Chapter - I

CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.1   INTRODUCTION :

Television is a powerful media among mass media today, T.V. is no more an urban media. Now it has penetrated into all the rural areas of the country. As much as 75% of the total area and more than 90% of our countries population is covered by the mass media, with the commissioning of a nation wide network of radio and television transmission (Singh, 1986 : 66).

It is distressing to note that media has never initiated any campaign in support of serious practical and moral issues or against non-serious issues. With the advancement of technology media, particularly T.V. is getting more and more powerful by thriving on crime and cheap entertainment it fascinates. The young generation violence begets violence, as our young people lack proper education. They tend to became easy victims to the evil. Parents have no time to educate, their children whatever they pickup. The children pick up from the T.V. or the silver screen. The damage being done by our T.V. is almost incalculable. We feel so helpless to combat this great menace concerted efforts are wanting sporadic efforts are proving ineffective what not to communicate.

In India media facilities have expanded enormously over there is a definite policy shift in favour of adopting new communication technologies

to accelerate the pace of development and change in country (Bhagwan Singh, 1994 : 101).

Contemporary Indian movies and Television programs and serials stimulate the appetite of young people for excitement and violence, as also for indulging in undue risk and adventure. Moreover, these movies and programs tend to glorify deviant activities, impart knowledge of criminal techniques, and exaggerate the extent and spread of criminality in society. Thus, television programs and motion pictures have now come to be blamed for many of the crimes. Quite a few movies depict scenes of adventure, kidnappings, rape, assault, murder, with offer new example of behaviour to the youth who tend to emulate them in real life. Songs and movies shown on various satellite channels carry pictures, scenes and visuals that are in awfully poor taste and tend to emotionally disturb and unhinge the young minds. They often depict techniques of committing a crime. Sex and violence seems to have become two of the major television themes. Motion pictures too have their own share of violence and some of them are too much preoccupied with sex. This fact is borne by the lurid advertisements for these motion pictures in well-known magazines. Some thinkers are of the opinion that the aggression built up by frustrations.

Which youths encounter may be drained off by these movies and T.V. serials. The youths project themselves into the stories and release their aggressions in the field of fantasy rather than in over aggression behaviour. However, there is no gain saying the fact that these movies and T.V.

programs do really cause, or at least facilitate deviant behaviour among the youth. The testimony of young as regards the source of their criminality is unreliable. They share the human desire to place blame elsewhere. It is plausible to conjecture that the criminal youth interpret the mass media in anti-social ways. To the non-criminal youth, a movies full of violence and sex may offer the lesson that "Crime does not pay" to the criminal youth, it may act as a teacher in crime techniques. In our research, though we do not come across any case where the mischief could be attributed to motion pictures or T.V. programmes, never the less we believe that the mass media seem to be a factor at least a secondary factor for aggravating, if not causing already existing dispositions to criminality.

Thus, present study focuses on the rate of media in general and Television in particular in Crime with special reference to rural Youth. After knowing the introductory part it is necessary to understand the background of the study which will provide more indepth picture in this regard.

1.2 Background of the Study :

1.2.1 Crime in India :

Crime is no longer hidden from the media. The hands of the media have become longer than law, as stated in many Hindi movies. In contemporary Indian set up all walks of the society are in the grip of crime, from a beggar to a politician nobody is saved from the clutches of crime and

media. Crime represents a broad cross section of human behaviour. It is difficult to categorize crime into meaningful general types. Different kinds of offences, share similar characteristics nevertheless, there are five types of crime based on reference among criminologists in the professional literature and the media.

Offences may be grouped into five categories :

1. Street crime and traditional crimes.

2. Victimless crime

3. Organized crime

4. Occupational and career oriented crime

5. Politically oriented crime

While criminology and media on the face of it looks like two different spheres of activity, practically there has always been a close interface between two. After all crime prevention gains importance through the perception of crime by people in the neighbourhood / religion – all of which happens though the media only. Hence it is relevant to look into the development that has happened in these two areas.

Now let us see major theoretical contributions of various researchers in the field of Crime and Media.

1. **Cultivation theory :** Doom and Quake (1996)

This theory hypothesizes that televisions depiction of the world leads heavy views of television to believe that the real world resembles the television world in key respects. Carison (1985) studied the content of

crime shows in the late 1970s and the attitudes towards the criminal justice system held by viewers of these shows. He found that the crime shows on television in the late 1970s presented a very unrealistic view of the criminal justice system, specifically the effectiveness of police, the rights of the suspects and defendants, and the general level of criminal activity in the world people who watch these shows report more support for authority such as police, less support for civil liberties, and more political cynicism. Carison notes that the consistent of message of crime shows may result in "an increase in demand for police protection", since police are portrayed as extra ordinarily effective and crimeas rampant. It should be noted, however, that the sort of crime shows Carison examined was qualitatively different from the shows that emerged in the 1980s.

Beginning with Hill street blues.

These later shows, many produced by Stephen Bochco have featured flawed police who often fail to catch their suspects, and open criminals as recurring characters who appear immune the effects of such programs would, by Carison logic results in mistrusts of police and perhaps even more generalized cynicism. Sharma and Mares (1995) have attempted to explain the psychological process by which cultivation occurs. Sharma points to the accessibility of heuristics, where by it is easier for heavy viewers of television to rely on the impression T.V. makes on them when they answer questions about the real world. Mares argues that respondents are not always aware as to where the information comes from, and thus

"Source confusions" accounts for people tendency to describe the real world in television terms. Potter, Warren (1996) and others points out that even if viewers limit their exposure to non-fiction programs such as news and new magazines, they are likely to end with distorted impressions of the real world. The authors compare non-fiction T.V. depictions of anti-social behaviour to real world statistics. "If we rely on non-fiction programming to tell us about the parameters and nature of our society, that programming is constructing narrative that are not particularly useful for that purpose. On fictional presents a very high rate of anti-social activity and the most serious forms of that activity (physical violence and crime) are presented at rates for above the rates the real world". Media have two major objectives : Audience objectives and message distribution objective. Audience objectives define the specific type of publics the media wants to reach with the recent developments in the mode of communication and information technology the whole globe has become accessible in nanoseconds time. And the reach of the media and press persons, have shown a remarkable performance in bringing about the day to day happenings in the world to the attention of the public. Crime is one of the more prominent ones covered by the media.

2.   Media Interface :

For effective law enforcement on organized crime, the interface with the Media cannot be restricted to the traditional realm of press release. The

interface has to be proactive at the same time unwanted publicity, can cause untold loss and damage. Recently a newspaper published the photograph of a terrorist with became a serious handicap during the trial process when the test identification was challenged as in-fructuous proper lidison with the media is also essential to see that there is no unwanted criticism of law enforcement agencies. Another important aspect of media interface relates to undue and unwanted publicity against court and court procedures. For example in the trial of the purulia arms drop case. This was a serious problem. The unusual criticism in certain section of media, even abroad did damage the reputation of the courts. Such criticism also sends wrong signals that there are flagrant violations of human right. Proper media interface should be an important job specifications for the superintendent of police / Deputy Commissioner of Police, he being the most important functionary in the law enforcement hierarchy and has adequate public contact.

a)   *Police Public Relations :*

Police public relations is needed to be kept in mind as an important factor in law enforcement, public should be made aware about their rights and duties. Cooperation of the public would be forth coming only when they are also assured of quid pro-quo in the form of safety, security and public peace. A hand book of good practices needs to be provided to the policeman who should be adequately sensitized to the provisions. All good practices and beneficial acts need to be publicized so that public is made aware of what the law enforcement machinery is doing. C.B.I. had to face

negative coverage from the press during the I.S.R.O. espionage case in Kerala. The publicity against the C.B.I., was so much in several section of the media that public still believe that there may be some truth in the allegation of espionage against the top notch scientists and others despite, the fact that the trial court had accepted the report filed by the C.B.I. and held the case to be false. Even the Supreme court of India put its stamp and seal on the falsity of the allegations by appreciating the role of the C.B.I. in bring out unvarnished truth. In the light of such incidents media interface need to refined and systemized. It is better that media relation are entrusted to a specified official, perhaps there is an urgent requirement of public relations officer for all law enforcement agencies similar to the one available with the C.B.I.

b) *Crime, Media and its impact on Youth :*

Indian movies and Television programs and serials stimulate the appetite of young people for excitement and violence as also for indulging in undue risks and adventure. The youths are expose to many DD serials. There are variety of programmers and advertisement. Which draw attention of the youth too. The youths intervals and ideas of their life are shaped by such exposure, the adventure, crime story serials are shown on DD, the youths media find. The situations / opportunities to express their own feelings and thoughts which go contrary to the current normative behavioural patterns practices and values. We have come across some incidents that the children and youth after watching some serials or

advertisements have imitated these roles as a result of which they have met which accident and death too. So it is the case with those youth who wanted to satisfy their needs / interests / habits / adopted the ways shown in this serial in the society, the youth being susceptible to more influence. The T.V. has both sides impacts namely positive and negative some youths go for experimenting the roles.

c) *Crime, media and its impact on children :*

There are fears regarding the children's exposure to violent media which are mostly centered on the likelihood that children may imitate or learn the criminal behaviour they see of course, not all aggressive behaviour is criminal. The studies that lead to the conclusion that exposure to televised violence causes more aggressive behaviour in real life are frequently criticized for not being sufficiently realistic.

Three particular subjects receive the bulk of research attention where media related effects are concerned with children.

- The effects of any violent media on children.

- The "Cultivation" of beliefs about crime and the criminal justice system that results from the viewing television.

- The effects of viewing pornography on adults.

It is frequently noted that by the time an Indian child reaches adolescence, he or she is likely to have seen thousands of murders depicted on television (e.g. Huston et al's, calculation that by the time a child leaves elementary school he or she will have seen eight thousand murders) (cited

in Bogart, p. 351). From the 1990s the increasing popularity of computer games that simulate wholesale slaughter of human beings (e.g. Doom and Quake) has led to speculation that the wave of school shootings of the late 1990s has roots in part in the skills (such as arming, evaluating killed or wounded status, and strategizing) cultivated by playing such games and in the indifference toward suffering that leads to success in the games. The possibility that exposure to mass media entertainment from comic books to the Internet can inspire criminal behaviour was the subject of research and speculation and debate throughout the century. Some contents are considered more suspect than others, particularly depictions of violence. Since 1950, violent Television fare has been the subject of a great deal of research, and meta analysis of this body of research tend to conclude that there is a consistent, moderate causal relationship between exposure of televised violence and aggressive behaviour in the real world.

The goals and resources of crime and media :

The goals and resources of the media do not mesh perfectly with those of prosecutors, defendants, judges and police. The goals and resources people possess as audience and readers are different from the roles of citizens, jurors, suspects and consumers. The on going negotiation between the media, the justice system, and people in their various relevant roles produces the media effects observed in the research field reviewed here. Many of these effects may be unintended or undesirable, but mitigating

such effects as prejudicial pretrial publicity is often not possible without threatening goals that others consider paramount. Such as press freedom or the desire of a prosecutor to try a case locally (that is avoiding a change of venue). Therefore when goals are in conflict, and resources are scarce or fought over, the relative power of the parties to the conflict becomes the central issue. There is no doubt that the ability of media to influence the course of criminal justice is entirely legitimate or desirable. But the media are powerful enough to resist intrusive public policy and defend their resources such as access to sources, control over their broadcast schedules, and use of information gathering tactics such as hidden cameras. The justice system has powerful resources of its own. It is the public, whose goals are least likely to receive support and benefit from rich resources when they are threatened by the goals of the media and the justice system. As Potter and Warren point out in their discussion of policies regarding the regulation of sex and violence in television, the political influence of the broadcasting industry allows the media to tie up regulators over definitional issues (what is sex ? what is violence ?) rendering public policy to limit such content ineffective.

1.2.2 Media-violence : A socio-cultural perspective :

In the sociology of crime and criminality, emphasis is placed on cultural and group forces that produce actors who represent forms of deviance from the dominant value or moral demand system. The individual

offender is not ignored : he is simply clustered with other individuals alike in attributes deemed theoretically or statistically meaningful. His 'uniqueness' is retained by the improbability that on several attributes or variables he will appear identical to everyone else. Hence, the researches resort to means, medians, modes to probability theory, inferential statistics and mathematical models to analyze predominate patterns and regularities of behaviour, Biological and psychological factors are not ignored, but when a monodisciplinary perspective dismissed after consideration. Biological needs and psychological drives may form of behaviour relative to another. They may be seen as differential endowments of personalities that help to assign, for example, a label of mental incapacity to a group of individuals, some of whom have also violated the criminal codes. But neither the biology of many biographies nor the psychology of many personalities helps to explain the overwhelming involvement in crime of men over women, slums over suburbs, youth over age, urban over rural life. It is this latter set of macroscopic regularities to which the sociological perspective addresses itself (James, 1995 : 17-26).

It should be interesting to notice that while peace and harmony may have been the avowed ideals of sanges and sears, fascination for violence seems to be universal and primitive. Earliest cave paintings, epics and folk tales, myth and drama have all depicted and often justified violence. Debates on justified war, fighting for dharma has been staple in almost all religious. Popular imagination has also been fasicinated by violent acts

which are considered heroic. In human development stages the early childhood takes a lot of restraining to abstain from or control violence. Cultural expressions, drama, poetry, music, dance, cinema and painting have vivid descriptions of war, highlighting virtues of courage, sacrifice, steadfasteness of character and skill in controlling arms, animals and men.

Patriotism and other forms of identity struggle have also gone hand in hand with violence and conflict. Youth and children are often inspired to courage and bravery through stories of exemplary war heroes or those who fought for the right. No wonder that popular media continues to cater to this popular appreciation of violence. However, there is need to carefully examine definitions and forms of violence.

Cultural Dimensions of Media Violence :

Violence is difficult to define and should be distinguished from aggression in general. The National Commission on the causes and prevention of violence struggled with these terms in 1968 and 1969. In this article, I use the term "violence" to refer to the intentional use of physical force on another person, or noxious physical stimuli invoked by one person on another. The physical force may be viewed as an assault designed to cause pain or injury as an end in itself, sometime referred to as "expressive violence", or as the use of pain or injury or physical restraint as a coercive threat or punishment to induce another person or persons to carry out some act, commonly called "instrumental violence" (NCCPV 1969). Violence

may be considered by some as legitimate (apparent spanking a child, a police officer forcefully arresting a suspect, a soldier killing during war) or illegitmate (criminal homicide, forcible rape, aggravated assault). In general, the article concentrates on illegitimate violence, but behind illegitimate violence are cultural dimensions that involve the acceptance of violence.

There is no society that does not contain in its normative system some elements of acceptable limits to violence. Thus, the use of physical force by parents to restrain and punish children is permissible, tolerated, encouraged and its there as part of the normative process by which every society regulates its child rearing of course, varying degrees of parental force are expected and used in different cultures and times, and there are upper limits vaguely defined as excessive and brutal-treatment of youth and children, specially the girl child in India has many elements of violation of child rights and there are explicit elements of violence which will perhaps be intolerable in other parts of the world (Fisk 1989 : 63 –67).

The point, however, is that, our norms approve or permit parents to apply force, against the child for their own ends. The application of force is a form of violence and may be used consciously to discipline the child to the limits of permitted behaviour, to reduce the domestic noise level, to express parental disapproval and even unconsciously as a displacement for aggression actually meant for other targets. This model of parent-child interaction is a universal feature of all human societies. The model is one

that the child himself comes to ingest, i.e., that superior force is power permitting manipulation of other and can be a functional tool for securing a superordinate position over other, for obtaining desires and ends (Cloward 1960 : 47-49).

The violence in which the child engages is but an expressed extension of this basic model. The use of physical restraint and force does not appear only in lower-class families, although studies have shown that its persistent social class. The substitutions by middle-class parents of withdrawal of rights and affection, of deprivation of liberty, and of other techniques are designed to replace the need for force. And by these substitutions, an effort is made to of masking the supreme means of control. They are also ways of masking the supreme means of control, namely physical force. Violence and the threat of violence form the ultimate weapons of any society for maintaining itself against external and internal attacks. All societies finally resort to violence to solve problems that arise from such attacks (Macbeth 1996 : 42-48).

Socialization means changing the individual into a personality, it is the process of cultural transmission, of relaying through the social funnel of family and friends a set of beliefs, attitudes, values, speech and habits. When the frontline instruments of war become part of the physical features a child's life space, when cannons, rifles, grenades and soldiers are moved from real battlefields to the mind of the child and the plastic world of this playroom and are among the relatively few objects touched and

manipulated by the child in the process becoming then some set of values associated with the legitimacy and recognition of the superiority of violent activity is transmission is later translated into violence by the child, as a child youth or adult. As a legislator, father, policeman, or actor of any other role, he is still the carries of attitudes related to that play activity, unless contrary values have intervened.

It may not be entirely irrelevant to put on record concerns about the impact of violence on women over children and youth. While battering of pregnant women leads to stunted growth and low birth weight babies, unleashing of violence at home has far reaching consequences. Studies indicate that children, who suffer and witness violence at home, become withdrawn, afraid and often themselves become child and women abusers (Reiss and Roth 1993 : 13-19).

Though not enough research exists in the area it seems that when violence is shown in favourable and appreciative forms and gets public approval by school, colleges, teachers., religious leaders and other norm-giving adults, it is sanctified. Media today has also taken the role of not only an informant but a norm giver. It would be an oversimplification to judge. Media as a homogenous whole, therefore, needs closer scrunity to examine how it presents violence and how it impacts people's value system.

Subculture of Media Violence :

Within our broader cultural context, there is what has been called a 'subculture of violence", meaning a set of values, attitudes, and beliefs concealed in pockets of populations characterized by residential propinquity and shared commitment to the use of physical aggression as a major mode of personal interaction and a device for solving problems. Some scholars believe that in this subculture, generated primarily in a lower socio-economic class disadvantaged in all the traditionally known ways, the use of violence is either tolerated and permitted or specifically encouraged from infancy through adulthood. From child-rearing practices that commonly use physical punishment and that contain many elements of child abuse, to childhood and adolescent play and street gang and group behaviour, to domestic quarrels and bar room brawls, physically assaultive conduct is condoned and even part of the expected response to many interpersonal relationships. Machismo, the typical stereotype of manliness, promotes the ready resort to violence upon the appearance of relatively weak provoking stimuli. The repertoire of response to frustration or to certain kinds of stimuli (including name calling, challenges to the ego and such others) is often limited to a physically aggressive one and the capacity to withdraw or to articulate a verbal response only is minimal (Wolfgang and Ferracuti, 1997 : 65 : 72).

The class, caste, race associations of violence are fraught with difficulties stigmatizing the blacks, poor, dalits and tribals as violent. They

have been seen as more a matter of power politics than a well researched and analyzed study. In India, certain castes like the kshatriya, certain regional or race groups like Sikhs and Gorkhas have been associated with bravery. Stories of Pathan, Thakur pride and honour have been associated with bravery. Stories of Pathan, Thakur pride and honour have been told and retold Big business tycoons and landholders have also wallowed in their protection of family traditions through sacrifice which often involves violence. Studies on violence against women in India have also illustrated that while forms of violence may change the upper class woman is as vulnerable to violence as her lower class sister.

The image of the righteous angry young man with red, green or blue flags continues to charm both the political and cultural aficionados, specially the young. Within the subculture of violence, the cues and clues of this stimulus and response mechanism are well known to the culture carriers and thus promote social situations that quickly escalate arguments to altercations and apparently quick-tempered aggression to seemingly trivial encounters. This subculture of violence is culturally transmitted from generation to generation and is shared across cohorts of youth, who will fight instead of flee, assault instead of articulate, and kill rather than control their aggression (Wolfgang 1970 : 71-77).

This proposition of a subculture of violence suggests that violence is learned behaviour and that if violence is not a way of life, it nonetheless is normal, not individual pathological behaviour. And the greater the degree of

commitment to the subcultural values, the less freedom, the fewer the number of alternative responses the individual has to cope with social encounters. Homicide, rape, aggravated assault has historically been predominantly intragroup crimes, within the family, among friends and acquaintances, neighbours and the intimate social network. More physical mobility and inter-group interactions have increased the number of victims outside the subculture, the number of victims who are strangers to the offenders, and have consequently promoted wide public fear of random assault and victimization (Wilson and Kunkel, 1996 : 43-48).

Violence in the media and family is partly a reflection of violent expressions in the culture generally. But serious crimes within the family are most commonly related to sub-cultural values that, minimally, do not much inhibit physical responses or, maximimally, condone and encourage them.

The residential propinquity of the actors in a subculture of violence has been noted. Breaking up this propinquity, dispersing the members who share intense commitment to the value of violence could also- cause a break in the inter and intergenerational communication of this value system. Dispersion can be done in many ways and does not necessarily imply massive population shift, although urban renewal, slum clearance, and housing projects suggest feasible methods. Renwal Programmes that simply shift the location of the sub-culture from one part of a city to another do not destroy it. In order to distribute the sub-culture so that it dissipates, the

scattered units should be small. Housing projects and neighbourhood areas should be small micro-cosms of the social hierarchy and value system of the central dominate culture. It is in homogeneity that the subculture has strength and durability.

Before one set of values can replace another, before the subculture of violence can be substituted by the establishment of non-violence, the former must be disrupted, dispersed and disorganized. The resocialization and relearing process best takes place when the old socialization and old learning are forgotten or denied their validity. Once the sub-culture is disintegrated by dispersal of its members, aggressive attitudes are not supported by likeminded companions, and violent behaviour is not regularly on display to encourage imitation and repetition. While geographical disruption is a key factor, there are many others which impact our value formations and reinforcements. Role of outsiders in transforming value changes has been well illustrated through the history of Indian colonization.

Strauss (1974) has eloquently written about aggression in families, especially about the notion of "leveling" in the sense of giving free expression to one's aggressive feelings in the natural family setting and in therapy referred to as the "ventilationist" approach. He argues compellingly and convincingly against it and suggest instead that "the greater the degree of intellectualzation the lesser the amount of physical aggression" (ibid : 13-29).

1.2.3 Nature, Definition, Classification and causes of Crime :

Nature of Crime :

Crime is an act which violates the laws of a community or a nation and which is punishable in accordance with these laws. Crimes vary according to the time and the place where they occur. An act which is completely acceptable in one community may be punishable by death in another. In most civilized countries, however, such acts as murder, forgery, burglary, arson, treason, and bigamy are considered crimes. People who commit these crimes may be punished by death or terms of imprisonment according to the laws of the community in which they live.

Not all offenses against the law are crimes. The laws which set down the punishment for crimes make up the criminal law. The offenses described as crimes are those which are considered most harmful to the community. If one individual murders another, for instance, he threatens the safety of people in general. For this reason the state punishes him for his crime. On the other hand, a man may wrong another person in some other way which offends the civil law. Such offenses are settled when one individual makes restitution to another, either by voluntary agreement or as the result of a court judgement. Civil offenses are called torts. Ideas about crime and its punishment depend on the customs and ideas of the community. Blasphemy and heresy were once serious crime and were punished by death. Sorcery and witchcraft were also capital offenses. With

the spread of "freedom of religion" and scientific ideas, crimes against religion creased to be offenses against the state.

In the middle ages and afterward, there were many offenses which could be punished by death. A man might pay with his life for stealing a loaf of bread. At present most civilized countries use the death, penalty as a punishment for only three crimes murder, treason, and criminal attack. In the United States, kidnapping also may be punished by death.

Modern civilization has brought a large increase in the number of acts which are considered crimes. A more complex way of living has brought with it a new idea of man's responsibility to his fellows. Thus it is a crime to sell cigarettes to a child. A man who drives an automobile is responsible for keeping it in repair, and if he fails to do so he may be criminally negligent. A factory owner who neglects to provide the number of fire escapes the law demands may be tried for mans laughter if a fire kills some of his employees.

Definition of Crime :

A crime can be the action of violating or breaking a law. According to western jurisprudence, there must be a simultaneous concurrence of both acts rues ("guilty action") and men's rea ("guilty mind") for a crime to have been committed; except in crimes of strict liability. In order for prosecution, some laws require proof of causality relating the defendant's actions to the criminal event in question. In addition, some laws require that

attendant circumstances have occurred, in order a crime to have occurred. Also in order for a crime to be prosecuted, corpus delicti (or proof of a crime) must be established.

It may also be a crime to conspire in order to commit other crimes, or helping others to commit crimes; in some systems the simple association for organizing a crime is punished, even if the crimes is not completed; for instance it is generally a crime to attempt to murder some one, even if one has not succeeded in doing so.

In general, in most western systems, the definition of a crime requires the existing intention of committing it (voluntas necandi) in the another, therefore it is usually not officially "punished" when this intention is missing or when the author has not a complete mental sanity or is under a certain age. Underage defendants can be tried "as an adult" because their character is considered adult, whatever the rationale is behind this.

Classification of Crimes :

Crime can be divided into several (overlapping) categories : computer offenses, crimes against persons, crime against property, crimes against state security, drug offenses, sexual offenses, and weapon offenses crimes are also be grouped by severity, some common categorical terms being : felonies, indicable offenses, misdemeanors, and summary offenses. For convenience infractions are also usually included in such lists, although they are not subject of the criminal law, but rather of the civil law. An

inchoate offense is a planned or attempted crime, which the offender was not able to carry out prior to arrest.

The most serious crimes are those in which it can be shown that the criminal planned his acts. Such planning is called in law criminal intent. Sometimes criminal intent is part of the crime itself. Stealing, or larceny, is a crime of this kind, and no one can be found guilty of larceny unless the intent to steal is proved. Even when intent is not necessary to the crime, as in the case of murder, a crime which is committed by intention is usually punished much more severely than one which is committed on the spur of the moment.

Causes of Crime :

Criminals were once considered sinners who chose to offend against the laws of God and Man. Modern criminologists regard society itself as in large part responsible for the crimes committed against it. Poverty, bad living conditions, and poor education are all causes of crime. Crime is fundamentally the result of society's failure to provide a decent life for all the people and to develop a sense of social responsibility in its citizens. Crime is especially common in times when values are changing rapidly, as after a war, or in countries where people with different values and backgrounds are thrown together, as in the united states. Crimes generally speaking, are fewer in countries where there is settled way of life and traditional respect for law.

Crimes are viewed as offenses against society and as such are punished by the state. They can be scholastically distinguished, depending on the passive subject of the crime, or on the offended interest, in crimes against :

- The personality of the state.

- The rights of the citizen

- The public administration

- The administration of justice.

- The religious sentiment and the pity for dead.

- The public order.

- The public faith

- The public economy, industry and commerce

- The public morality.

- The person and honour

- The patrimony.

Or they can be distinguished depending on the related punishment, in delicts and violations.

Psychology of Crime :

Several psychological factors that figure into why people commit crimes.

Spiritual Equipment of Man :

As in the case of good health, normal spiritual equipment is also a blessing. When defects occur a crime may be committed. The spiritual equipment of man consists of :

The Natural Urges or Instincts :

Man is born with a variety of urges, and they exist to ensure the preservation and survival of himself, and of his species. These urges occur in different strength or intensity in respect of different people. Even in one person, some urge may be more acute than another or certain combinations of strong and weak urges may be present in a person.

With most people these urges are satisfied in a natural way; e.g. when a person is hungry, he eats, and when he is thirsty , he drinks. Sometimes an urge may be extraordinary strong, or a person may be unable to satisfy the urge. This may give rise to crime. The most important urges which are found in all people are the following :

- The nutritive urge (hunger) : This urge determines whether you are hungry or thirsty. If it is overdeveloped or not satisfied it may lead to theft.

- The sexual urge : That is the urge to procreate, and have a family. Deviations may lead to rape, prostitution, homosexuality, etc.

- The head instinct (grgarious) : That is the urge to be together in groups, to be a part of a family or a nation. If a child is rejected in a

family, he may become a member of a gang or a "hippy" colony, in order to satisfy this urge.

- The activity urge : The human being must always be busy. This finds expression in labour and active leisure. When he is inactive, he becomes bored and may think about something to do, which may eventually be to his detriment.

- The self-ascertain urge : Everyone cherishes a feeling of appreciation for one's self and keenly wants to attain success and fame. When no one takes notice, he will try to attract attention, e.g. by playing truant, running away from home, stealing a car etc.

Although we can distinguish among these basic urges they can never bee separated. There is a powerful mutual interaction and that determines an individuals personality and affects his behaviour to a considerable degree.

Temperament :

Temperament concerns the manner in which an individuals spiritual energy takes its course, and is noticeable in his conduct. It can also be called an individuals personality. Thus we find that some people are surly, while others are friendly; some welcome conversation and easily make friends, while others are reserved; some are impulsive, while others are calm. One's way of conducting oneself reveals one's temperament. Temperamental instability is often found among delinquents. Temperament is closely aligned to attitude.

Feeling or emotion :

An emotion usually originates as a result of something you see, hear or think about. This feeling amy be pleasant (e.g. love, gladness) or unpleasant (hate, jealousy). The result of this feeling is a certain action, like assault or murder. Man's life is thus affected to a large extent by his feelings or emotions, and therefore it is accorded a distinct place in the causation of anti-social behavior.

The Will :

Throughout one's life, one is faced with choices. One must decide e.g. on a study course, a job a life companion, etc. Often one must choose between two conflicting aims, e.g. a student has to write a test. He has to choose between staying at home and studying or going to the theatre or swimming pool. The choice he makes will reveal what he considers the most important. If he chooses to study, and abides by his decision, he has a strong will.

Delinquents often have weak will-power. They are easily led astray by friends who persuade them to do something wrong. They protest, but cannot stick to a choice. One can, of course, also choose to do the wrong and the bad.

Mind or Intellect :

Mani is distinguished from the animal by the mental faculties, or the talents of thinking, reasoning, observation, considering, meditation and

planning. He is able to do this only because he has a superior mind, or intellect, which controls his acts or omissions.

People who are intellectually super-normal are sometimes apt to become bored and frustrated on the level of the common normal life, and then they sometimes apply their superior mental power to criminality. In these cases the crime generally is well planned and the crime techniques so refined and perfected, that many are never discovered or brought to account.

However, investigation has proved that about 60% of persons who commit crimes have a reasonably low intelligence, and have failed a year of school once or more.

Character :

Character is the moral part of the personality that regulates daily behavior. If a person has defects in their character such as aggressiveness, cunning, intolerance or brutality, he will find it difficult to rationalize between right and wrong in moments of emotional upset and will not be able to exercise self control.

Self Concept :

The self concept has been identified as a very important aspect in human life : a person must be able to have respect for himself; to be "his own best friend". This is how a person sees himself. If a person believes that he is worthless and that society does not care what happens to him, this attitude (self-perception) may well lead to crime.

Stress :

Stress can lead to irrational conduct, even to crime. If a person labors under severs emotional distress, that person may feel compelled to act in socially unacceptable manners. Stress has become a major problem in modern life, leading to broken families and deviant behavior.

Aggression :

Aggression and violence often go together. Aggression can be defined as any form of behavior aimed at the partial or total, literal or figurative, destruction of an object or person. The word "violence" is used to describe acts of aggression.

Depression :

Depression can be a psychosis and also a neurosis. A psychosis is severe mental illness in which insight was lost. Persons with psychotic depression might believe that the sins of the world are upon them, and that they are a burden to society. In the case of a neurotic depression, insight will be retained. A person suffering from depression may believe that life is pointless, so that he might as well "escape" to criminality.

Personality Disorders :

Psychopathy addictions and deviance can be listed under personality disorders. Once there is a disintegration of personality, deviant behavior can be expected. Many serious crimes are committed by persons whose personalities do not conform with the norms accepted by society.

Prevention of Crime :

The penalty for a crime is set forth in the criminal law. After the defendant has been declared guilty by a jury, the judge follows the law in imposing sentence. The law usually provides a minimum and maximum penalty for each offense, and the judge takes into consideration all the circumstances of the crime and the character of the criminal in coming to his decision.

Similarly some codes of conduct of religious origins or reference have been included in penal codes, forbidden behavior resulting in real crimes in the states rules by theocracy even in more recent times.

Natural Law Theory of Crime :

An alternative view of crime is derived from the theory of natural law. In this view, crime is the violation of individual rights. Since right are considered as natural, rather than man-made, what constitutes a crime is also natural, in contrast to laws, which are man-made. Adam smith illustrates this view, saying a smuggler would be an excellent citizen, "had not the laws of his country mad that a crime which nature never meant to be so."

Natural law theory thus distinguishes between criminality and illegality, the former being derived from the interests of those in power. The two concepts are some times expressed with the phrases "malum in se" and

"malum prohibitum". This view leads to a seeming paradox, that an act can be illegal that is no crime, while a criminal act could be perfectly legal.

Study of Crime :

Matters related to criminal behavior in society are studied in the field of sociology on the sub-field of criminology and a person who studies this is called a criminologist. The mental state and acuity of criminals is assessed by psychologists, especially in cases wherein the insanity defense is being utilized. The study of crime, in general, across is often known as crime science. This draws on statistics, environmental design, forensics, policing, sociology and other sciences to analyze the crimes, rather than the offenders and provides way and means to prevent, detect and solve crimes.

Different Approaches to the Study of Crime :

Over the last twenty years or so social historians have devoted considerable attention to the history of crime. Despite the intrinsic interest of this subject, and its obvious relevance to current debate, surprisingly little of the resultant research findings has filtered through into school, or even university, economic and social history courses. This section provides a general overview to some of the different approaches to the study of crime.

Statistical Outline :

Perhaps the most obvious question to ask historians of crime is how high crime levels were in the past, and what types of offence were most

commonly committed. It is important to grasp, however, that the statistical approach is only one of a number of, at times competing and, at times, complementary methodologies.

Counting crime is an important exercise, although it is also one which s fraught with difficulties. Two other approaches, have contributed much to our understanding of crime in the past. The first consists of attempting to interpret the meaning of crime within the community. The second is an approach which addresses definitional problem and the social; meaning of deviant acts. These three approaches are, of course, by no means mutually exclusive, and it would be a poor historian who concentrated exclusively on any one of them. They each however, offer a distinctive route to the subject.

Criminal statistics in any period are likely to be a very imperfect indicator of crimes committed, and this imperfection might logically be expected to become more marked when criminal statistics rely on court records from three or four centuries ago. Historians have borrowed from criminologists the concept of the dark figure, the unknown total of crimes which were or are committed but never brought to the attention of the authorities or recorded officially.

These complications, while inducing a proper sense of caution among historians, have not prevented them from quantifying, and their labors have yielded some interesting results. In particular, a number of studies have concentrated on the records of the assizes, the courts where

serious crimes (murder, manslaughter grand larceny; burglary, rape, robbery, and arson) were tried. These studies allow us to gain at least an outline knowledge of how patterns of prosecuted crime fluctuated over the period with which we are concerned.

Problem of Defining Crime :

Touching on this mass of regulatory offences introduces the third approach to crime : that of definition. There are obviously a core of offences in any society which, for most of the population, ar thought to be not only illegal but 'wrong', others, like driving a car out 75 miles per hour on a motorway, are known to be illegal but are hardly thought of as being as serious. And there are also groups within society who could consider violence, car theft, or smoking marijuana – all of them illegal – as a normal part of everyday life. These sorts of definitional.

The situation is further complicated for historians by the presence of two phenomena which are not as marked in most modern states : a multiplicity of courts and a widespread taste for litigation. For reasons which are not as yet totally clear, the period between the late fifteenth century and the mid seventeenth was marked by a massive rise in litigation, most of it non-criminal. These civil litigants found a wealth of courts in which to go to law. The secular courts. These survived the Reformation with much of their jurisdiction intact, and continued in their attempts to discipline the ungodly until well into the eighteenth century.

Thus the historians of crime before 1800 or so have to feed into their analyses not only the murderers and burglars tried at the assizes, but also the people presented before their neighbours at the manorial courts for blocking the streets which their dung-hills, or the people presented before the church courts, most often by their neighbours serving as churchwardens, for sexual immorality.

'Crime is a major subject of current social debate. The exact contribution of the historian to this debate remains problematic. Perhaps the most obvious point to be made is that society has experience severe law and order problem in the past, and survived them. At the moment we feel, probably correctly, that we are experiencing a major law and order problem. Possibly of unique proportions. But these were many observers who though much the same in the past, especially in the periods c. 1580-1650 and c. 1800-1860. Both of these were periods of severe economic dislocation : in the first, population increase created a mass of poor, in the second a similar population increase created masses of poor living in the new and, to middle class observers, alien environment of the industrial city. In both these periods, a half century or so of more settled economic and social conditions was mirrored by a static crime rate. This may have some bearing on current attempts to deny that the rising crime rate we have recently experienced are connected with economic factors affecting the poorer sections of our society.

But historians of crime have also demonstrate that in periods of social unease rising crime rates create a level of social fear which, admittedly at the comfortable distance of a century or two, seem very exaggerated. Around 1600 when people saw crime very much in term of sin, apparently higher levels of offences were seen as a sign of mankinds sinfulness, and as possible evidence that the last days of confusion which were expected to presage the end of the world and the second coming of Christ had arrived. After understanding the theoretical contributions regarding crime, now we will understand the nature of crime in the ancient and modern society.

1.2.4   Crime in Ancient Medieval Society :

A Crime in a broad sense is an act that violates a political or moral law. In the narrow sense, a crime is a violation of the criminal law. For example, most traffic violations or beach of contracts are not crimes in a legal sense. In primitive society, all crimes, generally speaking, were torts. Even murder was a private matter between the criminal and the family of the victim. The family might settle the matter either by revenging itself on the murderer or by accepting a payment from him. Later, the idea of crime as an offense against society led to the making of criminal laws.

Society thus took over the function of revenge on the individuals who broke its laws. But punishment of crime remained primarily a matter of revenge. Later, people began to think of punishment as a means of keeping

people from committing crimes. Modern criminologists believe that society must protect itself against criminals rather than revenge itself on them. This can be done either by re-forming the criminals and teaching them to become useful citizens or by removing them form society altogether. Crime is not an absolute – it is defined by law. Hence, while some activities such as theft or murder have been labeled as crimes in most societies, other activities such as adultery and heresy, have been criminalized and decriminalized as attitudes and beliefs within different societies have changed. Measuring shifts in crime patterns over time, and between societies, is fraught with difficulties, and not simply because different societies have different laws and hence different definitions.

The collection of criminal statistics by emergent nation state did not begin seriously until the early 19th century, by which time most courts dealing with criminal matters were essentially state courts. At best, however, these are the statistics of crimes reported to police institutions. No one has successfully explained how the historian might assess or estimate what criminologists call the dark figure of crimes that were not reported and hence were never included in these statistics.

Patterns of Crime :

Allowing for the problems with different laws and with the statistics, certain generalization can be made about criminal offences. Serious crime, or fetony, can be conveniently divided into two broad categories : offences against the person, and offences against property. Less serious offences,

generally called misdemeanours in English, and contraventions or delits in French, cover a range of activity from the victimless crime of solicting for prostitution, to being drunk and disorderly and to minor traffic violations.

The argument has been made that the most significant change in the pattern of crime from the medieval to the modern period was a more from the predominance of interpersonal violence to the predominance of property crime. It is true that the murder rates in the European world do appear to decline significantly from the early 17th century. Murder has always been seen as a particularly reprehensible offence and in consequence, the reporting and prosecution of murder is generally regarded to have been closer to the number of offences than the reporting and prosecution of other crimes.

The first countries to witness the early modern decline in murder were England and the Netherlands. Countries bordering the mediterranean sea, where ideas of honour as a key element of a man and a family's social capital had a much longer life, were much slower in following the trend.

Domestic violence has been notoriously under-reported; so too has rape, male rape existed, but appears almost never to have been reported. Sodomy was almost always a capital crime, and those found guilty were generally execrated by the crowds present at their execution or while they stood in thee pillary.

But riot has never been significant in the statistics of crime, and nor has political crime, from sedition to the more serious treason. However, and

for obvious reasons, political crime, especially in its more spectacular manifestations such as the wave of anarchist and socialist bombings and assassinations at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 29th centuries, generates far more publicity than the more common offence of petty theft and assault.

Criminals :

The concept of the criminal is relatively recent. But a series of stereotype offenders appear to have been present in the middle Ages. These were gradually reshaped in the early modern period, and then remoulded as the "Criminal class" or classes, or simply as criminals, principally during the 19th century.

Robber Knight and Robber Barons were a phenomenon of the middle ages eventually brought under control by the armed might of kings and princes but also, it has been argued, by an increasing gentility of manners among the ruling elites. The growth of capitalism led to a new kind of Robber Baron. Whose offences were not necessarily against the law.

At times the Robber Knight of the middle ages might have been scarcely distinguishable from bandits, but bandits have had a much longer existence. Bandits could acquire a romantic aura, but often not until after their deaths. Robin Hood is the obvious example, and a man who, allegedly, robbed the rich to give to the poor.

There is doubt about the existence of Robin Hood himself, but plenty of other bandits acquired his romantic image from the middle Ages onward.

In reality, however, few ever showed much solidarity with the peasantry and the poor. Bandit groups appear most often to have been united by kinship and friendship. They commonly had links with some local power holders who might even employ them as their own strong-arm men.

Bandits might also be drawn from marginal groups. In the middle Ages there was concern about the rootless Vagabond of course, there were indeed vagabond and beggars, some of whom, most notoriously deserters and beggar, some of whom, most notoriously deserters and discharged soldiers still armed with their miltdry weaponry could be dangerous. Their were also groups, such as entertainers, thinkers, and Roma (Gypsies) whose way of life put them on the road. Particular trades were stigmatized because of the filth or general unpleasantness that surrounded them – Knackers (Slaughterers of horses), skinners, and tanners are the obvious examples.

The obsession with the vagrant as criminal had a remarkable longevity from the medieval period untill well into the 19th century. The men who argued for a reform of the English police in the later 18th and early 19th centuries, for example, all expressed concern about vegabonds and those individuals who, the reformers believed preferred a life of idleness and looked for luxury, rather than indulging in respectable labour for an honest wage. Yet while there were continious in the perceptions regarding his or her motivation, and these are easier to substantiate, and those are easier to substantiate than a shift from violence to theft.

Most property crimes did not involve violence or the threat of violence. A high percentage of assaults, from pub brawls to rapes, generally seem to involve people who knew each other even people who were related. There was stranger –on-stranger violence, especially inoffences involving bands of brigands, burglars disturbed in the act, individual highwaymen, or footpads. But the violence of professional criminals was often committed among those themselves as, for example, when criminal gange fought over territory for illegal enterprises such as prostitution, illicit gambling, or the supply of heavily taxed or prohibited goods.

Policing :

In the meideval and early modern periods, unless an offence was specifically directed against a prince or a state, it was generally up to the victim, or the victims relatives and friends, to pursue and often even to apprehend the offender. Some individuals went to considerable expense to get valuable property returned. In 18th century England, for example, victims of horse theft often advertised in newspapers or had handbills printed and circulated; a horse, after all, was a valuable property. Such advertisements often met with success. Entrepreneur thief catches also established themselves. They lived by fees and rewards from the state for the apprehension of serious offenders, or fees and regards from victims. Sometimes they simply negotiated with offenders for the return of stolen property rather then apprehending them and bringing them to trial.

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Trial :

In the middle Ages only two forms of legal proof were acceptable : the testimony of at least two impartial witnesses, or a confession of guilt from the accused. This created problems. It was often difficult to find the necessary witnesses, and in small communities where everyone knew everyone else impartiality could often be compromised or disputed. The requirement that the guilty confess led to the sanctioning of torture and the notion that resisting torture could purge "partial proofs" such as the testimony of one witness or circumstantial evidence. At least by the early 16th century these practices were perceived as unsatisfactory; courts increasingly began to make decisions or circumstantial evidence, and the use of torture generally declined.

A significant difference began to emerge between the courts of continental Europe and those in England with the use of the jury from around the 12th century. While continental European princes favoured courts administered and directed by professional jurists, in England, even through the King's law became dominant, decisions as to guilt remained in the hands of jurors.

Punishment :

The popular view of barbaric, brutal punishment in the middle ages giving way under the pressure of Enlightenment humanitarianism to a more humane system of incarceration, with attempts to reform the offender, is open to a series of criticisms. In particular, while some forms of punishment

have been more prominent at different times, a range of sanctions has commonly existed. A simple shift from brutal retributive punishments to reasoned punishments linked with reformation is not born out by the evidence.

There were barbaric and brutal punishments under the Roman emperors brutal, examplary punishment were devised for serious crimes with offenders being in the arena. The aim was to deter potential offenders, and also to demonstrate the power of the emperor. During the medieval and early modern periods, with similar motives, applalling violence the lives of Kings or the disruption of their realm.

All of these punishments were the result of some form of legal process in societies with some form of written law. Where local, customary law emerged and developed in the wake of the retreating Romans, there were probably brutal punishments, but there is not much evidence of what went on. The vikings were supposed to have had aritual execution in which the son of a murdered father cutopen the ribeage of his father's killer forming the shape of an eagle with its wings extended. But the evidence for this is to be found primarily in scandinavian sages, written drawn long after they were composed, by individuals who, arguably, were keep to protrcly the vikings are particularly blood thirsty in addition, there are doubts about the precise meanings of some of the world used.

There were blood feuds in the middle ages. Continuing as notes earlier, in some societies as vendatta. But monetary sanctions were also

used as a way of reestablishing the peace between groups after bloodshed. There is little precise evidence about the scale of capital punishment before the end of the 15th century. Before this date, execution appears to have been perceived as a way of demonstrating power over traitors and outlaws rather than as a judicial sanction.

Prisons :

Prisons were also used by the Romans, but not usually as a punishment. They were primarily places to hold the accused awaiting trial, and such practice continued through the middle ages. However, increasingly some offences in some territories began to be punished by incarreration. In 1298, as the legal experts of the Italian universities continued to pore over the justinian code, pope Bonigace VIII issued a lawbook, Liber sextus, authorizing abbots and bishops to punish offenders in their courts with prison term for a specific period or for life. At the same time, Florence and venice began building public prisons.

Form the early 16th century it became common for petty offenders to be incarcerated in workhouses. The intention was that the experience would correct the idleness, that it was supposed, fostered wicked habits and crime. In France, Spain and some Italian States rather more serious offenders were despatched to serve on galleys. The most significant developments in persons as a means of punishment, however, had to await the 18th and early 19th centuries.

The early 19th century advocates of prison reform experimented with various prison regimes. Some favoured convicts labouring in complete silence, their faces masked so that they could be known only by their prison numbers, others favoured solitary confinement, with the convicts left alone with their thoughts, and invariably a Bible, to consider their wicked ways. The severity of some of the new "Penitentiaries" was such that some convicts had mental breakdown, and some attempted suicide.

Concern about Juvenile offenders and first offenders mixing with hardened recidivists prompted other experiments with agricultural or industrial schools, or for systems of probation for the first, or very minor, offenders. The extent to which the punishment or the reformation of the offender was stressed varied over time as well as from country to country across the 19th and 20th centuries.

1.2.5 Crime in Modern Society :

We live in a remarkable era, one in which the nature of crime, the nature of our response to crime, and the centrality of crime to the future of the nations of the world are all without precedent. There are three distinct dimensious to this new global reality which, taken together, create the context for a new strategy for research, that will assist in the development of sound policy and practice. They are :

i)   Transnational crime

ii)   International justice

iii) Crime and justice in emerging democracies.

Transnational Crime :

It has certainly been the case through much of this history of nations that crimes were committed across national boundaries, but in the new global era, the phenomenon of transnational crime has taken on new dimensions. Crime committed in one country can more easily have impacts in other countries. Offenders can more easily move across borders to commit crimes and to evade detection. And the global economics and technologies have made possible a greater number of criminal schemes and opportunities.

Three years ago, the National Institute of Justice asked the National Academy of Sciences, the highly prestigious, independent scholary academy of the United States, to examine the phenomenon of transnational crime and to design a research agenda for understanding it better. The Academy, in its report, identified.

The factors that have converged to create an environment in which transnational crime can flourish are the globalization of the economy, the rise in immigration, and the improved communications technology that has transformed our world so that national borders no longer serve as barriers to human communication.

These three forces both define our global era, and make possible a new strain of criminal activity, some of it highly organized and some of it quite fluid. These three forces-global economics, immigration, communications technology – also appear to be gaining momentum, so we

can confidently predict that the new types of criminal behavior will continue to evolve at a high rate.

International Justice :

The second powerful trend we can observe is the movement toward international system of justice. In order to respond to these changing crime conditions, and to the changing political structures among nations, we feel compelled to develop new legal institutions and understandings multi-lateral assistance treaties are being developed on any number of topics. Extraction treaties are proliferation.

International police forces and multi-national task forces of law enforcement agencies are expanding. With new definitions of international crimes and human rights violations that can be adjudicated before international tribunals. Now where are these issue more pressing than in the European Union where new political arrangements, and newly open borders, with increasing immigration and transnational commerce, have created an imperative to develop new forms of law enforcement and adjudication.

The new order that is being born is also reflecting certain geopolitical realities. The United States is exerting enormous influence over the globalization of the worlds system of policing and justice as the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Drug Enforcement Administration, customs service and other American law enforcement agencies establish office

overseas, train foreign counterparts, and develop operational links with local police agencies.

Crime and Justice In Emerging Democracies :

The third dimension to the new global reality is that the welcome transition from totalization regimes to democratic forms of government has often been accompained by rises in crime, fear of crime, and calls for the police, who, under the prior regime, may have enforced the wishes of class in power, to bring crime down and restore order. Whether it is in Haiti, or South Africa or Russia, the efforts to establish democratic regimes have been threatened by the rise in crime and the difficulties in creating an effective police and adjudicative capacity that reflects those democratic values.

The crimes that concern these countries that concern these countries may not be "new" crimes, such as transnational crime. Increased drug dealing, high levels of street violence, a wave of car jackings, intergroup hatred and violence – all of these can be highly corrosive of the public's trust in government if the government cannot bring them under control. And, if the prior regims did not experience these crime conditions, than the forces of the old order have won another skirmish in their battle to return to the status qup ante. The unique problem of official corruption deserves special mention.

In a fragic democracy, where the police force are not accustomed to investigating crimes by agents of the state, the rule of law is uncertain, the

prosecution and economy provides temptations to government workers to supplement their income. In these fragile democracies, the risk of corruption on the part of government officials is high.

Modern Crime Trends :

Perhaps one of the questions most of people's minds in the early part of the 21st century is the likely direction of violent crime rates in the years ahead. Researchers devoted considerable attention to the dramatic violent crime increase of the late 1980s and the equally starting decline starting in the early 1990s. Numerous authors have considered possible causes of this crime boom and bust cycle, and proposed a number of explanations. These include more guns in the hands of youths; educational judicial, and economic institutionals shifts; more handguns among the citizenry and thus a better protected citizenry; and policing strategies that both are arive by data and pay attention to minor crimes. Marked disagreements about the causes of these recent ups and downs in violent crime rates are surpassed in contentiousness by differences of opinion as to where those rates are now headed.

In response to increasing Juvenile homicide rates starting in the mid-1980s, researchers and policy analysis alike predicted that the world was on the verge of a wave of serious teen violence "There are actually two crime trends in America-one for the young. One for the mature – which are moving in opposite directions". According to this view, increases in teen

violence will be ariven by increasing numbers of teens in the near future, high poverty rates among the families of many of these teens, and declining effectiveness of adult supervision of preteens and teens.

Historically, the impact of gun buns, or extra sentences meted out for gun crimes, is equivocal. Some appear to have worked, others have not. Future gun violence rates, therefore, may depend in part on whether laws are passed restricting gun purchases or requiring additional gun safety features such as trigger locks. Whether such initiatives will be passed in difficult to gauge given the extreme political volatility surrounding such issues.

Spacial Pattern of Crime :

In addition to questions of level and lethality of crime, there are questions of crime distribution. One of the most durable patterns in the ecology of crime has been strong offense, and now victimization differentials, between urban, suburban, and rural locations.

Within cities, better-off neighborhoods will increasingly segregate themselves from surrounding worse off neighborhoods through private policing, restricting access, or both, thus increasing between neighborhood crime and victimization differentials. In suburban locations, gated communities used to be limited to extremely high-income locales.

A final issue relevant to urban and rural offending and crime victimization differentials is population redistributions across these three

types of locales. But the nature of the population redistribution between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan communities in the past 30 years has been farmland and drug-selling city gange setting up auxiliaries in small towns to serve the burgeoning teen populations there are far too sample.

The net migration gains or losses for nonmetropolitan locations are complex in terms of age, status, income and race. Generally, lower income, less educated, nonwhite households appear to contribute less to the net gains and losses in population than do higher income, more educated, white households. At this time, all that is clear with regard to metro and nonmetro population shifts is that there are no clear-cut longstanding population redistribution trends that have obvious implications for crime differentials by region.

Lack of political will, increasing predominance of lower income population in cities, continuing weakness in urban services, tax bases, and employment opportunities and a majority of daily commutes with both suburban origins and destinations since 1990 suggest increasing long-term violence rates in cities. Such forces seem unlikely to be over-come by any as – yet unforeseable trends, save one : an extremely severe and prolonged gasoline crisis that dramatically decreases the affordability of a suburban residence and / or job location.

Increasing Numbers of Released Offenders :

Adult populations who are either incarcerated or under correctional supervision increased sizably during the last three decades of the 20th

century. Even though sentences for many violent crimes have lengthened considerably in response to the implementation of sentencing guidelines, truth-in-sentencing acts, and shifting public opinion, it seems undeniable that communities from which these offenders were removed will be flooded in the future with returning, released offenders. Formal and informal institutions, as well as fundamental household structures in innercity already have been markedly affected by these high removal rates.

Given what we know about formal and informal social control processes, and collective efficacy, the removal of these adults and their subsequent return, are likely to create long-term disturbances in the communities where the removal and return rates are high. Accumulation of social control on the street and political leverage may all be severely compromised.

Immigration and Extremism :

We have witnessed incidents of violence spurred by racial hatred and extremist rightwing, antigovernment views, or both in recent years. The Oklahoma city bombing of the federal building in 1995 and the July 4th weekend killing spree of Bejamin Nathaniel Smith in 1999 are just two examples. These incidents and the hate groups sponsoring, or at least encouraging, their perpetrators demonstrate concern among a number of politically conservative white males about the increasingly multicultural and multicolored composition of society. According to Matt Hale, the leader of the Church with which Smith was affiliated, "Society is like a

tecter totter. To the extent that people of color gain position in society, white lose."

The evidence available seems to suggest that, to the extent that adverse economic impacts are created by large immigrant concentrations, those impacts are concentrated particularly among less educated, native-born persons. It is exactly among this population segment that membership in hate groups appears to be spreading.

Crime Boom of 1960s :

The crime boom that began in the 1960 is arguablt one of the most important issue, because it preceded and no doubt encouraged the other two developments. The crime boom is noteworthy in historical terms. Researchers generally agree that at least among western nations, violent crime rates have been declining for much of the past five centuries. There were especially large declines in violent crime rates in most nations in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Although crime may be closely linked to urban areas in the public imgagination, Ralph weisheit and Joseph Donnerneyer argue convincingly that the crime problems faced by people of rural areas should not be ignored by policymakers. They point out that the study of rural crime has the potential of making important contributions to crime policy, as well as to criminological theory and research methods.

Economic conditions also distinguish rural from urban areas, although the diversity of rural economies makes generalization difficult.

Although many rural areas adjacent to larger metropolitan areas have experienced rapid growth in economic activity in recent years, many remote rural areas are facing increasing poverty, unemployment, and underemployment. Technology continues to have important and diverse impacts on rural communities : in some cases, reducing the impact of geographical isolation (e.g. cellular telephones, computers); in other, greatly changing, economic productivity (e.g. pesticides, herbicides, and concentrated fertilizers); and in still others, raising opportunities for new crime types (e.g. theft of increasingly expensive farm chemicals and agricultural machinery).

Karen Heimer argues that there has indeed been a sizable increase in street crime rates of women compared with men during the last four decades of the 20th century and that the best explanation for this increase is the economic marginalization of women. According to him women's share of arrests for seven different property crimes (larceny, forgery, embezzlement, burglary, motor vehicle theft, stolen property, and arson) and three violent crimes (robbery, aggravated assault, and other assault) all showed substantial increases from 1960 to present. The only crime for which women showed a declining rate vis-à-vis men during this period was murder. Many of the increases in female-to-male crime were substantial. Heimer argues that these increases occurred because of a decline in male crime rates coupled with increases, or smaller declines, in female crime rates.

1.2.6 Impact of Information, Communication Technology and Crime :

Although IT has undoubtedly had revolutionary effects on many aspects of life, both its current and its potential impacts on criminal justice are arguably even more far reaching. Brown provides an intriguing history of some of the major milestones passed by criminal justice bureaucracies as they have adopted to evolving IT capacities, different segments of the criminal justice system have moved ahead at different rates, with courts generally leading the way and corrections lagging further behind.

As recently as the 1970s there were virtually no specific laws against computer crime at any level of government, instead the few computer crimes that were processed under existing statutes such as embezzlement or theft. By contrast, by the end of the 20th century, 40 to 50 states plus the federal Government had eaucted at least some legislation specific to computer crime with more specific regulation likely to follow. Moreover, as computers become ever more closely linked to economic, political and social systems throughout the world, there is growing recognition that the regulation of computer crime is global issue.

As the IT revolution gathers steam, it raises increasingly thorny problems relating to the balance between individual rights and law enforcement effectiveness. IT provides criminal justice bureacracies with an unprecedented ability to investigate, persecute, and control the citizenry. At the same time, IT provides potential law breakers with new tools to avoid detection and prosecution.

Despite the tremendous advances from IT applications in criminal justice processing, major challenges remain. In terms of adapting to IT, the various components of the criminal justice system have to develop more effective methods of information sharing, they must face the ongoing. Problem of supporting the IT changes already implemented and they must continue to mediate the boundary between individual privacy and the growing demand for public access. In terms of law enforcement the explosion of IT has forced criminal justice agencies to faces the challenges posed by investigating and prosecuting crime types that not only were expanding exponentially but also are increasingly rendering meaningless the traditional concept of local, regional, and even national jurisdiction.

So far we have discussed vital concepts, nature and theoretical approaches regarding Crime and Media. In the chapter we will understand the methodological base of the present study.