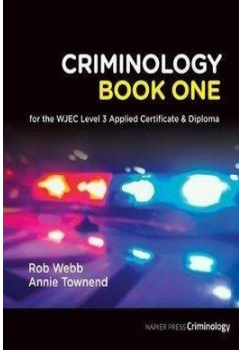
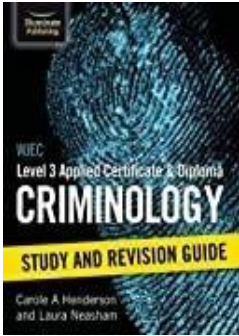


QUALIFICATION	Applied Certificate/Diploma in Criminology
Exam board and link	WJEC www.wjec.co.uk/qualifications/criminology-level-3
Specification details	601/6249/1 Applied Certificate 601/6248/X Applied Diploma
Textbooks	<div style="display: flex; align-items: flex-start;"> <div style="flex: 1;">  </div> <div style="flex: 1; padding-left: 10px;"> <p>Required Year 1</p> </div> </div> <div style="display: flex; align-items: flex-start;"> <div style="flex: 1;">  </div> <div style="flex: 1; padding-left: 10px;"> <p>Optional revision guide</p> </div> </div>

Course specifics:

This course is split into four sections:

UNIT	TITLE	INTERNAL	EXTERNAL
One	Changing awareness of crime	Yes	-
Two	Criminological Theories	-	Yes
Three	Crime Scene to Court Room	Yes	-
Four	Crime and Punishment	-	Yes

The nature of the course makes it synoptic ensuring everything that has been learnt during year 12 will be continued and expanded on in year 13.

Units 1 (year 12) and 3 (year 13) are internally moderated controlled assessment where learners are required to complete a timed piece of work under exam conditions. These are created from learner's knowledge.

Unit 2 (year 12) and 4 (year 13) are external exam units. Exams take place in May each year. Exam papers are split into three sections of 25 marks each (75 marks in total). Exemplar material can be found on the WJEC website.

Task 1

Research the following types of crime. Find examples to support and any relevant case studies

1. *State Crime*

Definition.....
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Example:
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2. *White Collar Crime*

Definition.....
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Example:
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3. *Moral Crimes*

Definition.....
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Example:
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4. *Technological Crimes*

Definition.....

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Example:

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5. *Hate Crime*

Definition.....

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Example:

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Hate crime and reducing prejudice

Rupert Brown, Jennifer Paterson and Mark Walters look at the explanations for and effects of hate crimes, and how restorative justice may help

These three examples typify the kind of abusive, hateful language and behaviour that members of Britain's minority groups face on a daily basis. They are also defined as hate crimes because, at their core, they are motivated by prejudice.

Paul Finlay-Dickerson lost his partner Maurice to cancer...in the 18 months leading up to Maurice's death, the couple were regularly subjected to homophobic abuse, their house was vandalised and faeces were pushed through their front door. (Amnesty International Report)

'You're lucky I don't kick you in the uterus and you'll never have a baby again.' (One of the vile, and more printable abusive comments screamed at Hanane Yakoumi, a pregnant Muslim woman on a London bus, Amnesty International Report)

'Leave the EU — no more Polish vermin.' (Message printed on cards left on cars and outside houses and schools in Cambridgeshire in the aftermath of the 2016 EU referendum, BBC News)

Hate crime

According to the police, hate crime is 'any criminal offence which is perceived, by the victim or any other person, to be motivated by a hostility or prejudice'.

Hate crime legislation in England and Wales covers five protected characteristics: race, religion, disability, sexual orientation and transgender identity. This means that if a perpetrator commits a criminal offence that is motivated by hate or prejudice towards the victim based on one or more of these characteristics, they can be arrested and prosecuted for a hate crime. Defining a crime as hate-motivated can have a significant impact on an offender's sentence. If proved in court, the offender will automatically receive a more severe sentence — for example, they will receive a larger fine or a longer prison sentence.

Unfortunately, hate crime in Britain seems to be on the increase. The police recorded over 94,000 hate crimes in England and Wales between 2017 and 2018, a 17% increase on the year before (Home Office Report 2017– 18). Of that total, race hate crimes were the largest single kind (over 75%), followed by sexual orientation (12%) and religion (12%). Some crimes were motivated by more than one kind of prejudice.

Why do people commit hate crime?

It is easy to assume that hate crimes are perpetrated by bigots who are somehow different from 'normal' people. However, there is little evidence that perpetrators of hate crime have a particular deviant personality or psychological make-up. As with crime generally, most offenders are male, especially when the offences are committed in public places. However, the gender of offenders can differ by type of hate crime, with recent research showing that 84% of transgender hate crimes were committed by men, compared with disability hate crime where male offenders made up 74% of cases. Perpetrators are mostly, but not invariably, members of majority groups (for example, white British) and are most likely to fall within the age range of 26–54 (Walters and Krasodowski-Jones 2018).

Group threat

To properly understand why people commit hate crime, it is necessary to go beyond these individual characteristics and examine wider social factors. One such factor is the existence of group threat. Do members of a dominant (often majority) group feel that a particular identity group is in competition with them for jobs, housing or 'territory'?

Alternatively, do they believe that the group is a threat to their 'way of life' because they perceive its members as holding very different cultural and moral values? In such cases, it is common for members of dominant groups to perceive these other group members as a threat to their own group identity, which can give rise to feelings of anger or disgust (and even, sometimes, fear), feelings which can cause overtly hostile behaviour.



A London vigil for victims of the Orlando shootings in 2016

Such emotions and behavioural reactions may also be a reflection of the hierarchical nature of society. Dominant groups usually have a clear sense of what they regard as appropriate ways of being in society and will often aggressively defend those entrenched values against people who are seen as 'different'.

Motivations

Whatever the underlying causes, there are four main motivations driving hateful behaviour (McDevitt al. 2002):

- **The 'thrill' of offending.** Young people especially, often in groups and fuelled by alcohol, find victimising others a means of experiencing excitement.
- **Defensive.** Such perpetrators are reacting to what they see as a threat to their 'territory' (or 'turf') by members of another group.
- **Retaliatory.** Perpetrators are seeking revenge for what they regard as an attack on their group. The 9/11 terrorist incidents in the USA in 2001 (and more recently in London and Manchester) sparked outbreaks of hostility towards Muslims by members of the majority society in the days and weeks afterwards.
- **Ideological mission.** A small minority of perpetrators wish to repulse or even destroy a particular detested outgroup.

However, the above are not aligned with four fixed or completely separable kinds of offenders. 'Thrill-seekers' may also be seeking retaliation for some perceived slight to a member of their ingroup. Hate ideologues in extremist groups may seek to mobilise support by highlighting (or manufacturing) incidents in which members of an outgroup seem to have attacked the ingroup.

The effects of hate crime

While being a victim of any type of crime often causes psychological harm, being a victim of a hate crime generally leads to greater levels of distress. This is because hate crimes purposely target important and defining identities, thereby letting the victim know, in no uncertain terms, that who they are or what they believe in is not respected or even tolerated.

Dealing with trauma

The psychological trauma of such hateful abuse can lead to many reactions from victims. Some may engage in avoidant strategies such as hiding or minimising their identities in order to 'fit in'. Some may avoid going out or disclosing personal information to other people for fear that they will be judged or attacked. For example, some gay people may avoid talking about their partners or suppress certain mannerisms, black people may 'act white' in certain workplace or social settings, while some religious people may refrain from wearing religious clothing in public.

Mental health

While these strategies may seem reasonable in terms of personal safety, such behaviour is likely to lead to feelings of social isolation as well as having negative mental health consequences including depression and anxiety. In addition, these strategies may also lead to the internalisation of prejudice, which is where victims come to believe that who they are or what they believe in is, in fact, wrong and something to be ashamed of.

Internalised prejudice is extremely detrimental to emotional wellbeing and can lead people to try to change who they are — even if their identities are, actually, unchangeable. It has also been linked to higher rates of both suicidal thoughts and actual suicide among certain identity groups.

Pride

Contrary to these more 'avoidant' strategies, some hate crime victims engage in 'approach' behaviours — reactions which are often typified by defiance. For example, victims may embrace their identities and characteristics to a greater extent and become more active members of their community. By using their identities and their communities as a source of pride, strength and support, these victims are more likely to protect their self-esteem, feel more secure, and may also provide help to other victims, or potential victims, in their communities.

Such behaviours are more constructive responses to victimisation. Although, there is the possibility of such pride spilling over into retaliatory behaviours, these reactions are rare.

The wider effects of hate crime

By attacking a person's identity, hate crimes not only victimise a specific person: the crimes signal to entire communities that they are *all* despised and under threat. Feeling threatened, other community members often exhibit similar responses to the victims of direct attacks: they may experience fear, anger and even shame, and also engage in avoidant and approach behaviours (Paterson et al. 2018). These reactions are not just because they fear for themselves. Instead, because they have a psychological bond with other community members (a shared social identity), an attack on one member of the group is felt as an attack on all.

An example of these wider effects of hate crime is the public response to the homophobic massacre of 49 people in a gay nightclub in Orlando, USA, in 2016. The tragic event made some lesbian, gay and bisexual people fearful for their own lives and safety, leading them to 'go back in the closet' and avoid being 'too visible'. The event also led to outrage — not only about the devastating act but about the hate and discrimination that lesbian, gay and bisexual people, and their communities, continue to face. In response to these feelings, many voiced their concerns and support on social media and participated in vigils helping to highlight the injustice and need to promote LGBT rights.

These responses were not limited to gay people in Orlando or even the USA, but were seen worldwide. Such solidarity in the face of adversity clearly shows the powerful nature of shared identities and why hate crimes can affect so many people.

AN EXAMPLE OF THESE WIDER EFFECTS OF HATE CRIME IS THE PUBLIC RESPONSE TO THE HOMOPHOBIC MASSACRE OF 49 PEOPLE IN A GAY NIGHTCLUB IN ORLANDO, USA, IN 2016

Criminal justice responses to hate crimes

Most governments in Europe and the USA have laws to combat hate crimes. During 2017–2018 the Crown Prosecution Service in England and Wales charged and prosecuted 14,233 hate crimes, resulting in 7,784 convictions (Crown Prosecution Service, Hate Crime Annual Report 2017–18). This therefore means that out of 94,000 recorded hate crimes, an estimated 92% of cases did not result in conviction.

Restorative justice

In order to help reduce this 'justice gap' for hate crime victims, some organisations have begun to use an alternative justice mechanism called restorative justice (RJ). Instead of focusing on punishing offenders for wrongdoing, RJ starts from the position that a perpetrator of crime is obliged to restore and repair the harm that they have caused.

How it works

The restorative process works by bringing together individuals who have been closely affected by the offence, typically the victim, offender and other affected community members. They collectively discuss what has happened, why it occurred and how best it can be resolved.

Restorative justice practices emphasise equal participation, with each participant having an opportunity to talk about what has happened and no single participant being silenced by the domination of others. Dialogue between participants typically begins by focusing on the perpetrator's responsibility for having harmed another (others). The aim of this part of the process is to bring about a greater level of understanding of the consequences of the perpetrator's

actions. Listening to the victim talk about their experiences of pain can also assist in inducing feelings of remorse, which are the result of empathy or understanding the effects on victims.

Benefits

Advocates of RJ believe that those who are directly confronted with the victim's trauma are more likely to feel compassion for them, which may help to reduce the likelihood of hate incidents from recurring. The aim is for perpetrators to have a greater appreciation of the consequences of their actions *and* a better understanding of the victim's identity 'difference' after they have participated in RJ. In one qualitative study it was found that perpetrators of hate incidents were less likely to reoffend after they have participated in a restorative process (Walters 2014).

Psychological explanations

From a psychological perspective, the benefits of RJ can be explained by *intergroup contact theory*. This suggests that when people from different groups interact with one another, under certain positive conditions, prejudice can be reduced. In RJ contexts, this prejudice reduction occurs because participants gain more empathy for others and their anxiety about them is reduced. As both increased empathy and reduced anxiety are beneficial for perpetrators and victims alike, RJ seems to be a viable and effective response to hate crimes.

- 1. Define hate crime and provide examples of different types of hate crimes.**
- 2. Explain the impact of hate crime on individuals, communities, and society as a whole.**
- 3. What are the key factors that contribute to the occurrence of hate crimes?**
- 4. Discuss the concept of prejudice and its role in hate crimes. How are prejudice and hate crimes connected?**

- 5. According to Rupert Brown's research, what are some psychological processes that underlie prejudice and discrimination?**

- 6. How does Jennifer Paterson's work on intergroup contact theory inform our understanding of reducing prejudice and hate crimes?**

- 7. What are some effective strategies and interventions proposed by Mark Walters to reduce hate crimes and promote social harmony?**

- 8. Explain the role of education in preventing hate crimes and reducing prejudice. How can schools play a proactive role in addressing these issues?**

- 9. Discuss the importance of legislation and legal frameworks in combating hate crimes. What are some current laws in the UK that address hate crimes?**

- 10. Analyse the potential challenges and limitations in reducing prejudice and hate crimes, considering the complex nature of these issues.**

Task 3

As part of your course you will have to look at campaigns that have caused a change in the law. You will also have to plan your own campaign.

Conduct research on the following campaigns. Find out what the **original crime** was that sparked the campaign; what the **aim** of the campaign was; what **methods** were used (e.g. TV interviews, advertising, wristbands, petitions, T-shirts etc) and whether the campaign was **successful** in achieving its aims

- Sarah's Law
- The Double Jeopardy Law
- Dignity in Dying
- Snowdrop Campaign
- Slow Down for Bobby
- Anti-Foxhunting Campaign

Task 4

Research how newspapers report crime and the types of crime they report on. Consider differences between local newspapers, national newspapers, tabloids and broadsheets in their reporting of crime.

Newspaper 1 Name:

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Types of crime reported:

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Examples of headlines/language used:

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Newspaper 2 Name:

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Types of crime reported:

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Examples of headlines/language used:

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Newspaper 3 Name:

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Types of crime reported:

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Examples of headlines/language used:

Task 5

Watch the TED talk – “Exploring the mind of a killer” with Jim Fallon
[Jim Fallon: Exploring the mind of a killer | TED Talk](#) (6 mins 32)

What are 5 key points of the talk that stood out to you?

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.