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1. Briefly explain the Social Theories of Crime

Social process theory views criminality as a function of people's interactions with various organizations, institutions, and processes in society; people in all walks of life have the potential to become criminals if they maintain destructive social relationships.

Social process theory has three main branches:

(1) social learning theory stresses that people learn how to commit crimes;

(2) social control theory analyses the failure of society to control criminal tendencies; and

(3) labelling theory maintains that negative labels produce criminal careers.

The social learning branch of social process theory suggests that people learn criminal behaviour much as they learn conventional behaviour. Differential association theory, formulated by Sutherland, holds that criminality results from a person's perceiving an excess of definitions in favour of crime over definitions that uphold conventional values. Akers has reformulated Sutherland's work using psychological learning theory, and he calls his approach differential reinforcement theory. Sykes and Matza's theory of neutralization indicates that young people learn behaviour rationalizations that enable them to overcome societal values and norms and break the law. Control theory maintains that all people have the potential to become criminals but that their bonds to conventional society prevent them from violating the law.

The containment theory advocated by Reckless suggests that a person's self-concept aids his or her commitment to conventional action. Hirschi describes the social bond as containing elements of belief, commitment, attachment, and involvement, and weakened bonds allow young people in particular to behave anti-socially. Social reaction or labelling theory holds that criminality is promoted by becoming negatively labelled by significant others.

Research on labelling theory, however, has not supported its major premises and critics have charged the theory lacks credibility as a description of crime causation. Social process theories have greatly influenced social policies and have controlled both treatment orientations and community action policies.

Definitions of crime have implications for the kind of questions you ask, the kinds of data you use to study criminal behavior, and the kinds of theories applied. Some of the most commonly defined types of crime in sociology include:

Violent crime – A crime in which a person is harmed or threatened. Violent crimes include murder, assault, rape, sexual assault, robbery, kidnapping, and harassment.

Property crime – Property crime involves criminal activity that does not do bodily harm to a person, but rather focuses on private property. This type of crime involves burglary, theft, arson, defacement of property, motor vehicle theft, and more.

White-collar crime – White-collar crime is the name for acts of fraud committed by businessmen. Violent behavior is typically not associated with white-collar crime. Rather, these types of crimes are committed to gain or avoid losing money or property. Some examples of white-collar crimes include money laundering, corporate fraud, mortgage fraud, Ponzi schemes, and embezzlement among others.

Organized crime – Organized crime refers to criminal activity committed by an organized group of individuals at a local, regional, national, or international level. Some groups commonly associated with organized crime include the mafia, terrorist groups, and mobsters. Drug trafficking, human trafficking, money laundering, and counterfeiting are among some of the most prevalent illegal activities committed under the banner of organized crime.

Consensual or victimless crime – Consensual crime refers to crimes that do not directly harm other individuals or property. Rather, individuals choose to participate in risky behaviors that may be considered against the law. This includes indulging in drug use, prostitution, or obscenity.

Outside of these five types of crime in sociology, you can find a wealth of different ideas. For example, some sociologists would argue even apparently criminal acts can’t be called criminal until a full evaluation of the situation has been made. For that reason, it’s important to be able to understand patterns of crime in a sociological context.

1. What are the various models adopted in Correctional Administration?

“The history of correctional thought and practice has been marked by enthusiasm for new approaches, disillusionment with these approaches, and then substitution of yet other tactics”(Clear 59). During the mid 1900s, many changes came about for the system of corrections in America. Once a new idea goes sour, a new one replaces it. Prisons shifted their focus from the punishment of offenders to the rehabilitation of offenders, then to the re-entry into society, and back to incarceration. As times and the needs of the criminal justice system changed, new prison models were organized in hopes of lowering the crime rates in America. The three major models of prisons that were developed were the medical, model, the community model, and the crime control model.

The medical model is the model of corrections based on the assumption that criminal behaviour is caused by social, psychological, or biological deficiencies that require treatment (Clear 53). This model of corrections aimed at treating the illness of criminals with hopes that once released, the offender will be cured of their ailment and will not re-offend. In 1929, the idea of institutions aimed at rehabilitation as the primary purpose were introduced into America. It was thought that this would be easy to achieve because prisons already existed and the only adjustment would be to add programs to diagnose and treat patients. In theory this model seemed to be a perfect solution. Unfortunately, this program was unsuccessful in the long run because of budget problems and the lack of proper testing.

This model of corrections had an excellent goal in helping criminals to recover from whatever caused them to commit crimes. The positive side of this program is twofold. First the program would help the ill to recover and secondly it was supposed to stop the criminal from re-offending. Although this program seems to be a great idea there are also downfalls to the idea. The main problem with this program is how you would evaluate the persons illness. For example, if someone was caught stealing or selling drugs, how do you determine that they have some sort of fixable problem or illness? Maybe they were just hungry or wanted money and there is nothing wrong with them that can be treated psychologically.

Both the medical model and the community model were great attempts to better our system of corrections. There major problems were that they did not consider all of the options and the problems that may occur. Combing these three systems seems like it would work because it gives people the opportunities they need while still satisfying the public’s safety in incarcerating them to pay for their crime. Crime will never be completely abolished because people have a free will to act as they wish and some people are just evil. Even though crime will probably never be fully ended, we should may every attempt possible to rehabilitate those who have previously offended to prevent them from re-offending.

1. **Observational and Cognitive learning methods**

**Learning**

Learning can be described as a process that resulted in the acquisition of new information and/or behavior. The result of the learning process can be latent (i.e., is not immediately observed) or manifest (i.e., is immediately observed).

Cognitive learning and observational learning are two closely related terms that describe certain aspects of our learning process. Cognitive learning describes a learning process where learners are cognitively engaged with the learning materials. They are active and not passive agents. Observational learning, on the other hand, describes a learning process that occurs by observing other people.

**Observational learning**

Observational learning is also called shaping or modelling because it involves modelling the behaviours of other people. This style of learning can take place at any point in a person's life, but much of it happens during childhood when children are learning how to socialize by observing the behaviour of adults around them.

Psychologist Albert Bandura developed a social learning theory that claimed people can learn and avoid behaviours simply through observation, meaning they don’t have to repeat the behaviour to understand its consequences. For example, if a child observes someone getting chastised for negative conduct, they would avoid the same behaviour in order to avoid a similar consequence.

Benefits of observational learning

* Learning new skills
* Reinforcing positive behaviour
* Decreasing negative behaviour

4 Stages of observational learning

1. Attention
2. Retention
3. Reproduction
4. Motivation

Observational learning examples

* Modelling behaviour in adults
* Modelling behaviour in children
* Positive motivation

**Cognitive learning**

Cognitive learning is an active style of learning that focuses on helping you learn how to maximize your brain’s potential. It makes it easier for you to connect new information with existing ideas hence deepening your memory and retention capacity.

The ability of the brain’s mental processes to absorb and retain information through experience, senses, and thought is known as cognition.

Employers need to expose employees to training on cognitive learning—an organization whose employees have strong cognitive skills is likely successful.

Well-trained and fully engaged employees are capable of learning quickly and being highly productive by handling multiple complex tasks without the necessity of a supervisor.

There is a young branch of psychology known as cognitive psychology. It is the study of one’s internal processes.

These are the things going on in your brain, such as thinking, attention, learning, problem-solving, perception, among others.

Components of Cognitive Learning

1. Comprehension
2. Memory
3. Application

Benefits of Cognitive Learning

1. Enhances learning
2. Boosts confidence
3. Enhances Comprehension
4. Improves problem-solving skills
5. Help learn new things faster
6. Teaches to form concept formation (think abstract)

Cognitive Learning Strategies

1. Learner-cantered strategy
2. Meaningful Experiences strategy
3. Learning Through Discovery strategy
4. Personalized learning strategy

Cognitive Learning Examples

1. Explicit Learning
2. Implicit Learning
3. Meaningful Learning
4. Discovery Learning
5. Receptive Learning
6. Non-Associative Learning (Habituation and Sensitization)
7. Emotional Learning
8. Experiential Learning
9. Observation Learning
10. Cooperative and Collaborative Learning