Crime and punishment in Britain, c1000–present (Inc. Whitechapel historic environment study)

30% of your overall mark

Paper 1

1 hour 15 mins

You will <u>be tested on your knowledge and source skills</u>

Name:

Teacher:

What does the specification require me to know?

Key Topic 1: c1000-c1500

c1000–c1500: Crime and punishment in medieval England	
1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity	• Crimes against the person, property and authority, including poaching as an example of 'social' crime. • Changing definitions of crime as a result of the Norman Conquest, including William I's Forest Laws.
2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment	• The role of the authorities and local communities in law enforcement in Anglo-Saxon, Norman and later medieval England, including tithings, the hue and cry, and the parish constable. • The emphasis on deterrence and retribution, the use of fines, corporal and capital punishment. The use and end of the Saxon Wergild.
3 Case study	• The influence of the Church on crime and punishment in the early thirteenth century: the significance of Sanctuary and Benefit of Clergy; the use of trial by ordeal and reasons for its ending.

Key Topic 2: c1500-c1700

c1500–c1700: Crime and punishment in early modern England	
1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity	• Continuity and change in the nature of crimes against the person, property and authority, including heresy and treason. • New definitions of crime in the sixteenth century: vagabondage and witchcraft.
2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment	• The role of the authorities and local communities in law enforcement, including town watchmen. • The continued use of corporal and capital punishment; the introduction of transportation and the start of the Bloody Code.
3 Case studies	• The Gunpowder Plotters, 1605: their crimes and punishment. • Key individual: Matthew Hopkins and the witch-hunts of 1645–47. The reasons for their intensity; the punishment of those convicted.

Key Topic 3: c1700-c1900

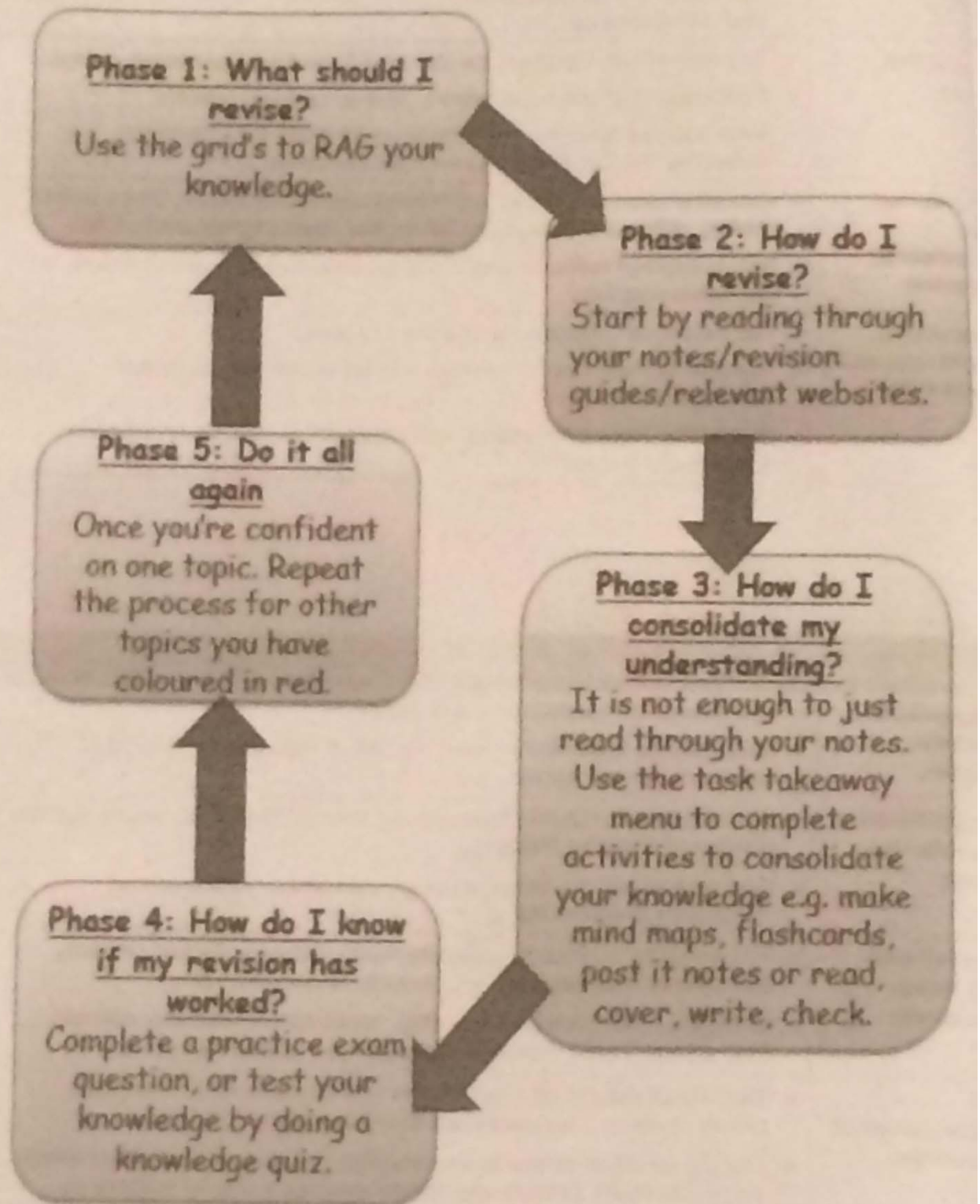| c1700–c1900: Crime and punishment in eighteenth- and nineteenth-century Britain	
1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity	• Continuity and change in the nature of crimes against the person, property and authority, including highway robbery, poaching and smuggling. • Changing definitions of crime exemplified in the ending of witchcraft prosecutions and treatment of the Tolpuddle Martyrs.
2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment	• The role of the authorities and local communities in law enforcement, including the work of the Fielding brothers. The development of police forces and the beginning of CID. • Changing views on the purpose of punishment. The use and ending of transportation, public execution and the Bloody Code. Prison reform, including the influence of John Howard and Elizabeth Fry.
3 Case studies	• Pentonville prison in the mid nineteenth century: reasons for its construction; the strengths and weaknesses of the separate system in operation. • Key individual: Robert Peel – his contribution to penal reform and to the development of the Metropolitan Police Force.

Key Topic 4: c1900-present

c1900–present: Crime and punishment in modern Britain	
1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity	• Continuity and change in the nature of crimes against the person, property and authority, including new forms of theft and smuggling. • Changing definitions of crime, including driving offences, race crimes and drug crimes.
2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment	• The role of the authorities and local communities in law enforcement, including the development of Neighbourhood Watch. Changes within the police force: increasing specialisation, use of science and technology and the move towards prevention. • The abolition of the death penalty; changes to prisons, including the development of open prisons and specialised treatment of young offenders; the development of non-custodial alternatives to prison.
3 Case studies	• The treatment of conscientious objectors in the First and Second World Wars. • The Derek Bentley case: its significance for the abolition of the death penalty.

Key Topic 5: The historic environment - Whitechapel, c1870-c1900: crime, policing and the inner city

The historic environment	
1 Whitechapel, c1870–c1900: crime, policing and the inner city	• The local context of Whitechapel. The problems of housing and overcrowding. Attempts to improve housing: the Peabody Estate. Provision for the poor in the Whitechapel workhouses. The lack of employment opportunities and level of poverty. Links between the environment and crime: the significance of Whitechapel as an inner city area of poverty, discontent and crime.
	• The prevalence of lodging houses and pubs creating a fluctuating population without ties to the community. The tensions arising from the settlement of immigrants from Ireland and Eastern Europe. Pressures caused by the increase in Jewish immigration during the 1880s and the tendency towards segregation. The growth of socialism and anarchism in Whitechapel.
	• The organisation of policing in Whitechapel. The work of H division and the difficulties of policing the slum area of Whitechapel, the rookeries, alleys and courts. Problems caused by alcohol, prostitution, protection rackets, gangs, violent demonstrations and attacks on Jews. The Whitechapel Vigilance Committee.
	• Investigative policing in Whitechapel: developments in techniques of detective investigation, including the use of sketches, photographs and interviews; problems caused by the need for cooperation between the Metropolitan Police, the City of London Police and Scotland Yard. Dealing with the crimes of Jack the Ripper and the added problems caused by the media reporting of the 'Ripper' murders.
	• The national and regional context: the working of the Metropolitan Police, the quality of police recruits, the role of the 'beat constable'. The development of CID, the role of the Home Secretary and of Sir Charles Warren, public attitudes towards the police.
2 Knowledge, selection and use of sources for historical enquiries	• Knowledge of local sources relevant to the period and issue, e.g. housing and employment records, council records and census returns, Charles Booth's survey, workhouse records, local police records, coroners' reports, photographs and London newspapers.
	• Knowledge of national sources relevant to the period and issue, e.g. national newspapers, records of crimes and police investigations, Old Bailey records of trials and Punch cartoons.
	• Recognition of the strengths and weaknesses of different types of source for specific enquiries.
	• Framing of questions relevant to the pursuit of a specific enquiry.
	• Selection of appropriate sources for specific investigations.

The revision cycle

Phase 1: What should I revise?
Use the grid's to RAG your knowledge.

Phase 2: How do I revise?
Start by reading through your notes/revision guides/relevant websites.

Phase 3: How do I consolidate my understanding?
It is not enough to just read through your notes. Use the task takeaway menu to complete activities to consolidate your knowledge e.g. make mind maps, flashcards, post it notes or read, cover, write, check.

Phase 4: How do I know if my revision has worked?
Complete a practice exam question, or test your knowledge by doing a knowledge quiz.

Phase 5: Do it all again
Once you're confident on one topic. Repeat the process for other topics you have coloured in red.

How could I revise?

'Brain dumps'

Take a big piece of paper or a whiteboard, and write down everything you can remember about the topic you are revising e.g. Trial by ordeal

You could write down:

- Dates
- Names of the different trials
- Key changes that were made
- Key individuals who made those changes
- Arguments for and against trial by ordeal
- Any other important information

Once you are happy that you cannot remember any more, use diffferent colours to highlight or underline the words in groups. E.G. If revising Transportation you may choose to underline all the mentions that provide evidence of it's success in red, and to its failures in blue.

Learning Walks

Make use of your space! Write down key facts and place them around your home, where you will see them every day. Make an effort to read the facts whenever you walk past them.

Distilling

Memory studeis show that we retain information better if we visit it regularly. This means that revising the information once is not necessarily going to help it stay in your brain. Going back over the facts at intervals of less than a week leads to the highest retention of facts.

To make this process streamlined, try distilling your notes. Start by reading over the notes you've completed in class, two days later read over them again, and then write down anything you did not remember. If you repeat this process enough you will end up with hardly any facts left to write down, because they will be stored in your brain.

Using your own down time

There are always little pockets of time through the day which are not good for anything – bus journeys, queues, ad breaks in TV programmes, waiting for the shower to heat up etc. If you add all of these minutes up it would amount to quite a lot of time, which could be put to good use for revision. You could photograph your revision notes, or record yourself saying your notes out loud.

Cue Cards

Summaries key events onto cue cards/A3 paper, and keep practicing. Practice past exam questions and quick quizzes.

Key Topic 1: c1000-c1500

1.1   Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity and
1.2   The Nature of Law enforcement and punishment

Understanding Medieval England, c.1000-c.1500

- There were four main groups in Medieval Society. Each had a different role to play.
    - **The King:** The person, supposedly chosen by God, who was the most important of all people in the country. He controlled lots of land which he gave to his supporters. His job was to defend the country from attack and make sure people were protected by laws.
    - **The Nobles:** They were the King's main supporters and advisors. The king gave them land and in return they provided soldiers to help the king and helped maintain law and order.
    - **The Church:** Medieval people were very religious, the Church was very important because it offered people the chance to go to Heaven when they died. Each village had a priest and everyone in the Village had to go to Church. The Church had its own courts to put Church workers on trial, the Church building was also used by criminals claiming *sanctuary*. The Church's power meant that it sometimes ended up fighting with the King.
    - **The peasants:** Most people were peasants, they worked as farmers on the land owned by the local lord. Peasants worked on their own land as well so they could feed their families. There was no police force, so local communities were expected to look after each other and ensure law and order was kept.

Crime and Law enforcement in Saxon England, c.600-1066

- Types of crime in Saxon England could include: Drinking too much and insulting your neighbour, Stealing, Murder, Ploughing someonelse's land.
- **Tithings:** There was no police in Saxon England. Every male over the age of 12 was expected to join a 'tithing'. A 'tithing' was a group of 10 men who were each responsible for everyonelse's behavior. If one of them broke the law, the other members of the tithing had to bring him to court, or pay a fine.
- **Hue and Cry:** If a crime was committed the victim was expected to raise the 'hue and cry'. The entire village had to stop whatever they were doing and join in the hunt to catch the criminal. If a person did not join the 'hue and cry' then the whole village would be fined.
- **Parish Constable:** A local man given the duty of making sure law and order was followed in the village. This job was unpaid.
- **Trial by Local Jury:** This was the first form of trial. The accused person would be judged by 10 men from the local community, they would have known both the accused person and the victim. There was a clear process for a trial:
    - A) The accused and the victim would each give their version of what happened.

- B) If the jury could not tell who was telling the truth, or if there was not enough evidence (i.e an eyewitness) then they would decide based on their knowledge of the people concerned.
- If they decided the victim was more trustworthy than the accused, they would find the accused guilty and swear an oath of *compurgation*.

Punishment in Saxon England, c.600-1066

- **Trial by Ordeal:** If the trial by local jury method failed, Saxons would turn to a different type of trial called 'trial by ordeal'.
- Saxon society was very religious and believed that God could be asked to tell them whether a person was guilty or innocent. There were four different types of trial by ordeal:
  - *Trial by Hot Iron:* The accused (usually a woman) was made to walk three paces down the middle of a Church holding a red-hot iron weight. The hand would then be bandaged up, if after three days the wound was healing cleanly then the accused was innocent, if it was not, they were guilty.
  - *Trial by Hot Water:* The accused (usually a man) had to put his hand in a pot of boiling hot water and pick up an object from the bottom. The wound would then be investigated after three days.
  - *Trial by Cold water:* The accused (usually a man) was tied with rope around his waist and lowered into cold water. If the accused sank below God's pure water then he was innocent. If he floated then he was guilty and had been rejected by God.
  - *Trial by Blessed Bread (only for priests):* A priest prayed that the accused would choke on the bread which had been blessed if he was guilty. If he ate the bread without choking he was innocent.
- **Wergild:** The 'wergild' was a system of fines for different crimes used by the Saxons. Each crime had a specific fine. The system was designed to make further violence less likely (unlike the **blood feud** which was all about retribution).
- The Wergild was used for crimes involving physical injury, each body part had a specific cost. (ie broken arm = 6 shillings).
- The Wergild system was not a fair one though, as more powerful members of society were protected by higher fines (killing a nobleman = 300 shillings, killing a freeman = 100 shillings).
- **Capital and Corporal Punishment:** Used only for serious crimes.
- In Saxon England treason (plotting against the king) or betraying your lord could lead to execution.
- People who committed the same crime more than once were often punished by having limbs cut off, eyes being 'put out' and other mutilations.
- More minor crimes were punished via public humiliation. Saxon villages relied on everyone working together, so executing or imprisoning someone would often mean everyone suffered – public humiliation was therefore a lot more practical.

- If someone failed to attend their trial then they would be declared an **outlaw**. This meant they could be killed without any punishment.
- *Think! Was the Saxon system of trial and punishment fair?*

What changes did the Normans bring after 1066?

- When William the Conqueror took control of England he brought some new ideas about crime and punishment:
    - He was tough on criminals and he believed any crime was going against the king's peace rather than just the individual victim.
    - He kept the Saxon laws in place but he added to them. These new laws were written in the Norman language, French, which disadvantaged the Saxons.
- **The Sheriff and the Posse Comitatus:** If the 'hue and cry' failed to catch the criminal then the local Sheriff would be informed. He would gather a group of able bodied men who would go out and hunt for the criminal. This was called the *posse comitatus*.
- **Murdrum Fine**: Angry Saxons whose homes and property were destroyed by the Normans took the law into their own hands. William introduced a new law which said that if a Norman was murdered, all the people in that region had to pay an expensive fine.
- **Trial by Combat**: The Normans were just as religious as the Saxons, so trial by ordeal was kept. The Normans introduced a new type called 'trial by combat'. The accused fought with the accuser until one was killed or unable to fight on. The loser was then hanged as God had judged him to be guilty.
- **Ending the Wergild**: William ended the Wergild system, all fines for crimes were paid to the King and no longer the victim's family.
- **Women**: The Saxons had given women almost equal rights in law. Norman law was much harsher on women giving them much less rights than men.
- **Church Courts**: The Normans introduced Church courts. These were separate courts which were used for churchmen and tended to be more lenient (there was no capital punishment).
- **Royal Courts:** These were used only for serious crimes. Royal Judges were appointed to represent the King and to ensure that justice was carried out.
- **Forest Laws:** This created new crimes where previously none had existed and made other crimes more serious:
    - Trees could no longer be cut down for fuel or for building.
    - People in forests were no longer allowed to own dogs or bows and arrows.
    - Anyone caught hunting a deer had their first two fingers chopped off (repeat offenders were blinded).
- The Norman King Henry II made further changes to crime and punishment laws so that he could increase his personal power, these included:
    - **The King's peace:** if someone comitted a crime close to the location of the King at any time, the punishment was made far harsher than normal.

- **Travelling Justices:** People given power by the king to hear court cases on his behalf and pass sentence on people found guilty.
- **County Gaols:** Introduction of incarceration as a form of punishment.
- **Ending of trial by ordeal:** All cases now had to be settled by a 12 man jury.
- **Justices of the Peace (JPs):** 1361 – these men had the right to fine and arrest people who were disturbing the peace.
- **Country Coroners:** People specifically appointed to investigate unexpected deaths.

Social Crime

- Many ordinary people were prepared to break the Forest laws, this is what historians call a **'social crime'**. The local community were prepared to turn a blind eye to people collecting firewood or hunting in the King's forests **(poaching)** because they thought the **Forest Laws** were very unfair.

1.3   Case Study

The Role of the Church in Medieval Crime and Punishment

- **Church Courts**: The Church claimed the right to try an churchman accused of a crime in its own courts. Church courts often dealt with 'moral offences' such as failing to go to Church, drunkeness, adultery, and playing football on a Sunday.
- **Benefit of the Clergy**: If a person was accused of a crime they were allowed to claim the right to be tried in a Church court (where the punishments were less severe). This should have meant only priests however others would often use it. You had to prove you worked for the church by reading out a passage from the bible. The idea was that only people who could read worked for the Church, however others often memorised the verse to save themselves from capital punishment.
- **Sanctuary:** If a criminal on the run from the law could reach a Church, he or she could claim sanctuary. Once inside the Church the criminal was under the Church's protection and could not be arrested. The criminal could spend upto 40 days there before deciding either to leave the Church and be arrested or to leave the country. If they chose the latter they had to walk barefooted, carrying a wooden cross, and go straight to the nearest harbour and board a ship heading abroad.
- **Ending trial by ordeal:** The Church ended trial by ordeal in 1215. It was seen as unreliable as it was possible that some guilty men and women could escape punishment whilst others were wrongly found guilty.

Check your understanding: Answer these quick fire questions

1. Name the four different groups in medieval society and describe each of their roles in the system of medieval crime and punishment?

2. What was a 'tithing'?

3. What was the 'Hue and Cry'?

4. Explain how 'trial by Jury' worked?

5. Name the four different saxon types of trial by ordeal, and the fifth introduced by the Normans?

6. How did the 'wergild' system work and why was it better than the 'blood feud'?

7. How did you become an outlaw in Saxon England?

8. What was the Murdrum Fine?

9. What were the Forest Laws?

10. Who searched for a criminal if the Hue and Cry failed?

11. How did the Normans change the fining system?

12. What were Church courts?

13. How did the Norman attitude to women differ from the Saxons?

14. What was the King's peace?

15. What was the coroner's job?

16. Who were the JPs?

17. Explain what a 'social crime' is and give a medieval example of one?

18. What was 'benefit of clergy'?

19. What was 'sanctuary'?

20. What was the different between Church courts and Royal courts?

Key Topic 2: c1500-c1700

2.1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity and

2.2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment

Which social changes affected crime and punishment, c.1500-1700?

- **Population Growth:** More people meant it was harder for some to find work, this made a life of crime more likely. Crime rates went up in the 1500s and early 1600s.
- **Economic Changes:** England was wealthier overall but most of the wealth was in the hands of a few wealthy individuals. The majority were still very poor. Poor people were vulnerable to rises in food prices caused by bad harvests and less trade. Once Henry VII made it illegal for anyone other than him to own an army, many men were left unemployed and penniless. Henry VIII's destruction of the Monasteries also removed the main provider of charity for the poor in England.
- **Printing:** Crime was a popular topic for the newly created newspapers and books made possible by the fifteenth century invention, the printing press. The dramatic crime stories they communicated meant the fear of crime rose, despite the evidence suggesting it was actually falling by the mid 1600s.
- **Religious Turmoil:** Henry VIII's Reformation and the period which followed it saw Protestants and Catholics fighting to control England. Both sides accused each other of being an ally of the Devil and this helped increase public belief in evil and the supernatural. In this period, treason (plotting against the King) and heresy (holding incorrect religious beliefs) were brutally punished, punishments got harsher in general and lead to the 'bloody code' later on.
- **Political Turmoil:** This period also saw the English Civil War in which Parliament beat the King and had him executed. Many people thought the world had 'turned upside down', creating a feeling of insecurity and fear of crime lasting decades.
- **Landowners' attitudes:** Landowners were getting richer and more influential, they wanted laws that defended their rights and property against threats. They felt threatened by the growing number of poor people who they wanted to keep in their place.

Change and continuity in types of crime: 1500-1700

- [Changes] Huge increase in accusations of Witchcraft, Treason laws were broadened so it was easier to be found guilty, increase in the number of Vagabonds (homeless people who wandered from village to village).
  - **Witchcraft:** See Matthew Hopkins and the Witch-Hunts (2.3)
  - **Treason and Heresy:** See the Gunpowder Plot (2.3)
- **Vagabonds:** A rising population and few jobs meant that more people had to move to find work. People were increasingly concerned about vagabonds (people with no fixed job who wandered the countryside and towns). Vagabonds were associated with crime because it was assumed they did it

to get money. Vagabonds were seen as lazy and un-Christian. People were prepared to help the genuinly poor: the sick and the old for example but did not trust outsiders begging for money. Wealthier people already paid the *poor rates* to help support poorer people, they did not want to have to pay for vagabonds too.

- The government used a variety of different measures to try and deal with Vagabonds, these included: Whipping, slavery, branding, execution, and Houses of Correction. Different measures were used at different times and they were changed if they were considered too harsh or too lenient.
- Some vagabonds were clearly criminals, but the 'terror of the tramp' was also an unfair representation of vagabonds. In reality many were ex-soldiers who were no longer needed in the King's army. It was only a small minority of vagabonds who were organised in petty crime gangs. These criminals used various means to steal money from people:
    - Bristlers – Someone who used loaded dice to cheat people out of money.
    - Counterfeit Crank – Beggars who would pretend to be ill by having violent fits in an attempt to gain sympathy and money.
    - Baretop Trickster – Women who flashed at men to lure them into a side street where they would be attacked and robbed.
    - Priggers/Prancers – Someone who stole horses.
    - Rufflers – Ex-military men who would assault people and steal their money.
- The Tudors had differing attitudes to the poor: Henry VIII distinguished between the 'deserving poor' who were given licence to beg and the 'undeserving poor'.
- Edward VII laws were very harsh on vagabonds where as Elizabeth I introduced the 'poor rate' to support the deserving poor using taxes collected from the rich.
- [Continuities] Petty crimes such as selling underweight goods or cheating at cards still existed. As did other more serious crimes such as owing money, theft, murder and assault.

Law Enforcement: 1500-1700

[Policing]

- The **Hue and Cry** was still relied upon as was the ***posse comitatus***. The growth in the size and number of large towns and cities meant that these measures were less effective as it was easier for criminals to hide in the crowds.
- **Parish constables** remained the main defence against crime. It was a part-time job and they had no weapons or uniform. They did not go out on patrol and they spend most of the time deaing with minor issues such as illicit begging. Constables were allowed to whip Vagabonds and they were expected to detain suspects until they were tried.
- **Town Watchmen and Sergeants** were employed in large towns and cities to patrol the streets during the day and night. They were poorly paid and not

very effective. They were expected to arrest drunks and vagabonds as well as enforcing market rules and enforcing general law and order.

- **Citizens** were expected to deal with crime themselves. If someone was robbed it was up to them to get an arrest warrant from a magistrate and to arrest the criminal responsible.
- **Rewards**: These were offered to anyone who successfully captured a criminal responsible for more serious crimes.
- **Justices of the Peace (JPs)**: These were set up in the medieval period, but they became a major part of law enforcement c.1500-1700. They were important local people (landowners) who judged local/minor court cases at manor courts. They were allowed to fine people, put people in the stocks or order them to be whipped.

[Trials]

- **Courts:** There were a variety of different courts and all relied on a local jury. Manor courts handled local and minor crimes. JPs handled minor crimes on their own and met with other JPs in the same county four times a year for **Quarter Sessions**. At these meetings more serious crimes would be considered, JPs would have the right to pass the death sentence here. Royal Judges visited each county twice a year to handle the most serious offences. These were known as the **County Assizes**.
- **Ending of 'benefit of clergy':** By the 1600s many people could read and were able to cheat the 'benefit of clergy' rules so it was got rid of.
- **Habeus Corpus**: This act was passed in 1679, literally it means 'you have the body'. Put simply it prevented the authorities from locking up a person indefinitely without evidence that they were guilty. If they were not sent to court within a certain period of time they had to be released. Governments would sometimes have to invent evidence to stop people being released!

Punishment: 1500-1700

- During this period, laws concerning punishment for crimes got a lot stricter – this was known as the **Bloody Code.**
- Capital punishment was still used for major crimes such as murder, treason and arson, as well as stealing expensive items.
- Execution either by hanging or burning at the stake or beheading, were carried out publically to deter others from committing crime, just as they had been in the medieval period.
- After 1688 the number of crimes for which capital punishment was used massively increased. In 1688 it was 50, by 1765 it was 160 and by 1815 it was 225! By this time even very minor crimes such as poaching rabbits could lead to a death sentence.
- There were lots of different types of punishment in this period – some new and some old:
  - **The Pillory**: this was intended to humiliate the criminal who would have to stand with his hands and neck trapped in a wooden block whilst people through mud and rotten food at him all day long. If the crowd

strongly disapproved of the criminal's crime then they would throw stones – sometimes this could lead to death (i.e for a rapist).

- **Fines**: Money would have to be paid by the criminal for committing a crime such as swearing or drinking too much.
- **Whipping**: A form of corporal punishment that was very painful and was humiliating as it took place in public – used for minor crimes.
- **Houses of Correction**: These were also known as 'bridewells' and were used for criminals such as Vagabonds, unmarried mothers and repeat offenders. Inmates were made to do hard labour and were often whipped. It was believed that offenders would stop committing crimes if they were taught the value of hard work.
- **Gaols**: Gaols were used to hold people before their trial, they were not used as punishment themselves.
- **Carting**: This involved being paraded around the street and was intended to shame the criminal for a minor crime such as owning a brothel.
- **Dunking**: Women who argued or disobeyed their husbands could be convicted as 'scolds'. The punishment was the dunking stool in the local pond, this was also a punishment for women who argued in public or who swore.
- **Transportation**: From the 1660s criminals began to be sent thousands of miles away to the American colonies (later it would be Australia). Transportation for life was used for murderes as an alternative to the death penalty. Once in America, the criminals suffered conditions close to Slavery – it was still viewed as a softer alternative the death penalty.

2.3 <u>Case Studies</u>

<u>The Gunpowder Plotters – why were they punished so harshly?</u>

- When James I became king in 1603, many Catholics in England were hopeful that they would be allowed to worship more freely. However many of James' advisors were anti-Catholic and this led to anti-Catholic laws being passed. Most Catholics, although disappointed, accepted this change. There were a few who resisted however.
- Thirteen plotters, including the famous Guy Fawkes, plotted to kill the king and his parliament by blowing up the houses of parliament with gunpowder. The plot was foiled however and Fawkes was arrested.
- Fawkes was tortured until he revealed the names of the other plotters and signed a confession before he died. The other plotters were killed, some fighting to the death and some were hanged, drawn and quartered.
- **Hanged-Drawn-Quartered:** This was the brutal punishment for treason in this period. The criminal was hanged from the neck till nearly dead, then their bowels were cut out before their body was finally chopped into quarters and these were then sent out as a warning across the country.

- By plotting to kill the King Fawkes had committed a crime against God (The king had a 'divine right' to rule). James I feared possible further Catholic plots and did not have the option of employing counter-terrorism measures such as we have today. This is why Fawkes and the others were so brutally punished.
- Fawkes is an example of a '**heretic**', someone who went against the instructions of the official Church. Between 1500-1700 heretics were brutally punished.
- Executions included burning at the stake and disembowling through being hanged, drawn and quartered.

Matthew Hopkins and the Witch-Hunt – What caused the Witch-Hunt craze?

- Between 1645-47 there were 250 cases of Witchcraft in East Anglia alone. One man, Matthew Hopkins, was employed to catch Witches in this period.
- Witchcraft had been a crime for hundreds of years, but between 1500-1700 it became a very big deal.
- The religious turmoil in England had led to lots of religious changes, this meant that what used to be acceptable was now considered heretical (heresy was a very serious crime).
- As a result, many people were accused of being Witches and of working with the Devil – Catholics and Protestants would accuse each other!
- Ideas about Witches and how to spot them had developed as traditions and stereotypes for hundreds of years and this was closely linked to Christianity. This was still a very religious society!
- Matthew Hopkins went around East Anglia, accusing people of being Witches and collecting evidence against them. Hopkins used torture to get them to confess (his victims were often old women). He would accuse them of having the Devil's bite marks (usually moles, scars or old wounds) and of keeping a famliar (a pet animal associated with the devil).
- Trials included 'dunking' (rather like trial by cold water) and straight forward torture of the accused to get them to confess.
- Those found guilty of Witchcraft by Hopkins and others would be hanged, or drowned trying to prove their innocence.
- Witchcraft accusations like these were a sign of increased tension between the poor and those richer than them. Combine this with the instability caused by the Reformation and the Civil War and it is easy to see why peoples' fears led to an increase in the number of accusations.

Check your understanding: Answer these quick fire questions

1. Name four economic/social changes in c.1500-c.1700 and explain how they each effected crime and punishment?

2. What impact did the invention of the printer have on public perceptions of crime?

3. What impact did wealthy landowners have on crime and punishment in this period?

4. Name four different punishments for vagabonds?

5. Name four different types of criminal vagabond and how they all made money?

6. What was the 'poor rate' and who introduced it?

7. What was the job of the parish constable?

8. Who were the town watchmen and what was their job?

9. What was the role of the 'quarter sessions'?

10. How did the Habeus Corpus Act change crime and punishment?

11. Summarise the Bloody Code?

12. What was the 'pillory'?

13. Which two types of crime were punished by 'dunking'?

14. Why did the Gunpowder Plotters want to kill King James I?

15. Wy did King James I insist on such a brutal punishment for the plotters?

16. Explain what it mean to be hanged, drawn and quartered?

17. Explain what 'heresy' and 'treason' are?

18. What two major historical events contributed to the rise of the Witch-Craze?

19. Who was Matthew Hopkins?

20. What 'evidence' did Hopkins use to convict people of being witches?

Key Topic 3: c1700-c1900

3.1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity and

3.2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment

How did changes to society impact crime and punishment? 1700-1900

- Britain became the first country to i**ndustrialise** in the years after 1750.
- This not only changed the way people worked, but it also had an effect on society itself. When society changes, so too does **crime and punishment**.
- The **population** increased quickly and it was more mobile, people moved from the countryside into rapidly growing cities.
- Farming stopped being the standard job by which people earnt their wages. This was replaced by **employment in factories**.
- By the mid-eighteenth century only in 1 in 8 men could **vote** in an election, by 1885 nearly all men had the right. Governments were forced to do more to improve housing and health for ordinary people.
- **Harvests:** There was much less chance of poor harvests causing prises to rise and people to starve. Food could be imported cheaply and quickly from other countries.
- **Travel:** It became much easier to travel in this period. By the 1840s railways had become the major form of travel. They were much faster than roads and they quickly became cheaper too. The standards of roads were also improved.
- Britain became very **wealthy** as a country in this period, two centuries of trade and growth, alongside higher taxes meant that the government was able to pay for reforms that improved peoples' lives.
- **Education:** By 1850, 70% of the population could read and write where as a hundred years before only a minority could do so.
- Increasingly accepted **government involvement**: for centuries British people had resisted government interference in their affairs, seeing it a threat to freedom. This view changed however by the 1800s, as people realised there were certain things the government should be responsible for.
- New **ideas about human nature**: some argued that improving peoples' education, housing and healthcare would reduce the likelihood that they would commit a crime. Others however argued that it was only some types of people who would commit crimes (a criminal class of 'less evolved' people).

Change and continuity in types of crime: 1700-1900

- [Changes] In the busy cities that were full of people, pick-pocketing and petty theft became a regularly committed crime.
- Types of crime were the same as they had been in the previous period but how those crimes were prevented and treated changed a lot.
- Other new (or increasingly important) crimes included: Highway Men, Poaching, Smuggling, Unionising (see Tolpuddle Martyrs below).

- Some crimes were also got rid of such as Witchcraft. Witchcraft was no longer so scary as technology and science led to a greater understanding of how the world worked.
- Witchcraft was decriminalised in the eighteenth century and was seen as merely a con-trick.
- **Highway Robbery:** This was not a new crime, it began during the chaotic English Civil War. In the 1700-1900 period it became more common however as people increasingly travelled across the country on roads.
- The robbers targeted travellers in wooded and dark areas near the capital city and were a major disruption to trade. Using only a cheap pistol and a horse they held up stagecoaches carrying rich people and their possessions.
- Highway Robbers are romanticised in films and books but the reality was that they were ruthless!
- Highway robbery grew because coach travel increased, and more and more people travelled by coach on their own. Guns were easy to obtain and there were plenty of lonely areas outside of town where victims could be caught out. Highway men were able to use taverns to hide and sell their loot and horses were easy to come by. There was no police force or local constabulary to track down criminals across the county. Being a Highway Man was one option for desperate ex-soldiers who could not find employment.
- Highway robbery declined as quickly as it grew however. The open land they used around London was built on as the population expanded, mounted patrols were set up to guard the roads near London and people were offered rewards to report Highway men. JPs refused to license taverns that allowed highwaymen to hide their loot and stagecoaches were introduced o that tired horses could be changed and travellers could rest safely for the night.
- The banking system became more sophisticated over time and the number of banks grew. Fewer travellers carried large amounts of money worth stealing.
- **Smuggling:** Smuggling (illegally importing goods such as tea and tobacco) was a massive problem in coastal areas. By bringing in goods illegally and avoiding paying import taxes, the smugglers were denying the authorities their revenue (income) which they took very seriously.
- It was estimated that there were 20,000 active smugglers in 1748 which the authorities could not hope to stop. There were lots of reasons why it was difficult to prevent: it was very popular as it meant people (regardless of income) could get hold of luxury goods. It was a means for low earning labourers to increase their incomes and ordinary people often turned a blind eye and protected smugglers from the authorities because they gained from smuggling too. The smugglers often operated in gangs of upto a 100 men and were well armed, meaning the authories could not touch them – ie the Hawkhurst Gang.
- There were very few customs officers to enforce the law and the government could not afford to increase their numbers.
- **Poaching:** The crime of poaching, often described as a 'social crime' had been around for a long time. Authorities between 1700-1900 were not tolerant however and the 1723 Black Act made hunting deer, hare or rabbits a capital offence.

- Anyone found armed, disguised or with a blackened face in a hunting area was assumed to be poaching and could be executed.
- Many people believed the Black Act and laws like it were unfair because they protected the interests of wealthy landowners.
- Rich landowners employed Gamekeepers to protect the animals on their property from poachers – they were allowed to use weapons against poachers. This could lead to violent confrontations.
- Some people attempted to use poaching as a means of making money by selling their prizes on the Black Market
- **Tolpuddle Martyrs:** In the 1700s and 1800s labourers were forced to work for wealthy landowners for very little pay and there was nothing they could do to make the landowner increase their wages.
- In 1833, a group of labourers led by George Loveless asked their employer to increase their weekly wage after it had been cut several times – he refused. They decided to set up a union which each man swore an oath to keep secret. This secret oath was used by the government as an excuse to arrest the men.
- Joining a union was not illegal, and the men had not threatened to go on strike, but they were arrested and found guilty none the less. They were sentenced to seven years transportation to America.
- In Britain there was widespread outcry at the sentence, the men were regarded as martrs for union rights and a campaign was organised to defend them. 250,000 signed a petition and 25,000 people marched to London to protest.
- Eventually in March 1836, the Government granted all six men a pardon. However, it was another two years before all the men were able to return home.

Law Enforcement: 1700-1900 (inc Case Study – Sir Robert Peel: Penal Reform and the Metropolitan Police)

- 1700-1900 saw the responsibility for law enforcement passed from ordinary people and volunteers in the local community, to a full-time, trained and professional police force.
- The man responsible for the introduction of the first police force (in London), was the Home Secretary Sir Robert Peel.
- Peel was also a supporter of penal reform (see below).

[The Fielding Brothers]

- Henry and John Fielding were London Magistrates who were in charge of Bow Street Magistrates' Court in 1748, they realised more men were needed on London's streets to control crime.
- The Fielding Brothers blamed the rise in crime on the break down in law and order and the corruption of politicians. They introduced a horse patrol to stop Highway Men around London and it was effective (until it was temporarily abandoned!)

- The Fielding Brothers also established the Bow Street Runners, a team of thief-takers who patrolled the streets of London in the evenings. They also investigated crimes and presented evidence in Court.

[Peel and the Metropolitan Police Force]

- The 1829 Metropolitan Police Act replaced the system of watchmen and parish constables. It was composed of 3,200 men who wore a uniform.
- There were concerns that a police force were a threat to public freedom but Peel was able to persuade politicians that the police were necessary to reduce crime.
- New higher taxes meant that the government was able to pay for the new force.
- That had been both a rise in crime and a rise in the fear of crime and this led to greater demand for something to be done about it.
- There was a real fear of revolution, like the one that happened in France and a new police force seemed like a way to prevent it.
- The rapid growth of new cities like London meant that the old Watchmen and Constables were no use. There were too many people crammed into closely-packed houses and streets.
- After 1829 the police force spread out from London. In 1835 a new law allowed police forces to be set up in different towns, and in 1839 all of England's counties were allowed to too. In 1842 the first detective force was set up in London to investigate and solve crimes. By 1856 it was compulsory for all towns and counties to have a police force and they were widely respected by the public.
- Alongside Sir Robert Peel, Commissioners Edward Henderson and Charles Warren contributed to the modernisation of policing in England, with the introduction of greater organisation and military drill.
- Charles Warren was heavily criticised for introducing too many military ideas to the police. Many people were suspicious of the new police force which looked like a new government army – Warren's reaction to a protest in Trafalgar which was heavily put down by armed police officers merely increased this criticism.
- In 1878 The Metropolitan Police detective force was reorganised into the Criminal Investigation Department (CID).

Punishment: 1700-1900 (inc Case Study – Pentonville Prison)

[The end of the Bloody Code]

- The Bloody Code had meant harsh punishments for crimes c.1500-1700, but by the 1800s it was increasingly seen as inappropriate.
- In 1808 Sir Samuel Romilly (a pro-Reform MP) gets a law passed that abolishes the death penalty for pick-pockets.
- In the 1820s and 1830s nearly all the crimes that the Bloody Code had made capital offences were removed from the list with only murder and treason remaining.
- The reasons for why the Bloody Code was abolished are as follows:

- *Juries would not convict*: Even in the early 1700s only 40% of people guilty of capital crimes were actually hanged. By the 1800s this had fallen to 10%. Juries were frequently unwilling to find people guilty if they thought the punishment was too harsh. With courts unwilling to pass the death sentence, criminals felt confident they could get away with it.
- *Public executions*: These were increasingly seen as risky due to the constant fear of revolution. Large crowds would gather to watch the execution and the authorities feared that if they sympathised with the victim they might start a riot. The last public execution took place in 1868.
- *Ideas about punishments were changing*: It was increasingly thought that the Bloody code was too brutal and that the severity of the punishment should match the severity of the crime. By the 1780s Transportation had become the main replacement to execution.

[Transportation]

- Transportation was the system by which convicted criminals were removed from the country by being sent abroad. At first, the authorities had sent criminals to America, but after the American colonies became independent in 1776, they had to look for an alternative – they chose Australia.
- Australia was 4 months by boat and it seemed like a very strong deterrent as people were very scared of the unknown.
- It was thought it would be successful because it would provide a punishment less harsh than hanging so juries will convict, it would be harsh enough to terrify criminals and deter them, it would reduce crime in Britain by removing criminals, it would help claim the new land of Australia for Britain and it would reform criminals through hard work.
- Once a criminal had been sentenced to Transportation it could still take several months before they arrive in Australia and began a very different life. They would be kept temporarily in old ships called hulks that were cramped and full of disease. They worked in chains whilst they waited.
- Only 1% died on the journey itself. When they arrived, each convict was assigned to a settler who would give them work to do and provide them with basic food, clothing and shelter. If you behaved well you could earn a 'ticket of leave' (early release).
- Prisoners who committed further crimes were flogged or sent to more distant settlements where treatment was frequently harsh. If prisoner failed to complete their sentence or tried to escape they were executed.
- Transportation reached its height in 1833 when 36 ships and 6,779 prisoners were sent to Australia. But there were already doubts about how successful it was.
- Transportation began to decline in the 1840s as prisons were increasingly used. It was finally ended in 1857 largely due to Australian settlers protesting against the 'dumping' of convicts on their territory. The government needed

to keep the settlers happy so that it could keep control of the territory half way around the world.

- Australia was no longer such a scary prospect as the discovery of Gold there in 1851 and the possibility of earning higher wages than in Britain made it seem more attractive.

[Prison and the Pentonville Case Study]

- Before the 19th century prisons played only a minor role in the legal system. Houses of Correction were used for prostitutes and vagabonds but generally prisons were only used to house criminals before their trials.
- In 1777 there were only 4,000 people in jail and of those 60% were debtors (people who owed money). But over the next 100 years there were three key changes:
    1. **Imprisonment became the normal method of punishing criminals**
    2. **Prisons became more important as the reasons for punishment changed:** Instead of deterrence, punishment now focussed on reforming prisoners.
    3. **The huge increase in prisoners led to the government taking over the whole prison system:** this led to new rules about prisoners' work, diet, health and other aspects of prison life.

Key Changes

- Previously, all prisoners were housed together. Hardened criminals and first offenders, debtors, lunatics, women and children. These were 'schools of crime'.
- Prison warders were unpaid. They earned money by charging the prisoners fees. That meant richer prisoners could buy themselves their own rooms, better food and drink, visitors and pets. Those who could afford little suffered more.
- The poor relied on local charities to pay their costs and life was grim, prisoners often lived in overcrowded conditions. Even seeing a doctor cost money and because prisons were damp and dirty, disease such as typhus were rampant.
- In 1823 the Gaols Act was passed:
    - Hardened criminals and first time criminals were seperated.
    - All prisoners should have proper food and no pets.
    - Paid prisoner warders.
    - Prisons should be kept hygienic.
    - Separate male and female warders.
    - All prisoners to attend chapel to receive religious instruction from the chaplain.
    - Magistrates have a duty to visit prisons and make sure they are up to scratch.
- **John Howard:** A prison inspector shocked by the state of prisons.
- He published a report in 1777: *The State of Prisons in England and Wales* which strongly attacked prisoners' fees.
- Howard was criticised for being too lenient by many, but he recommended many of the changes later covered by the Gaols act.

- **Elizabeth Fry:** Fry was a Quaker (a type of Christian) with a strong religious background. She believed strongly that every criminal could be reformed.
- She visited women in Newgate prison and was horrified at what she found. Three hundred women, some with babies or small children, who were crammed into three rooms.
- She reported that women prisoners were exploited by the male warders. She set up religious prayer groups to support female prisons and a school in Newgate for the Children, teaching them useful skills such as knitting and sowing which they could later use to gain employment.
- **Pentonville and the Separate System:** The first of the new reformed prisons to be built was Pentonville Prison – they were built to implement reform and to handle the increasing numbers of prisoners who were no longer being transported. Pentonville was set up not just to deter but to reform.
- Pentonville used the **separate system**. Prisoners had to spend nearly all their time alone and in their cells. Contact with other prisoners was made as difficult as possible. The idea was that prisoners would spend the time reflecting on their past mistakes and how they could improve their behavior. Prisoners would have to wear masks so they could not talk.
- The system effectively isolated prisoners for the whole of their sentence. On the plus side this meant that they could not negatively influence one another, but the solitary confinement led to 22 prisoners going mad, 26 having nervous breakdowns and 3 committed suicide in the first eight years.
- The separate system was also very costly in terms of building a prison designed to separate everyone, and in terms of day to day arrangements.
- The **Silent System** was introduced as an alternative to the separate system. Crime was falling in this period and less people were being hanged, this meant that prisons had to be the main way of stopping crime from reoccurign. The fear of crime was still high with newspapers and penny dreadfuls spreading dramatic stories about violent crime.
- People believed increasingly that only certain types of people committed crime, and that they had to be treated toughly. This led to the Silent System.
- Prisoners were expected to be silent at all times, they would be whipped or put on a diet of bread and water if they did not do this. Hard wooden bunks repalced hammocks to sleep on, this was designed to be deliberately uncomfortable. Food was monotonous with the same menu, everyday, all year long. Prisoners were expected to take part in 'hard labour' – deliberatly pointless work (like unpicking rope) for several hours every day.

Check your understanding: Answer these quick fire questions

1. Why did incidents of pick-pocketing increase in this period?

2. How did an increased possibility of travel effect crime and punishment?

3. What were 'highway men' and why were they threat?

4. How was the threat of 'highway men' combatted?

5. What was 'smuggling' and why was it a problem?

6. What was 'poaching' and why were laws about it so harsh?

7. Who were the Tolpuddle Martyrs and why were they punished so harshly?

8. What was the role of the Fielding brothers in law enforcement?

9. What two big contributions did Sir Robert Peel make to crime and punishment in this period?

10. Why were public executions eventually abandoned?

11. What was 'transportation'?

12. What was a 'ticket of leave'?

13. Why was 'transportation' abandoned as a punishment for serious crimes?

14. Name three problems with the unreformed prison system?

15. What was the 'separate' prison system?

16. What was the 'silent' prison system?

17. Explain the role of Sir Samuel Romilly in penal reform?

18. Explain the role of John Howard in prison reform?

19. Explain the role of Elizabeth Fry in prison reform?

20. How did the 1823 Gaols Act change prisons?

Key Topic 4: c1900-present

4.1 Nature and changing definitions of criminal activity and

4.2 The nature of law enforcement and punishment

Crime: Change and Continuity

[Which social changes affected crime and punishment, c.1900-present]

- Better standards of living: since 1900 people have become better fed, better clothed and better housed with the Welfare State providing a safety net for the most vulnerable.
- The gap between the richest and the poorest however continues to grow, with many people feeling poorer even though absolute poverty has declined.
- Crime has increased since 1900, but not nearly as much as the fear of crime in the media would suggest.
- It is now much easier to report crimes thanks to advances in technology, so we hear about crime more often.
- Police recording of crime has also become more consistent.

[New Crimes]

- 'Hate Crimes' = crimes motivated by racial, sexual or other types of prejudice. This was introduced in 2007!
- Drug offences have become a serious issue since 1900, as they often lead to other types of crime too. Whilst petty theft has always been a crime, drug addiction has led to an increase in theft and shoplifting. The rise in shoplifting is also due to the increased visibility and availability of valuable goods.
- The growth of the internet has made it possible for people to commit online crimes such as hacking into databases and stealing peoples' bank details. Computer crime involving online fraud and pirating has also emerged as a new crime.
- Terrorist attacks have become increasingly focussed on by the media, although not a new crime, the activities of major terrorist groups such as the IRA, Al Qaeda and ISIL have made people much more aware of this type of crime.
- Car Crime: Since 1900 the motorcar has become incredibly popular, this has led to the rise of car theft. Other car related crimes have actually decreased as cars have become safer thanks to new laws requiring licences.
- Murder has increased but not as much as other crimes.
- Violent crime and sexual offences have always existed, but both show increases in the later 20th century, this is partly due to people being more prepared to report these crimes.
- Whilst smuggling was a major crime in c.1500-1700 it is also a large scale crime today. So is it a change or a continuity?

- Modern smuggling often involves people bringing illicit goods into the country via planes as well as boats, often the goods are drugs which are hidden <u>inside</u> a human being (known as a drugs mule).
- High public demand for legal goods such as alcohol and tobacco means that these continue to be a popular product to bring into the country illegal by air, sea or train. People smuggling (Human Trafficking) has also increased as a result of tougher immigration laws and large numbers of refugees fleeing warzones such as Syria.

Law Enforcement: 1900-Present

[The Police]

- The powers that the police have to question, search or arrest suspects has changed much since 1900.
- Each police force in England and Wales employs Crime Prevention Officers (CPOs) to advise local people on crime prevention and security (ie locks and alarms).
- There has been an increased emphasis on catching young offenders and intervening in their lives to stop them reoffending.
- In 1982 the Neighbourhood Watch was invented. Members of the community report suspicious behavior to the police who can then investigate. By 2007 Neighbourhood Watch became a national network.
- Ordinary police officers do not carry firearms but still have batons or truncheons. Pepper Spray or CS Gas is used to control violent suspects. Some officers are also trained to use tasers. Firearm usage is reserved for high risk situations and highly trained officers.
- All new recruits undergo a fourteen week basic training course.
- The police use CCTV recordings to prevent crime and identify criminals. They also use the Automatic Number Plate Recognition system (ANPR).
- All police officers carry two-way radio units, previously these had only been in a police car.
- Police officers have also become increasingly involved in non-crime related incidents such as anti-social behaviour, drunkeness, missing persons enquiries and incidents linked to mental health. They also keep order at large gatherings such as demonstrations and sport fixtures.
- Advances in technology have allowed the introduction of DNA sampling, which was first used in a case in 1988. This was a major improvement on the use of finger printing and blood analysis which began in 1901.
- Because crime has become more varied and complex, the police have increasingly developed specialised groups such as the Fraud and Drug Squads and dog-handlers. The police began an online database for cases and evidence called the Police National Computer (PNC).
- The total number of police officers is 126,818 in England and Wales. Women first appeared in the police force in 1920. They make up 28% of the police force today.

[Prisons]

- Towards then of the 1700-1900 period prisons became the most common form of law enforcement/punishment. Since 1900 however there have been significant changes to how prisons operate and what life is like for inmates.
- By 1900 prisons had moved away from the separate system and making prisoners perform meaningless tasks, but there were some big changes subsequently.
- After 1922 solitary confinement was ended and prisoners were allowed to associate with each other.
- Prisoners were no longer forced to shave their heads or wear a conspicuous uniform with arrows on it.
- The diet, heating and conditions in cells were gradually improved and more visitors were allowed.
- Teachers began to be employed in prisons to help inmates have a better chance of finding work when they were released.
- The first 'open' prison was built in 1933 with prisoners given increasingly more freedom, including being allowed on 'day release' to work. The idea was to prepare prisoners for life after prison and to integrate them into the community again.
- Because the fear of crime had declined since the 19th century, Governments were under less pressure to treat crime so harshly. Fewer and fewer people believed that criminals inherited their habits and more people began to see the connection between crime and poverty. This led to hopes that better treatment and education of inmates would reduce reoffence.
- After the 1940s the prison population rose rapidly right up until the present day, the reasons for this include:
    - The average length of sentences has increased, so prisoners are locked away for longer.
    - There is an increased chance of prison sentences for certain crimes, particularly sexual, violent or drug related crime.
    - The number of people on remand (awaiting trial in prison) has increased.
- A consequence of this has been prison overcrowding which became a major issue in the 1980s. Reduced budgets and less staff has made this problem worse.
- Violence in prison and the number of recorded deaths is an additional problem.
- OFSTED judged over half of England and Wales' prisons as inadequate – this does little to solve the problem that nearly half of all prisoners left school without qualifications and one in five need help with literacy and maths.
- Public attitude to crime has a big impact on law enforcement – public fear of crime leads to harsher laws for example. Are modern prisons really that much better?
- Non-custodial alternatives have been developed because of evidence which shows that prison sentences are not always effective at preventing re-

offending and preventing young criminals being negatively influenced by hardened criminals. Prisons are also expensive with the government having to pay for prisoners' basic needs as well as giving prison staff and their family wages and support.

- Prison also does not deal with the social or personal issues that caused someone to commit a crime. When released, prisoners return to the environment that led them to commit crime in the first place.
- Non-custodial alternatives include:
    - Probation: a prisoner is released but has to report to a prison officer once a week.
    - Increased time span for paying fines (giving people more time to pay rather than go to prison.)
    - Birching (got rid of in 1967) a punishment similar to caning.
    - Parole: prisoners no longer have to serve their whole sentence if they behave well.
    - Suspended sentences: if offenders did not re-offend they were not sent to prison.
    - Electronic tagging: offenders wear an electric tag which tracks their locations and which allows the police to impose a 'curfew' (a limit on where they go and when).
    - Community Service Orders: Offenders are required to do between 40 and 300 hours of unpaid work in the community.

[Young Offenders]

- **Juvenile delinquents:** This was the Victorian phrase for young offenders and they treated them just as harshly as adults. After 1900, ideas about how to treat young offenders were changing. The emphasis was placed on reforming young offenders, by giving them positive influences and a good environment.
- In 1902 the first **Borstal** was opened, this was designed to separate young offenders from hardened criminals. They were run like strict schools with lots of sport and competitions. The usual sentence was six months to two years.
- Around 60% of Borstal innmates went on to reoffend and there was an increase in youth crime. Borstals were closed down in 1982 and the public attitude shifted towards harsher punishments.
- **Youth Detention Centres** were introduced in 1982 – they emphasised military discipline and rigid rules, but this too failed to curb youth crime.
- Between 1932-1959 the government introduced **'approved schools'** where the young inmates were taught skills such as bricklaying. However, after rioting, large numbers of children absconding (truanting) and lots of public criticism these schools were closed.
- In 1948 **'attendance centres'** were introduced. These are non-custodial centres where young offenders aged 10-21 were expected to attend sessions (daily or weekly). They teach basic literacy and numeracy, life skills such as how to apply for jobs, manage money and cook. The centres work with 18-24 year olds today and encourage young offenders to think about the impact of

crime in the community and to be aware of key issues such as drugs and sexual health.

- Today, youth offence remains high (as do rates of re-offending). There are a number of organisations designed to try and fight this:
    - Custody is seen as a last resort, if you are under 18 you can be held in a **'secure childrens' home'**, a **'secure training centre'** or a **'young offenders institute (very similar to prisons)'**.
    - Counselling, as well as non-custodial measures such as tagging and curfews are used.
    - Parents can be punished with fines for example for not controlling their children appropraitely, children can also be removed from their parents' homes and taken in to care.
    - Youth courts work with agencies such as the police, schools, social workers and probation officers to prevent young people settling for a life of crime.

[The ending of the Death Penalty – Including the Derek Bentley Case Study]

- Throughout the unit, the death penalty has always been the ultimate punishment. But as you saw with the ending of the Bloody Code, there have always been arguments for and against it.
- After 1900, pressure to get rid of capital punishment increased and in 1965 the Home Secretary Roy Jenkins proposed that it be scrapped.
- Arguments for capital punishment included:
    - It was a deterrent and if was removed criminals were more likely to carry weapons as they knew that arrest did not mean death.
    - Life imprisonment was more expensive and some would say more cruel.
    - Murderers who served a sentence might kill again if released.
    - Execution showed the proper contempt for murder and avenged the life of the victim.
- Arguments against capital punishment included:
    - Other european countries had already got rid of it and crime had not noticeably increased.
    - Mistakes were made and that meant the death of innocent people.
    - Most murderers act without planning or thinking, therefore capital punishment did not deter them.
    - Execution was against the teachings of different religions and the Christian idea of forgiveness and the 'sanctity of life'.
- After 1840 there were only 15 executions per year on average (all for murder).
- In 1957 hanging remained only in use for the following crimes:
    - Murder of a police officer or prison officer,
    - Murder by shooting or explosion,
    - Murder whilst resisting arrest,
    - Murder while carrying out a theft,
    - Murder of more than one person.

- As a result the average fell to only 4 executions per year. But to many people the law seemed unfair, why was shooting someone worse than poisoning them?
- The impact of WWII contributed to the ending of the death penalty. The horrors of the Holocaust and other genocide led to a feeling that the death penalty was unchristian and barbaric. Having fought the evil of Nazism it seemed wrong to copy their methods.
- In 1948 the United Nations issued its *Declaration of Human Rights* which Britain signed up to, 'everyone has a right to life…'
- In 1965 all crimes except treason in times of war and piracy were removed from the capital punishment list. Parliament voted four years later to abolish it completely.
- There were several high profile cases that contributed to public opinion turning against capital punishment, these included: Timothy Evans, Ruth Ellis and Derek Bentley.
- **Timothy Evans:** Evans was hanged in 1950, but pardoned for his crime in 1966. He was wrongly convicted of the murder of his wife at their home – the now infamous 10 Rillington Place. The real murder was their lodger, the serial killer John Christie. Christie murdered Evans' wife and told Evans that she had died in a botched abortion by Christie, Evans felt guilty and responsible for his wife's death because she had been pregnant. Evans confessed to the crime out of guilt and was hanged. Christie was later found to responsible for the deaths of eight other people.
- **Ruth Ellis:** The last woman to be hanged, Ellis was executed in 1956 for the murder (by shooting) of her lover David Blakely. Their relationship had been an abusive one with her often being beaten. It was clear she was the killer but there was a lot of public sympathy for her, especially due to her glamorous appearance in the media.
- **Derek Bentley:** In 1953, a 19 year old Derek Bentley was hanged for the murder of a policeman. Derek had severe learning difficulties and suffered from epilepsy, he struggled to make friends or hold down a basic job. He was caught during an attempted robbery along with a sixteen year old, the sixteen year old was armed and Bentley was carrying a knife and a knuckle duster. During the arrest Bentley was heard to shout 'let him have it' to his companion, who then shot a policeman. They were both charged with murder but the sixteen year old was too young to face the death penalty. The court case was ambiguous, was Bentley mentally capable enough to stand trial? When Bentley shouted 'let him have it', couldn't he have just meant, 'let him have it (the gun)'? The jury found Bentley guilty, but asked that he be shown mercy. Bentley was later executed despite a massive public outcry. In 1998 Bentley was posthumously cleared of the charge, with the review finding that the original trial was unfair as the judge had put pressure on the jury to convict Bentley. Many believed that this trial was a miscarriage of justice and that it made the capital punishment law look cruel and immoral.

[Case Study c.1900-present: Treatment of Conscientous Objectors]

- Conscientous objectors (Cos) refused to take part in wars or conflict for moral reasons. They are pacifists (people who believe violence is always wrong).
- This is not usually a problem as professional armies recruit for volunteers, those who objected to fighting simply avoided volunteering.
- However, in **WWI**, the government could not simply rely on volunteers as by 1916 (two years in) the casualty rate was too high.
- The government introduced conscription; conscription meant that all single men aged between 18 and 41 were required to enlist, it was soon extended to include married men.
- Conscription raised a further 2.5 million soldiers, only 16,000 men refused to join because they were COs.
- Most of the COs refused to fight on religious grounds, pointing to the Bible quote: 'thou shalt not kill'.
- Others refused to fight for political reasons, they saw WWI as a fight between ruling elites, not between ordinary people.
- Public support rested with the war, COs were treated with hostility often being attacked as cowards and being physically attacked.
- COs were forced to appear before a special court to state their reasons for not fighting. The tribunals were often made up of ex-soldiers and other biased individuals.
- Some COs were given alternative work, supporting the war at home, including dangerous non-fighting roles such as driving ambulances.
- Over 6,000 COs refused to accept the tribunals' decisions and were put in prison where they faced solitary confinement, hard labour and a long sentence.
- 73 COs died in prison, even after the war COs were punished, their right to vote was removed until 1926.
- In **WWII** conscriptions was introduced again in 1939, (59,162) people registered as COs. This time they were treated differently by the authorities.
- The tribunals were still held, but ex-soldiers could not be a member.
- More effort was made to find COs alternative roles such as farming or factory work, they were only sent to prison as a last resort.
- The public were slower to change however, many COs were still attacked by newspapers and were sacked from their jobs. They were openly accused of cowardice on the streets.

Check your understanding: Answer these quick fire questions

1. What is a 'hate crime'?

2. What crime has increased as a result of high numbers of refugees fleeing warzones?

3. Why is terrorism perceived as such a common crime today as opposed to the past?

4. How does modern day smuggling differ from the 1700s?

5. What new crimes have emerged as the result of the internet? (Name two)

6. Why have the number of violent/sexual crimes increased?

7. Explain how the 'neighbourhood watch' works?

8. Name three technological innovations that have aided the police?

9. Name three changes to prisons after 1923?

10. What has been the single biggest problem with prisons since the 1980's and why?

11. Name three non-custodial alternatives to prison?

12. Explain community service orders?

13. Name three ways that juvenile offenders have/are dealt with in the criminal justice system?

14. What were 'approved schools'?

15. What were 'Borstals'?

16. After 1957, only a few crimes were punishable with death, name three?

17. Explain how WWII contributed to the abolition of the death penalty?

18. Explain how Evans case contributed to the abolition of the death penalty?

19. Explain how the Ruth Ellis case contributed to the abolition of the death penalty?

20. Explain how the Derek Bentley case contributed to the abolition of the death penalty

Key Topic 5: The historic environment - Whitechapel, c1870-c1900: crime, policing and the inner city

When revising this topic, remember to combine it with the information in this guide about crime and punishment in 1700-1900!

5.1 Whitechapel, c1870–c1900: crime, policing and the inner city

The Local Context of Whitechapel

- Alongside the infamous **Jack the Ripper** case, there were other murders in Whitechapel such as the **Harriet Lane case.**
- These gory murders are not the only crimes that occurred in Whitechapel 1870-1900 however. It is important not to focus too much on them if we are going to have an accurate picture of what Whitechapel was like.
- Whitechapel is an area of London's East end. 1870-1900 it was an area of inner city poverty full of lots of different types of people.
- Many of the people were very poor, living areas known as 'rookeries' – these were terribly overcrowded lodging houses where people lived in awful conditions.
- People only spent a night or two in each place, they tried to earn enough during the day to pay for the next night's 'doss' (place to stay), usually 4d.
- Other parts of Whitechapel were more respectable and improved during the period.
- This unit focusses on three key locations within Victorian Whitechapel: Flower and Dean Street, Whitechapel Workhouse and Casual ward, The Peabody Estate.
    - Flower and Dean Street was a well-known rookery. People were packed in ancient houses that were in disrepair, the area was rife with disease, alcohol and drug abuse and prostitution. Strangely, Booth's map shows that this area was very close to a much wealthier middleclass part of Whitechapel (this was a pattern across Whitechapel as a whole).
    - Whitechapel Workhouse and Casual Ward was where people went who could not find rooms in a doss house. It was not a popular choice, due to the strict rules governing how people were fed, clothed and behaved whilst they were there. Families would be separated and people for much of the time were not allowed to speak. Work included unpicking old rope, or kitchen and cleaning work. This was to stop people staying on at the workhouse thanks to tax payers' money.
    - The Peabody Estate was another well-known rookery with a large number of lodging houses. You had more than twice the chance of dying if you lived here than anywhere else in London. In 1876 the land was sold for slum clearance by the government, but they could not find any investors. An American banker set up a charity which redeveloped the area with cheap flats. The improvements made them much better to live in but the rent was still too high for many. This made

overcrowding in other parts of Whitechapel worse as people were forced to find somewhere else to live.

- **Fear of crime:** Many people in Whitechapel lived under the threat of homelessness. Wealthier Victorians feared crime and they feared the poor of Whitechapel who were associated with crime. The Victorians had different explanations for crime. Some thought that there was a criminal underclass, or 'residuum' – natural criminals, born to steal, lie and rob. The residuum, it was thought, were attracted to the hard-working people of London and lived off them, like criminal parasites.
- **Lodging houses and pubs:** Some believed that criminal behaviour was spread by overcrowding and unhealthy living conditions. A clergyman named Andrew Mearns argues that lodging houses and pubs were places in which crime would be transmitted from habitual criminals to the decent people forced to live alongside them. (See the section early about Prison Reform!).
- **Drink:** Alcohol was one of the ways of coping with the difficulties of life in Whitechapel; alcohol addiction often led to crime. Drink could lead to people committing crimes they might not otherwise commit, it would also lead to people becoming victims of crimes they otherwise would not have suffered, and i.e. they were more vulnerable to robbery.
- *It is important to remember that the way in which national newspapers and other sources described Whitechapel, reflects their fears, attitudes and prejudices. But what is clear is that Whitechapel in 1870-1900 was a tough place to live.*

The changing Whitechapel population

- Whitechapel had long been a place that attracted immigrants – there were jobs, and cheap places to stay.
- Communities of immigrants built up over time, these included Irish and eastern European Jewry.
- Irish workers dominated the docks and had many of their own lodging houses.
- Jews from Russia who fled following the assassination of Tsar Alexander II found it hard to integrate when they arrived between 1881-1891 (there were 30,000 of them). This was due to language barriers and cultural factors such as religious holidays and rituals.
- The Jewish community became isolated from the rest of the Whitechapel population, as Jews were forced to employ one another and live in the same area. This made them a target for scapegoating and xenophobia.
- Immigration brought with it new ideas about politics, the Victorian public feared the influence of socialist and anarchic ideas – this was made worse by the regular occurrence of revolutions on the European mainland.
- The Irish immigrant community was targeted because of their devout Catholicism and also because of the rise of Irish (Fenian) Nationalism and several terrorist attacks carried out in its name.
- Some Jewish immigrants set up socialist organisations and a socialist newspaper, this increased prejudiced against the Jewish community. They were regularly accused of involvement in the Jack the Ripper case.

- Competition for living space which was increased by slum clearance operations and attempts at reform led to the immigrant community coming into greater competition with the locals and this raised tensions.

Policing in Whitechapel

- Because it was such a poor area, Whitechapel could not afford to pay for Watchmen to protect people from crime in the early 19th century. This was part of the reason Peel wanted to reform the system.
- The Whitechapel area came under the responsibility of 'H' division who was run by a superintendent constable, and a hierarchy of policemen below him.
- In 1885, Whitechapel possessed 19 inspectors, 44 sergeants 441 constables. This meant that there were 505 policemen in an area whose population was 176,000 (roughly 1:300).
- H Division's main police station was on Leman Street
- Most of Whitechapel's criminal cases were at the Thames Police court, only the most serious crimes were heard at the old Bailey.
- Policing in Whitechapel was most visibly seen due to the 'beat constable'. His role was to be an obvious presence and to arrest those caught committing crimes.
- The Beat Constable wore woollen trousers and a jacket, both a deep blue-black with shiny buttons. The top hat was replaced in 1863 by a more protective helmet. The constable carried a truncheon to defend himself from attack as well as a pair of cuffs. He also possessed a small oil fired lamp.
- Each constable had a specific route around Whitechapel that he had to patrol at specific times. This was designed so that each constable could communicate with his sergeant in order to coordinate responses to crime. Even the pace that the constable had to walk at was dictated!
- During the day each 'beat' would take about half an hour. The beat at night time was half as long, but completed twice as often – this was so burglars and other criminals had less time to commit their crimes undercover at night.
- This was a physically tiring job, carried out in wooden soled shoes!
- Policemen usually completed their beat alone and were expected to quickly get to know the route, its main features, possible crime hotspots etc.
- Local pub owners would often leave a free pint for the local constable in return for a 'good word' when the pub applied to renew its licence. Constables were also encouraged to communicate with the local watchmen.
- Every month each policeman would swap his beat, this was to prevent possible long term corruption.
- There were some clear disadvantages to the Beat system: criminals would watch the police and learn when they were most likely to be around, they would also set traps so that they would know if a constable had tried to open a door or walk down a particular side alley.

Investigative policing in Whitechapel

- Since the first days of the Metropolitan police in 1829, people were suspicious of investigating crime – this seemed too much like snooping.
- In 1842 a small detective division was created at the Met's headquarters – Scotland Yard.
- It wasn't until 1870 that under Commissioner Henderson decided to recruit more detectives and to distribute them out to work alongside each division.
- The first attempt at this did not work well, there were cases of mistaken identity leading to unreasonable arrests and of corruption (in one instance a group of detectives deliberately protected a gang which had robbed thousands of francs from French gamblers).
- The detective system was reorganised with a new single organisation called the Criminal Investigation Division (CID) set up out of Scotland Yard in Westminster, London.
- Charles Howard Vincent led CID, he centralised its organisation and increased pay to attract the best constables. He encouraged detectives to work in plain clothes to avoid detection and to investigate potential crimes rather than just waiting for them to happen.
- A famous example of an inspector who rose up through the ranks was Inspector Reid, popularised in *BBC/Amazon's Ripper Street.*
- Each London Inspector was given a 'warrant number' which means historians can trace the careers of particular recruits from their first day in the force.
- Each day the inspectors would meet with their Chief Inspector so that the list of unsolved crimes could be reviewed and the list of habitual criminals updated. These 'habitual criminals' were made to carry a 'ticket of leave' which they had to present to any constable if requested to.
- Investigation techniques were primitive at this time, the main method of getting evidence was to gather descriptions and witness statements, taking casts of footprints or getting tips from an informant – finger printing, photography etc. was still in its infancy.
- Policing Whitechapel was difficult:
    - First of all there was its geography, the overcrowded slums, dimly lit alley ways and irregular buildings made it easy for criminals to hide from potential victims and the police.
    - The prevalence of alcohol in Whitechapel also made life more difficult and dangerous for the police who had to deal with intoxicated and potentially threatening citizens.
    - Policemen had to keep a close eye on Whitechapel's many pubs. They had to check they were being closed at the correct time, that they were not holding illegal boxing matches and that they were not allowing gambling to take place.
    - In 1870 it was made illegal to serve alcohol to someone who was already drunk, a pub could lose its licence if it was caught out.
    - The police had to confront organised gangs in Whitechapel who ran smuggling and protection rackets (protection rackets involved threatening local business owners into paying money or risking having their shops burnt down or robbed).

- Whilst prostitution was not itself a crime, running a brothel was. For many of the poorest women in Whitechapel, it was the only way they could make enough money to survive or to sustain their alcohol addiction. *All the victims of Jack the Ripper were prostitutes.*
- The police were made nervous by the presence of many eastern European Jews in Whitechapel because they spoke a foreign language (Yiddish) and because the constables were fed stereotyped, anti-Semitic stories about Jews by the newspapers.
- Whitechapel saw a number of political demonstrations and strikes in the period 1870-1900, this was fed by the poor working conditions many of the immigrants faced and by new political ideas from Europe. Police constables had to control crowds with thousands of people in and were led on some occasions to arrest the leaders for disturbing the peace.
- Attacks on Jews were also a common place problem for constables to deal with, religious tensions between Jews and Christians was often the cause, or merely the property that a Jew owned.

- The 'Jack the Ripper' case demonstrates the different investigative techniques available to the 'H' Division detectives under Fred Aberline:
  - A carefully detailed and written observation of the crime scene.
  - Black and White photographs of the crime scene and the victim's body before and after the post-mortem.
  - Sketches of what the criminal might look like, as well as the location of the victim's body and details about the crime scene.
  - Interviews gained by going from house to house and to local businesses, these were designed to detect new information.
  - Autopsy (examination by a medical professional of the victim's body).
  - Witness statements which documented word for word what a witness said during questioning.
  - Printed handouts giving the public basic information about a crime and a request for them to talk to the police if they knew anything.
  - Identification parades were commonly used to help identify criminals.
  - Criminal profiles based on evidence collected and medical/psychological expertise were written up to help narrow down the possible criminals.
- Identifying the criminal often relied on comparing descriptions from witnesses (which were often made up!) Drawing sketches of the criminal using mug-shots and facial measurements was not introduced till the 1890s.

The National Policing context

- Often the national newspapers made the detectives' work more complicated by printing sensationalist and dramatic stories about current crimes being investigated.

- The Ripper case led to the resignation of multiple heads of CID who were under a lot of pressure from the media.
- People would often write into the newspapers giving their opinion on what should be done better by the police!
- The failure to catch the 'Ripper' just meant the stories became more and more sensational, especially as the police refused to release a lot of details about each of the Ripper murders.
- Anonymous writers sent in letters claiming to be the Ripper, this only made the police's job more difficult as the detail in the letters made it seem possible that they had been written by the real killer.
- The Whitechapel Vigilance Committee was set up by George Lusk – a builder in Whitechapel who thought that not enough was being done to catch the Ripper.
- The committee hired two private detectives to investigate the killings, they published posters offering a reward (they failed to persuade the government to fund this).

5.2 Knowledge, selection and use of sources for historical enquiries

Relevant local sources

- The Old Bailey website which contains the records of the Old Bailey criminal courthouse (record of all crimes committed in Whitechapel at this time).
- This allows us to see the total number of different types of crimes. These include:
    - **Deception**: Dishonestly getting money, property or other benefits.
    - **Royal offences**: Crimes against the Royal rights or the country e.g. tax evasion, forging money, treason, religious crimes.
    - **Breaking the peace**: Assault, riot, threatening behaviour. Only the most serious examples of these went to trial at the Old Bailey.
- Records of charities involved in housing.
- Charles Booth's survey of poverty: which mapped the levels of poverty across Whitechapel.
- Coroner's reports (on causes of death).
- Reports from local London newspapers.
- Political cartoons
- Local police records including photographs.
- Housing and employment records, council records and census returns.
- Thames Court Records
- Ex-policemen's memoirs.
  Add your own………………………………………………………………..

Relevant national sources

- National newspapers
- National crime records

- Police investigations
  Add your own……………………………………………………………….

Asking the right questions and *using appropriate sources*

- For this section of the exam, you need to be able to recognise the strengths and weaknesses of different types of source for specific enquiries.
- Look back at the lists of sources in 'relevant local sources' and 'relevant national sources' and for each of them think what their strengths and weaknesses for investigating specific questions: i.e. is Charles Booth's map of Whitechapel poverty useful for an investigation into the link between poverty and the likelihood that someone committed a crime in Victorian Whitechapel? *Strengths: Allows a historian to see where the poorest areas of Whitechapel were and to compare it with crime records. Weaknesses: Poverty tends to change a lot over time, so it would only be useful for the year in which it was made?*

Check your understanding: Answer these quick fire questions

1. What were Whitechapel's 'rookeries'?

2. What was a 'doss' in Whitechapel?

3. Which three locations in Whitechapel does this topic on crime focus on?

4. What was the 'residuum'?

5. Which two groups made up the most number of immigrants in Whitechapel?

6. How did Charles Warren's police reforms impact on 'H' Division?

7. What was the name of the police division in charge of patrolling Whitechapel and when did 'H' division gain a detective group? *P.S Can you name two famous detectives who worked in Whitechapel?*

8. Why are 'warrant' numbers useful to historians investigating policing in Whitechapel?

9. What was the 'beat' system?

10. Name three disadvantages of the 'beat' system?

11. What was 'C.I.D'?

12. What changes did Charles Howard Vincent make to C.I.D?

13. Name three factors that made policing in Whitechapel difficult?

14. Explain three techniques that investigative detectives used to uncover and solve crimes in Whitechapel?

15. What was the Whitechapel Vigilance committee?

16. How did the media make the police's job more difficult when investigating major crimes?

17. Name three relevant local sources that would help a historian with an enquiry into crime in Whitechapel: 1870-1900?

18. Name three general local sources that would help a historian with an enquiry into crime in Whitechapel: 1870-1900?

19. Come up with three specific enquiry questions you could make to help you learn about crime in Whitechapel: 1870-1900?

20. For each of your answers to Q16, list three strengths and three weaknesses for each one (make sure you link each strength and weakness to a specific enquiry question.

How do I answer the Paper 1 questions?

Q1. Give two things you can infer from Source A about...... [4 Marks]
Inference one: Define the first inference in the first sentence. (The first thing I can infer from Source A is...)   Support the inference using details from the source.   Write two sentences that support the inference.   Remember to use connective such as *Source A suggests that...*
Inference two: Define the second inference in the first sentence. (Another thing I can infer from Source A is...)   Support the inference using details from the source.   Write two sentences that support the inference.   Remember to use connective such as *This inference can be supported by...*

Q2 a. How useful are sources A and B for an enquiry into... [8 Marks]
M.A.C: First paragraph needs to discuss the motive, audience and context of source A.   Motive: Why was the source made?   Audience: Who was the source made for?   Context: What do we know is going on at the time the source was made?
Usefulness: Second Paragraph - How does source A's background effect its usefulness?   Use your M.A.C analysis to discuss whether or not the source is useful for answering the **enquiry question!**
Repeat this with Source B!

Q2 b. How could you follow up source A to find out more about...? [4 Marks]
Sentence 1: Pick out an interesting quote from source A   **Sentence 2:** Suggest a question that could be asked about this quote   **Sentence 3:** Suggest what kind of source could be used to try to answer your question.   **Sentence 4:** Explain how this source could be used to answer your question. (What do you hope to find and how will help answer the enquiry?)

Q3. Explain one way in which (a crime) changed/was similar across the period [4 Marks]
Point: State what it changed from/to *or* in what way it stayed the same.
Evidence: Describe what the change/similarity is
Explanation: Explain why it changed – *think about features of the period for top marks!*

Q4. Explain why … changed … in a time period [12 Marks]
Paragraph 1: **P** State the reason for the change **E** Describe how the change happened **E** Explain why the change happened – *think about features of the period for top marks!*
Repeat this three times: Use the two exam prompts and choose a third factor from your own knowledge.

| Q5. *Or* Q6. "Quote". How far do you agree? [16 Marks + 4 SPAG Marks] |
|---|
| **Paragraph 1:** Introduction – This must include:
- Your overall argument
- Your three factors which prove your argument
- One factor for the opposite argument and why it is incorrect/less important |
| **Paragraph 2/3/4/5:** **P** State the reason/factor
E Provide evidence/describe how the factor was important
E Explain why this factor agrees/disagrees with the overall argument
Evaluation How important is this factor overall? *X4* |
| **Paragraph 6:** Conclusion – State your overall judgement (MUST DO THIS!)
For Top Marks – Give a criteria for judgement (how can we know this factor was the most important?) |

Practice Exam Questions

Example Paper

Q1) Describe two features of accommodation for the poorer people in the Whitechapel area. [4 Marks]

Q2a) How useful are Sources A and B for an enquiry into the effectiveness of the police in Whitechapel in 1888? Explain your answer, using Sources A and B and your knowledge of the historical context. [8 Marks]

Source A: *An artist's impression of a scene in the Whitechapel district of London in 1888. It was printed in the Penny Illustrated Paper, a cheap weekly newspaper. The police constable is from H Division. The building behind him is a police station.*
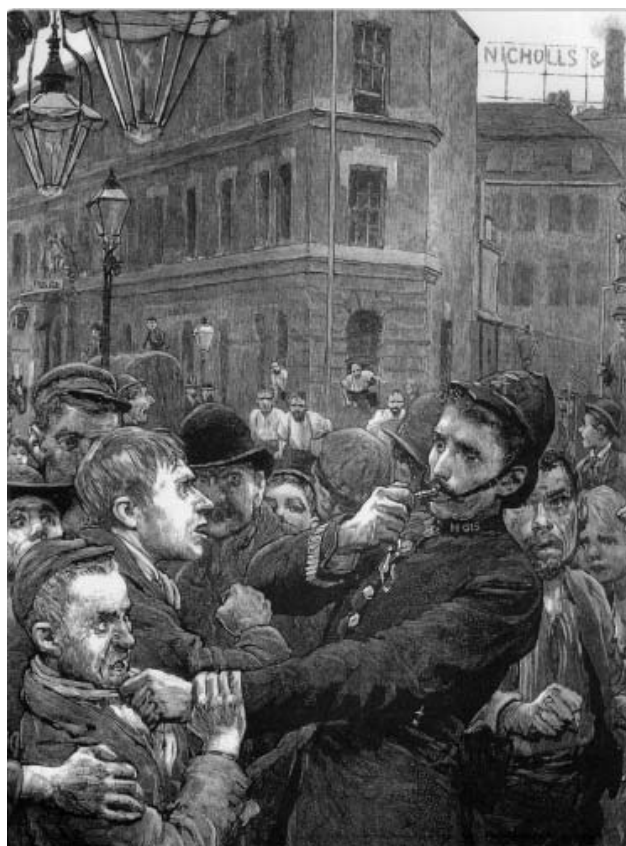
A mob in Spitalfields

Source B: *From an article in The Times newspaper, October 1888. The Times was a national newspaper, mainly read by the upper classes.*

"Many critical comments have been made about police failures in connection with the Whitechapel murders. However, it should be remembered that this type of woman chooses to go alone to the place where she has agreed to meet a man. Some weeks ago, plain-clothes policemen were ordered to patrol this crime-ridden area of Whitechapel and to watch any man or woman seen together in suspicious circumstances. At about the time when the Mitre Square murder was being committed two of the extra men who had been put on duty were nearby. They would have seen any man and woman going together to Mitre Square. Therefore the police suspect that the murderer had made an appointment with his female victim and they went to the place separately"

Q2b) How could you follow up Source A to find out more about the effectiveness of the police in Whitechapel in 1888? In your answer, you must give the question you would ask and the type of source you could use. [4 Marks]

Q3) Explain one way in which smuggling in Britain during the eighteenth century was similar to smuggling during the twentieth century. [4 Marks]

Q4) Explain why there were changes in the prison system in the period c1700–c1900. [12 Marks]

You may use the following in your answer:

• John Howard

• Hard labour

You must also use information of your own.

Q5) 'The role of local communities was the most important factor affecting law enforcement during the Middle Ages.' How far do you agree? Explain your answer. [16 Marks + 4 SPAG Marks]

You may use the following in your answer:

• Tithings

• Trial by ordeal

You must also use information of your own.

OR

Q6) The main purpose of punishment during the period c1000–c1700 was to deter people from committing crimes.' How far do you agree? Explain your answer. [16 Marks + 4 SPAG Marks]

 You may use the following in your answer.

• Corporal punishment

• The introduction of transportation

You must also use information of your own.