Answers

Chapter 1: Forensic psychology

Defining and measuring crime (pages 8–9)

1. B

2. • One way to measure crime is through victim surveys. These ask a sample of people to identify which crimes have been committed against them over a particular period of time.
   • The Crime Survey involves interviewing a sample of 50,000 households, selected randomly from the Royal Mail’s list of addresses. It is repeated every year.
   • The questions ask about general attitudes towards crime, or more specific questions about people’s experience of crime.

3. • Official crime statistics use data that has recorded crimes that have actually been reported to the police.
   • However, many crimes go unreported. For example, Walker et al. found that only 42 per cent of crimes reported in the British Crime Survey were reported to the police.
   • This means that the official statistics aren’t a valid way to measure crime because they only represent a part of criminal activity.

4. a. Quantitative data is produced when behaviour is measured in numbers. Qualitative data is information in words than cannot be counted or quantified.
   b. The sample consists of volunteers. People who volunteer for research may not be representative of all people who are victims of crime, and so findings obtained from them might not be generalisable.
   c. One strength of unstructured interviews is that more detailed information can generally be obtained from each interviewee than in a structured interview. This is because the interviewer tailors the questions to the specific responses and can get deeper insight into the respondent’s feelings and thoughts.
   d. The researchers might have wanted to identify themes in the interviewees’ responses, enabling them to draw general conclusions about how the experience of crime affects people’s lives.
1. B

2. • Top-down processes can be harmful as profiling could mislead investigations. Top-down analysis is not based on scientific evidence so it has often been dismissed by courts as ‘junk science’ with ambiguous descriptions that could fit many individuals.
• Smart offenders can read about how profiles are constructed and deliberately mislead profilers by providing misleading clues.
• This means that police and the courts must take care not to be convinced by the believability of profiles that appear to be a good match.

3. a. A meta-analysis involves looking at the findings from a number of different studies. It produces a statistic called the effect size, which is used to assess overall trends.
   b. Secondary data is information used in a research study that was collected by someone else or for a purpose other than the current one. A meta-analysis uses data from previous research, and so involves the use of secondary data. Primary data is information observed or collected from first-hand experience. A meta-analysis does not use this kind of information.
   c. One strength of meta-analysis is that it allows researchers to reach an overall conclusion about the effect one variable has on another by having a statistic (the effect size) to represent the findings from different studies. One limitation of meta-analysis is that the studies it uses vary in their quality, so the effect size reported may not be valid.

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   • The top-down approach to offender profiling starts from a general classification of the crime scene, then a profiler uses this classification to drill down to make judgements about likely offenders who would fit the circumstances.
   • This method relies on an intuitive application of a profiler’s prior knowledge.
   • Data is collected, including a detailed description of the crime scene and background information about the victim, as well as details of the crime itself.
   • Decision process models are created. This is where decisions are made about the data, and it is organised into meaningful patterns. The type of murder is considered, as well as location, and time factors.
   • The crime is classified as being committed by an organised, or disorganised, offender. An organised offender is one who has planned the crime, and their victim is specifically targeted. The offender may engage in violent fantasies with the victim, and is high in intelligence and social competence.
   • A disorganised offender is one who tends not to plan their crime, so the crime scene is left with many clues, and there is little evidence of engagement with the victim. The offender has lower intelligence and tends not to be socially competent.

**Possible AO3 content:**
• One strength of top-down profiling is that it can be useful for opening up new lines of inquiry. For example, Copson questioned 184 American police officers; 82 per cent said the technique was useful and 90 per cent said they would use it again. It also involves an intuitive application of a profiler’s prior knowledge and can offer investigators a different perspective. This can help prevent wrongful conviction.
• However, one limitation of top-down profiling is that it may not be accurate. For example, Alison et al. found that police officers rated a profile as equally accurate a match to a description of the genuine offender as to a fabricated offender. This shows that profiling leads to unreliable judgements.
• A second limitation of top-down profiling is that the data on which the organised/disorganised classification is based may be flawed. For example, it is based on data from interviews with 37 dangerous sexual killers, who can be highly manipulative and unreliable. This data was then used to identify the key characteristics that police use to ‘read’ a crime scene. These killers may have a different approach to ‘typical’ killers, so the classification of crimes and criminals may not be generalisable.

• Another limitation of top-down profiling is that the distinction between an organised and disorganised offender may not be true. For example, Canter et al. analysed murders by 100 serial killers, finding no clear division between the two types of offender. This suggests that the categories may not be very useful for profiling serial killers.

• A final limitation of top-down approaches is that they can be harmful as profiling could mislead investigations. For example, Jackson and Bekerin suggest that smart offenders can read about how profiles are constructed and deliberately mislead profilers by providing misleading clues. This means police and the courts must take care not to be convinced by the believability of profiles that appear to be a good match.

Offender profiling: The bottom-up approach (pages 13–16)

1. D

2. • One limitation of the bottom-up approach is that circle theory has been criticised.
   • For example, Canter and Larkin studied 45 sexual assaults and found that 91 per cent of offenders were marauders and the rest were commuters.
   • However, in cities, people's ranges may not be circular, due to transport links.
   • This means that while circle theory can be useful for narrowing down searches, it could lead to police looking in the wrong place.

3. • Geographical profiling analyses locations and connections between crime scenes.
   • A ‘marauder’ commits crimes that are geographically close to the offender’s home.
   • However, ‘commuters’ will travel to another location to commit crimes, within a defined space, around which a circle can be drawn.
   • It is likely that these crimes were committed by a marauder because they occurred early in the morning, so it is more likely the offender lived nearby.
   • This would help the police by narrowing down the likely location of the offender’s home.
   (Note: Students could also argue that the offender was a commuter, as all the arson attacks took place in the same location, within a defined space.)

4. a. The researcher used a repeated measures design. One advantage of this type of experimental design is that it is the only one which enables researchers to have complete control over participant variables.
   b. Counterbalancing ensures that each condition is tested first or second in equal amounts. This controls for the possibility of order effects acting as a confounding variable.
   c. Wilcoxon test. The researcher is looking for a difference between conditions, has used a repeated measures design, and has collected data which is at least at the ordinal level.
   (Note: Other appropriate tests include the sign test and the related t-test (with appropriate reasons for each choice).)

5. Possible AO1 content:

• The bottom-up approach is a data-driven method in which statistical techniques are used to produce predictions about the likely characteristics of an offender.
There are three main features of this approach. They are: interpersonal coherence, which assumes that people are consistent in their behaviour; forensic awareness, which says certain behaviours may reveal awareness of particular police techniques; and smallest space analysis, which explores correlations between crime scene details and offender characteristics from a large number of similar cases.

Geographical profiling involves analysing locations and connections between crime scenes.

Circle theory says that most offenders have a spatial mindset, committing crimes within an imaginary circle. Marauders commit crimes near to where they live, whereas commuters travel to another area to commit crime.

Criminal geographic targeting is a computerised system that uses data about time, distance, and movement, and produces a map called a ‘jeopardy surface’ showing likely closeness to the offender’s house.

**Possible AO3 content:**

One strength of the bottom-up approach is that it has a scientific basis. For example, it uses statistical analysis of objective data from offenders. However, it doesn’t use data from unsolved crimes, and the assumptions about where offenders are most likely to commit crimes may be incorrect. This means that this approach has the potential to be objective and systematic.

Another strength of this approach is that investigative psychology can be useful. For example, Copson found that 75 per cent of police officers surveyed had found profilers’ advice useful, although only 3 per cent said the profiling helped them to identify the actual offender. This suggests that it only gives a slight benefit in catching offenders, but this is still valuable.

However, one limitation of the bottom-up approach is that circle theory may be flawed. For example, Petherick has pointed out a number of flaws with the model, including the idea that representing ranges in terms of circles is over simplistic, and if a person’s home base is not in the centre of the circle then the police may look in the wrong place.

Another limitation of the bottom-up approach is that geographical profiling is limited to spatial behaviour. For example, it ignores any personality characteristics of offenders, and so is unable to distinguish between multiple offenders in an area.

A final limitation of the bottom-up approach is that offender profiling should be used with caution. This is because while profiling can help the police to narrow down the field of possibilities, it can also mean the police stick too closely to a given profile. This means that time, and money, can be wasted if the profile is incorrect.

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**Biological explanations of offending behaviour: A historical approach (pages 17–19)**

1. D

2. Lombroso proposed that offenders possess characteristics that are similar to those of lower primates, such as a large jaw and excessively long arms.
   - He identified three types of criminal. These are born criminals (the atavistic type), the insane criminals (who are mentally ill), and criminaloids (who are offenders whose mental characteristics predispose them to criminal behaviour under the right circumstances).
   - He gathered empirical evidence from post-mortem examinations of over 50,000 criminals.
   - Sheldon linked body types to temperaments. For example, mesomorphs are athletic, active and assertive, while ectomorphs are tall, thin, restrained and nervous. He concluded that delinquents tend to be mesomorphs.

3. Lombroso’s research had no controls, so it isn’t possible to be sure that criminal faces are different to non-criminal faces.
   - If controls had been used, Lombroso would have found as many non-prisoners with the same characteristics as he saw in prisoners.
• This means that the researchers’ claim is incorrect, because it is based on inaccurate, and unreliable, research.

4.

a. The independent groups design does not allow participant variables to be controlled for. The researcher might have used the matched pairs design because she thought it was important to try to control for one or more key variables in her study.

b. One ethical issue is that participants might not have given their informed consent. The researcher might not have given them comprehensive information concerning the nature and purpose of the research and their role in it. This could be partially overcome by debriefing participants – that is, giving them a post-research interview in which they are told about the true nature of the study, and ensuring they are restored to the same state they were in at the start of the study.

c. The mean can be easily distorted by one (or a few) extreme values. It is possible that one (or a few) participants may have been extremely insensitive to pain compared with the others. The mean would then be misrepresentative of the data as a whole.

d. Standard deviation (or range).

e. Wilcoxon test (or Sign test, or related t-test).

5.

Possible AO1 content:

• Lombroso proposed that offenders possess characteristics that are similar to those of lower primates, such as a large jaw and excessively long arms.

• He identified three types of criminal. These are born criminals (the atavistic type), the insane criminals (who are mentally ill), and criminaloids who are offenders whose mental characteristics predispose them to criminal behaviour under the right circumstances.

• He gathered empirical evidence from post-mortem examinations of over 50,000 criminals, and measurements of the faces of living criminals.

• Sheldon linked body types to temperaments. For example, mesomorphs are athletic, active and assertive, while ectomorphs are tall, thin, restrained and nervous. He concluded that delinquents tend to be mesomorphs.

Possible AO3 content:

• One strength of the historical approach is that Lombroso’s research looks scientific. For example, it used empirical observation and detailed measurement. There was no control group, so Lombroso’s methods and conclusions can be criticised; however, he did raise the possibility of scientific studies of the criminal mind.

• Another strength of the historical approach is that there is some research support for somatypes. For example, Glueck and Glueck found that 60 per cent of delinquents were mesomorphs. However, a correlation with body type does not imply a causal relationship, so this information may not be very useful for identifying offenders.

• However, one problem with the historical approach is that it is gender biased. For example, Lombroso believed that women are less evolved than men. He didn’t study women directly, but he believed they are naturally passive, and therefore unlikely to become criminals. This belief was not based on any empirical evidence.

• Another problem with the historical approach is that it is deterministic. For example, it proposes that biological factors cause criminality, sometimes interacting with environmental factors, but always outside the individual’s control. This has implications for the criminal justice system, including whether individuals should be punished for their actions.

• However, although the theory of atavistic form has been discredited, we still try to identify criminal types. For example, Eysenck’s theory looks at personality types and criminality, and research into genetic causes of criminality implies that some people have an innate disposition to commit crimes.
1. A

2. Brunner et al. studied a Dutch family who had histories of impulsive and violent criminal behaviours, including rape and attempted murder. They found that these men shared a particular gene that led to abnormally low levels of MAOA. Raine et al. studied previous research on the delinquent behaviour of twins. They found that there was a concordance rate in MZ twins of 52 per cent compared with 21 per cent for DZ twins.

3. a. 78%. Total number of children (1500) − number with a criminal conviction (330) = number without a criminal conviction (1170). 1170/1500 × 100 = 78%

   b. 

   c. Range or standard deviation

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   - Genetic explanations propose that one or more genes may predispose individuals to criminal behaviour. For example, twin studies have found a concordance rate of 52 per cent in MZ twins, suggesting a genetic component to delinquent behaviour.
   - The MAOA gene is responsible for levels of the MAOA enzyme. This enzyme regulates the metabolism of serotonin in the brain. Brunner et al. found that male members of a Dutch family who had a history of violence all shared a particular gene that led to abnormally low levels of MAOA.
   - Offending behaviour may be the result of brain injury. For example, if the prefrontal cortex is damaged, its ability to control impulses is reduced, so criminal behaviour is more likely to occur.
   - Also, the limbic system of criminals may be abnormal. For example, Raine found that murderers had abnormal asymmetries in their limbic system compared with matched controls.
   - Low levels of serotonin may predispose individuals to impulsive aggression and criminal behaviour, partly because serotonin normally inhibits the prefrontal cortex.
   - Abnormal levels of noradrenaline have been associated with aggression, violence and criminality. High levels of noradrenaline are associated with the activation of the sympathetic branch of the autonomic nervous system, and the fight-or-flight response, and thus are linked with aggression.

**Possible AO3 content:**
- One strength of biological explanations for offending behaviour is that there is research support for it. For example, Mednick et al. found that 15 per cent of boys adopted by a criminal family became criminals themselves, compared with 20 per cent with biological parents who were criminals.
- Another strength of biological explanations for offending behaviour is that there are important real-world applications of the research. For example, if low levels of serotonin cause increased aggression in criminals then people in prison could be given diets that would enhance their serotonin levels, and hopefully decrease their aggression.
• However, one problem with these explanations for offending behaviour is that it is hard to link them to non-violent crimes. For example, offending behaviour includes a broad range of behaviours, such as fraud, bigamy and drug use, and so it is difficult to explain such a range of behaviours in terms of genes.
• Another problem with biological explanations is that they are deterministic. For example, they imply that a person may be unable to control their criminal urges, and it may be hard for some men with genetic predispositions and adverse experiences to avoid criminal violence.
• A final problem with biological explanations for offending behaviour is that a lot of the research is based on studies with non-human animals. This means that these studies, and much of the research done with humans, investigate aggressiveness rather than criminal behaviour. Therefore, the data cannot be used to predict who may become an offender, and the research cannot be generalised to non-violent crimes.

Psychological explanations of offending behaviour: Eysenck’s theory (pages 23–26)

1. C

2. • Eysenck’s theory says that character traits cluster along three normally distributed dimensions. These are: extroversion–introversion; neuroticism–stability; psychoticism–normalcy.
• Extroverts will seek out more arousal and therefore engage in dangerous activities, which may be illegal.
• Neurotics are unstable, and so may overreact to situations of threat, which would explain some criminal activity.
• Psychotic individuals lack empathy and are aggressive, leading to violent criminal behaviour.

3. • Wayne: psychotic (‘inability to understand … other people’s feelings’)
• John: extrovert (‘dangerous things he does when they are out together’)
• Pete: neurotic (‘his tendency to overreact in potentially threatening situations’)

4. a. Independent groups design. One disadvantage of this design is that the researcher cannot control the effects of participant variables, such as the different abilities or characteristics of each participant.
 b. The Mann-Whitney U test. The researcher was looking for a difference between conditions, an independent groups design was used, and the data were at least at the ordinal level.
    Note: The unrelated t-test (with three appropriate reasons) is an alternative answer.
 c. There is a less than 5 per cent likelihood that the difference between the scores of the offenders and non-offenders would occur if there was no real difference between them.

5. Possible AO1 content:
• Eysenck’s theory says character traits cluster along three normally distributed dimensions. These are extroversion–introversion; neuroticism–stability; and psychoticism–normalcy.
• Extroverts will seek out more arousal and therefore engage in dangerous activities, which may be illegal.
• Neurotics are unstable and so may overreact to situations of threat, which would explain some criminal activity.
• Psychotic individuals lack empathy and are aggressive, leading to violent criminal behaviour.
Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of this explanation of offending behaviour is that there is research support for personality types. For example, Zuckerman found a +.51 correlation for extraversion in MZ twins, but only +.12 for DZ twins, and results for psychoticism were similar. This indicates that some genetic factor is involved in personality traits.

- Another strength of this explanation of offending behaviour is that there is research support for a link between personality traits and criminal behaviour. For example, Dunlop et al. found that extraversion and psychoticism, and high scores on a lie scale, were good predictors of delinquency.

- A third strength is that personality trait theory may have real-world applications. For example, by modifying the socialisation experiences and conditioning of children who have the potential to become offenders due to their personality traits.

- However, one criticism of this explanation is that personality tests lack validity. For example, people may tend to give socially desirable answers, so their answers may not be truthful, and the Eysenck personality questionnaire consists of forced-choice answers of yes/no. This means that the findings may not represent reality.

- Another criticism of personality trait theory is that it assumes personality is consistent; for example, that a person who is lively or anxious is like that all the time. However, many psychologists support a situational perspective, where people behave differently in different situations. This shows that the notion of a fixed criminal personality is flawed.

Psychological explanations of offending behaviour: Cognitive (pages 27–29)

1. B

2. 
   - One strength of the cognitive distortions explanation is that there is research support for hostile attribution bias.
   - For example, Schönenberg and Aiste showed participants emotionally ambiguous faces, and compared the responses of 55 violent offenders in prison with matched control ‘normal’ participants.
   - They found that offenders were more likely than the controls to interpret pictures as expressing aggression.
   - This might explain some aggressive behaviours in individuals who perceive these non-verbal cues as aggressive.

3. 
   - Charlie is at the pre-conventional level.
   - People at this level of moral reasoning think breaking the law is justified if the rewards outweigh the costs, or if punishment can be avoided.
   - Alan is at the conventional level.
   - People at this level of moral reasoning think breaking the law is justified if it helps maintain relationships, e.g. family.

4. 
   a. Reliability refers to the consistency of a measurement. A test is reliable if it produces the same data when taken on successive occasions. Validity refers to whether a test measures what it claims to measure.
   b. The researchers found a positive correlation, so the sketched scattergram should indicate that as scores on one variable increase, scores on the other variable increase as well.
   c. Concurrent validity is a means of establishing validity by comparing an existing measurement of a variable with the measurement the researcher is interested in.
   d. It could be assessed by comparing scores on the HIT-Q with scores obtained on another established measure of cognitive distortion. If the two tests are measuring the same thing, there should be a strong positive correlation between the scores obtained on them.
Possible AO1 content:

- Cognitive explanations of offending behaviour focus on the way that thinking affects behaviour.
- One type of cognitive distortion is hostile attribution bias. This is a negative interpretation of events, attributing malicious intentions to other people’s behaviour.
- Another type of cognitive distortion is minimalisation. This is where someone underplays the consequences of an action to reduce negative emotions such as guilt.
- Kohlberg’s theory of moral reasoning says that there are three levels of moral reasoning, and each stage represents a more advanced form of moral understanding. People at the pre-conventional level of moral reasoning think breaking the law is justified if the rewards outweigh the costs, or if punishment can be avoided. People at the conventional level of moral reasoning think breaking the law is justified if it helps maintain relationships, e.g. family. People at the post-conventional level of moral reasoning think breaking the law is justified if the law violates an individual’s rights.
- The level of moral reasoning that criminals are more likely to be at is the pre-conventional level, because they believe that breaking the law is justified if punishment can be avoided.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of cognitive explanations of offending behaviour is that there is research support for hostile attribution bias. For example, Schönenberg and Aiste found that offenders were more likely than the controls to interpret pictures as expressing aggression. This might explain some aggressive behaviours in individuals who perceive these non-verbal cues as aggressive.
- Another strength of cognitive explanations is that there is research support for minimalisation. For example, Kennedy and Grubin found that offenders downplayed their behaviour, often suggesting that the victim’s behaviour was responsible for the crime.
- A third strength of cognitive explanations of offending behaviour is that they have real-world applications. For example, Heller et al. used cognitive behavioural techniques to reduce cognitive distortions in young men in Chicago. Participants who attended 13 one-hour sessions had a 44 per cent reduction in arrests compared to a control group, suggesting that CBT can help to rehabilitate people.
- One strength of Kohlberg’s theory is that there is research support for it. For example, Gudjonsson and Sigurdsson found that 38 per cent of male juvenile offenders did not consider the consequences of their actions, suggesting they were at the pre-conventional level of moral reasoning.
- However, one problem with Kohlberg’s theory is that it concerns moral thinking, not behaviour. For example, Krebs and Denton found that people are motivated by factors such as financial gain and only use moral principles to justify behaviour retrospectively.

Psychological explanations of offending behaviour: Differential association (pages 30–32)

1. C

2. Sutherland proposed that offending behaviour can be explained by social learning theory. The child learns attitudes towards crime, and which crimes are acceptable or desirable, as well as the methods of committing crime.
   - They learn this from family, peers and the local community, who may model criminal behaviour or show acceptance of deviant attitudes.
   - The degree of influence these social associations have is determined by the frequency, length and personal meaning of such social associations.
3. a. One potential ethical issue is that of ensuring the students’ responses are kept confidential, and that the responses they give will be protected. The researchers could guarantee that the participants’ responses are kept confidential by using numbers or false names rather than the participants’ real names.

b. Because participants are volunteering to respond to the email, the sample could be biased. Volunteers might, for example, be more motivated than non-volunteers. This means it may not be possible to generalise the results obtained in the study to the wider population.

c. Nominal level
d. Chi-squared

4. Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of differential association as an explanation for offending behaviour is that there is research support for it. For example, Osborn and West found that 40 per cent of sons of fathers with a criminal conviction had committed a crime before the age of 18, compared with 13 per cent of sons of non-criminal fathers.
- Another strength of differential association is that this theory has made a major contribution to understanding the causes of crime. For example, in this theory, crime could be explained in terms of people's social experiences, rather than labelling them as ‘mad’ or ‘bad’. This has important applications, as we can try to change social learning environments.
- However, one problem with this explanation is that it may explain only some types of crime; for example, non-violent crimes such as burglaries rather than violent, impulsive ones such as murder. This means that differential association only gives a partial explanation of offending behaviour.
- Another problem with differential association as an explanation for offending behaviour is that it ignores biological factors. For example, there may be innate genetic factors, or early experiences, that affect brain development. This means that a diathesis-stress model may offer a better account, by combining social factors with biological predispositions.
- A final problem with differential association is that the research is correlational. It is possible that offenders seek out other offenders, rather than being influenced by them to become offenders. This means that we cannot conclude cause and effect, so its validity is unclear.

**Psychological explanations of offending behaviour: Psychodynamic (pages 33–35)**

1. B

2. • One strength of the psychodynamic approach is that it is the only explanation of offending that considers emotional factors.
   • For example, unlike cognitive theories, it takes into account the role of feelings of anxiety or rejection in offending behaviour.
   • It also recognises the role of innate drives and early childhood experiences in moulding adult personality.
   • This means that psychodynamic explanations address multiple factors, and offer some useful insights into the effect of childhood experiences on adult behaviour.

3. • The superego is the part of the mind that contains the conscience, which produces feelings of guilt when internalised social rules are broken.
   • This was the structure of the mind that meant Agnes’ first thought was that she should hand the wallet into the police station.
   • The id is the part of the mind that contains the libido and operates on the pleasure principle, demanding immediate gratification.
   • It appears that Agnes has a weak/underdeveloped superego.
   • This is because she acted in a way that gratified her instinctual id impulses, spending the money on clothes.
4. 
   a. A case study involves a detailed investigation of a single individual, institution or event. One limitation of cases studies is that it is difficult to generalise from individual cases, since each one has unique characteristics.
   b. Objectivity means ‘without bias’. Objective empirical data are data that have not been affected by the expectations of the researcher.
   c. It is important that hypotheses derived from psychodynamic theories are falsifiable because in any study it is necessary that the hypothesis being tested is capable of being disproved. One of the criticisms of Freudian psychoanalysis, for example, is that it lacks falsifiability and is therefore not scientific.

5. Possible AO1 content:
   - Bowlby’s maternal deprivation theory says that offending behaviour is the result of prolonged separation between a mother and child. There is most risk if the separation occurs before the age of two and a half years, and there is no substitute mother figure, with continuing risk up to the age of five years. The long-term consequence is affectionless psychopathy, which involves a lack of empathy, shame or sense of responsibility, which can lead to delinquent behaviour.
   - Freud’s psychoanalytic theory says that the personality develops from three components: the id, which represents our primitive wants; the superego, which determines which behaviours are permissible and causes feelings of guilt when rules are broken; and the ego, which mediates between the impulsive demands of the id and the moralistic demands of the superego.
   - This means offending behaviour is the result of a weak or underdeveloped superego. The consequence is a person has little control over anti-social behaviour and is likely to act in ways that gratify their instinctive id impulses.

Possible AO3 content:
   - One strength of Bowlby’s theory is that it has important applications in the care of young children. For example, Bowlby demonstrated that children could cope with separation from their parents as long as alternative emotional care was provided. Social policies and childcare provision have been influenced enormously by Bowlby’s work on attachment and maternal deprivation.
   - However, one problem with Bowlby’s research is that it only shows a correlation between separation and emotional problems. For example, there could be other explanations of the association between separation and emotional problems, such as the effect of disrupted home life. This means that Bowlby’s 44 thieves study should be used with caution to support this theory.
   - One problem with Freud’s theory is that it is gender biased. For example, he proposed that women develop a weaker superego than men. If Freud’s views were correct, then women should be more likely to become criminals than men, but this is not the case. This means that the alpha bias in Freud’s theory devalues women and leads to incorrect predictions, so the theory isn’t supported by evidence.
   - One strength of psychodynamic explanations is that they are the only explanations of offending that consider emotional factors. For example, they take into account the involvement of feelings of anxiety or rejection in offending behaviour, and they also recognise the role of innate drives and early childhood experiences in moulding adult personality.
   - One problem with psychodynamic explanations of offending behaviour is that they cannot explain all causes of offending. For example, Farrington et al.’s 40-year longitudinal study identified important risk factors at age 8–10 years for later offending. These include a family history of criminality, a risk-taking personality, poor parenting and poverty. This shows that a combined approach can give a fuller picture of the causes of offending than the psychodynamic approach alone.
Dealing with offending behaviour: Custodial sentencing and recidivism (pages 36–38)

1. A

2. • One limitation of custodial sentencing is that prison may increase reoffending by acting as a training ground for crime.
   • Sutherland’s differential association theory suggests that spending time with other criminals will normalise pro-criminal attitudes and provide learning opportunities for how to be successful at committing crimes.
   • Also, Latessa and Lowenkamp found that placing offenders at low risk of recidivism with high-risk offenders makes it more likely that low-risk offenders will reoffend.
   • This means that imprisonment may reinforce pro-criminal attitudes and encourage increased criminal behaviour on release.

3. a. There is a relationship (correlation) between the time reoffenders went before being convicted of another crime and the number of qualifications they obtained during their time spent in prison.
   b. Pearson’s or Spearman’s
   c. The study only shows that there is a correlation between the two variables that were measured. The television programme has inferred that this is a cause and effect relationship. However, this interpretation is not legitimate on the basis of a correlation alone. There could be other variables that affect the time offenders went before being convicted of another crime which do not relate to how many qualifications they have.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   • The aims of custodial sentencing are to protect the public, which is necessary with violent offenders; to punish an offender and prevent recidivism; to deter others from committing the same crime; to atone for wrongdoing, where the offender should pay for what they have done; and to rehabilitate offenders, for example by providing therapy or education to prevent further criminal behaviour.
   • There are psychological effects of custodial sentencing, including de-individuation, which is a loss of individual identity, leading to increased aggression; depression, self-harm, and suicide; and overcrowding and a lack of privacy, which causes stress, aggression, and illness. It also affects the family, as parents in prison experience guilt and separation anxiety, and their children suffer financially and psychologically.

Possible AO3 content:
   • One problem with custodial sentencing is that incapacitation, retribution and rehabilitation are not very beneficial. For example, incapacitation only applies to a small number of dangerous prisoners, and rehabilitative therapy cannot be forced on someone. This means that many of the aims of custodial sentencing could be better achieved by other types of sentencing or treatment.
   • Another problem with custodial sentencing is that it is ineffective in preventing recidivism, or acting as a deterrent. For example, at least 50 per cent of the prison population reoffend within a year of release, and even severe punishments do not work as deterrents. This means that punishment does not work, as offenders may simply learn that they should avoid being caught.
   • A third problem with custodial sentencing is that it may increase reoffending, rather than reducing it. For example, Sutherland’s differential association theory suggests that spending time with other criminals will normalise pro-criminal attitudes and provide learning opportunities for how to be successful at committing crimes.
   • A fourth problem with custodial sentencing is that it may only be effective for some offenders. For example, Walker et al. found that the length of the sentence didn’t affect the recidivism rate
of habitual offenders. Young people are more likely to reoffend, and those committing theft or burglary are twice as likely to reoffend as drug or sex offenders.

- A final problem with custodial sentencing is that non-custodial sentencing may be more appropriate. For example, evidence shows that cautions are a more effective deterrent than arrests, and non-custodial sentences avoid the psychological problems of imprisonment.

### Dealing with offending behaviour: Behaviour modification in custody (pages 39–41)

1. A

2.
- Token economy systems do not affect reoffending rates outside the prison. This is because the token economy only has short-term effects while the rewards are available. Once they cease, the stimulus–response link is extinguished.
- Furthermore, the behaviours learned in prisons may not apply to the real world.
- This means that while the token economy can improve behaviour in a prison environment, it doesn’t have a long term effect on prisoners once they return to their natural environment.

3. (Specimen answer is supplied in the exam workbook.)

4.
   a. Suitable examples include if the offender’s belt was buckled, if his shoelaces were laced and tied, and if his trousers were zipped or buttoned.
   b. Random sampling. One limitation of this sampling technique is that the sample may not be representative of the target population from which it has been drawn, even though the sample is unbiased.
   c. The researcher could have asked another staff member to independently, but simultaneously, score the same offenders for the four target behaviours. If the judgements were reliable, then there would be a strong positive correlation between the staff members’ judgements.
   d. The researcher should have told the offenders of their right to withdraw from the study at any time before the study began. Having exercised that right, the offender’s wishes should be respected by the researcher.

5. **Possible AO1 content:**
   - The token economy system is based on the principles of operant conditioning. Both positive and negative reinforcement can be used to encourage prisoners to use certain behaviours, while punishment can be used to discourage them from using other behaviours.
   - It aims to increase desirable, non-criminal behaviours.
   - It involves the use of tokens that act as secondary reinforcers and are given to prisoners for behaving in desirable ways, such as obeying orders or making their bed. These tokens can then be exchanged for primary reinforcers, which are desirable goods or privileges such as tobacco, food or watching television.

**Possible AO3 content:**
- One strength of token economies is that they can be effective and easy to implement. For example, it provides a means of controlling unmanageable behaviour without needing input from psychologists. As long as the token economy is clear and consistent, it can provide a simple way of improving prison life.
- However, one criticism of the token economy is that it is less successful in prisons than in schools. For example, it was used widely in US prisons in the 1970s, increasing socially acceptable
behaviours and reducing crime, but these results did not persist. However, Tarbox et al. found that the token economy approach has proved very successful in schools and for dealing with people with autism.

- Another criticism of the token economy is that it doesn’t affect reoffending rates or behaviour outside the prison; for example, the behaviours learned in prison may not apply in the real world. The token economy has short-term effects, while the rewards are available; once the rewards cease then the stimulus–response link is extinguished.
- A third criticism of the token economy is that it is not effective for all criminals. For example, Cohen and Filipcjak found that juvenile delinquents who had been trained with a token economy system were less likely to reoffend after one year, but Rice et al. found that 50 per cent of violent offenders treated using token economy in a maximum security psychiatric hospital reoffended.
- A final criticism of the token economy is that there are ethical issues with its use. For example, it is unethical to make basic needs, such as food or visiting rights, dependent on tokens, or to take away tokens as a punishment. These ethical issues contributed to the loss of popularity of token systems in prisons.

Dealing with offending behaviour: Anger management (pages 42–44)

1. C

2. 
   - One limitation of anger management programmes is that they assume that treating anger will reduce aggression and violent crime.
   - However, Loza and Loza-Fanous found no difference between violent and non-violent offenders’ anger levels.
   - This may be because violent offenders mask their anger, or offenders may blame their violent behaviour on anger to avoid taking personal responsibility.
   - This suggests that much violence can take place without anger being a prominent feature.

3. 
   a. One limitation of using a self-report technique is that participants may respond in a socially desirable way by, for example, answering the questions in a way that presents them in a good light, rather than showing their real level of anger. This means that their responses to the questionnaire may not be valid.
   b. Independent groups. Participant variables are not controlled for, so the researcher can’t be certain whether it was the anger management technique that made the difference or the nature of the participants in each group.
   c. A control group does not receive the independent variable and provides a baseline against which the experimental group can be compared. Without such a baseline, it is not possible to assess the effect that the independent variable (the anger management technique) has had on the dependent variable (the measure of anger).

4. **Possible AO1 content:**
   - Anger management programmes use a cognitive approach to change the way a person thinks. The aim is to reduce anger by reconceptualising the emotion using a range of cognitive behavioural skills.
   - Cognitive therapy accepts the situation itself may not change, but it is possible to change the way a person thinks about the situation, and thus change the way they handle anger and aggression.
   - Anger management programmes focus on cognitive restructuring, which is where a person gains greater self-awareness and control over the cognitive dimensions of anger.
   - They also focus on the regulation of arousal, which is where a person learns to control their physiological state.
   - A third focus is on behaviour strategies, such as problem-solving skills, strategic withdrawal and assertiveness.
Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of anger management programmes is that they are successful in reducing anger. For example, Taylor and Novaco report a 75 per cent improvement rate based on six meta-analyses, and Landenberger and Lipsey's analysis of 58 studies of CBT with offenders, 20 of which used anger control as part of the therapy, found that having an anger control element was significantly related to the amount of improvement shown.
- However, one problem with anger management programmes is that studies investigating their effectiveness are difficult to compare. For example, some are brief and intense, while others last for years. Also, some are run by psychologists and others by prison staff. This means that meta-analyses are not comparing like with like, so findings are inconsistent.
- Another problem is that most studies only look at the short-term goals of reducing anger in prisons. For example, very few studies have looked at the long-term effects on recidivism rates. However, Maguire found that some programmes did reduce reoffending after one year.
- A third problem with anger management programmes is that many offenders drop out of the programmes. This may be because they find it difficult to talk about their thoughts and feelings and to make the effort to change their attitudes and behaviours.
- A final problem with anger management programmes is that they assume that treating anger will reduce aggression and violent crime. For example, if anger does contribute to aggression, then anger management programmes may be useful. However, Loza and Loza-Fanous found no difference between violent and non-violent offenders’ anger levels. This may be because violent offenders mask their anger, or offenders may blame their violent behaviour on anger to avoid taking personal responsibility.

Dealing with offending behaviour: Restorative justice programmes (pages 45–47)

1. C

2. 
   - The victim explains the impact of the crime, so that the offender can understand the victim's perspective and take responsibility.
   - Offenders will offer concrete compensation, such as money or community service, as well as atoning psychologically by, for example, showing their feelings of guilt, and showing an understanding of the effects of their actions.
   - As the victim has a voice, they feel less powerless, and they may develop a greater understanding of the offender by listening to their account, which, in turn, reduces their sense of victimisation.

3. 
   a. The quantitative data in this study is the numerical data. This is the frequencies of the different themes that emerged. The qualitative data in this study is the non-numerical data. This is the verbal answers given by the participants to the open-ended questions.
   b. The mode
   c. One strength of thematic analysis is that it enables researchers to quantify qualitative data, which can then be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. It does this by identifying and then counting the themes that emerge in the qualitative data. One limitation of thematic analysis is that it is a very lengthy process because it is painstaking and iterative. Every item must be carefully considered and the data gone through repeatedly.

4. Possible AO1 content:
   - Restorative justice enables offenders to repair the harm that they have done, often by meeting with the victims and a mediator, or by letter.
   - It aims to rehabilitate the offender, allowing them to atone for wrongdoing and to see the victim's perspective.
It does this by getting the offender to listen to the victim explain the impact of the crime, so they can understand the victim’s perspective and take responsibility for their actions. Offenders may offer compensation and show their remorse, and the victim can express their distress, helping the offender to develop empathy. It also benefits the victim by giving them a voice, helping them to feel less powerless.

Possible AO3 content:

- One strength of these programmes is that they do reduce reoffending rates. For example, Sherman and Strang reviewed 20 studies of face-to-face meetings in three countries, and found reduced reoffending in all cases. This shows that restorative justice is also successful in its aims of reducing crime rates.
- Another strength of restorative justice programmes is that they are more beneficial than custodial sentencing. For example, it is much less expensive, and reduces exposure to criminal attitudes in prisons. It also promotes offender accountability, so restorative justice meets many of the aims of custodial sentencing while also addressing the needs of victims.
- A third strength of restorative justice programmes is that there is research evidence that victims find it beneficial. For example, the UK Restorative Justice Council reported 85 per cent satisfaction from victims after face-to-face meetings with offenders. This shows that, for a large range of crimes, restorative justice benefits victims.
- However, one limitation of restorative justice programmes is that the victim may feel worse afterwards. For example, facing the person who harmed you in some way is stressful, and so asking a victim to face the person who harmed them may be considered unethical.
- Another limitation of restorative justice programmes is that they aren’t appropriate for all types of crime. For example, the offender has to admit to the crime, and some crimes may not have a direct victim. This means that restorative justice cannot be a global solution to dealing with offending behaviour.