Welcome to your Level 3 Applied Diploma in Criminology textbook!
This is a brief introduction to give you a quick overview. You probably want to get started on the criminology, but it’s worth spending a few minutes first to get to know the key features of your book and how you will be assessed.

Your book’s features

If you leaf through your book, you will see some of its main features, including the following.

**Topics** The book’s Units are divided into self-contained Topics, each covering one of the assessment criteria that you need to study.

**Getting started** Each Topic begins with a short activity to get you thinking about that Topic and to link it back to what you have already learned. Some are to be done with a partner or in a small group and others are for you to do on your own.

**Activities** Within the Topics you will find a wide variety of Activities to develop your knowledge, understanding and skills. Most of these are online (you’ll see links to our website). Some are media-based, others are research or discussion-based, and most are to be done in pairs or groups.

**Boxes** These contain additional information linked to the main text.

**Case studies and Scenarios** These involve real-life and fictitious cases and crime situations for you to consider.

**Questions** You will find questions to get you reflecting on what you have read.

**Controlled Assessment Preparation** At the end of every Unit 1 Topic, a special section outlines what you need to do to prepare for the controlled assessment. You will find a description of what the controlled assessment involves below.

**Preparing for the Exam** At the end of every Unit 2 Topic, you will find one or more practice questions like those you will see in the Unit 2 exam. These will either have Advice on how to tackle the question, or a student’s answer that scored full marks, plus the marker’s comments.

Studying Level 3 Criminology

This book – *Criminology Book One* – is designed to help you achieve the WJEC Level 3 Applied Certificate or Diploma in Criminology.

- For the Certificate, you must pass Units 1 and 2. These are covered in this book.
- For the Diploma, you must also pass Units 3 and 4. These are covered in *Criminology Book Two*.

These are the Units you will study in your first year:

- **Unit 1** Changing awareness of crime
- **Unit 2** Criminological theories
The following are examples of genocide in recent times.

- **The Nazi regime and the Holocaust, Europe 1933-45:** The persecution and killing of the Jews, Roma (Gypsies), gays, the disabled and others by the Nazis.
- **Rwanda, 1994:** 800,000 Tutsis and moderate Hutus were killed, and an unknown number forced to flee the country.
- **Myanmar (Burma) since 2016:** The Rohingya ethnic minority have suffered looting and burning of villages, massacres, sexual violence and expulsion from the country by the military.

**ACTIVITY**

In small groups, research one of these examples and prepare a short presentation to show the rest of the class.

**Technological crimes**

These are offences involving the use of information and communication technology (ICT) such as the internet, social media etc. They are also known as cyber-crimes or e-crimes.

**Criminal offences**

Criminal offences involving ICT include the following:

- **Financial crimes**, e.g. phishing frauds
- **Cyber-trespass**, e.g. hacking social media accounts or releasing viruses
- **Identity theft** (stealing someone’s personal data)
- **Hate crimes** such as racist abuse, online threats to rape or assault individuals etc.
- **Illegal downloading** of copyrighted material such as music and videos
- **Publishing or viewing child pornography**.
Getting started

Working with a partner

1. Make a list of three crimes you have seen in the media in the last week.
2. How did you hear about these crimes? Be specific — say what type of media, for example.
3. Would you have heard about these crimes if they were not in the media?

Share your answers with the class. Did everyone have the same stories?

The impact of media portrayals of crime

How the media portray crime and criminals has a big impact on how the public perceives crime. Media coverage can affect how much crime people believe there is, whether they think it is increasing, and how much of a threat they feel it to be. In turn, this may lead the public to demand that the police, courts or government take steps to deal with the perceived problem, such as a ‘crackdown’ on a particular type of crime or the introduction of new laws.

Moral panic

The media’s representations of crime may actually cause more crime by creating a moral panic. Stanley Cohen defines a moral panic as an exaggerated, irrational over-reaction by society to a perceived problem. It starts with the media identifying a group as a folk devil or threat to society’s values, exaggerating the problem’s real seriousness with sensationalised reporting.

The media, politicians and other respectable figures then condemn the group’s misbehaviour and call for a ‘crackdown’ by the authorities. However, this can actually make matters worse, by amplifying (enlarging) the scale of the problem that caused the panic in the first place.

The mods and rockers

Cohen’s book *Folk Devils and Moral Panics* is a classic study of this process. Cohen examines how the media’s response to disturbances between two groups of working-class youths, the mods and the rockers, created a moral panic.

Initially, differences between the two were not clear cut and not many young people identified themselves as belonging to either ‘group’. The disturbances started on a wet Easter weekend in 1964 at the resort of Clacton, with a few scuffles and some minor property damage.
Mods and rockers

The media’s sensational reporting of events and their demonising of young people as folk devils included calls for the police and courts to crack down. For example, Cohen documents cases of police making arbitrary arrests before any offence had been committed, arresting innocent bystanders, and provoking people into committing offences (for example by pushing them around until they reacted). Similarly, the courts remanded defendants in prison for trivial offences, and sentences for those convicted were unusually harsh. This was partly because magistrates felt it necessary to ‘teach them a lesson’ and partly to set an example that would deter others from similar behaviour.

The 2011 riots

The riots began following a demonstration outside Tottenham police station to protest at the shooting to death of Mark Duggan by Metropolitan Police officers. Rioting quickly spread to other parts of the country. According to Simon Rogers, the sentences imposed on those convicted of offences committed during the riots were disproportionately harsh. For example:

- **Youth courts** gave custodial sentences to 32% of those convicted, compared with only 5% for those convicted of similar offences in 2010 (the year before the riots).
- **Magistrates’ courts** sent 37% of those convicted to jail, compared with only 12% for similar cases in 2010, and the average sentence was almost three times as long.
- **Crown courts** sent 82% of those convicted to jail, compared with only 33% of similar cases in 2010. Sentences were eight months longer on average.

Commenting on such sentences, the former chair of the Criminal Bar Association, Paul Mendelle QC, said there is a danger that the courts may get caught up in a “kind of collective hysteria and actually go over the top and hand out sentences which are too long and too harsh.”


The media’s role

The media played a major part in setting the tone for the harsher sentences. For example, the *Daily Mail* described the rioters as ‘illiterate and innumerate’, engaged in an ‘orgy’ of looting and as ‘wild beasts’ who ‘respond only to instinctive animal impulses — to eat and drink, have sex, seize or destroy the property of others.’
Criticisms of the DDA

The DDA has been widely criticised as a knee-jerk overreaction to tabloid headlines. One critic describes it as ‘a classic example of what not to do’. The DDA was a response to a moral panic that exaggerated the dangers. Deaths caused by dog attacks are actually very rare: there were only 30 deaths in the first 25 years after the DDA was passed, and 21 of these were caused by dogs not covered by the Act.

‘Blame the deed, not the breed’

One problem with the DDA is in deciding whether a dog is a pit bull or not. Critics also argue that destroying dogs just because of their breed is a form of ‘doggy genocide’. They claim we should ‘blame the deed, not the breed’ and that the law should target irresponsible owners, not the dogs.

In fact, as Baker admitted, there are more reported dog bites by some other breeds than by pit bulls, but if he had put dogs such as Alsatians and Dobermans into the same category, it “would have infuriated the ‘green welly’ brigade” of middle- and upper-class Conservative voters.

Critics such as Lodge and Hood argue that there is a ‘canine class issue’ here. Pit bull owners have been labelled and stigmatised by the media as irresponsible, lower-class ‘chavs’ living on council estates. The dogs themselves have been portrayed as a macho status symbol favoured by gang members and drug dealers.

Illegal raves

The media also played a major part in changing government and police priorities in relation to illegal raves. ‘Rave culture’ first emerged in the late 1980s, characterised by taking the drug Ecstasy (MDMA) and dancing to acid house music at ‘raves’ often held at venues in rural areas.

Media reaction Initial media reaction was fairly favourable, with the Sun selling ‘smiley face’ T-shirts and describing acid house as ‘groovy and cool’. However, the first signs of a moral panic began to emerge in 1988, with the Sun warning:

“You will hallucinate. For example, if you don’t like spiders you’ll start seeing giant ones. There’s a good chance you’ll end up in a mental hospital for life. There’s a good chance you’ll be sexually assaulted while under the influence. You may not even know it until a few days or weeks later.”

BBC documentaries made exaggerated claims about the dangers of Ecstasy. According to Sam Bradpiece, the BBC repeatedly demonised rave culture as a threat to society, justifying a tough response from government and the law.

Change in the law Finally the government changed the law specifically to stop raves. The 1994 Criminal Justice and Public Order Act applies to open-air gatherings of 100 or more people where amplified music with repetitive beats is played at night and is likely to cause distress to local residents. (This is the only time a particular style of music has ever been made illegal.) Those attending the rave can be arrested without a warrant.
Politics As well as the role of the media in changing priorities in the law, politics also played a part. The hedonistic (pleasure-seeking) culture of the rave scene was sharply opposed to the values of the Conservative governments of Margaret Thatcher and John Major, which emphasised self-discipline, hard work and individualism.

**CONTROLLED ASSESSMENT PREPARATION**

**What you have to do**
Using your notes from Topic 1.5 *Explain the impact of media representations on the public perception of crime*, give a clear and detailed explanation of the impact of a range of media representations on the public perception of crime.

**Impact**
- moral panic
- changing public concerns and attitudes
- perceptions of crime trends
- stereotyping of criminals
- levels of response to crime and types of punishment
- changing priorities and emphasis.

You should be familiar with specific examples of media portrayal of criminality and the range of impacts given. Understanding of those impacts should be based on theories.

**The assignment brief scenario**
Where relevant you should make reference to the brief in your answer.

**How it will be marked**
4-6 marks: Clear and detailed explanation of the impact of a range of media representations on the public perception of crime.
1-3 marks: Limited explanation of the impact of media representations on the public perception of crime.

**Timing** In your controlled assessment you will have approximately 35 minutes to complete this section.
Materials  Similarly, your choice of materials also needs to consider your target audience. Explain how you will use your materials and why they will be relevant to your audience. For example, producing mugs might not be the best way to engage young people.

ACTIVITY  Engaging your target audience

1. Which materials are you going to use (e.g. leaflets, posters, merchandise, website etc.)?
2. How will the characteristics of your target audience affect the methods you will use for your campaign?
3. Explain how your materials and the way you are going to use them will enable you to reach and engage your target audience.

Finances

Your costs  Finance is an essential part of almost any campaign. Your plan needs to consider what your campaign is going to cost. This will depend on your methods and materials and these will link to engaging your target audience.

You will need to make a realistic estimate of these costs. For example, if you intend to give away merchandise, you need to fully research the costs of that merchandise. If merchandise proves expensive you may choose to sell it during events or online to help recoup your costs.

Fundraising  You need to consider how you will raise enough money to run your campaign. You will therefore need to include fundraising as part of your campaign plan. What you intend to spend cannot be more than the likely amount you will raise from your fundraising activities, so it’s important that you make as realistic an estimate as possible of what you think you can raise. Don’t be over-optimistic.

ACTIVITY  Finances

Produce a financial plan for your campaign.

1. Work out the cost of any campaign materials you intend to use. For example, if you are going to print T-shirts, how much will they cost? How many will you produce?
2. How will you raise money? Give some examples of how you might raise funds and how much you would expect to obtain from these sources.

Timescales

This links to the time-bound element of your SMART objectives. To make your campaign a success, you need to ensure that everything is completed in good time. You should work out how much time you are going to need for each of the following stages of your campaign:
In the past, English law used to make a distinction between misdemeanours (minor crimes) and felonies (serious crimes). This distinction is still used in the USA.

**Subject matter of the offence**

We can also classify a crime in terms of the nature of the act itself. For example, is it a crime of violence or one of dishonesty? Here are some of the main categories of indictable offences.

- **Violence against the person**, e.g. murder, manslaughter and assault.
- **Sexual offences**, e.g. rape, sex trafficking and grooming.
- **Offences against property**, e.g. burglary, theft and robbery.
- **Fraud and forgery**, e.g. frauds by company directors.
- **Criminal damage**, e.g. arson.
- **Drug offences**, e.g. supplying or possessing heroin.
- **Public order offences**, e.g. riot and violent disorder.

**Formal sanctions against criminals**

Formal sanctions are the penalties laid down by law that can be imposed on those convicted of a crime. These sanctions vary according to the severity of the crime. Sanctions can be imposed by courts or the police, depending on the offence.

**Court sanctions**

**Custodial sentences**

Serious offences can be punished with custodial sentences: imprisonment, or detention in a young offenders’ institution. The length of the sentence can vary from a matter of days, up to life imprisonment for murder.

Prisoners serving a life sentence are usually eligible to apply for parole after about 15 years, though courts can impose a longer minimum sentence in more serious cases.

Courts can impose indeterminate sentences (ones with no specific release date) if the offender is a danger to the public. In these cases, the parole board decides if and when the prisoner is fit to be released.

**Community sentences**

These are served in the community rather than in jail. They include probation orders, restrictions such as curfews, attendance on anger management courses, mandatory drug testing and treatment orders and Community Payback (doing unpaid work in the community, e.g. cleaning off graffiti).

**Fines** are financial penalties. The size of the fine depends on the seriousness of the offence, whether it is a repeat offence and the offender’s ability to pay. Offenders may be allowed to pay in instalments.

Statue representing justice. She wears a blindfold and holds a sword and scales. What do these stand for?
Questions
1. How far would you say mesomorphs fit the stereotype of what criminals are supposed to look like?
2. What kinds of crimes do you think the public would associate them with and why?
3. What sorts of crimes might endomorphs or ectomorphs be stereotyped as committing?

Genetic theories

If crime is inborn, as Lombroso claimed, then presumably it is passed down from parent to child. If so, this might explain why crime often runs in families. For example, the Cambridge Study in Delinquent Development, a longitudinal study that has been running since 1961, found that out of 397 families, half of all criminal convictions came in just 23 families. Similarly, Osborn and West found that sons of criminal fathers were much more likely to have a criminal record too.

Twin studies

Why does crime often run in families? Genetic theories explain it as follows. Family members who are blood relatives (e.g. parents and their children; siblings) share many of the same genes. Therefore if one member has ‘criminal genes’, it is likely that his or her blood relatives will have them too, and this is why criminals have relatives who are also criminals.

Genetic theories have used studies of identical twins as a way to test their theory of criminality. This is because identical or monozygotic (MZ) twins share exactly the same genes – they both developed from the same fertilised egg. Therefore if one twin is criminal, the other twin ought to be criminal too.

Evidence for this comes from Christiansen’s study of 3,586 twin pairs in Denmark.
- He found that there was a 52% concordance rate between MZ twins; that is, where one identical twin had a conviction, there was a 52% chance of the other twin also having a conviction.
- But among non-identical (dzygotic or DZ) twins, there was only a 22% chance.

A similar study by Ishikawa and Raine found a 44% concordance rate for identical twins but only 21.6% for non-identical twins.

Adoption studies

Researchers have also used adoption studies to test for a genetic cause of crime. These studies compare adopted children both to their biological birth parents and to their adopted parents. The thinking behind adoption studies is that an adopted child (especially if adopted soon after birth) shares the same environment as their adoptive parents, but the same genes as their biological parents. If we find that the adoptee’s behaviour in regard to criminality is more similar to their birth parents’ behaviour, this would support a genetic explanation.
within the company that its business practices were legitimate. Many of the worst offenders within the company were greedy, egocentric risk takers with no sense of morality. Lay was convicted on ten counts of fraud but died before being sentenced. Skilling was sentenced to 14 years in prison for fraud and conspiracy. Meanwhile, shareholders received compensation worth about a tenth of what they had lost; employees only received about $3,000 compensation for their lost pensions - a fraction of what they had paid into the pension fund.

**Applying theories to the Enron case**

Sociological and individualistic theories of criminality such as the following have been applied to the case of the Enron executives.

**Marxism**

Marxists would argue that the naked greed, competitiveness and amorality shown by Lay, Skilling and other executives are a product of the selfish, dog-eat-dog mentality that capitalism encourages. Similarly, their exploitative attitude towards the company’s employees (who lost their jobs and pensions) illustrates the conflict of interest between capitalists and workers.

**Differential association theory**

Sutherland would explain the criminality of the senior executives in terms of the company’s internal culture. He argues that individuals may learn criminal behaviour at work, where peer groups socialise them into criminal attitudes and values. Enron’s prevailing culture was one of dishonesty which normalised criminality, enabling senior executives to justify their behaviour.

**Labelling theory**

Labelling theory can be applied to explain the fact that Enron’s ultra-respectable public image enabled its bosses to get away with their corrupt practices for so long without being negatively labelled, simply because the company appeared to be above suspicion.

**Eysenck**

Eysenck’s personality theory suggests that Lay, Skilling and the other executives were likely to be extraverts.

Their tendency to indulge in ‘casino capitalism’ antics, gambling with shareholders’ and employees’ investments and savings to line their own pockets, and their assumption that the share price would continue to rise indefinitely, match some key characteristics of extraverts: aggression, risk-taking, excitement-seeking and optimism.

 Former Enron chief finance officer Andrew Fastow in shackles and handcuffs.
Biological and psychological factors: Sociological theories neglect the factors that may explain why one individual commits crime while another person in exactly the same social position does not.

ACTIVITY Media

Evaluating theories of crime

Go to www.criminology.uk.net

PREPARING FOR THE EXAM

Question

Evaluate the effectiveness of a range of biological theories to explain the causes of criminality. (9 marks)

Answer by Yasmin

The basic idea behind all biological theories is that criminals are biologically different and this causes their criminality. Lombroso's physiological theory measured criminals' physical characteristics (noses, arms etc.), claiming to find they had distinctive features. While this is a scientific approach, he didn't measure a control group of non-criminals to see if these features were unique to criminals. Sheldon's theory of somatotypes argues that criminals have an innately muscular, mesomorphic body type. However, this may be the result of environmental factors such as manual labour, or even labelling (police targeting tough, muscular types).

Genetic theories claim criminals have different genes. They use twin studies and adoption studies to test their effect. Identical twins have the same genes, so if genes cause criminality, then if one twin is criminal, the other will be too – a 100% concordance rate. While studies show higher concordance for identical twins, this is nearer to 50%. Also, identical twins often share identical environments as well as identical genes. Adoption studies compare adoptees' criminality with their biological and their adoptive parents. A biological parent shares genes with the child, so if they both have criminal records but the adoptive parent does not, genes may be the cause. Studies give some support to this, but adoptees are often placed in families similar to their birth families and this similar environment may cause their criminality.

Biochemical factors may also cause crime. There is good evidence linking alcohol to violent crime, while male offending rates peak around the same age as their testosterone level. However, while these may predispose someone to crime, they may need an environmental 'trigger' to cause actual offending. Overall, biological theories offer useful insights but are not enough on their own to explain criminality.

Overall comments

Yasmin doesn’t waste time with detailed descriptions of theories but instead focuses on their strengths and limitations. Although she doesn’t deal with one or two approaches (e.g. XYY syndrome), she still covers enough theories. She also starts and ends well, by making relevant general points about biological theories.
Assess the use of criminological theories in informing policy development

Getting started

Working in a small group

1. Choose a theory or group of theories that you have studied.
2. Based on the ideas of your chosen theory, suggest some ways of preventing crime.

Crime control: the influence of theories

Many of the theories that we have studied so far have had an influence on policies to control crime. In this Topic, we look at some of the ways in which biological, individualistic and sociological theories about criminality have influenced or shaped different crime control policies.

Biological theories influencing policies

Biological theories argue that criminality is caused by some physical abnormality within the individual. These theories have led to crime control and punishment policies that aim to change the working of the criminal’s brain or body and cure the condition that causes their criminality.

Biochemical processes

Several biochemical processes and factors have been linked with criminality, such as the effects of the male sex hormone testosterone, substance abuse and deficiencies in diet. This has led to policies, mostly in the form of individualised treatment programmes for offenders.

Crime control policies

Treatment programmes to reduce offending include the use of drugs, diet and surgery. Drug treatments are used in some situations to treat or control criminal or anti-social behaviour. They do this by affecting the body’s biochemical processes.

- Alcohol abuse can trigger violent behaviour. The drug Antabuse is used in aversion therapy to treat alcoholism. It works by preventing the body from breaking down alcohol, immediately causing very unpleasant ‘hangover’ symptoms if the user consumes even a small quantity.
- Heroin addiction often leads addicts to commit crime to pay for the drug. Methadone is used to treat addicts, as a long-term alternative to heroin or to prevent withdrawal symptoms. By providing a legal, medically controlled substitute, Methadone helps to reduce crime.
- Sex offenders Stilbestrol is a form of ‘chemical castration’ that has been used in prison to treat male sex offenders. Stilbestrol is a female hormone that suppresses testosterone as a way of reducing men’s sex drive. However, it can have serious side effects, including breast development, feminisation and serious psychiatric disorders.
Explain how social changes affect policy development

Working with a partner

1. Turn back to Topic 1.2 and look through the section headed ‘How laws change over time’. This covers five areas in which laws have changed: homosexuality; drugs; gun control; children; and physical punishment.

2. Make a list of the reasons why these laws changed. Are there any common factors? Could any of these reasons be described as changes in values?

This Topic is about how social changes affect policies and laws. It examines how cultural changes in norms, values and attitudes, the public’s perception of crime and demographic (population) changes have affected policies. We use three main examples to illustrate these changes: drink driving, race relations and LGBT rights.

Social values, norms and mores

Social values, norms and mores are all aspects of culture that regulate people’s behaviour.

Values

As we saw in Topic 1.1, values are general principles, beliefs or guidelines about how we should live our lives. They tell us what is right and wrong, good and bad. Different societies may have different values.

- For example, modern societies such as the UK place a high value on pursuing individual wealth.
- By contrast, tribal societies place more value on the group than on the individual. Individuals may have a duty to share their wealth with others.

Norms

Norms are specific rules or socially accepted standards about how we are expected to behave in specific situations. These norms can be informal, unwritten rules, such as that you should not queue-jump, or formal, written rules, such as the law that says you must not drive with more than a certain level of alcohol in your blood.

ACTIVITY

Media

Norms

Go to www.criminology.uk.net

Specific norms are often based on general values. For example, modern society values the principle that all individuals are of equal worth. From this value come specific norms making it illegal to discriminate against someone based on their race, sex or sexual orientation.
Mores
Mores (pronounced mor-rays) are very basic, essential norms that society sees as vital for maintaining standards of decency and civilised behaviour. In other words, mores are society’s most important moral rules.

One example is the taboo against incest (sexual relationships between close relatives) which is found in all societies. Another is the prohibition against taking human life other than in very exceptional circumstances. Going against a society’s mores is likely to be severely punished.

Public perception of crime: drink driving
As we saw in Topic 1.2, laws can change over time. Laws often change because of changes in a society’s culture – its norms and values. These changes in values can affect the public’s perception of crime: an act that used to be acceptable may now be seen as wrong by today’s values.

Drink driving is an example of this. Over time, views about drink driving have changed and this has led to changes in laws and policies. The public have come to see it as much more serious and the laws governing it have become tighter.

In 1925, the first law was passed making driving while drunk an offence. However, there was no clear definition of ‘drunk’ and no legal limit on how much alcohol drivers could have in their blood, so it was left to the police and courts to decide whether someone was fit to drive.

For many years, public attitudes to drink driving were quite tolerant and it was not generally thought of as a serious offence. Governments showed little interest and did not bother even to collect figures on the number of deaths caused by drink driving.

Meanwhile car ownership was increasing. In 1951, only 15% of households owned a car, but by 1971 this had risen to 55%. This resulted in more deaths: from about 5,000 in 1950 to 8,000 by the 1960s.

Changing perceptions
As a result, the public’s perception of drink driving began to change. Road safety was becoming more of a public concern and moving up the political agenda. For example, from 1966 all new cars had to be fitted with seat belts.

Due to public concern about accidents caused by drink driving, the 1967 Road Safety Act introduced a blood alcohol limit of 80mg of alcohol per 100ml of blood. It became an offence to be in charge of a motor vehicle with an alcohol level above this limit.

Breathalysers
In 1968, the first breathalysers were introduced for roadside use. Together with a major advertising campaign by the government, this helped to reduce road deaths by over 1,100 and serious injuries by over 11,000. Importantly, the proportion of accidents where alcohol was involved also fell, from 25% to 15%.
Tougher laws

In 1983 the High Risk Offender scheme was introduced for convicted drivers with an alcohol problem. This group includes drivers who have been disqualified more than once for drink driving. They now have to undergo a medical before they can get their licence back.

In 1991 a new offence of causing death by driving while under the influence of alcohol or drugs was introduced, with a compulsory prison sentence of up to five years. (In 2014, this was increased to 14 years.) The penalty for a first drink driving offence is now up to six months’ imprisonment, an unlimited fine and a driving ban for at least one year, with heavier penalties for repeat offenders.

The new laws and tougher sentences reflect growing public intolerance of drink driving. As Table 2 shows, deaths from accidents involving alcohol have been falling over the long term, largely due to tighter restrictions on drink driving. Now only about 5% of road casualties involve alcohol.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Deaths</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>1,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Deaths from drink driving

Campaigns

The first TV advertising campaign against drink driving mounted by the government was aired over 50 years ago and the fall in deaths is partly due to these campaigns. They have sometimes targeted specific groups who are most at risk of drink driving, such as young men.

The campaigns have been an important factor in changing public perceptions of drink driving as a crime. For example, in 1979, half of all male drivers admitted drink driving at least once a week. However, by 2014, a survey by the government’s THINK! campaign against drink driving showed there has been a massive change in people’s attitudes.

The survey found that 91% of people agreed that drink driving was unacceptable and 92% said they would feel ashamed if they were caught drinking and driving.

However, road safety campaigns such as Brake argue that that government needs to go further. One in eight road deaths still involves a driver over the alcohol limit and England and Wales have the highest legal alcohol limit in Europe. Brake call for it to be lowered to 20mg. Their survey in 2016 found that over half of drivers agreed.

Demographic changes: immigration and racism

In 1945, there were fewer than 20,000 non-white residents in the UK. The main immigrant groups were both white: the Irish, who had come for economic reasons, and Jews, who had fled from persecution in Europe.

Demographic changes During the 1950s and 1960s, non-white immigrants came from former British colonies in the Caribbean, the Indian subcontinent and Africa. More recently, people have come from Eastern Europe. Mostly these groups came in search of economic opportunities, often filling jobs that the British refused to take.

As a result, the UK’s demographic (population) structure has changed to a multi-ethnic one, as Table 3 shows.
Reasons for the change

This is partly due to changes in the law. According to some psychologists, if we are made to change our behaviour, we tend to change our attitudes to fit. Thus, if the law is changed to forbid discrimination, people may abandon their prejudiced attitudes to bring them into line with how they are now required to behave.

However, other factors may also be responsible for the decline in prejudice. For example, the British Future survey found that people thought children of different backgrounds mixing at school, and workplace contact with people from other ethnicities, were both more important than race relations laws in improving race relations in Britain.

Continuing discrimination

There have clearly been changes in attitudes and behaviour since the demographic changes brought by immigration. However, this does not mean discrimination has disappeared. As well as racism towards non-whites, there is Islamophobia, racism towards white East Europeans and Gypsies/Roma, and antisemitism towards Jews. In 2018 The Conservative government was accused of creating a ‘hostile environment’ that led to the wrongful deportation of members of the ‘Windrush generation’ who had lived in the UK for decades.

1948. The Empire Windrush brings 802 migrants from British colonies in the Caribbean.

ACTIVITY Media

Demographic changes and policy

Go to www.criminology.uk.net

Cultural changes and LGBT rights

Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) rights in the UK have changed dramatically in recent times in line with changes in society’s culture and values.

Before the 1960s

For centuries, same-sex sexual activity was condemned as immoral or sinful and severely punished by the law. For example, the 1533 Buggery Act made sodomy between men punishable by death and men were executed until as late as 1835.

Although the death penalty for sodomy was abolished in 1861, an Act of 1885 extended the laws to include any kind of sexual activity between men. (Sexual activity between women has never been a crime in the UK.)

In the 20th century, the law continued to be enforced against gay men. By 1954 there were over 1,000 men in prison as a result, and trials of individuals such as the wartime code-breaker Alan Turing, who played a central role in cracking the codes of the Nazis’ Enigma cipher machine. (One estimate suggests that Turing’s work shortened the Second World War by over two years and saved 14 million lives.) Turing committed suicide in 1954.
The 2004 Gender Recognition Act enables people to change their legal gender, acquire a new birth certificate and recognise their acquired sex in law for all purposes. The Act requires them to present evidence to a gender recognition panel and to have transitioned for two years in order to obtain a gender recognition certificate. More recently, in 2018, changes were proposed to enable individuals to self-declare their gender without going before a panel to obtain a gender recognition certificate.

**Continuing discrimination**

Despite legal changes, LGBT people still face discrimination and according to the LGBT campaigning organisation Stonewall, one in five gay people and two in five trans people experience a hate crime or incident because of their sexuality or identity every year.

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**ACTIVITY**

**The impact of cultural change on policy**

Go to www.criminology.uk.net

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**PREPARING FOR THE EXAM**

From the late 1940s there was large scale immigration from former British colonies and widespread discrimination against the migrants. Starting in 1965, a series of Race Relations Acts were passed, outlawing discrimination on grounds of race, colour, ethnicity or nationality. The 1976 Act outlawed both direct and indirect discrimination.

**Question**

Using one or more examples, explain how social changes can affect policy development. (8 marks)

**Advice**

You could take the example of race relations above, or homosexuality, drink driving or other areas where social changes have affected policies. Define values, norms and mores, and use the terms in your answer. Describe any policies or laws that have been introduced and explain the social changes that brought about these changes.

For race relations, describe the 1965, 1968, 1976 and 2010 legislation. Discuss demographic changes caused by immigration, cultural changes such as declining prejudice, acceptance of ‘mixed’ relationships, the experience of attending school or working with members of other groups, and willingness to see discrimination and racial hatred as crimes.

For homosexuality, include decriminalisation (1967), age of consent (1994 and 2000), civil partnerships (2004) and same-sex marriage (2014). Use changes such as individualism, equal rights, and secularisation. You could also refer to changes relating to transgender rights.

If you do this as a timed question, you should spend no more than 10 minutes on it. Aim to write about 150 words.
Preparing for the Unit 2 exam

Now that you have completed Unit 2, you need to revise and prepare for the exam. This section will help you to get ready to tackle it. It contains some advice on preparing yourself, plus a full practice exam paper for you to try. There is also advice on how to answer the questions, though you might want to try doing them without looking at the advice first.

Get organised!

The first thing to do is to get your file sorted out. Here are some tips:

1. Make a list of all ten Unit 2 Topics to give you a framework for your revision.
2. Organise your notes, activities and homework for each Topic. Use the subheadings in each Topic as a guide to how to organise them. You could work with others and share your work or fill in any gaps you have together.
3. Make a list of the main issues covered in each Topic. Using these issues, go to your notes and textbook to find the material you need in order to understand them. Make any additional notes you need.
4. From your notes and textbook, list the key ideas that are needed for each Topic. Link these to the issues.

Practise, practise, practise!

Once you have your file in order, the best way to prepare for the exam is by practising the skill you’re going to be tested on – the skill of answering exam questions. You wouldn’t think of taking a driving test without doing any driving beforehand, and it’s the same with exams.

Here are some ways you can practise:

- **Familiarise yourself with possible questions** by looking at those in the *Preparing for the exam* sections at the end of each Topic and the practice paper on the next page.
- **Improve the answers you’ve already done.** If you didn’t get full marks on an assignment, re-write it, taking your teacher’s comments on board, plus the advice in the *Preparing for the exam* section in the relevant Topic.
- **Answer any that you skipped earlier.** You may not have done every assignment you were set. Do the ones you missed now. Your teacher might even mark them for you! If not, get a friend to give their opinion (and return the favour).
- **Study the student answers** that appear at the end of some Topics (they all scored full marks) and read the comments that go with them.
- **Answer past papers** that you will find on the WJEC website (and while you’re there, look at the mark schemes too).