.

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## Variations of Marxist social theory

### Althusser

Along with other structural Marxists, Althusser focuses his analysis on the structure of capitalism. Althusser sees society as operating and arranged by having three levels: the economic, political and ideological level, by which aspects of society may be grouped. These levels are systems which underpin and shape actions/values and create the 'social formation' which we understand in Althusser's terms to mean society. He argues that these levels interact with each other, but, unlike a functionalist, argues they are not dependent on each other.

The structures in all three of these levels of the social formation work to perpetuate and legitimately continue the status of the ruling class. Althusser's key concepts are the ideological state apparatus and why society can continue in this way. An ideological state apparatus refers to institutions that are built into systems which shape and guide thoughts and behaviours. The family, school and church are all aspects which promote and instil ideology, which means they are part of the ideological state apparatus. In some situations, Althusser also documents how the repressive state apparatus works, such as the police and army, which use coercion or violence to achieve their aims.

Althusser argues that the potential for social change emerges from disorder or crisis, which happens between the economic, political or ideological levels within the social formation. It is worth noting that Althusser's work, and structural Marxism more broadly, is seen as being deterministic by focusing on structures, because they argue that these not only determine actions but also determine the ability to act. Social action theorists would highlight free-will arguments and the ability to act against structures as a counter-argument to the notion that behaviour is determined by structures.

### Gramsci

A prominent neo-Marxist, Gramsci established his theories and was writing in the early twentieth century. Neo-Marxism is understood to be a term for theories that build on Marx's work. Marx are taken and either developed, reinterpreted or applied in a different way. A clear distinction between what makes certain works neo-Marxist, it is because they use but alter Marx's original ideas, and were written from the twentieth century onwards.

Disagreeing with Marx's notion of false class consciousness, and wanting to move away from economic determinism that his work suggested, Gramsci wrote his own theory of hegemony. Its features are:

- *Hegemony*  
This is a term used by Gramsci to describe when social relations in a state are run by the ruling class under the dominant ideology. If the ruling class and fulfils the desires of the ruling class, then Gramsci argues hegemony exists. In modern society for example, the dominant ideology is capitalism, which is based on capitalist principles, and everyone consents to this despite the exploitative relationships.
- *Legitimate rule by consent*  
The way to gain hegemony and sustain it, Gramsci argues, is to get the ruling class's dominant ideology in place legitimately, and by consent of the masses. This is in contrast to the notion that Marx put forward, which says that the ruling class keeps the people in an unaware state. Instead, Gramsci argues that sometimes the ruling class has power or have victories in their desires, but he argues these exist because of the consent and unquestioning of social relations.

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- *Capitalism*

Gramsci's notion of power, the ruling class and the functioning of the state is a departure from the traditional Marxist stance. He argues that the ruling class is not solely defined by its control of the means of production, but he recognises that the use of the state apparatus, particularly in ideological aspects, has an important role in legitimately ruling. Marxism, as developed by Gramsci, focuses on the experiences of people under capitalism, a step away from the purely economic focus which is found in traditional scientific forms of Marxism. For this reason, Gramsci is often referred to as a humanist Marxist as well as a neo-Marxist. By looking at the cultural and ideological aspects of people's lives under capitalism, such as looking at the media, culture and the employment system, Gramsci falls into the humanist Marxist theoretical framework. He also draws attention to the negative dehumanising effects that capitalism brings.

- *Divisions and classes*

A traditional Marxist conception of 'bourgeoisie versus proletariat' is challenged by Gramsci. He highlighted that there are different power dynamics within these classes which are not necessarily unified. For example, a working-class person could be employed in the industrial or agricultural sector, or be unemployed: these different experiences and identities. It is too simplistic, Gramsci argues, and hinders understanding of how these classes and structures actually work in society. Neo-Marxists such as Wally Krieger and Stuart Hall have developed this by placing ethnicity as a central theme to their understandings of class and identity in this unit.

## Lesson 9 Questions

1. From a Marxist perspective, what does it mean if capitalism is the ruling ideology?
2. Explain the relationship between the bourgeoisie and the proletariat.
3. How do the base and superstructure of a society interact?
4. According to Althusser, how does capitalism as an ideology control society?
5. How does Gramsci differ from traditional Marxist thought?

### Extension Task

Complete the 'Lesson 9: Extension Task Worksheet' to make a useful resource for understanding important Marxist thinkers and concepts.

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## Lesson 8: Extension Task Worksheet

**Task:** Use the space in each column to put down any key ideas and concepts that each of the theoretical account of society and relations and society's potential to change.

**Marx**

**Althusser**

**Key  
words**

**Explanation  
of concepts**

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## Lesson Plan 10: Marxist Perspective of the

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Marxist approaches to the role and function of the education system
- ✓ The relationship between education, the economy and class structure



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### Starter

#### Image springboard:

Use the 'Lesson 10: Start activity worksheet' provided as a prop for discussion. Discuss these questions either as a class, in small groups, or in partners.

### Main

Give the handouts to students and read through the 'Education reproduction relations' section. After this, pause reading the notes to explicitly weave concepts learnt from last lesson, clarifying and using concepts such as id

Continue to read the handout to the end of the notes. Afterwards, have students discuss for lesson 9.

Mark answers to the questions as a class, and have students share their experiences of question 4.

Using the worksheet that was introduced in lesson 7, have students complete the questions under lesson 9 questions.

### Plenary

#### Speed talking:

Arrange the students in two circles, one inside the other and facing each other. Allocate a total of 30 seconds allocated for each person to share as much information as possible on the topic/theme. After each round, the outside circle moves round one place.

#### Suggested topics:

- What is the relationship of capitalism to the education system?
- Why are Marxists negative about the education system?
- How does education prepare people for the workplace?
- Explain criticisms of a Marxist approach to understanding the education system.
- Explain Althusser's understanding of the role of education.

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## Lesson 10: Marxist Perspective of the Education System

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Marxist approaches to the role and function of the education system
- ✓ The relationship between education, the economy and class

Traditional Marxists argue the role of education can be understood as having two main functions:

- To reproduce existing social relations and structures
- In relation to the economy, education prepares a population for employment

### Education reproduces existing structures and relations

To begin by expanding on the first bullet point, Marxists understand schools as a system of social control, whereby as an agent of socialisation, certain norms and values are transmitted. This is based on the economic base of capitalism structures the educational system in all of its aspects, from what is taught in school, to the relationships, structures and organisational forms. The domination of the ruling class are transmitted and passed down through education, ensuring that capitalism can continue successfully.

These processes of socialisation can be evident in student-teacher relationships, for example, whereby children from an early age learn to respect authority, obey orders and self-regulate behaviour. These elements are taught by the explicit rules and regulations of a school. However, other aspects are more subtle but still play an important role in the transmission of ideology. For example, the education system is built on individualism and meritocratic principles. This means that *individuals* are held responsible and accountable for their outcomes and achievements, ignoring wider *structural* elements that Marxists see as fundamental to dictating someone's life trajectory. By focusing on the individual, the structural elements are hidden, which presents the existing system as natural and inevitable, which contributes to limiting resistance and a **working-class consciousness**, meaning that the ruling class can maintain power without many challenges.

However, it is worth noting that there are differences among Marxists in their views on education as passively or explicitly exerting ruling-class ideological values on the working class. Traditional Marxists see the education system as a method of transmitting ideology to the mass population, whereby the ruling class realise their prospects and role in society and accept and see their inequality as inevitable. However, more contemporary Marxists challenge the role of the working class in this suggestion. While they agree that schools should be equipped with the values they need to go on to realise and continue to improve their position, they argue the effect on the working class is irrelevant. These Marxists argue that the existence of class and class conflict will occur whether the working class realise their position and inequality or not. The example of Paul Willis' (1977) ethnographic study of anti-school resistant subcultures supports this notion, whereby he found that for working class boys that were aware of the unfairness and inequality of the system, the existence and range of oppressive structures that capitalism encompasses meant they could not change their position in society.

Specification  
The purpose of this specification is to provide a framework for the development of the curriculum and the delivery of the course.

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## The education system as preparation for the labour market

As well as socialising individuals into the acceptance of capitalism ideology, the education system trains people for their future role in the labour market. It ensures that the qualities of good employees are instilled into workers, and to teach the skills needed within an economy that is based on a **specialised division of labour**.

Bowles and Gintis in 1976 established a Marxist theory of education known as the 'correspondence principle', which explains how the education system is a mechanism for reproducing the workplace. They saw schools and education as mirroring the workplace, a 'long shadow of work', meaning that the experience of school foreshadows the workplace. They outlined how key aspects of the education system, as experienced by the population to be an effective workforce.

- a) *Values and relationships.* Schools instil the values that are required for the workplace, such as punctuality. Many of these norms are learnt through relationships in schools, based on relationships of authority and hierarchy, such as those between teachers and pupils. Other forms of wider societal structures being present in schools, such as gender inequality, authority compared to female, and the existence of an age hierarchy. This is mirrored in the workplace but also among students themselves, such as how older students are treated by younger pupils.
- b) *Organisation.* Internal organisational structures are based on hierarchies found in workplaces. This ensures children learn from a young age the importance of following orders, and the notion of reward and progression. The organisational structure of the school whereby similarly to the workplace, school is organised around specific tasks and corresponding purposes and tasks.
- c) *Alienation.* This is a Marxist term which refers to the lack of relationship between the individual and their labour; the unfulfilment felt due to work being done for purposes other than their own. The way in which workers are alienated from their labour is mirrored in the way they are being alienated from their education. For example, in contemporary education, the focus is on the qualification it reaps, rather than for the desire to learn. The education system is a process and makes it another part of the capitalist system. More control is given to the state over the process of content of their education. While individuals have choice, such as choosing GCSE subjects, this is a limited choice. The reality is that the school has already predetermined what subjects are available and the content of these options.
- d) *Social Stratification.* A term used to explain layers forming in an economy. Social classes are structured in a hierarchy. This is evident within schools through streaming and setting practices such as setting, banding and streaming. There are lower and higher levels across classes and subjects which correspond to the setup of individual jobs in the labour market. Those in lower levels are given no responsibility and are given menial jobs. Those in the middle bracket experience some ability to be in the middle and those in high bands are given roles of responsibility and made to feel significant. Those in high bands are given roles of responsibility and made to feel significant. Those in high bands are given roles of responsibility and made to feel significant. Those in high bands are given roles of responsibility and made to feel significant.

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However, some have criticised these notions, and draw attention to how education can contain the power to give pupils tools for class consciousness. A compliant, passive workforce, may give students the ability to recognise having Sociology as an option on the curriculum could be understood as tools to go against or resist a ruling class regime, say for example, by lea

Moreover, some draw attention to how not all teachers or organisations are complicit in the transmission of ideology. For example, Casey (1993) used surveys and the **life history research method** to explore how female teachers: Catholic nuns, Jewish teachers in inner-city schools and black women working for racial equality, used their role as teachers as a method and source for social research. Therefore, argue that Bowles and Gintis are too deterministic in their analysis of the hard work and optimistic efforts of some in the educational system.

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### Althusser's Ideological State Apparatus

The work of Althusser outlines that the relations and production of capital formation, including the educational system, and that for these formations must contribute to reproducing these systems and processes. Education has two main ways: firstly, as previously mentioned – to teach specific knowledge, writing, and secondly to instil values for good and ideal behaviour. Therefore, to reproduce skills, it also ensures a submission to established rules and ru

However, Althusser's work differs from that of other Marxists in the way it defines the *ideological state apparatus (ISA)*. There are multiple agencies in society that transmit ruling class ideas to a general audience: the Church, the family and education. They transmit ruling class ideas to a general audience through messages that are largely implicit in the institutions. This is in contrast to the state, which is a repressive, explicit exertion of force to control, such as the army. The education system contains a small number of repressive elements, such as discipline, expulsion and selection techniques. However, overall, the education system is a site of ideological control. Part of this ideological control is the function of stratification that whereby school is a site for everyone to learn their role; not just the subjects but also the capitalists, managers and owners of production.

While all ISAs contribute to reproducing existing relations of production, the education system occupies the dominant role in society, a space previously held by the Church. This is dominant and seen as so effective, is partly due to its appearance of being neutral. By doing this, it gives the appearance of being a neutral institution, which masks class ideology. Schools also have a particularly strong influence and hold power because of their obligatory nature and the length of time involved. As Al

*'It takes children from every class at infant-school age, and then for years it is most 'vulnerable'... it drums into them, whether it uses new or old methods, 'know-how', wrapped in the ruling ideology... no other Ideological State Apparatus (and not least, free) audience of the totality of the children in the capitalist society a day for five or six days out of seven.'*

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Therefore, combining the role of the family with the impact of the education system, Althusser argues that the ruling class has limited access to receiving knowledge or experience outside of the ruling class. Althusser does recognise that some teachers are attempting to use education to challenge the status quo, and to teach against ideology, as the work of Casey (1993) supports; however, as this is rare, and that they are trapped within the system and so their impact is limited.

## Lesson 10 Questions

1. What are the two main functions Marxists see the education system perform?
2. Outline how the educational system is an ideological state apparatus.
3. Name two key criticisms of a Marxist approach to education.
4. Give some examples of how schools instil values that help to reproduce the status quo and class structures.

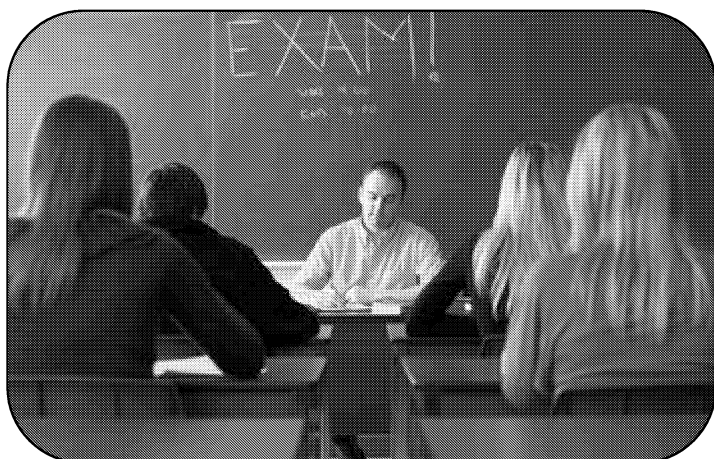
### Extension Task

Fill in the Marxist boxes on the 'Role and function of the education system' diagram.

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## Lesson 10: Starter Activity Worksheet



### Activity:

What is the purpose of school?

Look at the two images above. Think of their environment, organisation and purpose. Then, in your groups, you consider the following questions:

- How are these environments *similar*?
- How do these settings *differ*?
- In what ways does school *prepare* individuals for the workplace?
- Compare and contrast the *role and function* of school and the workplace.
- What would happen to society if either of these settings no longer existed?
- What skills do you learn in school that are *useful* in the workplace?

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## Lesson Plan 11: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Key trends between social class and education attainment
- ✓ Material and cultural deprivation factors for these trends



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#### Discussion: Class and Education

- a) Draw a spider diagram as a class to think of ways in which money and experience.
- b) In pairs and then as a class, discuss how to define social class. Is there a term socially and sociologically? What indicates social class? Has this

### Main

Before reading the class notes, try to get students to sociologically understand the concept of social class. To do this, use this online tool: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news>

So to not personalise the issue, have the students decide on a character and ask questions in character of this person. Perhaps do the quiz as different characters to contrast; for example, answer as if you are the Queen and then Vicky Pollard.

Read through the class notes until you reach the 'Cultural deprivation' section. Ask any questions the students may have about the content so far. Then complete the quiz at <http://childrenscommission.org.uk/quiz> to get an insight of the hidden educational achievement. Watch the video at <http://childrenscommission.org.uk/report> to understand the issues mentioned in the class notes.

Then finish reading the class notes and have students answer the lesson questions.

Due to Internet requirements and the depth of treatment, set the extension questions as homework.

### Plenary

#### Material factors in an art form:

Either individually, in pairs or small groups, have the students present their understanding of how material factors affect social class and its relationship to an expressive form. This may be in pictures, cartoon, rap, or poem. Give them time to prepare and then allow a few minutes to present.

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# Lesson 11: Differential Educational Achievement

## Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Key trends between social class and education attainment
- ✓ Material and cultural deprivation factors for these trends

As you have seen from previous lessons, the role of education greatly impacts social mobility. It is, therefore, important to assess differential education achievement; that is, the different educational experiences from school, across different social groups. Remember the reason we study this is predominantly to understand social problems and inequalities, and therefore, to improve educational achievement will first begin by looking at social class.

Class is difficult to define and measure, and it has various ways of being measured. The official government measurement used in data collection, which takes into account income and wealth. Categories range from higher managerial and professional occupations to those who are unemployed. As a factor in understanding the effect of class on educational achievement, eligibility is often used, which is an indicator of families considered to be in receipt of certain benefits or support given to support families that are in receipt of certain benefits or support under a certain income; in 2014, 16.3% of all pupils at state-funded schools were eligible for FSM.

To begin, some recent data will be presented to show relationships between educational achievement and social class, then some theoretical understandings of these differences will be explored.

<b>Early Years</b>	In 2014, in the 30% most deprived areas in the country, only <b>53%</b> of children achieved a 'good level of development'. This is in contrast to the <b>65%</b> rate found in all other areas.
<b>Primary School</b>	11-year-olds at Key Stage 2 are expected to achieve a level 4. FSM pupils were less likely to achieve this than non-FSM. In 2012-13, <b>88%</b> of non-FSM pupils achieved a level 4 compared to <b>73%</b> of FSM pupils. This gap occurred for maths, whereby <b>73%</b> of FSM pupils achieved a level 4 compared to <b>87%</b> of non-FSM.
<b>Secondary School</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>Between autumn 2013 and spring 2014, the rate of getting five or more A*-C grades was <b>6.6%</b>, in comparison to <b>3.9%</b> of non-FSM pupils.</li><li>In 2012-13, the rate of getting five or more A*-C grades was <b>69.5%</b>, compared to <b>85.3%</b> for those not in receipt of FSM.</li></ul>
<b>Across primary and secondary school</b>	In 2012-13, FSM pupils were <b>four</b> times more likely to be permanently excluded, and <b>three</b> times more likely to experience period exclusion.
<b>Higher Education</b>	In 2010-2011, if at aged 15 a pupil received FSM, they were <b>four</b> times more likely to be in higher education at the age of 19 compared to those who did not receive FSM.

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While factors *within* school will be explored in upcoming lessons, this lesson focuses on factors *outside* of school, such as the family, and understand their contribution to a child's educational experience and attainment.

### Material Deprivation

Perspectives that focus on material deprivation draw attention to how poverty and class background affect schools and education. This may happen in a direct and obvious way, or be in an indirect and more subtle form.

Douglas (1964) outlined ways in which monetary factors can effect educational achievement, such as having a *lack of resources*. This could be in a variety of forms, such as lack of access to a computer, the Internet or books, and affording school trips and equipment. Farthing (2014) in his study of nearly 400 11–18-year-olds found that 27% of children on FSMs did not choose the subject because of the cost of the materials. The study also discovered that 54% of whom said that this had negative social impacts to consider as this shows that material factors have cultural and social impacts. In Holloway et al.'s study was the way in which not being able to afford an individual's esteem, facilitating these children to have a low self-esteem, or can then lead to truancy and other behavioural issues. This lack of resource backgrounds contrasts to middle-class families that have more disposable income to afford private tutoring and laptops or revision materials to aid their child's education, which a family may mediate between a child's socio-economic position and capacity for some parents to pay for schooling, or to pay for houses in good areas with access to better performing state schools.

One material factor affecting school performance of a child is that working parents have a need to be in employment alongside school. This usually results in less time studying, and can affect the student's performance within school if they are tired. Marsh and Kleitman (2005), in their study of American high-school students that were in employment while at school were less likely to be involved in extracurricular activities, received lower academic results, and had lower educational aspirations.

Material factors may also be less obvious and have effect on a more subtle level. For example, the stigma that occurs from not being able to afford a new uniform or the latest fashion accessory can lead to bullying and low self-esteem in students. Moreover, diet and nutrition is another factor that initially may not seem to have an obvious link, but actually has a strong correlation to educational attainment. For example, if a child has a poor or inadequate diet, this affects concentration levels and the capacity to work in school, as well as contributing to the likelihood of being ill, which can lead to missing school. Not only may this happen as a result of eating bad foods, it may also occur due to financial issues. Although FSM vouchers are available to children from certain low-income households who needs them fits the criteria. Holloway et al. (2014) found that 75% of children went hungry during the day, usually because they could not afford to buy a school lunch. An FSM ticket did not provide enough.

The impact of housing has been analysed in a study by Harker (2006), and found that children from low-income backgrounds experienced overcrowding in the home which can lead to:

- Lack of space to study
- No private space. This links to the cognitive development of a child and can lead to mental health issues.
- Health hazards. Poor housing may have issues such as damp which can lead to health problems.
- Stress. Low-income housing can lead to issues of stress which can affect the child and the parents.

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However, not many sociologists see material deprivation as a comprehensive explanation for differences in educational achievement, and so cultural explanations are seen as an interplay of class background and education.

### Cultural Deprivation

Cultural aspects of class may be the values, norms, behaviours and attitudes of a social group. These elements then implicate certain relationships to educational achievement. These are usually learnt by each social group in the process of socialisation. Sociologists of cultural deprivation see that parents pass down certain attitudes that are not always understood as the following:

	<b>Working class</b>	
<b>Attitude</b>	<i>Fatalistic</i> , meaning that there is a belief that they cannot change their circumstance and are powerless over their position. With education, this means that there is little emphasis on achieving good qualifications if there is such little chance of social mobility.	It is typical for working-class families to be regarded as having a fatalistic attitude. This is a class culture, where positive aspects of education and attitudes are not valued. Families have a fatalistic attitude to success, where it is not seen as important.
<b>Time focus</b>	<i>Immediate gratification</i> – valuing instant rewards within a short-term context. Within education, this may mean leaving school at the earliest possible age to enter employment, rather than continuing on in education to receive higher qualifications which would lead to better jobs.  <i>Present-time orientation</i> – due to having a fatalistic attitude, working-class students and families are more likely to be concerned with the present than the potential future.	<i>Deferred gratification</i> – working-class students may put off school leaving to achieve the highest possible qualifications. Middle-class students, during school, may not value their work well, but will enjoy higher grades, and will enjoy higher wages. Families have a deferred gratification, where it is easy to believe that education pays off.  <i>Future-time orientation</i> – working-class students are more concerned with the future and a better job, rather than towards long-term goals. Middle-class students often translate their education into a higher level qualification.
<b>Values and aspirations</b>	Douglas and Kahl (1965) argue that working-class parents push children into employment rather than emphasising education; this is similar to the work of Hyman (1967), which found that a working-class value system prevents pupils from succeeding in comparison to their middle-class counterparts. This is due to working-class values placing less emphasis on the importance of education and achieving a high-status job, and failing to acknowledge the personal development that education can offer.	Usually middle-class families have higher levels of qualifications, which is why they are more likely to understand the importance of education.

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This perspective sees these differences as a result of parenting, and, therefore, the fault for providing a deficient or inadequate socialisation and upbringing. This perspective is often associated with functionalist and New Right theories. Charles Murray argues that educational underachievement is typical of the working class as a result of inadequate socialisation, and they argue poor results in schools can lead to delinquent behaviour and criminal activity. According to this perspective, we understand grades and achievement as a result of the individual's and family's

## Lesson 11 Questions

1. List some of the ways you could approach measuring and researching education.
2. What is the general trend or relationship between social class and educational achievement?
3. Give examples and explain how material factors may affect a pupil's educational achievement and experience.
4. Define the term 'cultural factors' in relation to educational achievement.
5. Explain how immediate or deferred gratification attitudes can affect educational achievement in education.

### Extension Task

Independent research and notes.

Using the suggested web pages as well as the Internet more broadly, explore these points to add to your knowledge, understanding and notes.

- a) Research NS-SEC. Ensure you understand what it is, how groups are defined, how it is used and any criticisms.
- b) Read the following article to understand how changes are occurring in the concept of class. How does this alter your view of the NS-SEC classification?   
<http://www.bbc.co.uk/science/0/21970879>
- c) Discuss with a classmate: if you were to carry out research that looked at educational achievement, which categories and scales of class would you use? What problems might you incur for research?
- d) Follow the link to access the full report, a summary, and a list of references for Holloway et al.'s research. Treat the documents as a secondary source of data and theoretical explanations for the findings, as well as any other information that you add to your notes.   
<http://childrenscommission.org.uk/report>
- e) Using official government sources, explore other data results and add any useful and relevant information to your notes. Can you find specific areas to include?   
<https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics?departments%5B%5D=education>

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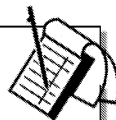


## Lesson Plan 12: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Structural cultural explanations of social class differential education achievements
- ✓ Bourdieu's approach to social class and education



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### Starter

#### Recap:

Have the students compare, contrast and discuss their findings from the extension task.

### Main

Read through the class notes together. After the 'Linguistic deprivation' section to use videos as examples and to consolidate learning. To clarify language may be useful:

- Ali G – <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ksGzn5bRFzQ> – example
- The Queen – <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZW4NKONRyUC> – elaborated code

The following two videos may be used to criticise Bernstein and highlight the straightforward:

- Russell Brand – <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VqsFp0J22Hc>
- Or Hollie McNish – <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bJX5XHm>

These videos either illustrate or highlight the complexity of understanding language come up with other examples if they can.

Then finish reading the class notes and have students answer the lesson questions together in class.

#### Activity:

In small groups, analyse an 11-plus paper to consider sociological comments. Discussions of ethnicity to also be raised:

[http://www.elevenplusexams.co.uk/assets/36/English\\_Practice\\_Test\\_Questions\\_paper](http://www.elevenplusexams.co.uk/assets/36/English_Practice_Test_Questions_paper)] Which language code is used? Is there a cultural capital bias?

Spend five minutes ensuring that students are comfortable with Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital. Put students in small groups and get them to reflect on the form of the culture of their school.

Have students begin to complete the extension task, but finish the preparation of the research as a homework activity. Inform students they must be ready to discuss in the next lesson.

### Plenary

#### Material and Cultural Factors:

Complete the 'Lesson 12: Plenary activity worksheet'. In the circle, write down the names of the class and thinkers. In the boxes at the side, write strengths and limitations of the class differences in attainment.

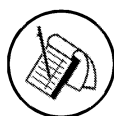
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## Lesson 12: Differential Educational Achievement

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Structural cultural explanations of social class differential educational achievement
- ✓ Bourdieu's approach to social class and education

To continue from the previous lesson, cultural factors that are involved in social class and educational achievement will be explored. However, the focus will be on these cultural class differences in a structural sense, which differs to cultural deprivation theory which sees these differences as a deficiency of the working class.

### Situational Constraints

While cultural deprivation theorists see cultural factors as occurring on an individual level, critics are critical of this approach. Those that use a situational constraint perspective argue that social structures that induce culture, attitudes and behaviours which may affect educational achievement, and is why it is often associated with Marxist theoretical approaches.

If we reassess cultural aspects such as the role of attitudes, values and aspirations from a situational perspective, it is possible to see that these variations between classes may be due to situational failings. These theorists argue that it is not that different classes have different values, but that a certain class position in society lends itself to shaping certain behaviours. For example, a working-class situation, which is structural and not the result of individual efforts, can lead to certain disadvantages, experienced.

For example, those that use situational constraint understandings would argue that all social classes share the values that society has in general, but they experience difficulties in upholding these values. For example, Westergaard and Resler (1976) found that working-class parents do have an interest in their child's achievement, but due to lack of cultural capital, they find it difficult in expressing these sentiments in a way that produces effective educational outcomes. Contextualising values and aspirations is also emphasised in the work of Bourdieu. He uses concepts of relative and absolute aspirations to draw attention to the often low aspirations of the working-class. He argues that when asking children about their job aspirations, it has a different meaning if you compare these aspirations in light of the job the parents do. For example, a middle-class child may desire to be a doctor, a similar job to their parent's. For a working-class child, it may be that a child aspires to be a nurse. Although this job is lower in status, it is similar to what a parent had a job such as a cleaner, there is a greater expression of aspiration. In contrast, a middle-class child who is simply following in their parent's footsteps may not express a strong aspiration.

### Linguistic Deprivation

Bernstein (1971) looked at one particular part of cultural factors: that of language. When conducting interviews with pupils from different social classes, he categorised their language into two types:

<b>Restricted code</b>	Simple vocabulary and grammar, only makes sense in a specific context, casual.  <i>Ali G could be used as an example of someone who uses this speech code.</i>
<b>Elaborated code</b>	Formal, sophisticated and complex language, used to explain things to others to be understood.  <i>The Queen is an example of someone that uses this code.</i>

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Of these types, working classes know the restricted code, and middle class know the elaborated code. Bernstein argued that school uses the elaborated speech codes, and so working-class students are at a disadvantage. For example, what sort of vocabulary are your textbooks? What sort of presentation, what sort of language do you use? Usually within educational institutions, a certain formality is expected and found.

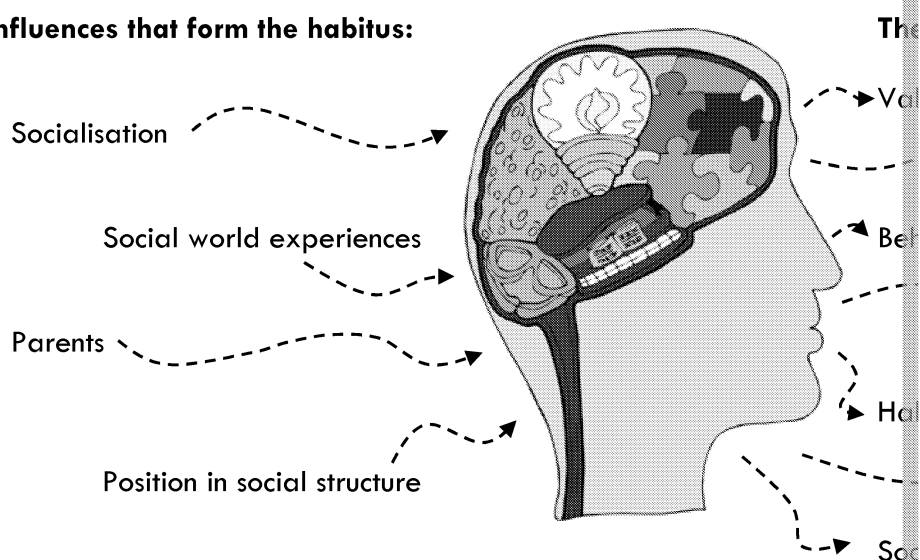
However, while many often agree that educational institutions use middle-class language, it is oversimplification and deterministic to say that working classes only use the restricted code. They argue that the working-class are able to understand and use an elaborated code. The key is to pay attention to how the elaborated code is not in fact a superior form of language. Sociolinguistic analysis suggests.

### Cultural Capital

Bourdieu, a sociologist with Marxist influences, developed the concept of cultural capital to understand how class impacts educational differences. Researching schools, he found that middle-class students succeeded in school more than working-class students because they possess more cultural capital. Unlike a Marxist or economic approach, Bourdieu explored elements of culture, such as taste and appreciation for art, which are shaped and either advantaged or disadvantaged a person's social and economic position. The way in which this form of capital is accessed, accumulated and used, Bourdieu called the *habitus*.

The habitus should be understood as the way a person thinks, their habits, and their behaviour. It is learnt through socialisation, and influenced by things such as family, social structure and parents. Each social class has a habitus, and while each class's habitus can be different, generally speaking each class has a distinct habitus.

#### Influences that form the habitus:



The class tendencies towards different cultures affect educational achievement. A middle-class habitus consists of culture that is considered elite or high, such as reading classics, listening to classical music, appreciating Renaissance art, and going to the opera. On the other hand, a working-class habitus is socialised with values seen as 'low' or 'popular', such as an emphasis on reading and an enjoyment of things such as reality TV. This affects educational achievement, because educational institutions are middle-class oriented. The curriculum, organisation of school, course content, types of knowledge and assessment are aspects of school that are built upon appreciating and rewarding middle-class values. Middle-class students, who have been socialised with these values, succeed.

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achieving good grades, while the working classes experience a mismatch between educational institutions and do not get the same rewards. This is not just a matter of resources, however, but interactions and relationships will also reinforce these class divisions. The process of judgment and labelling of a student's social class and educational ability is a key part of the educational process. A teacher labels and measures a student against a desirable figure of merit, the middle-class values. Those who fulfil this ideal, usually middle-class pupils, are advantaged, while those who do not are at a disadvantage.

But to what extent is Bourdieu's work a reality for students? Reay et al.'s research on students in elite universities found that university is built upon middle-class values and that working-class students in attendance had to learn middle-class values to succeed in this environment. In terms of secondary schools, Sullivan (2001) used questionnaires to obtain data that partially supported Bourdieu's research from the 1960s. She found that watching music had no influence on a pupil's GCSE attainment, and so she disputed the idea of music as cultural capital. However, she did find that those that watched complex fiction achieved better grades than those who watched soaps or reality TV.

## Lesson 12 Questions

1. How is someone that uses a situational constraint approach different from a cultural deprivation theorist?
2. How does Bernstein see language as affecting educational attainment?
3. According to Bourdieu, how does an individual come to shape their identity and behaviours?
4. Describe the interests and leisure time of a middle-class pupil using cultural capital, and explain how this advantages them in education.

### Extension Task

#### Independent Research

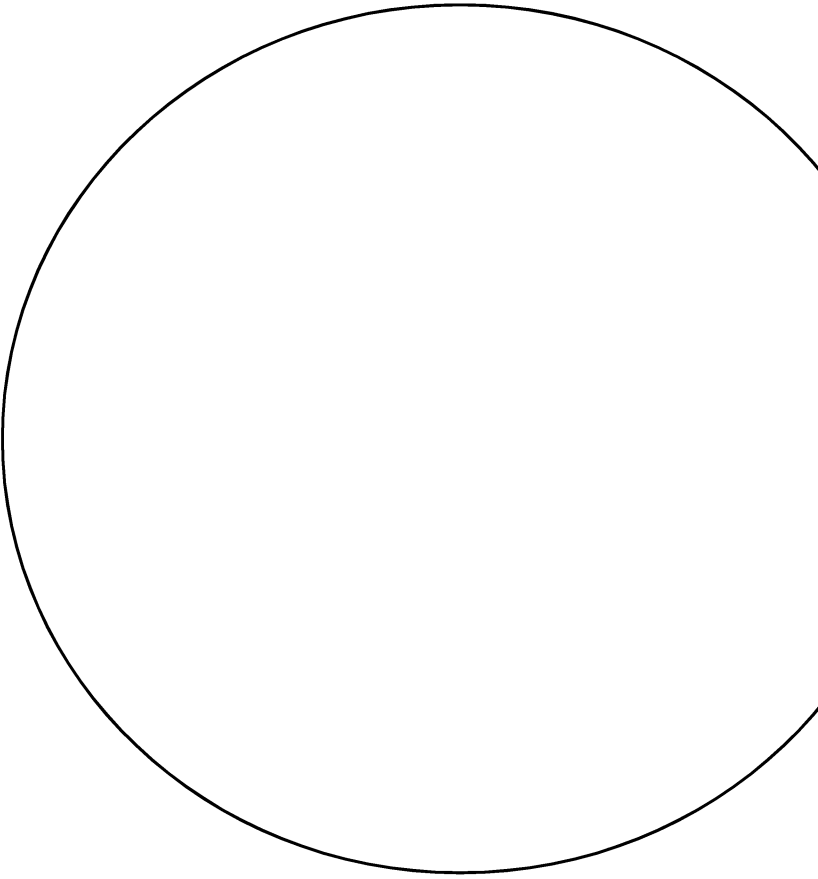
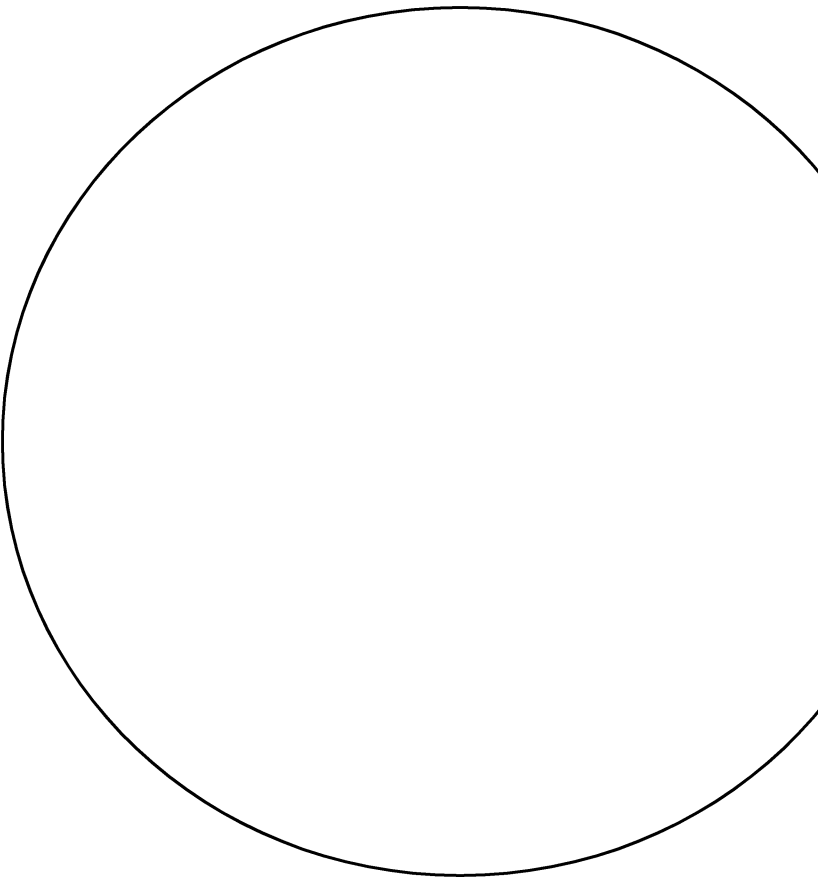
Your task is to design and complete a research method that investigates the influence of cultural factors on educational achievement for students at A Level.

Be sure to consider which method is most appropriate, ethics, types of data, sample representativeness and theoretical approach to analysis.

Conduct the research before the next lesson and prepare the results in a presentation.

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## Lesson Plan 13: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Understand key trends of differential education achievement by gender
- ✓ Account for reasons for these trends



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### Starter

#### Recap:

Have the students present their findings, from their independent research lesson. Compare and contrast the research designs, findings and analysis. Overall specification point of understanding differential education achievement. Theoretical understandings of the role and function of the educational system.

### Main

Read through the opening section of the class notes and discuss the key points of differential educational achievement, i.e. girls outperform boys, whereas historically boys have outperformed girls.

Get the students into two groups and give each group a theme of either: Factors outside of school or Factors inside school.

Using the class notes and their own research, get the students to give a presentation of reasons for gender differences in attainment. Give students the '**Lesson 13 worksheet**' for guidance on writing, preparing and delivering a presentation.

The key points the presentations should cover (and if they don't, be sure to cover these):  
Factors outside of school: impact of feminism, legislation changes, changes in society, de-industrialisation, move to service economy, increase in female role models.  
Factors within school: gendered behaviour/attitudes/values, gender identity, teacher-pupil relationships.

Allow 25–30 minutes preparation time, and then the rest of the time for presentation. Encourage students to complete wider research than the class notes, and to present their own research. When watching the other presentations, remind students to add to their notes and on to the plenary activity worksheet.

Set the extension task as listed on the Lesson 12 questions as a homework task.

### Plenary

Answer the '**Lesson 13 Questions**' provided to consolidate learning.

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## Lesson 13: Differential Educational Achievement

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### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:

- ✓ Key trends of differential education achievement by gender
- ✓ Account for reasons for these trends

In the last three decades, females have outperformed males in all levels of education, as shown from the timeline below. This is a departure from the trend that previously saw males outperforming females. For example, when universities first opened, women were not allowed to attend them, and until the late 1980s boys received better grades than girls. What has changed in the trend between male and female educational attainment? This can be explained with some recent data of male and female educational attainment using the following table. It is evident that girls are outperforming boys, at differing rates, across all ages.

#### Early Years

Assessed before children reach the age of 5, in 2013 **69%** of girls were given a 'good level of development' status in comparison to **52%** of boys

#### Secondary School

In 2012–2013, **65.7%** of girls received five A\*–C GCSEs in comparison to **55.6%** of boys

#### Primary School

11-year-olds at Key Stage 2 are expected to achieve a level 4. In 2012–13 the percentage of children that obtained that were:

	Females	Males
Reading	88%	83%
Grammar, punctuation, spelling	79%	69%
Maths	85%	85%

#### Higher Education

In 2011–12, **157,900** females received a first or 2:1 degree compared to **157,900** males at **63%**.

### Differences in attainment

Sociological accounts for these differences and disparities in educational attainment are found in two broad but interlinking camps: changes outside of school and factors within the school. Understanding of gender identities.

### Factors outside of school

A substantial number of changes in terms of gender and the role of men and women within the home and wider society since the 1980s, and these changes have had a significant effect on the institution of education. The fact that more women are in the workforce has many significant effects on society and education. With more women entering the workforce, the role of women has shifted from being predominantly a carer and housewife to a professional. Mothers to be in paid employment. This has led to newer generations having more opportunities for females to have career prospects and as a result, the role of women was quite static, it is now generally understood that girls can choose their own path, in terms of family, career and identity.

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In light of this, women in contemporary society are nowadays economically independent, and these changing values, attitudes and economies have led to more education, that girls have reason to be motivated to achieve. In the 1950s, for example, a girl would have no reason to work hard at school because her future trajectory was already decided; she would attend school, and when she finished, she would potentially work, maybe just help around the house, until she married and started a family of her own. Nowadays, in a diverse labour market and a society where it is normal for women to have careers, a female may choose what career she wants and whether she wants a family. This gives women a sense of purpose and a reason to be motivated to achieve in education, for the benefits and opportunities available to them in the labour market.

The reason for these changes coming around has interplaying factors, with many elements contributing to a change in landscape of economic and educational opportunities. Firstly, changes in legislation occurred so that gender equality was on the agenda. The Discrimination Act 1975 meant that discriminating on the grounds of gender was illegal, which had an effect on getting more women into work. Secondly, the increasing visibility of seeing changes not only in legislation, but in shifting values, attitudes and social norms. A movement campaigned so that women were not only legally allowed to work, but culturally they are accepted. Sue Sharpe's research confirms this notion of the importance of the role of education; completing research in 1976 and age 16, in her initial study girls' priorities and concerns were around finding love and marriage. In a later study, girls said that their focus was on getting a career.

### **Factors inside school**

These changes from outside of school inevitably affected what happens inside the inside of schools. Girls progressing and doing better in education have been linked to factors such as changes in teacher-pupil relationships, and alterations in the organisation of schools. In light of wider societal change and the role of women, teachers now have less gendered stereotypes than before and have higher aspirations and expectations from female students. Having higher expectations and removing gendered stereotypes can lead to a motivation on girls' achievement. The content of school has also changed to adapt to the introduction of citizenship as a subject, or the way in which sexism is now taught in PSE. Having gender equality a conscious part of the curriculum contributes to more opportunities in school. As for the boys, Mitsos and Browne (1998) found that boys and girls differently; with boys they were less enforcing of rules and regulations, and they were more so than girls, and had lower expectations of male students. A lack of disruptive behaviour, involvement with subcultures and a loss of motivation in the labour market contribute to male underachievement.

### **Gender identities**

Although the role of women is changing, sociological research has found a difference in the attitude and behaviour of males and females. Hannan (1998) is talking, while boys communicate by being active. This correlates to education, where girls are therefore, better equipped and developed, generally speaking, in language and literacy, which are the aspects that are assessed in school. This is reinforced by research on 'girly' leisure-time activity; with girls reading more than boys from a young age, they are in a position of advantage in terms of vocabulary, reading and linguistic skills. It is found that gendered attitudes contribute to a disparity in achievement; boys are more overconfident, and are likely to assume they are doing well and blame the teacher, whereas it is found that girls express more self-doubt and lack confidence. This leads to a harder work ethic.

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Another form of gendered behaviour that relates to dominant aspects of that it is more common and accepted for girls to ask for help, while notice boys are less likely to ask for help, which aids female educational development learning. The work of Burns and Bracey (2001) shows that gendered behaviour to girls working harder for their grades. Their research found that boys are doing school work, while girls are more likely to do work at home as well as impacts on their attainment.

Behaviour within the classroom is also an important factor. Francis (2003) observations to find that boys' behaviour was 'laddish', meaning they were behaved in silly ways, which contrasts to the typical feminine classroom sensible and getting on with work. These studies show that behaviour and feminine align with school and educational ideals to succeed, meaning that and behave is more suited to achieving in education.

## Lesson 13 Questions

1. What is the key trend between boys' and girls' educational attainment?
2. How have cultural and structural changes in wider society affected schools?
3. Regarding factors inside of school, list ways in which the following achievement for boys and girls:
  - Behaviour
  - Values and Attitudes

### Extension Task

Find statistics for secondary school results of boys and girls for the following years: 1990, 2000, 2010. What trends can you find?

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## Lesson 13: Presentation task worksheet

Using the handout notes, as well as your own Internet research, prepare a presentation on a topic. The presentation should contain all the information you will need on this topic in the exam, and be between 5 and 10 minutes long.

### Planning

- To be time-efficient, split the research up and allocate people tasks
- Identify the main points of the topic and be sure to make them a key focus of the presentation
- Use the handout notes as a starting point, then use your own research and the Internet to expand the information and gather evidence
- For an understanding of the education topic, be sure to cover: key words or vocabulary, definitions and an in-depth case study. Perhaps make a checklist, or start with a spider diagram of ideas.

### Researching

- When using the Internet, and even books, consider the source. Is it a reputable and reliable source? Have you fact checked? Is the information up to date?
- Be sure to critically read the information and understand what it means sociologically
- Pick an interesting case study that not only illustrates key themes, but brings out criticisms or contradictions also
- Use a variety of sources. Even if you just use the Internet, be sure to use a variety of different trusted and reliable websites

Some useful websites:

- <http://scholar.google.co.uk/> – to find sociological research
- <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics?department=department-for-education> – Department for Education data
- <https://www.gov.uk/government/policies?department=department-for-education> – Department for Education policies

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## Lesson Plan 14: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ The debate surrounding the boys' underachievement discourse
- ✓ Ways in which education is gendered
- ✓ Feminist perspective of education and gendered achievement
- ✓ New Right social theory
- ✓ New Right perspective of the role and function of the education system



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### Starter

#### Recap:

Have students share their findings from last lesson's extension activity and conclusions. Ensure that students are engaging in discussion around differences of educational attainment, but around the research methods.

### Main

Give students the class notes and work through the sheets.

Once you have reached the 'Gendered subject choice' section, break for the following video of a news segment: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N>

Have students sociologically analyse this news clip in terms of the content in small groups to discuss the notion that boys are underachieving; which sociological analysis? How do students feel personally about the issue?

Finish reading the rest of the notes on the handouts. Then have students complete lesson 13 question sheet.

In pairs, have students debate whether they agree with a feminist perspective on attainment. Try to encourage them to think of their own examples which support feminist notions.

Have students complete the extension exercise in class if there is Internet access, otherwise set it as a homework task.

### Plenary

Using the worksheet that was introduced in lesson 7, have students fill in the 'Role and function of the education system worksheet'.

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## Lesson 14: Differential Educational Achievement

### *Learning Objectives -*

#### *After this lesson you should understand:*



- ✓ The debate surrounding boys' underachievement discourse
- ✓ Ways in which education is gendered
- ✓ Feminist perspective of education and gendered achievement

The last lesson having identified the trend that girls outperform boys in this lesson will unpick this phenomenon on a deeper level to understand equates to girls achieving more, and situate the debate in a wider societal context.

### **The discourse of underachieving boys**

#### **Cause for concern**

The previous lesson explored the trend that females are outperforming males in educational achievement. For some, this has led to a concern over boys and their achievement. Mac an Ghaill (1994), in response to changing gender roles, argued that this occurred whereby a simultaneous and opposite effect has occurred for males due to changes in the labour market. De-industrialisation and shifts into a more service economy that men no longer fulfil traditional manual labour jobs, while women enter the workforce and opportunities in paid employment. He argues that this change in opportunities and as a result the purpose of education; boys experience a sense of failure and are open to a widening of opportunity and prospect.

New Right theorists also express concern at the change of educational achievement. They see it as fitting into a larger picture of a deterioration of traditional functions of the labour market and the increase of female-headed lone-parent families has left with no traditional male role models, which has led them to educational underachievement. This has a knock-on effect of their being involved with criminal and delinquent behaviour. Theorists such as Charles Murray, this is a threat to society and should be addressed by the nuclear family and traditional gender roles.

There have been educational policy changes since the trend has emerged to attempt to restore a more equal attainment. For example, single-sex classes have been brought into some schools as well as recruitment drives for male teachers in primary education. The idea that boys need male role models stems from the notion that there has been a 'feminisation' of education, whereby boys are disadvantaged because schools have predominantly female staff, and are built upon recognising and rewarding aspects that are traditionally feminine, such as having creative and discussion-based classes. Phillips (2002) has argued that because of this tendency, boys struggle in school and participate in subcultures to compensate for the conflicts between their own values and values emphasised in school. The research of Sukhnandan (1999) also involved with subculture, as a response to females doing well, and highlights that the subcultures entail affect all boys, whether they are actively involved or not. This occurs because, if being resistant to education is common for the devalued group, these values become expectations for all boys, so even if some may not value education, they are measured against these values and then must contend with them against their peers.

From research conducted in the past, the trend has been to encourage boys to participate in school and to value education.

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**Losing boys and winning girls? Criticism of the underachieving boys**  
 However, do these factors and the trend of females outperforming males  
 Feminist sociologists argue that the issues must be explored deeper to be  
 more dynamic than first appears. Epstein (1998) frames the discourse of  
**moral panic**, and argues that instead of drawing attention to areas of concern  
 it conceals areas of privilege and heightens disadvantage. She argues that  
 educational experience enforces male privilege by focusing the public attention  
 on boys. It also deflects attention from girls that may need assistance still, because of their  
 educational advantage.

More recent work that echoes these claims is that of Francis (2006), who  
 vulnerable or in a crisis, as research shows that they still hold higher self-esteem  
 attention to how the moral panic surrounding gender differential achievement  
 from the other issues of class and ethnicity, which actually hold a greater  
 In her research, Francis uses data to reveal that white boys outperform  
 she exemplifies the need for an **intersectional** approach in research and  
 achievement among social groups.

The sociologist McRobbie (2013) argues that the concern over the 'feminisation'  
 the trend to view boys as marginalised and underachieving, is situated within  
 McRobbie identifies current social trends of a backlash against feminism  
 belief that we are in a 'postfeminist' era: a time when gender equality has  
 need for concern around gender in contemporary society. She is critical of  
 arguing that the effect of these trends is to 'undo' the progress feminism  
 from the gender problems that are found in today's society.

### **Gendered subject choice**

Many feminists draw attention to the importance of contextualising  
 the gender educational debate into a larger understanding, beyond  
 just a comparison of grades and attainment. Subject choices  
 throughout education are still heavily gendered, and this implicates  
 certain advantages or consequences. In general, girls choose arts  
 and humanities subjects, while there are more boys in subjects that  
 are technical and scientific. In the 2011–2013 A Level cohort in the  
 UK, almost twice as many boys than girls did maths, five times  
 more boys did physics, and fourteen times more male than female students  
 was the only science subject where there were marginally more girls than boys.

The continuation of gendered socialisation can partially explain the difficulties  
 are still given dolls to play with, and boys trucks or DIY kits. From an early  
 society, dominant images and roles are expressed that suggest girls are  
 are more suited to others. These notions are then reinforced through domestic  
 evident from Murphy's (1991) research with children. In the experiment  
 designing ships and cars. The research found that boys focused on design  
 practicality of transport, while girls considered the people aspects of the  
 transport. This supports the notion that there are *gender domains*, where  
 particular activities and associations to them. Kelly's (1987) research found  
 domain, and in classroom observations found that boys were loud, assumed  
 experiments and were physically dominating, evidenced by things such as  
 items. Dynamics such as this in a classroom help to reinforce notions of  
 images, continuing a gender divide in subject choices.

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## Education in context

What is the significance of more boys choosing engineering, and more girls choosing education? Which subjects students choose in education foregrounds their future job and their gender. Despite achieving higher grades, and the introduction of legislation such as the Equality Act 2010, women are at a disadvantage in the bigger picture, evident in gendered **occupation gap**. For example, the Fawcett Society outlines how the industries that women work in, such as cleaning and caring, are paid and valued less than areas which are male-dominated such as construction and engineering. In 2013, the pay gap between men and women was £11.50. That is, for every £100 that a man earned, a female would earn 81p. Gendered subject choices are a matter of preference, but they contain segregated economic and social repercussions.

## Feminist Perspective of the role of Education

Feminist critiques of gendered differences of educational experience have also worth understanding their perspective of the role of education more broadly. Education is situated within a **patriarchal** society, feminists see school as a mechanism of male domination. While it is acknowledged that explicit discrimination such as at university is no longer practised and there is legislation in place to prevent it from occurring, feminists draw attention to the more subtle mechanisms that perpetuate inequality.

Schools can be seen as male-dominated in their use of *gendered language*, for example, 'he' and 'him' is used instead of the female or a gender-neutral example. In an analysis study, Best (1992) found that in 132 books for preschool children, 111 men and 11 than female included, so in terms of numbers there were more men. This was not surprising; however, though; Best found that in family situations, men were present in these scenes 75%, reinforcing a gendered role stereotype. However, since then, Weiner's research found that images and language had been removed from books and materials that are used in schools.

Some feminists draw attention to the content of the curriculum, and how it is often only a marginal piece of the course. For example, while it is certain everyone has heard of Rosalind Franklin? She helped discover the 'double helix' structure of DNA in the 1950s, and yet is rarely heard of. How many prominent female figures are mentioned compared to male? The black feminist Hazel Carby (1997) uses language to highlight how while women in general have been left out of textbooks and the general curriculum, black women in particular have been completely erased. She uses the word 'erasure' to describe and expose the way in which black women have been neglected from dominant narratives.

Looking at the role of women more broadly, not just in textbooks but in schools themselves, feminists highlight the patriarchal structures evident in these institutions. While the majority of teachers are women, in 2012, 23% of men working in schools received the top pay bracket amount, in comparison to 19% of women. This means that, although there are more women in the profession, men are more likely to be in higher-status roles; for example, it is more common for a teacher to be a woman and a head teacher to be a man. As a site of secondary socialisation, feminists see how patriarchal structures and norms are being reinforced through education as an institution in both structural and cultural forms, and the damaging effect this has.

**Moral Panic** – The fear of a crisis or disaster, often based on stereotypes, or popular opinions, cause public intervention or regulation.

**Intersectional** – A concept that views phenomena as intersecting and influenced by gender, class and race.

**Equal Pay Act (1967)** – A law that aims to reduce differences of pay between men and women.

**Occupational Segregation** – A concept found across a wide range of countries, being more concerned with the way men and women are clean and separated by gender.

**Patriarchy** – An ideology or system of being male-dominated.

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## Lesson 14 Questions

1. What criticisms are there of the underachieving boys discourse?
2. What are the trends of subject choices of students according to gender?
3. Why do feminists argue that gendered subject choices are an issue?
4. According to feminists, what is the role and function of education?

### Extension Task

#### Follow-up Research:

Read the following articles to expand your notes on a feminist understanding of education.

Education in context: <http://www.fawcettsociety.org.uk/our-work/careers>

Gendered language: [http://www.alternet.org/story/48856/why\\_sexist\\_language\\_is\\_a\\_problem\\_for\\_women](http://www.alternet.org/story/48856/why_sexist_language_is_a_problem_for_women)

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## Lesson Plan 15: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Key trends in differential educational achievement by ethnicity
- ✓ Factors inside school that contribute to these trends



### You Will

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### Starter

#### Discussion:

Open up the new topic of ethnicity by encouraging students to reflect on their own educational attainment. Reflect on your school's ethnic composition, and how it compares to the country. Depending on class composition and sensitivity, get students to discuss their own and perceptions of ethnicity and education.

From a sociological perspective, have students discuss how we might open up

### Main

Work through the lesson notes and then allow the class to answer the questions. Give students the class notes and read the introduction, up until the 'Factors

Then watch the following video: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zKAsX>  
This video covers what ethnicity is and what a current multicultural UK society refers to the UK population as a whole, not populations of schools). The aim is for students to better understand the demographic make-up of educational institutions. Also share the following facts and explore the wider

#### In 2013:

- In state-funded primary schools 28.5% of pupils were classified as BME, an increase from 27.6% in 2012.
- In state-funded secondary schools 24.2% of pupils were classified as BME origin, an increase from 23.2% in 2012.

#### Summary of national trends of ethnicity of school populations:

<http://www.theguardian.com/education/2011/jun/22/quarter-state-school-ethnicity>

Finish reading the rest of the notes on the handouts. Then have students complete the lesson 13 question sheet. Use marking the answers as a class as a springboard for further discussion around the themes that arose in the class content. Ask students to give examples to support their answers.

Allow students to make a start on the extension task as time permits, and it should be completed for next lesson.

### Plenary

#### Media Analysis:

Compare and contrast the following articles. Consider content, presentation and how each article contribute to understanding differential educational attainment.

- <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2014/nov/12/london-gcse-scores>
- <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2006892/1-4-primary-schools-minority.html>

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## Lesson 15: Differential Educational Achievement

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Key trends in differential educational achievement by ethnicity
- ✓ Factors inside school that contribute to these trends

Another area of interest in differential educational attainment is that of *ethnicity*. This refers to a social group that shares a national or cultural heritage. Aspects relating to or defining ethnicity as part of an identity may be: common descent, geographical origins, language, religion or tradition. The term 'ethnic minority' is used to describe a group that has an ethnicity that is different to the majority of a population, so for example in the UK an ethnic minority group could be Indian, Pakistani or African-Caribbean.

It is important to be mindful of language when discussing ethnicity. Remember that ethnicity is a social construct, and that there is great variation among ethnic minorities. The aspect of ethnicity, remember to specify exactly which group you are talking about. It would be wrong to say that 'ethnic minorities do better/worse in exams'.

Gillborn and Mirza (2000) in their research project on educational differences in secondary schools, and only a handful of primary schools, in the country 'white', which highlights the importance of understanding how ethnicity and experience. Their research also highlights that African-Caribbean, Pakistani students that are in a position of disadvantage in education, experience exclusion from training markets, and an increased chance of social and economic exclusion. To understand and address inequality from early on in life. As Coard (2004) *of education to different classes or ethnic or other groups within a society is... to subjugating and marginalising those who are denied any, or inferior education*.

This lesson will look at key trends of ethnicity as a factor of differential educational achievement and analyse factors from inside school to account for these differences. As the experience, taking into account the plurality of ethnicities in the UK and entails, some key statistics and trends are listed below so that sociological claims are supported by evidence:

<b>Early Years</b>	In 2013, the levels of children achieving the status of 'good' were; white and mixed background – 53%, Asian background – 49%, black pupils – 51%.
<b>Primary School</b>	11-year-olds at Key Stage 2 are expected to achieve 75% of white children and 75% of pupils with a mixed background. This is in contrast to 74% of Asian pupils.
<b>Secondary School</b>	Using GCSE results from 2012–2013, it is possible to see that white pupils continue to be the highest-achieving ethnic group, achieving above the national average of those that achieved 5 or more A*-C grades. In comparison to pupils from a black background who are 2.5 percentage points below the national average.

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<b>Across primary and secondary school</b>	A 2006 government report 'Getting it. Getting it right' found that black pupils were punished and disciplined more than white British pupils. Black pupils are 3 times more likely to be labelled as having behavioural special needs, 3 times more likely to be identified as having special educational needs and are 5 times less likely to be identified as gifted and talented.
<b>Higher Education</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>In 2010–2011, those categorised as NEET (not in education, employment or training) was for white and mixed ethnic background pupils 17% and Asian pupils 5%.</li> <li>LSE published a report using the 2008 UCAS data found that black and minority ethnic applicants from Indian, Black Caribbean and Chinese backgrounds were less likely to receive an offer than white British candidates. However, it was found that on average black and minority ethnic candidates did not appear to be disadvantaged compared to white candidates. However, it was found that on average black and minority ethnic candidates received 7 fewer offers for every 100 applications. Black African and Bangladeshi applicants received 10 fewer offers for every 100 applications.</li> </ul>

### Factors inside school

#### Racism

One way in which some pupils may be at disadvantage is from racist perceptions or prejudiced or discriminatory against an individual or group based on their ethnicity. The Coard found that schools make black students feel inferior, which was due to the image of white people as 'good' and black people as 'evil'. This was reinforced by:

- Negative representations, e.g. in textbooks
- Black culture being absent from the curriculum
- Racism in the playground
- Telling African-Caribbean students their language abilities are seen as a barrier to learning

This can be understood as *institutional racism*, which is a term to express racism that is not directly, but indirectly, institutions such as schools or the police, are racist. It does not mean that all individuals within the institutions are racist, but instead explains the way in which the structures, processes, policies, attitudes and behaviours of the institution. If other structures are racist towards an individual, or institutions are built around racist assumptions, then it is likely that ethnic minorities are going to negatively experience education and struggle to overcome within the educational system.

In light of public concern for racial equality, in 1985 the 'Swann Report' was published. The report focused on educational experience in light of ethnicity, and suggested ways to educate children of ethnic minority, to making education as an anti-racist experience, ensuring all children receive a multicultural education. Despite this, as time went on there are still disparities between ethnicities and attainment. Moreover, in the context of the marketisation of education, schools may be more selective in their admissions by religion. The Commission for Racial Equality released a report in 1993 with evidence and data suggesting concerns for these trends, racial bias in enrolment in schools. Barriers such as enrolment information not being provided in languages understood by ethnic minority parents not being familiar or having access to information, were present and either measures were not in place, or they were not enough to overcome these obstacles.

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## Ethnocentrism

More recent sociological research leans towards using the concept of ethnic disadvantage. *Ethnocentrism* is the idea that one culture is favoured and others. It is used to explain the often subtle and indirect ways in which culture is reproduced. Below are some of the ways schools can be understood as ethnocentric

- Sewell (1997), using ethnographic research, found that black male pupils were not recognised in the curriculum, and that people made assumptions about them as a threat
- Schools have Christian assemblies
- The school calendar is arranged around Christian and English holidays
- School canteens may not cater for halal food
- School uniform may conflict with cultural requirements
- Ranson (2005) highlights that school governing bodies are disproportionately white and middle class, which means they are the ones making decisions and shaping the institution
- Ethnocentric curriculum: subjects such as history, geography and English generally promote and focus on a traditional 'British' perspective, and other cultures/nations are either missing or presented negatively

## Labelling in relation to ethnicity

Another aspect of what may be understood as either racism or ethnocentrism is labelling. Assumptions that are made about an individual or group may benefit or disadvantage them. Brittan found in the responses of her 510 postal questionnaires that where black Caribbean students were expected to be lower ability than pupils of other ethnicities. (1990) found that teachers expected black males to be more troublesome. If labelling will be further explored in upcoming lessons, it is important to be aware of such as African-Caribbean and black students are assumed to be lower ability and worse behaviour than other ethnicities, which implicates their experience and achievement. For example, Wright (1992) found that black male students were sent out of lessons more than white students, affecting their attainment levels. Wright's research also found that teachers committed to the values of equal opportunities and equality in education were less likely to carry them through in actions. For example, the research found that teachers spent less time and attention in lessons compared to their white counterparts, assuming that black students caused embarrassment and discomfort by mispronouncing their names.

However, it is important to recognise the variety of impact that stereotypes and labels may have. For example, expectations that Chinese students will be hard working and intelligent may serve to increase educational attainment among these students as teachers work with them in a positive and encouraging manner. Mirza's (1992) research found that African-Caribbean females have a positive self-image and high aspirations, so group labels may need a gendered understanding. O'Donnell found that African-Caribbean and Indian boys participate in school but with different sets of values. He found that African-Caribbean boys have anti-school sentiments, while Indian male subcultures did not reject school. They found ways to use it to their advantage. Finally, Mac an Ghaill's (1992) research found that black and Asian students found that these two groups experience racism with different coping strategies and techniques that were developed to manage these experiences. They managed to successfully navigate their position, for example, by avoiding

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relationships with supportive teachers. Mac an Ghaill's research is also understood in a diversity of experience; he found that for some racism was issues such as immigration laws or the labour market, while others felt it was particularly detrimental. By completing ethnographic research, he found labels, while others rejected them, and so it is not possible to say that being necessitates a particular outcome.

## Lesson 15 Questions

1. List some trends from the information on the class sheet about ethnic achievement.
2. Define ethnocentrism.
3. Give examples of how school can be understood as racist or ethn
4. How do negative assumptions or labels from teachers affect stud

### Extension Task

#### An Ethnocentric Curriculum?

Design and complete a research task with the aim of gaining insight into your school's curriculum, is ethnocentric.

You will want to consider whether you want quantitative or qualitative you are going to use. Some good starting points would be government reading lists / course content information. It may also be useful in your class and gendered aspects of the curriculum.

Prepare your data and analysis to present to the class next lesson.

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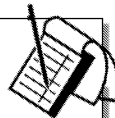


## Lesson Plan 16: Differential Educational Achievement

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Factors outside of school contributing to ethnic differences in educational achievement
- ✓ Intersectional approaches to understanding differential educational attainment
- ✓ Postmodernism: social theory and perspective on education
- ✓ New Right social theory
- ✓ New Right perspective of the role and function of the education system



### Starter

#### Recap:

Have the students present their findings from their independent research lesson. Compare and contrast the research designs, findings and analysis.

#### Discussion around ethnicities:

What is our understanding of racism?

### Main

#### Handout:

Give students the handouts and read the 'Factors outside of school' and class notes. Have students complete the Lesson 15 extension task worksheet summary.

#### Teacher talks:

Read the two sections on postmodernism on the handouts. Be sure to be clear on paragraphs, to clarify any concepts or answer any questions. If this is the first time postmodernism as a theory, be sure to spend time exploring examples to confirm understanding, put students in pairs and have one explain to the other to explain a postmodern perspective of education.

Have students answer the Lesson 15 questions, and then go through the other's work.

Set section B of the extension task as a homework, but if time and resources allow, look at the article together as a class to ensure students understand the context of the report. As an optional homework, have students watch this lecture for examples of these notions:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H3E1dEWhd2Y&app=desktop>

### Plenary

#### Discussion:

Engage students in debate and discussion around the following questions:  
Are factors inside or outside of school more impactful to ethnic differences?  
Does gender, ethnicity or class have the most bearing on shaping educational achievement?

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## Lesson 16: Differential Educational Achievement

### *Learning Objectives -*

#### *After this lesson you should understand:*



- ✓ Factors outside of school contributing to ethnic differences
- ✓ Intersectional approaches to understanding differential educational achievement
- ✓ Postmodernism: social theory and perspective on education

Factors from outside school will now be explored to account for differences across ethnicity. These are important as schools are not exempt from the influence of the wider society they are within. This lesson will also look at the importance of how to understand educational attainment from an intersectional approach, which is explored in relation to its interaction with class and gender.

### **Factors outside school**

Certain cultures are often associated with particular family types and structures, and politics more widely there is debate as to whether this affects educational achievement. In Caribbean families, there are higher rates of female lone parents as the head of the household than in other ethnic groups. This leads some to argue that this corresponds to a higher level of expenditure on children and their socialisation. New Right theorists in particular have criticised this structure, arguing that lone-parent families do not provide role models for their children; they draw attention to the link between single parents and material deprivation.

However, it is important to recognise methodological implications of these findings. The presence of active father figures; however, if the parental couple is unmarried, this will be less relevant. With cohabiting couples, this factor may be increasingly relevant. Carby (1999) found that black women have been and continue to be strong heads of households, managing to support and raise a family while being in paid employment. In 1979, Pryce found that in African-Caribbean families living in Bristol were 'turbulent' and that they had a high level of conflict; however, despite this, parents had high aspirations for their children. This is also found in Driver and Ballard's (1981) research. They found that Asian families had high parental expectations and aspirations were high for their children, factors which contributed to the high attainment rates of some Asian students such as Chinese groups.

Lupton (2004) found that the parent-child relationships were important for educational success at school. She found that within Islamic culture, more so than Western culture, the father has a central role. The effect of this can be seen as twofold; on the one hand, it is more familiar with respectful behaviour towards adults, it is common for many children to attend an Islamic school, and Lupton found a strong parental interest in education. However, in some cases Lupton also found that familial obligations such as caring for elderly relatives or visiting family members led to less time for homework and leisure. In spite of this strong commitment to education and high aspirations, Lupton argues, but it is not a simple mechanism for social mobility; a positive and committed attitude was of little use without commitment, Lupton found in her research that some teachers cited practical difficulties in communication between home and school, due to factors such as not understanding the school system, and language barriers.

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Many sociologists have inquired into the impact of language on education and the parental aspect is one way in which language may affect educational attainment. For parents who have poor or no English language abilities, things such as attending parents' evening, or helping with homework, becomes difficult for them. Driver and Ballard (1981) found that by the age of 16, Asian children with English as their first language in the home had the same level of English as those with English as a second language. These findings were echoed by the Swann Report (1985). However, it was found that children who have English as a first language had 60.9% achieving five or more A\* grades, compared to more than the 58.3% average for those whose first language is not English. This reflects ethnocentric attitudes, whereby the dominant language form that is seen as the 'correct' white British accent. Moreover, wider cultural and social values translate into school; different languages have different associations. For example, speaking French is seen as cultural and held in high regard, while speaking Gujarati is seen as a sign of scholastic appreciation. These associations may negatively impact students with a non-white British accent for poor language ability or knowledge. This is a theme of Bernstein's work on speech codes (as discussed in lesson 11). The 'lower' speech is not slang, but actually a distinct set of sophisticated and complex ideas and reasoning. Therefore, rather than blaming an individual for language deprivation, it is that schools uphold a particular cultural and class code.

### Intersectionality

Factors both inside and outside of school are not the only elements affecting educational attainment; class and gender, as examined in previous lessons, all interact together to shape outcomes. To use an *intersectional* approach means to acknowledge multiple factors that may affect and compile an individual. For example, Platt (2010) found that 70% of Bangladeshi and 50% of Pakistani children in the UK grow up in poverty, compared to 10% of white and 30% of Indian children. Although Indian and black Caribbean children experience poverty, Indian pupils on average achieve higher attainment than black pupils. Platt argues that this is because Indian families display high levels of parental involvement, while black families have lower levels from pupils and parents, low levels of truancy and access to resources, leading to lower attainment in higher educational attainment.

Another example of the importance of understanding intersecting factors is Education's research found that 24% of white male students who received A\*-C GCSEs. This is lower than the 27% of African-Caribbean male students. It is important to see that, in this context, an African-Caribbean social grade is lower than white achievement as is suggested on wider ethnic trends. Osler (2006) argues that policy is intersectional, when it should be. She claims that current policy is a riddle because it means that resources can overlook some important concerns. For example, it may mean lower the exclusion rates of boys and ethnic minorities. However, by doing this, it is of a sideline concern. While there may be fewer girls excluded than boys, it means that for the girls that are excluded, they have less access to resources. This also highlights that African-Caribbean girls in particular are seen as a success story, achieving higher attainment than their male counterparts. However, Osler draws a conclusion that girls are more likely to be excluded from school than white females, and that seeing African-Caribbean girls as achievers overlooks issues that cross over with gender. Therefore, use an intersectional approach do not seek to separate or untangle causes, but instead use a holistic approach where these elements interact together.

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## Postmodernism as a Social Theory

Postmodernism is the broad term to describe approaches and thinkers that have moved on from modernity. Elements that were integral to modern thinking born out of the Enlightenment, faith and dependency on science in a postmodern era are called into question, their meanings unpicked and postmodernists argue that a plurality and diversity of thoughts, identities exist among changing and shifting contexts. For this reason, sociology and social theory from a postmodern perspective, and they dispute notions that seek to explain society. They argue that the only thing certain is that everything has the capacity to change and that the relationship between the eras can be understood as:

### Modernity

The modern era can be characterised as a society that contains *certainty* and *consistency*, is based on **rational** thought, and has a value *consensus* and strong *structural* elements.

### Postmodernity

In contrast, postmodernity is characterised by *uncertainty* and *inconsistency*. Postmodernists argue that **grand narratives** cannot explain society and that *arbitrary* structures are created.

You can contrast an individual's life course to understand the approach of modern and postmodern social structure. For example: previously an individual would grow up in a family, get a job in their early twenties, get on the job ladder, have a career for life, buy a home, and so on. This was the normal order of the way things were done, and people were expected to follow it. However, in postmodernity, an individual's life trajectory is not fixed. An individual may grow up in various places, within differing family structures, change their career, change their career change, maybe get married, maybe have children. Postmodernists argue for the choice of the individual to choose their path among a variety of options.

## Postmodern perspective of education

Following their theoretical approach, postmodernists argue that it is redundant to study differences according to gender, ethnicity, class or any other social category. For them, labels are meaningless because each person has a life and reality that is unique and individual. As they reject sociological theory can fully explain social reality, they see individual's social reality as multiple, diverse and shifting, which means that applying labels and categories is arbitrary and misrepresentative. Their approach to understanding educational attainment is through the various and multiple forms of identity an individual may have, with no fixed or rigid category.

**Grand Narratives** are or theory that claim to explain all of society. Examples include Marxism or feminism, which are seen as a metanarrative.

Moreover, due to postmodern reality being multiple, fragmented and changing, educational systems must adapt to this social reality. Therefore, postmodernists argue for a plurality of schools available in contemporary society, as well as the breaking down of aspects such as higher education. Now a parent may choose a free/faith/academy for their child, a 16-year-old may enter vocational or traditional education, and 18-year-olds are faced with the decision, if they do not enter employment or college, and if so where, and which course. These choices are made in a context where individuals must make the choice for themselves among reality that is multiple and fragmented.

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However, some sociologists, particularly structuralists, are sceptical of p  
For example, Marxists would argue that class has a unifying experience  
that institutions such as education contribute to the oppression that is fe  
and, therefore, it is damaging to suggest that experiences are not the sam  
or revolution. Some feminists would also argue that gender differences i  
not free-floating realities but instead are part of a larger system that syst

## Lesson 16 Questions

1. List some relationships between factors from outside of school and educational attainment according to ethnicity.
2. What does Labov's (1973) work say about language?
3. What is intersectionality?
4. Give an example of an intersectional approach used in researching educational attainment.
5. Name two key points that postmodernists highlight about the social role of education.

### Extension Task

- A: Complete the 'Lesson 16: Extension activity worksheet' provided. It asks you to identify factors that affect educational achievement. Use one coloured pen to name the factors and another to show an example, such as including some research or a theorist that you think would also be a useful idea to draw arrows between factors that are related to each other.

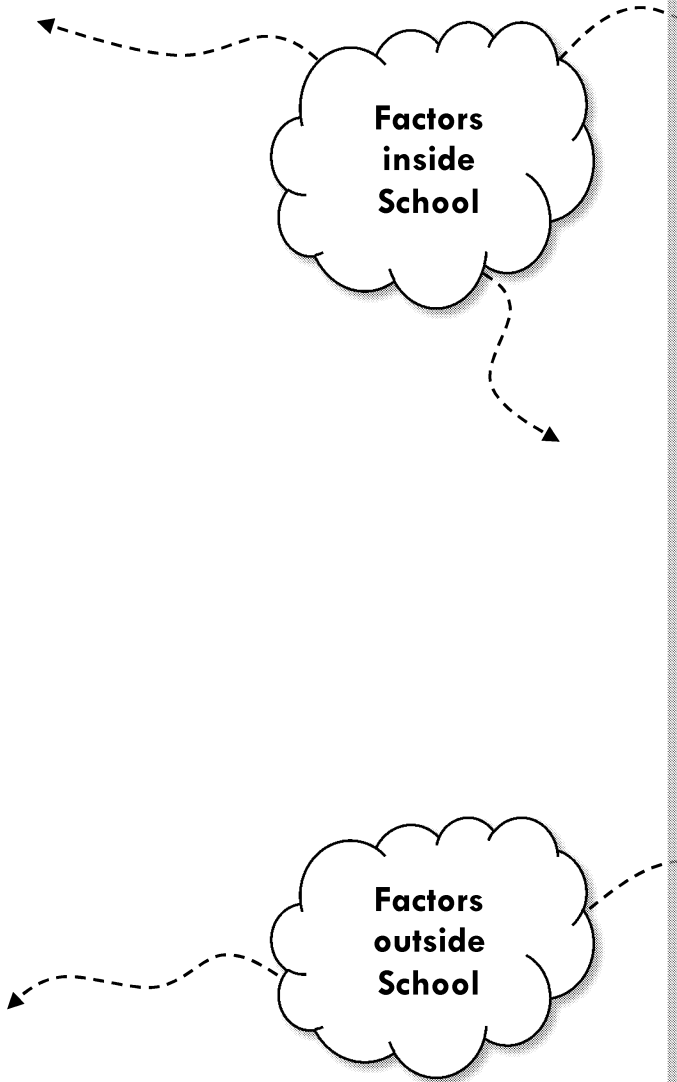
Remember, the more detailed this worksheet the easier revision will be.

- B: Read the Lupton study (2004) available online and add any useful findings to your research to your own notes.

[http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/6321/1/Schools\\_in\\_Disadvantaged\\_Areas\\_raising\\_quality.pdf](http://eprints.lse.ac.uk/6321/1/Schools_in_Disadvantaged_Areas_raising_quality.pdf)

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## Lesson Plan 17: Relationships and Processes in Schools

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Interactionism and labelling theory to inform teacher/pupil relationships
- ✓ The impact of labels and self-fulfilling prophecies



### You Will Need:

- ☐ Lesson 17 handouts
- ☐ Lesson 17 questions (back of the book)
- ☐ Internet and projector
- ☐ Role and function worksheet

### Starter

#### Stereotypes Pictionary:

Put students into two teams and play Pictionary by having students take turns to draw on the board. Their drawing must be of a stereotype. The team allocated time wins. Afterwards, engage the students in a discussion about stereotypes and what their impact is. When are they useful? Why are they used? How can we avoid students into a consideration of stereotypes that may occur within an education system?

### Main

Before handing out the class notes, have students as a class recap on their knowledge of stereotypes. Students either discuss in groups or as a class, and write key points on the board. From the notes from previous lessons, get students to report back all they can remember about stereotypes.

Then, watch the following video to get a concise refresher in symbolic interactionism: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jFQIIM8IRZU>

**Handouts:** Give students the handouts and read the class notes.

#### Teacher Talks:

Under 'The process of labelling' section, engage students in a discussion about the process of labelling. Can they think of examples, in real life or on TV, where this has happened? Do students agree with the labelling theory perspective?

Have students answer the Lesson 15 questions, and then go through the queries or concerns with the content. Using the worksheet that was introduced in lesson 16, complete the extension task as listed under lesson 16 questions.

### Plenary

#### Discussion:

Get students to be reflexive in their own lives and experience. Does having a label make it harder, or is it demotivating? Can they example the self-fulfilling prophecy? Is labelling theory too deterministic?

Watch the following clip from *Matilda* to support the idea that labelling can be powerful: <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UXV-x2YSnpk>

#### Creative writing task:

Set the following task to students – pretend you are a head of a school that has received a report stating that staff are labelling students in a negative way: write a letter to the staff identifying the process of classroom labelling, then outline teacher techniques to avoid labelling. If students feel other sanctions or training would be appropriate, what would you recommend?

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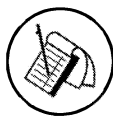




# Lesson 17: Relationships and Processes in Theory

## Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Interactionism and labelling theory to inform teacher/pupil relationships
- ✓ The impact of labels and self-fulfilling prophecies

### Symbolic Interactionism

A small-scale approach to research is used by symbolic interactionists, who focus on individual interactions rather than large structural or societal institutions. For example, when studying schools as large institutions, interactionists look at the relationships between pupils and teachers, or between pupils themselves, and study the interactions that occur within these situations to gain understanding of social life. This approach is explored below, and is useful in having a social action perspective rather than a structural, theoretical perspective explain differences in achievement as well as an understanding of relationships and processes that occur within schools.

### Labelling in Education

Within education, symbolic interactionism underpins labelling theory. This is the way labels are used within schools to produce effects on an individual's achievement. A label is based on a stereotype or assumption, and can stem from a teacher or identity characteristic. The label, which encompasses certain expectations, is usually permanent. There is a chance it may alter, but usually once it is applied it has very strong effects to remove. For instance, behaviour that aligns with the label will be reinforced, while actions that defy the given label are likely to be overlooked.

The effect of the label, according to labelling theorists and interactionists, can significantly affect all aspects of an individual's experience of education. While some labels may be positive, in order for a teacher to get a sense of how to approach a new class, in reality, labels are largely detrimental, with tangible effects. Labelling theorists use the term *self-fulfilling prophecy* to describe the process in which a label is attached to an individual by the individual. Therefore, the interaction between a teacher and a pupil can shape how relationships and interactions not only affect an individual's self-concept but will also perceive themselves, but will go on to shape educational attainment.

Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) educational study is one of the most cited studies on the effects of self-fulfilling prophecies. They had students in a high school take a test, and following this, they chose 20% of pupils at random and told both teachers and pupils that this group had done the best. One year later, they found that test results and report cards showed that those who had been labelled as the top 20% had progressed academically at a quicker rate than the others. This research confirms that labels have the capacity to inform and shape identities and achievement. Moreover, it highlights that labelling and its effects are subjective processes and their effects can evolve from unfounded claims and assumptions.

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## The process of labelling

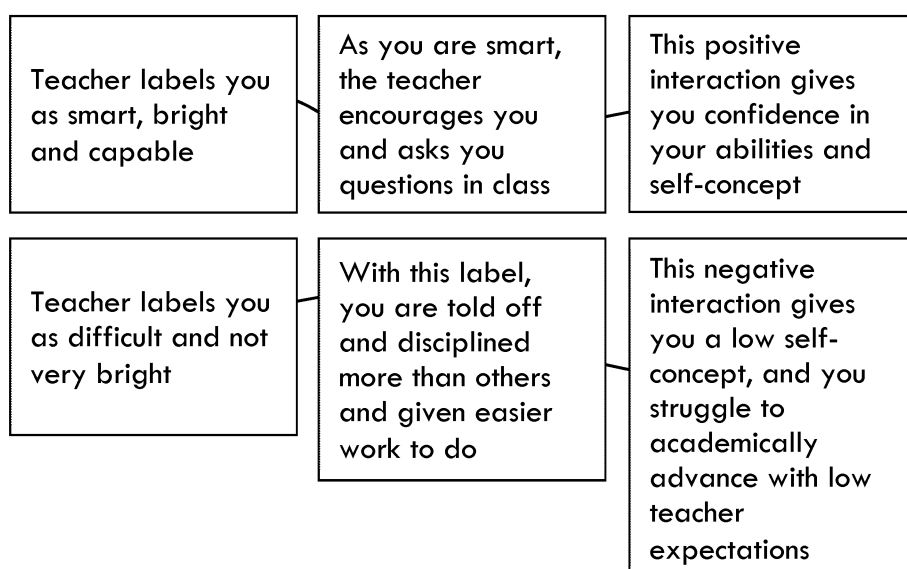
Using observations and interviews in schools, Hargreaves, Heston and others developed their understanding of the process of labelling. They argued that for labels to be effective they went through a process of:

**Speculation** – guessing what the student is like based on characteristics

**Elaboration** – testing the label, either agreeing or altering

**Stabilisation** – label is fixed after confirmation

Their work was influenced by that of Thorndike (1920), who used the term 'stereotype' to describe how a single aspect of one person may be applied to understand the whole individual, and the social group that individual is categorised into. Sociologists have used his early psychological work on the halo effect and applied it to educational settings to understand how if an individual belonging to a group is labelled as well behaved, it is assumed that other individuals similar to them will carry the same traits. The diagram below illustrates two contrasting ways in which a student's educational trajectory might evolve based on the effect of a label:



## What labels are attached? Where do they come from, what do they mean?

Labels may emerge from physical, cultural or social characteristics; for example, on the basis of gender, class or ethnicity, but may be based on educational level. Becker (1971) argues that an 'ideal pupil' model is used so that all students are expected to fulfil the criteria are rewarded, and others are disadvantaged in the process. A study of 60 high-school teachers found that when asked to explain what an ideal pupil described aspects such as speech, behaviour, conduct, appearance and academic ability. Becker argues that this is an implicit preference to middle-class pupils in position to fulfil this ideal than the working class-student.

In some more recent research, Dunne and Gazeley (2008) argue that teachers are valuing middle-class standards. They found that these middle-class values are being used to label students, either as pupils that did or didn't measure up, which then affected their aspirations teachers had for the students. Pupils that were assumed to be middle-class were expected to go on to higher education, while working-class students were associated with deviancy and early motherhood.

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Gillborn (1990) used Becker's notion of the ideal pupil in his research the education and labelling in terms of ethnicity. He found that African-Caribbean students received a disproportionate amount of discipline, which often stemmed from the way their speech were interpreted as disobedient and a challenge to authority. Gillborn argues that the appearance and behaviour of these students is not deviant, but should be seen in order with the school's dominant expectations and values. His work is a reminder that labels may have different impacts and responses. In his study, he found that some students responded by participating in counter-school and anti-school subcultures. He also found that some played down their own ethnicity and distanced themselves from their cultures. These assumptions of black culture were in contrast to the expectations of white students, where Gillborn found that their teacher-pupil relationships were assumed to be hard-working and motivated.

Some sociologists have used an intersectional approach to understand the experiences of students. Connolly's research (1998) found that south Asian boys who were badly behaved in the same way African-Caribbean boys were, and instead their behaviour was seen as less than deviant. This affected the boys' self-concept in a way which threatened their confidence. However, the research found that although it affected the perception of south Asian culture, teachers had certain expectations and labels regarding behaviour which led to teachers encouraging their educational achievement despite an awareness of the account for the higher attainment of grades than African-Caribbean male students. Further research found that teachers had different labels and expectations of Asian students. Boys were seen as 'industrious', while girls were assumed to be 'passive and obedient'. These expectations for their future trajectories in terms of gender roles and career paths.

### Criticisms

Some criticise interactionists and the labelling theory for being over deterministic. They argue that labels always produce negative responses or poor educational achievement. For example, research with black female students in London that these girls resented and rejected the labels that were put on them. They worked hard to ensure they did not fulfil the stereotype that teachers expected. They also recognised these instances of pupils, and teachers also, that use techniques to counter the effects of labelling. For this reason, some sociologists argue that interactionism is used to explain subjective aspects of society, but to supplement a larger theory of social interactions and relationships but a wider picture of society. This is echoed by the inconsistencies across schools and relationships, for example, in the way in which labels are used. If using an interactionist approach means that meanings are created with labels, then why do teachers create the same ideal? Structural theorists would argue that structural factors should be recognised on a society level of analysis, and that they are not simply the result of the classroom. Finally, some sociologists highlight that using small-scale research to study interactions and relationships is limited as it is not possible to extract the general from small samples.

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## Lesson 17 Questions

1. Explain Hargreaves et al.'s process of labelling.
2. According to Becker's research, what makes the 'ideal pupil'?
3. How are African-Caribbean pupils labelled?
4. What are some criticisms of interactionist approaches to understanding teacher-pupil relationships?

### Extension Task

Fill in the Interactionism boxes for the 'Role and function of the education system'

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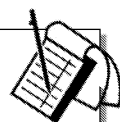


## Lesson Plan 18: Subcultures in S

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ How and why subcultures form and their impact in relation to education



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### Starter

Watch the following clips to open up a discussion of subcultures within schools and their effect on educational achievement:

- <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KAOmTMCtGkl> (Mean Girls)
- <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NmOonseM1Mw> (Skins)
- [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I9gT\\_Nc41s4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I9gT_Nc41s4) (ABC news report)

### Main

#### Handouts:

Distribute the reading material for Lesson 17 and ask different members of the class to read out paragraphs.

Split the class up into groups of three and four to discuss the Lesson 17 material. Then read out the questions and have each team in turn provide answers. Be sure to draw out any differences in answers among the groups, and fill in the gaps.

Give students five minutes to read over the extension task and make notes. Then discuss the way they will approach the task, helping to improve each other's understanding of the task to complete as homework, and students must be ready to present their findings.

### Plenary

#### Debate and Discussion:

Individual versus structural factors, teacher versus pupil power.

Read the following article, and along with class notes open up a discussion on what is most responsible and what factors affect educational achievement:

<http://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2008/sep/05/raceinschools.rac>

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## Lesson 18: Subcultures in Schools

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ How and why subcultures form and their impact in relationships

Relationships among pupils and peer group dynamics are an important part of the social processes that occur within schools and the education system. Subcultures develop within these relationships, as they can have a large impact in people's experience of school and education. Participation in a subculture may occur as a response to negative experiences where an individual is marginalised in the institution and/or wider society.

### Why do pupils engage in subcultures?

Subcultures are often used as a coping strategy to overcome negative experiences. O'Donnell (2005) argues that subcultures formed of certain groups of people, whether boys or girls, working-class students or working-class pupils, a subculture provides a place of 'resistance and identity coming from teacher attitudes and school process and organisation'. It has a clear purpose for those that are discriminated against in society and provides them with an identity, in a variety of mediums, to resist or react to discrimination.

Woods's earlier work looked at *pupil adaptations*, a concept he uses to account for different responses to school culture that students can be involved in. He defined this as on a spectrum, with one end of the reaction being 'ingratiation', where pupils conform with the values and attempts to make positive relationships with teachers. At the other end can be exemplified as the 'teacher's pet' type of student. In the middle of this spectrum is the 'opportunism' response, whereby individuals navigate between getting on with the school depending on age and phase of school, an individual may switch between different responses. At the end of the spectrum, there is the 'rebellion' pupil adaption response which involves finding alternatives of norms and behaviours and ignores the given role of education. For example, a pupil in this category, for example, did not see value in gaining academic achievement and relationships that do not contribute to the mainstream educational system.

Creating *alternative status hierarchies* is a common aspect of subcultures, where different sets of rules, behaviours and values are created. The work of Hargreaves (1973) looked at a secondary school and found that they inverted the traditional values of the school. What was involved took aspects that are usually associated with bad behaviour and gave these behaviours and attitudes the highest status in the subculture. For example, not doing a lesson or not doing homework is usually an embarrassment and source of shame. For these male subcultures, Hargreaves found that they were desirable and gained respect among others in the group.

### The impact and effect of subcultures

There are various studies that highlight the use of subcultures as a response to discrimination within schools. O'Donnell and Sharpe's work (2000) looks at how gender are used as part of an individual's identity. In their research they found that a form of masculinity is used to gain respect and status from females, and to react to negative treatment. They also draw attention to wider societal issues, such as a shrinking labour market affecting motivation levels and access to legitimate forms of employment. Those who do manual jobs. Jackson (2006) focused her research on gender and looked at how

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evident in some classrooms. She found this behaviour to be characterised by a disregard for academic success. Her research drew attention to the way that the competitive nature of learning for the class and so had an effect on educational attainment, and that classrooms should be more supportive rather than competitive so as to counter this, which entails shunning academic interest.

In a similar note to Jackson, Sewell's (1997) research draws out an important point that can affect all students, not just those participating in them. His research found that it was more important, as those that attempted to use distancing techniques and move away from the school subculture experienced a 'dual punishment', whereby they had to deal with the pressure by their peers, as well as tackle a continued negative stereotype and lack of support from the school and school. His research found that this dual pressure can lead to educational disengagement. Sociologists are critical of theorists that use subcultural analyses for assessment, as they highlight that not all teachers adhere to the same principles of socialisation, and that pupils' disadvantages and attempt to facilitate education to be a positive experience.

### **Willis: Learning to Labour**

However, Willis (1981) in his 'Learning to Labour' research found that the subculture of school is not just an active creation and participation by their members. He sees subculture as a response to the school, whereby, unlike traditional Marxists such as Bowles and Gintis, it is a successful socialisation. Using ethnographic research, such as observations and interviews over several months, he found that the boys who were his participants used their subculture to cope with themselves for work, better than the institute of school. Their group was characterised by a subculture which entailed a feeling of superiority over teachers and other students, a lack of academic achievement, avoiding completing lessons and work. School for them was unrewarding, and they wanted to get into the adult world. For this reason, Willis's study is interesting because it showed that the boys' behaviour was not just a result of their aspirations; it was because they wanted to get into full-time work particularly manual labour jobs. Therefore, in opposition to Bowles and Gintis's correspondence theory, the deviation from mainstream values actually prepared the 'shop floor culture' of work. As a neo-Marxist, Willis argued that this culture, which is bound by the school, exists to make a tough working-class life more bearable and tolerable. The study is interesting as he has in-depth ethnographic research, and he overcomes criticism of traditional Marxist analysis being too deterministic, while still retaining a form of Marxist analysis. However, some have criticised his work, arguing that his conception of subculture overlooks pupils' individual experiences, whereby they participate in some aspects of the subculture but abide by mainstream values too. It is also worth noting that his study was of 12 pupils and, although it provides some understanding, it is not generalisable.

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## Lesson 18 Questions

1. Why does Woods (2005) argue that subcultures exist within schools?
2. What is an alternative status hierarchy?
3. Give an example of research that has looked into the existence of subcultures in schools. Explain what the research found.
4. How might subcultures affect pupils who aren't actively involved in them?

### Extension Task

#### Independent Research

Your task is to design and complete a research method that investigates the existence of subcultures in school.

First, decide on a specific research question and/or hypothesis. Will you investigate identities such as masculinity, or the way ethnicity influences culture? Will you use an intersectional approach?

Be sure to consider which method is most appropriate, ethical approval, access to sample – which method, gatekeepers, access, representativeness and how to analyse the data.

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# Lesson Plan 19: Organisation of Teaching and Hidden Curriculum

## Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ The forms and impact of organisation of teaching and learning



## You Will Need

- ☐ Lesson 19
- ☐ Lesson 19
- the back of

## Starter

### Review:

Have the students share their research task from the extension activity 1a, chose their specific topic, and cover research method considerations. After research briefs, have the class decide, if they were the British Sociological Association, which projects from the class would they choose to fund and why.

## Main

### Handouts:

Give the class notes to the students, and have them read through the notes.

### Teacher talks:

After reading the 'Organisation of teaching and learning' section, ask students to share their own experiences of this in the educational system. Has it affected their learning? Then continue to read the handout.

After reading about Lukes's faces of power, have students contribute to the discussion on how the face of power is expressed within the educational system.

Before reading the hidden curriculum section of the notes, have a discussion with the students on whether they can identify aspects, other than the content of the formal curriculum, that are taught through school and the education system. Then read the final section of the notes.

Once you have read the handout, have students complete the extension task. If time permitting, have students answer the lesson 18 questions, but if there is no time, have them complete the extension task.

## Plenary

### Exam Planning and Practice:

Put students into four groups. Write one of the following questions on each piece of paper. Give every group a set of colour pens. Have the students plan a response to the question, including points, theorists, explanations, evaluation and supporting research. The question is bullet point 3 from the specification.

Set a time for the students to complete this and then swap the pieces of paper. Have students allow students to add suggestions or disagree with the existing suggestion.

Afterwards, discuss the responses.

1. Evaluate the strengths and limitations of using observations to investigate the hidden curriculum. (20 marks)
2. Evaluate the view that a pupil's educational attainment is purely a result of their abilities. (30 marks)
3. Evaluate the strengths and limitations of using secondary data to identify the hidden curriculum. (20 marks)
4. Evaluate the way in which relationships within schools affect a pupil's educational attainment. (30 marks)

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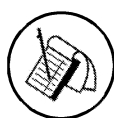
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# Lesson 19: Organisation of Teaching and Learning Curriculum

## Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ The forms and impact of organisation of teaching and learning
- ✓ The hidden curriculum

It is not just individuals and relationships, but also the organisation of teaching and learning are important aspects when considering education and its effects. The structure of education should be recognised not as a given, but as processes that impact the experience of education. Below, both the organisation and the content of the education are explored.

### Organisation of teaching and learning

Despite the national curriculum being introduced to all schools in England in the late 1980s, it is debatable whether all children across these nations have equal access to education. Sociologists draw attention to the techniques for organising a school, as well as the hidden curriculum, to identify that pupils are often stratified. It should be recognised that the position of a teacher can often be one of great power, and has the capacity to influence a pupil's future life trajectory. For example, a teacher is the one that administers marks, decides seating arrangements and marks work. Teachers, heads of department and school leaders have the capacity to prevent them from studying a certain subject or even to influence their future. Youdell's (2000) research highlights that a disproportionate number of boys are placed in the foundation tier at GCSE which caps the grade obtainable to a C. This affects not just the grade obtained, but the pupils' future chances of attending university, or achieving certain careers. As covered in previous lessons, this is a complete reflection on ability and could be a result of other processes such as institutional racism or labelling.

Schools often use the following three approaches to organising pupils and their learning. These will be explained followed by critical analysis of their use and effect.

<b>Banding</b>	Students placed into ability broad 'bands', where they are grouped according to these abilities
<b>Setting</b>	Putting pupils into classes of similar abilities according to their ability. A student may be allocated top set for Maths, middle set for English, etc.
<b>Streaming</b>	Students are hierarchically grouped by ability and remain in the same group for all lessons.

### Theoretical approaches to class organisation

Ball (1981) looked at the way in which students were assigned to a band or class based on ability in which the bands were assigned. His research showed that the way in which students were grouped, for example those with a similar ability were differentiated based on their ability. He found that each band had an accompanying stereotype of abilities and behaviours, and different aspirations being projected onto the bands. In his study, those in the top band were likely to go on to study O Levels (the qualification which preceded GCSE). However, he found that it could have been other factors such as social class having bearing on the way in which banding should not be overlooked.

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The work of Rist (1970) earlier to this had also raised a similar concern. In the kindergarten grade in a school in the US, by the 8<sup>th</sup> day students were sat at desks. He argued that it was not possible to assess the learning approach of children. Decisions were made based on judgments such as appearance, social class and

Lacey (1970) researched boys in a grammar school, to find that streaming in a secondary school had a detrimental effect on the pupils' academic results. The fact that all the boys had passed the 11+ exam to enter the school, and the unstreamed, those who were placed in a lower stream were more likely to fail. It was predominantly working-class who boys were placed in the lower stream. That the working-class, lower-stream pupils received fewer passes or lower grades in 'academic' subjects, compared to the middle-class, higher-stream pupils. Differences to streaming, wider social class differences and implications for education. Assessing the impact of streaming and the difference in outcome of the pupils.

Symbolic interactionists often call streaming and setting 'institutionalised labels' and processes as causing differential treatment for students dependent on their ability. They are signalled by classes that are organised by streams, sets or bands. Keddie (1974) found that even though the same subject material should be taught across the streams, academic knowledge was taught to the higher sets, while vocational knowledge was taught to the lower streams. She found that those in the bottom streams were denied access to the same knowledge. That different regulations and disciplines were instilled depending on the ability. Keddie highlights a flaw of these organisational systems and their relationship to the pupils. The lower ability sets were perceived as lower ability because they asked more questions and were more active. In contrast, she found that the higher groups were more passive and obedient, which should be seen as a problem of being uncritical.

While symbolic interactionists draw attention to the way that labels and these stratified groupings, Marxists argue that these organisational features are not natural, but that, as they happen from such a young age and are assigned from people, they must be an accurate reflection on an individual's natural abilities. This is to prepare them for their future careers, which under the education system is seen as natural. While in previous lessons the effects of labels and reactions to education have been explored, whether using a Marxist or interactionist approach, it is important to note that this will inevitably lead students to adopt certain behaviours, self-concept and

### Power and processes of teachers

The work of Lukes (1974) may be used to understand the way that teachers may express power in classrooms and over students. He established a theory of three dimensions, or what he calls 'faces' of power.

1. *First face of power: decision-making*  
This is a level of power exercised by the ability for some to influence a decision and achieve it. It is important to consider which decisions are made and who accomplishes this. For example, when a teacher decides which set a pupil is in, this is an expression of Lukes's first face of power.
2. *Second face of power: non-decision-making (agenda setting)*  
This refers to the next layer of power, which can be understood as the power of choice, when the reality is that the person with the power has set, shaped or influenced the choice already. It involves the capacity to set the agenda, which may involve a conversation and may also contain the power to stop certain actions.

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a teacher asks the class whether they want their homework set for tomorrow. It may appear that the students are in power and have an element of choice, but this is the second face of power whereby they have decided that the class will do the homework. Despite an element of choice, the teacher is still achieving their desired outcome.

### 3. *Third face of power: shaping desires*

This dimension explains how some groups or individuals obtain the power of the third face of power. It refers to how a group or individual manipulates a situation to achieve their desired outcome. It means that people do not just accept outcomes, but they actively work to change them. The way this face of power is carried out, for example by using rewards and punishments, is that outcomes are desired even if they are harmful to the individual. For example, in the educational system, pupils are taught to attend school through force but because the pupils are taught to want to attend and achieve good grades, they are motivated to do so.

## Hidden Curriculum

One way in which the third face of power may be achieved within an educational system is through the *hidden curriculum*. What you learn in school is a result of the *national curriculum*, which is a national level of content and standards of education and knowledge. The curriculum is what is taught and learnt in official education, including subjects of maths, English and science. These elements are explicit, and are the focus of the curriculum. Many sociologists, as already covered in this unit, are critical of the curriculum, arguing that students whose identity and life experience does not match with the curriculum are at a disadvantage compared to those that have an identity that matches the curriculum. Sociologists often highlight the educational system, inclusive of the curriculum, as being based on middle-class ideals, and highlight that the ethnocentric and male-centric curriculum is not representative of all students.

It is not just the overt and explicit content of educational systems that are taught and learnt. The *hidden curriculum* also has an impact on pupils, and refers to the things that are taught and learnt. Schools teach and instil values, behaviours and attitudes through processes such as rules, relationships and organisation.

Sociologists from various disciplines draw attention to the role and model of the curriculum, which can be examined using the table below:

<b>Functionalists</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Positive function of instilling values and norms that are acceptable ways to act</li> <li>• Helps to bridge the gap between family and socialisation</li> <li>• Teaches important values such as learning punctuality, whereby the individual is not prioritised</li> </ul>
<b>Marxists</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Institutions are based on middle-class values and norms, while those who align with these are advantaged. This serves to enhance and stratify via cultural capital</li> <li>• Bowles and Gintis – correspondence theory and the curriculum, organisation, processes and relationships mirror the workplace, teaching to be submissive to authority</li> <li>• Working-class history is overlooked in the official curriculum, the power elite and monarchies are looked at, encouraging class passivity</li> <li>• Illich (1971) argues that schools prepare pupils to be obedient to the needs of industrial society. For example, the content or method of teaching of the curriculum, and the emphasis on conformity is repeatedly rewarded either in behaviour or in grades</li> </ul>

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<b>Feminists</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women often missing or presented negatively, with male teachers</li> <li>• Internal structures and hierarchies reflect male dominance; there are more men in positions of authority within schools than there are to be teachers than head teachers. This provides a model for girls to be teachers</li> <li>• Works as part of a gender role socialisation such as boys' choices. Girls and boys are taught they are suited to different careers</li> <li>• Lemp and Seale (2004) found in medical school that a male bias is instilled by teaching style and content; male teachers are more authoritative while female teachers dealt with more humanised patients</li> </ul>
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## Lesson 19 Questions

1. Explain the ways in which streaming, setting and banding may be used in organising students and classes.
2. Define the term 'hidden curriculum'.
3. Give an example of how teachers may express a first face of power and understanding of power.

### Extension Task

#### Role Play

Get into small groups and act out examples of the way in which the hidden curriculum is experienced and what it teaches. Come up with ideas for skits that show a male and feminist understanding of the hidden curriculum, as well as examples of how it is ethnocentric.

Afterwards, still employing theoretical perspectives, discuss the impact of a hidden curriculum have.

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## Lesson Plan 20: The Significance of Education

### Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Creation of the schooling system through policy
- ✓ Policies of selection, marketisation and privatisation
- ✓ How policy affects the structure, role, impact and experience of, and access to, education



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### Starter

#### School performance:

Use the following web site, as well as other resources, to research into the performance of a school local to your area. Compare it to other schools in the area. Find any trends or patterns, for example between the type of school, cost of education and performance. <http://www.education.gov.uk/schools/performance/index.html>

### Main

#### Handouts:

Give the class notes to students and read through them together independently. Then have students answer question 1 and 2 from the 'Types of schools' section. Allow time for any discussion or question and answers that need to be clarified. The class understands the concepts and content.

For the 'types of schools' section, put students into five groups and assign each group a type of school. Allow them some time to read and research and prepare a summary/presentation. Allow time to present and listen to each group.

Time dependent, it may be useful to watch clips from this programme to understand the current education system: [That'll Teach Em] <https://m.youtube.com/watch?v=meD...> students time to finish the Lesson 19 questions. Read the answers and have a class discussion.

#### Teacher Talks:

Have students open a discussion about their own experiences of education. What type of school did they attend, what impact did that have on their educational experience? How does their situation compare to other schools in the country? Use this discussion to introduce the concept of privatisation which should be set as a homework.

#### Discussion:

Use the following article to help students discuss and unpack the concern of privatisation of education particularly through academies and free schools. <http://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2012/feb/14/crony-capitalism>

### Plenary

#### Guess Who:

Use eight volunteers from the class. Give each of them one type of school from the list: primary, grammar, secondary modern, secondary technical, private, specialist, academy. One at a time, have the volunteers come to the front of the class to answer questions. Split into two teams, and the class must ask them questions that can be responded to with 'yes' or 'no'. Allow each team to alternate in asking one question at a time. The aim is for the class to guess the school they are, and the team that guessed the most correct answers, or the

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## Lesson 20: The Significance of Education

### Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Creation of the schooling system through policy
- ✓ Policies of selection, marketisation and privatisation
- ✓ How policy affects the structure, role, impact and experience of education

Historically education has played an important role in equalising opportunities. Initially, schools were only available to those who could afford them, and legislation came in to make it a requirement that the state provided schooling. There is no doubt about the way an education benefits an individual, and so these outcomes and impact and disparities of outcomes across the education system will be discussed in the lessons. An overview of how we got to the system of schooling we use today will be given, and a critical assessment of policies that effect educational experience and access.

There are three key pieces of legislation that shaped the education system. The Education Act introduced elementary schooling for all children between the ages of 5 and 14, which meant providing the first chance to access an education and shifted the focus of education. When this legislation came into action, people of this age group would have worked in agriculture or industry. Following this, schooling expanded and eventually secondary schooling was introduced. It was the Butler Act 1944 which organised state-funded secondary schooling. It saw three types of secondary schools being offered:

- *Grammar school* was the academically orientated option which prepared pupils for university.
- *Secondary technical school* aimed to serve industry so was mechanically orientated.
- *Secondary modern* was the option for those who did not get into the other two, as it was not suited to technical schools.

An exam called the *eleven plus* was used to differentiate pupils, and this exam was taken around the country to gain admission to grammar school. This exam, administered to 11 years old, aims to test an individual's IQ; however, some sociologists are sceptical that it effectively reflects a student's ability. Deciding which educational route a child takes based on exam result encourages the understanding that intelligence is fixed and natural, and not something that can be developed. Instead, it draws attention to how this conceals social, cultural and material factors. Those with more money can afford to buy tutors to better prepare their children for the exam.

### Comprehensivisation

However, people began to grow frustrated with the tripartite system, in particular the disparity of opportunities and outcomes that occurred. As a result, from 1966 comprehensive schools were introduced. These are the most common school type in Britain today, and provide a broad education at the secondary level without set economic or natural ability requirements, unlike private or grammar schools. However, while it is the case that all abilities are catered for in a comprehensive school, it is important to uncover mechanisms that still exist, such as namely the way *location* is a determining factor.

Although students are not chosen by ability, schools accept pupils based on their residence, which are defined geographical regions that relate to entry to a school. The comprehensive system creates links between individuals and their community, others are more isolated.

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‘postcode lottery’ or ‘selection by mortgage’ understanding of catchment correlation between catchment area house prices and the position of the school. When the comprehensive system and catchment area selection came into use, high-achieving schools went up in price. This is in contrast to schools which can be seen as going through the process of ‘sink schools’, which under pressure of capacity and resources to change their circumstances.

Therefore, far from there being equal access and opportunity, selection of schools also involve economic factors; the research of Gibbons and Machin into a good catchment area can cost parents between £12,000 and £61,000. A recent tank Reform Scotland found that in Scotland, it is cheaper to attend private school than the catchment area of a good state school. In an analysis of London, private school is not cheaper to go to private school, but that on average a family in London pays a premium of £173,000 to be in the highest achieving school catchment area. This is being seemingly neutral and non-selective, to classed differences based on income.

### Marketisation

The Educational Reform Act 1988 changed the way comprehensive schools were run through a process of marketisation. This refers to the process of public services being under the rules of supply and demand. For schools, this meant that they had to attract pupils and compete to be chosen. The effect of this is that parents now occupy a central role in deciding around for which school would be best for their child. This dynamic, as a result, has been adopted so that through having schools engage in competition, standards could increase and choice is available. New Right theorists argue that this will drive standards up, and allow for meritocratic principles to dominate schooling.

To facilitate this landscape of competition and choice, the Educational Reform Act 1988 created Ofsted, which is the office for standards in education. This body regulates the delivery of education in schools, looking at things such as the level of teaching, school facilities as well as providing recommendations for improvement. Ofsted produces reports based on this data, not just from Ofsted but other independent bodies. Parents use Ofsted ratings and reports as well as league tables to inform their decisions for their children. However, some are critical of the emphasis on league tables, arguing that a focus on results can distract from the actual teaching and learning, and provide a narrow view of education.

Another element in which some sociologists can be critical of the marketisation of education is the element of *parental choice and involvement* jeopardises and obscures the element of equal access to education. As parents are now consumers, they hold what is often referred to as ‘consumer power’: their opinion and judgment has the ability to shape an institution. This is occurring and emphasised how it occurs in the context of marketization, meaning that the educational system tailors itself to the needs, wants and desires of parents rather than the pupils’ abilities. For example, if parents have a priority of getting their children into college and university, they will be concerned with academic results, in contrast to those who see this as a priority.

In terms of admissions and selection, the role of parents allows social, economic and cultural capital to hinder an equal access of opportunity. For example, middle-class parents have a better understanding of which school in the area is best, as well as the economic capital to move to a better school catchment area. Ball, Bowe and Gerwitz (1995) found that middle-class parents have an advantage as they had economic capital to pay for transport or move home to a better catchment area.

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their area, as well as cultural capital to put in a strong application to the school they did not get. Looking at schools in Spain, the role of parental choice in education is a mechanism of social class reproduction. When choice is involved in a process, the middle classes have resources to secure and advance themselves, placing the working classes at a disadvantage.

Bartlett (1993) outlined that both a school's selection process, and parental choice, can either advantage or disadvantage pupils and schools. He argued that more popular, high-achieving schools engage in 'cream skinning', a term that refers to the selection of students who perform well, and 'slit shifting', which is when those pupils who do not achieve highly are rejected from the school. One way in which schools select middle-class pupils and families, without explicitly rejecting those who are not, is through the reputation and image of their institution. In a context of educational marketisation, schools project an image to attract middle-class applicants, which perpetuates and enforces class inequality of opportunity and outcome.

Other aspects that the Educational Reform Act 1988 introduced were Standard Assessment Tests (SATs), which are standard assessment tests, contribute to informing school performance in a competitive landscape across schools. They are sometimes criticised as creating an environment to teach for exams and tests, rather than for a well-rounded education. Some have said that they negatively impact children due to the pressure of examinations can cause, which is of particular concern when SATs are used for selection. However, the Act also brought in the *national curriculum*, meaning the set of standards which are set by the government that all maintained schools must follow. This aims to standardise education across the nation, in an attempt to achieve greater consistency of outcome and educational experience.

## Types of School

There are more than just state comprehensive or grammar schools available. The range of types of schools available have been widening under recent policy changes.

### *Private schools*

This type of school has been in existence in the UK for the longest; private schools educate around 7% of the UK population. They are exempt from state regulations, for example they do not have to teach the national curriculum and teachers who work there do not have to have a PGCE, which is the requirement for state schools. Ofsted currently inspects around half of the independent schools in England, but so long as a body or association is inspecting them, it does not have to be government affiliated. Private schools charge fees for entry, but from the late 1980s to the early 1990s, an 'assisted places scheme' was in existence which meant that the state funded some to attend private school. While some have campaigned for a similar scheme to return, some sociologists are critical, arguing that greater structural equality should be sought, rather than giving a handful of people a helping hand.

While some argue that parents should have a right to pay for a service if they cannot access it through the state, others argue that independent schools perpetuate class inequality. For example, a study found that a private school brings social and economic advantages later in life. The Institute for Social Mobility found that graduates who had attended independent schools earned almost 7% more than those who had similar qualifications but attended state school. Crawford (2007) found that

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school premium', which weakens the argument that the educational system follows these principles, and whereby not just economic advantages are gained, but also social advantages such as acquiring elite social networks and a strong sense of self-confidence.

### *Specialist Schools*

Developed by the New Labour government, which was in power from 1997 to 2010, specialist schools were rolled out as an extension of the City Technical colleges as introduced by the 1988 Education Reform Act of the Conservative government. A specialist school is a state comprehensive school that has a particular focus in a specific subject or discipline and received funding for doing so. For example, a school may be a specialist in music. One aspect of being a specialist school was the criterion that pupils had to be admitted to the school based on their relevance to the school's specialism. This was a controversial selection as it does not comply with the ethos of the comprehensive school which is open to all for all, regardless of ability.

### *Faith Schools*

Also encouraged by the New Labour government with a motivation to encourage more schools for parents and pupils, faith schools are schools that teach the general curriculum with a particular faith being incorporated into the school's functioning and teaching. Faith schools often achieve better results than non-faith state schools. The selection and admission criteria are based on faith and usually a proportion of its places are based on faith or religion. Many faith schools, as they are cited to have a good community spirit within school, are often praised by those who are religious to have a match between values in the home and at school. However, it is also critical, arguing that segregating students by religion may create tension with any non-religious pupils, and with wider society. Others point to the lack of a clear platform if there are selection criteria, and some argue that religion should not be a selection criterion while others want to see schools as sites of pupils existing among a pluralistic society. A major concern is expressed around the content of the curriculum and regulation. For example, if creationism was being taught in science lessons in a Christian school, an atheist parent reportedly could not explain the difference between British and sharia law.

### *Academies*

Following the Learning and Skills Act (2000), academies were introduced as a new type of school that receive the same funding as state schools, but instead of it coming from local authorities, it is received from central government. This corresponds to the control of the school being taken from the control of local authorities. They must abide by the same rules regarding admissions, exclusions, and exclusions, but they can choose their own curriculum so long as it is 'broad and balanced'. Underperforming academies may have sponsors, which may be other schools, local authorities, charities or faith bodies, who are responsible for improving the performance of the school. Academies are favourable to some, particularly in recent times of government **austerity** in the UK, as it means that schools may decide what to spend their money on, and make their own decisions of where to save money and how to spend their budget. If a state school remains as a school and not an academy, these sorts of decisions are made by the local authorities.

Austerity is a designation for a period of economic measures and/or policies in advanced economies.

### *Free Schools*

This type of school is an academy, but instead of an existing school converting to an academy, a new school will be established by parents, teachers and charities in a local area. The aim is to allow those in an area to create their own school if they are not satisfied with the current offer in their area. An educational provider, which is a group or company, can also set up a free school.

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in to run the school alongside parents and teachers. In 2014, there were 1,000 free schools in the UK, with 50% of them being in the 30% most deprived communities. These schools offer high standards and are available particularly in struggling areas. The government strongly encourages free schools and argues that 'the government is taking power away from bureaucrats and handing it to heads and teachers, so that they can run new schools the way they think best'.

The proliferation of free schools and academies is a reflection on the way education has been sought to give more autonomy and diversify education in the UK, in light of the fact that schools were falling behind in league tables. However, the Labour government has introduced new types of schools being independently run, highlighting that it is poor neighbourhoods that will be able to afford the best teachers, and that those schools will appear to be second best. Moreover, there is concern at the way the system, whereby external private companies are controlling financially, the schools and the education students receive. It is of concern because a company's interests involved in the school may not align with wider social or governmental interests.

## Lesson 20 Questions

1. List the ways in which admission into schools may be gained, and the challenges that may be encountered within these processes.
2. What does marketisation mean in relation to education?
3. Why are some people in favour, and some against, the existence of free schools?
4. What is the aim and impact of the introduction of academies and free schools?

### Extension Task

#### Investigation:

Research a secondary school in your area. What kind of school was it? What was its entry process did it involve? How does it receive funding? Who decides on the funding? A useful place to start is government websites and official league tables.

Compare your findings with classmates who researched a different school.

In pairs, discuss the strengths and weaknesses you think your findings show in terms of experience and attainment that your school had, particularly in relation to ethnic and ethnicity differences.

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# Lesson Plan 21: The Significance, Impact and Educational Policies

## Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Changes in recent government policy on education
- ✓ The way these policies affect the structure, role, impact, experience and access of education
- ✓ Critical assessment of the effectiveness of policy



You



## Starter

### Discussion: Educational Policy

Get the class to share ideas about educational policy they are already aware of and changes to the education system they already know. How do they feel about changes between their experience and their siblings' or parents' experience? Ask two students to write key notes and ideas on the board.

## Main

### Handouts:

Give the students the class notes and read until you reach the 'Education and ethnic differences' section.

Then have the class debate: Split the class into two groups, a 'for' and 'against' group. Give them the following statement: *The compulsory school-leaving age should have remained at 16.* Be sure that students are approaching the issue sociologically, and that you record their views on the board so students can add to their notes afterwards.

Finish reading the rest of the class notes independently.

Give students five minutes to answer the Lesson 20 questions, and work on the extension task afterwards. If time does not permit, set these questions as a homework task or the research methods task below.

To ensure students remember their methods and theory and knowledge of education unit content, complete the following research methods task, which will enhance AO3 evaluation techniques:

- Split the class in two. Give each group either 'case studies' or 'literature review' report which can be found at the web address below.
- Have the students take notes on the research method and methodological approach. Particularly, focus on what the method is and its strengths and weaknesses, and the practical/theoretical/ethical implications and suitability to the project.
- Afterwards, have students share their findings and engage in a discussion about the research. Also engage students in a discussion about how they would improve the research. Also engage students in a discussion about how they would improve the research. Also engage students in a discussion about how they would improve the research.

**Literature Review: pages 4–6. Case Studies: pages 64–68.**

[http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/208199/rr819.pdf](http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20130401151715/https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/208199/rr819.pdf): 'Diversity and Citizenship in the Curriculum'

Set the extension task listed on the Lesson 20 questions as a homework task.

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### **Policymakers**

Split the class into small groups. Their task is to redesign the educational system, to decide how schools are organised and structured, to the employment and staffing decisions, to the curriculum and teaching styles. Ensure they bear in mind key themes that have arisen in the unit such as social class and ethnicity differences.

Get them to complete the task either individually, in pairs, small groups – whatever works best. Have the students share their vision of the ideal educational system, the problems they would be involved and to explain why they have made these decisions. When asked to present their ideas, get the class to vote on which one they would want to see become reality.

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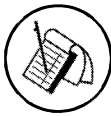
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# Lesson 21: The Significance, Impact and Effectiveness of Educational Policies

## Learning Objectives -

After this lesson you should understand:



- ✓ Changes in recent government policy on education
- ✓ The way these policies affect the structure, role, impact, experience of education
- ✓ Critical assessment of the effectiveness of policy

Below, an assessment of past and present educational policies will be explained in relation to pupils' attainment and experiences, and affected the structure and role of education.

## Educational Policies

### 1997–2010 New Labour

This government used *compensatory education policies* when in power, which have the aim of overcoming issues in achieving **equality of opportunity**, by attempting to redress social, economic and cultural differences that disadvantage some pupils or families. The following policies were introduced under the New Labour government, and are examples of compensatory educational policies.

<b>Aim Higher</b>	This was a scheme that worked on widening participation in education, with the aims of raising both attainment and achievement, trying to make cultural as well as tangible skills available to those from disadvantaged backgrounds to apply to universities. It included mentoring schemes, workshops, careers events and more. It was cut by the coalition government and it ended in 2011.
<b>Educational Maintenance Allowance (EMA)</b>	Students between 16 and 18 in full-time education such as sixth forms received a scaled payment of either £10, £20, or £30 per week to ensure pupils stayed in further education. It was popular with pupils, being described as 'beer money'. The coalition government ended the scheme for England; Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland continued it. The support for transport costs, or for vocational courses, or for specialist colleges further away. A new bursary scheme replaced it.
<b>Education Action Zones (EAZ)</b>	<p>Areas which were considered to be deprived were chosen to build networks and collaborations across educational institutions, communities and businesses. These began to improve the situation and allow for strategies to be shared and implemented. The EAZs received government funding but they were also supported by private sponsorship from external sources such as business.</p> <p>Some criticised the initiative because some schools that did not join it as they were put off by the private funding that was required, that business involvement should not be coupled with education, while on the other hand some argued that the support that businesses offered was not enough to support the schools.</p> <p>In 2001, the EAZ programme finished, and those schools that were successful were transferred onto the Excellence in Cities programme, which was introduced in 1999 and is still running. It works with local education authorities and schools in inner-city areas, and those that have been successful have seen a rise in educational attainment.</p>

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In a sociological analysis of the New Labour educational policies, Tomlinson (2006) took a left-wing approach that this government took. She argues that New Labour followed the principles for education, and saw that this exacerbated racial issues with the well as negatively affecting disadvantaged groups more broadly. She saw the emphasis on 'failing' schools which meant they suffered from negative labelling and segregation based on class and ethnicity. She also found that hostility, racism was exaggerated among policies that did not develop a multi-ethnic curriculum. African-Caribbean and Pakistani students as failing. Tomlinson's work was based from a left-wing approach, using a market-based approach to education. It focused on educational experience, opportunity and outcome. However, it could be argued that educational policies, for example in tackling racism, cannot be accomplished without requires other structural elements in society to shift to enable educational change.

### 2010 Coalition Government

When the coalition government came into power in 2010, they argued that social inequality was at the centre of their educational agenda, for reasons that included international standards, and economic motivation. In *The Importance of Tackling Inequality: Impact Assessment* (2010), the following was stated:

*'It is unacceptable for educational attainment to be affected by gender, or any other factor unrelated to ability. Every child deserves a good education and to achieve high standards ... In 2006, England came near the bottom of a league table of educational equality in an OECD report, and the gap is still vast ... On one hand, the rich and the poor is indefensible. But reducing inequality is not only the right of our education policy; it is an absolute necessity if we are to compete economically in the global market.'*

While some were in favour of a reduction in public spending and intervention, it detrimentally affected those that need these services the most. Below, it shows how the coalition government managed to address their concerns of educational inequality. The coalition government kept and continued these three policies that were introduced by the Labour government:

<b>Raising of School Leaving Age</b>	In 2013, the school-leaving age increased to 17 years. This means that if you are born after 1997, you must stay in school or training until this age; this could be sixth form, college or apprenticeship. Set out by the Labour government, the coalition government enacted this policy. It was set out to raise education and training because unskilled jobs are in decline in the nation, it is to create more workers for a skilled jobs market. This is seen to also help reduce crime, if more people can leave school and enter employment. However, some are critical, highlighting the subjective nature of the law, and many feel that it should be a choice to continue education. Others emphasise that there is a lack of government responsibility in facilitating effective opportunities. If pupils do not complete their education, community service, which many feel is unfair. Another criticism is to enter work as early as possible to begin earning, people feel that so this policy prevents those that need to be earning from doing so.
<b>Sure Start</b>	A set of centres and programmes that provides free nurseries and services for disadvantaged communities, from pregnancy to the age of five. The aim is to work holistically over health, education and family support, such as support groups, adult services and playgroups. The aim is to reduce child poverty, and to give a fair start in life. There are over 3,000 centres still open, but since 2010, 76 centres have closed.

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<b>Free School Meals (FSM)</b>	Already in existence, the government continues to provide that fulfil certain criteria, such as if families are on benefit. From 2014, reception, year 1 and 2 students receive a free lunch from the government. This scheme was enacted on the grounds that it was nutritious enough, and that offering a hot lunch for all pupils met the standards as well as save money for families. However, the scheme does not cover the actual cost of offering the meal, putting schools in a worse position as they have to cover the rest of the cost.
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In a report that set out to raise the achievement of all disadvantaged pupils, the government introduced the following new policies:

<b>Education Endowment Foundation (EEF)</b>	This project has the aim of breaking the link between poverty and educational achievement by providing educational research that seeks to help schools to develop a bank of ideas and examples of projects, and grants to help schools to enact these. While it provides resources for schools and encourages the responsibility of individual people and institutions to enact them into practice.
<b>National Scholarship Programme (NSP)</b>	In response to increased tuition fees for university, the NSP was introduced for those from low-income backgrounds to facilitate university studying. Introduced in 2012, it finished in 2014. Not all schools received funding, and universities had to decide who to fund.
<b>Summer Schools</b>	The government has made funding available for schools to run a summer school programme that is intended to support disadvantaged pupils from primary to secondary school. It is aimed at those who are at risk of falling behind people that have been in care, and aims to prevent the gap in learning to occur when transitioning to secondary school. Although funding is given up to the schools themselves to put on the summer school, there could be a disparity in which schools uptake the opportunity, particularly for those that is already struggling, and although most in need of support, they may not have the support, motivation and resources to do so.
<b>Pupil Premium</b>	The pupil premium is funding given to state-funded schools to support any child who fulfils criteria such as those for FSM, or who is in the care system. It aims to close the attainment gap (the gap between those who qualified for FSM got five A*–C GCSEs, compared to those who did not) by awarding the school funding to have economic and social advantages for students. Some argue that the premium is beneficial as it allows schools to decide how to spend the money, which is good for providing a tailored strategy. However, others argue that there is a disparity in how schools spend the money and the effectiveness of how the funding is spent.

### Education policies in relation to economic differences

The table below reflects an instance whereby disadvantaged groups continue to be disadvantaged while privileged communities continue to benefit and make use of resources. The table compares extracts from the reports of two Ofsted reports from two schools, and compares extracts from the reports of two schools that are less than two miles apart. The catchment areas have an average house price difference of just over £50,000.

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	School with 'outstanding' (1) rating from Ofsted Average house price – £299,000	School with 'outstanding' (1) rating from Ofsted Average house price – £299,000
<b>Number of students who receive a pupil premium</b>	'The proportion of students for whom the school receives the pupil premium (additional government funding for students known to be eligible for free school meals, those who are looked after by local authority and the children of service families) is less than half the national average. About one in five students are eligible for the Year 7 catch-up premium.'	'The proportion of students for whom the school receives the pupil premium is supported by this school's policy. This school's policy ensures that students known to be eligible for free school meals, those who are looked after by the local authority and the children of service families are above average.'
<b>Attainment</b>	'All groups of students eligible for the pupil premium reach similar levels of attainment to other students in the school in both English and mathematics as measured by their average points scores at the end of Key Stage 4. They make outstanding progress because of the wide range of personal and academic support provided. Year 11 students in 2012 achieved two GCSE grades above similar students nationally in both English and mathematics.'	'Students eligible for the pupil premium have attained a similar level of attainment to other students in the school in both English and mathematics when compared to the national average.'
<b>Teaching</b>	'Governors are supported well by the local authority to regularly undertake additional training in order to further develop their effectiveness. As a consequence they ensure that the school's financial and other resources, including the pupil premium, are used efficiently to help students make outstanding progress. Governors set targets for the head teacher, and check carefully how well these are being met. They also take an active part in performance management, tackling under-performance and ensuring that teachers' pay progression is related to their effectiveness in raising standards.'	'Teaching is supported well by the local authority to support the school's policy to support students eligible for the pupil premium to make good progress.'

These extracts show that to have a policy exist is not necessarily enough; overseeing the effectiveness of its implementation is crucial. The school's policy suggests that the pupil premium is in fact widening an attainment gap, with access to funding and use of it effectively to advance their school and pupils. Pupils already struggling are not able to efficiently and effectively use the policy.

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## Education policies in relation to gender and ethnic differences

Some policies have been introduced in light of key gender and ethnic differences in attainment and experience, underpinned with an agenda of achieving equality. Below, two key policies are examined:

<p><b>WISE</b></p>	<p><b>Women in to science and engineering</b></p> <p>Originally set up in 1984 from the Finniston Report to broaden the scope of scientists and engineers, WISE focused on bridging the gender gap whereby women were under-represented than males. The initiative moved from being an independent Community Interest Company towards the aim it had in the 1980s. Its current focus is on achieving more balanced gender representation in the Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics (STEM) workforce, going from 15% in 1984 to 25% in 2020.</p> <p>WISE aims to attract, nurture and sustain female talent in the classroom and boardroom. They see schools as a key area of focus and, therefore, educational policy has recognised the importance of subject choices and WISE has attempted, and continues to, address some of these issues. Within schools, colleges, and universities, initiatives such as facilitating workshops, altering types of curriculum, and campaigns challenging stereotypes in an attempt to change the perception and pursuit of women in STEM.</p>
<p><b>Multicultural education</b></p>	<p><b>The emergence of multicultural education</b></p> <p>The notion for race, ethnicity and racism to be addressed within institutions and policy began to emerge in the 1960s due to the rates of immigrants to the UK. Since then, various policies have been released (such as Race Relations Act 1968, Swann Report (1985)) which attempted to shift the focus surrounding this topic, as well as guide responses. However, this has been done in ways such as changing the curriculum to include and show awareness to other cultures, which has not always been effective.</p> <p><b>Current situation</b></p> <p>However, despite these efforts, there is continuing concern to suggest that policy is not addressing issues surrounding multicultural education. In 2015, Jones (2015) argued that current policy that is aimed at this, is failing. He argued that 'multicultural education is dead'. He argued that since around from the 1960s, policies and concerns surrounding multiculturalism is no longer addressed within education. Jones argues, this stems from the opinion that to be multicultural is to threaten and lose British culture.</p> <p>Brooks et al. (2015) do not go as far as Jones (2015) in saying education is dead, but are critical of both education and policy in addressing persistent racism. They see education as crucial in facilitating cultural and structural shifts to change the racialised curriculum. Their argument is that the state should support education to be flexible and adapt to the needs of pupils and communities. This facilitation and changed role of education is seen as key to addressing social inequality.</p>

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<p><b>Multicultural education (Continued)</b></p>	<p>Moodod and May (2001) argue that multiculturalism should be considered with the context of current student diversity. The fact that a lot of children from ethnic minority backgrounds are second or third-generation migrants, and so have multiple identities. These identities are formed of both their heritage and of being British. For this reason, they argue that these identities should be recognised in the curriculum, the culture of school.</p> <p>A government report <i>Diversity and Citizenship</i> (2007) assessed the effectiveness and impact of multiculturalism. It found that it did exist in some forms; however, it was often prevented it from being effective in achieving its aims. Firstly, that ethnicity was approached in terms of education rather than not discussed or recognised as an ethnicity. Secondly, existing efforts to be inclusive and integrative were an add-on; multiculturalism was not properly embedded. Thirdly, the report highlighted that the curriculum covers a large range of cultures, people or places. The term 'black' encompasses African-Caribbean, Asian, and a variety of people and places) as well as white.</p> <p>The report suggested the following to increase the effectiveness of multicultural education is effectively integrated into the curriculum and awareness; make the national curriculum more relevant and those in education aware of their own culture. The 'test' culture: a consequence of marketisation and the focus of educational institutions, rather than a holistic experience.</p> <p>In recent times, Black History Month has been included in the curriculum and culture of some schools. October has space dedicated to exploring black history, often overlooked or left out of the mainstream curriculum. However, awareness and education around black history is critical that this is simply an add-on, that it is not integrated into the curriculum. Moreover, some highlight that the curriculum overlooks aspects of black history which overlook white history in a way that perpetuates negative stereotypes.</p>
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### Issues with implementing social policy

Despite the best intentions and reports that set out to overcome different issues, social policy is not always effective in addressing its aims. As well as the evaluation in the previous section, there are several factors that contribute to why policies may not be effective or successful in having their intended impact.

- A single policy alone cannot tackle the web and layers of factors that influence educational experience. Other society-wide structures and policies must be in place to tackle issues such as social class stratification and racism. This is evident in the increase of school-leaving age, whereby the labour market is not always aligned with the motivations and effectiveness of this policy.
- Policies that are means-tested, or aim to compensate children from low-income families or communities, may have stigma attached to them. For example, to be eligible for FSM or to attend a summer school take up the offer.
- It can be difficult to implement policies. For example, while policies are in place, it is difficult and complex to address factors within the curriculum. If change, they can discontinue certain schemes or funding, and it can be difficult to obtain.

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## Lesson 21 Questions

1. In what ways have policies from the coalition government positively impacted the experience and equality of education?
2. In what ways have policies from the coalition government negatively impacted the structure, experience and equality of education?
3. Why might policies not achieve their desired impact?

### Extension Task

#### Pupil Premium Further Research

- Use the following website to understand the Education Endowment Foundation's suggestions on how the government is suggesting schools improve their delivery of the pupil premium.  
<http://educationendowmentfoundation.org.uk/toolkit/>
- Read the following case study to understand how the pupil premium was used at Park Junior School.  
<http://www.pupilpremiumawards.co.uk/ppawards2015/park-junior-school>

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# Lesson Plan 22: Vocational Education, Higher Education and the Impact of Globalisation

## Lesson Learning Aims

To understand:

- ✓ Policies of vocational education and their impact
- ✓ Policies of higher education and their impact
- ✓ The impact of globalisation on educational policy



## You Will Need

- ☐ Lesson plan
- ☐ Lesson plan (from the previous lesson)
- ☐ Lesson plan
- ☐ Internet
- ☐ Student

## Starter

### Recap:

Have students share their findings from the homework from last lesson.

### Discussion:

Have students discuss, and be reflexive, as to why they have chosen the subjects they are studying A Levels. Open up themes of status of certain education, consider their post-A-Level options; are these decisions their own choice? How does existing educational policy, or public perception?

## Main

### Student-led presentations:

Give the handouts to the students. Get the students into three groups and discuss vocational education, higher education or globalisation.

Using the class notes and their own research, get the students to give a presentation and research focus. The key points the presentations should cover (and include the key points):

- **Vocationalism:** What is vocational education? What are the recent trends in vocational education? How does it contribute to the role and impact of vocational education? How does it affect access and equality of both opportunity and outcome of education?
- **Higher Education:** What are the recent trends of HE? What policies have been implemented? What effects? Does HE provide equal opportunity and access? How does it affect access and equality of both opportunity and outcome of education? Useful document to analyse and feedback:  
[http://www.hecsu.ac.uk/assets/assets/documents/Futuretrack\\_Briefing\\_Paper.pdf](http://www.hecsu.ac.uk/assets/assets/documents/Futuretrack_Briefing_Paper.pdf)
- **Globalisation:** What is globalisation? What effects has it had on education? What policy in the UK impacted by globalisation?

Useful websites may be ONS (Office for National Statistics), the Department for Education, newspaper article archives. Also the following video to gain a different perspective on globalisation:  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JFpTdEFqXI&app=desktop>

Allow 25–30 minutes preparation time, and then the rest of the time for presentations. Encourage students to complete wider research than the class notes, and to present their research. When discussing the presentations, as well as content, ask and discuss the groups' presentation styles. Be sure that all groups write up their other presentations.

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Spend five minutes discussing the questions at the end of the lesson. If time allows, have students write up their answers to the questions for homework.

Set the extension task listed on Lesson 21 questions as a homework.

### Plenary

Complete the 'Lesson 22: Plenary activity worksheet' provided.

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## Lesson 22: Vocational Education, Higher Education and Globalisation

### *Learning Objectives -*

*After this lesson you should understand:*



- ✓ Policies of vocational education and their impact
- ✓ Policies of higher education and their impact
- ✓ The impact of globalisation on educational policy

One way in which equality of opportunity or outcome has attempted to expand is through the expansion and recognition of vocational education. The effectiveness of this has been debated along with an understanding of how higher education can be a site of privilege and disadvantage. Finally, the impact of globalisation on educational policy is discussed and its impact on education, and in particular educational policy, is explored.

### **Vocational education**

This type of education involves knowledge and skills related to specific occupations. In the 1980s, to match rapid changes in the shape of the economy and workplace, 'vocationalism' became part of the mainstream curriculum, as well as being a key part of the curriculum. For example, work experience was introduced and made a compulsory part of the curriculum and in 1993 NVQs and GNVQs were introduced, which formalised and recognised vocational qualifications. Vocational education may be in the form of apprenticeships or vocational training. They exist to provide education, training and preparation for the workplace and to provide education for a range of subjects and interests.

Some, such as New Right thinkers, are in favour of vocational education as they believe that education should be orientated towards the economy, and increasing choice allows for competition to arise and therefore, standards to be raised. In a different sense, others are keen on vocational qualifications as they expand and broaden an understanding of what education and knowledge should be understood as. The coalition government focused on expanding and improving further education, including the delivery of vocational education. In 2014, Nicky Morgan, Secretary of State for Education, stated that in response to a continual concern about the skills gap in the UK, which is now situated in a global economy, the coalition government would make vocational education a priority. They set out the following policy to focus on providing a workforce for the UK economy and to remain competitive in international markets:

- Targeting young people to encourage more to go into studying STEM subjects through campaigns that attempt to broaden the intake and particularly encourage girls to study STEM subjects
- Providing bursaries and learning centres to encourage more STEM subjects
- Reforming vocational qualifications. There has been an increase in vocational qualifications, such as the introduction of 'tech levels', to raise the status of vocational qualifications as well as make them more directly related to entry to university or employment
- Encouraged schools to create stronger links between themselves and the workplace through speaker events, visits to workplaces and mentoring schemes, so that students can get ideas about jobs and the workplace
- Improving apprenticeships. The number of apprenticeship places has been made to improve their quality; the aim is to see apprenticeship as a route to attending university. Employers have had more input in the commissioning of apprenticeships to ensure they are useful and a direct route into work.

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Some argue that these policies have been impactful as they have helped young people in the NEET category. Others argue that the existence of vocational routes has led to a greater equality of opportunity, as vocational options allow pupils other than traditionally academic routes to enter university or the workplace. However, the way vocational education is approached and understood. It is often seen as a lower status than academic studies, meaning that they are not seen on a par with academic routes of education. Although the coalition government set out intentions for vocational qualifications, it is debatable whether they were successful, and with many young people choosing vocational routes over their middle-class counterparts, it is possible to see a tangible impact on both future careers and earnings. Others are critical of vocational education as a form of providing cheap labourers; for example, for someone on a minimum wage is £3.79, while the minimum wage for an apprentice is £3.40.

Illich (1971) is a liberal thinker who advocates for including the sentiment that formal education is critical of formalising these qualifications. In his work *Deschooling Society*, he argues that education is harmful to society, arguing that education should be the learning of skills through practical work, such as woodwork, and that education should nurture creative and critical thinking. In his research carried out in the USA, he views that official qualifications do not only disadvantage students but can also disadvantage able students. His research with Spanish-speaking students found that a group could complete a project to a university set standard, but would not be able to if they had no formal qualifications. Illich sees the solution to this problem as de-schooling education, meaning that current institutions are not the best mechanism for education. He should facilitate skill exchanges, and use creative learning and nurture students who are interested in the same thing learn and share together. While a number of people argue that Illich's vision of de-schooling education is too impractical and not applicable to the context of society today.

## Higher Education

### Expansion in students and fees

In the UK, higher education has had a lot of public attention in the last few years, having undergone dramatic changes and political implications. It is worth noting that higher education has seen a huge expansion, in terms of numbers attending, the types of courses on offer, and the types of institutions available. For example, in 1901, 1% of people went to university, which is in contrast to 2011 when 25% of the population had qualifications of a degree or above.

As well as an increase in people, universities have seen an increase in costs to attend. Fees and funding of higher education have seen significant and dramatic changes occur in the last two decades. Tuition fees for university were only introduced by the coalition government, in 1998, which saw students pay £1,000 a year. From 2006, fees were increased to £3,000 a year, which then in 2012 tripled again, with the coalition government capping fees at £9,000 a year. These rises in fees should be understood in a context of government austerity. As students are paying more to attend university, the institutions they are attending are receiving less public funding.

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## Equality of opportunity and outcome?

On one hand, some argue that the increased numbers of university students means more people are accessing higher education, while on the other, those critical of higher education argue that although more people are attending, certain groups such as the working class face significant obstacles in attending. Callender and Jackson (2005) argue that the working class are less likely to attend university due to the burden of debt that university brings. Williams (2004) found that for a student to leave university with an average debt of £42,800. Their research also found that students from poorer backgrounds left university with more debt than their richer counterparts. This suggests that university does not carry the same burden for all those that attend. Economists would argue that this is the reality of higher education not having equality of opportunity.

Other factors that the working classes are more impacted by in comparison to the middle and upper classes are that they are more likely to attend a university that is closer to home, more likely to have a part-time job or employment alongside studying, and Quinn's (2004) research found that students from poorer backgrounds are more likely to drop out. Despite research revealing that higher education is becoming more inclusive, diverse or free from class, gender and ethnicity obstacles, the reality is that under the coalition government (as explored last lesson). McKnight et al (2008) found that social inequalities have actually expanded in higher education. While acknowledging that students from working-class backgrounds are attending universities, they highlight that students from middle-class backgrounds are also attending. This reflects that through economic inequality, equality of opportunity and outcome is not achieved at higher education level.

Moreover, university choices, and the opportunities they bring or the wages they offer in the labour markets, are still heavily influenced by hierarchical league tables. For example, the 2010 Labour Market survey, completed by the Office for National Statistics in 2010, found that graduates who attended Russell Group universities were more likely to be in high-skilled jobs than graduates from other institutions, which results in a higher hourly wage. Graduates from Russell Group universities bring in £18.60 an hour compared to £14.97 for other roles.

## Globalisation and education

A major theme of most social science work today is to assess the impact of globalisation. Globalisation can be understood as the interdependence and linking of places, cultures and societies across the world. It is a process whereby national boundaries and borders are broken down. Globalisation through transportation and communication make the world more interconnected. This has implications in an economic sense. These processes have affected educational policy in the UK. The impact of global links and communication, and under the new shape of a global economy, has led to a new shape of education.

## Higher education and marketisation

Being in a world that is linked and tied together, competition has scaled up. Higher education is now being seen in global areas; for example, it is common to see world university league tables and rankings. Marginson and Wende (2007), in a paper for the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), highlight that now universities are sites for a global economy of 'knowledge, products and financial capital'. They highlight that the relationships between universities across the world are involved in meaningfully shaping the shape of higher education, and universities are now orientated towards global markets. This is now recognised, gaining status in global university rankings, and have the ability to compete on new unprecedented scales.

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For some, this may be a welcome level of interaction, providing advance well as a competitive atmosphere to motivate the UK to put education as an example, the EU set its strategy for 2000–2010, known as the Lisbon Age of competitiveness, ‘a competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capital growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion’, putting a focus on its development and vision. This meant that knowledge and education became a priority in policy and budget.

### **Globalisation and educational policy**

The interrelationships between education, globalisation and the economy have shaped the UK’s approach to policy on education. There has been a shift in the economy and industry that is dominant in the UK and Western countries. Globalisation highlights that international competition and globalised transport and new manufacturing sector has relocated to countries such as China, Brazil and India. Labour has moved. This has seen Western Europe and North America shift to provide a skills-based economy; as Michels et al. (2001) summarise, only 17% of all workers in the 1900s, and today that figure is at over 60%. Therefore, the economy shapes the UK’s industry, and globalisation has seen an increase in training meaning more training and education is needed in the workforce.

However, Rikowski (2002) is critical of the way in which globalisation, education and the economy are linked. As a Marxist, he argues that globalisation should be understood as facilitating the interests of all spheres of life, including education. He argues that corporate capitalism shapes educational policy; for example, in both the UK and the EU, organisations and the way corporations are taking over public services. This may be seen in the way that sponsors are now encouraged to be involved with the new types of schools, older city technology colleges, and the way that universities have rapidly changed. He argues that the reason that capitalism is successfully taking over these services is doing so implicitly, as governments, under pressure from the World Trade Organisation interests, must make changes to policy that do not show explicit privatisation to be in the public interest.

Finally, Straw (2001) examines the way that higher education institutes have become an important part of the UK economy. In 2010, higher education institutions contributed around 3% of all services exports. Britain is seen as one of the most popular destinations for international students; for example, in 2007 it was the second most popular country for students to attend after the USA. However, Straw highlights that due to the focus on university rankings, tighter visa restrictions, and limiting government spending, the UK is becoming a less attractive option in the sector, which may influence policy on topics such as visa restrictions. Moreover, it may also mean that because students bring in money, higher education does not have an equality of opportunity and revolves around the ability to pay for an education.

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## Lesson 22 Questions

1. Define vocational education.
2. What is a parity of esteem in relation to vocational education?
3. What is Illich's vision of educational policy?
4. What policy changes have occurred in recent times that affect higher education?
5. How does Rikowski account for educational policy changes?

### Extension Task

Independent Research: Use the Internet and other sources to build on your notes of the topics covered in today's lesson. Use the following websites:

- Vocational Education  
<https://www.gov.uk/browse/education/find-course>  
<http://www.ippr.org/assets/media/publications/pdf/winning-globalisation.pdf>
- Higher Education  
<http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings>  
<http://www.theguardian.com/education/2014/oct/07/high-tuition>
- Globalisation  
<http://www.theguardian.com/education/schoolprivatisation>  
<http://www.tlrp.org/pub/documents/globalisationcomm.pdf>

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# Lesson 22: Plenary activity worksheet

Fill in the table below to account for how policies are improving and strengthening or outcome; and in the other column, list reasons as to why the education equality of access, experience, opportunity or outcome. Remember to use previous lessons!

Policy and aspects of education aimed to achieve equality across education	Policies which face

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# Answers to Questions

## Lesson 1

1. *Ontology* – how we understand reality. *Epistemology* – how knowledge is produced. *Methodology* – research methods.
2. Verstehen – approach in research that uses empathy and understanding to gain subjectivity. To see the world through someone else's eyes to gain the best sociological understanding.
3. He measured social facts, and then used this data to theorise four categories of suicide such as integration and regulation of individuals in a society. He then found causal variables. Too much integration or regulation were often the motivating factors for suicide. His point is that what appears personal and individual can actually be understood from an external perspective.
4. These frameworks guide and shape all aspects of the research – ontological and epistemological – and existence of reality and social life – as well as inform which methods are best to use for what to research.

### Extension Task

	Positivist	
Ontological approach	Reality as objective, measurable social fact	Realist
Key thinker and concept	Durkheim – study of suicide	Weber
Role of sociologist in research	Sociologist as scientist	Sociologist
Reason for sociological research	Gain knowledge of facts, and to understand causes and correlations	Gain understanding
Is the research applicable to everyone?	Yes, research findings are universal	No, research is specific to a time and place

## Lesson 2

1. Data that is numerical or statistical. It is information that it is quantifiable. It may be presented in tables or charts.
2. Depth, perspective, detail, flexibility, ability for unforeseen answers to arise.
3. Primary data is collected by the researcher whereas secondary data is using information already collected.
4. The data already exists, access to participants is difficult or denied, researching events in the past, resource constraints.
5. It is usually not possible to research an entire population due to feasibility and resource constraints. A sample, which is a small reflection of the population, is used instead.

### Extension Task

Data type	Strengths	
Primary data	Specific to research question	Costly, time consuming, implications
Secondary data	Accessible, cheap, readily available	Motivated, operational, be to e

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## Lesson 3

1. Closed questions have set answers to fill in while open questions allow the respondent to usually provide data that is quantifiable while open questions give qualitative data.
2. Official statistics, experiments, documents, observations, questionnaires, structured surveys.
3. Trying to control social life variables is difficult, and often putting social life in an artificial context is not representative of reality.
4. Letters, diaries, public documents, government reports, school records, newspaper articles.
5. Interview for one-to-one or small number of participants – produces a lot of in-depth data. Focus groups allow group dynamics to be revealed but difficult to transcribe and analyse. Case study suitable if the topic is a specific perspective. Documents are available if requiring secondary data source.

### Extension Task

- a) Questions should be closed questions
- b) A list of key themes as well as some open questions
- c) List of key themes and key open questions to discuss, suitable for group discussion

## Lesson 4

1. If there is no funding, the research cannot be done, and so the availability of funding does matter. Where the funding is coming from may also impact the research, as if findings contradict expectations there may be pressure to not publish or alter results. Moreover, funding imposes constraints. For example, if there is limited funding a cheaper method may be used even if it is not the most accurate.
2. Funding, time, access to participants, who the participants are, where the participants are.
3. Privacy is ensured by keeping participants anonymous in the research, not disclosing details, not revealing places, names or areas. Allowing participants to withdraw from the research at any time. Refuse to partake in any part of the research, such as answering a question they feel uncomfortable with.
4. Ethical considerations are aspects of morals and safety within the research. They are important to meet a certain standard to be able to complete research, involve legal aspects of doing research, regulate and standardise research, and help to keep social research ethical.

## Lesson 5

1. Reliability – the ability to repeat the research and achieve the same results. Validity – the accuracy of the research as a reflection of social life. Representativeness – the ability for the results to be applicable to the population.
2. Using mixed methods to get a more comprehensive picture of social life. For example, using both quantitative and qualitative methods.
3. Grounded theory by Glaser and Strauss – this uses elements of induction and deduction to develop a theory while guiding the data collection but while the data verifies and shapes the theory.

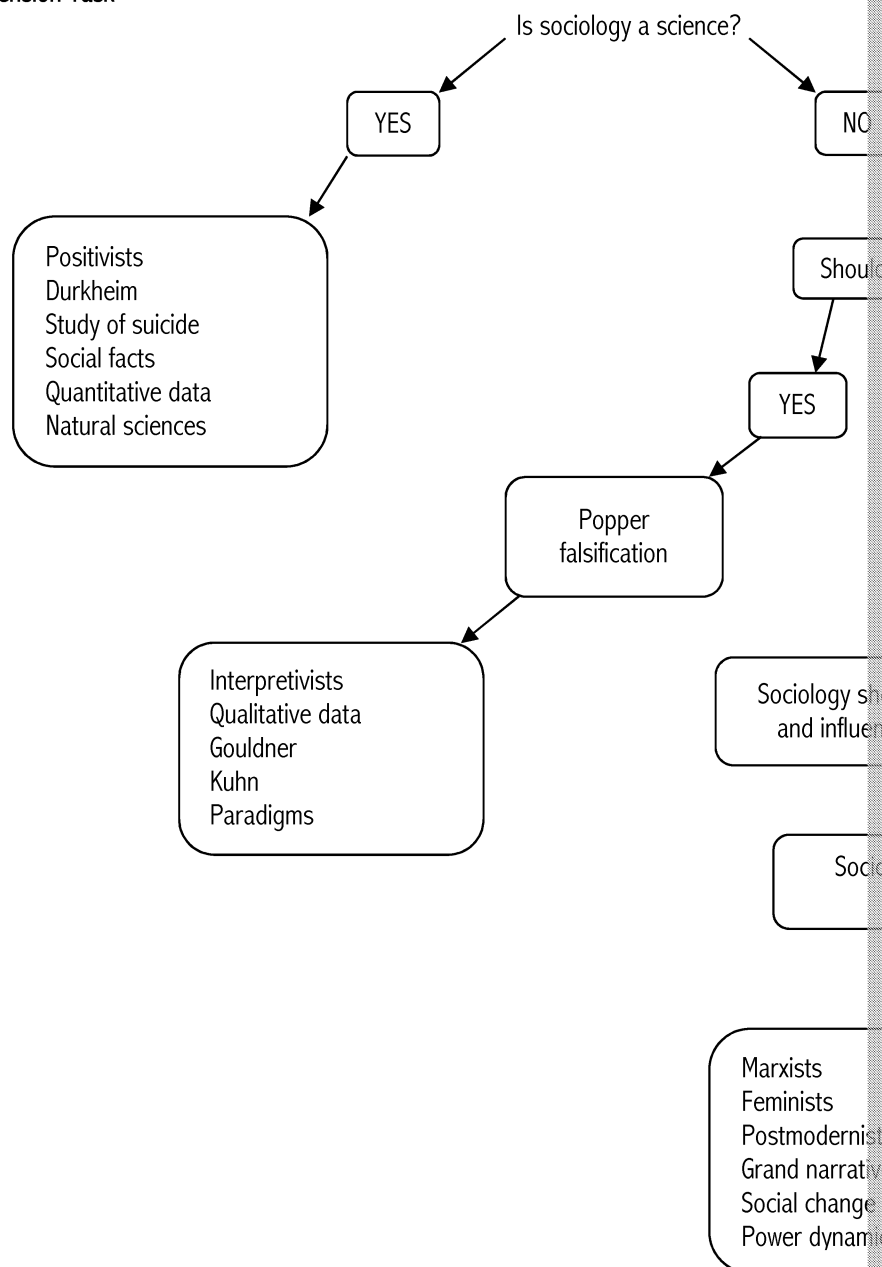
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## Lesson 6

1. Positivists argue that sociology should be carried out in an objective and value-free manner. It is considered a science as it follows the same methodological approaches as the natural sciences.
2. Interpretivists – emphasis on understanding. Marxists and feminists – sociology should change. Postmodernists – sociology is not able to be value-free as reality and social life are constantly changing and experiences.
3. Kuhn – concept of paradigm means that knowledge is made within socially constructed frameworks. If an overarching dominance, this framework may mean that sociology must strive to be objective like the natural sciences. Realism – alternative approach to methodology that argues if you apply a scientific system, you can rigorously and systematically analyse hidden and unobservable structures. Critical realism – combines positivism or interpretivism but partially uses an element of both of their approaches.
4. Sociology is used to guide and inform social policy and political life. For example, it shapes public opinion, does research to inform policy, and helps to solve social problems. Giddens (2001) argues that sociology, policy, sociology may be used to shape our understandings of the social world, be reflective of a population.

### Extension Task



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## Lesson 7

1. To socialise children, bridge the gap between the family and wider society, instil a value collective values, ensure regulation and integration within society, give shared heritage.
2. No – Durkheim focuses on collective values, Parsons draws attention to the individualist
3. Meritocratic society means that there is an equality of opportunity, and individuals are rewarded for their talents and abilities. For example, if someone works hard and gets the top marks, they are likely to get a good job. If someone does not work hard and gets low educational grades, they are likely to get a poor job.
4. Functionalism is a consensus theory as it is based around mutually beneficial elements of society working together with one another. For example, education benefits the individual and society, and works with other elements of society such as the family and the economy to ensure society functions correctly.
5. The education system prepares students for employment and their role in the economy, and defines the norms and behaviours of what is appropriate and expected. It also provides training, skills and knowledge for the workforce. Education also acts as a mechanism and filtering device to socially stratify people.

## Lesson 8

1. Murray argues that low educational achievements is characteristic of the 'new rabble' which is a subculture characteristic of the 'new Victorian' group.
2.
  - a) Meritocracy is the belief or ideology that effort is rewarded fairly and justly; that effort is rewarded with success.
  - b) Educational institutions are built upon certain values which may advantage some and disadvantage others. For example, of ethnicity, whereby schools recognise white culture but overlook or ignore other cultures/ethnicities/races or ignore class inequalities reproduced by school.
3. Parent-led, marketisation, model based on private schools, minimal state interference, choice.

## Lesson 9

1. That all aspects of life are guided and structured by capitalist principles which means that economic and social relations and institutions go by the principles of making profit.
2. The bourgeoisie own the means of production and employ the proletariat to work. Their power depends on the bourgeoisie exploiting the proletariat.
3. The base, which is composed of the means of production and the relations of production, determines the superstructure, which is a term to describe the institutions and processes in society, such as law, media and religion. These aspects promote and instil ideology which legitimises and maintains the society is capitalism.
4. Through the use of ideological and repressive state apparatuses, ideology is instilled, and this is done through structures and systems such as the education system or the family. This is done through force and coercion. Moreover, a continuity between and mutually reinforcing role of these ideological levels in the social formation work to ensure capitalism structures society, and maintains it.
5. Gramsci argues that hegemony is attained when the dominant ideology successfully exists and is accepted by the working class, duping people into a false class consciousness, but by getting communities to consent to the status quo. The working and ruling class is not useful or accurate: Gramsci highlights differences and divides society. He argues that the ruling class are not solely defined by their ownership of the means of production, but also by their use of the state as an expression of power and control.

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## Lesson 10

1. To reproduce existing social relations and structures and to prepare people for the labour market and stratification
2. Althusser's concept of an ideological state apparatus is that education is an institution that reproduces capitalist ideologies and pass down existing class structures and relations of production and content of education. It is the most dominant impact in this transmission because it acts as an agent of socialisation, and has a large amount of obligatory content.
3. Over-deterministic – too much focus on economic relations. Too pessimistic – ignores the role of the working class in teaching against ideology. Consensus perspective – highlights positive functions of education, which Marxists frame in detrimental terms.
4. Timetables – control of time, subjects and curriculum – alienates student from knowledge and relationships, discipline, e.g. detentions, punctuality – school bells and timetables, school uniform – standardisation.

## Lesson 11

1. NS-SEC – government class scale, free school meal tickets, government deprived areas
2. On average, the lower the social class, the lower the educational attainment and more likely to experience aspects of educational experience such as time off for illness or exclusion. The higher the social class, the higher the educational attainment.
3. Lack of resources such as a computer, the Internet or uniform can lead to effects on social experiences, personal development, bullying, and inability to do school work. Lack of mental health, time off school and concentration; being involved in employment while in school; extracurricular activities and concentration in school; housing of those in poverty or with disabilities can provide poor conditions, which can lead to health issues – physical and mental, stress, etc.
4. Cultural factors are values, attitudes, behaviours, norms and aspects of culture such as certain cultures being linked to certain classes.
5. Immediate gratification, a characteristic usually associated with the working class, affects orientation towards the present and valuing instant rewards, such as receiving an income when possible opportunity. In contrast, middle classes are usually associated with having a more long-term orientation, which means that they can afford to postpone receiving rewards, such as an income, into the future. For example, they are more likely to recognise the payoff of attending university for longer, to eventually receive a better job.

## Lesson 12

1. The situational constraint approach understands cultural class differences as a structural constraint or advantaged by a certain social class position. In contrast, a cultural deprivation approach understands cultural differences as values that people have chosen and as a result of the individual's choices.
2. Bernstein argued that working classes have a restricted language code, meaning they use a limited vocabulary, in contrast to middle classes that may use either restricted or elaborated language. The use of sophisticated and complex language, and schools not only use but reward the use of this language, giving middle-class pupils an advantage.
3. Bourdieu argues that the creation of the habitus informs an individual's values and attitudes and is influenced by experiences, socialisation, and your parents. The individual's position in society also shapes how an individual comes to act and think, including the values and attitudes they hold.
4. A middle-class pupil would enjoy classical music, going to the theatre, reading literature and art and use sophisticated knowledge and language. This advantages those in education built on middle-class values and so they will understand the textbooks, write in exams and communicate with teachers better than working-class pupils.

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## Lesson 13

1. Until the late 1980s, boys outperformed girls but now girls outperform boys in all education.
2. Structural and cultural elements of increased gender equality— such as more women in the workforce, changes in the labour market, changed social and cultural values towards the role of women, providing more role models and wider opportunities for girls, changed the importance of factors inside school such as changing gender stereotypes.
3. Behaviour – the way girls are socialised and dominant forms of femininity are rewarded. Behaviours include working hard, completing homework, being obedient in lessons, reading, developing communication skills. This is in contrast to boys who are generally more disruptive. Values and attitudes – girls have in the last few decades been given role models and are more motivated to achieve in education and have greater aspirations; they generally underestimates their ability and are inclined to have harder working attitudes.

## Lesson 14

1. Epstein (1998) and Francis (2006) highlight that it is not as simple to distinguish between gender and/or ethnicity elements should be considered. For example, white males outperform black males, a constant trend that girls achieve higher. They also argue that the concern in the public to spend time and resources on a social phenomenon that conceals other aspects of diversity.
2. Girls – arts and humanities subjects, more girls choose biology than any other science, less in maths, physics and engineering.
3. Feminist argument – gendered subject choices carry implications of certain prestige or status, certain careers, and the subjects the boys are socialised into taking lead to high career status, therefore having social and economic implications.
4. To reproduce existing gender relations and patriarchal society. To socialise pupils into roles that prepares girls for one future path and boys for another.

## Lesson 15

1. Other than early years, Chinese students outperform all other ethnic groups. African-Caribbean students have lower discipline and lower attainment at secondary level. Those from white and mixed-race backgrounds are more likely to offer for a university place. African-Caribbean and Asian pupils were less likely to be categorised as underachievers.
2. Ethnocentrism is the centrality and dominance of one culture over others. The central culture is those that fall outside of this seen as inferior and on the sidelines.
3. Teacher attitudes and behaviours, pupil actions/attitudes, curriculum and representation of culture in the school calendar, Christian traditions, food options.
4. Students can internalise the label and underachieve, participate in subcultures, resist the label, develop coping strategies so they can manage obstacles.

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## Lesson 16

1. Asian family tight-knit structures can lead to good achievement as parental involvement. If first language is not English, can affect parental involvement and recognition within school. New Right argue African-Caribbean pupils suffer from lone-parent families, while black father provides a strong and positive role model. Some groups such as Bangladeshi and Pakistani and so are more likely to experience material deprivation effects, which can cause lower achievement a disadvantage and receive lower educational achievement because of racism and ethnic dominant language codes.
2. Labov's (1973) research highlights that 'black speech' is not recognised in formal institutional language that has complexity in both form and ideas, and should be acknowledged and valued against in formal settings such as school or exams.
3. An approach that understands identities as sets of interlinking aspects. For example, gender and ethnicity are mutually exclusive categories but instead are aspects that influence and interact with each other in experiences and identities.
4. Osler (2006) looks at African-Caribbean females and their likelihood and experience of poverty, not just if just looking at gender or ethnicity. Platt (2007) and Strand (2007) look at the pattern of poverty and find that while class is an important factor, it is not necessarily a determining factor as Indian and Caribbean pupils, whereby they have similar levels of poverty but Indian pupils achieve higher. Cultural and ethnic factors must have bearing.
5. Social group categories are redundant and not useful in sociological analysis, for example gender/ethnicity/class. Reality is fragmented and characterised by choice and so there are many options such as type of schools.

### Extension Task

Factors inside School: Racism – institutional, from other pupils, bullying, teachers, discrimination, curriculum, uniform, calendar, textbooks. Labelling – teacher stereotypes, subcultures, rejection. Factors outside School: Family – structure, parental attitudes and aspirations, discipline style, cultural codes, dominant forms, cultural/social value. Material Factors – access to resources, deprivation.

## Lesson 17

1. First, speculation occurs whereby assumptions and guesses are made on what the student will do. Then happens where the label is tested and it is either altered if wrong or agrees and confirms the label. This occurs which means that the label is fixed in place and very difficult to remove or alter.
2. The ideal pupil is composed of white middle-class ideals of behaviour, attitudes and appearance. Instead focuses on the way a student dresses and acts.
3. Gillborn (1990) finds that African-Caribbean pupils are labelled as disruptive, and that this counters the mainstream values of a white, middle-class institution. Connolly finds that African-Caribbean pupils are deviant and low-achieving.
4. Small scale is not generalisable, labels may be resisted or rejected, that focusing on class and societal structures and power dynamics.

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## Lesson 18

1. They provide a place for those who are discriminated against to resist discrimination and
2. An alternative status hierarchy is when subcultures create and rank their own values and particular status.
3. Willis – young black males – anti-school sentiments but prepared them for work; Jackson, O'Donnell and Sharpe – labour market effects motivational levels, masculinity embodied eight responses to participating in school or anti-school subcultures.
4. Those with the same characteristics of the subcultures may be assumed to be part of the For example, all black male youths in school might be assumed to participate in anti-school found that peer-group pressure affects a pupil if they are being encouraged to participate comply they experience 'dual punishment' where they are negatively labelled by the teacher Jackson's research highlights that 'laddish' behaviour in its nature is disruptive, aggressive classroom setting disrupts the learning of all students.

## Lesson 19

1. Symbolic interactionists – institutionalised labelling, self-fulfilling prophecy. Marxists – social Ball and Rist – reproduces social class.
2. The hidden curriculum is teachings of school that are not part of the official or formal curriculum that are to do with values, behaviours and beliefs that are subtly, passively or implicitly
3. Teachers may exercise the first face of power, by making a decision and achieving the desired may decide in which set to place a student, to give a student a detention, or to administer schools, students are compliant and teachers hold a position of power so that they may achieve

## Lesson 20

1. Catchment area – postcode lottery / selection by mortgage, parental choice and involve social networks, appealing, economic capital – purchase house in certain area. Private Grammar schools – eleven-plus exam. Faith schools – selective by beliefs. Specialist schools related to specialism.
2. Marketisation means to allow the principles of the market, such as supply and demand, educational sector and institutions. Parents are in the role of consumers, being able to choose children's education.
3. On one hand, people argue that private schools have the right to offer a service, and provide service if they so wish. Others argue that private schools give an unfair advantage from equality of opportunity or outcome. Critics often highlight the way in which these advantages lifetime earnings are on average more for someone that attended a private school in comparison to state school.
4. The government stated its aims of these schools to allow for schools to have more direct than central government or local authorities, particularly in aspects such as the curriculum these schools have the impact of widening the attainment gap as schools are left to be schools in richer communities improving under the new policies and schools in poorer communities

## Lesson 21

1. Free school meals, pupil premium, summer schools, NSP, EEF, raising school-leaving age
2. Raising of school-leaving age, scrapped Aim Higher and EMA, disparity of effectiveness enough for school to fully provide.
3. Policies on their own or in isolation may not be able to achieve results; for example, may Policies can be difficult to effectively implement; for example, pupil premium whereby the the institution's ability to effectively use the funding. Stigma may be attached to some poor or rejection. Already privileged groups may benefit from resources aimed at disadvantaged knowledge of how to successfully implement or apply for resources.

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## Lesson 22

1. Learning which involves specific knowledge or skills, usually related to a certain trade or profession.
2. Parity of esteem refers to the difference in status and respectability that is found between vocational education and academic education. Vocational education is often assumed to be of a lower status.
3. To 'de-school' education, meaning to use learning webs to facilitate a learning which is not confined to schools as institutions which are limiting and instead wants creativity and critical thinking outside formal institutions or qualifications, as he sees that they are not an accurate depiction of learning.
4. Closure of Aim Higher affects widening participation in higher education, raising fees, impacting on international student attendance.
5. From a Marxist perspective, Rikowski argues that educational policies are occurring to protect the interests of corporate capital in a subtle way, so that it is not possible to see that the interests of corporate capital are dictating policy.

### Plenary Task

Policy and aspects of education aimed to achieve equality across education	Policies which facilitate equality
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Expansion of vocational education; introduction of tech levels, number of apprenticeships and traineeships</li> <li>– Not in use across all of UK; Aim Higher: widening participation in HE, EMA</li> <li>– Raising profile and status across HE institutions</li> <li>– Competition, global markets and EU policy focus: aim to increase standards and improve equality of outcome</li> <li>– Policies of UK coalition government: pupil premium, summer schools, National Scholarship Programme, Education Endowment Foundation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Disparity between universities, reputations</li> <li>– Class aspects of capitalism, which institutions serve</li> <li>– Privatisation policies and businesses' involvement</li> <li>– Globalisation of higher education</li> <li>– Wage for apprentice</li> <li>– Eleven-plus exam for entry to secondary schools</li> <li>– Private schools</li> <li>– Stigma attached to vocational education</li> </ul>

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## Lesson 22 Continued

### Role and function of the education system worksheet

Theory: Key points, thinkers and concepts	
<p><b>Functionalism:</b> positive view; education provides socialisation  Durkheim – society in miniature, integration/regulation, social solidarity  Parsons – instils values such as meritocracy, universalistic/particularistic values, ascribed/achieved status  Hargreaves – schools focused on individualism, need reform to have collective values  Davis and Moore – fair system of meritocracy, legitimate social stratification  Schultz and Becker – human capital, education feeds economy</p>	<p><b>Criticisms:</b> conflict perspective  argue education continues to perpetuate social inequality, exploitation and oppression  Whether society is meritocratic or not  equality of opportunity, some groups are more powerful than others  <b>Strengths:</b> emphasises the role of education  education is central to the functioning of society  Contemporary relevance  on functionalist role of education  Outlines key role of education</p>
<p><b>New Right:</b> based on functionalism; education is meritocratic; poor educational results creates underclass/ 'new rabble', while good educational attainment characterises 'new Victorians'  Murray – underclass is threat to society and their position is as a result of their own actions.  Chubb &amp; Moe – in favour of educational policy based on marketization and parent-led decisions</p>	<p><b>Criticisms:</b> overlooks class differences  aspects of education in the home  <b>Strengths:</b> has clear policy implications  raise standards of education</p>
<p><b>Marxism:</b> conflict theory. School as social control and internalisation of ideology. Role of providing workers and continuing relations of capitalism.  Bowles and Gintis – correspondence theory  Althusser – ideological state apparatus</p>	<p><b>Criticisms:</b> over-deterministic  largely overlooked.  Willis – subcultures resist  Casey – attempts of some schools to resist  <b>Strengths:</b> breaks down the functionalist view  Recognises relationship between education and the economy  Links education to functionalism</p>
<p><b>Feminism:</b> school is another site of male dominance and patriarchy that reproduces gender inequalities  Identifies subtle and underlying mechanisms of gender inequality  Carby – black feminism – curriculum ignores or presents negatively black history and black women  Best – gendered language  Inside school organisation and hierarchies mirrors patriarchal structures in wider society</p>	<p><b>Criticisms:</b> girls outperform boys  wider issues than traditional functionalism  <b>Strengths:</b> situates the school in the wider context  underachieving in wider context  Identifies school as site of gender inequality  Recognises how gender inequality is linked with other factors of ethnicity and class</p>
<p><b>Interactionism:</b> looks at relationships and interactions between individuals and within groups  Sees how these interactions, along with the effects of labelling, shape experiences and identities  Hargreaves, Heston &amp; Meller – process of labelling  Becker – ideal pupil  Willis – subcultures</p>	<p><b>Criticisms:</b> can be over-deterministic  label is applied it will be that way  will occur.  Overlooks other structural factors  influence role of education  <b>Strengths:</b> Research is well grounded in lived experience  Insight into subcultures  Looks at relationships and interactions  different insight to the structuralist view  Marxism, feminism</p>

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