

Crime

1: Theories

1.1: Functionalism

1.1.1: Durkheim

1.1.1.1: Durkheim: small amounts of crime are necessary and functional. Crime is inevitable - not everyone can conform to the value consensus. Crime helps to form boundaries and reinforces the value consensus. Too much crime can lead to anomie (normlessness)

1.1.1.1.1: Doesn't explain why people commit crime in the first place. And doesn't say what levels of crime are good and which are bad. Doesn't recognise that some crimes provide no benefit for society. Ignores crimes of the powerful and the process of labelling

1.1.1.2: Strain

1.1.1.2.1: Merton: builds on Durkheim's ideas but says that anomie is always present in society. There is a strain (tension) between the agreed goals of society and the means to get there. People respond to the strain in different ways: 'modes of adaptation' - conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism, rebellion

1.1.1.2.1.1: Assumes people's motivations are individual, not group based (Left realists would argue this), focuses on utilitarian crimes, not those for no real gain. Doesn't explain why some people who have achieved the goals still commit crime (Marxist view)

1.1.1.2.2: Subcultural

1.1.1.2.2.1: Responds to problems with strain theory. Looks at group responses. A. Cohen argues crime is committed by young working class as a result of frustration - he calls this 'status frustration'. It allows the young people to gain status and respect within an criminal subculture.

1.1.1.2.2.2: Cloward and Ohlin - think Cohen is too simplistic and argue there are a number of responses from deviant subcultures - criminal, conflict, retreatist. Some will cross over with each other. Problems: don't recognise how people move in and out of these subcultures.

1.1.1.2.2.3: Miller : focal concerns - the working class has a set of unique values. These focal concerns can lead to crime e.g. need to be tough, excitement etc.

1.1.2: Hirschi - crimes are most common in people who are detached from society.

1.2: Labelling/Interactionism

1.2.1: Bottom up - looks at how people come to be labelled as criminals, not why they commit acts in the first place. All people commit deviant acts, what they focus on instead is why some people come to be labelled as deviant and others don't. Crimes are socially constructed rather

than having a specific function or presence within capitalism

1.2.1.1: Becker - an act only becomes deviant when others perceive and label it as such. Will depend on the strength of the social response to the behaviour. He calls groups that have the power to label others, such as the police and media, moral entrepreneurs. The police operate with their own stereotypes and pre-existing conceptions and use their discretion when responding to behaviour. Therefore the action of the police is a reflection of their stereotypes rather than actual reality.

1.2.1.2: Lemert - distinguishes between primary deviance (what we all do e.g. speeding) and secondary deviance (once people have been publicly exposed and labelled). This labelling may lead to further secondary deviance.

1.2.1.2.1: Evaluation of labelling approaches: doesn't take into account individual agency - why do some people commit crime and others don't. Only really works for deviant behaviour, not for more serious crimes e.g. murder. Assumes offenders are passive. Deterministic - not everyone accepts their labels. BUT - shows us that the law is not set in stone and highlights problems with crime statistics.

1.2.1.3: Circourel - agents of social control e.g. police, judges reinforce bias and rely on their own stereotypes and conceptions. Justice is not fixed, but negotiable. Means that crime statistics are not valid because they just reflect the attitudes of the agents in the criminal justice system.

1.2.1.4: Key ideas: labelling, self-fulfilling prophecy, master status, primary and secondary deviance

1.3: Marxism

1.3.1: Crime is due to structural causes but it reflects the inequalities present in capitalist society. Capitalism is criminogenic (it breeds the values of greed and competition that leads to crimes being committed)

1.3.1.1: Snider: ruling class make the laws which enables them to protect their own interests. The crimes of the powerful are more impactful than street crimes (which tend to be focused on more)

1.3.1.1.1: Chambliss - at the heart of law making the powerful protect their own property

1.3.1.2: David Gordon - capitalist society is criminogenic and breeds a 'dog eat dog' mentality

1.3.1.2.1: Evaluation: tends to romanticise the working class as having no other choice. Crime still existed in non capitalist countries. Doesn't really offer solutions to tackling crime other than to get rid of capitalism

1.3.1.3: Corporate crime:

1.3.1.3.1: Sutherland - defines this as crime committed by someone with high power, status

and wealth. Calls this white-collar crime.

1.3.1.3.1.1: Types: financial crimes, crimes against consumers, crimes against employees, crimes against the environment (see also green crime), state crime (see this topic)

1.3.1.3.1.1.1: Issues: less visible, not as easy to investigate, companies can employ lawyers, hard to prosecute companies or individuals within companies, the crime is often complex, there is a lack of political will to challenge the crime, under reported (people may not know they are a victim)

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1: Explanations:

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1.1: Strain theory: other people have applied Merton's ideas of innovation to corporate crime (as he only really looked at the w/c) Box argues if a company cannot achieve its goals by legal means it may adopt illegal ones to do so.

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1.2: Differential association - Sutherland - crime is a behaviour learnt from others. If a company's culture justifies committing crimes, employees will be socialised into this criminality.

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1.2.1: Doesn't explain why not all companies turn to illegal means

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1.3: Labelling theory - Cicourel argues the m/c are more likely to be able to negotiate non-criminal labels for their actions. This has been applied to the idea of 'de-labelling' where businesses and the powerful have the power to avoid being labelled (Nelken) e.g. being able to avoid expensive lawyers and accountants

1.3.1.3.1.1.1.1.4: Marxism - corporate crime is a part of the criminogenic nature of capitalism.

1.4: Neo-Marxism

1.4.1: Argue that ideas have an important role to play in the formation of crime, not just capitalism. Individuals have a degree of choice in their decision to commit crime. Looks at the role of the media in shaping 'folk devils'

1.4.1.1: Stuart Hall 'Policing the Crisis' - media reinforces the idea that particular groups are criminal. He focused on moral panics surrounding mugging in Britain in the 1970s. Created a fear of young black men and the creation of a common enemy (distracted people from the inequalities of society). Led to divisions in society including stop and search policies. Resulted in deviancy amplification, which led to the 'race riots' in the early 1980s

1.4.1.1.1: Romanticizes criminals and has a 'robin hood' element. Sees criminals as passive victims rather than complicit in their behaviour.

1.5: Realism

1.5.1: Reject grand theories. Focus on trying to understand the causes of crime but also offer solutions. Both approaches have had influence on government policy: right realism during the

Thatcher government (Conservative) and left realism during the Blair government (Labour)

1.5.1.1: Left Realism

1.5.1.1.1: Response to Marxist and neo-marxist approaches. Saw these approaches as romanticising criminals and that they failed to look at the impact on the victim. Argue structural inequality in society is the main reason for crime occurring Reduction of crime = community policing, social equality, stronger sense of community

1.5.1.1.1.1: Lea and Young - crime is caused by relative deprivation (how people see themselves compared to others), subcultures (groups in w/c who may come to see offending as normal), marginalisation (where people come to see themselves on the edge of society)

1.5.1.1.1.1.1: Evaluation: doesn't look at crimes of the powerful (sees working class crime as more significant), their solutions tend to be more expensive, doesn't explain why some w/c people don't turn to crime.

1.5.1.1.1.2: Solutions to crime: increase trust between police and community. Improving social inequalities between people by improving access to education etc. Focus on the experience of victims. Examples include neighbourhood policing of 2000s (now largely absent following cuts to policing by coalition and conservative governments from 2010). Use of ASBOs, Education Action Zones etc.

1.5.1.2: Right Realism

1.5.1.2.1: Strong links between right realist and new right ideology. Both think that individuals are responsible for their own actions and should have to take responsibility for themselves

1.5.1.2.2: People are naturally selfish and will commit crime for their own personal gain if they feel they can get away with it. People commit crime based on a rational choice (Clarke).

1.5.1.2.2.1: Wilson and Kelling - 'broken windows theory' - focus needs to be on driving down evidence of environmental decline e.g. graffiti, damage to buildings, to prevent further deterioration.

1.5.1.2.2.1.1: Evaluation: doesn't take account of crimes of the powerful, left realists would argue it ignores inequality in society that might be driving crime, doesn't help explain crimes which are not planned (Katz 'seduction of crime') or crimes that are more serious.

1.5.1.2.3: Social order is crucial, through reinforcing the value consensus. Crime will always exist but rather than looking for reasons more energy should be put into prevention and reduction strategies

1.5.1.2.3.1: Strategies: stricter, military-style control policing, tougher socialisation of children, target hardening (e.g. zero tolerance policing). Use of situational crime prevention e.g. CCTV. street lighting. Involving the local community e.g. Neighbourhood Watch

1.5.1.2.3.1.1: Evaluation: more cost effective than left realist approaches and can have a clear

impact. BUT can lead to displacement e.g. crime is moved to an area with no CCTV. Creates 'fortress cities'

1.6: Postmodernism, Late Modernism

1.6.1: Ties across to global topic

1.6.1.1: Reject the traditional theories and explanations claiming them to be metanarratives (singular explanations). There is no single explanation of crime. They do not seek structural explanation as there are new forms of crime and society has become fragmented, characterised by individualism, diversity, fluidity and sometimes chaos. Crime reflects highly individual experiences and choices that cannot be generalised.

1.6.1.1.1: Society has been transformed by globalisation and the rise of technology that overcomes national boundaries and therefore laws that are made in one country

1.6.1.1.1.1: Henry and Milovanovic argue the concept of crime should be replaced with the concept of social harm. This is because the law only reflects a very narrow range of legally defined behaviours.

1.6.1.1.1.2: Crime is not a useful concept as is socially constructed. Laws are narrow and do not necessarily apply to forms of deviance today. Social norms are weaker and people place their on individual needs above those of the community.

1.6.1.1.1.2.1: Edgework - Lyng and Katz - reject theories that see crime as the result of financial gain (functionalism) or challenging social position (left realism, neo-marxism). Instead crime is committed because it provides excitement and thrill.

1.6.1.1.1.3: Beck - this has led to the formation of 'risk society' - people are now more aware of potential risks and some of these are limited in their impact on us as individuals e.g. being caught up in a terrorist activity, but this heightened awareness makes us more fearful

1.7: Feminism

1.7.1: See gender and crime

2: Class

2.1: Theories

2.1.1: Labelling - Cicourel - due to typifications of police officers. W/c youths more likely to be labelled negatively due to stereotypes held by police officers.

2.1.1.1: Marxists - ruling class protect their own interests and create laws that place more focus on street crimes. Gordon - selective law enforcement means that street and more visible crimes are investigated more. Much harder to investigate white collar and corporate crime

2.1.1.1.1: Left realists - class is heavily linked to crime. Marginalisation and relative deprivation

mean the poor are more likely to commit crime.

2.1.1.1.1: Right realist - Murray - underclass of people who are poorly socialised are more likely to turn to crime. The lack of a strong male role model means that some young men are more likely to turn to crime.

2.1.2: Functionalism/Strain - working class may not have the values to conform to the value consensus and lack the means to achieve the goals of society (Merton)

2.1.2.1: Subcultural strain - looks at cultural factors rather than material factors. Cohen - status frustration leads to the creation of deviant subcultures

2.1.2.1.1: Miller - focal concerns of some w/c subcultures lead to crime

3: Gender

3.1: Men are more likely to commit more serious offences and be the victim of crime. Women are more likely to be killed by someone they know such as a partner or son. Smart argues women are more likely to commit crimes of a trivial nature.

3.1.1: Key question is whether women actually commit less crime or are treated more fairly in the criminal justice system

3.1.1.1: Women more likely to be judged by a court based on their role as mothers and daughters. Heidensohn argues the system is harsher to women who deviate from acceptable norms of female behaviour. She sees this as 'dual standards' in the criminal justice system

3.1.1.2: Commit less crime - explanations

3.1.1.2.1: Sex role theory and socialisation - Parsons - men and women are socialised differently. Women more likely to be caregivers or responsible which makes it less likely that they have the opportunity to offend. Messerschmidt (1993) argues that men commit crime in order to assert their masculinity e.g. in men in low-paid or low-status jobs.

3.1.1.2.2: Feminists - patriarchal ideology encourages men to dominate women. Carlen argues women's crimes reflect their powerlessness and often their crimes are of a trivial nature e.g. shoplifting, which may be being committed to help support their family. Women are also likely to experience abuse by a male family member. Heidensohn - women have fewer opportunities to commit crime because of their caring roles.

3.1.1.2.3: Liberation thesis - women are now committing more crime as a result of equality processes in society e.g. Adler argues the rates of female offending will become similar to males in time. Could make links here to the increases of female gang members and the use women to traffic drugs as they are less likely to be stopped and searched.

3.1.1.3: Do commit crime but are treated more fairly chivalry thesis)

3.1.1.3.1: Hood - men more likely to be given a custodial sentence than women for the same

offences

3.1.2: Men committing more crime: Robert Connell (1995) hypothesizes that criminal behaviour can be used as a resource when other resources are not available for accomplishing masculinity. For example, if a person does not have a steady, reliable job, a stable family life, or other traditional indicators of successful masculinity, violent behaviour may be considered an acceptable way to convey the "toughness" that is linked with masculine traits. In many cases, the pressure to 'prove you are masculine' matters more than obeying the law.

3.1.2.1: Lyng - 'edgework' - men more likely to engage in risky behaviour and therefore commit more crime

3.1.2.1.1: Mac an Ghail - crisis of masculinity leading to working class men committing crimes or engaging in deviant acts as a way to gain status in a post-industrial society

3.1.2.1.1.1: Strain theories/subcultural theories- male offending evidence of the strain to anomie or the need to build illegitimate opportunity structures to gain status

4: Ethnicity

4.1: Trends: until the 1980s ethnicity had been overlooked in terms of crime. However, from the mid 1970s there was a breakdown of relations between ethnic minorities and the police.

4.1.1: Stop and Search and Prison Statistics show that black people are 6 times more likely to be both stopped and searched than white people, and there are also 6 times more black people than white people in jail. • Graham and Bowling (1995) Found that blacks (43%) and whites (44%) had similar and almost identical rates of crime, but Asians actually had lower rates (Indians- 30%, Pakistanis-28% and Bangladeshi-13%). • The British Crime Survey indicated that 44 per cent of victims were able to say something about the offender who was involved in offences against them. Among these, 85 per cent of offenders were said by victims to be 'white', 5 per cent 'black', 3 per cent 'Asian' and 4 per cent 'mixed'. • Prosecution and trial - Ethnic minority cases are more likely to be dropped than whites, and blacks and Asians are less likely to be found guilty than whites. In 2006/7 60% of whites were found guilty, against only 52% of blacks, and 44% of Asians. • Sentencing and prison - Jail sentences are more likely to be given to Blacks (68%) compared to Whites (55%) or Asians (59%), whereas Whites and Asians were more likely to receive community services. Hood (1992) found that even when the seriousness of an offence and previous convictions were taken into account Black men were 5x more likely to be jailed and given a sentence which is 3 months (Asians 9 months) longer than whites.

4.1.1.1: Explanations

4.1.1.1.1: Structuralist: there are conditions in society such as higher levels of poverty and marginalisation that have led to some ethnic minority groups committing more crimes.

4.1.1.1.1.1: Left realists: black people more likely to be involved in street crime due to issues of relative deprivation, marginalisation and subcultures. Educational failure is a big component (Lea and Young)

4.1.1.1.2: Social constructionist: the criminal justice system is biased and there has been evidence in the past of racism

4.1.1.1.2.1: Unfair treatment/racism: Reiner (1993) - canteen culture - racism of police. Philips and Bowling - higher levels of arrests of black men are the result of labelling from stop and search leading to a self-fulfilling prophecy

5: Media

5.1: Williams and Dickinson found British newspapers devoted up to 30% of their news space to crime

5.1.1: The media give a distorted view of crime e.g. they over-represent violent and sexual crime, portray criminal and victims as older and more middle-class (Felson calls this an 'age fallacy, exaggerates police success in clearing up cases, exaggerate the rates of victimisation and overplay extraordinary crimes

5.1.1.1: News values: the picture painted of crime by the media is a social construction - it is a process whereby some stories are accepted and others are rejected.

5.1.1.1.1: Key news values include: immediacy, dramatisation (dramatic stories), personalisation (higher interest), higher status (e.g. celebrities), novelty or unexpectedness, risk (victim-centred) or violent

5.1.1.2: Media as a cause of crime. There are a number of ways that the media might cause crime

5.1.1.2.1: Imitation (linked to the Jamie Bulger case), arousal, desensitisation (through repeated viewing of violence), by transmitting knowledge of criminal techniques, by stimulating desires for unaffordable goods (relative deprivation - left realism), by portraying the police as incompetent, by glamourising offending.

5.1.2: The media might promote the fear of crime through exaggerating its extent. This could lead to moral panics

5.1.2.1: Moral panics: the media identify a group as a 'folk devil' or a threat to societal values, the media present the group in a negative, stereotypical way and exaggerate the problem, moral entrepreneurs then condemn the group and its behaviour. This can then lead to deviancy amplification through the creation of a self-fulfilling prophecy. This links to Becker's ideas of the process of labelling

5.1.2.1.1: Stan Cohen's 'Folk Devils and Moral Panics' is a very famous study of moral panics where the disturbances between the Mods and Rockers in Clacton led to a deviancy amplification spiral. The media exaggerated and amplified the behaviour causing more disturbances to happen and in effect creating the conflict between the subcultures.

5.1.2.1.1.1: BUT Mc Robbie and Thornton challenge Cohen's idea about moral panics, arguing

that moral panics are no longer rare events and are a continuous feature of the mass media coverage of crime. Moral panics have become more subtle and complex.

6: Global crime

6.1: Green

6.1.1: Primary - directly affects the planet e.g. deforestation, air pollution Secondary - where laws put in place to protect the planet are broken e.g. releasing hazardous waste.

6.1.1.1: Explanations - traditional criminology - Situ and Emmons - where a country breaks a law relating to green crime.

6.1.1.1.1: Problems with this is that not all countries deal with environmental issues in the same way. Green criminology (a form of transgressive criminology, in addition to zemiology) looks at the issue of harm rather than the law (White). There are two views of these harms: anthropocentric and ecocentric.

6.2: State

6.2.1: Examples of state crimes (McLaughlin) - political (corruption, censorship), crimes by security forces (genocide, torture), economic (violations e.g. health and safety laws) and social and cultural crimes (e.g. institutional racism).

6.2.1.1: Ways of defining - domestic law - Chambliss 'acts defined by law as criminal and committed by state officials in pursuit of their jobs as representatives of the state'. BUT countries can change their laws e.g. Nazi Germany

6.2.1.1.1: Ways of defining: social harms and zemiology, rather than law. Michalowski - allows state crimes to be defined for countries who may not have relevant laws. BUT more subjective, what constitutes harm?

6.2.1.1.1.1: Ways of defining: labelling and societal reaction. BUT ideas of societal reaction are even vaguer than 'harms'

6.2.1.1.1.1.1: Ways of defining: international law e.g. Geneva and Hague Conventions on war crimes. Advantages of this is that countries sign up collectively and there is less subjective views. BUT prosecuting leaders of a country is extremely challenging.

6.2.1.1.1.1.2: Ways of defining: human rights - but variations in here of rights that would be seen to break laws e.g. torture vs those that would cause harm, such as economic policies

6.2.1.2: Explanations of state crime: Adorno - authoritarian personality

6.2.1.2.1: Crimes of obedience - Green and Ward - to overcome people's reluctance to commit horrible acts they must be forced to obey

6.2.1.2.1.1: Modernity - Bauman - systems and processes in modern society have allowed

horrific acts to be more carefully planned and committed e.g. Holocaust

6.3: Globalisation of crime

6.3.1: Castells - the nation state is declining and globalisation is having a dramatic effect on crime. Crime is like a shadow economy whose main market is illegal drugs.

6.3.1.1: Taylor (Marxist) - globalisation has allowed the wealthy to use different parts of the world with different tax rules to avoid paying taxes and hide their money and wealth. More tasks being conducted using technology which has led to higher levels of unemployment but also the exploitation of cheap labour in poorer countries

6.3.1.1.1: Mc Mafia - Glenny- argues that with the fall of the Soviet Union and the deregulation of global markets new crime networks have emerged that have taken advantage of a lack of regulation, using networks of distribution through the Balkan states

6.3.1.1.1.1: Glocal organisations - Hobbs - crime is no longer local. Gangs that may operate drug dealing networks in the UK are part of a much bigger production and trade distribution system

6.4: See Postmodernism

6.5: Types of global crime

6.5.1: Financial global crime (money laundering), arms trafficking, smuggling illegal immigrants, trafficking women and children, sex tourism, cyber-crimes, green crimes, terrorism, smuggling illegal goods, drugs trade

7: Victims

7.1: 2 ways of studying victims: positivist and critical victimology

7.1.1: Positivist: Miles - it aims to identify the factors that produce patterns in victimisation, focuses on the interpersonal crimes of violence and aims to identify the victims that have contributed to their own victimisation.

7.1.1.1: The approach tries to identify the characteristics that make people prone to be victims.

7.1.1.1.1: Problems: can easily tip over into victim blaming, it ignores situations where victims are unaware they have been victimised, ignores wider structural issues that might result in greater levels of victimisation e.g. living in areas of high deprivation

7.1.2: Critical criminology: seeks to challenge the existing social order and wish to make a fairer and just society. Linked with feminist and marxist approaches

7.1.2.1: Explores structural elements in society e.g. issues like poverty and patriarchy, which places women and the poor at greater risk of victimisation. They also look at the power of the

state to deny the label of offender from some people e.g. those who have power to redefine their labels.

7.1.2.1.1: Problems: disregards the role victims play in bringing victimisation on themselves But draws attention to the way in which the idea of being a victim is socially constructed.

7.2: Trends: those most likely to be victims are poorer people, those who are younger (risk of victimisation declines with age), those from minority ethnic backgrounds and males. Men are most likely to be victims of violent attacks from someone they don't know. 70% of homicide victims are male.

8: Crime control

8.1: Prevention

8.1.1: Postmodernism - future of crime prevention will be publicly and privately funded.

8.1.1.1: Discipline has become dispersed. In the past the monarch held the power to punish, this then moved to the police who exercised the law of the land, increasingly we punish others more publically e.g. through commenting on their behaviour using social media platforms.

8.1.1.1.1: Foucault argues surveillance will become the most important way to regulate behaviour e.g. in terms of self-surveillance (thinking about how we present ourselves publically) and in terms of others being able to record our behaviour e.g. through filming on phones or through tracking our online behaviour.

8.1.1.1.1.1: Surveillance is a form of panoptisim (where we are being constantly watched - originally it was for a design for a prison where the prisoners were always watched by a guard). This is now present in our society all the time e.g. we are constantly watched by CCTV and we constantly survey each other e.g. filming problematic behaviour. This potential of being filmed should lead to people self regulating their behaviour.

8.1.1.1.1.1.1: But, can lead to dispersal - has the same issues as the right realist approach to crime control

8.1.2: Left realism - crime prevention can be achieved by focusing on the causes of crime, which they see as marginalisation, relative deprivation and social exclusion.

8.1.2.1: Social and community crime prevention. These policies focus on preventing young people from getting mixed up with criminal behaviour in the first place by reforming the social conditions e.g. poverty that could predispose someone from committing a crime.

8.1.2.1.1: Focuses on low level crime, doesn't explore corporate crime

8.1.3: Right realists argue the cause of crime lies with individuals who make a rational decision to commit an act, therefore situational crime prevention is their suggested approach - bringing down both the opportunity and choice to commit a criminal act

8.1.3.1: Situational crime prevention: Clarke argues crime is based on a rational choice, therefore a risk needs to be weighed up before committing an act. Situational crime prevention measures are directed at specific crimes, involve managing the immediate environment.

8.1.3.1.1: Examples of situational crime prevention: CCTV, 'target hardening' e.g. locking windows, putting up fences etc.

8.1.3.1.1.1: Problems: displacement - all it does is move crime to another location. Helps to reduce some types of crime but not all.

8.1.3.2: Environmental crime prevention - based on Wilson and Kelling's 'Broken windows' thesis - where signs of disorder in an area come to stand for all the other problems. By tackling the signs of decline neighbourhoods it drives down problems with other forms of crime.

8.1.3.2.1: Wilson and Kelling suggested, in addition to tackling environmental issues, that the police should act swiftly by tackling behaviour with zero tolerance - proactively tackling an event and any little signs of disorder.

8.1.3.2.1.1: The policy of 'zero tolerance' has been influential on many police forces and led to a decline in the crime rate where it was put in place, but it has been criticised for only tackling issues on the street rather than addressing relative deprivation (left realists), or corporate crimes (marxists).

8.2: Punishment

8.2.1: Types: deterrence (making an example of someone to stop others from offending), rehabilitation (reforming individuals so that they don't carry out the behaviour again), incapacitation (removes the offender's capacity to offend by putting them in prison, executing or cutting off hands). Punishment leads to the reduction of crime. Our criminal justice system is a mix of the first and third, with some rehabilitation included (but depends on the crime and prison)

8.2.1.1: Types: the other type is retribution, which makes someone 'pay back' for the crime they have committed. This is more common in smaller tribal societies and less common in the UK. It relies on the idea of 'an eye for an eye'

8.2.2: Theories

8.2.2.1: Functionalism: punishment reinforces social solidarity and reinforces shared values.

8.2.2.1.1: Marxist: punishment maintains the existing class structure. It works as part of the repressive state apparatus.

9: Statistics

9.1: Measurements of crime:

9.1.1: Police recorded statistics (kept by the police and Home Office)

9.1.1.1: Strengths: useful to understand macro crime patterns, can look at police efficiency in terms of clear up rates (solving or closing a reported crime), can indicate where the police need to focus their efforts, can reveal police stereotyping and assumptions e.g. groups more likely to be arrested.

9.1.1.1.1: Weaknesses: not all crimes are reported in the first place - some people may not trust the police, not think its worthwhile reporting, might be involved in the crime or not realise they are a victim. Not all crime is recorded even when it is reported to the police - an estimated 57% of crimes reported fail to be recorded. Police will interpret and use their own discretion (Cicourel). The courts may decrease the severity of the crime. Crime statistics are socially constructed and go through a number of social processes (Labelling theory).

9.1.2: Victim Surveys e.g. Crime Survey of England and Wales.

9.1.2.1: Strengths: overcomes the problem of unrecording in the police statistics, the Crime Survey has collected data on 40,000 people every year since 1982, these surveys highlight smaller scale crimes that may not get reported to the police. They are anonymous so allow people to be more honest. Garland found they allow greater understanding of the perspective of the victim.

9.1.2.1.1: Weaknesses - they rely on victims' memories and recollections (Bowling and Phillips found people were much more likely to recall their perpetrator as black and male). The categorisation of the crime is left open to the victim which can lead to considerable variation in categories. They overlook a series of crimes including fraud and corporate crimes. Victim surveys rely on people knowing they were victims.

9.1.3: Self-Report studies - where volunteers either through a questionnaire or interview are asked about the offences they have committed

9.1.3.1: Strengths: Favoured by interpretivists as they uncover meanings, including the motivations for crime. They are useful for finding out about anti-social crimes and crimes that are more hidden e.g. domestic violence. They can be compared to official crime statistics to explore patterns and police bias e.g. Box found that antisocial behaviour was also present in middle class youths, not just working class

9.1.3.1.1: Weaknesses: smaller in nature and therefore less representative, people might be reluctant to reveal their offending to someone else even if it is anonymous, people may not reveal the full extent of their behaviour.