"A" Level Sociology

A Resource-Based Learning Approach

Module:

Social Differentiation, Inequality and Stratification

Unit S3a: Measuring Social Class

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Introduction.

In previous Units in this series we have referred, at various times, to a number of different dimensions to social stratification and social inequality (for example, social class, gender, ethnicity, age and nationality / region). In this Unit we need to look more closely at the various ways it is possible to define these dimensions, since such definitions will be useful to us if we want to measure how ideas like an individual's social class, gender or ethnic background relate to that person's life chances.

In this respect, the focus of this Unit is on two things:

Firstly, the various ways we can **operationalise** the concepts of class, gender, ethnicity and age.

That is, the different kinds of indicators we can use to help us measure each dimension of social stratification.

Secondly, since social class is more difficult to define than other dimensions of stratification (for reasons that will be made clear in a moment), it's necessary to spend the bulk of this Unit looking at the various ways sociologists and others (such as governments) have suggested class membership can be defined and measured.

The concept of "life chances" is a very important one in the context of social stratification and it is one we will develop more clearly in the next Unit. For the moment, however, all we need to note is that the concept of life chances was originally developed by Max. Weber and he expressed the it as:

"A person's power to obtain a supply of goods, external living conditions and personal life experiences".

Haralambos ("Themes and Perspectives") puts this more simply when he notes that life chances relate to:

"... a person's chances of obtaining those things defined as desirable and avoiding those things defined as undesirable in their society".

Haralambos continues with a quote from **Gerth and Mills**, who argue that life chances in Western society involve,

"Everything from the chance to stay alive during the first year after birth to the chance to view fine arts, the chance to remain healthy and grow tall, and if sick to get well again quickly, the chance to avoid becoming a juvenile delinquent and very crucially, the chance to complete an intermediary or higher educational grade".

- In terms of the these ideas, therefore, the first thing that strikes us in relation to dimensions of stratification such as age, gender and ethnicity is that they are relatively easy to define, mainly because they tend to reflect observable biological attributes. For example:
 - In our society it is only possible for people to be classified as either
 biologically male or biologically female. Although this is not always true of
 every society (some societies recognise a "third sex" (hermaphrodites people born with both male and female sexual organs)), this type of sexual
 classification is the norm in most societies.
 - In terms of age, people are assigned various classification positions (baby, child, youth, adult, elderly and so forth) on the basis of a chronological system the idea that, as you become biologically older your status in society changes.
 - In terms of **ethnicity**, **skin colour** is often used as a way of classifying people, although other **cultural factors** might include things like **religion**, **country** or **region** of origin, **language** and the like).

Social class, on the other hand, is not so easy to define (although there may be certain **observable indicators** of a person's class, such as the way they talk, the way they dress and so forth), which is one reason why we are going to look at this dimension of stratification in more detail (the other reason is that it is such an important dimension of stratification and inequality that we need to be sure we understand its implications).

What Is Social Class?

The concept of social class is a wide-ranging one that has a number of related dimensions, the **three** most significant of which are:

- An **economic** dimension this can be measured in terms of **indicators** such as **wealth**, **income** and **occupation**.
- A **political** dimension this can be measured in terms of **indicators** such as **status** and **power**.
- A **cultural** dimension this can be measured in terms of **indicators** such as **lifestyle**, **values**, **beliefs**, **norms**, **level of education** and so forth.

Of the above dimensions, the **economic** is usually seen to be the most socially (and sociologically) significant, mainly because an individual's economic position is also an important source of **social status** and **power** (a **professional** worker such as a doctor or accountant tends to have **higher status** and **more power** than a **manual** worker such as a road sweeper, for example) and also influences the development of certain **cultural lifestyles** (for example, the type of **status symbols** you are able to acquire, the kinds of **leisure pursuits** you are able to afford and so forth).

- From the above it should be clear that the concept of social class is likely to be extremely difficult to **operationalise** since it involves a large number of **variables**
 - (for example, the relationship between income and wealth, power, status and lifestyle, not to mention further status factors such as gender, age and ethnicity).
- For the sake of simplicity if not the sociologist's sanity - if we can identify a single most important and useful indicator of social class, it would have to be occupation.

As we will see, simply because occupation is a very handy way of defining and measuring social class it doesn't follow that there is anything but a very broad level of agreement amongst both sociologists and other interested parties about the nature and extent of the scales we use in order to group various occupational types in terms of social classes. Again, this is something we will examine in more detail at a later point.

Why Is It Important To Define Social Class?

The simple reason for the importance of social class is the fact that it can be **objectively** linked to an individual's **life chances**. As with any sociological concept, in order to test whether or not social class is related to an individual's life chances it is necessary to both **define** it clearly and develop some means of **operationalising** it. In this respect, once class has been defined we need to develop an indicator or **indicators** of class that can be used as the basis of measurement and testing.

How can we operationalise the concept of Social Class?

On a **commonsense** level ("what everybody knows"), definitions of social class do not seem to present us with too many problems. Most of us, for example, would recognise the idea that, in Britain, there are three basic social classes, namely:

- An upper class
- A middle class and
- A working or lower class.

However, for our purposes, this simple classification immediately raises a number of questions and, of course, problems. For example:

- How do we assign people to each class (what criteria do we use)?
- Is class membership **objective** (based on what you are) or **subjective** (based on what you believe you are)?
- Is class just a "statistical category" (a simple counting exercise to see "who
 fits where" in society) or does it affect people's life chances (and, if so, what
 does this tell us about the relationship between objective and subjective
 forms of classification?)?
- Do we focus on **individuals** (giving people a class position on the basis of a range of personal / social factors) or do we focus on **large groups** (people who share a number of basic characteristics like occupation)?

In the light of these - and potentially many other - questions we can do a couple of things:

- 1. We can distinguish between **objective** and **subjective** forms of class measurement and deal with each category separately.
- 2. In terms of objectively classifying people we can consider a range of criteria (indicators of class) and a range of different class measurement scales.

We can, for example, argue that social class is an objective category. This is because classes are part of the social structure of society and they exist independently of the consciousness of individual social actors. In this respect, you can be assigned a class position regardless of whether you accept that position or believe you belong to a different class or even no class at all.

While an individual's **subjective** sense of class position is, in certain contexts, important (because it will affect the way they behave), this idea relates to the concept of **status** (a dimension of class), not to class itself. This is a distinction we will develop in more detail in a moment.

An easy way to understand this idea is to think in terms of an individual's **biological sex** (which we'll assume can't be changed). If you are born a biological male then, in a gender structure, you are classified as male. You are male whether you want to be or not. You may, for example, decide to call yourself "Shirley" and adopt the style, mannerisms and dress of the opposite sex; presupposing you are free to do this, this behaviour does not make you female - it simply makes you a male who is pretending to be a female...

Social Class: Objective Forms of Measurement.

Over the course of this century in Britain there have been a number of **official** and **unofficial** attempts to measure social class and in this section we can look at a few examples of the different types of classification scale it is possible to use.

As I've suggested, this is not intended to be an exhaustive list of examples mainly because:

"Official" scales are those recognised by governments and their statistical agencies for the purpose of measuring social class.

"Unofficial" scales are those that have been produced by sociologists, psychologists, market researchers and the like.

- Most major textbooks have a section of some description that focuses on "measuring class" and it's probably easier to review some of the major scales from this source.
- Although the details of each scale differ (for example, there are usually differences in the **number** of classes defined, the ______ occupations that go into each category and so forth), the broad principles involved tend to be quite similar.

That is, although there tend to be arguments over "who goes where" on the scale, the basic principle that social class can be measured in terms of "occupational groupings" is shared by all of these types of scale.

The basic format for this section, therefore, will be to introduce an example of the
various scales that have been used to measure social class in Britain, followed by
an outline, in diagram form, of the basic scale. Finally, we can then briefly
consider some of the strengths and weaknesses, (or uses and limitations if
you prefer) of the particular scale under discussion.

Before we begin, we need to note that most, if not all, attempts to produce **objective measures** of social class focus on a (relatively small) number of **indicators** that can be used as the basis for measurement. In general terms, these have tended to be things like:

- Occupation.
- Housing / property ownership.
- Income.
- Family background.
- Educational background.
- · Voting behaviour.
- By and large, **occupation**, as we have noted, has tended to be the main indicator used, for the reasons already noted (see page 2). This produces a scale that largely measures **economic class**, although occupation does, of course, give us some indication of the likely social aspects to an individual's class position (power, status, lifestyle, etc.).
- Some forms of measurement, as we will see, have tried to create a class scale
 that is less heavily biased towards economic factors by using a combination of
 indicators and weightings for their significance in terms of social class.
- 1. The Registrar-General's Model of Social Class.

• From 1911 to 1980 this was the standard classification system used by government departments in Britain. It consisted of the following categories:

Social Class

Example occupations

1. Professional	Accountant, doctor, clergyman, university teacher	
2. Intermediate	Pilot, farmer, manager, Police officer, teacher, mar Middle	class
3N. Non-manual skilled	Clerical worker, sales rep., shop assistant, secretary.	
3M. Manual skilled	Butcher, bus driver, electrician, miner	
4. Semi-skilled	Bus conductor, bar person, postal worker, packer.	
5. Unskilled	Labourer, office cleaner, window cleaner.	
The Registrar General's scale had the following characteristics:		class

- A basic two-class model was used, in which the population was divided into middle and lower classes.
- Each broad class was subdivided into three further categories. Although five sub-divisions were used, category three was split into two "equal" categories.
 The scale, therefore, consisted of three categories to describe non-manual / middle class occupations and th manual / lower class occupations).

In simple terms, the middle classes were defined as those involved in non-manual work, whereas the lower classes were defined as those involved in manual work.

• The basis for the ranking of occupations was their "relative standing in the community"; occupations were assigned to the different class categories by assessing and comparing their status, relative to each other. Occupations were, therefore, arranged hierarchically, with the most important at the top.

Strengths / Uses

 A basic strength of this type of classification is it's relative simplicity (it's easy to understand and apply).

It also roughly accords to commonsense notions of class categories.

- 2. As an **official** system of measurement, **government statisticians** used this classification. This meant:
- a. It was possible to **compare** changes over time (in areas such as **health**, **work**, **poverty** and **family life**) using this basic scale (useful, amongst other things, for **longitudinal studies**) although we need to be aware of reclassifications of occupations that have taken place over the years.
- b. The huge **amount of data** on social class generated by government departments made it difficult for researchers to adopt a different form of class measurement if they wanted to use official statistical data on class in their research.

- 1. The scale groups **occupations**, rather than individuals and, while this is not necessarily a problem, it does mean that an **unknown number of people** effectively disappear from the class structure, both at the top and the bottom. For example, in order to appear in the scale you must have a job and this excludes:
- The very wealthy who may live off investments.
- The unemployed / never employed (the latter category is significant for the young),
- The "non-employed" (in the sense of paid work). This would include substantial numbers of people (mainly women) who work within the home, caring for children, the elderly and so forth.
- 4. The use of status to determine class position (in terms of manual / non-manual work and "relative standing") means that a basic assumption underpinning the scale was the idea of shared values in effect, the idea that a broad level of agreement about the status of different occupations exists in our society. An alternative way of seeing it is to suggest that the scale represents the particular way powerful social groups view the class (or, more correctly, status, structure of Britain).

- 2. Although the scale claims to be objective, it uses an essentially subjective assessment ("relative standing in the community") of both the broad class groupings and the status of different occupations within such groups. In addition, it was never really made clear what the criteria were for **measuring** "relative standing in the community".
- 3. The categories are **too broad** and fail to really take account of status differences that exist within occupations (**intra-occupational status**). For example, the occupation "teacher" covers a wide range of different statuses from the probationary teacher to a head teacher...
- 5. This type of scale should, moreaccurately, be seen as a measure of **social status** (a subjective interpretation) rather than **social class** (an objective category).
- 6. **Income** is an important factor in terms of an individual's **life chances** and this form of measurement groups occupations that have **widely-differing levels of income** (for example, Class 2 includes both farmers and nurses...).
- 7. **Feminists**, among others, have criticised the **sexist assumptions** that underlie this type of occupational scheme. In particular, it is based on the idea that "a family" is the basic unit in society and that it's members all share a common class position based on the "head of the household's occupation), which begs a number of questions:
 - a. Do women, for example, have the same life chances as their (male) partner?
 - b. In a household where both partners (**dual-income families**) work, which occupation counts in terms of class position?
 - c. Dual-income families may have greater life chances than **single income families**, even though they may, occupationally, be placed in a lower class.

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2. The Standard Occupational Classification (SOC)

In the 1980's the (Conservative) government changed the way "class" was officially measured. In place of the Registrar-General's scale a nine category scale was introduced.

	Examples of Occupations
Social Class	·
	Managers / administrators (large companies)
1. Managers / Administrators	Teachers, solicitor, vicar, social worker.
2. Professional	rodonoro, conoccor, vicar, cociai worker.
Associate professional /	Computer programmer, nurse, journalist, youth worker
Technical	Clerical worker, secretary, receptionist.
4. Clerical and Secretarial	Electrician, bricklayer, mechanic.
5. Craft and related 6. Personal and Protective	Hairdresser, traffic warden, nursery nurse, police officer (sergeant and below)
services	Sales rep. / assistant, check-out operator.
7. Sales	Bus conductor, bus / lorry / taxi driver, packer, assembly-line worker.
8. Plant and Machine	paster, associately into trotton
Operative	Miner, postal worker, cleaner.
9. Other Occupations	

Strengths / Uses

The basic class categories are more logically grouped around different types of occupation than is the case with the Registrar-General's scale.

2. The scale has a more-**objective** basis than the Registrar-General's scale because it is not simply based on an assessment of an occupation's "standing in the community". Each **occupation** is **ranked** according to the relative level of **skill** and the **qualifications** needed to perform the job.

This does, of course, involve some forms of subjective assessment (for example, how do you assess a "skill level" and what criteria can be used to assess the relationship between qualifications that cannot be easily and simply compared?

Weaknesses / Limitations

1. Most, if not all, of **weaknesses** of **Registrar-General's** scale can be applied to this scale.

2. It's difficult to see the scale as anything more significant than a rough way of grouping similar types of occupational status. Classes 1 - 3 also seem qualitatively different to classes 6 - 9. The former are grouped in terms of occupational status ("professional", "managerial", etc.), whereas the latter seem to be grouped mainly by occupation type ("craft", "sales" and so forth). There seems little or no logical reason or iustification for this.

3. There is no real sense of any class structure in this classification system (although this, given the political climate at the time, was probably deliberate). In this respect it would seem more-appropriate to call this an occupational group scale, rather than a class scale. However, the nonmanual / manual distinction still exists, after a fashion (classes 1 - 4 are basically nonmanual occupations), but groups 5 - 9 are a mixture of manual and non-manual occupations.

4. Group nine ("Other occupations") seems to be a catch-all, residual, category for occupations that don't fit neatly into the other categories

3. TH

Although there are numerous examples of **sociological** (or **unofficial**) class scales, this is an example of a fairly simple, straightforward way of attempting to measure social class sociologically. The basic characteristics of this scale are:

Social Class	Example Occupations	
1. Higher Grade Professional	Company director, senior manager.	
Lower Grade Professional / administrator	Manager in small business, higher leve supervisor.	
3. Routine non-manual	Clerical, sales.	
4. Small proprietor / self-employed	Small farmers, electrician, plumbe	
5. Lower grade technician / supervisor	Lower level supervisor (of manual workers).	
6. Skilled manual	Electrician, butcher.	
7. Semi-unskilled manual	Farm labourer Working Class	

Strengths / Uses

- 1. This scale attempts to calculate class positions by using an assessment of an occupation's "market situation" and "work situation". This is a more objective form of assessment than a simple status (Registrar-General) or skill (SOC) assessment.
- 2. The scale is based around a relatively simple threeclass model (Service, Intermediate and Working classes). It also makes allowance for the fact that skilled manual workers who are self-employed generally enjoy a higher social status than those who are not. In addition, it allows for the fact that people and occupations with supervisory functions (however minor) are generally qualitatively different to those that do not have this element of power and control.

An individual's "market situation" takes into account ideas about whether they are self-employed or a simple employee (an important distinction in terms of skilled manual occupations such as electrician and plumber), income, the prospects for promotion and, most significantly, career progression (the higher up the scale you are, for example, the greater the likelihood of promotions, increased levels of income, work benefits ("perks" such as shares) and so forth.

"Work situation" refers to questions of power and status in the workplace and society generally. In particular, the higher up the scale you are, the greater levels of personal autonomy (freedom of action and decision-making) you tend to have. In addition, the higher level occupations tend to involve high levels of power over others.

- 3. The scale, although clearly hierarchical, is **not** as **static** as many of the scales used to measure social class. That is, by including an assessment of occupational market situation it provides a sense of possible movement within and between the various class categories (in technical terms, "intra" (within) and "inter" (between) class social mobility). Given that the scale was originally introduced as a means of measuring social **mobility** across the class structure of modern Britain this should not, of course, be too surprising. It does, however, appear to more accurately reflect people's experience of social class than the previous scales at which we've looked.
- 4. Unlike many occupational scales, Hope and Goldthorpe's does not simply divide occupations into a middle and working classes (something that always seems to suggest the class structure is rigidly defined and that a large chasm exists between the middle (non-manual) class and the working (manual class)). Rather, it suggests that the class structure is always much more fluid and fragmentary (that is, there are a potentially large number of different classes and the borders between them are not fixed, but probably ever-changing).

Weaknesses / Limitations

- 1. The use of terms such as "service" and "intermediate" classes appears unnecessarily confusing, given that these class-related terms are not in everyday use. The service class seems to roughly equate to an upper middle class and the intermediate class to a lower middle / upper working class.
- 2. Although understandable in the sense that the scale was designed primarily to measure **social mobility** (a concept we will examine in more detail in an Unit), the fact that it **excludes** people without paid employment (such as the **very rich**, the **unemployed** and those who work (**unpaid**) within the home) distorts our picture of the class structure in modern Britain.
- 3. The placing of routine non-manual workers (such as clerks and sales assistants) above skilled manual workers seems hard to justify in terms of both "market" and "work" situations. This seems to reflect a judgement about status (any kind of non-manual work being seen as superior to manual work) rather than things like income, power and autonomy.
- 4. **Feminists**, amongst others, have argued that this type of occupational-based scale does not accurately reflect the lives and experiences of women (who trend to be either ignored on lumped-together under their (male) partner's occupational class. **Goldthorpe**, in return, has argued that there is much **empirical evidence** to suggest that in **dual-parent families** women, by-and-large, adopt the class identity of their male partner...
- Thus far we have looked briefly at a sample class and from this we can note:
 - 1. **Occupation-based** scales could perhaps be more-accurately seen as measuring some forms of **status groupings**, rather than social class.
 - 2. The focus on **occupation** as the **basic unit** of class **measurement** tends to divide society into **middle** and **working class** sections while **ignoring** an **upper class** characterised not only by **occupation** (managing directors, etc.) but by **ownership** (large-scale share-holding and the like). As we have seen, **Marxist** sociologists argue that this is a crucially important dimension of social class that is largely (if not totally) ignored by most class scales.
 - 3. Questions of **gender** and **ethnicity** (as **status** considerations) are largely excluded from scales of the type we've just assessed. This is something we need to consider in more detail in the

It seems odd that when people generally talk about social class, they recognise the idea that **upper**, **middle** and **lower** classes seem to exist in our society (without necessarily being able to define these in any theoretically-useful way), whereas most class scales rarely, if ever, recognise the concept of an upper class...

To complete this overview of measurement scales, we can examples, both of which, in their separate ways, take a slightly different approach to the question of class measurement.

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4. Will Hutton: The 30 - 30 - 40 Society.

. The scale is not occupation-spe		2. It describes some forms of gender	
voiding some (if not all) of the problems associated		and ethnic inequalities, mainly	
vith measurement scales that atten		because women and ethnic minorities	
occupations to particular class posi-	tions. In this respect	For are more likely to feature, for a variety	
is a less static form of measurem	nent than traditional	Emp of reasons, in the disadvantaged and	
ethods of measuring class.		emplinsecure groups. Uniq	
·		Trad	
have created deep, long-lasting and profound		effective industrial action (limits on actions	
changes in the class structure.		that could be taken against an employer,	
Changes in the class structure.		secret ballots of workforce, massive fines for	
In hadio tarma. Hutton auggests that the class		"illegal" industrial action);	
In basic terms, Hutton suggests that the class structure in modern Britain can be characterised		Tax Law that reduced the amount of taxation	
in terms of three major grouping		paid by the rich;	
in terms of timee major grouping	iys.	The privatisation of State-owned companies	
		(Telecoms, Utilities, Mining, etc.) that resulted	
Social Class	Calcated abo	in massive job-losses / increased	
Social Class	Selected cha	unemployment.	
	Full-time / solf-ompl		
1. The Advantaged	Part-time workers w	tyca nea men joo for 2 years. The have held their job for 5 years.	
1. THE Auvantageu		nions / Professional Associations.	
		ed benefits. Mainly male workers.	
	range of work-relat		
	Part-time / casual w	Top 40%	
2. The Newly Insecure	Declining employment protection / few benefits.		
2. The Newly Insecure	Large numbers of fe		
	Self-employed (especially manual workers)		
	Fixed-term contract		
	Tixou tomi contract	Workers.	
	Unemployed (espec	cially long term)	
3. The Disadvantaged	Families caught in poverty trap (e.g. single parteuts)		
5. The Disadvantaged	Zero-hours contract	workers	
		ent employment schemes	
	Casual part-time wo		
Hutton's analysis, like that of	of Hone and Goldth	orne reflects a Waharian	
("contro-loft") approach to a	oi riope and Goiding	n basic terms, social class is Bottom 30%	
considered mainly in terms	of an individual's ma	urket and work situation. It also	
1		rket and work situation. It also	
has a close parallel with Du	iai Labour Warket tr	ieory.	

This theory argues that the labour market in modern economies consists of two sectors:

- A Primary or Core sector that consists of full-time, well-paid, employees with high levels
 of job security job status and
- A Secondary or Periphery sector that consists of part-time / casual employees, low pay and with little or no job security and low job status.

3. The scale can be used to empirically identify individual market and work situations to describe the class structure of modern Britain (although this is extremely limited precisely because it is a simple, descriptive, scale).

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- 1. The three groupings used are too broad in their scope each contains a wide range of people who may have little, if anything, in common. The "Advantaged" group, for example, could include everyone from the Super Rich (people like Richard Branson or Rupert Murdoch) to relatively minor Civil Servants, teachers and the like.
- 2. Related to this idea, the scale doesn't really address issues of **ownership**, **power** and so forth, mainly because it focuses on individual market situations to the exclusion of these (very important) ideas
- 3. There is no real sense of **class**, as opposed to **market**, **status** in this scale. The latter is a significant aspect of social class, but in this scale it is presented as the only aspect of any importance
- 5. The Runciman Scale.

The final example we are going to consider is donabiting partners, this should be a both **Marxist** and **Weberian** forms of class and significant consideration in any running throughout this section has been the no calculation. This idea casts doubt on the social class, two main things:

4. The fact that the groupings focus on individual class positions means that this scale can tell us little or nothing about class positions based on family groups. For example, someone in part-time / casual employment with a partner in secure, full-time employment is considered to be "disadvantaged" in this scale - yet clearly this is unlikely to be the case. Given that a significant proportion of the workforce will consist of married / cohabiting partners, this should be a significant consideration in any calculation. This idea casts doubt on the concept of a 30:30:40 society...

 Firstly, a sense of class structure based around concepts of economic power. ownership, control and so forth (which roughly equates to Marxist themes).

1. Class position is calculated using a number of different indicators, factors and **weightings**. For example, an individual would be ranked in terms of such things as:

socia 2. Moves away from conventional class erenc scales that make a hard and fast distinction between the middle and arouworking classes based on the nonmanual / manual work distinction. This reflects the way occupational statuses This is important because it gives us a m have **changed**, especially the way routine

people within very broad class groupings forms of non-manual work have declined

in status In simple terms, therefore, Runciman's scale is b

power which, he argues, has three significant dimensions:

- a. **Ownership** whether or not, for example, an individual owns a company (large or small).
- b. Control the extent to which, for example, an individual directs and controls others within the workplace.
- c. Marketability this refers to the ability of individuals to "sell themselves" in the market place and relates to the possession of skills, qualifications and other marketable resources.

On the basis of the above, Runciman identifies 7 broad social classes:

Social Class

Examples of occupations / statuses

1. Upper Corporate owner, senior manager, people

with exceptional marketability

Higher grade professional, senior Civil Servant, 2. Upper middle

	manager
3. Middle middle	Lower professional, middle manager,
	medium-size owner Upper class
4. Lower middle	Routine white-collar (clerical, etc.)
5. Skilled working	Electrician, plumber, skilled self-employed
6. Unskilled working	Shop assistant, check-out operator
7. Underclass	Middle class Long-term unemployed, benefit dependent
	Strengths / Uses
	Working Clas
	Underclas

1. This is a very **complex model** of social class (which may, if you are so inclined, be seen as a **strength** in the sense that social class is not easily and simply definable without using a range of complex criteria and relationships). However, it does seem that this method of measuring class would. in real terms, be extremely difficult to operationalise.

> economically desirable skills and qualifications).

3. It is difficult to know exactly where class boundaries begin and end since it is extremely difficult to quantify concepts such as "power", "control" and "marketability. Although this would not necessarily be too much of a problem for the majority, there would be significant numbers of people who could not be easily classified.

2. The inclusion of an **upper class** category is, as we have noted, a potential **strength** of this model since it is evident that the very wealthy and very powerful do seem have a qualitatively different class position and relationship to other classes. However. problems with calculating "wealth" would arise in any attempt to operationalise the model. For example, we would need to know such things as:

3. An **upper class**, separate from but closely related to, the middle class is clearly identified and theorised on the basis of **economic ownership**, control, wealth, etc.

are worth"?.

4. Economic and status distinctions within the middle class are identified to show the clear differences and distinctions that exist within this class

Their actual and prospective capital resources (in simple terms, their wealth and the extent bns in this to which wealth could be easily turned into income or capital. Thus, someone who owned a large number of shares might be considered wealthy and this wealth provides an income and could be easily turned into money. A person buying their own home would, once they had repaid the mortgage, have wealth, but if they lived in their home it would not be a source of income and nor could it be easily turned into money since if they did so they would still have to find somewhere to live).

n classes it v. there cou

l**ed** are

employee 5. An attempt has been made, using the uld easily fo skilled wor people who have little or no legitimate income, few if any realistic job prospects and a long-term dependency on the State are separate from the working class

of an under class is controversial since it seems to ple who, for a variety of reasons, are almost bm mainstream society. This suggests there is eople that excludes them; however, in the case of,

ts livi are dhousehold (for example, a wage orily earner will have a higher status hild cand greater power than a non people wage earner, a full-time employee would have greater status and power than a part-time employee).

he State it something ent and like),