



Madurai Kamaraj University

(University with potential for Excellence)

Ditance Education



**M.A.CRIMINOLOGY AND
POLICE ADMINISTRATION**

SECOND YEAR

Paper - IV

**PREVENTION OF CRIME AND
DELINQUENCY**

ANBA 1 TO 500

Dear Student,

Crime prevention is a concept of almost uncomfortable task.

Crime prevention is any initiative or policy which reduces or eliminates the aggregate level of victimization or the risk of individual criminal participation. Crime primary prevention address individual and family level factors correlated with later criminal participation. Secondary Crime prevention refers to techniques focused on at risk situations such as youth who are dropping out of school of getting involved in gangs. Tertiary crime prevention is used after a crime has occurred in order to prevent successive incidents such measures can be seen in the implementation of new security policies.

This paper helps you to understand the various crime preventive measures to safeguard the individual.

We wish you Best of Luck

**Department of Criminology
and Police Administration**

M.A. CRIMINOLOGY AND POLICE ADMINISTRATION

PREVENTION OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

SYLLABUS

UNIT 1: INTRODUCTION

Conceptual definition of Crime prevention, History of Crime prevention, primary, secondary and tertiary crime prevention, prevention of various types of crimes, (Educational programmes, training and assistance, Recidivism; Fear of crime).

UNIT 2: METHODS OF CRIME PREVENTION

Punitive methods, intervention method, mechanical method, mass method, clinical method, group relation's method, Environmental design, Reducing first offenders and recidivism.

UNIT 3: CRIME PREVENTION AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE ADMINISTRATION

Crime Prevention by police – police information centres, May I help you, squad, community policing, Intervention programmes, Patrolling and Beats, Intelligence, Surveillance; mediation in courts; Corruption control methods; Correctional services and prevention of crime.

UNIT 4: CONTEMPORARY PROGRAMMES

Public relations campaign, Potential Victim protection, Demotivating potential offenders, socialisations of youth at risk, programmes aimed at slums and bad family situations, programmes to reduce school failure.

UNIT 5: CRIME PREVENTION ORGANIZATIONS

Role of Boys Clubs and friends of police in Crime Prevention, responsibilities of NGO's in crime prevention, PCVC, community watch, Neighbourhood Watch, Community involvement; international cooperation in Crime Prevention, Local Community Organizations, Chicago Area Project.

M.A. CRIMINOLOGY AND POLICE ADMINISTRATION

PREVENTION OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

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- The need for Crime Prevention
- Meaning of Crime Prevention
- Types of Crime Prevention
- Theories of Crime Prevention
- Crime Prevention Research
- Educational Programmes, Training and Assistance
- Recidivism

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CRIME PREVENTION AND COMMUNITY SAFETY

(History, Fear of Crime)

INTRODUCTION

The period from the mid- 1970s to the end of the 1990s witnessed a shift in focus from situational to social crime prevention, to disorder and eventually to community safety. This development can be regarded as one of a gradual widening out of the analytics focus and at the same time a blurring of the distinctions between these processes.

OBJECTIVES

- To know the methods of various crime prevention.
- To understand the various type of crimes.
- To learn the various principles of crimes.
- To know about various crimes prevention research.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 1.1. INTRODUCTION
- 1.2. Concepts, Theories and Classification
- 1.3. The need for crime Prevention
- 1.4. Meaning of crime Prevention
- 1.5. Types of crime prevention
- 1.6. Theories of Crime Prevention
- 1.7. Crime Prevention Research
- 1.8. Educational Programmes, Training and Assistance
- 1.9. Recidivism
- 1.10. Key words
- 1.11. Answer to CYP questions
- 1.12. Model Questions

The interest in crime prevention was given a new lease of political and academic life by Ron Clarke of Britain in the late 1970s. Clarke, who was Director of the Home Office, played a key role in developing situational crime prevention policies by seeking to provide a response to crime which was both cost effective and politically and socially acceptable.

The enormous impact of these situational measures is difficult to gauge retrospectively since many of them have subsequently become an integral part of our everyday lives. By the mid-1980s, however, problems of displacement and of “designing out” a range of serious crimes, including rape, domestic violence and racist attacks, indicated the limits of the situational perspective and encouraged the promotion of social prevention measures in the form of strengthening neighborhoods by encouraging citizen involvement and fostering informal controls.

However, by the mid – 1990s the promise of developing more effective social crime prevention measures was called into question by the observation that crime control strategies were most difficult to mobilize in the needy areas and that dealing with crime in high-risk areas required a different type of approach. It was increasingly felt within policy circles that the problem of crime required a more comprehensive and better co-ordinated response while retaining a local focus. A series of inter-agency initiatives were established during the 1980s to address the issue of crime, and a number of agencies have become increasingly involved in the prevention and reduction of different forms of crime. The logic of these developments was endorsed and extended by the Morgan Report (1991), whose recommendation that the responsibility for crime preventing and community safety should be devolved to local authorities was implemented by an incoming government. The subsequent passing of the Crime and Disorder Act (1998) consciously linked crime control with disorder and saw both as part of a more comprehensive community safety strategy.

The shift from crime prevention to community safety has extended the terms of reference and made everything from crime and incivilities to environmental issues part of a more comprehensive agenda. The fact that community safety is as elusive and loosely defined a term as crime only serves to extend the open-endedness of this new agenda. Crime has increasingly become fused with disorder and both have become enveloped within the more general notion of community safety, despite the fact that the focus of three terms, the nature of the events involved, the established forms of intervention employed and the characteristics of the victims is remarkably different. It is not so much that crime has become normalized but rather it has become absorbed within a more complex set of overarching relations. This widening of the frame of reference has been reflected in the language and concepts which have been used by policy –markers to address these issues. Such terms as “dangerousness”, “anti-social behaviour”, “security” and “social exclusion” are necessarily ill-defined. The wide-ranging terminology represents a shift away from the style of language that has been used in relation to the “war against crime”, which talks of “targets” and “campaigns”, From this “get tough” crime control perspective, the claim is that there are a relatively small number of offenders, victims, groups neighborhoods (“hot spots”) who are “responsible” for a disproportionate amount of crime and victimization. However, as the issue of crime becomes further integrated into the wider matrix of community safety the focus necessarily shifts to aggregate problem population- the underclass, the marginalized and the socially excluded. Consequently, a hybrid discourse is emerging which at one moment identifies the problem as

a limited number of deviant individuals, while at another regards whole sections of the population as a problem.

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Whereas the war against crime is seen as something which can be “won” and criminals reformed or deterred, the terms “underclass” and the “Socially excluded” come close to suggesting a permanent condition which has to be managed rather than eliminated. Policy-makers and practitioners espouse military metaphors and then in the same breath refer to social support and individual needs. This new hybrid discourse is appearing in various local authority-generated policy documents and in the newly established sites such as local authority community safety forums. The multi-agency forums are well situated to cultivate this ambiguous discourse since they typically incorporated the coercive powers of the police alongside the more welfare-oriented approaches of social services and education departments. The formalization of these multi-agency interventions has created new alliances and new lines of responsibility. Importantly, the role of the key regulatory agencies is changing significantly in this process. The police in particular have been “let of the hook” and can now legitimately claim that neither crime control nor community safety is their sole responsibility. At the same time, they are required to participate in a wider range of interventions which shifts the balance of their work away from crime control and towards public order and social work functions.

It has in fact been evident for some time that crime is related to almost every other negative indicator in society- poor health, limited educational facilities, unreliable transport, bad housing and the more serious environmental problems. Indeed, these negative indicators predictably overlap to the extent that high crime areas also ran high on every other scale of social and economic misfortune. Thus, multiple victimization (the tendency for the same individual or household to be a victim of a range of hazards) is becoming a more appropriate point of reference than the more linear concept of repeat victimization, which has shown that individuals and victims are subject to serial forms of victimization. Multiple victimization is the logical counterpart of multi-agency intervention, since one of the original justifications for developing a multi-agency approach was the recognition that a range of different agencies often intervene independently in the lives of certain individuals in response to the various manifestations of the same underlying problem. Unforeseen hazards. From the vantage point of community safety it follows that all citizens are more or less directly concerned with the issue of security. The shift in responsibility to local authorities potentially opens the door to new and broader forms of accountability since there is a perceived need to consult with a wide body of local opinion in order to identify priorities, elicit co-operation and establish support. However, rather than create greater transparency, the move towards local authority-driven community safety programmes has instead created new forms of complexity and opacity. This has been achieved through a combination of the development of new forms of managerialism as well as through decentralization and privatization.

1.1 CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND CLASSIFICATION

Crime prevention is a concept of almost unending elasticity. As Harvey et al. suggest, there are effectively no boundaries to crime prevention work. Proponents and practitioners subsume widely divergent practices under the heading of “crime prevention” and “community safety”. At one extreme, crime prevention can be very narrowly defined in terms of physical security techniques or apparatuses. It may refer in limited sense to the latest technological wizardry. At the other extreme, it can be and often is extended to encompass any interventions which are perceived to have some beneficial impact on the physical or social world, however defined and for whomsoever. In part, this stems from the fact that genuine crime prevention is inherently very difficult to assess, as it involves securing a “non-event”. Crime prevention, in part, is activity which results in inactivity: a “non-crime”. This begs the question, how do we know when a crime has been prevented? The concept “crime” as a generic term is also itself the subject of fierce definitional debates.

As a social construct “crime” while the social meaning of older crimes may change. This raises the questions: what activity are we seeking to prevent, and how may that activity be viewed in the future? Prevention presupposes certain elements of prediction, itself an uncomfortable task. Furthermore, the relationship between a preventive activity and the desired outcome—the “non-crime”—is far from direct or simple. The potential influences on crime prevention are itself problematic.

Nevertheless, we can begin to strip down crime prevention work into some of its key component parts by asking a series of inter-related questions about any given intervention or activity:

- Has intervention or activity is proposed?
- To whom or what it directed?
- What is the intended outcome of the intervention or activity?
- What is it about the intervention or activity which it is believed will lead to a certain outcome?
- Under what condition or in which contexts will the activity produce the desired outcome?
- What intervention or activity is actually delivered?
- Under what conditions or in what contexts are the intervention or activity actually delivered?
- What outcomes result from the intervention or activity?
- How is the outcome evaluated or measured?
- What is the relative social value of the various outcomes?

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Together, these questions highlight a number of issues which often remain submerged or ignored in discussions about crime prevention. Questions 1 and 2 are reasonably straightforward in that they ask us to identify the intervention and its intended focus or audience. As we shall see, it is in response to these two questions that much of the conceptualization to date has been focused. Questions 3 to 5, however, require us to specify aims, how they relate to desired outcomes, and the mechanisms used to secure them. What is the ultimate objective of the activity? What is its intended impact? And how is this supposed or intended to come about? All of this necessitates rendering explicit theoretical presuppositions and underlying hypotheses.

All crime prevention measures embody assumptions or theories about the causes of crime: what it is about a given intervention which leads to it having particular preventive outcomes. And yet the causes of crimes are neither settled nor uncontested, but rather the subject of intense debate, competing evidence. We should be cautious of politicians, policy-makers and academics who proclaim a naivete or lack of interest in respect of an etiology: understanding of, or knowledge about, the causes of crime. Aspects of the design, implementation and analysis of a mode of crime prevention work carry with them nature. Furthermore, Question 5 recognises that all interventions will not have the same effects in different contexts. Hence, there is a need for a degree of context specificity or, at the very least, context sensitivity. Therefore, it is not just a question of what works? –i.e., which mechanisms produce what outcomes? – But what works where and for whom? –i.e., under what conditions or in which context?

Questions 6 and 7 require us to interrogate the implementation process. Hence, we need to know about the process and outcome, as well as the impact of the former on the latter. Many crime prevention projects have failed not necessarily because the idea was a bad one but because it was never properly implemented. Once again, the process will have implications for any assessment of the social and organizational context. Finally Questions 8 and 9 demand clarity as regards the means through which data is collected concerning the outcomes or effectiveness and how this is measured. Collectively, they pose the question: how do we know when a crime – or the harm and damage associated with it- has been prevented? Therefore they raise methodological issues about whether something “works”. More fundamentally, they also raise philosophical questions about the limits of our knowledge and how we come to know things. Methodological principles carry epistemological assumptions about the theory of how things come to be known consequently, they have implications for the methods used to gather knowledge in order to evaluate “success”. Finally, Question 10 forces us to relate the measured outcomes to normative issues about the appropriateness of the measures taken. Here we are asked to consider the social value of the consequence, whether intended or not, of prevention actions and their overall contribution to notions such as the “general good” or “social justice”.

DEFINING CRIME PREVENTION: ITS CONCEPTUAL BOUNDARIES

Crime prevention lies somewhere between the narrow craft of “policing” and this elephantine and somewhat amorphous processes of “social control”. The debates as to precisely where along this path crime prevention should be situated are reflected in the complex history of activity associated with the term and its organizational location. The narrow interpretation of crime prevention, until recently, has occupied the ascendancy in large part because of its traditional association with the work of the police.

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1. What is fear? Explain.
2. Explain the crime theories?
3. Describe conflict.
4. Illustrate crime prevention.
5. Explain about social problem.

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The first issue that is raised in attempts to define crime prevention is where to draw its boundaries. This brings us directly to the heart of Question 3 (above): should crime prevention be restricted to measures. The intended outcomes of which relate only directly to the reduction of criminal events? Or should it be sufficiently encompassing to include activity which may impact directly on “quality of life” issues, such as the “fear of crime”, but which may have only an indirect impact on crime? This tension between a narrow and broad definition is reflected in most of the conceptual and practical debates about what crime prevention is, whose responsibility it is and how it should be conducted.

Crime Prevention” and “Community Safety”

For crime prevention practitioners, this polarized conflict tends to be reproduced in, and coalesce around, an explicitly terminological debate, one which-as we shall see-is also mirrored in theoretical debates. Here the arguments revolve around the distinction between “crime prevention” and “community safety”. More recently, the distinction between “crime prevention” and “community safety”. More recently, the latter has found favour among many practitioners engaged in delivering local crime prevention initiatives. This has been particularly true of those operating outside of the police, although increasingly the police are also beginning to adopt the term. “Community safety” is the preferred term for many precisely because it reflects a broader approach to crime prevention and, hence, its evaluation. Through reference to the term “safety” it encompasses not just crime, narrowly defined, but also the much wider physical and social impact of crime and the anxieties to which it give rise.

Furthermore, the term “community safety” suggests a break with traditional assumptions about crime prevention as a narrow specialism. proponents of such a terminological distinction argue that crime is intrinsically related to wider social problems. Crime compounds and is compounded by other forms of social disadvantage. Crime is rarely the only problem within a community, particularly high crime communities, and hence measures to address crime also need to address these wider issues. Furthermore, crime rarely has a simplistic or monocausal explanation. Crime is not caused in the deterministic sense that $A+B = \text{Crime}$. Rather, crime is the outcome of a variety of influencing factors and conditions which are overlaid on each other. This is embodied in the principle of “multiple aetiology” as opposed to any idea of “monocausal explanations”. The diversity and range of severity of acts which constitute “crimes” only serve to compound this.

The term “community safety” is seen by practitioners to be preferable for another reason. Implicitly, it stresses the idea that action to prevent crime should be local. The notion of “community” here. Appeals, both to a decentralized (or “bottom-up”) understanding of policy-making and to collective, not just individual, experiences. “Community” is seen as a locus of informal social control and as constituting an important force in reducing crime. It is simultaneously a target of and a resource for, crime prevention. Furthermore, the argument here is that the control of crime should reflect the nature of the phenomenon itself. Since a considerable degree of crime, particularly that which has a significant direct impact on people’s everyday lives is local in nature. It follows that crime prevention should reflect this through a “community” or neighbourhood focus.

In keeping with this broader understanding, a further attraction of the term “community safety” is that it has come to imply the need for interventions to be delivered through a “partnership” approach, drawing together a variety of relevant organizations-in the public, voluntary and private sectors – as well as community groups. This has become a dominant aspect of recent policy. It is premised on the belief that social reactions to crime, as

far as possible, should reflect the nature of the phenomenon itself, which as we have noted has a “multiple aetiology”. A multi-agency or “partnership” approach is favoured in that it affords a holistic approach to crime which is problem-oriented rather than organizationally led.

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The Home Office’s Standing Conference on crime Prevention strongly endorsed such an understanding. Consequently, it played a crucial role in the promotion of “community safety” as an appropriate alternative term. It came to the view that the “term ‘crime prevention’ is often narrowly interpreted and this reinforces the view that it is solely the responsibility of the police. “Interpretation which could encourage “greater participation from all sections of the community in the fight against crime”. Hence, “community safety”, it is argued, incorporates and encompasses a greater diversity of activity and people (both professional and lay) which itself, it is believed, will assist in the reduction of crime. The Report deliberately sought to include wider social processes in the prevention of crime and its effects. Here, community safety comes close to forms of urban regeneration and community development.

Others, however, have warned of the dangers of turning crime prevention in to a “catch all” category by forever stretching its boundaries. The concern is that it will lose any sense of specificity and become virtually meaningless in its desire to be all encompassing. However, rather than trying to resolve this conceptual debate in one way or the other, we should recognize that the issues which it references constitute the very fabric of crime prevention work. Consequently, these tensions re-emerge throughout the ensuing discussions.

In an attempt to give a certain degree of clarity to a broad meaning of crime prevention, van Dijk proposes a definition of crime prevention as: the total of all policies, measures and techniques, outside the boundaries of the criminal justice system, aiming at the reduction of the various kinds of damage caused by act defined as criminal by the state.

This is a useful definition in that it takes the formal criminal justice system as a key element in the construction of crime prevention. It seeks to specify “crime” as an act which is so labeled by the state through the processes of criminalization, and juxtaposes “prevention” against the activities of formal criminal justice. As a definition it is sufficiently broad to encompass strategies to address the harm and damage which may arise as a result of crime. It converts fear-reduction programmes, as well as policies which seek to give assistance to the victims of crimes, as they address the damaging results of criminality. Understandably, van Dijk’s definition seeks to focus attention on informal strategies outside of the criminal justice system. However, in doing so, he unnecessarily and falsely rigidifies the distinction between what is “inside” and “outside” the “boundaries of the criminal justice system”. These boundaries are neither clearly demarcated nor static. They change over time and place. For example, when is social worker or a doctor part of the criminal justice system? Is a police officer always within the system? In practice there is often an overlap between interventions which fall under the headings of “criminal justice” and “crime prevention” Much that takes place within, or future crimes by means of its perceived “rehabilitative” or “deterrent” effect. Some initiatives, particularly those aimed at juveniles, deliberately take their referrals both from those who have broken the law and those who may be “at risk” of offending or “getting into trouble”. Such initiatives blur the boundaries of what constitutes the criminal justice system. This blurring is further complicated by the dominant “partnership” approach to crime prevention, whereby a variety of agencies, many of which are not traditionally associated with criminal justice, are brought together to develop collaborative policies and practice.

Furthermore, the criminal justice system itself is a historically contingent and (arbitrary) social construct, which has arisen more through competition between professional groups and agencies in pursuit of their own claims to specialist expertise and legitimacy than any rational strategic plan.

Fear of Crime

The perceived appropriateness of the term “community safety”, with its broader social referents, has marched hand-in-hand with, and been fuelled by, debates about the “fear of crime”. The recent elevated concern with “fear of crime” is largely associated with the growth of victimization surveys as an instrument of crime” is largely associated with the growth of victimization surveys as an instrument of criminological research and criminal justice policy. Surveys have revealed the apparent increasing concern about crime among the public. Of greater significance has been the finding that this anxiety leads to changes in individual behaviour patterns, such as not going out alone at certain times or avoiding certain places or people, which itself may have an adverse impact on community life and processes of informal social control. On the assumption that victimization surveys offer researchers a means of objectively measuring risk, “fear has generally come to be treated as predominantly a function of risk”. Consequently, much debate has focused on the relationship between fear and the risk of victimization.

The social and spatial patterning of levels of fear revealed by local crime surveys broadly maps the distribution of victimization. However, the literature has also identified a weak correlation between “fear of crime” (as reported in survey findings) and the risk of victimization, most notably among women, the elderly and people living in low crime, rural or suburban areas. This has led some commentators to identify “the apparent paradox that those who are most fearful are least often victims”. One American commentator, after reviewing the available empirical evidence, concluded that, “there has been no convincing evidence that criminal victimization produces greater fear of crime than does the lack of being victimized”. Despite the theoretical and methodological objections that could be raised against such an assertion, this “apparent paradox” has taken centre stage in debates about fear of crime. Moreover, the fear of crime has come to be seen as analytically separate from the problem of crime itself.

Hence, “fear of crime appears to be a serious problem which needs to be tackled separately from the incidence of crime”. As a consequence, people’s fears have come to be seen as deserving specific policy attention almost irrespective of issues about the incidence of crime. Reducing, or at least addressing, people’s fear of crime has become a major policy goal in and of itself. It is this ambiguous relationship between fear and crime which the term “community safety” captures by incorporating them both under one broad heading. Moreover, there is an important paradox in the connection between “community safety” or “crime prevention” and “fear of crime”. Policies addressed at the first two may actually serve to increase the latter by reminding people of their vulnerability. Fear, after all, is an incentive for crime prevention, one which commercial interests are willing to exploit. However, whether preventive activity actually reduces fear is itself a more complex matter. The desire for security and the absence of fear may be insatiable and unattainable, as the quest itself fuels anxiety. This serves to remind us that the growth of crime prevention may be a symptom of a much deeper sense of insecurity. However, it is apparent that crime prevention and fear of crime are both part of a dynamic, if volatile, relationship.

CLASSIFICATION OF CRIME PREVENTION

The most significant attempts to conceptualize and classify types of crime prevention have focused on specifying the two concerns raised by Questions 1 and 2 (above). These are, first, the nature of the measure itself and the processes or structures that it seeks to alter and, second, the intended target audience for the measure, or to whom it is addressed. With this in mind, one of the earliest recent attempts to define crime prevention was that offered by Lejins (1967) who developed a threefold typology, differentiating between the techniques employed in various crime prevention activities:

- punitive prevention, or deterrence
- corrective prevention, or the elimination of criminogenic social conditions
- Mechanical prevention or measures to reduce criminal opportunities.

What is important here is that Lejins, unlike van Dijk, does not exclude the formal criminal justice system but begins to broaden the field of inquiry beyond its “deterrent effect”, which has been the dominant understanding of crime prevention since the early nineteenth century. Lejins began tentatively to point towards forms of proactive prevention which were either concerned with social conditions or physical opportunities. What is more, this early definition captured (and helped reproduce) the essential problematic which remains at the heart of crime prevention theory today namely the tension between reducing opportunities through situational measures and social modes of intervention.

Crime Prevention

Crime prevention is a term describing techniques used for reducing victimization as well as deterring crime and criminals. It is applied specifically to efforts made by governments to reduce crime, enforce the law, and maintain criminal justice.

Crime prevention is any initiative or policy which reduces or eliminates the aggregate level of victimization or the risk of individual criminal participation. It includes government and community based programmes to reduce the incidents of risk factors correlated with criminal participation, the rate of victimization as well as efforts to reduce perceptions and fear of crime.

Criminologists such as Gottfredson, McKenzie, Eck, Farrington, Sherman, Waller and others have been at the forefront of analyzing what works to prevent crime. Prestigious commissions and research bodies, such as the World Health Organization, United Nations, the United States National Research Council, the UK Audit Commission and so on, have analyzed their and others’ research on what lowers rates of interpersonal crime. They agree that governments must go beyond law enforcement and criminal justice to tackle the risk factors that cause crime because it is more cost effective and leads to greater social benefits than the standard ways of responding to crime. Interestingly, multiple opinion polls also confirm public support for investment in prevention. Waller uses these materials in less law, more order to propose specific measures to reduce crime as well as a crime bill.

Some of the highlights of these authorities are set out below with some sources for further reading. The World Health Organization Guide (2004) complements the World Report on Violence and Health (2002) and the 2003 World Health Assembly Resolution 56-24 for governments to implement nine recommendations, which were: Create, implement and monitor a national action plan for violence prevention.

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- Enhance capacity for collecting data on violence.
- Define priorities for, and support research on the causes, consequences, costs and prevention of violence.
- Promote primary prevention into social and educational policies. Strengthen responses for victims of violence
- Integrate violence prevention into social and educational policies, and thereby promote gender and social equality.
- Increase collaboration and exchange of information of violence prevention.
- Promote and monitor adherence to international treaties, laws and other mechanisms to protect human rights.
- Seek practical, internationally agreed responses to the global drugs and global arms trade.

The authoritative commissions agree on the role of municipalities, because they are best able to organize the strategies to tackle the risk factors that cause crime. The European Forum for Urban Safety and the United States Conference of mayors have stressed that municipality must target the programmes to meet the needs of youth at risk and women who are vulnerable to violence. To succeed they need to establish a coalition of key agencies such as schools, job creation, social services, housing and law enforcement around a diagnosis. Impressive successful policies to reduce crime in cities such as Birmingham and Bogota illustrate this as do the local neighbourhood successes in Chicago.

Types of Crime Prevention

Primary prevention: primary prevention address individual & family level factors correlated with later criminal participation. Individual level factors such as attachment to school, involvement in pro-social activities, etc., decrease the probability of criminal involvement. Family level factors such as consistent parenting skills similarly reduce individual level risk. Risk factors are additive in nature. The greater the number of risk factors presents the greater the risk of criminal involvement. In addition there are initiatives which seek to alter rates of crime at the community or aggregate level. For example, Larry Sherman from the University of Maryland in Policing Domestic Violence (1993) demonstrated that changing the policy of police response to domestic violence calls altered the probability of subsequent violence. Policing "hot spots, areas of known criminal activity decreases the number of criminal events reported to the police in those areas.

Secondary Prevention:

Secondary prevention refers to techniques focused on at risk situations such as youth who are dropping out of school or getting involved in gangs. It also refers to targeting social programmes and law enforcement into neighbourhoods where crime rates are high. The use of secondary crime prevention in cities such as Birmingham and Bogota have achieved large reductions in crime and violence. Programmes that are focused on youth at risk such as the youth inclusion programmes in England or Quantum Opportunities in the USA have been shown to significantly reduce crime. Other examples of successful secondary crime prevention programmes can be found in the work of the international Centre for Prevention of Crime, Waller's less law, More Order and at [www. Prevention- crime. ca](http://www.Prevention-crime.ca).

Tertiary prevention: Tertiary prevention is used after a crime has occurred in order to prevent successive incidents such measures can be seen in the implementation of new security policies following acts of terrorism, most notably the September 11, 2001 attacks.

Social conditions such as housing, family income, and education leave their deepest marks on children and youth. Improvements in these social conditions have been shown to open up new vistas for young people who might otherwise end up behind bars.

This is the principle behind Crime prevention Through Social Development (CPTSD): promoting well- being through social, health, and educational measures.

Such international authorities as the United Nations (2002) agree that CPTSD is effective, particularly with children and youth.

By investing in kids to provide them with positive life experiences, we can avoid the considerable harms and costs of crime and victimization. Statistics Canada (2003) estimates that crime costs Canadians \$59 billion each year.

Social interventions can yield positive, measurable benefits within three years, with reeducations in crime of 25% to 50% within 10 years.

Evaluation done in Canada, the U.S., Europe and other countries demonstrate that certain social interventions work, they are cost- effective, and they provide additional social benefits. Researchers now conclude that social interventions can yield positive, measurable benefits within three years, with reductions in crime of 25% to 50% within 10 years.

Given the important financial, social and personal costs of crime, investments in crime prevention through social development make economic and social sense. The Canadian government acknowledged this principle when they created the national crime prevention Strategy (NCPS) in 1998.

The CCSD's early research on crime prevention through social development, and our continuing research on a wide variety of social policy issues, has made us a strong advocate of crime prevention through social development.

This website explains both the theory and practice of crime prevention through social development, highlights some of the most exciting current projects in this area, and provides opportunities for you to get involved.

CONCEPTS, THEORIES AND CLASSIFIACATION

1.2 The Need for Crime Prevention

The world over there is a feeling that crime is going out of control and that something needs to be done by governments and community immediately to keep criminal deviance in check. The recent increase in the safety of the citizens everywhere and hampers countries in their social, economic and cultural development. The dark side of globalization allows multinational criminal syndicates to broaden their range of operations from drug and arms trafficking to money laundering and trafficking in human beings.

The United Nations has acknowledged the importance of crime prevention and criminal justice since 1950, when it helped countries to set standards for fair and efficient criminal justice systems. Established in 1997, the Centre for international crime Prevention (CICO) is the United Nations Office responsible for crime prevention. Since October 2002, this Centre has been renamed the United nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC).

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India today is facing enormous problems of governance due to the international and national socio- political scenario and the deterioration of values in public life, Coalition government and opportunist, generally unconcerned selfish society, adverse effects of market-oriented economic growth, new patterns of social upheaval, difficulties in implementing socio- economic change and a series of other inter- related issues have made governance a delicate and difficult, complex and Herculean task. Increasing concern for law and order, security for the citizens and concern for human rights make it even more difficult to assure the people of India a just and efficient governance and a peaceful and prosperous life. In this context, prevention of crime and delinquency becomes a predominant and immediate concern in India.

1.3 Meaning of Crime Prevention

‘Prevention is better than cure’ is a popular belief. In the health field, the prevention of disease could be achieved the right kind of lifestyle choices (like smoking, diet and exercise) that people can control themselves. The prevention of accidents, injury and death has been handled effectively through regulation of automobile manufacturers and improving the road conditions and better traffic management. Therefore, prevention in general, refers to the use of anticipatory action to stop and hinder personal and social damages.

By prevention of crime and delinquency, we understand our efforts to stop, hinder, preclude or render impracticable commission of offences against the law. Crime prevention is widely misunderstood. People tend to treat “Prevention” and “punishment” as mutually exclusive concepts, polar opposites on a continuum of “soft” versus “tough” responses to crime. Crime prevention is a result, while punishment is only possible tool for achieving that result. Some kinds of punishment for some kinds of offenders may be preventive, while others may be “criminogenic” or crime- causing, and still others may have no effect at all. Exactly the same may also be true of other programmes that do not consist of legally imposed punishment, but which are justified by a goal of preventing crime.

Crime prevention is therefore defined not its intentions, but its consequences. These consequences can be defined in the following ways.

- One is by the number of criminal events; the other is by the number of criminal offenders.
- Some would also define it by the amount of harm prevented or by the number of victims harmed or harmed repeatedly.
- An even broader definition of crime prevention is reduction of risk factors for crime (such as gang membership) and increases in protective factors (such as completing high school)- concepts that have been. Labeled as “primary” prevention.
- What all these definitions have in common is their focus on observed effects, and not the “hard” or “soft” content, of a programme.

Effect on policies and Programmes

The way we define crime prevention is a critical in framing policies and programmes.

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- If crime prevention is framed solely in terms of the symbolic labels of punishment versus prevention, policy may be made more on the basis of emotional appeal than on solid evidence of effectiveness.
- By employing a scientific definition of prevention and a rigorously empirical perspective on what works best as a consequence, we can broaden the crime prevention debate to encompass the entire range of policies we can pursue to build a safer society.
- While the emotional and symbolic significance of punishment can never be denied, it can be embedded in a broader framework of crime prevention institution and programmes that allows us to compare value returned for money invested. Even raising the question of cost-effectiveness could help focus policy-making on empirical consequences, and their implications for making choices among the extensive list of crime prevention efforts.

1.4 Types of Crime Prevention

- **Primary Prevention :** This includes programmes that seek to treat personal problems before they manifest themselves as crime, e.g. family therapy organizations, substance abuse clinics, mental health institutions etc. Teachers, employers, courts welfare agencies, social workers and other make referrals to these facilities. These services are based on the premise that if a person's problems can be treated before they become overwhelming. Some future crimes will be prevented.
- **Secondary Prevention:** This includes programmes that provide treatment such as psychological counseling to youth and adults after they have violated the law.
- **Tertiary prevention:** Tertiary crime prevention refers to direct preventive methods enforced by law enforcing agencies such as police. These methods are bound to be harsh and rough.

1.5 Theories of Crime Prevention

Criminological theories help us to understand the phenomenon of crime and suggest ways and means to control prevent crime and delinquency. Understanding the true cause of crime remains a difficult problem. Still there are so many unanswered questions and ambiguous answers, e.g. why, given similar conditions, one person elects criminal solutions to his or her problems, while another conforms to accepted social rules of behavior? Why are crime rates higher in some areas or regions than in others? Why are some groups more crime-prone than others? These and similar questions assist the criminologists to search for the answers and formulate adequate and appropriate theories.

These enable us to come to grips with certain realities of life and help us to formulate correct policies and programmes to prevent and control criminal and delinquent activities.

Types of Theories

- **Biological Theories** explain crime with one or more genetic, chemical neurological, or physiological variables;

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- Psychological Theories are based on personality, emotional maladjustment, mental retardation, psychic disturbance, or psychological traits;
- Social Psychological Theories account for crime by reference to behavior, self, and cognitive variables in a group context;
- Sociological Theories explain crime with cultural, structural, and socio-demographic variables.

An Overview

Given below is an overview of criminological theories with their suggested policy for crime control and prevention.

Theory	Causes	Prevention/Control policy
• Biochemistry	Heredity, vitamin deficiency. Allergy, tumor, toxins, brain Dysfunction, hormonal imbalance	Isolation, treatment
• Psychology	Low intelligence, psychopathy Stress	
• Ecology	Low intelligence, psychopathy Stress	Treatment, counseling
• Strain	Economic goal blocked	Increased opportunities
• Learning Schedules	Imitation, reinforcement	more effective negative reinforcement, more use of positive reinforcement
• Control	Socialization, low self-control	Child-rearing, social bonds
• Labelling	Shunning, identity immersion	non-intervention, reintegration
• Conflict	Power differentials, competition	increased equality
• Radical	Class struggle, capitalism	socialism
• Left Realism	Predatory relationships	more effective police Protection
• Peacemaking	Inner suffering and turmoil	Spiritual renewal
• Feminist	Gender inequity, patriarchy	End sex discrimination
• Postmodern	Hierarchical privileges and language	More informal social control

We shall consider a few theories in detail and reflect on the preventive strategies they recommend.

Choice Theories

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Theory	Major Premise	Crime Control/Prevention Strategies
Rational	Law-violating behavior Choice occurs after offenders weigh Information on their personal Needs and the situational Factors involved in the Difficulty and risk of Committing a crime	Situational Crime Prevention is aimed at convincing would-be criminal to avoid specific targets. Crime can be avoided or prevented if motivated offenders are denied access to suitable targets.
Routine Activities	Crime and delinquency are functions of the presence of Motivated offenders, the availability of targets and the absence of capable guardians Like the police.	Lack of availability of suitable targets and the active presence of comp- tent guardians will prevent even motivated offenders from committing a crime.
General Deterrence	people will commit crime and delinquency if they perceive That the benefits outweigh the Risks. Crime is a function of the Severity, certainty and speed of Punishment.	Crime can be controlled by the efficient applications of criminal justice.
Specific Deterrence	If punishment for individual crimes are severe enough, Criminals will not repeat their illegal acts.	Severe punishment is proposed as a strategy for crime prevention.
Incapacitation	Keeping known criminals out Of circulation will reduce Crime rates.	Recognises the role opportunity plays in criminal behavior provides Solution to chronic offending.

This theory holds that criminal acts are not a matter of random chance but are cool, calculated actions designed to maximize profit and minimize loss. Their decisions to commit crimes are complex and well planned, e.g. international drug trafficking. Before choosing to commit crime, the reasoning criminal evaluates the risk of apprehension. The seriousness of expected punishment, the potential value of the

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criminal enterprise and his/her immediate need for criminal gain. Therefore, the decision to forego crime may be based on the criminal's perception that the economic benefits are no longer there or that the risk of apprehension is too great. If crime is rational and people choose to commit crime, then it follows that crime can be controlled or eradicated by convincing potential offenders that crime is a poor choice that will not bring the rewards but pain, hardship and deprivation instead.

- Crime is both offense-specific and offender-specific. When offenders react selectively to the characteristics of particular offenses, it is said to be offense-specific. Before deciding to commit a crime, if individuals make sure that they have the necessary skills, motives, needs and fears, it is said to be offender-specific. Criminal acts might be ruled out if potential offenders perceive that they have the necessary skills, motives, needs and fears, it is said to be offender-specific. Criminal acts might be ruled out if potential offenders perceive that they can reach a desired personal goal through legitimate means or if they are too afraid of getting caught. Rational choice is a function of a person's perception of conventional alternatives and opportunities. A number of personal factors such as economic opportunity, learning and experience, and knowledge of criminal techniques condition people to choose criminality.
- From the origins of classical theory to the development of modern rational choice theories, the belief that criminals choose to commit crime has influenced the relationship between law, punishment and crime. Although research on the core principles of choice theory and deterrence theories produces mixed results, these models have had an important impact on crime prevention strategies e.g. police patrol cars, mandatory tough criminal sentences to control violent crime and drug trafficking.

Social Structure Theories

- Social structure theories suggest that people's places in the socioeconomic structure of society influence their chances of becoming criminals. Poor people are more likely to commit crimes because they are unable to achieve financial or social success in any other way. Social structure theory has three schools of thought: social disorganization, strain and cultural deviance theory.
- Social disorganization theory holds that slum dwellers violate the law because they live in areas in which social control has broken down.
- Modern social ecology theory looks at such issues as community fear, unemployment, siege mentality and deterioration.
- Strain theories view crime as a result of the anger people experience over their inability to achieve legitimate social and economic success.
- Cultural deviance theories hold that a unique value system develops in lower economic class areas, which is characterized by behaviours as being tough, never showing fear, and defying authority. People perceiving strain will bond to get together in their own subcultures for support and recognition.

The prevention strategies they suggest are: Neighbourhood restoration focusing on economic development, provision of employment opportunities, improved housing and living conditions, enhanced educational, medical, recreational, and social services, community policing, effective law

enforcement and coordinated efforts of law enforcement and social service agencies.

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1.6 Crime Prevention Research

Providing Citizens and businesses, as well as local governments, with scientifically based information on crime prevention may be more productive than directly funding such programmes. Such information can only be provided by a programme of rigorous research.

What should a research programme look like?

- First, it must enlist the active participation of the people and organizations that own and control places. Some basic research can be undertaken using police records, other public data bases, and surveys. Most systematic evaluation and experimentation involving changes to the characteristics of places will require the cooperation of the businesses and property owners.
- Second, research and evaluation programme should build a body of theoretically sound and rigorously tested interventions. The programme should address six questions:
 - Where is each type of crime most likely to occur?
 - What place characteristics protect places from crime or facilitate crime?
 - What innovative prevention tactics come from problem-solving and situational crime prevention efforts?
 - What methods for analyzing problems and developing prevention tactics are particularly useful for local decision makers?
 - Which tactics are found effective based on impact evaluations with scientific methods?
 - Of those tactics that appear promising based on impact evaluations in single sites, which survive multi-site evaluations?

Sherman Evaluation and Research Study

In 1966, the Us Government commissioned a research team headed by Lawrence W. Sherman to study and offer a critical assessment, based on growing body of science, of the effectiveness of a wide range of crime prevention programmes and strategies, operated at the local level in the USA. The evaluation was required to focus on the effectiveness of these programmes, defined in three ways:

- Preventing crime, with special emphasis on youth violence
- Reducing risk factors for juvenile violence, including those found in community environments, schools and families
- Increasing protective factors against crime and delinquency.

The team submitted an exhaustive report titled "PREVENTING CRIME" WHAT WORKS, HAT DOESN'T, WHAT'S PROMISING"

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Major Conclusions

- Substantial reductions in national rates of serious crime can only be achieved by prevention in areas of concentrated poverty, where the majority of all homicides in the nation occur, and where homicide rates are 20times the national average.
- Most crime prevention results from informal and formal practices and programmes located in seven institutional settings. These institutions – Communities, Families, Schools, LabourMarket Places (specific premises), Police and Criminal Justice appear to be “interdependent” at the local level, in that events in one of these institutions can affect events in others that in turn can affect the local crime rate.
- Effective Crime Prevention in High-Violence Neighbourhoods may require interventions in many local institutions simultaneously.
- Crime prevention is defined not by intentions or methods. but by results. i.e. whether there is scientific evidence to prove that these programmes or institutional practices results in fewer criminal events than would otherwise occur.
- The available evidence does support some conclusions about what works, what doesn't, and what is promising in each of the seven institutional settings for crime prevention.

What Works. These are programmes that we are reasonably certain prevent crime or reduce risk factors for crime in the kinds of social contexts in which they have been evaluated, and for which the findings should be generalizable to similar settings in other places and times. Programmes coded as “working” by this definition must have at least two level 3 evaluations with statistical significance tests and the preponderance of all available evidence showing effectiveness.

What Doesn't Work. These are programmes that we are reasonably certain fail to prevent crime or reduce risk factors for crime, using the identical scientific criteria used for deciding what works.

What's Promising. These are programmes which the level of certainty from available evidence is too low to support generalizable conclusions, but for which there is some empirical basis for predicting that further research could support such conclusions. Programmes are coded as “promising” if they are found effective in at least one level 3 evaluation and the preponderance of the evidence.

What's Unknown. Any programme not classified in one of the three above categories is defined as having unknown effects.

Example

The Drug Market Analysis Project (DMAP) is a useful example of how demonstration, research and evaluation can work together. In five cities in USA, the Government funded the development of advanced computer mapping. These efforts improved police ability to analyze their crime and drug problems and they supported basic research into drug market places and rigorous evaluations of interventions to control drug dealing.

DMAP also addressed another research priority. A place-focused research programme should foster improvements in scientific methods used in evaluations. All evaluations should employ control groups or interrupted time-series designs. Unless there are overwhelming reasons why such controls cannot be employed. Further, significance tests and effect sizes should be reported.

Special efforts need to be made to address side effects: displacement and diffusion of benefit. If crime displaces into control places then programme effects can be overestimated. If crime prevention diffuses into control places then programme effects will be underestimated. In neither case can diffusion or displacement effects be estimated. Additionally, these side effects should be the subject of research to determine the conditions under which they are most likely to occur and what can be done to reduce displacement and facilitate diffusion.

Several place-focused interventions should be given priority for testing to determine if they are effective at controlling violence. These include street closures around retail drug markets, CCTV at locations that are hotspots for robberies and assaults, landlord training programmes to curb drug related violence in apartment buildings, and metal detectors in schools and public housing with high violent crime rates.

Research into the relationship between lighting and violent crime needs to be conducted. Such research should examine how offenders use lighting, the circumstances under which lighting facilitates crime, and the conditions under which lighting is associated with low crime rates. Evaluations could then be undertaken at places where this earlier research suggested that lighting improvements might be effective. Finally, studies should examine how repeat victimization, repeat crime places, and repeat offenders are related.

In the following article, R.K.Raghavan pleads for a judicious use of evaluation and research in India following the example of USA. (Abridged)

I have always been fascinated by the immense variety and high quality of criminal justice research and takes place in universities and similar institutions in the United States. This has been possible mainly because of the labours of some outstanding professors and their dedicated students. Their work has no doubt been greatly facilitated by generous federal government grants, especially from the Department of Justice. More than this, there is on that country's campuses and ambience that is conducive to serious research, one that promotes innovation and encourages honest debate. This is in total contrast to what prevails in India, a country where the criminal justice system is sufficiently visible and its dynamics are fiercely debated like nowhere else.

When this is the case, we should expect to come across some productive research. This is, however, not the case. Reasons? First, criminal justice studies have not attracted the kind of talent that it should have. Few universities have an exclusive department for this discipline. More important, funding by government and non-government agencies has been modest. Of late, the situation has shown some signs of change. The pace, however, is far from encouraging.

What is most distinctive about the U.S. campuses is that the issues that academics take up for investigation are not airy and diffused, something which criminal justice policy makers and practitioners would hardly look at. A majority of the studies is on down to earth matters that are built around problems, which governments and law enforcement agencies have to wrestle with each day. Some issues that have received academic attention are; the

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speed of police response to distress calls from the public: the biases in the system believed to be weighted against the minorities, especially African Americans, which lead to police brutality and disproportionate incarceration of the minorities: overcrowding of prisons: adequacy of criminal sentences. Particularly capital punishment: and crime prevention strategies and tactics. Studies in these areas have undoubtedly yielded findings, which have triggered substantial executive action. I wish we had an equally vibrant band of researchers whose conclusion could throw up new ideas on how to administer justice in India. In view of the lack of in-depth research, we are naturally inclined to draw heavily from U.S studies....

The July 2004 issue of Criminology and public policy carries an interesting essay "Surveillance for crime prevention in public place" by professors Brandon C. Welsh of University of Massachusetts-Lowell and David P. Farrington of the University of Cambridge. This significant study is relevant to police officers as well as the community at large. Its focus is on how to make public places more secure against crime. Welsh and Farrington may be saying something that we are already aware of, but then, what they say is backed by credible figures and their analysis. This is what should make us sit up and listen to them.

Welsh and Farrington believe that by introducing a few environmental measures, which offer informal surveillance in crime-prone areas, it is possible to influence offender perceptions of "increased risks and decreased rewards" so that they either abstain from crime or move away elsewhere to indulge in their illegal activities, a phenomenon that criminologists would refer to as displacement of crime*. Speaking specifically, two devices, closed-circuit television (CCTV) cameras and improved street-lighting have been proved to impact incidence of crime in some urban centres in the United Kingdom and North America (U.S. and Canada).

The Indian police have not shown any great enthusiasm for the use of CCTV in controlling crime. The device has been employed more to tackle law and order situations, especially in handling large crowds, and to a lesser extent in hauling up road traffic violators.

1.7 Educational Programmes, Training and Assistance as Means of Crime Prevention

A number of programmes have been launched to reform the prisoners during their tenure of convictions so that they could get back into the mainstream of the society when they are released. Such programmes include distance education at various levels, training in crafts and skills and also financial and technical assistance after release, to help them start a new life. There are many examples of ex-prisoners who have utilized these facilities and have settled in their life well.

1.8 Recidivism

Recidivism refers to certain types of criminals repeating their criminal activities ever after sentence. They may not show any sign of improvement or change. Such people need to be isolated in the prison so that they may not corrupt other inmates. After release, the police will have to keep the recidivists under surveillance. The recidivism also becomes a source of fear of crimes in the society.

1.9. Key words

- Domestic Violence - The family excessive force in action
- Forums - A place of meeting
- Embedded - Fixed deeply in something

1.10 Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1 - Refer section 1.1.

For Question No 2 –Refer section 1.2

For Question No 3 - Refer section 1.4.

For Question No 4 - Refer section 1.5.

For Question No 5 - Refer section 1.6.

For Question No 6 - Refer section 1.5.

1.11.Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Crime prevention.
2. Community Safety.
3. Need for crime prevention.

(B) Brief Answer Questions

1. Explain about the basic concepts and theories of crime prevetion.
2. Explain in detail about the classification of crime prevention.
3. Explain about crime prevention reseach.

**TRADITIONAL AND RATIONAL METHODS
OF CRIME PREVENTION**

INTRODUCTION

In the earlier societies, it was generally thought that criminals must be punished severely. Harsh and cruel punishments were in practice in many countries including India during the medieval period. This included blinding the offender, chopping off the fingers or hand whipping, cruxification, cutting off the head, removing the nails of the fingers and even so many cruel methods which are beyond the imagination from modern point of view.

OBJECTIVES

- To understand the rational methods.
- To know the understand the root causes.
- To learn the group relations.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 2.1. Punitive Method
- 2.2. Rational Methods of Crime Prevention
- 2.3. The Rationalist Views of Crime Prevention
- 2.4. Rational Method include the following
- 2.5. Group Relations Method
- 2.6. Environmental design
- 2.7. Key words
- 2.8. Answer to CYP questions
- 2.9. Model Questions

2.1 Punitive Methods

Such punitive methods, at least some of them do prevail now in some countries, although treatment reaction to crime is said to be on the increase. Sutherland (1974) says: 'If there is one key to understanding present-day practices in the control of crime, it is the conflict between the treatment reaction and the punitive reaction;

The punitive method prescribes a punishment for every violation of law. If threat of punishment is not there, the society will have fear of crime.

Most of the countries today have punitive methods because of the belief that those who are convicted need a human treatment. Many countries have even abolished death penalty. Prisons are now called correctional centres. Open prison system is practiced in many places in the country in the case of first offenders and juvenile offenders. Thus, the policy towards the criminals varies from purely punitive one to purely treatment reaction.

The aim of punishment or punitive reaction is to create a sense of fear not only on the part of the criminal who has committed the offence but also the delinquents in the society. This depends on the speedy trials and speedy punishments. This is true eventoday in the Arab countries and countries of the East where, trials and convictions are relatively speedier often compared to India.

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2.2 Rational Methods of Crime Prevention

Rational methods of crime prevention combine social, sociological, institutional and environmental factors with a conviction that punishments alone are not a solution for crime. Punitive methods have a minimal role in crime prevention, because they do not aim at reforming the criminals and putting back into the main stream of society. Punishments meted out to the criminals only exhibit the extent of the authority which awards the punishments. Many drawbacks are pointed out in the punitive method by the Rationalists. They are :

- Punitive methods do not go the rood causes of criminality and therefore, do not help in reducing the crime rate;
- Punitive methods may aggravate criminality because they have an impact on one set of criminals. The delinquants with criminal tendencies do not come under the purview of punitive methods unit they commit some crimes, get caught, convicted and sentenced.
- Punitive methods do not have any mpact on the psychology of individual and therefore, the individual's criminal tendencies may further aggravate and take the from of vengeance of his target.
- Punitive methods do not attempt to develop the creative and innovative skills of the individual and thereby, totally debar him from entering the society as a citizen on his being released.
- Punitive methods may encourage recidivism and increase the stat expenditure on prison administration.
- Punitive methods may brand the individual as criminal even after release and the society around him may totally discard him.

Because of all these drawbacks found in th punitive methods, the scope for crime prevention is very much limited. Therefore, the rationalists consider that punitive methods should be minimized atleast in the case of the F.Os and juvenites and they should combine social, sociological, psychological, environmental and educational methods. This has been amply proved by many cases in many prisons

The one latest example is the case of a set of 10 days who were sent to the Government special home for for Boys, Vellore in TamilNadu "which houses children conflict with the law". The 10 boys were give coaching under special arrangement for taking standard X Board examinations of the State for the first time in the history of the Home all the ten boy passed the examination in their first attempt. This is not a singular case. There are cases of jail inmates who have undergone special educational programmes sponsored by NGOs and also the Distance Education institutions like the Indira Gandhi Open University. They have passed

1. Describe the punitive method.
2. Explain the features of quasi-Government Sector.
3. What is mass method?
4. Write about Environmental design.
5. Illustrate the social method.

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out successfully and are now occupying good positions in the private sector and also in the quasi- government sector.

2.3 The Rationalist Views of Crime prevention

As stated already, the rationalist criminologists are of the view that the root causes of crime and the diligence, and the circumstances under which an individual commits a crime need to be addressed in any programme of crime prevention, Crime prevention programmes, in their view, ought to be multi-pronged and not just punishment-oriented. The history of 9th century England provides a very good example in this regard. Unable to manage that the crime situation and prison administration, the British government deported thousands of criminals and anti-socials to Australia which was then sparsely occupied by the aborigines. The criminals and anti-socials that were sent there had no other alternative than to cultivate the freely available vast stretches of lands.

Unbelievably, a majority of them who worked hard on the lands with available means prospered and quite a few of them became the richest persons of the place. Probably, their descendants are now enjoying the reassures of wealth passed on to them by their ancestors. Thus, rational methods of crime prevention have greater degree of success when compared to punitive method.

2.4 Rational methods include the following

- **Intervention:** Intervention refers to checking up the daily activities of the delinquents and anti-socials and keeping them under surveillance.
- **Mechanistic Method:** This refers to enforcing preventive methods with reference to the processes which are operating at the moment of the occurrence of crime, without going into the background of the individual.
- **Mass Method:** Mass method refers to addressing the total section of a population such as slum dwellers, with crime prevention programs such as counseling. It may also be taken to mean addressing the school children with crime prevention awareness programmes
- **Clinical Method:** This is based on the contention that, "criminality is "a strictly individually disorder which can, therefore, be treated in clinic, just as a syphilis is clinically and individually treated.
- **Group Relations Method:** In the group-relations method then, diagnosis is directed at the group to which the individual belongs, on the contention that the individual has derived his criminality only from the group, which is given to criminal ways of life. This is very much true in the case of criminal tribes in which the present generations of individuals have derived their criminality from the earlier generations. Criminality may also be due to isolation of the individual from law-abiding groups. The treatment here, is to identify the group first, and if the individual belongs to a bad group he may have to be isolated from the group and treated individually in a clinic.
- **Environmental Design:** Environmental design of crime prevention refers to making a study of the general environment such as geography, topography, soil and terrains to which one belongs, and examine the impact of such environment on the individual. There are reasons to believe that children born and bred in rough terrains are bound to the soft

and gentle in their character. Here again, the treatment lies in removing or transferring the individual to green lands and make him live there and imbibe soft qualities.

All these methods of treatment of the criminal may have to be combined in different proportions to amend to criminals gradually. The aim of all these methods is to instill soft human qualities on the path of the individual and make him law-abiding.

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2.5 Key words

- Sociological - The study of origin and development of human society
- Psychological - Science that deals with mental states
- Innovative - To begin new

2.6 Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1 - Refer section 2.1

For Question No 2 - Refer section 2.2

For Question No 3 - Refer section 2.3

For Question No 4 - Refer section 2.1

For Question No 5 - Refer section 2.2

For Question No 5 - Refer section 2.4

2.7 Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Drawbacks of punitive method by the rationalist.
2. Punitive methods.
3. Mechanistic method.

(B) Brief Answer Questions

1. Explain the rational methods of crime prevention.
 1. Group relations method.
 2. Environmental design.

**DEALING WITH FIRST OFFENDERS AND RECIDIVISTS THROUGH
SETTING**

INTRODUCTION

Communities are the most broadly defined institutional setting. From small villages to large urban neighbourhoods, from suburban developments to urban high rise public housing, both the physical and social structure of communities varies widely. So, too does their effectiveness in preventing crime through informal social controls. Some communities average more than two jobs per family; others average none. Some Communities have more worship centres than liquor shops; others have more sport facilities houses than grocery stores. Some have more people unemployed man working; others have more retirees than schoolchildren. Some have more renters than home owners. In some communities most residents recognize most other residents by name and face; in most of the modern urban India. Perhaps, even face recognition of most neighbours is extremely rare

OBJECTIVES

- To know the methods of communication dealings.
- To understand the various types of offenders.
- To learn the various types of family.
- To know about various criminal justice agencies.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 3.1. Communities
- 3.2. Family
- 3.3. School
- 3.4. Employment Opportunities
- 3.5. Place
- 3.6. Police
- 3.7. Criminal Justice Agencies
- 3.8. Practice
- 3.9. Summary and Conclustions
- 3.10. Key words
- 3.11. Answer to CYP questions
- 3.12. Model Questions

3.1 Communities

Generally most of the serious violent Juvenile crime is concentrated in a relative handful of communities. Homicide rates too vary from community to community in some communities a majority of the educated youth are unemployed. In some communities 30% or more of the population belong to the economically low class in some communities child abuse and low petty crimes are on the increase where a community winds up on these and other dimensions may not only affect its crime prevention practices. There is substantial evidence that these factors condition the effectiveness of community-based crime prevention programmes are more likely to take root, and more likely to work, in communities that need them the least, and that communities with the greatest crime problems are also the hardest to reach through innovative programme efforts. A community having strong families that provide their own mentoring or parenting benefits the greatest from crime prevention programmes.

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3.2 Family

The most basic structural feature of any community is the condition of its families. Basic Family practices in child-rearing, marriage, religiosity and parental employment appear to matter enormously in the criminality of the community. The failure of many parents to provide consistent affection and discipline to children has been the source of criminality in your children. The Indian public and the government are very much aware of the need to combat domestic violence, which is the major risk factor for crime found in the family setting. Most of these programmes are delivered to families by the criminal justice and social welfare systems and NGOs, Shelter homes for battered women protect women and children, and are able to reduce he injuries from domestic violence, even if they cannot solve the underlying family violence. These programmes unfortunately fail to reach the many families whose violence goes unreported to police. Here again, the crime prevention programmes seem to work best for the families in the strongest and well-knit communities.

3.3 School

The most direct link between families and communities is presently found in schools. Measured purely by the amount of available time to reduce risk factors for crime, schools have more opportunity to accomplish that objective than any other agency of government. Of course, there are different types of schools-public and private, rich and poor, elite, average and below average, rural, semi-urban and urban. Succeeding at their basic job of teaching children to read, write and compute may be the most important crime prevention practice schools can offer. But many schools are overwhelmed by a criminogenic community context, crippled by the lack of parental support for learning, financial crunch and the breakdown of order in the classrooms. While some schools succeed at teaching basic skills despite these challenges, the odds appear to be against it.

School-based non-academic programmes such as moral instruction, vocational guidance, psychological counseling, athletic training and midday meal scheme aim at increasing resilience, character, discipline, civic sense and social responsibility. These programmes teach students skills necessary for social adaptation, work motivation and thus help to reduce juvenile crime and delinquency.

Programmes that focus not on individual students, but instead on school organizations also work programmes that simply clarify norms about expected behavior work. As in other settings, the success of school programmes and practices is largely dependent on

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the school's capacity to initiate and sustain innovative programmes. The involvement of the parent Teacher Association in the stages of planning, implementation and evaluation is essential condition for the success of many of these programmes. Schools situated in crime-ridden, disorganized communities are less likely to have the infrastructure necessary to support prevention programmes and are more likely to fail.

3.4 Employment opportunities

There is a long history of attempting to prevent the onset or persistence of criminality by pulling young people into the labour market for legitimate work. Theoretical and empirical support for the crime preventive value of employment is generally quite strong in the longitudinal analysis of individual criminal careers. It is also found in experimental studies of the effects of criminal sanctions, which can deter offenders who are employed but backfire on offenders who are unemployed.

Programmes aimed at linking labour markets more closely to high crime risk neighbourhoods and individuals could have substantial crime prevention benefits. If communities of concentrated poverty are to be reclaimed as crime prevention. Institutions. Reviving their local labour markets and creating employment opportunities may be the most logical place to start. In this Indian Government's Rural Employment Guarantee scheme is a step in the right direction.

3.5 Place

We have special places where the young and the unemployed meet for social life. These places could be under the trees, the street coffee shops, fast food centres, today shops, Tramacs, schools, cinema theatres. Colleges etc. In all these places, there is a pattern of informal social organization uniquely constructed around certain core functions and activities, crime rates and criminogenic risk factors like drugs and evesteasing. Some places are so crime prone that they are labeled "hot spots" of crime.

Regardless of whether these places cause crimes or merely act as "receptors" for them, the prevention of crime in such places may have substantial effects at reducing total crime in the community.

Security guards, cameras, alarm systems, safes and fences have all proliferated in the latter twentieth century, increasing huge expenditures on crime prevention. Whether these practices, it is unclear whether these practices succeed in preventing crime is generally impossible to determine from the available research. Even where they do succeed at preventing crime in target places, it is unclear whether the total number of criminal events in society is reduced or merely displaced to other locations. As crimes like terrorism dominate our national and international scene, our attempts to counter them through barbed fencing, frisking, electronic watching, increased police patrol with sophisticated weapons will make our world a fortress society and a place unsafe to live.

3.6 Police

The more police we have, the less crime there will be. While citizens and public officials often espouse that view, social scientists often claim the opposite extreme; that police make only minimal contributions to crime prevention in the context of far more powerful social institutions, like the family and labour markets. Their success depends on how well they are focused on specific objectives, tasks, places, times and people most of all, it may depend upon putting police where serious crime is concentrated, at the times it is most likely to occur:

policing focused on risk factors. Policing without a clear focus on crime risk factors generally shows no effect on crime. But directed patrols, proactive arrests and problem-solving at high-crime “hot spots” has shown substantial evidence of crime prevention. Police can prevent robbery, disorder, gun violence, drunk driving and domestic violence, but only by using certain methods

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3.7 Criminal Justice Agencies

There is very little evidence that increased incarceration has reduced crime. Yet variations in how the criminal justice system treats admitted offenders can make a great deal of difference. Correctional use of drug treatment programmes, rehabilitation programmes in prison, and institutionalization of some juvenile offenders seem to be effective in crime prevention. The effectiveness of any correctional treatment, however, depends upon the community, family, and labour market context into which the offender returns home.

3.8 Practice

A “practice,” is defined as an ongoing routine activity that is well established in that setting, even if it is far from universal. Most parents make children come home in the evening or at night, most schools have established starting times, most stores try to catch shoplifters, most police departments answer emergency calls. Some of these practices have been tested for their effects on crime prevention. Most have not.

Community –based crime prevention includes such practices as community organizing and mobilization against crime, gang violence prevention, and community based mentoring, community policing and after-school recreation programmes.

Family-based Crime Prevention refers to such practices as home visitation of families with infants, preschool education programmes involving parents, parent training for managing troublesome children, and programmes for preventing family violence, including battered women’s shelters and criminal justice programmes.

School-based Crime Prevention refers to such practices as home visitation of families with infants, preschool education programme involving parents, parent training for managing troublesome children, and criminal justice programmes.

Labour Market and Crime Risk Factors refer to the crime prevention effects of training and placement programmes for unemployed people, vocational training for prison inmates and diversion from court to employment placements.

Preventing Crime at Places refers to the practices to block opportunities for crime at specific locations like stores, apartment buildings and parking lots, including such measures as cameras, lighting guards and alarms. The effectiveness of crime prevention in each of the seven institutional settings depends heavily on local conditions in the other institutions.

Policing for Crime prevention includes police practices as directed patrol in crime hot spots, rapid response time, foot patrol, neighbourhood watch, drug raids, and domestic violence crackdowns.

Criminal Justice and Crime Prevention refers to such practices as prisoner rehabilitation, mandatory drug treatment for convicts, intensively supervised parole and probation, home confinement and electronic monitoring.

1. What is family explain?
2. Explain the parent Teacher association of planning?
3. What is meant by hot spots?

(Space for Hints)

3.9 Programme

A “programme”, in contrast to practice, is a focused effort to change, restrict or create a routine practice in a crime prevention setting. Schools may adopt programmes to discourage parents from punishing children harshly, or letting children watch violent television programme and movies. Universities may adopt programmes to escort students from the library to their cars in the hours after midnight. Shopping malls may ban juveniles unescorted by their parents on weekend evenings. And police may initiate programmes to enforce curfew or truancy laws. In time, some programmes may turn into practices, with few people remembering the time before the programme was introduced.

The meanings of the term “programme” varies with respect to the required degree of internal uniformity. Neighbourhood watch “programmes”, for example, are fairly uniform in their content, despite some variations. A national community policing “programmes” in contrast. Embraces a far wider range of activities and philosophies. Ranging from aggressive zero tolerance enforcement campaigns to outreach programmes building partnerships between police and all segments of the community.

The problem of accurately predicting the effectiveness of a programme is as follows:

- Generalizing results from an evaluation in one city to the effects of a programmes in another city is a very uncertain enterprise.
- We still lack good theories and research to predict accurately when findings can be accurately generalized

Just as the State may fund different kinds of community policing programmes, the same programme may be very different in different places. The nature of a mediation programme may vary enormously from one judge to the next, community policing home visits may vary from friendly to intrusive, and gang prevention programmes may have different effects in different kinds to neighbourhoods.

3.10 Summary and Conclusions

Most crime prevention results from the web of all the seven institutional settings of human development and daily life, namely, communities, families, schools, labour markets and places, as well as the legal institutions of policing and criminal justice. The effectiveness of crime prevention in each of the seven institutional settings depends heavily on local conditions in the other institutions. Put another way, the necessary condition for successful crime prevention practices in on setting is adequate support for the practice in related settings. Schools cannot succeed without supportive families, families’ cannot succeed without supportive labour markets, labour markets cannot succeed without well-policed safe streets, and police cannot succeed without community participation in the labour market.

3.11. Key words

Crippled – The wound crippled him for life.

Legitimate - lawful

Philosophies – Pertaining to philosophy.

3.12. Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1- Refer section 3.1

For Question No 2 -Refer section 3.2

For Question No 3 - Refer section 3.7

For Question No 4 - Refer section 3.9

For Question No 5 - Refer section 3.10

3.13. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Communities.
2. Family.
- 3 .Criminal Justice Agencies.

(B) Brief Answer Questions

1. Explain about the practice, and how they have been tested for their effects on crime prevention.
2. Explain about the programme.

LESSON-4

POLICE AND CRIME PREVENTION-1

(Space for Hints)

INTRODUCTION

Prevention of crime is possible only before the occurrence of a crime, and probably, after the period of conviction of a criminal. A number of measures are, no doubt, taken during the period of the conviction of a criminal, in the form of correctional measures and they also contribute to crime prevention to some extent.

OBJECTIVES

- To Know the methods of police and crime prevention.
- To understand the various types of crimes
- To learn the various police radio branches.
- To know about various crime prevention.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 4.1. Police and ~~crime prevention-General~~
- 4.2. Types of Crimes
- 4.3. Changing Role of the Police
- 4.4. Measures of Preventive Policing
- 4.5. Police Information Centres
- 4.6. Police Control Room
- 4.7. Police Radio Branch
- 4.8. Crime Records Bureau (CRB)
- 4.9. Role of Control Room in Crime Prevention
- 4.10. Intervention Measures of the Police
- 4.11. Beats and patrols
- 4.12. Beats and patrols in Town Stations
- 4.13. Night Patrols
- 4.14. Crime intelligence and Crime Surveillance
- 4.15. Law & Order and Crime control
- 4.16. Key words
- 4.17. Answer to CYP questions
- 4.18. Model Questions

4.1 Police and crime prevention-General

The four parties who are concerned with prevention of crime are :: 1) the police 2) the whole community and 3) the targeted victims or people of certain categories such

as train passengers, those carrying cash or valuables etc. and 4) the criminals who have been convicted

of the four, the police have a crucial role in crime prevention, Every function of the police is related to crime prevention directly or indirectly. A number of measures such as beats, patrolling, crime surveillance and crime intelligence, scientific investigation etc. are at the disposal of the police.

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Learning objectives

- To understand the responsibilities of the police in crime prevention.
- To know various measures of crime prevention implemented by the police.
- To understand the responsibilities of the society in crime prevention

The police were entrusted with the responsibility of crime prevention for centuries in the past and this continues to be so even today, because the police are in a strategic position. In the earlier centuries, however, punitive methods were mainly practiced to prevent crimes.

If the term 'police' is taken to mean all kinds of informed and ununiformed and enforcing agencies, such as Narcotic Control Agents, customs and Central Excise authorities, income tax authorities, Commercial Tax authorities, Conservators of Forests, income Tax Vigilance authorities, Traffic Police, Crime investigation agencies etc. then it can be said that everyone contributes to the prevention of some type of crime.

4.2 Types of Crimes

However the word crime in the present context refers to all the offences and crimes included in the Indian penal Code and also included in the Local and special laws.

These crimes can be classified as,

- Crimes against property (property offences)
- Crimes against body or persons
- Crimes against the government/nation.
- Crimes against the society/community/humanity.
- Crimes against religion.
- Environmental crimes.

Of these various types of crimes, in the general parlance, crime and crime control are mostly referred to the crimes of the first two categories, namely crimes, against the property and crimes against the body or persons, because these two types of crimes and their magnitude affect the daily life of the citizens.

The major focus of this lesson is on the role of police in the prevention of crime and delinquency. 'Prevention is better than remedy' is an age old saying and it is equally applicable to crime in also. Only when the policing system is able to assure the people the lowest crime in absolute terms is the best policing system. However, any policing system cannot provide a situation of zero crime rate. Even in Singapore, which claims the lowest crime rate in the world, there are crimes, During the past about thirty years, preventive policing has become a part of modern policing.

4.3 Changing Role of the Police

The attention of the departments in many countries are gradually turning towards the socio-economic background of the criminals. This is more so in the case of juvenile offenders. Moreover, public cooperation also is increasingly sought by the police in crime prevention.

Sutherland and Cressey are of the opinion that crime prevention as such, should address both the first offenders and repeaters, called recidivists. Another class may be added to this, that is, the juveniles and juvenile delinquents, Sutherland and Cressey further opine, "...Crime would be prevented by modifying those who can be and should be modified, segregating those who cannot be modified, and eliminating the social situation which are most conducive to crime and which, thus, produce the necessity for modifying and segregating the criminals...."

Police thus have a definite role in two broad categories of crime prevention measure. They are:

- Identifying the criminals for crime prevention;
- Identifying the root causes which breed criminality in the society for crime prevention.

Or these two, identifying the root causes of crimes for crime prevention was being considered for along time the exclusive domain of the researchers. But of late, this is gradually coming under purview of the police also. Police public relations are being strengthened in recent years with this view. A number of measures could be taken by the police department to prevent crime or atleast reduce crime rate, if it is really interested.

4.4 Measures of Preventive Policing

Preventing policing includes the following measures:

- Beats at sensitive points;
- Patrolling the streets and lanes;
- Crime surveillance – general and specific;
- Crime intelligence-overt and covert;
- Police control room with a network of control vans;
- Preactive policing with reference to time, place, property, victim, M.O. and Offenders;
- police-led Community Policing;
- Public awareness programmes;
- Juvenile care programmes;
- Intervention;
- Treatment of First Offernders;
- Treatment of released convicts;

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- L&O surveillance;
- Highway checkpoints; Environmental analysis;
- Counselling programme and counseling centres.

Each of these methods has its own merits from the point of view of crime prevention. Details of these measures are given in the following lessons.

4.5 Police Information Centres

Generally all the police stations and all the divisional offices and police headquarters are expected to furnish the information required by the members of the public, provided such information sought is not a classified information.

4.6 Police Control Room

The police control room is a principal source of information members of the both internal and external. That is, dissemination of information within the department from on control room, and also providing appropriate information to the public queries.

The Police control room is a very important unit of the police department at the city and district levels. At the city level, the control room is placed under the charge of an Asst. Commissioner, who is assisted by an inspector, a head constable and 5-6 constables. Besides this manpower, the control room also has mobile stations.

In every state, the number of control rooms and mobile station depends on the size of the state, number of police districts. In Tamilnadu, for example there are 19 control rooms, including Madras city, with 278 VHF mobile stations. These mobile stations maintain two-way communications regarding L&O, crime and traffic situations. For example, Chennai metro city alone has 115 mobile stations which keep on reporting the situation on hand through day and night to the control room, Similar communication networks are there in all cities and towns. The district police too has a similar arrangements for control room.

Functions of Police Control Room

- Police Control Rooms Function as information centres to the public. They provide all possible unclassified information, relating to the department. For example, the timings of VIP visits, traffic diversions during festivals, new traffic systems, are informed to the public on enquiry, The public may also know the names of the various officers by accessing the police Control Room.
- Emergency calls from the public are attended by the police Control. The BSNL has given the number 100 to the public for making free calls to the control room on any emergency. For example, if the owner of a house is facing the threat of dacoity, and if he could manage to dial 100 to the control room of his place/district, the control room acts briskly by alerting the police station concerned and also the mobile station of the area VHF radio, and see that the police immediately rush to the spot to the rescue of the caller.

Similarly, in the case of an accident also, any member of the public who happens to witness the accident may dial 100 to get all possible help for the police side. Even in the case of fire accident, although there is a separate emergency call number for fire service. The control and Rescue for necessary steps. Police force is also deployed to maintain & so during major fire accidents.

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1. How Many types of crimes?
2. Examine the five important measures of preventive Policy.
3. Define: control room Network, police radio Branch.

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Similarly, if there is any L&O problem in any area, any member of the public can inform the control room about it. On getting the information the control room alerts the police station and mobile police station concerned. Thus, any problem or crisis which needs police action may be informed to the control room by any member of the public.

Control room Network

All the police control rooms of a state are lined with each other and exchange information both classified and unclassified, When a crime occurrence such as dacoity take place in an area, and the culprits escape to other district or even other state, the investigator of the area/station concerned can send message to other district control rooms through the control room of the area of occurrence.

4.7 Police Radio Branch

All the police Control Rooms and all the H.F. and VHF radio systems of the departments are closely monitored by the State Police Radio Branch. Investigating officers can broadcast information to any police officer in any of the important cities or district HQs in any state at the shortest possible time. Police Radio Branch is placed under the charge of Director who is of the rank of an IGP. He is also put in charge of the police Radio school and Radio workshop. He is assisted by a Technical Assistant, a DSP, inspectors, sub-inspectors, operators, and some non-technical staff.

4.8 Crime Records Bureau (CRB)

Crime Record Bureau is another source of information relating to the occurrences which have already taken place at the district level. Every police station prepares a continuous comparative crime statement for ten years relating to all kinds of property offences such as murder for gain, dacoity, robbery, robbery. House –breaking (by day and night), major and minor thefts, cattle thefts and other IPC offences. The abstracts of statement are forwarded to the CRB of the city or district through the divisional office.

The CRB is placed under an AC/DSP and it also has one Finger Print Bureau, which provides information on the finger prints collected at the place of occurrence, However, the CRB is not accessible to the general public. Those who do research on certain aspects of crime can have access to the CRB after taking permission from the COP/SP concerned.

4.9 Role of Control Room in Crime Prevention

The general public in the cities and towns know the existence and functioning of the police control room of their area. When symptoms of some occurrence or presence of some criminals is sensed by the residents of an area, they can immediately call the control room by dialing 100. On getting such an emergency call, the control room immediately alerts the police station of the area and the mobile police station of the area on the VHI radio. The police personnel of the station and the mobile police station immediately rush to the spot to check such crimes.

4.10 Intervention Measures of the Police

Police intervention refers to intervening the movements of people and checking their belongings. For example, whenever there is a bomb threat in the railways, the police intervene all the passengers and check their identify and their belongings. Now that the terrorist threat is constant and continuous, and frequent bomb threats are made in different parts of the country, rail passengers are often intervened by the police at various stations.

For the same reason and in order to check and prevent other types of crimes, highway check posts have been created in many states. The check post personnel generally intervene vehicles which give a suspicious look and check for the registration particulars of the vehicles and also the driving licence. Insurance etc. Thus, the checkpoints help in checking crime-related vehicles and become a source of crime prevention.

Another type of intervention is checking the autorickshaws during night patrolling. Thereby, the the police are able to identify the suspicious movements of certain people. Many problems relating to L&O and crime have been prevented by such intervention activities of the police.

The police can also intervene the communication lines of the organized criminals and terrorists to evaluate the situation and take necessary prevented steps.

4.11 Beats and patrols

Beats and patrols are explained in detail in chapter XXI of tamilNadu police standing orders which are equally applicable to other states in India and other countries as well.

Beats are classified as Village Beats and Town Beats. Similarly patrols also are classified into village patrols and town patrols. During the British rule, village officers were nominated, by selecting prominent persons from among the villagers, and they were given the responsibility of giving reports to the vesting beat constables. The beat constables were sent to the villages for the following purposes.

- To gather information about L&O crime situation and other matters such as visits of strangers;
- to watch dangerous criminals and criminal organization and bring their movements under surveillance;
- To gather information about the floating population during festivals, of weekly markets and in places of public resort.
- To make enquiries about bad characters if any, in particular villages,
- To ensure L&O in the villages under the jurisdiction of the station.

Besides the village beats, the district police may also deploy night patrols on cycles to nearby villages of an two wheelers to distant villages such night patrol parties may take along with them, the village officers and closely observe people with movements check or intervene their movements if necessary.

As a rural/district police station will have a number of villages under its jurisdiction, the SHO can decide which village or groups of villages could be brought under the beats and patrols. Beat and patrol reporting points are fixed by the SHO. Beat books are to be maintained at the beat points and beat constables are required to sign the beat books which will be maintained by the village officers of some respectable inhabitants of the village.

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4. Mufti Police men : Explain.

5. Explain the Law & order wing of the police.

The policeman on beats and patrols are required to maintain a bad character check register in which they should note down the particulars and movements of all K.D.s, H.O.s and suspects, as a precautionary measure. If all these measures are taken systematically, they will help in preventing extremes and maintaining L&O.

During day beats and patrolling, the policemen may also interact with the villagers and try to collect other information relating to communal feuds if any, or group enmities so that precautionary measures could be taken at the right time.

4.12 Beats and patrols in Town Stations

The functioning of down station is different from the functioning of a rural/ district police station. A suitable shift system is following among the constables and Head Constables. The average strength of a town station may be between 25 and 30. In smaller towns, the police stations may combine traffic wing with the crime wing, while in larger cities and cosmopolitan cities there are separate traffic stations placed under the charge of a Dy. Commissioner, of the rank of SP.

As a preventive measure the town police stations are required to maintain a general diary wherein the following details are to be entered.

- particulars about the notorious rowdies;
- particulars of localities where frequently L&O problems arise;
- details of bazaars/streets which experience constant congestions;
- cases of missing persons/ children;
- details of important cases which require vigilance;
- Particular localities to be specially visited for prevention of mischief or other crime etc.

town stations are not required to send constables on day beats or patrolling under normal circumstances. However, they may be sent to particular localities on the basis of the details written in the stations general diary.

4.13 Night Patrols

Town police stations are expected to maintain a high order of night patrol who may be deployed at Important junctions, streets, or lane corners. they may be deployed for a duration of 5 hours. Such patrols may be led by sub- inspector or inspector.

Such night patrols if carried out effectively, will prove to be very good preventive measures. Generally, beats and patrols are expected to create visible police which will instill a sense of confidence among the people. If necessary the town stations may also deploy 'mufti' policemen on beats and patrols to make secret observations of certain people of areas.

4.14 Crime Intelligence and Crime Surveillance

Intelligence and surveillance are integral parts of both internal and external security systems of a country. Both the police and military forces have various levels of intelligence and surveillance systems.

Intelligence work is common to all the wings of the police such as L&O Crime Traffic etc. Intelligence refers to gather information about an issue of a problem or about certain persons by the department concerned.

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As such crime intelligence refers to gathering information about various types of crimes and the people behind such crimes. This may include both convicted criminals and ex-convicts. When the prisoners are released after the period of conviction, their particulars are sent to the commissioner and superintendent of police of the city/district concerned.

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Besides the intelligence about the convicts and ex-convicts, the crime wings and the crime branch also carry out general crime intelligence on the crime situation. Such crime intelligence will greatly help in preventing crimes, whoever comes to the police station as inspector. With the help of such crime intelligence work, the inspector of a station prepares the station crime history, check register of habitual offenders, K.D.S. and persons to be closely watched. This may include juveniles also.

Crime surveillance refers to maintaining closed watch on the movements of the persons causing suspicion or persons connected with some crimes. This may include the terrorists and their movement's criminals from other states and other countries also. In doing so, the surveillance party will closely watch the movement pattern of the suspected person that is, whether they move by their own vehicles, by bus, or by train or by flight.

If required, the surveillance party should inform the police of the destinations of the criminals who are observed like this. A police station may also get such information from neighbouring police stations in the district or police stations of the neighbouring districts. Thus, crime intelligence and crime surveillance together help in preventing crimes. Crime surveillance is generally practiced during festivals and on occasions of VVIP visits.

4.15 Law & Order and Crime Control

Law is the source of creating order in the society. Even before the dawn of civilization, the pre-historic societies used to have their own code of ethics. With the emergence of civilized societies, definite laws also came into practice in order to regulate the behavior of human beings, so that people can live together peacefully. According to the French philosopher Rousseau, social contract is the basis for creating a government. And now, most of the nations have their own constitution and their own criminal laws and laws relating to other spheres of life such as marriage, social behavior, employment, women's rights, children's rights etc.

General behavior of the individuals and groups are the concern of the L&O wing of the police while criminal behavior is the concern of the crime wing of the police. In India, the criminal justice is governed by three important laws, namely, the Indian Penal Code (IPC) which prescribes appropriate punishments for all kinds of offences, the Criminal Procedure Code (Cr.P.C) which prescribes the conduct of investigation and prosecution, and the Law of Evidence which provides support to the investigating officer (Io) and the public Prosecutor (PP).

Many other departments of the government seek the help of the police for enforcing the laws relating to the functioning of the department concerned. For example, the Revenue Department may seek the Police to evict the people who are illegally occupying the public lands. The regional Transport authorities seek police help to check the vehicles for their registration papers.

L&O is the basis for an orderly society. A good L&O situation will also help in achieving better crime control and a stable and safer society. If the L&O worsens, everything goes out of order. In fact, democracy can survive only with a good L&O environment. And, people can enjoy the benefits of development and fruits of their hard labor only if the L&O of

the country is in good shape. A number of measures such as crowd control, mob control L&O beats and patrols, dispersing unlawful assembly which help in maintaining the L&O in an area. When the L&O is well under control of the police, crime control also will become easier. Therefore, it may be rightly emphasized that L&O and crime will always go together.

4.16. Key words

Vigilance	-	Watchdul
Intervention	-	Happen between two other events
Patrolling	-	Go round to maintain order

4.17. Answer to CYP Questions

For Question No 1 - Refer section 4.1

For Question No 2 - Refer section 4.2

For Question No 3 - Refer section 4.4.

For Question No 4 - Refer section 4.4

For Question No 5 - Refer section 4.5

For Question No 6 - Refer section 4.14

4.18. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Types of Crimes.
2. Role of the police
3. Law and order

(B) Brief Answer Questions

1. Explain about the police control room.
2. Explain in detail about beats and patrols.
3. Explain about crime intelligence and crime surveillance.

Chapter 5

NEW STRATEGIES OF CRIME PREVENTION

Introduction

In recent years, increasing numbers of police executives have incorporated the recent research findings into their crime prevention strategies. In particular, the new focus on problem-oriented policing has found a prominent place in their approach to crime prevention. They direct their attention to the specific things police do, and how they can focus their resources to attack the proximate causes of public safety problems. In this lesson, we shall consider in detail how prevention policing affects crime.

OBJECTIVES

- To know the methods of rapid response.
- To understand the various situational crimes.
- To learn about patrols.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 5.1. Rapid Response
- 5.2. Visible Police
- 5.3. Random Patrols
- 5.4. Directed Patrols
- 5.5. Reactive Arrests
- 5.6. Proactive Arrests
- 5.7. Situation Crime Prevention and Problem – Oriented Policing.
- 5.8. Criminal Justice Agencies
- 5.9. Key words
- 5.10. Answer to CYP questions
- 5.11. Model Questions

5.1. Rapid Response

The general of this claim is that the shorter the police travel time from assignment to arrival at a crime scene, the more likely it is that police can arrest offenders before they flee. The Rapid Action Force created by the state police in different states is an example for this. This claim is then extended to rapid response producing three crime prevention effects. One is a reduction in harm from crimes interrupted in progress by police intervention. Another, more general benefit of rapid response time is a greater deterrent effect from the threat of punishment reinforced by response-related arrests. The third hypothesized prevention effect comes from the incapacitation through imprisonment of offenders prosecuted more effectively

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with evidence from response-related arrests. All of these claims presume, of course, that police are notified during of immediately after the occurrence of a crime.

5.2. Visible Police

The more police a city employs, the less crime it will have. Like the deterrence hypothesis itself, the claim that police prevent crime was developed as a general "doctrine" of policy in the heat of democratic debate. The doctrine was based not just on speculation, but also on the apparent results of several "demonstration projects" with some empirical results. As the level of violence throughout the 19th century in the USA declined while the number of police increased, many observers concluded that the more police, the less crime. Even today, we bring in as many police as possible to control a crowd or to put out a demonstration. The following news item is an example for this:

"Procession pass off peacefully"

Madurai : Processions taken out by different factions on the All India Forward Bloc and other groups on the occasion of the 99th birth anniversary and 44th memorial day of pasumpon Muthuramalinga Thevar passed off peacefully amidst tight security here on Monday. Separate routes with different timings were allotted for the individual groups to take out processions. Traffic along the Albert Victor Bridge, Alagar koil Road and North Veli Street was diverted to prevent any snarl. Many schools had declared a holiday. Business establishments, especially those along the Alagar kovil Road stretch between Telegraph Office and Thevar statue, remained closed in the evening. Huge poses of policemen was deployed as a precautionary measure. (See: The Hindu, 31.10.2006). Heavy police deployment as a preactive measure helps in maintaining L&O and preventing crime.

5.3. Random patrols

Early beat officers were directed to check in at specific places at specific times, with rigid supervision of the prescribed patrol patterns. The increasing emphasis on rapid response in automobiles gradually put an end to directed patrols, allowing officers to patrol at random far beyond their assigned beats. This policy was justified by the theory that unpredictability in patrol patterns would create a perceived "omnipresence" of the police that deters crime in public places.

5.4. Directed Patrols

Since the advents of computerized crime analysis, however, a far greater precision in the identification of crime patterns has become possible. Police have used that precision to focus patrol resources on the times and places with the highest risks of serious crime. The hypothesis is that the more patrol presence is concentrated at the "hot spots" and "hot times" of criminal activity, the less crime there will be in those places and times. The epidemiological underpinning is that the risk of crime is extremely localized, even within high crime neighbourhoods, varying widely from one address to another.

5.5. Reactive Arrests

The more arrests police make in response to reported or observed offenses of any kind, the less crime there will be.

5.6. Proactive Arrests.

The higher the police-initiated arrest rate for high-risk offenders and offenses, the lower the rates of serious violent crime.

Community Policing. The more quantity and better quality of contacts between police and citizens, the less crime. Community policing implies a proactive police role. Instead of merely responding to calls for help, police should play an active role in the community, identify neighbourhood problems and needs, and set a course of action for effective response. Community policing stresses sharing power with local groups and individuals. Neighbourhood initiatives are considered an ideal way to prevent crime. Citizens actively participate by providing information in area crime investigation or help police reach out to troubled area youths.

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5.7. Situation Crime Prevention and Problem- Oriented Policing . The More Police can identify and minimize proximate causes of specific patterns of crime, the less crime there will be Sixteen Techniques of Situational Prevention (Siegel)

Increasing perceived Effort	increasing perceived Risks	Reducing Anticipated Rewards	Inducing Guilt of Shame
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Target Hardening, e.g. Bandit screens 	5. Entry/Exit screening. e.g. Baggage screening	9. Target Removal e.g. Removable car radio	13. Rule Setting, e.g. Customs declaration
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access Control e.g fenced yards 	6. Formal Surveillance e.g. burglar alarms	10. Identifying property e.g. property marking	14. Strengthening moral condemnation, e.g. "shoplifting is stealing"
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deflecting offenders, e.g. street closures 	7. Surveillance by employee, e.g. park attendants	11. Reducing temptation e.g. off-street parking	15. Controlling disinhibitors e.g. Drinking age laws
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Controlling facilitators, e.g. Gun controls 	8. Natural Surveillance e.g. Street lighting	12. Denying benefits e.g. Graffiti cleaning	16. Facilitating compliance, e.g. improved library checkout

1. The rapid Action Explain:

2. "Omnipresence" – Discuss .

3. What is proactive Arrests Explain?

4. Situational crime prevention of the four major pillars Listout?

5. Correctional use of drug treatment programmes.

Situational crime prevention, therefore, consists of the following four major pillars:

- Increase the effort needed to commit crime,
- Increase the risks of committing crime,
- Reduce the rewards for committing crime, and
- Induce guilt of shame for committing crime

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Problem- oriented policing plays an active role in crime investigation and prevention. Problems are typically defined narrowly and new solutions to old problems. Such as involving a variety of community agencies in crime control efforts are encouraged. We have relatively strong evidence for the effectiveness of problem solving and situational crime prevention.

Police presence can backfire if is provided in a disrespectful manner. Rude or hostile treatment of citizens, especially juveniles, can provoke angry reactions that increase the risk of future offending. Flooding high crime communities with aggressive police could backfire terribly, causing more crime than it prevents. The challenge is to develop programmers that make policing simultaneously more focused in what they do to prevent crime and more polite in how they do it.

5.8. Criminal Justice Agencies

There is very little evidence that increased incarceration has reduced crime. Yet variations in how the criminal justice system treat admitted offenders can make a great deal of difference. Correctional use of drug treatment programmes, rehabilitation programmes in prison, and institutionzation of some juvenile offender seem to be effective in crime prevention. The crime prevention effectiveness of any correctional treatment, however, depends upon the community, family, and labour market context into which the offender returns home.

There are many police practices that reduce crime, and some that even increade crime . The strength of police effects on crime is generally moderate rathet than substantial. A massive increase of police presence fosed in a small number of high crime communities or caste and communal conflict- ridden areas, could have a major effect at preventing crime. such concentrations could help create a threshold level of public order and safety.

Once beyond this threshold, the effectiveness of family, community, schools and the labour force could be substantially increased. Community policing and proble- oriented programmes offer one opportunity to increase police presence in the highest crime communities. Rehabilitation efforts intiated by the criminal justices system could effectively benefit juvenile delinquents.

5.9. Key words

Clogs - proper

Partial - Half

5.10. Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1- Refer section 5.1

For Question No 2 –Refer section 5.2

For Question No -3 Refer section 5.4

For Question No -4 Refer section 5.5

5.11. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

- 1.Reactive Arrest.
- 2.Random Patrols.
- 3Directed Patrols.

(B) Breif Answer Questions

- 4.Explain about the situation crime prevention and problem – oriented policing.

ROLE OF COMMUNITY POLICE IN CRIME PREVENTION

INTRODUCTION

The concept of Community Police and its practice is not new to India. It was in practice during the medieval ages and during the British period in areas where government police forces could not reach. The people in rural areas in particular had their forms of 'panchayats' headed by the village chief who was assisted by his lieutenant 'talayari' (in Tamil) and a band of men. This village administrative set up was responsible for collection of revenue for the government and also for maintaining public order and crime prevention as well. The village chief in many places also acted as a magistrate and awarded punishments decided by the village panchayat which consisted of the elders of the village.

OBJECTIVE

- To know the methods of forms and functions.
- To learn about the community police.
- To understand the various settlements outside the courts
- To know about various corruption control methods.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 6.1. Community Police – Forms and Functions
- 6.2. Need for Community Police
- 6.3. The Concept and Names
- 6.4. Forms of Community Police in India
- 6.5. Role of Community Police in Crime Prevention
- 6.6. Settlement Outside the Courts (SOC)
- 6.7. Lok Adalat
- 6.8. Role of correctional Administration in Crime Prevention
- 6.9. Corruption Control Methods
- 6.10. How to control corruption?
- 6.11. Overview
- 6.12. Key words
- 6.13. Answer to CYP questions
- 6.14. Model Questions

6.1 Community Police- Forms and Functions

During the British period, the 'zamindar' a class of nominated nobility of the villages, exercised these functions.. with the emergence of the modern policing system during the

British rule and also in the background of mass participation in the freedom struggle, the government police forces assumed greater powers to decline in the freedom struggle, the government police forces assumed greater powers to suppress the movement. therefore, the significance of the community police declined during the British rule.

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The traditional system of policing had the following drawbacks.

- Community kept at a distance;
- Lack of mutual faith between the police and the community;
- Centralized policy decisions;
- Authoritarianism with no transparency;
- Police made accountable to the department

These drawbacks created a great invisible barrier between the police and the community. No doubt, these drawback continues even today., after nearly sixty years of independence. However, certain changes are visible now and awareness to the need for creating and strengthening the community policing system is seen in recent years.

6.2 Need for Community Police

The need for community police can be understood from the following points:

- The modern police (with reference to unarmed police) is called the civil police and therefore, it should form an integral part of the community.
- Community's cooperation is required for the civil police in the law enforcement, crime prevention, traffic control control and other police- related functions.
- From cost point of view, it is the community which has to meet the cost of policing must be made to understand this and participate in community police to reduce the cost of policing.
- With increasing application of management science, and the principle of participative management, the concept of participative policing is gaining importance.
- Community policing has already been accorded a great significance in many other countries like the U.S.A. the U.K. Japan, Singapore etc.

From these points of view, it is imperative to strengthen the organization of community police I India. Already refine officers of the department in many states have been insisting on the implementation of community police in various forms. In the years to come, the police force may have to depend heavily on the services of the community police in different forms.

6.3 The Concept and Names

The term community police o community policing refers to the members of the community performing certain basic policing functions, not with the idea of replacing the formal civil police, but only as a complimentary to ti. The aim of community police is to strengthen the existing policing system and ensure better safety to the community.

Community police is given different names such as Community- Oriented policing (COP), community policing, Self- policing, Participative policing etc. There is some

1. Who was assisted by his lieutenant 'talayari'?
2. The traditional system of policing drawback.
3. Discuss: Community policing.
4. SOC at the police Station Levels Explain.
5. How to control

(Space for Hints)

difference between these concepts. It becomes necessary to understand the However, for the purpose of this topic, the following conceptual; clarification is given:

- **Community Police**

This refers to the creation of a community police system by the government in which certain groups or body of peoples are enrolled and trained to perform some policing functions, as for examples, the Home Guards, Traffic Warden etc. they may be given uniform and their services may be utilized on certain important occasions.

- **Community Policing**

the term community Policing is a concept with a broader connotation in that, the members of the community, take initiative to from their own security system either permanently o temporarily to safeguard their lives and properties. Good examples for this are the private security systems created in the shopping and commercial complexes, and residential complexes. Actually, the trend towards community policing is one the increase throughout the world. A lower profile of community policing is one's own awareness to the security of his place and belonging, as for example, the degree of awareness with which people undertake train or journeys for a long distance.

- **Community Oriented Policing**

This refers to stepping up the community Orientation of the existing policing system of the country with a view to reducing the distance between the two sides. In short, instead of always expecting the people to go to the police, the police must go to the people. this is attempted by the police in Japan, the U.K.and Singapore and some countries. In India, this culture is yet to be seen on the part of the police.

- **Participative Policing**

This is a latest concept of community policing with a hi- profile approach. This implies the police and the public joining together to solve certain issues and problems relating to security, public order, crimes, traffic problem etc. No doubt, some refined police officers try this method by convening meeting of the public representatives for solving such problems. This needs to be given a good shape and a definite policy frame.

- **Rationale for introducing Community- policing**

- It is not always possible to rely on the state mechanism completely for crime prevention. People must know to safeguard themselves and their properties.
- People must participate voluntarily and willingly in security arrangements.
- The Community has vast human resource and skills which, if utilized properly, can even check terrorism.
- With ever increasing new and violent types of crimes, there is ever increasing demand for police services. But, the existing police force is not able to cope with the present situation.

- **What are the areas of community policing?**

- Crime prevention and control;
- Creating awareness to- L&O;

- Creating awareness among children (as in Singapore)
- Exchanging information with the police;
- Serving as a source of public intelligence to the police;
- Providing assistance to the police during crises and disasters.

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Community police another Countries

Many other countries have successfully introduced the community policing. In Japan, for example, the Koban, a Japanese name for community police was introduced in the 1980s with the help of police beat boxes for community contacts and residents police officers.

In the U.S.A. in Kansas city, community preventive patrols have been created with police help to prevent and check crimes. Similarly, in New York, a system known as 'Low Visibility patrol' which is a community patrolling system is functioning to check crimes. Similarly, in the U.K. 30,000 neighbourhood Watches have been created with police- public consultation committees have been formed to discuss certain issues relating to order, crime and traffic in New York.

6.4 Forms of Community Police in India

In India various forms of community police are in practice. they are: a) Home Guards b) Traffic Wardens c) Friends of police d) village police e) Voluntary police f) The NCC.

- **Home Guards:** Many States in India have introduced the Home Guards as a form of community police. The Home Guards are under the control of the DGP of th estate, but it consists of a cross section of the society. In each area of city of town the Home Guards are placed under the control of the COP or SP.A civilian officer called the area community is nominated by the COP or the SP and is placed in the honorary rank or a DSP.

The Home Guard services are utilized on occasions like festivals, VIP visits, natural calamities etc. floods, fire accidents etc. to help the police and other resue services. Home Guards Have thus proved to be a very good form of community police.

- **The Traffic Wardens :** The traffic wardens is yet another form of community police found in many States. They are specifically used for regulating the traffic during the peak hours on normal days and during special occasions.
- **Friends of police:** The Tn Police introduced a scheme called Friends of Police in 1992 with a view to involve the selected members of the public in basis policing functions. The FOP are selected by local inspectors on some fixed criteria and are used to help the local police. they are also used as official; informers about local L&O conditions and crime situation.
- **Village Police/ Village watch :** Informal village Police/ watch may be organized by the Rural police during certain occasions such as when series of thefts.

or decoitics occur in villages. This is done only temporarily and once the problem is over this may be discontinued. The Rural Police Head Constables or a SI may from groups of youngsters of the villagers and train them in beats and patrols to check crimes. In the urban areas this takes the from Neighborhood watch.

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e) General Awareness to crime prevention among the public: When the police succeed in creating a general awareness among the public against crimes and motivate them in undertaking preventive measures, they also will serve as a part of the community police.

All these schemes insist on the responsibilities of the members of the public in crime prevention.

6.5 Role of Community Police in Crime Prevention

This detail of community police given above shows that, if the Community Police is effectively organized, it will help in checking crimes. For example, the private security system created in industrial establishments and private apartments help in checking crimes to a great extent.

If the resident welfare associations could form their own security forces. Even today, in some villages, Village watch, with or without police guidance is practiced whenever there are series of thefts or robberies. A very good example of community policing is, the people of some villages in Kashmir, which often used to become the targets for terrorists' attacks, got themselves trained to take up arms against the terrorists. This includes the women folk also.

By nature, every individual has a sense of policing in him/her. In other words, there is and there should be a policeman in every individual. When this is organized, it becomes community policing. One needs to have a sense of policing while traveling in a bus or a train, or when one walks with some cash in a bag. Thus, community policing, can be practiced in so many forms, jointly or individually, to check crimes.

6.6 Settlement outside the Courts (SOC)

Pendency of cases in Courts

Pendency of cases in both the criminal courts and civil courts has been a disturbing feature of the Indian Crime justice System for a long time. A number of efforts have been taken to minimize this, but it seems beyond control. One such measure taken to minimize the pendency of cases is settlement outside the courts. This is done at various levels.

SOC is practiced with reference to both the minor criminal cases and civil cases. Pendency of civil cases is much more than the criminal cases throughout the country and in all the courts. Appeals to higher courts, upto the Supreme Court is common in India.

When civil cases drag on for years together sometimes, even or decades, the parties concerned are totally defected. Moreover, civil cases turn into criminal cases. SOC has been in practice at various levels in the country for a long time.

SOC at the Village Level

SOC through local 'panchayats' in the villages is still in practice throughout the country although it has been declared illegal because of the bias and prejudice with which such settlements are made. However, the village elders who constitute the local panchayats, have given a fair trial in many cases and brought about settlement, thereby creating an amicable situation. This, in turn reduces enmity between the parties concerned. In some villages, even criminal cases of minor nature involving people of the same village are settled and judgements are passed by the local panchayats, which provide for some kind of compensation to the victims. Such a system was very popular during the medieval ages, but this is losing its popularity because of the influences of communal factors in such panchayats. Such a system is also banned by the Supreme Court of India. However, people in general have a view that civil

cases would drag on for many years in the courts and therefore, it is better to settle the civil disputes with the help of local people.

SOC at the Police Station Levels

Many state government have restricted the police stations to conduct dispute enquiry of civil or criminal nature, again, because of the chances of bias or prejudice in the settlement. Police stations in many places come under the influence of local VIPs such as local politicians. Panchayat presidents, presidents, municipal council members or some rich people. Naturally, the settlement given by a police inspector, who is under the influence of such people, is bound to be biased or prejudiced.

However, cases of minor nature, love affairs, some family disputes and even property disputes or boundary disputes are settled at the police station levels by inspectors or D.S.P.s within certain limits. On the district side, many communal disturbances have been settled peacefully by the timely intervention of the Inspectors or D.S.P.s concerned. In a sense, this is also settlement outside the court.

6.7 Lok Adalat

In order to overcome the drawbacks of SOC at the village and police station levels and to give a legal status to the SOC, the Supreme Court evolved a system of Lok Adalat as part of the High Courts, a decade back.

By this system, the Lok Adalat court is constituted by inducting the senior judges and lawyers, outside the court halls, and the litigants are invited to present their cases to the Lok Adalat. This aims at cutting short the normal court proceedings and instead, it aims at directly bringing the two sides of the litigants to a point of agreement in front of the judges and senior lawyers, who are expected to function without bias or prejudice towards any party.

In order to give the settlement a perfect legal status, the litigants are required to sign the judgement given by the Lok Adalat and accept the verdict. An important feature of Lok Adalat is, once accepted and signed any of the litigants cannot go for an appeal. They must accept the verdict given by the Lok Adalat as final. The Lok Adalat, as far as possible, takes care to see that both the parties are satisfied.

6.8 Role of correctional Administration in Crime Prevention

This is a very sensitive and vital area, which if administered carefully, will prove to be an effective means of crime prevention, correctional administration is of three categories. One aims at reforming and rehabilitating the serving prisoners; Second one aims at reforming and rehabilitating the ex-convicts, that is, those who have completed their period of conviction and have been released; Third one aims at reforming and rehabilitating those with deviant character, particularly, the juveniles.

- **Reforming the serving prisoners:**

This is the most vital area of correctional administration. A number of schemes and measures have been devised all over the world Every country has its own schemes of correctional administration. These include, Providing indoor education and distance education facilities

- Providing training facilities in skill development;
- Providing games and entertainment facilities;

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- Providing counseling to the inmates.
- Providing yoga and meditation training to the inmates;
- Providing other avenues of correctional measures, such as religious courses/spiritual courses.
- Parole facilities

- **Educational Programmes**

Most of the prisons in India have these schemes in practice. The Indira Gandhi National Open University is providing distance education programmes in many central prisons in India. Many serving prisoners who have already done some educational courses in schools or colleges, are allowed to continue and complete their education and also pursue higher education.

In the case of those pursuing distance education, some prisons arrange for personal guidance programmes. Similarly, in the case of serving juvenile delinquents, that those under 18, indoor educational programmes are provided by the State governments concerned. They are also give some training in sills.

- **Skill Training**

Skill training is imparted to the inmates in all the prisons. This includes training in skills like carpentry, blacksmithy pottery, book binding, plumbing works, lathe machine works and other such trades. Then aim of providing such skill training is to put them back in the main stream of society when they are released.

- **Games and Entertainment**

Games and entertainments have been made an integral part of the correctional administration in most prisons of the world. Depending on the space available in the prisons, both indoor game and outdoor games are provided to the inmates. The prison authorities also arrange for competitions in order to encourage team spirit among the inmates.

Besides games and sports, the prison authorities also arrange for entertainments to the inmates. Artistic talents are identified and developed in he prison. However, all these schemes and programmes are carried out only under normal circumstances. These programmes may be suspended when the prison authorities experience L&O problem in the prison. Moreover, implementation of these measures also depends the attitude of the prison officials.

- **Counselling Programmes**

Counselling programmes are also provided to the inmates in order to give thema psychological treatment. Counselling programme aims at understanding the socio-economic background of the inmates and also to change their temperament.

- **yoga and Meditation**

Yoga and meditation have become part of correctional administration in recent years.

Many prisons have arranged for regular yoga and meditation classes for the inmates. Like the counseling programmes, yoga and meditation also aim at meditation also aim at moderating the temperament of the inmates.

- **Parole**

Jail inmates with life imprisonment and with a good behavioural pattern are allowed paroles to visit their families on occasions like marriage of the son or daughter. This helps those inmates to get normalized, as they are allowed to get into touch with their families. The aim of parole is to make the inmates get a homely touch and feel the importance of the family and society.

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Besides all the measures stated above, some adhoc programmes, such as religious discourses, distribution of sweets and special lunch are offered to the inmates now and then.

Visits by family members and friends are allowed as a policy matter under normal situation. All these measures are expected to revive, rejuvenate and reestablish the human touch on the part of the inmates so that they do not think of committing crimes again.

All the correctional measures stated above have been presented with an idealistic outlook. The extent to which they are practiced differs from prison to prison. Many prisons are functioning under appalling conditions, with over congested cells, inadequate infrastructures, jail officials. Things like ganja and cell phone are smuggled, into the prisons for use of the inmates. As a result, the correctional part of the prison administration has become very insignificant. On the otherhand, the criminal part of the prison administration has become too significant. With the result sentence and prison life do not make any difference to the hardcore criminals.

6.9 Corruption Control Methods

During the last about 50 years after Independence, corruption in India has passed through first two stages and has entered the third stage. The first stage corruption was subdued and was below the surface during the 1950's and 60's.

The first corruption was mild and invisible to the common man. However, there were corruptions and mismanagement at higher levels in certain sectors like the Life insurance and Banking sectors which were then in the private sector. This led to process of Nationalisation of the LIC and the 12 major banks alongwith some other sectors. Common man in the streets did not see or know anything about corruption in this period.

The 1970s and the 80s witnessed corruption rising above the surface and backed by political factors. In fact, corruption entered politics and politics became corrupt, Once the political leaders became corrupt, the bureaucracy, including the police and other enforcing authorities became corrupt in this stage, In other words, corruption was very much visible to the common man corruption also grew into many directions both laterally and vertically. Different systems began absorbing corruption of different proportions. From higher levels, corruption was slowly moving towards the common man in the 1970s and the 80's.

The period, roughly from the 1990s onwards started witnessing the emergence of systemic corruption an corruption syndicates. Corruption assumed such an alarming proportion that corruption became integral part of many department. And common man also started accepting and digesting the corruption. With the result, now we find corruption every where, corruption has now become not only a national phenomenon, but a global phenomenon.

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The legislature, the executive and the judiciary all have become corrupt. Non-corrupt officials, if any, have become rare exceptions or rarest of rare exceptions. Corruption has become strongly entrenched in all the systems that a majority of the people, including those who oppose corruption, have a conviction that corruption can never be eliminated from the society. Therefore, under these circumstances, the police also have become corrupt. Non-corrupt policemen are only like islands.

The children today are born in corruption, as the public hospitals have become highly corrupt. The children live in the midst of corruption, as for example, they have to give bribe money for getting birth certificates or community certificates. And, people also die in the midst of corruption as for example, for taking delivery of the dead bodies from the public mortuaries, the people concerned have to pay some bribe money to mortuary caretakers. And, in the crematorium or burial ground again, one has to pay a bribe money for getting a death certificate. Thus, corruption extends from birth certificate to death certificate. And, corruption and bribery are now wonderfully justified by both sides and are considered to be necessary evils. But, the fact is, corruption has grown beyond all the proportions.

6.10 How to control corruption?

In spite of the fact that corruption permeates the entire air, there is increasing awareness among certain sections of the society to fight against corruption. A number of measures have been suggested in the background of the causes for corruption.

A sample survey on corruption conducted by the author of this chapter, in 2004, has revealed that three most corruptive departments identified by the survey respondents are, the revenue, the police and the PWD. Many other departments are also identified by the respondents of the sample survey. That, corruption is an offence is understood by almost everyone. Still most people feel that corruption is inevitable. However, there is a consensus of opinion that corruption needs to be controlled by all means and measures as otherwise, the entire system may be weakened and undermined.

Controlling corruption involves four steps. They are,

- Identify the type and characteristics of corruption;
- Identifying the extent or magnitude of corruption;
- Identifying the channels of corruption;
- Identifying the suitable remedies for corruption

This classification of the steps against corruption implies that corruption cannot be tackled by a single authority or a single machinery. Nor, corruption could be controlled at one time by a single stroke of the sword. Anti-corruption move needs persistent, consistent and continuous efforts on the part of the entire community. The last two and a half decades in particular have been witnessing an increasing awareness to anti-corruption drives in the form of the anti-corruption movements. Existing laws are being strengthened. But, the bitter truth is, the third stage corruption is strongly entrenched in the socio-economic system and is almost immune to all these efforts against corruption.

Following reforms are suggested for controlling corruption

- Economic policy reform, Including de-regulation;
- Transparency reforms;

- Public sector/civil service reforms;
- Public Finance/Tax reforms.
- Judicial reforms;
- Commercial law reforms;
- Strengthening the awareness of the civil society, through media;
- Reforming the law enforcement agencies.

It is widely accepted that, if only corruption in India could be controlled, India will become one of the most powerful countries of the world.

6.11 Overview

Any programme of crime prevention will succeed only if the police could count public support. Public support to police depends on the police image which is developed and maintained over a period of time. All is not well with the police- public relations in India. The totalitarian police culture which prevailed during the British period has created an invisible barrier between the police and the public. Many adversities like corruption, disrespect to the public, political criminal nexus, lock-up atrocities-all have tarnished the police image since Independence.

Of late, the police departments in India have understood the importance of public relations and are trying to woo the public through programmes of police image and police public interaction. Tamilnadu Police recently launched such a programme throughout the state.

With increasing crime rate, an also proliferation of crimes, targeted measures of crime prevention with reference to various dimensions of crimes have become quite essential. They are, the Mo or the criminal, the place, the time, the property and the victim are now coming under the purview of crime prevention.

Learning Objectives

- To enable the students to understand the importance of police-public cooperation in crime prevention;
- To understand the significance of crime prevention with reference to MO, place, time, property victim etc.

6.12. Key words

Gross Negligence – Negligence mounting to fraud

Subrogation – Substitution

Merger – United

6.13. Answer to CYP questions

For question No 1- Refer section 6.2

For question No 2 –Refer section 6.3

For Question No -3 Refer section 6.4

For Question No -4 Refer section 6.6

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Hints)

For Question No -4 Refer section 6.7

For Question No -5 Refer section 6.9

6.14. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Need for community police.
2. Lok Adalat.
3. How to control corruption?

(B) Brief Answer Questions

1. Explain in detail about SOC.
2. Explain the forms of community police in india.
3. What are the role of correctional administration in crime prevention.

Chapter 7

TARGETED PROGRAMME OF CRIME PREVENTION

INTRODUCTION

The police department occupies a pivotal position in the society. The role of police has been gradually changing from what it was during the British rule in India. The importance and image of police in the public eyes depends on how it carries out the three major functions, namely . L&O, maintenance crime control and traffic management.

OBJECTIVES

- To know about the targeted programmes.
- To learn the types of targeted programmes.
- To understand the targeted crime prevention measures (CPM).
- To know about the various forms of crime prevention.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 7.1. Police-public Relations
- 7.2. Scope for Improving police-Public Relations
- 7.3. Self Image of the Police
- 7.4. Counseling Sessions
- 7.5. Measure to Improve Police Image
- 7.6. Role Models
- 7.7. Functional Excellence
- 7.8. Project police Image of Tamilnadu Police
- 7.9. Targeting the M.O.,Place,Time,Victims and property for Crime Prevention
- 7.10. Highest Degree of uncertainty in Crimes
- 7.11. Targeted Crime Preventions Measures (CPM)
- 7.12. Place and Crime Prevention-Supplement
- 7.13. Forms of Crime Opportunities
- 7.14. Prism 200
- 7.15. Key words
- 7.16. Answer to CYP questions
- 7.17. Model Questions

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7.1 Police-Public Relations

Three spheres of activities have greater impact on the daily life of the people than other functions of the police. Other functions of the police will have only sporadic and momentous influence.

egative factors and Positive factors of the Police

Every government service or department has two sides relating to its structure, organization and functions. They are the negative side and positive side and it is the difference or balance between the two sides which governs the public perceptions of the department. This is largely true in the case of the police Department as well. The social psychology is the negative factors will have more, dominating influence on the society than the positive factors. For example, the impression of very efficient investigation conducted by a police station will be totally marred by an unusual even like lock-up death taking place in the police station.

The following negative factors are generally visible to the public eyes about the functioning of police. These negative factors pose very big challenge to the police. They are:

- **Police Custody**

Legal or illegal police custody has given rise to several malpractices and abuse of powers. Till the 1980s, third degree methods of interrogations such as various kinds of torture, kicking the accused with boots and hitting which cannot be described in words.

- **Abusive Language**

The police men in the stations are very notorious for their abusive language which they use to the accused and co-accused. Very often they use so unbearably bad language that it has resulted in the suicide of some accused, especially if the accused happen to be women.

- **Arbitrary Powers of Arrest**

In spite of the laws framed by the Apex court of the country, the policemen of the stations are exercising arbitrary powers of arrest/in the name of arresting the suspects. The police can arrest anyone in connection with a cognizable offence and take him/her into custody. But many times those arrested are let off. This makes the person feel extremely uneasy and he feels psychologically upset.

- **Corruption**

Corruption and misuse of power are common features of the police force. Even some of the higher level officers are not free from corruption. It is a common sight to see the policemen on traffic beats, check posts or highway patrols collecting money from their clients such as lorry drivers, bus drivers, tourist vans, and loaded vehicles. Not only this, the traffic policemen going to the tiffin stalls and taking tiffin or going to the fruit stalls and taking fruit juices free of cost is also commonly seen in the cities and towns. They think that they have this privilege by the khaki uniform which they wear, forgetting what kinds of comments they get on their back.

Higher level corruptions take place among the IOs such as SIs, inspectors DSPs/ACs, even SP and above for changing the course of a criminal case to the advantage of their favorites.

- **Connivance with the Criminals**

The public generally believe that the cops know the M.O. of the conman and if they are suitably 'rewarded' in advance they would in no minute round up the criminals in connection with a case. This is partly true because, the cops know the common by their M.O., and more so, by their FPs. Some Cops are not only close to the dad as has and antisocial but get regular payments from them, This is also well known to the public.

- **Mis-behaviour with women**

The Policemen mis-behaving with the women arrestees is not anything Uncommon. This more so in the case of women belonging to the about strata of society. There are too many media reports about rape in custody followed by guilty policemen being prosecuted and convicted. Such incidences smear the public image of police for a longtime, not only among those who are victimized but also in society around them.

- **Illicit Relations within the department**

With a view to giving women equal rights in all walks of life, the women police scheme was introduced in India during the 1960s and 1970s. Women now find a place in the police department at all levels. The women police, no doubt helps in improving the performance of the department with devotion to duty. But, there are also sporadic reports of inter-departmental illicit relations in the police stations. And the media also do not miss them. One can understand what kind of public image this will create.

- **Political Nexus**

Policemen at the state level are biased towards the politicians who helped them in getting selected to the post. This kind of political nexus creates many other problems.

- **Violation of Human Rights**

Violation of Human Rights is not anything uncommon. This results in policemen getting prosecuted.

- **Drunken Policemen**

Now and then reports about drunken policemen are coming in the media. Even in the police stations, some policemen could be seen in drunken mood. One can understand the impact of this on the society.

- **Non-registration of cases or delayed registration**

The CW of the police station normally does not register the ordinary cases and make the complainants to come to the station repeatedly. Only very serious and sensational cases are registered and investigation is commenced.

- **Disregard for for poor and helpless people**

Poor and helpless complainants are not given due regard in the police stations while complainants from higher strata of society are accorded good welcome.

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1. What is corruption?
2. Scope for improving Police-Public Relations : Discuss.
3. What counseling sessions ? Explain.
4. What is CPM?
5. Explain the parking meters and public telephones.

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- **Fleecing the Complainants**

People who report about the theft of a motorcycle, burglary in the house, snatching, robbery etc. are asked to spend considerable amount of money before the case comes to the final stage.

7.2 Scope for Improving Police-Public Relations

It may be pointed out that as positive approach, Public-Relations may be initiated by the police, because.

- The Police constitute only a small fraction of the population. Therefore, it is only the police, because,
- It is the police who have great authority and therefore, it will be appropriate only if the police take the initiative in this regard

Three categories of measures may be suggested for improving police public relations. They are:

- Relinquishing the negative factors;
- Strengthening the positive factors
- Functioning with a futuristic outlook

- **Relinquishing the Negative factors**

Nearly thirteen factors were stated on the police side as negative factors. Many of them are negative factors of policemen in connection with public relations. If only the policemen have a mind and will to relinquish these negative factors, the police-public relationship would definitely improve a lot. The policemen may find it extremely difficult to shed their unwanted characters in the beginning. This will have to be achieved only through awareness and motivational programmes. A sample survey to assess the humanness in policemen may be conducted by researchers. This may be followed by periodic counseling sessions conducted by the sociologists, psychologists and criminologists. The policeman must be made to understand that they need to change themselves in view of the changing socio-economic environment. When they resort to human rights violation in the name of investigation, they need to change themselves in view of the changing socio-economic environment. When they resort to human rights violation in the name of investigation, they will have to face prosecution. Policemen always use to have a justification for human rights violation. An investigating officer who resorts to third degree interrogation cannot be an efficient police man. Therefore, it may be emphasized that the move towards better police public-relations must start with an orientation programme as stated above.

- **Strengthening the positive for crime Prevention**

There are many positive characters in the human behaviours. Our common sense will tell us what they are. For example, keeping a smiling face to anyone is a positive character and it will help in building up good relationship with the people around. The policemen in the police-stations must keep smiling face to people coming to the station with a complaint. This may be combined with a few kind words and a positive gesture. That police alone cannot prevent crimes has been proved on many

occasions. For example, in the case of the operations against the forest bandit veerappan in TN, the police took a number of measures to enlist public cooperation.

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The police now maintain- an isolationist policy, by keeping themselves away from the public. This attitude needs a change. The policemen must develop a positive attitude and must take opportunities to meet at least the cross section of the people around them. In fact, the police men must try to become familiar with local population. This will help in enlisting public support to the police in measures of crime prevention.

Futuristic Outlook

Fast changes are taking place all around us. The policemen must be shrewd enough to understand the trends in the society with reference L&O. crime etc. For example, cyber crimes are now in the forefront throughout the world. It is said that the criminals are always ahead of the police. This should be reverted and the policemen must be ahead of the criminals and be more on the proactive and pre-active sides than on the reactive side. By effecting such a strategic change police men can gain knowledge about future trends in crimes. This needs a good understanding of the society and its trends. This would put both the police and the public on the preventive side. It needs to be greatly emphasized that while reactive policing is very much the job of the policemen: proactive policing involves the police and the public.

7.3 Self Image of the Police

Self-image refers to what one thinks of himself/herself. This is in other words looking inwards, which is called intuition. Self-image has a prominent place in the management science in relation to the employees of an organization. Some organizations which are practicing modern management principles expect the new candidates to declare their positive side and negative side, so that the management of the organization is able to see the real cross section of its employee population at the point of entry. Self-image enables a person to understand himself/herself in relation to others. people in every profession and occupation need to have self-image and must try to understand his/her position in relation to others.

Policeman of any rank needs to have self-image and have intuition of himself/herself. This will help in maintaining cordial relations with the public. Every individual in public life is governed by three categories of characters, namely, personal character, occupational character and social character. These three types of characters make one react to and reflect the society around him/her.

Personal character refers to one's basic character irrespective of what he is as for example, personal integrity, basic manners. courage etc. Occupational character is partly derived from personal character and partly from the occupation.

They are the characters like punctuality, honesty, good turn out, clear perceptibility, work ethics etc. And social characters are, dignified reception to the public and understanding the public expectations, helping tendency, getting on with the public etc.

In fact self-image of a policeman is subject to or is shaped by all these characters. Every policemen should know how far he is positive and how far he is negative. Negative characters are such as short-temper, disrespect to the public, resorting to unwarranted third

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degree interrogations, resorting to misuse of power, indifference to work, lack of time sense etc. It is easy to understand the impact of these tendencies on public perceptions.

7.4 Counseling Sessions

Policemen who are on the negative side or who have dominating negative characters must be identified and must be given counseling by counseling experts. This will help them come to the positive side. Orientation courses in attitudinal changes are conducted for policemen now and then. Along with these courses updating of knowledge must be ensured for policemen periodically. Strengthening the hierarchical relationship will also help in developing the self-image of policemen.

7.5 Measure to Improve Police Image

It has been stated in the topic on public Perceptions of Police and also in the topic Self- Image that the police as a whole needs to be transformed from its negative characters to positive characters. Police subcultures like torturing the accused in the name of interrogation, police corruption and its unwarranted justification, behaving as a symbol of authority and using bad language, mis-behaving with women and ever so many characters are being condemned all over the world. Policemen with appreciable character are like islands in the midst police population. with appreciable many other countries, police subculture has tarnished the police image.

7.6 Role Models

There are always some policemen among the general lot who are like role models, be it a constable or a commissioner of police. In fact, it is the higher officers who should be like role models. Such officers are spoken in praise of by the subordinates. Such role models may be exemplified to others. It may be pointed on that every individual in the department contributes to the image. At the same time the image built up over a period of time may be spoiled and damaged by one individual by his misbehaviour with the public.

7.7 Functional Excellence

The image of any individual, any organization or any department is very much governed by the functional excellent of the individual or the organization. A school boy is generally admired for his excellence in his studies and/or games. Every government department has its own functions and an output which go to the people. The functional excellence of the Highways Department is reflected in its output, namely the roads it constructs i.e. the city highways, state highways and the national highways.

Similarly, the functional excellence of the police Department is reflected in its output with reference to the three most important functions namely, a) L&O maintenance b) Crime Control and c) Traffic Management. These are the three spheres of activities which bring the police into public contact. And, the image of the police very much depends on their functional excellence in these areas.

Other functional areas such as prohibition, narcotics control, anti terrorist functions only create a momentary sensation and then fade away. The public also expect the police to perform more perform more pre-active policing. The very word "Image" can be taken to mean the following:

I	-	Intelligence
M	-	Management
A	-	Accessibility
G	-	Gentility
E	-	Enforcement

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Intelligence refers to the intelligence functions of the police, employed to counter crime, terrorism, L&O problem etc. Intelligence is an important function of the police. Excellence in intelligence may help in preventing many untoward incidents. This will keep the police more on the pre-active side.

Management refers to application of management principles to policing, as for example the concept of quality control circle, skill development etc.

Accessibility implies giving greater access to general public for giving complaints or seeking permissions etc.

Gentility refers to gentle behaviour extended to the general public.

E refers to enforcement of the laws of the land without bias or prejudice.

If every policeman observes these principles in this career as a policeman, he/she will be elevating the image of the police.

7.8 Project police Image of Tamilnadu Police

In order to give an exposure to the policemen to what the public feel about them, the DGP of TN advised all the city commissioners and Range Officers (DIGs) to organize police-public interaction programmes throughout the state of TN.

Accordingly, all the COPs and Range DIGs organized Police-Public Interaction programmes during the months of October –November 2006. Representatives came out with open criticisms about all the negative characters of the policemen.

Based on the outcome of such police-public interactions, the higher level officers advised the policemen to take the criticisms to their heart and amend themselves to win public confidence.

7.9 Targeting the M.O., Place, Time, Victims and Property for Crime Prevention

Functions of the police can be classified into three broad categories, namely, pre-active policing (pl) refers to all the preventive functions with reference to L&O, crime, traffic, and other problems such as terrorism, Proactive policing refers to taking appropriate measures alongside a problem with a view to putting an end to the problem. Reactive policing refers to all the reactive functions performed after the occurrence has taken place.

7.10 Highest Degree of uncertainty in Crimes

The highest degree of uncertainty found with most of the crimes has pushed the police force very much on the reactive side, creating a near vacuum condition on the pre-active side and pro-active side. Generally, the people observe only minimum security measures for their life and property, Only under extraordinary circumstances, they take extra-precautionary

measures. For example, when we take some valuables, we take extra pre-cautions. However, there are bound to be some gaps in the precautions and these gaps are taken advantage of the criminals, state VIPs are assassinated by their rival forces who take advantage of the security gaps. This is because any individual or any property cannot be placed under cent per cent tight security for a longtime. The criminals who target individuals or properties always look for the security lapse or security gaps, and they strike at their targets in the background of the highest degree of uncertainty.

7.11 Targeted Crime Prevention Measures (CPM)

Targeted crime prevention measures aim at identifying and minimizing the uncertainties by targeting the targets of the criminals or the criminals themselves. In this, the p1, p2 and p3 all may be combined. Depending on the situation, it may be only p1, or p2 or p3. Following measures fall under the purview of targeted CPM.

- **The Modus Operandi (MO)**

This is the most conventional method of p1, or p2 or p3. MO refers to the method of operation of the criminals. This is based on the belief or assumption that most of the habitual offenders have a set pattern of MO. This is found to be very much true in the case of conventional crimes like property offences such as murder for gain, dacoity, robbery, house-breaking and burglary, pocket-picking, cheating, suitcase lifting etc.

For example, train passengers are victimized by a group of criminals who are called 'biscuit bandits'. Their MO is giving biscuits or sweets coated with some narco substances which will throw the eater into a deep sleep or even unconsciousness. The bandits will relieve the passenger who become unconscious, of all his valuables and will escape by alighting in the next station. They commit similar offences in the motorbuses also.

With the occurrence of a series of such offences, the police have been warning to the rail and bus passengers not to accept any eatables given by strangers while traveling. This, no doubt has very much reduced such offences. Similarly, during festival times, the police use to give frequent advices to the people through their PAS, to take care of their jewels, children and other valuables. This helps in creating a sense of precaution among the people who participate in the festivals.

Thus if the various MOs of the criminals are informed to the public through the media and police-public meetings, that would help the public to observe some precautionary measures.

- **Time**

Some of the criminals may combine certain timings along with a basic MO. For example, highway dacoits strike at their victims by selecting a particular time in the night, such as one or two past midnight—a time at which the passenger will be fast asleep, and also a time at which the passengers could be taken by surprise. They may use mild violence. Some of the dacoits may go to the extent of murdering their victims. Number of vehicles on the highways also may become less after midnight and this becomes an advantage for the dacoits to single out some vehicles, strike at the passengers and loot them.

Under, such circumstances, the police may advise the drivers of all categories to drive in convoys, close to each other when they drive during nights. Years back, when some of the highways in TN were infested with series of highway dacoities, the TN police advised the drivers to go in groups as convoys.

Further, as a preventive measure against highway devotees, the district police in many states have launched highway patrols, Each highway patrol is given certain distance to cover and each patrol van is filled with VHF radio system which connects it with other patrol vans on the highways. Presence of highway patrols on the highways particularly, during the hours has very much reduced highway dacoities. Highway patrols also attend to accidents and send message to the nearest police station for getting immediate rescue team.

- **Place**

Certain places may become crime-prone or accident-prone and therefore, they may targeted for CPM. For example, in the case of highway dacoities again, the dacoits may combine a basic Mo, a particular place and particular time. Such places dacoits may combine a basic Mo, a particular place and particular time. Such places on the highways may be for away from cities or towns on either side. Or, the dacoits may choose a place on the mountainous routes in scheduled places and loof the passengers.

A few years back (in 2003), the womenfolk working in the BPO call centre at Bangalore and residing in women's hostels or in the city outskirts, were fatally attacked on their way back home by miscreants in the lonely places such places were placed under some security to protect the womenfolk, Thus, when the criminals take advantage of certain places for committing crimes, such places need to be protected with suitable measures.

The highway Patrols deployed on the state and national highways have very much reduced the incidence of place-oriented highway robbery and dacoity. Along with this, highway motels on the highways at vital points also help in checking such occurrences.

- **Property**

Sometimes, irrespective of place or time, the criminal may target some valuables or some property or cash very often, people drawing heavy cash from the banks or depositing heavy cash into the bank become victims. The miscreant diverts the attention of the victims, and take away the money from them. In the case of such occurrence the criminals observe the victim for sometime or a few days and execute their plans with a major focus on the property or cash. This is also true in the case of the biscuit bandits who operate in the running trains. Under such circumstances, those carrying heavy cash or valuable properties need to be advised to have some personal security or at least some accomplices.

5. The Vitim

Sometimes, the individual may become the target for the miscreants. It may be mostly the person who carries heavy cash or some valuables. Or, the person may be targeted by the criminal on some personal reason or grudge. This is very much true in the case of political or personal or business rivalries. Such persons may inform the police seeking police protection for sometime or they may arrange for their own personal security with licensed arms.

6. The Criminal

Some criminals declared as dangerous ones may have to be targeted by the police. Such criminals are usually dreaded criminals who do not hesitate to commit murders on

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payment. They are paid killers. There are also dacoits who kill their victims mercilessly for the sake of the cash or jewels they press. They use to create terror in the neighborhood in order to escape after committing such murders.

They may resort to publishing the photo of such dreaded criminals and arrange to display their pictures in the bus stands, railway stations and other public places. Such publicities given by the police, besides indicating the characters of the criminal, may also indicate his MO. Such publicities are given by the police in the case of serial killers. All this mean to put the public at least on the cautious side and go get any possible information from the public side this may also send such criminals into underground or be out of sight at least for some time.

7. Targeted groups

Crime prevention measures need to be implemented against the targeted groups such as juveniles, slum dwells, nomads or gypsies, criminal tribes, beggars, ex-convicts, Gaylord groups, the runaways etc.

• Juveniles

Juveniles found very much in the cities and towns are a potential group who always prove to be easily crime prone. Under 18, they are homeless, shelter less, characterless, Left to themselves, they may more criminality when they grow up. As juveniles, they resort to stealing, robbery and sometimes even abduction murdering them for mall gains.

While juvenile offenders are taken care of by the Borstal Schools after their conviction, the juveniles are left in the lurch. However, under the guidance of the UN, a number of NGOs have come into existence throughout the world to take care of the juveniles. The child Relief and You (CRY) Police Bys Club, PRAYAS, Child line, Nanban (friend) are some of the NGOs which take case of the juveniles and vagabond children.

There are Juvenile Wings (JW) in the city police under the charge of an Inspector who is assisted by a Sub-Inspector, a Head Constable and some constables, The JW takes case of Vagabond children and put them in the juvenile homes such as CRY or Nanban Such efforts, no doubt, help in checking the juveniles turning into adult criminals.

Juveniles are a global problem many countries, more particularly, the US, Mexico, Brazil, Columbia, Peru etc. are experiencing the problem of the juveniles. In some of the South American countries, the juveniles have become such a serious social problem that people employ some special squads to 'dispose of' such juveniles. The police also are just indifferent to this issue. In India, the problem of the juveniles in the cosmopolitan cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Chennai etc, is more serious than in other smaller cities and towns. Many of them join the gangs of adult criminals and dadhas and get into the criminal world even in the young age.

• The Run always

The 'run always' are another category of youngsters who run away from their home on some reason or other. The most common reasons are failure in the examination, ill treatment by step mother, lack of attention by the employed parents bad company etc.

Boys and girls desiring enter the film world often fall victims in the hands of anti-social elements. Such children, if they come to the notice of the police, are rescued and sent back to their parents with suitable advice and escort

- **Slum Dwellers**

Slums are generally a source of criminality throughout the world. Existence of slum dwellers is an excuse for economic development. Although the state governments in India are attempting to provide the slum dwellers the basic infrastructures and overheads, still conditions of living in the slums are deplorable poverty, vices, disease, drug and addiction, immorality etc. are the characteristics of any typical slum in India and the world over. The state governments in India are trying to improve the living conditions of slum dwellers by providing many amenities. simultaneously, the police also are attempting through slum adoption programmes. No doubt, the presence of police in the slums, will, to some extent atleast, check criminally and deviance in the slums

- **Nomads and Gypsies**

Like many countries, India too has its own community of nomads and gypsies. The community of nomads and gypsies are generally notorious for major and minor thefts, but they do not commit major offences such as murder for gain. They are active with their own Mo during festivals and in crowded places. During festivals the police generally warn the people to take care of their cash and jewels. The police also exercise surveillance over the presence of such people in the festivals.

- **Criminal Tribes**

In many states in India, there are criminal tribes who are professionally criminals. It is said that, these tribes are given to criminal ways of living for many generations. In TN. there is a criminal tribe, which leads criminal life for more than 200 years . Some of these tribes are violent and some non-violent in their MO. Each tribe belongs o a particular community. They use to operate throughout India using different tactics known by their MO, the police of different states are not able to control them because, these tribes are so clever to erase the vidences of their operations. Some of them operate as biscuit bandits in the trains and buses, while some others resort to violent robbery and dacoity.

Prevention of the crimes committed by such criminal tribes has become a difficult affair. There are also the criminal tribes or dacoits of the chambal Valley in Madhya Pradesh. These dacoits were very notorious during the British rule and in the immediate post independence period. The Chambal Valley dacoits used to strike terror in the nearby villages, loot and kill the people whom they did not like.

Vinoba Bhave who launched the Bhoodhan Movement in India in the 1970s, went to the Chambal Valley Villages and appealed to the dacoits to lay down their arms and surrender, so that their children could lead a peaceful life, Many a dacoit listened to his appeal and did so. This reduced the intensity of the problem to some extent, but it continued in smaller proportions even today, These dacoits strike at the train passengers in the midnight and loot them. Police guards are deployed in the right trains to check these dacoits and protect the passengers.

- **The Addicts**

The drug and alchoholic addicts are another vulnerable group who resort to non-violent mostly crimes to find money to satisfy their urge for alcohol or drugs. Drug addiction among youngsters is on the increase. In cosmopolitan cities, the Anti-vice squad of the city police raids the places where drug-related activities are carried on. The squad takes the drug addicts into custody, and if they happen to be young students, their parents are contacted and

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informed about the behaviour of heir son or ward. There are also many NGOs in the country which attend to this issue.

- **The Serial Killer/Maniacs**

Serial Killers or maniacs are yet another category of Criminals who need to be targeted from p1,p2 and p3 points of view offences or killings committed by the maniacs are difficult to understand. The maniacs have their own personal reasons for killing their targets. killing of young women, prostitutes, by the maniacs children etc. have come to light in the past years. Even violent property offenders have resorted to serial murders while committing dacoity or robbery.

Here, each category of maniac will have his own MO which becomes prominent from criminological point of view. Once the Mo of a maniac is identified, then, the police alert the people abot the maniac, and at the same time, they launch a serious investigation.

Thus, the police may target a particular criminal or group of criminal and launch the 'police net' to round them to safeguard the people and property.

7.12 Place and Crime Prevention-Supplement

Introduction

In every village, town and city, there are certain places where people gather together for various purposes, personal and social, recreational and religious, educational and economic activities, political and cultural. Criminal elements do take this opportunity to take advantage of such places and gatherings to carry out their nefarious activities, Regardless of whether these places cause crimes or merely act as receptors them, the prevention of crime in such places may have substantial effects at reducing total crime in the community.

It is a myth to believe that the more police we have, the less crime there will be while citizens and public officials often espouse that view, social scientists often claim the opposite extreme; that police make only minimal contributions to crime prevention in the context of far more powerful social institutions, like the family and labour markets. Then truth appears to lie in between. Whether additional police prevent crime many depend on how well they are focused on specific objectives tasks, places, time and people, Most of all, it may depend upon putting police where serious crime is concentrated, at the times it is most likely to occur; police where serious crime is concentrated, at the times it is most likely to occur; policing focused on risk factors.

Place: Definition

A place is a very small area reserved for a narrow range of functions, often controlled by a single owner, and separated from the surrounding area. By small we mean that a location is smaller than a neighbourhood or community, Examples of places include stores, homes, apartment buildings, street corners, religious centers. Educational institutions, subway stations, cinema theatres, airports and mobile places, such as buses, and trains.

7.13 Forms of Crime Prevention

Blocking Criminal Opportunities

The oldest forms of crime prevention were undertaken with the knowledge that making changes to places might prevent criminal events. These changes involve making crime more difficult, risky, less rewarding, or less excusable. This approach is known as opportunity blocking. Opportunity blocking does not have to be done at places. It can also be built into targets (for example, designing anti-theft devices into automobiles or printing holograms and photos on credit cards to curtail forgery and fraud).

Designing methods for blocking crime opportunities is the domain of Situational Crime Prevention. It includes also opportunity blocking at places, a subset of Situational Crime Prevention. It not only has a much longer history than offender based prevention measures, it is used much more widely and in more settings than any other form of crime prevention.

Opportunity blocking at places may have a greater direct effect on offenders than other crime prevention strategies. This is because place-focused tactics might influence offenders when they are deciding to commit a specific crime. Most offender based strategies try to sway offenders weeks, months, or years before they confront a tempting criminal opportunity. If offenders pay closer attention to the situation immediately before them than to the uncertain long term risks of their behavior, then it is quite possible that prevention at places may have a greater impact on offending than increase in penalties or less tangible increases in risks (e.g. decreases in police in police response time. increased police presence, or greater numbers of arrests and convictions). Because hotspots of crime are themselves clustered, if crime at these few places can be substantially reduced, communities can be made safer.

Although opportunity blocking takes a different approach than programmes designed to change the life-course of potential and existing offenders, these two approaches can work together. For people with low self-control and low ability to see long term consequences of behaviour, addressing the immediate circumstances surrounding crime opportunities may amplify the effectiveness of other strategies designed to address the prevalence of such offenders.

7.14 Prism 200

A device that allows the police to see through walls could transform the way they deal with hostage situations, according to a technology company in Cambridge in England, that developed it. The short-range radar machine allows the operator to track people moving inside a house and so decide, for example, where and when to storm the building. Rescue workers could also use it to see where earthquake survivors are trapped under rubble or in a burning building. Prism200, as it is called developed by Cambridge Consultants, gives a clear picture of what is going on inside a building without potentially alerting occupants. The instrument works by filtering out radar returns from static objects and only displaying things that move. Such a machine could very well be used as a crime prevention strategy too. (see : The Hindu 12.11.2006).

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3. Crime Prevention Residences

Crime prevention in residential settings often involves the implementation of a variety of measures.

- **Restricting pedestrian Access and Movement**

Oscar Newman's Defensible Space (1972) stimulated interest in the link between the built environment and crime in residential areas. Reducing the number of pedestrian routes through housing complexes, creating separate areas within the complex, improving lighting, and enhancing the surface appearance of the buildings have been found to reduce crime rates, especially in the rate of serious crimes like burglary, robbery and assault. Even the removal of elevated walkways connecting buildings in a housing complex which were thought to facilitate robberies of residents resulted in a reduction in crimes.

Restricting the movements of pedestrians could include door-to-door police inspections all units within the building in a housing complex. Ground floor entrances are enclosed in new lobbies and guard stations are installed along with metal detectors. Residents are issued identification cards and asked to present them when entering the buildings. Tenant patrols could be added to the already existing security personnel.

- **Target hardening**

Providing locks and improved security to access points is a commonly called target hardening and is used as a burglary prevention tactic. Target hardening appears to reduce burglaries without major displacement effects. Closed – circuit Television (CCTV) is another device to control burglary .

- **Multi-tactic Interventions**

Neighbourhood watch, target hardening, lighting improvements, and an assortment of other interventions seem to reduce burglary.

- **Retail LStores**

Places that sell goods to the public are frequent crime sites. The theft of goods represents a large proportion of these crimes, In addition to thefts, robberies of store clerks and burglaries after store hours can also be problems. Hidden cameras, silent alarms, and the installation of interactive CCTV (allowing communication between the clerk and the personnel watching the TV monitor in a remote location) were found effective in reducing crimes.

- **Shoplifting**

There are several methods for prevention shoplifting. Electronic article surveillance (EAS) involves placing tags on merchandise that only clerks can remove at the time of payment. If a clerk does not remove the tag and the shopper leaves the store, the tag causes an alarm to sound. EAS technology improves employee surveillance of goods. Ink tags deface the merchandise if it is removed from the store without paying. This destroys the value of the goods to thieves.

- **Banks and money handling places**

The robbery of banks and other places that provide money handling services is a serious problem in many countries. Guards may prevent bank robberies. Screens protecting

tellers, cameras, providing adequate security personnel and generally alertness of the staff to suspicious-looking persons have been found effective to some degree in crime prevention.

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- **Drinking Establishments**

There is a consistent research literature that points to a relationship between the presence of bars and crime in the surrounding area. Despite this reputation, most bars may be relatively crime free while a few may be hotspots of crime. The behaviour of bartenders and bouncers may contribute to violence in these places and changes in bar management practices may reduce assaults, drunk driving and traffic accidents.

- **Public Transportation**

Two types of public transportation have been the subject of evaluations: buses and trains. Evaluations investigated prevention measures directed at four types of crime: crimes against riders, attacks on staff; fare evasion; and vandalism. The types of interventions have been quite varied, ranging from complete system design to volunteer citizen patrols and additional traveling security personnel. These interventions may be intensified in times of extraordinary socio-political tension. But burning and vandalism have become frequent in India during socio-political tension. Bus burning and vandalism have become frequent in India during socio-political turmoil. Only increased vigilance on the part of the police and increasing the social responsibility of the public could prevent such criminal events.

Bus stands could be safeguarded by closing off spaces, improving shopping complexes, increasing enforcement, and other measures to remove situations that facilitated offending or increase the number of the traveling public and their responsible ability to watch each other. Or course, better lighting and CCTV could also function as crime prevention strategies. The same could be recommended to train traveling and train stations and the safety of parking lot and garages.

In all these initiatives and improvements, the ultimate objectives are the safety of the public and improving passenger confidence in the safety of the transport system.

- **Airports**

Aircraft hijacking by armed passengers has been a problem since World War I. In 1968, the number of world- wide aircraft hijackings began an explosive climb. There were 38 that year, and 82 next. In response, policy makers implemented a number of strategies, including treaties to ensure the return of hijackers and aircraft. Due to increased terrorist threats after 9/11, airport authorities have become more vigilant and have initiated many strategies to ward off such criminal events. These include the use of metal detectors to screen for weapons, adding traveling sky marshals and of course CCTV inside the aircraft. Security at the airports and better screening of passenger and baggages have become the order of the day, contributing to the annoyance of the passengers and causing inordinate delays of the flights and other inconveniences.

A caption "police Officers to review security of airports" informs us that the State police Headquarters in Chennai has deputed two police officers for reviewing security in all major airports in Tamil Nadu. The Inspector –General of Police (Intelligence) and the Superintendent of Police (Security) will visit the airports and look into various security aspects and present a report to the Director – General of Police. At the airports, normally internal security is taken care of by the Central Industrial Security Force. the local police handle access control, outer security and parking of vehicles .This is the preventive strategy

Undertaken by the police in the wake of terrorists threat to the airports in India. (See : The Hindu, 12.11.2006)

10. Open Public Spaces

Increased alertness and attention have become a necessity to monitor open space in cities, including street, beaches, parks and playgrounds which may be the frequent scenes for crimes. Four types of interventions are attempted: the control of problem offenders, improved lighting, the use of closed-circuit television (CCTV) and street closures and rerouting. Closed-circuit television (CCVT) enhances the ability of a designated guardian to watch people in an area and to call for police intervention if potential trouble is detected, This is likely to increase the risks of offending, but only if the CCTV surveillance is well known to the people who use the area.

- **Parking meters and Public Telephones**

Parking meters and public telephones are devices that occupy small but important places in cities and are subject to fraud and vandalism. Reductions in property offenses may follow due to changes in the physical structure or operations of these devices. Strengthening the material used in public telephone cash boxes, electronic monitoring of phone booths have been found to be effective preventive measures.

To conclude, blocking crime opportunities at places can reduce crime, under some circumstances. Although there is a great deal of uncertainty about what works, at which places, against which crimes, this should be not distract us from the broader research finding that opportunity blocking tactics a places can be productive.

- **Displacement and Diffusion**

In every strategy of crime prevention, displacement of crime and diffusion of prevention benefits need to be looked into.

- **Displacement**

One reason for community resistance to place-focused prevention (or any area specific tactic) is the fear of the displacement of crime from the target places to other presumably safer, locations nearby. Displacement can take on a number of forms. Offenders can change locations. They can change the times of offending. They can change the target of their criminal behaviour. They can adopt new behaviours to attack the target of their criminal behaviour. They can adopt new behaviours to attack the same targets. And they can switch the type of crime they commit. Fear of displacement is often based on the assumption that offenders are like predatory animals i.e., they will do whatever it takes to commit crimes.

Theoretical explorations based on rational choice perspective find no basis for believing offenders always completely displace if they cannot attack their favourite targets. Reviews for empirical studies examining place –focused prevention, police enforcement, and other preventive tactics in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, continental Europe, and Australia, find that there is often no displacement, but when displacement occurs it does not overwhelm other gains from blocking crime opportunities.

- **Diffusion of Benefits**

Overlooked in our concern about displacement is the possibility of just the opposite effect, diffusion of crime prevention benefits. Diffusion occurs when efforts to prevent one crime unintentionally prevent another and when crime control efforts in locale reduce crime in other non-target area. It was found that when magnetic tags were put in library books in a university library, book thefts declined. But, so did the theft of audio and video tapes which were not tagged, because the delinquents were not aware which items were tagged and which were not.

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7.15. Key words

Premium – Price
Removable property – Not movable

7.16. Answer to CYP questions

For question No 1- Refer section 7.2
For question No 2 –Refer section 7.3
For Question No -3 Refer section 7.4
For Question No -3 Refer section 7.5
For Question No -3 Refer section 7.7
For Question No -3 Refer section 7.9

7.17. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Measure to improve police image
2. Functional Excellence.
3. Sum dwellers.

(B) Breif Answer Question

4. Explain about the negative and positive factors of the police.
5. Explain about CPM.
6. Explain in detail about crime prevention residences.

VARIOUS TARGET GROUPS

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INTRODUCTION

A slum is a district of a city or town which is usually inhabited by the very poor of socially disadvantaged. Slums can be found in most large cities around the world. Though the terms are often now used interchangeably, slums and ghettos differ in that ghetto refers to a neighborhood based on shared ethnicity

OBJECTIVES

- To know the different types of target Groups.
- To understand the prevention of Juvenile delinquency.
- To know about juvenile justice administration.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 8.1. Slums for Crime Control
- 8.2. Characteristics
- 8.3. Growth and counter-measures
- 8.4. Income Disparity
- 8.5. Slums Versus Ghettos
- 8.6. The Family and Juvenile Delinquency
- 8.7. Factors in family influence
- 8.8. The Juvenile Court as an Institution
- 8.9. Social Disorganization and Crime in Rural communities
- 8.10. Conclusion
- 8.11. Key words
- 8.12. Answer to CYP questions
- 8.13. Model Questions

8.1 Slums for Crime control

Slums are also different from favelas or shanty towns, in that they consist of permanent (if low-quality) housing rather than less-durable shacks of cardboard or corrugated iron or newspaper.

8.2 Characteristics

Slums are usually characterize by urban blight and by high rates of poverty and unemployment. They tend to be breeding centres for many social problems such as crime, drug addiction, alcoholism, high rates of mental illness, suicide, and despair. In many poor countries they exhibit high rates of disease due to unsanitary conditions, malnutrition, and lack of basic health care.

In many slums, especially in poor countries, many live in very narrow alleys that do not allow vehicles (like ambulances and fire trucks) to pass. The lack of services such as routine garbage collection allows rubbish to accumulate in huge quantities. The lack of infrastructure is caused by the informal nature of settlement and no planning for the poor by government officials. Additionally, informal settlements often face the brunt of natural and man-made disasters, such as landslides, as well as earthquakes and tropical storms. Many slum dwellers employ themselves in the informal economy. This can include street vending, drug dealing, domestic work, and prostitution. In some slums people even recycle trash of different kinds, (from household garbage to electronics) for a living – selling either the odd usable goods or stripping broken goods for parts or raw materials

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8.3 Growth and counter-measures

Recent years have seen a dramatic growth in the number of slums as urban populations have increased in the Third World. According to recent UN-Habitat report, 327 million people live in slums in commonwealth countries (11 African, 2 Asian and 1 Pacific), more than two out of three urban dwellers live in slums and many of these countries are urbanizing rapidly.

Many governments around the world have attempted to solve the problems of slums by clearing away old decrepit housing and replacing it with modern housing with much better sanitation. The displacement of slums is aided by the fact that many are squatter settlements whose property rights are not recognized by the state. This process is especially common in the Third world. Slum clearance often takes the form of eminent domain and urban renewal projects, and often the former residents are not welcome in the renewed housing. Moreover new projects are often on the semi-rural peripheries of cities far from opportunities for generating livelihoods as well as schools, clinics etc. At times this has resulted in large movements of inner city slum dwellers militantly opposing relocation to formal housing on the outskirts of cities. See, for example, Abahtai base Mjondolo in Durban, South Africa.

In some countries, leaders have addressed this situation by rescuing rural property rights to support traditional sustainable agriculture, however this solution has met with open hostility from capitalists and corporations. It also tends to be relatively unpopular with the slum communities themselves, as it involves moving out of the city back into the countryside a reverse of the rural-urban migration that originally brought many of them into the city.

Critics argue that slum clearances tend to ignore the social problems that cause slums and simply redistribute poverty to less valuable real estate, where communities have been moved out of slum areas to newer housing, social cohesion may be lost. If the original community is moved back into newer housing after it has been built in the same location, residents of the new housing face the same problems of poverty and powerlessness.

8.4 Income Disparity

According to the UNDP 1997 Human Development Report, and the 2004 United Nations Human Development (UNHDP) report, Malaysia has the highest income disparity between the rich and poor in southeast Asia, greater than that of Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, Vietnam and Indonesia. The UNHDP Report shows that the richest 10% in Malaysia control 388.4% of the economic income as compared to the poorest 10% who control only 1.7%. Kuala Lumpur as the capital of Malaysia has an increasing number of squatters, shanty-towns and slums, and is also seeing an increase in criminal acts such as snatch, theft, robberies, and rape.

8.5 Slums Versus ghettos

Many times people use the term ghetto when they are actually referring to a slum.

Definition of a Ghetto

To qualify as a ghetto, an area must contain certain aspects:

- There must be a majority of one group of people over the rest of a population in area;
- This majority group must be racial, ethnic or religious group that is a minority compared to the major population
- This group must have been discriminated against, when it comes to housing, in the past and possibly currently.

A ghetto is not based on the population's social-economic level, amount of crime or amount of unemployment. A person who lives in a ghetto choose not to leave the ghetto because of past discrimination and /or is unable to leave because of current discrimination. The first ghetto was a Jewish ghetto located in Venice, Italy, in the United States, census tracks are used to determine if an area is a ghetto.

Definition of a Slum

A slum is only based on the social-economic level of the population that live in an area. The characteristics of a slum include: crime, unemployment, suicide rate, low level education, low level income and low quality housing. A slum is not based on the race, ethnicity or religion of the people in the area. A person who lives in a slum is unable to move away from the slum because of their economic status.

School drop outs (A Study)

The twin cities (Hyderabad and Secunderabad) are on the threshold of wiping out its school dropout list.

The district is set to achieve the rare distinction of wooing back all the 11,919 children who are out of school. Authorities have drawn up an ambitious plan to readmit the dropouts in the age group of 6to14 years during the "Badibata" programme scheduled to begin on June 12.

However, migrant labour poses a problem in total elimination of the dropouts as they keep swelling the ranks of dropouts throughout the year.

Problem area

Migrant labour never stays in one place for a full academic year with the result the children withdraw from schools as and when their families move out. To facilitate their readmission to their new place of shifting, authorities plan to issue certificates of study.

House-Door campaign

To ensure fresh enrolment and readmission of dropouts the School Education Department is enlisting the support of all headmasters, District Education Officers and project coordinators of Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA).

This time round the responsibility of motivating parents and readmitting the dropouts is fixed on the school headmasters. The Authorities are toying with the idea of even withholding increments of headmasters who fail to achieve the target, it is said.

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A team comprising headmasters, local leaders, area NGO, Anganwadi workers, preraks of Adult Education Department will go round the houses in each Mandal and motivate parents to send their children to school.

Survey findings

A survey carried out by the Education Department puts the number of out of school children in Hyderabad district at 11,919. Of this 6,436 are girls. The Bahadurpura zone has the largest number of 1,269 school dropouts followed Asifnagar (1,172), Musheerbad(1009) and Bandlaguda (965). Ameerpet Zone has the least number of dropouts-just 361.

During the last three years the number of dropouts have come down from 70,000 to 11,919, said SSA additional project coordinator.

Action Plan

The Sarva Siksha Abhiyan has drawn up an action plan to admit 6,481 children studying in various Residential Bridge Course and Non Residential Bridge course camps to mainstream schools. Both fresh enrolment and readmission of dropouts will be carried out within a month of the reopening of schools on June 12.

8.6 The family and Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile delinquency is more than a formal breach of the conventions; it is indicative of an acute breakdown in the normal functions of family life. The loss of parental control represented in the formal breach of the law is usually the culmination of a period of heightened tensions arising from severe conflict over patterns of rearing-disagreement over duties, restrictions and limitations, standards of education and training, selection of associations and places of association, and so forth-culminating in a breakdown of emotional attachment between parent and delinquent child, and leading often to a break in essential communication of attitudes between the generations.

8.7 Factors in family influence

• Physical Factors

In the early history of juvenile delinquency research there was preoccupation with the physical and economic concomitants of delinquency. Merill in a very recent matched control study, verified this point of her sampling.

This is indicative of the greater occupational precariousness, the less secure income, and the lower social status of many of the parents of delinquents.

• Broken Homes of delinquents

Among children committed to institutions there has been an even higher proportion from broken homes. In 1923 the United states Bureau of the Census reported that 56 percent were from broken homes.

Significant as the hypothesis or the broken home may be for the objectives of a broad social welfare programme of delinquency prevention, its frame work is too broadly

1. Which problems of poverty and powerlessness?
2. Definition of a Ghetto Explain.
3. Define the Juvenile court as an Institution.
4. Explain family disruption.
5. Proximity to urban areas. Explain.

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conceived to be useful as a guide in the study of the dynamics of individual delinquency in family setting.

- **Delinquency and family discord**

Numerous studies have shown that uncongenialities, tensions, marital triangles and sexual breaches, frictions over income and expenditure, projections of frustrated ambitions, losses of authority and standing, and many other broken threads in the tangled skein of family relationships are important as, if not more important than, physical breaks in family structure, are usually antecedent to physical breaks, and contribute largely to delinquency.

- **Social difference**

Findings which place emotional frustration at the root of juvenile delinquency have for the most part been based on studies of clinic and court samples drawn from lower socio-economic levels.

If frustration is closely allied to delinquent behaviour, and if middle class rearing involves sustaining of many tensions, why do these tensions not result in frustrations leading to officially recorded delinquency? The answers may lie along at least three lines of reasoning :

- The frustrations of the lower –class child are not in relation to severe checks upon his freedom.

To the middle –class child, frustration involves obedience which gives him a status, as inheritor of the parental status, to which he aspires.

- The delinquencies of the lower-class child arise from the conditions of his rearing—greater deprivation of the parental status, to which he aspires.
- The middle-class child who in later life resorts to crime does so in the light of earlier experience which has taught him that the social order has few loopholes and many restrictions; whereas the poor child resorts to types of crimes which suggest that earlier experience has taught him that the social order has many loopholes and few restrictions.

8.8 The Juvenile court as an Institution

The juvenile court was established only a little more than a half century ago, in response to a more enlightened view of the nature of the child. During this relatively short period it not only has been instrumental in bringing about a more human treatment of the child gone wrong but has served to call to the attention of the adult world the special needs of the child and the responsibilities of parents and of the community toward him.

8.9 Social Disorganization and Crime in Rural Communities

Social disorganization is an inability of community members to achieve shared values or to solve jointly experienced problems. In recent decades, the themes of social disorganization theory have been more clearly articulated and extended by Kornhuser, Bursik and Grasmick, and Sampson and Groves. Shaw and McKay traced social disorganization to conditions endemic to the urban areas that were the only places the newly arriving poor could afford to live, in particular, a high rate of turnover in the population (residential instability)

and mixes of people from different cultural backgrounds (ethnic diversity). Shaw and McKay's analyses relating delinquency rates to these structural characteristics established key facts about the community correlates of crime and delinquency, and their work remains useful today as a guide for efforts to address crime and delinquency at the community level.

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Current versions of social disorganization theory assume that strong networks of social relationship prevent crime and delinquency. When most community or neighborhood members are acquainted and on good terms with one another, a substantial portion of the adult population has the potential to influence each child. The larger the network of acquaintances, the greater the community's capacity for informal surveillance (because residents are easily distinguished from outsiders), for supervision (because acquaintances are willing to intervene when children and juveniles behave unacceptably), and for shaping children's values and interests. According to the current theory, community characteristics such as poverty and ethnic diversity lead to higher delinquency rates because they interfere with community member's abilities to work together.

Just as in urban area, systems of relationships are relevant to crime and delinquency in small towns and rural communities. The only aspect of the theory specific to urban areas is the explanation of why social disorganization arises in some geographic locations and not in others.

Rural sociologists concerned with the disruptive effects of rapid population growth provide some evidence that the processes of social disorganization apply in rural settings. Freedenberg, for example, argued that the "boomtown" phenomenon brings high rates of crime and other unacceptable behaviours but does not produce alienation or mental health difficulties. Furthermore, he explained these negative effects by the same logic as social disorganization theory: rapid growth greatly diminishes the proportion of people who know one another, which in turn interferes with surveillance and socialization of the young.

Social disorganization theory specifies that several variables-residential instability, ethnic diversity, family disruption, economic status, population size or density, and proximity to urban areas-influence a community's capacity to develop and maintain strong systems of social relationships. This section discusses the relevance of each factor to delinquency rates in the social disorganization framework.

Residential instability. Based on research in urban settings, the authors expected that rates of juvenile violence in rural communities would increase as rates of residential instability increased. When the population of an area is constantly changing, the residents have fewer opportunities to develop strong personal ties to one another and to participate in community organizations. This assumption has been central to research on social disorganization since its inception. Massive population change is also the essential independent variable underlying the boomtown research on rural settings.

Ethnic diversity. According to social disorganization theory, it could be expected that, as in urban areas, rates of juvenile violence would be higher in rural communities with greater ethnic diversity. According to Shaw and McKay, ethnic diversity interferes with communication among adults. Effective communication is less likely in the face of ethnic diversity because differences in customs and a lack of shared experiences may breed fear and mistrust. It is important to distinguish this theoretically driven hypothesis about heterogeneity from simple ethnic differences in offense rates. In other words, this hypothesis sees crime as arising from relations between ethnic groups, not from some groups being more crime-prone than others.

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Family disruption. Research in urban areas has found that delinquency rates are higher in communities with greater levels of family disruption, and the authors expected that this also would be true in rural areas. Sampson argued that unshared parenting strains parent's resources of time, money, and energy, which interferes with their ability to supervise their children and communicate with other adults in the neighbourhood. Furthermore, the smaller number of parents in a community relative to the number of children, the more limited the networks of adult supervision will be or all the children.

Economic status. Although rates of juvenile violence are higher in urban areas with lower economic status, it was not clear that this relationship should apply in rural settings. The role of economic status in social disorganization theory is based on patterns of growth in urban areas. In many major urban areas, growth leads to the physical, economic, and social decline of the residential areas closest to the central business district. These areas then become most readily available to the poor and to groups who migrate to the area. As a result, areas with the lowest average socio-economic status will also have the greatest residential instability and ethnic diversity, which in turn will create social disorganization. Accordingly, many studies have found that urban neighbourhoods with high rates of poverty also have greater rates of delinquency.

The processes that link poverty with population turnover are specific to urban settings. In nonmetropolitan settings, poor populations may be stable and ethnically homogeneous.

Population density. Population density is rather different from the other community factors for two reasons. First, evidence of a relationship between population density and urban crime and delinquency is inconsistent. Second, the meaning of density becomes quite different for nonurban communities, where, in the least dense areas, one must travel several miles to have significant contact with people outside of one's immediate family. The original reasoning for the urban context was that high population density creates problems by producing anonymity that interferes with accountability to neighbours.

In the least dense rural areas, it may be social isolation, that limits social support to monitor children and respond to problem behaviour. On the other hand, Sampson suggested that density might be more important in terms of opportunities for offending than in terms of social disorganization. The relative isolation of living in a sparsely populated area may reduce opportunities for offending because of greater distance from targets and from potential companions in crime. This possibility is supported by Laub's finding that victimization rates are lowest in communities with the smallest populations, but only for populations of 25,000 or less. In larger communities, the rates were essentially unrelated to population size.

Proximity to urban areas. This final community variable, which departs from the themes of current social disorganization theory, considers an issue specific to rural settings and to the linkages among communities. As Heitgerd and Bursik have argued, it is important to look beyond the internal dynamics of communities and consider ways in which rates of delinquency might be influenced by relationships between neighbouring communities. Various rural and suburban communities have very different relationships with urban communities, and this is an important theme of research on rural settings. Heitgerd and Bursik suggested that "less delinquent groups of youths are being socialized into more sophisticated types of criminal behaviour by youths in adjoining areas". Because average crime rates are higher in communities with large populations, this phenomenon would produce higher rates of delinquency in rural communities that are adjacent to metropolitan areas.

8.10 Conclusion

The youth should from the very beginning be taught to live in fellowship and co-operation with the human beings who come in contact with it. One should always from the beginning be taught to speak and wish well of others- looking to the good side of others actions and nature- forgiving others their trespasses as he himself would have other do unto him, and exercising a high degree of self- control and selflessness. The strength of the spirit should dominate the mind, and the inner light within man giving him the guidance and the capacity to do good should so guide his action that he lives harmlessly, respectful of the rights of others and in the service of humanity. Destroy not the humanity of the offender, but uproot what is responsible for the wrongdoing. Have hope for improvement of even the hardened criminal; with patience, love, persuasion, by suggestion, treatment and re-education, the criminal may be restored to society as its harmless and useful member. It should be remembered that by adjustment to society, by training in fellowship, crime can be considerably minimized. The propriety of the relation between society and man is therefore of the highest and fundamental importance.

United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency

(The Riyadh Guidelines)

Adopted and proclaimed by General Assembly resolution 45/112 of 14

December 1990

• FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES

- The prevention of juvenile delinquency is an essential part of crime prevention in society. By engaging in lawful, socially useful activities and adopting a humanistic orientation towards society and outlook on life, young person's can develop non-criminogenic attitudes.
- The Successful prevention of Juvenile delinquency requires efforts on the part of the entire society to ensure the harmonious development of adolescents, with respect for and promotion of their personality from early childhood.
- For the purposes of the interpretation of the present Guidelines, a child-centered orientation should be pursued. Young person's should have an active role and partnership within society and should not be considered as mere objects of socialization or control
- In the implementation of the present Guidelines, in accordance with national legal systems, the well-being of young persons from their early childhood should be the focus of any preventive programme.
- The need for and importance of progressive delinquency prevention policies and the systematic study and the elaboration of measures should be recognized these should avoid criminalizing and penalizing a child for behaviour that does not cause serious damage to the development of the child or harm to others such polices and measures should involve:
- The provision of opportunities, in particular educational opportunities, meet the varying needs of young persons and to serve as a supportive framework for safeguarding the personal development of all young persons. Particularly those who are demonstrably endangered or at social risk and are in need of special care and protection:

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- Specialized philosophies and approaches for delinquency prevention, on the basis of laws, processes, initiations, facilities and a service delivery network aimed at reducing the motivation need and opportunity for, or conditions giving rise to, the commission of infractions;
- Official intervention to be pursued primarily in the overall interest of the young person and guided by fairness and equity;
- Safeguarding the well-being, development, rights and interests of all young persons;
- Consideration that youthful behavior or conduct that does not conform to overall social norms and values is often part of the maturation growth process and tends to disappear so spontaneously in most individuals with the transition to adulthood;
- Awareness that, in the predominating opinion of experts, labeling a young person as “deviant”, “delinquent” or “pre- delinquent” often contributes to the development of a consistent pattern of undesirable behaviour by young persons.
- Community-based services and programmes should be developed for the prevention of juvenile delinquency, particularly where no agencies have yet been established. Formal agencies of social control should only be utilized as a means of last resort

II. SCOPE OF THE GUIDELINES

- The present Guidelines should be interpreted and implemented within the broad framework of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the International covenant on civil and political Rights, the Declaration of the Rights of the child and the convention on the Rights of the child, and in the context of the United Nations standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules), as other instruments and norms relating to the rights, interests and well-being of all children and young persons.
- The The present guideline should also be implemented in the context of the economic, social and cultural conditions prevailing in each Member State.

III. GENERAL PREVENTION

- Comprehensive prevention plans should be instituted at every level of Government and include the following:
- In -depth analyses of the problem and inventories of programmes, sevices, facilities and resources available;
- Well-defined responsibilities for the qualified agencies, institutions and personnel involved in preventive efforts;
- Mechanisms for the appropriate co-ordination of prevention efforts between governmental and non-governmental agencies.
- Policies, programmes and strategies based on prognostic studies tobe continuously monitored and carefully evaluated in the course of implementation;
- Methods for effectively reducing the opportunity to commit delinquent acts;
- community involvement through a wide range of services and prgrames;

- Close interdisciplinary co-operation between national, State, provincial and local governments, with the involvement of the private sector representative citizens of the community to be served, and labour, child-care, health education, social, law enforcement and judicial agencies in taking concerted action to prevent juvenile delinquency and youth crime;
- Youth participation in delinquency prevention policies and processes, including recourse to community resources, youth self-help, and victim compensation and assistance programmes;
- Specialized personnel at all levels.

IV. SOCIALIZATION PROCESSES

- Emphasis should be placed on preventive policies facilitating the successful socialization and integration of all children and young persons, in particular through the family, the community, peer groups, schools, vocational training and the world of work, as well as through voluntary organizations. Due respect should be given to the proper personal development of children and young persons, and they should be accepted as full and equal partners in socialization and integration processes.
- **Family**
- Every society should place a high priority on the needs and well-being of the family and of all its members.
- Since the family is the central unit responsible for the primary socialization of children, governmental and social efforts to preserve the integrity of the family, including the extended family, should be pursued. The society has a responsibility to assist the family in providing care and protection and in ensuring the physical and mental well-being of children. Adequate arrangements including day-care should be provided.
- Governments should establish policies that are conducive to the bringing up of children in stable and settled family environments, families in need of assistance in the resolution of conditions of instability or conflict should be provided with requisite services.
- Where a stable and settled family environment is lacking and when community efforts to assist parents in this regard have failed and the extended family cannot fulfil this role, alternative placements, including foster care and adoption, should be considered. Such placements should replicate, to the extent possible, a stable and settled family environment, while, at the same time, establishing a sense of permanency for children, thus avoiding problems associated with "foster drift".
- Special attention should be given to children of families affected by problems brought about by rapid and uneven economic, social and cultural change, in particular the children of indigenous, migrant and refugee families. As such changes may disrupt the social capacity of the family to secure the traditional rearing and nurturing of children, often as a result of role and culture conflict innovative and socially constructive modalities for the socialization of children have to be designed.
- Measures should be taken and programmes developed to provide families with the opportunity to learn about parental roles and obligations as regards child development and child care, promoting positive parent-child relationships, sensitizing parents to the

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problems of children and young persons and encouraging their involvement in family and community-based activities.

- Governments should take measures to promote family cohesion and harmony and to discourage the separation of children from their parent, unless circumstances affecting the welfare and future of the child leave no viable alternative.
- It is important to emphasize the socialization function of the family and extended family; it is also equally important to recognize the future role, responsibilities, participation and partnership of young persons in society.
- in ensuring the right of the child to proper socialization. Governments and other agencies should rely on existing social and legal agencies, but whenever traditional institutions and customs are no longer effective, they should also provide and allow for innovative measures.
- **Education**
- Governments are under an obligation to make public education accessible to all young persons.
- Education systems should, in addition to their academic and vocational training activities, devote particular attention to the following;
- Teaching of basic values and developing respect for the child's own cultural identity and patterns, for the social values of the country in which the child is living, for civilizations different from the child's own and for human rights and fundamental freedoms;
- Promotion and development of the personality, talents and mental and physical abilities of young people to their fullest potential;
- Involvement of young persons as active and effective participants in, rather than mere objects of, the educational process;
- Undertaking activities that foster a sense of identity with and of belonging to the school and the community;
- Encouragement of young persons to understand and respect others' views and opinions, as well as cultural and other differences;
- Provision of information and guidance regarding vocational training employment opportunities and career development;
- Provision of positive emotional support to young persons and the avoidance of psychosocial maltreatment;
- Avoidance of harsh disciplinary measures, particularly corporal punishment.
- Educational systems should seek to work together with parents, community organizations and agencies concerned with the activities of young persons.
- Young persons and their families should be informed about the law and their rights and responsibilities under the law, as well as the universal value system, including United Nations instruments.

- Educational systems should extend particular care and attention to young persons who are at social risk. Specialized prevention programmes and educational materials, curricula, approaches and tools should be developed and fully utilized.
- Special attention should be given to comprehensive policies and strategies for the prevention of alcohol, drug and other substance abuse by young persons. Teachers and other professionals should be equipped and trained to prevent and deal with these problems. Information on the use and abuse of drugs, including alcohol, should be made available to the student body.
- Schools should serve as resource and referral centres for the provision of medical, counseling and other services to young persons, particularly those with special needs and suffering from abuse, neglect, victimization and exploitation.
- Through a variety of educational programmes, teachers and other adults and the student body should be sensitized to the problems, needs and perceptions of young persons, particularly those belonging to underprivileged, disadvantaged, ethnic or other minority and low-income groups.
- School systems should attempt to meet and promote the highest professional and educational standards with respect to curricula, teaching and learning methods and approaches, and the recruitment and training of qualified teachers. Regular monitoring and assessment of performance by the appropriate professional organizations and authorities should be ensured.
- School systems should plan, develop and implement extracurricular activities of interest to young persons, in co-operation with community groups.
- Special assistance should be given to children and young persons who find it difficult to comply with attendance codes, and to “drop-outs”.
- Schools should promote policies and rules that are fair and just; students should be represented in bodies formulating school policy, including policy on discipline, and decision-making.
- **Community**
- Community-based services and programmes which respond to the special needs, problems, interests and concerns of young persons and which offer appropriate counseling and guidance to young persons and their families should be developed, or strengthened where they exist.
- Communities should provide, or strengthen where they exist, a wide range of community-based support measures for young persons, including community development centers, recreational facilities and services to respond to the special problems of children who are at social risk. In providing these helping measures, respect for individual rights should be ensured.
- Special facilities should be set up to provide adequate shelter for young persons who are no longer able to live at home or who do not have homes to live in.
- A range of services and helping measures should be provided to deal with the difficulties experienced by young persons in the transition to adulthood. Such services should include special programmes for young drug abusers which emphasize care, counseling, assistance and therapy-oriented interventions.

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- Voluntary organizations providing services for young persons should be given financial and other support by Governments and other institutions.
- Youth organizations should be created or strengthened at the local level and given full participatory status in the management of community affairs. These organizations should encourage youth to organize collective and voluntary projects, particularly projects aimed at helping young persons in need of assistance.
- Government agencies should take special responsibility and provide necessary services for homeless or street children; information about local facilities, accommodation, employment and other forms and sources of help should be made readily available to young persons.
- A wide range of recreational facilities and services of particular interest to young persons should be established and made easily accessible to them
- **Mass media**
- The mass media should be encouraged to ensure that young persons have access to information and material from a diversity of national and international sources.
- The mass media should be encouraged to portray the positive contribution of young person's to society.
- The mass media should be encouraged to disseminate information on the existence of services, facilities and opportunities for young persons in society.
- The mass media generally, and the television and film media in particular, should be encouraged to minimize the level of pornography, drugs and violence portrayed and to display violence and exploitation disfavouredly, as well as to avoid demeaning and degrading presentations, especially of children, women and interpersonal relations, and to promote egalitarian principles and roles.
- The mass media should be aware of its extensive social role and responsibility, as well as its influence, in communications relations relating to youthful drug and alcohol abuse. It should use its power for drug abuse prevention by relaying consistent messages through a balanced approach. Effective drug awareness campaigns at all levels should be promoted.

V. SOCIAL POLICY

45. Government agencies should give high priority to plans and programmes for young persons and should provide sufficient funds and other resources for the effective delivery of services, facilities and staff or adequate medical and mental health care, nutrition, housing and other relevant services, including drug and alcohol abuse prevention and treatment, ensuring that such resources reach and actually benefit young persons.
46. the institutionalization of young persons should be a measure of last resort and for the minimum necessary period, and the best interests of the young person should be of paramount importance. Criteria authorizing formal intervention of this type should be strictly defined and limited to the following situations: (a) where the child of young person has suffered harm that has been inflicted by the parents or guardians; (b) where the child of young person has been sexually, physically or emotionally abused by the parents or guardians; (c) where the child of young person has been neglected, abandoned or exploited by the parents or guardians; (d) where the child of young person is threatened by physical or moral danger due to the behavior of guardians; and (e) where a serious

physical or psychological danger to the child or young person has manifested, the juvenile himself or her own behavior and neither the parents, the guardians, the juvenile himself or herself nor non-residential community services can meet the danger by means other than institutionalization.

47. Government agencies should provide young persons with the opportunity of continuing in full-time education, funded by the State where parents or guardians are unable to support the young persons, and of receiving work experience.
48. Programmes to prevent delinquency should be planned and developed on the basis of reliable, scientific research findings, and periodically monitored, evaluated and adjusted accordingly.
49. Scientific information should be disseminated to the professional community and to the public at large about the sort of behavior or situation which indicates or may result in physical and psychological victimization, harm and abuse, as well as exploitation, of young persons.
50. Generally, participation in plans and programmes should be voluntary. Young persons themselves should be involved in their formulation, development and implementation.
51. Government should begin or continue to explore, develop and implement policies, measures and strategies within and outside the criminal justice system to prevent domestic violence against and affecting young persons and to ensure fair treatment to these victims of domestic violence.

VI. LEGISLATION AND JUVENILE JUSTICE ADMINISTRATION

52. Governments should enact and enforce specific laws and procedures to promote and protect the rights and well-being of all young persons.
53. Legislation preventing the victimization, abuse, exploitation and the use for criminal activities of children and young persons should be enacted and enforced.
54. No child or young person should be subjected to harsh or degrading correction or punishment measures at home, in schools or in any other institutions.
55. Legislation and enforcement aimed at restriction and controlling accessibility of weapons of any sort to children and young persons should be pursued.
56. In order to prevent further stigmatization, victimization and criminalization of young persons, legislation should be enacted to ensure that any conduct not considered an offence or not penalized if committed by an adult is not considered an offence and not penalized if committed by a young person.
57. Consideration should be given to the establishment of an office of ombudsman or similar independent organ, which would ensure that the status, rights and interests of young persons are upheld and that proper referral to available service is made. The ombudsman or organ designated would also supervise the implementation of the Riyadh Guidelines, the Beijing Rules and the Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty. The ombudsman or other would, at regular intervals, publish a report on progress made and on the difficulties encountered in the implementation of the instrument. Child advocacy service should also be established.

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58. Law enforcement and other relevant personnel, of both sexes, should be trained to respond to the special needs of young persons and should be familiar with and use, to the maximum extent possible, programmes and referral possibilities for the diversion of young persons from the justice system.

59. Legislation should be enacted and strictly enforced to protect children and young persons from drug traffickers.

VII. RESEARCH, POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND CO-ORDINATION

60. Efforts should be made and appropriate mechanisms established to promote, on both a multidisciplinary and an interdisciplinary basis, interaction and coordination between economic, social, education and health agencies and services, the justice system, young people, community and development agencies and other relevant institutions.

61. The exchange of information, experience and expertise gained through projects, programmes, practices and initiatives relation to young crime, delinquency prevention and juvenile justice should be intensified at the national, regional and international levels.

62. Regional and international co-operation on matters of young crime, delinquency prevention and juvenile justice involving practitioners, experts and decision makers should be further developed and strengthened.

63. Technical and scientific co-operation on practical and policy-related matters, particularly in training, pilot and demonstration projects, and on specific issues concerning the prevention of youth crime and juvenile delinquency should be strongly supported by all Governments, the United Nations system and other concerned organizations.

64. Collaboration should be encouraged in undertaking scientific research with respect to effective modalities for youth crime and juvenile delinquency prevention and the findings of such research should be widely disseminated and evaluated.

65. Appropriate United Nations bodies, institutes, agencies and offices should pursue close collaboration and co-ordination on various questions related to children juvenile justice and youth crime and juvenile delinquency prevention.

66. On the basis of the present guidelines, the United Nations Secretariat, in cooperation with interested institutions, should play an active role in the conduct of research, scientific collaboration, the formulation of policy options and the review and monitoring of their implementation, and should serve as a source of reliable information on effective modalities for delinquency prevention.

8.11. Key words –

Mode – Method

Exchange – Transfer

Voluntarily – Interestingly

8.12. Answer to CYP questions

For question No 1- Refer section 8.2

For question No 2 –Refer section 8.4

For Question No -3 Refer section 8.5

For Question No -3 Refer section 8.6

For Question No -3 Refer section 8.7

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8.13. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Income disparity.
2. Survey finding.
3. Action plan.

(B) Breif Answer Questions

1. What are all the factors in family influence?
2. Explain about social disorganization and crime in rural communities.

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LESSON 9

NGO's AND CRIME PREVENTION

INTRODUCTION

There are about 31 Police Boys Club in the State of Chennai. Besides providing facilities for reading and indoor and outdoor games, hobbies like gardening, tailoring, carpentry, music, dramatics etc. are also encouraged in these clubs

OBJECTIVES

- To know about the Boy's club.
- To understand the various role of FOP
- To learn about the community watch.
- To know about Beat Boyes

UNIT STRUCTURE :

- 9.1. Boys Club
- 9.2. Surveillance and Shadowing
- 9.3. Community Policing
- 9.4. Village Vigilance committee
- 9.5. Friends of Police
- 9.6. Role of FOP
- 9.7. Crime Prevention Methods
- 9.8. Beat Boxes
- 9.9. International Foundation For Crime Prevention and Victim Care (PCVC)
- 9.10. Prevention of Juvenile Crimes
- 9.11. Community-Based Mentoring Programmes
- 9.12. Theoretical Rationale for Mentoring
- 9.13. Results of Community Mentoring Evaluations
- 9.14. The Future of Community-Based Mentoring
- 9.15. Community-Based Recreation Programmes
- 9.16. Results of Recreation Evaluations
- 9.17. The Past and Future of Recreation programmes
- 9.18. Removing Criminogenic Commodities
- 9.19. Key words –
- 9.20. Answer to CYP questions
- 9.21. Model Questions

9.1 Boys Club

The boys are also taught to be good citizens to look upon every policeman a friend and to be loyal to the country and respectful to their parents.

9.2 Surveillance and Shadowing

Surveillance refers to following up of known depreddators and recidivists either with their knowledge of the individuals or secretly. Surveillance is a measure to keep a check on the activities of those who have already indulged in criminal careers. Shadowing refers to following a suspect who does not have a criminal record. Both are crime prevention measures performed by police compulsorily.

9.3 Community Policing

The term 'Community Policing' has been used rather loosely by extending the label to almost any programmes which seeks to strengthen police ties with the community. As a result it has unfortunately become almost synonymous with police community relations. The truth is that the community policing strategy has a few distinctive characteristics not found in many existing 'police community relations' (PCR) programmes. These are:

- Decentralized operations and decision making
- A greater priority to the ends rather than the means of policing.

The message of community policing concerns are not merely those of the public and that 'constructive action of police and the community is always better than action by the police alone'. Individually and collectively the community has also every stake in police activities acquiring a focus on substance than mere form. Accordingly to Green the effect is one of linking 'the consumers of service, the producers of service and the managers of the service in unitary public safety service delivery system. This implies that the community has not only a role in crime prevention and fear reduction projects, but that it should be enable to seize that role. In sum, it is 'proactive servicing', as opposed to emergency response. Also the exercise in community policing has been one of converting into a "co producer of Police Service".

9.4 Village Vigilance Committee

In Tamilnadu a forum in the form of village vigilance committee (VCC) at the police station level is available for promoting community policing. Viewed mainly as crime prevention VVC's effectiveness depended wholly on the enthusiasm displayed by the individual station house officer. Over course of time VVC meetings has become a mere ritual intended for consumption of Supervisory Officers during their inspection of police stations.

9.5 Friends of Police

Following it, the birth of "Friends of Police" (FOP) movement in different parts of Tamilnadu that owes itself largely to the dynamism of the District Superintendent of Police Prateep V. Philip is an encouraging development. Established as a purely voluntary agency to promote crime awareness and civic responsibilities. The FOP made its first appearance in Ramanathapuram and now adopted in Chennai and Madurai and is open to any person, male, female above the age of 18 who has no police record or involvement in a civil dispute. FOPs carry identity cards and are used in neighbourhood watch schemes. The concept has received

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1. FOP is effectively functioning of Tamil Nadu since last five years.
2. Why start a community watch?
3. How often one can do patrol?
4. Explain the Block caption Training.
5. Why buyback programmes may fail to reduce gun violence?

recognition from the government and is likely to gain momentum in future in the role of Crime Prevention.

Recognizing the need for an interaction between Police and Public for effective prevention and detection of crimes. "Friends of Police" (FOP) were formed. FOP provides opportunities for the ordinary citizen to contribute to crime prevention. Any member of the public, male or female, who is not involved in a civil or criminal case can become a member of FOP.

The members of FOP can provide useful information leading to solving of crimes. FOP member can also act as a check on any abuse of Police power because of easy accessibility to a Senior Police Officer.

9.6 Role of FOP

- Beats and night Patrols
- Assistance in Traffic
- Crime Prevention
- Intelligence work
- Bandobust work
- Assistance in Law and Order Maintenance
- Involvement in Prohibition work.

Friends of Police movement have been found helpful in creating channels for receiving the right information at the right time. It can also help police in correcting its negative image in the minds of the public. It can impart fairness, transparency and impartiality in the working of police. FOP is effectively functioning in all the districts of Tamil Nadu since last five years.

9.7 Crime Prevention Methods

Apart from the usual crime prevention methods adopted by the Tamil Nadu Police such as Vigilance welfare cell, Village Vigilance Committees and self-help groups, several non-conventional methods of crime prevention have been experimented with great success. Some Non-Conventional Crime Prevention measures are:

9.8 Beat Boxes

The Beat officers system was introduced in Trichy City in 1999 with the objective of friendly policing through personalized attention. 57 Beat Boxes are functioning within 60 wards in Trichy Corporation. Beats' Jurisdiction has been defined considering Crime Sensitivity and public needs. Each Police Station has 4 to 5 Beats. Every Beat box is manned by four Police Personnel.

Beat officers who know their area well find it easy to identify a stranger thus preventing crimes and any other subversives' activities. The Beat officers are equipped with walkie-talkies.

During Peak hours, the Beat Officer regulates the crowd at bus stop, children near schools, women's colleges, on pay day at banks and market, on festival days at places of worship, during new releases at Cinema theatres etc.

Why Start a Community Watch?

- Because Law Enforcement officers cannot always be on every street or road, citizen involvement is very necessary in helping combat crime. On average, there is approximately one law enforcement officer for every 1,000 citizens.
- Citizens and their neighbours are the ones who know what is going on in their community(s). by cooperating with each other deputies, citizens can help fight crime in most effective way- preventing victimization of themselves, their families and friends. Get Involved.
- A SCENARIO FOR YOUR CONSIDERATION: In 1982. A series of crimes occurred in Chapel Hill, fingerprint evidence was successfully collected at the scenes. In 1985, a community watch member rode by a home in his community late one afternoon. The observant citizen noticed a car at a home that did not belong there and immediately alerted 911 of his suspicions. Deputies responded and arrested the suspect as he was attempting to flee. His fingerprints matched those that were recovered in the 1982 cases. The suspect was also arrested for the 1982 crimes. This is just one example of community involvement solving crimes, what we cannot measure though is the number of crimes that has been prevented by active community watch programmes.

Active community watch does work to solve and prevent crime.

Know your neighbours, know their vehicles and most of all, know your neighbour.

Starting A Community Watch

- Contact the Crime prevention Deputy with Orange County Sheriffs office about setting up a community watch programme. Sergeant Rod perry can assist you with information, materials and technical advice.
- Schedule a meeting with your neighbours in a church, home, community, building, volunteer fire department or other location.
- Invite the crime Prevention deputy or another law enforcement officer to meet, speak and aid you in the organization your group. We will gladly do all we can to help you to get YOUR COMMUNITY WATCH PROGRAMME started.
- Contact every residents in your community and invite them to the meeting. Do this by making door- to- door visits, phone calls, or mailing flyers.
- Hold your meeting.
- Remember this is your community watch and we are here to help you, as you will certainly be helping the police prevent crime.

How to Maintain An Active Community Watch

- Regularly neighbourhood meeting allows members to be kept up-to date on "What's happening" in their neighbourhoods.
- from time- to- time have neighbourhood/ community get- together. Have a big social at a member's house and get to know one another better. Meetings are for business and some socializing, but the cookouts, barbecue, softball games and picnics have a more personal effect and aid in building a strong scene of community.

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- Finally, have days when all members of the community come out and help “clean-up” aired. take the time to walk the streets and pick-up trash, brush and other items. Also, if a neighbour needs help with maintaining their yard, get together and help as a group.

Community Watch

Founded in 1977, Lower Merion Community Watch is recognized as one of the finest volunteer mobile crime watch organization in the nation Working in close cooperation with the Lower Merion Police Department, over 1,100 residents have been trained to serve as “extra eyes and ears” of the Department’s ongoing crime prevention efforts.

Who is eligible?

Residents of Lower Merion Township who are over 18 years of age are eligible to become members of Community Watch.

What type of training is provided?

Once your application is approved, the Lower Merion Police Department provides a one-night training class in the public Safety Building, Classes are scheduled periodically throughout the year.

Once trained, members, supplied with two way-hand help radios, patrol the Township from their vehicles, reporting suspicious or unusual activity. Before each patrol Community Watch patrollers are briefed by a police officer on recent crime activity to assist in their patrol.

How often one can do patrol?

It is completely up to each individual member. Generally, it is hoped that members will patrol at least once every quarter or four times a year. But again, it is up to each member for whatever time one can volunteer

For how long one can do patrol?

There is both a day night patrol program. One can choose the days or nights that are best for him. Each tour of duty is approximately 3 hours.

Where do one can do patrol?

Unless there is some type of emergency or special activity, one can do patrol in the section of the Township in which he lives.

The Chicago Area Project Revisited

Steven Schollossman

The Rand Corporation, Santa Monica, California

Michael Sedlak

School of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan

This article selectively examines a legendary experiment in community-based delinquency prevention during the 1930s and 1940s, the Chicago Area Project (CAP). The CAP embodied the first systematic challenge by sociologists to the dominance of psychology and psychiatry in public and private programmes for the prevention and treatment of juvenile delinquency in the early 20th century. While scholars generally recognize the CAP as a pioneer effort in delinquency prevention. We know remarkably little about its

operational scheme and day- to -day activities in individual Chicago communities. Prior studies have examined the CAP primarily as an episode in the history of changing ideas about crime causation, and as an important skirmish in ongoing ideological battles between sociologists and psychologists on the proper focus of correctional treatment. By contrast, this article provides the first systematic, empirical study of the CAP in action in its early years.

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Community, a Case Study

Neighbours helping neighbours to reduce or eliminate crime in their own neighbourhood is the basis of our crime prevention programme. The Salt Lake County Sheriff's Office offers a full complement of training programmes designed to train and assist county residents in maintaining the security of their homes and the tranquility of their community life.

Community Watch (An emulating example)

Creating Crime Free, Caring Neighbourhoods, Each day the residents of Salt Lake County confront property crimes and threats of crime. In some instances residents also confront personal crimes such as assaults, robbery or sexual assault.

Citizens generally agree the most popular and proven community crime prevention strategy is community Watch. These programmes call for citizens in designated areas to become trained to notice and report criminal or suspicious behavior near their homes. The purpose of community Watch is dual- to learn how to protect and family, and to learn how to work together to prevent crime.

The Salt Lake Country Sheriff's Office and residents of Salt Lake County from the crucial partnership in this strategy. Crime Prevention services provide training to all citizens willing to set aside an hour of their time and meet together with their neighbours to determine the concerns of area residents and determine measures we all can take to reduce crime and fear of crime in our neighbourhoods.

The most successful Community Watch groups go beyond just being the "eyes and ears" for the Sheriff's Office, although that is a valuable service we ask those citizens to perform. we encourage citizen groups to sponsor community clean- ups, collect clothing, blankets and toys for homeless people, organize after- school activities for young people help victim of crime, and form task forces that influence our lawmakers and policymakers.

Make no mistake about it. Attending a one- hour Community Watch meeting is not all that will be required to make your community safe. It involves neighbours watching out after their neighbours and reporting suspicious persons and circumstances to the Salt Lake Country Sheriff's Office. A trained crime prevention specialist will conduct the orientation meeting at your home , a school, a church, a library or any other facility of your choosing. Weather permitting some neighbourhoods choose to conduct their meeting outdoors. A community Oriented Policing deputy sheriff will join the meeting to offer his or her assistance in dealing with neighbourhood concerns such as a dreg house, gang activity, juvenile problems or vandalism.

We seek people who will be vigilant, but vigilantes, to observe and report any and all suspicious persons or vehicles in your neighbourhoods.

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Block Captain Training . After the community Watch orientation meeting in a specific neighbourhood we sometimes are asked to provide additional for individuals who volunteer to serve as Block Captains. This training was developed to explain the duties and responsibilities of a Block Captains and how they can best serve the needs and interests of their community.

Mobile Community Watch is a mobile version of our successful Community Watch Programme. Our Mobile Watch training academy is scheduled when a sufficient number of people have expressed a desire to undergo training. we will stage the training in your neighbourhood or at a central location chosen by the sheriff's Office. This four hour training course teaches persons who want to patrol their own neighbourhoods about liabilities involved, how to be observant, what to look for, how to describe a potential suspect in a crime, how to maintain their own safety while doing so.

Volunteer Crime Prevention Specialist. Working under the supervision of the salt Lake Country Sheriff's Office Crime Prevention officer, Volunteer Crime Prevention Specialists are trained and provided with resource materials to conduct crime prevention seminars on various topics to the residents of Salt Lake Country.

9.9 INTERNATIONAL FOUNDATION FOR CRIME PREVENTION AND VICTIM CARE (PCVC)

The international Foundation for Crime Prevention and Victim Care (PCVC) is a registered tax- exempt public charitable trust catering to victims of crime, especially victims of family violence. In the year 2001, responding to the urgent needs of a victim of child abuse, parental and intimate partner abuse the organization was formed. The founders of the organization are three women, from the fields of criminology, criminal justice sciences and psychology.

Over the past three years, PCVS has been dealing with many victims of severe family violence. Our experience is that many of the evictee seek our help when situation is totally out of control. Under such an emergency, the victim needs a place to stay; treatment for physical injuries, if any; counseling for emotional abuse and to maintain focus; psychiatric treatment for any mental abuse; support to regain economic stability; the education of her children; protection from the abuser; awareness on her rights; legal aid much more; Help also to be extended to the children who come from such homes experiencing family violence, and where there is possibility of neglect and abuse.

With this goal the organization has strived to heal, empower and advocate for women and their families, especially victims of family violence and those seeking economic self-sufficiency due to violence. Since most of our victims are mothers from the middle economic status, it is extremely difficult to rehabilitate them by placing them in the existing shelters for women in distress. Further, the importance of confidentiality and secrecy to safeguard such families from the batterer is a major hurdle when housing them in other existing homes.

Therefore, PVAV started its own interim Shelter (Astitva) at an undisclosed location (to protect the confidentiality of the victims), in order to assist these victims with meeting of their basic necessities such as food, clothing and housing; educational sponsorships; support groups; counseling or medical assistance; secure transportation for children to school/ college, assistance with job placements/training vocational rehabilitation, etc. The foundation of Astitva, and the relationship between the survivors and our staff will be the crucial key to the success of this programme: Once the survivors are accustomed to Astitva, our staff will guide

them through a process of empowerment to reach their self- designed goals for living healthy, productive lives- free of violence. At Astitva, survivors have their own space to heal emotionally and physically; to enhance their self- esteem; to move from insecurity to confidence; and to learn to make empowered decisions.

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“There are some people who live in a dream world, and there are some who face reality; and then there are those who turn one into the other”

At Astitva, we believe in making dreams come true. Whatever the dream of ht survivor, we support them and assist them in achieving their goals.

Our Activities

- A three- month project for the Tamilnadu Government on Analyzing crime statistics for the year 2000.
- Project on crime in Tamil Nadu- 2000 for the Tamil Nadu Police.
- Multimedia presentation on PCVC and its activities at hr Rotary club, Shakti's
- A support group meeting on aftershock of the US trauma: Helping families cope hel to help families and other sympathizers understand the trauma that such tragedy can bring about and help them cope with the situation.
- Multimedia presentation on Mental Health and Human Rights at The Banyan (an institute for mentally ill destitute women), as part of the World Mental Health day programme.
- Multimedia presentation on Ending Violence against Women at the Sixth District conference of Zonta international that focused on Eradication of Violence against Women in the regions of India, Srilanka and Bangladesh through legislation, advocacy and action.
- A 50 weeks sensitization programme (On Effective Handling of Victims) for all the women police of Tamilnadu spanning a total population of approximately 4800 women police of Tamilnadu.
- Conducted a 2-day workshop on Designing a Research project specifically for students and researchers in the women social sciences.
- Executing agency for the inspector General of Police Os (V&AC) QueenOs Award project on Web based training for woman police on Dispute Resolution (2002- 2003).
- Started AstitvaO. a shelter home for distressed women and children, where focus is on total empowerment of the individual, as the first phase of a three- phase project called New NeginingO.
- Started insights D A PCVC End Abuser Campaign as part of our crime prevention programmes. the purpose of insights is to create new perspectives on important social issue and build and engaged involved, active, and excited audience for challenging film. The issues will include but will not be limited to domestic violence, trauma, rapa, gender, rlkes gender rights, alcoholism, sexuality issues, child abuse and trafficking. Insights also organizes and facilitates post- screening discussions and/ or workshops with the directors to challenge myths and silences around these topics in our community while increasing awareness about the needs of survivors. Insights was officially launched on 7th March 2003 with the screening of 'A Women's place' in

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collaboration with the office of public Affairs, American Consulate, Chennai. We had the producer/ Director of the movie, Ms. Paromita Vohra from Mumbai as the Special Guest who also moderated the post screening discussion.

- Have been operating two crisis Lines (56105595/56105596) 24 hours a day for more than 15 months and offering assistance on an average to around 10-15 new cases of violence every month.

The PCVC received no funding from state or non- governmental sources, Instead, supported by research and other training projects undertaken by the organization and the occasional individual donations, PCVC recently created a fund called the PCVC Crime Victims Support Fund to support direct services to victims of family violence in rebuilding their lives and empowering them to achieve economic and emotional stability and independence.

9.10 Prevention of Juvenile Crimes

The constantly toll of juvenile delinquency is presenting a major threat to problem of crime prevention in recent decades.. Commenting on the problem of juvenile offenders, that F. Brown observed that the crime problem of the day is to a large extent a problem of youthful offender. In India, the legislation on juvenile justice Act, 1986 is a beneficial statute fulfilling the constitution's obligation under Article 39 (f) and seeks to provide security and protection to neglected and delinquent juveniles within the framework of law. The act for the first time recognises that the 'child' is a national asset and it is the duty of the state to look after the child with a view to ensuring development of its personality.

Despite special trial arrangements for youthful offenders in juvenile courts and institutionalizing them in a reformatory or Borstal, there seems no remarkable progress in mitigating this evil. Although prevention of crime is primarily a police function but the parents and guardians can actively help in preventing their children from lending into delinquency or anti- social behavior. The institution of "family" or "home" plays a vital role in controlling juvenile delinquency. The neglect of wards by their parents is perhaps the basic cause of juvenile misbehavior. The parents should, therefore, be made legally liable and even penalized in case of failure on their part to exercise parental control or supervision over their children.

Some criminologists have drawn attention to, the fact that juvenile delinquency is the result of the influence of mass- media, movies, television, etc. On human mind, particularly the teenagers: The television and films have the maximum impact on the viewers due to their auto- visual impact. Most of the films and T.V. serials depict scenes of sex, violence which pervert the minds of youngsters and they often tend to imitate the same in real life situations. Likewise, pornographic literature also has an unwholesome influence on the impressionable minds of the youths. What is, therefore, desired is the proper censorship and a sense of social responsibility on the part of producers and directors of such films.

Criminality and domestic violence in families also deserve some attention in context of crime prevention. The world today is witnessing a rapid change in values culminating in a breakdown of time-honored family system. Emotional pressures and frustration often end in family violence and victimization of females and children. Poverty, dependency of women and insufficient housing generally lead to violent behaviour in the family. Though family violence appears to be an age- old phenomenon, it was not questionable in the past due to patriarchal family system. It is in the wake of women's movement in early 1970's in Europe and late 1980's in India that attention of sociologists and criminologists was drawn

to this kind of violence and need for its prevention became eminent. It is generally agreed that in India and elsewhere, the victims of domestic violence are mostly adult women, married or otherwise, and unwanted children. Though husbands and old parents may also be victims, but in rare cases only.

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The acts which are included in family violence are women battering and their physical and sexual abuse causing them untold pain and suffering. Violence against children includes use of physical force causing injury and neglect.

Every kind of domestic violence is generally viewed as private affair and it becomes extremely difficult for law enforcement agencies to intervene in domestic violence incidents. Hardly 5 per cent of women dare to file complaint against their husband or in-laws and get them arrested. Most women who approach the police really do not want to initiate formal proceeding but instead only look for help. Therefore, general public disapprobation seems to be the only remedy for offences involving domestic violence.

It is being increasingly felt that marital rape is a common form of domestic violence. There is proposal before the Law Commission for inclusion of marital rape in the law but many believe that the provision may be misused and that our society is not yet prepared for such a law.

Yet another potential cause of recidivism is mushrooming of slums due to rapid industrialization. This has resulted into tremendous rise in slum-related crimes. Most of these slums are dens of illicit distillation, gambling, drug-peddling and even prostitution. Besides, there are frequent scuffles, attempted murders and illegal relations leading to heinous crimes. Thus slums are a menace as they are contributors in crime. Slum-dwellers also indulge in burglaries and chain-snatching. Some psychologists feel that it is futile to think that crimes in this section of society will ever disappear completely as it is an off-shoot for our socio-economic system. Slum related crimes have almost become a growing industry in which most of the beginners in crime turn into recidivists and pose a serious threat to the economy "and the society. It is for the police to curb this menace.

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that social conditions and penal laws have a close bearing on the problem of crime prevention. Again, crime being a relative term, the concept of "criminal" also varies from place to place depending on the relevant provisions of criminal law. Thus, conceptual differences arise from variations in legal definitions. For example, murder under the Indian Penal Code is more or less similar to that of a manslaughter under the American criminal law. Therefore, amending substantive law of crime according to need of the time would indirectly help in reducing the incidence of crime at a given place. It is for this reason that the American Law Institute prepared a Draft of Model Penal Code in 1965. The Republic of Germany also prepared its retribution oriented Draft Penal Code in 1962. The New Swedish Penal Code which came into effect from January 1, 1965 lays greater stress on rehabilitation rather than retribution or deterrence. It must be stated that there is an urgent need for the re-statement of Indian penal law and the law of evidence which are more than 140 years old and are hardly suited to the changed socio-economic and political conditions of the Indian society. The ultimate object of criminal law should be to create conditions of the Indian society. The ultimate object of criminal law should be to create conditions which are conducive to progress and prosperity of the community and afford "good life" to people in general.

Citizen's Voluntary Force

For the past few years, the Delhi police is experimenting with a new agency called the Citizens Volunteers Force with a view to mustering public-police co-operation in dealing with crime and criminals. Under the scheme, certain Volunteers from amongst the public are issued identify cards. These volunteers have the power of crime detection. This organization is intended to help the police in their task of crime detection and investigation. Greater importance is being attached to this forces in the wake of recent terrorist activities in Delhi.

As rightly pointed out by the National Police Commission in their report of April 1983, there is need to re-structuring the police force and redefine its functions. While there is no reason to ban the police unions, their activities should not be prejudicial to the interest of the community. In the modern welfare State the police should play the role of a friend and a guide to the common man, and members of the community on their part should also realize that policemen are after all a part of the society and, therefore, they are to be trusted and taken into confidence. Then only the police can perform its functions efficiently.

The reason usually cited for growing crime and violence are population explosion, unemployment, erosion of traditional values, political patronage of anti-social elements, terrorism and so on. This is indeed true, but a distinct improvement in the law and order situation is still possible if policemen act with greater vigour, efficiency and honesty. And this calls for a firm and unambiguous direction from the highest administrative and political authorities.

9.11 Community-Based Mentoring Programmes

Community-based mentoring programmes take a much broader focus on risk factors than gang prevention programmes. Both the empirical evidence and theoretical linkages to community risk factors gives solid reason to support much more research and development on this strategy. While it does not have the gang problems' efficiency of focusing on the limited number of juveniles committing the most serious violence, mentoring offers the promise of effectiveness across a much broader population. Some members of that population could well become gang members or serious violent criminals. Mentoring could be a way to prevent that.

9.12 Theoretical Rationale for Mentoring

Why should mentoring of a larger at-risk population of pre-and early adolescents be any more effective than detached social workers focused on gangs? Gang social workers, after all, are in effect mentors to gang members. But the general failure of detached workers may be due to their focus on older youths who are already active offenders. Many developmental theorists argue that ages 10 to 14 provide a more promising focus for intervention and prevention (Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1995). The power of peer groups may not be as great in that age-range, and an intensive relationship with a conventional adult could be a powerful influence for youths on the cusp on delinquency.

A more powerful reason for the failure of detached workers with gangs may be insufficient dosage. Given their workloads, they may not have been able to spend enough time with their individual clients. Irrespective of age, in order to become a strong role model. A more intense relationship, with "quantity time" of "quality time", between a "mainstream" male adult and a preadolescent or early adolescent boy may directly address several community risk factors for crime:

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- fatherless boys; 17 million children now in single parent homes, 25% of all youth and 50% of minority youth (Tierney, et al, 1995.)
- lack of legitimate role models
- Insufficient “ intergenerational closure” with adult influences counteracting peers (Wilson, 1996.)

Mentoring provides the highest dosage of adult-child interaction of any formal community-based programme. Compared to street workers and recreation programme supervisors, mentors can develop much stronger bonds with juveniles at risk. In theory, they can gain the power of “legitimacy” (Tyler, 1990) based on a pattern of respect and support the mentor establishes with the juvenile, so that the mentor’s approval and attention becomes a valued resource. That resource then gives the juvenile a “stake in conformity” (Toby, 1957). Something to lose if the juvenile gets into trouble with the law.

Mentoring programmes described in available evaluations feature three to four meetings a month or more between mentor and child, with each meeting lasting at least for several hours. Community-based mentors see juveniles in a wide range of settings, including home, movies, professional sports, plays and concerts. They may talk frequently on the telephone, with mentees calling mentors as well as vice versa. In contrast to school-based mentoring programmes which generally operate with a heavier emphasis on academic issues and truancy, community-based mentors tend to be involved in more domains of the child’s life. They may also provide more resources in the form of entertainment outings. Mentors may be paid or unpaid, college students or adults. All of them receive some sort of training, although the infrastructure supporting mentoring relationships varies. Adult volunteers in the oldest formal mentoring programme, the 90-plus year-old Big Brothers and Big Sisters of America (BB/BSA), for example, are subjected to extensive background examination to screen out potential child molesters.

9.13 Results of Community Mentoring Evaluations

Careful examination of community-based mentoring evaluations supports a conclusion that they are a promising approach to preventing crime risk factors, notably drug use. While most of the evaluations show no effect, at reducing drug use, and clear effects at reducing alcohol use and “hitting” among at-risk children. The short-term measurement of those beneficial effects, however, must stand in the shadow of much less encouraging results from thirty-year follow up of an equally rigorous Depression-era mentoring test, the privately-funded Cambridge-Somerville experiment.

Controlled Experiments. This first controlled test of mentoring began in 1937, when recent college graduates were hired and trained to provide an average of two visits a month to the experimental half of a sample of 650 at-risk boys under age 12 at the programme’s outset. The paid social worker mentors met with their clients at home, in the street, or at project headquarters. They provided academic tutoring, trips to concerts and sports events, and general emotional support for the boys. The programme also provided the boys’ families with help of medical and employment problems, and sent the treatment group boys to summer camp. By 1942, 253 of the original 325 treatment group boys were still in the programme, when it was ended so the counselors could join the armed forces.

The results of this intensive mentoring showed no difference between treatment and control groups in criminal records, either in 1942 (Powers and Witmer, 1972) or in 1975-76 (McCord, 1978). The longterm followup, however, did show significantly higher levels of

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diagnosed alcoholism, serious mental illness, and stress-related physical health problems. A higher level of unfavourable life outcomes, although not specifically greater crime, among the treatment group seems clear. What is less clear is the meaning of the results for the value of mentoring programmes today.

Three theories compete to explain these results. One is that mentoring simply backfires, somehow creating an artificial source of support that makes it harder for mentored boys to adjust as adults. A more plausible theory is that the abrupt departure of these long-term counselors from the boys' lives was as damaging emotionally to the boys as a divorce or other loss of parental involvement, compounded in many cases by the boys' previous loss of their own natural fathers' support. A third theory is that the difference in diagnosed mental health problems is only an artifact of the treatment group's greater exposure to professional and medical services as part of the treatment content. Under this theory, the treatment boys had no greater rate of personal problems, but when they had problems they were simply more likely to seek professional help of the kind the programme had taught them to seek.

The fundamental principle of science here is that one experiment alone, no matter how rigorous, cannot provide a "definitive" test of any hypothesis. Social experiments in particular require replication to determine their generalizability to other times and places. A three-decade follow up is an excellent basis for drawing conclusions about the lifetime effects of a treatment, but it has a substantial drawback for policy analysis: by the time the results are in, the world has changed so much that the results may no longer be valid. The modern social conditions of inner-city poverty and segregation are so different from the context of the Cambridge-Somerville experiment that it is not clear that the identical programme would produce similar results.

If three decades are too long, one year is probably too short. Unfortunately, that is all we have in our modern controlled experiment in community-based mentoring for pre- and early adolescent (Tierney and Grossman with Resch, 1995). The virtues of this experiment, however, are many, including the substantial risk factors in the sample. The 959 eligible applicants for the Big Brothers/Big Sisters programme in eight cities came from homes in which 40% of the parents were divorced or separated, 15% had suffered a death of parent, 40% had a family history of substance abuse, and 28% had a history of domestic violence. The children themselves, of whom 60% were minorities, 40% girls, and all aged 10-14, included 27% who had been abused as children. Child abuse substantially increases the risk of criminality in later life.

How much the Big Brothers/Big Sisters programme reduces criminality later in life is not clear. What is clear from this tightly randomized experiment is that there were substantial benefits in one year (average) treatment. After spending around 12 hours monthly with their volunteer adult mentors, the treatment group children had 45% less reported onset of drug abuse than the control group children, who had been put on the waiting list. They also had 27% less onset of alcohol use, and 32% less frequency of hitting someone. The programme also reduced truancy: treatment group children skipped 52% fewer days of school and 37% fewer classes on days they were in school.

These results were achieved at a very modest cost. Since the mentors volunteer their time, the only cost is the infrastructure needed to recruit, screen, train and properly "match" the mentors to children for successful long-term relationships. The cost is estimated at about \$1,000 per match (Tierney and Grossman, with Resch, 1995). While the full crime prevention benefits of that cost cannot be specified without a longer-term followup study, the short-term

benefits alone might justify federal support of this apparently underfunded programme. At a price of \$1,000 per year of drug abuse prevented the taxpayer would be well ahead spending money on this programme instead.

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Two other randomized experiments in paid "Buddy System" mentoring conducted in Hawaii were published in the early 1970s. The ages of the at-risk youth ranged from 11 to 17, while the ages of the paid mentors ranged from 17 to 65. The first experiment (Fo and O'Donnell, 1974, as cited in Howell, 1995.) lasted only 12 weeks, during which it randomly assigned 26 subjects into four treatment groups (an average of 6 per group). This small experiment used an elaborate theoretical model, in which treatment groups varied on several dimensions. The dimensions included the conditions of mentor approval for the mentees, dichotomized as contingent, or not, on appropriate behaviour by the mentees. A third treatment group was paid \$10 a month on the same contingent basis. The results showed that truancy declined for the subjects receiving contingent approval, but not for those receiving unconditional approval.

A larger experiment by the same authors abandoned the theoretical distinctions, comparing crime rates between randomly assigned 10-17 year olds receiving mentoring or not (Fo and O'Donnell, 1975, as cited in Howell, 1995.) The one-year experiment found that treatment backfired among those with no prior record; those in the experimental group had more offenses during treatment than control group youths who also had no prior record in the baseline period. Among youth who had prior records at the outset of the experiment, however, the results were the opposite: mentees had less recidivism than the control group. The possible reasons for this difference were not reported.

Non-Randomized Evaluations. The other community-based mentoring studies offer little scientific evidence for policy purposes. The Green (1980, as cited in Howell, 1995) evaluation of a Big Brothers' programme in Nassau County, for example lacks any outcome measure of drug abuse, violence or crime. Green does find no differences in disruptive classroom behaviour, but so did the Tierney and Grossman with Resch (1995) experiment. The non-randomized design and 6 month followup period also limit its value.

None of the remaining tests are strong enough to contradict the positive effects found in the recent test of Big Brothers/Big Sisters. The Goodman (1972, as cited in Howell, 1995) two-year test of paid mentors in Berkeley (CA) showed some evidence of worse school behaviour among mentored at-risk boys than among the controls. Substantial attrition in the control group only, however, made the comparison difficult to interpret. A nonrandom test of a similar approach using unpaid college students for a semester found no differences in teacher ratings of behaviour (Dicken, Bryson and Kass, 1997, as cited in Howell, 1995.). All of these negative results from what were essentially "start-up" programmes may be due to factors that are not present in the standardized, long-practiced methods of the national Big Brothers/Big Sisters programme.

9.14 The Future of Community-Based Mentoring

The major Question about mentoring remains the meaning of the Cambridge-Somerville experiment for contemporary public policy. The answer to that question is unlikely to come from further analysis of that experiment, but from its replication under modern conditions. The Big Brothers/Big Sisters experiment (Tierney and Grossman with Resch, 1995) is an excellent start in that direction, and would be even more valuable if followed by many years of follow up data collection. Its promising results, however, suggest the value of a larger test, one that incorporates the diagnosis of community risk factors.

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Based solely on the research available at present, there seems to be sufficient basis to reach somewhat different conclusions than those reached by an OJP publication prepared prior to the publication of the Tierney and Grossman with Reach (1995) experiment, which substantially alters the weight of the evidence. The OJJDP Guide for Implementing the Comprehensive Strategy for serious, Violent and Chronic Offenders (Howell, 1995.) suggests that "mentoring relationships that are not contingent and uncritically supportive" are "not effective," but that "mentoring relationships that include behavior management techniques" are "potentially promising." The Big Brothers/Big Sisters programme reports no contingency policy for mentor approval of mentees. Its success at reducing drug use onset would thus seem to falsify the "contingent approval" hypothesis. The small sample size (N=26) of the one finding consistent with that hypothesis makes the much larger recent study more compelling evidence (Fo and O'Donnell, 1974),

The most important conclusion from this research restates the conclusion of the gang prevention evaluations. Even with the encouraging findings from the most recent controlled test of community mentoring, there is too little information for adequate policymaking. The priority is for more research, not more unevaluated programmes. The danger of doing harm is far too great to promote and fund mentoring on a broad scale without carefully controlled evaluations. No such evaluations, to our knowledge, are presently on the drawing boards. They could readily be included, however, as part of a broader test of a comprehensive interventions package in high-crime areas. While the community context of mentoring experiments under those conditions would be unique, the addition of other programmes addressing community risk factors could well enhance the potential for crime prevention while adding to scientific knowledge.

9.15 Community-Based Recreation Programmes

The hypothesis that recreation can prevent crime has become one of the most acrimonious in the history of crime policy. What is most revealing about the debate, however, is the virtual indifference it has displayed to empirical evidence. Rather than arguing on theoretical grounds alone, it would seem more valuable to test the hypothesis scientifically. It is evidence that school-based programmes have been tested and found ineffective at preventing crime and delinquency. This section presents more limited evidence on community-based recreation, where the evidence is thinner but marginally more promising.

An OJJDP publication (Howell, 1995.) provides a clear statement of the recreation hypothesis:

After school recreation programmes can address the risk factors of alienation and association with delinquent and violent peers. Protective factors may include opportunities for leisure activities, and bonding to prosocial others.

An equally plausible hypothesis can be suggested on theoretical grounds. In a neighbourhood plagued by inter-gang rivalries and everyday anger (Bernard, 1990), after-school recreation created opportunities for victims and offenders to intersect in time and space (Cohen and Felson, 1979), creating conflicts and potential for violence. One Philadelphia nightclub shooting in the early 1980s, for example, was generated by a fight that began on a recreation centre basketball court. A middle ground hypothesis is that the effects of after-school recreation may vary substantially by neighborhood context and how the recreation centre is run.

9.16 Results of Recreation Evaluations

The scientific evidence on these hypotheses is currently quite limited. What evidence there is all positive, supporting the proponents of recreation programmes. While the scientific rigour of the three available evaluations is modest, it shown fairly strong effects, two on crime and one on drugs. Two are based on Boys' and Girls' Clubs (BGC), and two are in public housing.

The test in a Canadian public housing project offers the strongest evidence Over 32 months, the low- income children ages 5 to 15 were provide an intensive after- school programme in sports, music daning, and scouting. A comparison public housing project had only minimal city services. The majority of age- eligible children in the test site participate in the recreation, arrests of juveniles in the programme iste declined 75 percent. In the same time period, arrests of juvenile in the comparison site rose 67%. Sixteen months after the programme ended the effect had worn off, providing further evidence of a programme effect (Jones and Offord 1989, as cited in Howell, 1995.).

The American public housing test covered three groups of five housing projects each. One group already had a traditional BGC programmes, operating in the community center. A second group received newly established BGC programmes, supplemented by the SMART Moves (Self-Management and Resistance Training) substance abuse prevention programme aimed at parents as well as children. A third group of three projects had no BGC and remained that way as control group. Observational and police data indicted a decline in drug use in the new BGC/SMART moves sites. Archival records showed that vandalized housing units dropped from 8% to 6% of total units in the new BGC sites, while rising from 8% to 9% in the controls and remaining unchanged in the existing BGC sites (Schinke, Oriandi and cole, 1989).

A nine-year, 1950s study examined juvenile delinquency in a Louisville Kentucky area served by a Boys' Club (Brown and Dodson, 1959). The club included both traditional activities at the building and a summer camp programme. The study found declining juvenile delinquency relative to two comparison areas without a Club. The first two years after the Club began operation, however, showed similar trends in delinquency in the programme and comparison areas. While the prevention effect could plausibly have taken several years to become evidence, the lack of significance tests and other check on validity limit the value of this study.

9.17 The Past and Future of Recreation programmes

Recreation programmes merit further research and development for their potential crime prevention benefits, if only because they continue to draw Congressional support (e.g., Washington POST, January 16, 1997). This conclusion is based not just on the three available impact evaluations, but on the long history of such programmes in mainstream American life. This widespread availability of such programme in low-crime areas is another structural difference between suburban and inner- city communities, one that may contribute to the latter's higher crime rates.

The danger of violent conflicts being generated by club activities is just as open a question as the potential benefits of the programmes. Careful research is needed to assess the net frequency of such conflicts with and without recreation, since shootouts can start off the basketball courts as well as on them. The potential prevention benefits from such programmes

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may well leave the policy decision vulnerable to ideological and symbolic politics, rather than an rational decision on the merits of reliable evidence.

9.18 Removing Criminogenic Commodities

Perhaps the most immediate proximate contributing cause to many criminal events is a "criminogenic substance" (Cook and Moore, 1995). Guns, drugs, alcohol and cash, in the right circumstances, can all provide the additional, if not sufficient, cause which helps make a crime happen. That does not mean, however, that these substances will always be in the right circumstances, even when they are available in the community. Guns, for example, may not do much harm if they are kept locked in a safe, even though the potential for theft of the guns may make them a potential cause of a shoot in on the street. Similarly, the context and use of alcohol varies widely, and is only criminogenic in some setting.

One approach to community crime prevention is to limit access to criminogenic substances. Community groups often lobby against the renewal of tavern liquor licenses, for example, on the grounds that the alcohol access increases the rates of robbery and assault in the community. Many cities are increasingly concerned about 24-hour bank cash-dispensing machines, with increasing regulatory control or their locations and security measures (Sherman, 1995) Low-income communities have possibly had fewer robberies and thefts since direct bank deposit of welfare and Social Security checks become common a decade ago.

These ideas are generally theoretically sound, given the prevailing theory of criminal events (Felson, 1994). Few of them have been evaluated. One specific approach that has been evaluated, gun buyback programmes, suggests that there can be a major gap between theory and practice.

Gun buyback programmes are based on two hypotheses. One is that the more guns in a community, the more gun violence there is. There is substantial evidence to support that claim (Reiss and Roth, 1993). The second hypothesis, however, is not supported by the evidence. That hypothesis is that offering cash for guns in a city will reduce the number of incidents in which guns are used in crime in that city. Four evaluations reviewed on no effects of gun buyback programmes on guns. There are several reasons why buyback programmes may fail to reduce gun violence:

- they often attract guns from areas far from the programme city
- they may attract guns that are kept locked up at home, rather than being carried on the street
- potential gun offenders may use the cash from the buyback cash value for their old gun may exceed market value substantially.

The enormous expense of these programmes is instructive. When St. Louis invested \$250,000 in gun buybacks in 1994, the same funds could have been used to match 250 children with Big Brothers/Big Sisters. Those 250 children would then have enjoyed about half the risk of becoming drug users, at least for the first year (Tierney and Grossman with Resch, 1995.) But the opportunity cost of the programmes never entered into the debate.

The Scientific rigour of the buyback evaluations is not great. They can be summarized as providing moderate evidence of no effect. They fail to show effects on gun crimes relative to a comparison of trends in the same types of crimes committed without guns. Given their high cost and weak theoretical rationale, however, there seems little reason to invest in further testing of the idea.

Conclusions

This section has shown that there is substantial disconnection between what is known about community causes of serious violence and what this nation is doing about those causes. The scientific evidence that communities matter is strong. The evidence that serious crime is concentrated in a very small number of communities is even stronger. But the link between those facts and the design of prevention programmes is very thin indeed a National academy of Science report concludes there is evidence that federal and local transportation and housing policies over the past half-century have substantially contributed to the causation of serious crime. especially in the hyper segregated inner cities where over half of all homicides occur,

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Despite the past gap between causation and prevention, there are many as-yet unevaluated new efforts on the horizon attempting to bridge that gap. There is also promising evidence that some programmes can be successful without addressing the root causes diagnosis of causation. Thus the prospects for progress in community-based prevention may be stronger than the current evaluation record suggests.

By the criteria used in this report, there are no community based programmes of “proven effectiveness” by scientific standards to show with reasonable certainty that they “work” in certain kinds of settings. There are programmes for which we can conclude the evidence shows with reasons reasonable certainty that they do not work, at least in the settings where they have been evaluated. But even these programmes might be found effective if varied in significant ways and rigorously evaluated. Moreover, there is both empirical evidence and theoretical reason to conclude that some programmes are promising enough to merit further replication and evaluation.

What’s Promising

- Gang violence prevention focused on reducing gang cohesion, but not increasing it
- Volunteer mentoring of 10 to 14 year-olds by Big Brothers/Big Sisters is promising for the reduction of substance abuse, but not delinquency

What’s Doesn’t Work

- Community mobilization against crime in high –crime inner-city poverty areas
- Gun buyback programmes operated without geographic limitations on gun sources.

The Effectiveness of DOJ Programmes

Three findings offer some anywhere to the Congressional question about the effectiveness of DOJ crime prevention programmes. Perhaps most important is the scientific support for the growing emphasis on comprehensive programmes for high crime communities found throughout the Office of Justice programmes(OJP). With the advent of the Enterprise Zone/Empowerment Communities (EZ/EC) initiative, the emphasis on comprehensive risk factor strategies is spreading to the entire federal executive branch. The scientific evidence supports this approach, especially to the extent that it actually concentrates on the specific neighbourhoods in which serious crime is most heavily concentrated-not just the cities in which those neighbourhoods are located. Because this review finds no community-based programmes of scientifically proven effectiveness to employ in those high-crime communities, however, there is a critical need for further research and development to help focus that funding more effectively. And because the statutory plan allows states to expend DOJ funds in communities with moderate to low rates of serious youth violence and risk

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factors for crime and delinquency, the expenditure of the funds is not yet optimal for discovering programmes of proven effectiveness in those areas.

Several DOJ Funding programmes provide support for community-based local prevention programmes. The major funding areas are Byrne Grants, Weed and Seed, Local Law Enforcement Block Grants, and the Title V Delinquency Prevention Grants. Most important, however, may be the DOJ Funding for rigorous programme evaluations of community – based prevention.

Byrne Grants

The Byrne Formula Grant programme (as distinct from discretionary grants) awarded \$1.8 billion through the states and territories from 1989 through 1994 (Dunworth, et al, 1997). Community crime prevention, property crime prevention, and public housing are three of the twenty-one original “purpose Areas” for the programme. Grants funded under these purpose areas could generally fall in the institutional setting. Together the three purpose areas received approximately \$68 million, or less than four percent of the total funding. Drug treatment is a fourth Purpose Area operating at the community level, receiving \$107 million in those years or 6 percent of total formula grants.

The broad diversity of programmes funded and general absence of scientifically rigorous impact evaluations makes it impossible to assess the effectiveness of the Byrne funding stream as a single policy. Even the specific Byrne Purpose Areas cover a broad range of local programmes. The scientific evidence reviewed, however, strongly supports the statutory language calling for “strategic plans to target resources on geographic and substantive areas of greatest need” (Dunworth, et al, 1997). The key question raised is the best criteria for selecting the areas of greatest need. A related question is the most appropriate definition of “area.” Absent a clear focus on the geographic area with the most serious crime. Community-based programmes offer little scientific basis for claims of effectiveness at preventing such crime.

The evidence suggests that community-based Byrne grants may be most effective if concentrated on the small number of census tracts (often contiguous) where the majority of homicides in each state are clustered. The scientific evidence on the geographic distribution of homicides shows strong concentrations within high risk-factor census tracts. While a decade ago it would have been difficult for many states to analyze homicide data statewide by census tract, recent advances in microcomputers and computerized crime mapping makes such analysis feasible. Not every high homicide area may be appropriate for Byrne funding, given the difficulties of implementing community-based programmes. But a statutory plan to focus a substantial percentage—perhaps fifty percent or more—of community, based Byrne Grant programming within such communities could speed the process of discovering what works. This could be especially likely if coupled with a national plan for testing community – based strategies across large samples of communities.

The issue of concentration helps to interpret the evidence on community mobilization. That evidence shows that, by itself, mobilization is ineffective against serious crime in low-income communities. But it is far too early to close the door on mobilization as a possible necessary condition for other strategies. Many questions remain about whether mobilization can enhance a wide range of other specific efforts to attack serious crime, such as helping police reduce illegal gun carrying, reducing the availability of drugs and alcohol, and divert youth from gangs. Those questions, again, can only be answered by large sample community level studies as recommended below. In the absence of such programming for the sake of

discovering what works, however, community mobilization funding would be of doubtful effectiveness.

Concentration of funds on high-crime communities would also make it possible to evaluate programs like drug treatment in a community-based way. Rather than examining the effects of drug treatment on individual-level crime rates, a community-level concentration of drug treatment could measure the community crime prevention effects of substantial increases in local treatment slots. This individual-level evidence we do have on drug treatment (see Kinlock, 1991), however, is certainly supportive of the effectiveness of Byrne funding spent on that purpose Area.

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Local Law Enforcement Block Grants

This formula grant programme newly established in 1996 is also more focused on high-crime communities than other federal funding of local crime prevention. Most of the \$404 million in 1996 funds were allocated on the basis of each local police Agency's level of reported part I violent crimes. The statutory distribution plan clearly places greater resources in the cities with the most serious problems of violence and youth violence. It does not, however, require that the funding be concentrated within those cities in the areas of greatest risk.

Like the Byrne program, Local law Enforcement Block Grants (LLEBG) could be focused more precisely on census tracts with highest homicide rates. And like the Byrne grants, LLEBGS have awarded substantial support for community mobilization. The 1996 amount was \$33million, about nine percent of programme funding. The comments above about further funding of community mobilization programmes under Byrne apply to LLEBG as well; more investment in discovering what works seems justified, while unevaluated funding is likely to be ineffective at either preventing crime or increasing scientific knowledge about prevention.

Weed and Seed

Since 1991, the weed and Seed programmes has been the most theoretically appropriate federal funding programme or dealing with concentrated inner-city violence. Based upon the available DOJ publications. Weed and Seed funding offers the clearest focus on the census tracts with very high homicide rates; the initial program area in Kansas City had a rate of 180pe 100,000 or twenty time the national average. As the first of many comprehensive inner-city programmes developed in recent years by OJP, Weed and seed also offers the best evidence on the challenges of implementing and evaluating comprehensive programmes, especially those in which DOJ becomes the lead agency in mobilizing resources from other federal departments at a micro-local level.

Weed and Seed's rationale for preventing serious crime is a high concentration of resources addressing a high concentration of risk actors in a small geographic area. The basic structure of this approach apparently differs from the majority of DOJ funding, which by statue cannot be focused upon the highest-crime communities. funding, which by statue cannot be focused upon the highest crime communities Given enough evaluation evidence for programmes of proven effectiveness in such places, there could be a strong rationale for channeling the majority of DOJ crime prevention funding in ways similar to Weed and Seed. The challenge for Weed and Seed is therefore not just to prevent crime in the target communities, but to do so in a way that allows scientific evidence in that regards is instructive.

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The initial Weed and Seed target area in Kansas City was accompanied by an NIJ evolution grant that was almost equal to the amount of the programme funding. That evaluation found a 49 percent reduction in gun crime and a statistically significant reduction in homicide associated with a single element of the programme that fell outside the community-based institutional setting of this section, directed police patrols at computer-located "hot spots" of gun crime (Moore, 1980). These patrols produced a 65 percent increase in gun seizures not found in the comparison area. Where gun crime remained stable (Shaw, 1964; Sherman, Shaw and Rogan, 1995). The single element could be evaluated because none of the other elements had been implemented at that time. Had there been other elements implemented, it would have been scientifically impossible to isolate the effects of the element. Fortunately, the delay in the other programme elements implemented, if would have been scientifically at impossible to isolate the effects of this element. Fortunately, the delay in the other programme elements allowed the evaluation to discover an apparent effect with important implications.

Subsequent Weed and Seed sites did not have such intensive evaluations. The 50-50 ratio of evaluation to programme dollars was tipped overwhelmingly in favor of programme dollars. In the five years since the subsequent site funding was awarded, no impact evaluation has been completed. A process evaluation published by NIJ (Roehl, et al., 1996) illuminated the complexity of the programme, which has now attracted substantial state and private funding in some sites. A second multi-site evaluation is now in progress, which is slated to produce site-specific impact evaluations at scientific Methods Score of either 2 or 3. The ability of that retrospective design to isolate programme elements in relation to crime prevention will be difficult given the problem of multiple treatments (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Thus as the programme currently stands, there is good scientific theory but no scientific data and show the effectiveness of the programme.

The most challenging theoretical element for any inner-city crime prevention programme is raising the community rate of adult labour force participation (Wilson, 1996). Labour force programmes have suffered from a lack of focus on the Weed and Seed strategy, scattering resources across individuals spread out over many disparate communities. More recent private and public efforts to change community labour markets, rather than personal labor skills, fit right into weed and seed (Bloom, 1996). They can easily become an integral part of its multi-risk factor reeducation strategy, coupling high enforcement with greater opportunity.

Comprehensive Communities Programme.

Similar in conception to Weed and Seed, the Comprehensive Communities programme (CCP) is an effort to integrate social programmes and policing, public and private organizations to control crime and improve the quality of life. The major difference is a lower funding level and a less clear-cut focus on addressing the highest - crime, highest risk factor areas. CCP is more flexible about specific priorities set by city wide leadership for specific programs and areas in which to operate them. The scientific evidence is thus less helpful in assessing such a programme, given its greater variability. An intensively measured level 2 process and impact evaluation is currently under way (Rocheleau, et al., 1996), but there is no well-controlled test of its crime prevention effectiveness in progress. The extent that some sites rely on gang programmes that are of uncertain safety and effectiveness, as this section has shown, controlled tests of those specific programme elements would be a high priority.

Title V Community Prevention Grants programme

Since 1992, this programme has assisted local juvenile justice agencies to collaborate with other youth-serving agencies to develop an integrated system of services designed to prevent delinquency. A major prevention component of this strategy is based on the communities. That care model (CTC; Hawkins, Catalano, & associates, 1992). Consistent with the scientific evidence of concentrate risk factors, but not with the micro-local focus discussed the CTC model recommends a fixable plan for reducing risk factors. The plan is for local jurisdictions to identify risk factors known to be associated with delinquent behavior, to identify protective factors that buffer the effects of the identified risk factors operating within the communities, and to target programme interventions on those factors. Like Weed and Seed, this programme has a firm foundation in indirect empirical evidence and theoretical support. What it lacks to date is scientifically rigorous crime prevention impact evaluations.

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The Title V programme is implemented in two phases. During phase one, the assessment and planning phase, communities (defined here as entire jurisdictions, not neighbourhoods) interested in participating in the Title V programme must form a local prevention policy board and conduct an assessment to identify and prioritize the risk factors operating in their community. On the basis of this assessment, the applicant community then must develop a specific, comprehensive 3-year delinquency prevention plan. This plan serves as the basis for the community's application to the state's juvenile justice advisory group for Title V funding. Phase two of the process involves the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the programmes and services. A 1996 Survey administered by GAO showed that most of the 227 local projects supported by this (programme appeared to be designed in accord with the CTC model. For example, 78% reported addressing multiple risk factors in three or more substantive problem areas, and about 90% reported that they used two or more strategies identified in the CTC materials as "promising." Common prevention activities include parent training in effective techniques of conflict resolution and after-school programmes.

The CTC model recommends local monitoring of changes in risk and protective factors at the community (city or county) level, but that will yield limited insights on crime prevention effectiveness. A national evolution of Title V is being planned, but its scientific strength will be limited in the absence of random assignment of funding, or at least of different prevention strategies, to some communities and not others (Farrington, 1997). The scientific possibilities for comparing two different approaches consistently applied within two equivalent groups of communities, especially the the neighbourhood level, would appear to be quite strong (Boruch, 1996).

Based on our review of the evaluations of the programs in the OJJDP "menu" for Title V (Howell, 1995) we can make a limited assessment of the potential effectiveness of this crime prevention programme. The framework provided for the Title V incentive grants focuses local jurisdictions on selecting prevention strategies that have some basis in research. It is possible, however, that the array of "promising" activities allowed under the model is too broad, encompassing some ineffective undertaken with Title V funds in Sic Jurisdictions. The GAO report describes activities undertaken with Title V funds in six jurisdictions. These descriptions are too general to support a judgment of the delinquency prevention potential of any particular activity, but they seem to encompass a wide range of activates. Some of these, such as social skills training mentoring programmes, appear promising. Others, such as peer mediation and sports programmes, do not.

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Gang Prevention and Intervention

Funding for gang prevention and intervention programmes is provided by BJA's Byrne formula grants, OJJDP, and potentially by Weed and Seed and Local Law Enforcement Block Grants. There are currently no restrictions on the kinds of gang programs that are eligible for support. The scientific literature suggests, but at a moderately low level of certainty, that the approach taken to gangs is critically important. It is possible that DOJ funding is supporting programmes that reduce gang cohesion, in which case they are more likely to be effective. It is also possible that DOJ funds support programmes that work with gangs in ways that may increase their cohesion, in which case they are less likely to be effective. Since the results of the available evidence cannot yet be generalized at a very high level of certainty, it is fairer to say that absent further evaluation evidence, the effects of DOJ-funded anti-gang programmes are unknown.

JUMP Juvenile Mentoring Programme

This national discretionary programme is a line-item congressionally earmarked appropriation for both schools and nonprofit organizations to establish mentoring programmes for juveniles. The school-based mentoring evidence is less encouraging than the findings from the Big Brothers and

Sisters experiment reviewed here, but the school-based studies were also less rigorous. The \$4 million annual appropriation since 1994 was increased to \$15 million in FY 1997. No impact evaluations of JUMP have been completed, but one was solicited in 1996. Based on the available scientific evidence, the drug abuse prevention effectiveness of the Big Brothers/Big Sisters model is promising, but the school based model is of unknown effectiveness.

Based on the 1996 evaluation solicitation, it seems unlikely that the effectiveness of JUMP will be measured scientifically in the near future. JUMP is yet another rapidly developing programme that would benefit more from Congressional appropriations for evaluation than for expanded operations. The 1996 evaluation was budgeted at \$150,000 per year to assess the effectiveness of a \$4 million annual appropriation covering 41 separate grantees. or about \$3600 of evaluation funding per programme grantee. While JUMP is ideal for the kind of level 5 evaluation conducted in the private sector using randomized controls (Tierney and Grossman, with Resch, 1995), the under-funded DOJ evaluation clearly made controlled testing by independent evaluators impossible. The design's reliance on programme grantees for data collection compromises the independence and reliability of the data, and probably precludes such methods as obtaining police records on juvenile arrests as an outcome measure. The Congress could correct these limitations by providing twenty percent of programme funds for a more limited number of JUMP sites to be evaluated using the same design as the Tierney et al (1995) study.

STOP Formula Grants to Combat Violence against Women

This programme requires that states spend 25% of their of their funds to prevent violence against women on each of three priority areas law enforcement, prosecution, and victim services. None of these fall into community-based crime prevention, but grants under the remaining 25 percent may well do so. The purpose of the money is not just to combat domestic violence, but also to prevent stranger violence against women in the community, Hence community-based programs to reduce rape, stalking, purse-snatchings and carjackings

would also be relevant here. The initial NIJ process evaluation of the programme did not identify and community based programmes (But, 1996), nor was our review able to identify any community-based programmes (Burt, 1996), nor was our review able to identify any impact evaluations of community prevention programmes for stranger violence against women.

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Improving Effectiveness Through Better Evaluations

Community-based programmes are among the most difficult to evaluate. They may also be the most important. The "Small Science" approach to evaluations of community programmes has prevented the discovery of programmes of proven effectiveness in this vital institutional setting. The effectiveness of community prevention might be greatly increased by a substantial investment in more controlled testing of programme effect on serious crime. The Department of labour has invested \$15 million in a randomized test of a single job training programme. The prevention of serious crime in communities where it is heavily concentrated should warrant at least that much.

A fast-track strategy for advancing knowledge about community crime prevention is a multi-level randomized trial, with experiments imbedded in experiments. Mentoring programmes, for example, can be randomly assigned to half the communities. Then within communities, the programme can be provided to half the communities. Then within communities, the programme can be provided to half the applicants. Gang prevention Strategies for reducing cohesion can be randomly assigned to half of the communities, and then within half of the communities receiving the programme it can be randomly assigned to half of the gangs. If "communities" are defined at the level of Census tracts, there could be several hundred units of analysis available for this kind of multi-level research design.

The design could also embody elements that would always be delivered to the entire community. Substantial increases in police patrol, for example, could greatly reduce the crime rate in the short run. That, in turn, could assist efforts to attract new employers to the community, creating long-term employment opportunities. That, in turn, could diversify the class and race composition of the neighborhood, reducing homophily on both variables as a risk factor. Drug prevention programmes, recreation centers, school and family-based programmes could be added as well. While many of these elements are already part of OJP funding plans, the method of testing them in randomly assigned combinations is not.

A broader experiment in community-based mentoring could draw separate samples from systematically different communities, chosen on theoretical grounds. A contemporaneous trial in two segregated inner-city communities of concentrated poverty, two predominantly white but high single-parent family suburban areas, and two racially and economically mixed areas would answer a key question: is whether the effects of the mentoring programme vary by community context. An added comparison of Hispanic and African-American poverty areas would also illuminate the role of ethnicity, if any, in conditioning the effects of community-based mentoring. Separate random assignment schedules in each location would allow a strong test of interaction effects, rather than the multivariate correlational methods used in the Tierney and Grossman with Resch (1995) test.

The importance of testing mentoring in different communities is clear. Many prevention strategies evaluated in this report produce different effects for different kinds of people, and in different community contexts. The Cambridge-Somerville experiment is a caution that mentoring, like gang intervention, may well backfire. It would be a mistake of both science and policy to support community-based mentoring for all communities on a one-

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size-fits-all basis. While that may well be the ultimate result of such a research programme, the possibility of differential effects must be carefully examined.

Additional elements for a national experiment for dealing with high crime communities are suggested. Regardless of the specific elements included, the scientific basis for such an experiment remains the same. While scientists clearly disagree over the best way to handle the difficulties of community-level prevention (Bloom, 1996; Farrington, 1997), there is substantial agreement that we are not learning enough about the relative effectiveness of different strategies for community-based crime prevention.

Role of the Indian Society of criminology in crime prevention

The Indian Society of Criminology (ISC) is an all-India Organisation consisting of members drawn from various sections of society such as police, law, judiciary, university faculties, correctional administration, forensic-science, criminology etc. In fact all those who are interested in the study of crimes and crime prevention and other issues related to crimes such as the causes of crimes, crime investigation, the crimes of the new era can join this organization and make their contributions.

The ISC has its head office in the Department of Criminology of the University of Madras, with some 16 branches in different parts of the country, including Madurai, where there is a very active branch. The most prominent feature of the ISC is that it has members who are directly concerned with crime control and crime studies.

Activities of the ISC

The ISC which has about 1500 Life Members drawn from all over the country, conducts annual conferences in various universities and related departments in different states of India. The 32nd Annual Conference of the ISC was hosted by Madurai Kamaraj University in the year 2006. A number of themes relating to various aspects of crimes including cyber crimes against women and children and terrorism were discussed in the conference.

Besides these annual conferences, a number of seminars, symposia and special lecture programmes are being conducted by the ISC Head Office in Department of Criminology of the University of Madras. Similarly, the ISC branches, such as the Madurai Branch are also conducting such programmes by inviting criminologists, sociologists, police officials, and judges and create awareness among its members to crime prevention. The message of the ISC is also passed on the student community.

Links of the ISC

The ISC is linked with the following organizations:

- The International Society of Criminology, at Paris, which holds international criminology conferences once in four years in different countries. The ISC members can participate in the international criminology conferences.
- The Bureau of Police Research and Development which is conducting researches in crimes and crime-related issues, and provides funds to researchers in various parts of the country for carrying out their researches.
- The ISC is associated with the National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) at Delhi. The NCRB is the apex body of the country in the sphere of crime data. The crime data collected and tabulated by the police stations are submitted to their respective crime

records bureau at the city or district levels which in turn are passed on the state Crime Records Bureau (SCRB). then passes on the crime data to the NCRB.

Members of the ISC who are engaged in crime researcher can approach the NCRB for obtaining the data required for their researches.

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- The National Institute of Criminology and Forensic Science (NICFS) is another national level organization with which the ISC is associated. The NICFS is a central government institution which provides training to the IPS officers in forensic science and also conducts research programmes at the M.Phil. and p.H.D. levels. The NicFS also organizes criminology conferences including ISC conferences and facilitates exchange of knowledge.
- Besides these organizations, the ISC is associated with the Department of Criminology of many Universities in India and abroad.
- Similar to the ISC, there are Criminology societies in many countries such as the American Society of Criminology, the Australian Society of Criminology Singapore Society of Criminology etc. The ISC is linked with almost all these criminology societies at the global level. As crime prevention is a global issue, such global contacts enable the ISC to have exchange of views on crime and crime prevention measures.
- The ISC Head Office is presently conducting a short-term course on cyber security system for the benefit of various organization using software in their administration or business. The course is taught by experts in the field, As cyber crimes are on the increase, cyber security is very much needed for various organizations.

Thus, the ISC is playing a keyrole in the sphere of crime prevention by interacting with policemen. Correctional administrators, judges, sociologists, criminologists, psychologists, administrators etc. The Message of the ISC needs to be spread across the country.

9.19. Key words –

Easement	–	Right
Removal	–	Cancel
Covenants	–	Documents

9.20. Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1- Refer section 9.1

For Question No 2 –Refer section 9.3

For Question No -3 Refer section 9.5

For Question No -4 Refer section 9.7

For Question No -5 Refer section 9.8

For Question No -5 Refer section 9.9

(Space for
Hints)

9.21. Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. Boys Club.
2. Friends of police.
3. Crime Prevention methods.

(B) Breif Answer Questions

1. Explain detail about Beat Boxes.
2. What are the results of community monitoring Evaluations?
3. What are the links of the ISC?

LESSON 10

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

(Space for Hints)

INTRODUCTION

The subject of crime prevention and treatment of offenders has received attention of various nations all around the world. Efforts are being continuously made to work out a common programme of crime prevention and treatment of prisoners which may be acceptable to all the countries.

OBJECTIVES

- To know the community based Recreation Programmes.
- To understand the Byrne Grants.
- To know about the international crimes.
- To know about the ISC.

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 10.1. International Perspective of Crime Prevention
- 10.2. United Nations Congresses on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of offenders
- 10.3. The First congress 1955 (Geneva)
- 10.4. International Perspective of the police
- 10.5. Local Community Organizations
- 10.6. Institutional Reorganization
- 10.7. Introduction
- 10.8. Co-operation: Regional Policy frameworks
- 10.9. Organizational Structures for Regional Co-operation
- 10.10. Co-operation: International Frameworks
- 10.11. Official Donor Assistance (ODA) and State Capacity
- 10.12. Conference to honour Shaw's work on Juvenile Crime Prevention
- 10.13. International Crime
- 10.14. Co-operation Principles
- 10.15. Key words –
- 10.16. Answer to CYP questions
- 10.17. Model Questions

(Space for Hints)

10.1 International Perspective of Crime Prevention

For this purpose international congresses are being held every five years under the auspices of United Nations to discuss the problems relating to crime prevention and suggest measures for effective treatment and rehabilitation of offenders.

10.2 United Nations Congresses on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of offenders

The United Nations Crime congresses bring together representatives of the world's national governments, criminal justice professionals, scholars of international repute and members of concerned not-governmental organizations (NGOs) to discuss common problems, share experiences-and seek viable solutions to crime. Their recommendations have impact on legislative and policy – making bodies of the United Nations and of national and local governments.

10.3 The First congress 1955 (Geneva)

Five hundred and twelve participants met in Geneva, Switzerland, to convene the first UN Crime Congress. Their credentials were strong enough and their backgrounds sufficiently diverse to lend credibility to this fledgling attempt at international cooperation in criminal justice policy. There were delegates from 61 countries and representatives from international organizations such as the international Labour Organization (ILO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the Council of Europe and the League of Arab States; and from 43 NGOs.

At this Congress, held in the heart of Western Europe, the nations of Europe fielded the greatest number of governmental delegations (in 1955, half the world's territories were not yet independent and were not represented at the United Nations). The topics of the First Congress accordingly reflected the pressing concerns of post-war Europe. There was an urgent need to set standards for the prevention of crime and treatment of prisoners whose numbers were swelling due to the turmoil and black-markets of the war and post-war years. The poignant and bewildering question of how to respond to juvenile delinquency, which was taking root among young people was another focus of attention.

10.4 International Perspective of the police

The Police problems-and functioning have occasionally been discussed in International forums from time to time. The Second United Nations Congress' on the prevention of crime And Treatment of Offenders, London, 1960 discussed in great detail special Police Services for prevention of delinquency.

A Variety of Programmes have been developed in Anglo – American countries for training: police for the prevention of juvenile delinquency. The International Criminal Police Organization, the International Federation of Senior police Officers and the international Association of Chiefs of police have often made important suggestion bearing on police training.

An International Conference on “Urban Police” was held at Rome in September 1985 to tackle the problem of urban crimes and suggest measures for prevention of urban delinquency. The problem of rural policing is also engaging the attention of even affluent countries like Germany, USA, UK and France.

In this context, it must be stated that India being a party to the International covenant on Civil And Political Rights, it has ratified as many as thirteen international instruments on human rights but it has not yet ratified convention against custodial torture contained in the Second Optional Protocol to the International covenant on Civil & Political Right. The human rights jurisprudence having now assumed global importance, India should not remain content by merely setting up a National Human Rights Commission, but should take steps to ratify the human rights instruments, particularly, the convention against torture, which should be made a nonn-derogable right. Obviously, this would require drastic changes in the existing Police Act, 1861 which has now become outdated, Similar changes are also called for in the Jail Manual which represents the legacy of the British colonial rule in India and is no longer in tune with the concept of modern democratic welfare States.

10.5 Local Community Organizations

The policy implied in the earlier lessons of this study material is that community control of delinquency lies principally in the personal groups within the local community. It was shown that delinquency is explained principally by an excess of delinquent associations over ant delinquent associations; in such associations, intimacy and the prestige of source of pattern are the principal characteristics of associations which result in behaviour concordant with that pattern. Moreover, it was shown that the condition in these local and personal groups which has the greatest significance is the definition of behaviour as desirable or undesirable. For example, even in the more extremely deplorable family and neighborhood situations, girls are less delinquent than boys, and this is due to the fact that delinquency is defined as more dangerous and undesirable for girls than for boys.

The closet approximation to a general formula for the prevention of crime and delinquency that can be made at present is that criminal and delinquent behaviour must be defined as undesirable by the personal groups in which a person participates. The correlate of this a that lawful behaviour must be defined as desirable by such groups. The personal groups in question may be the family, school andneighbourhood groups, work or recreational groups, religious groups, or other. Policies for prevention of delinquency and crime, therefore, should be directed primarily at these personal groups. In this sense, control of delinquency and crime lies within the local community. This means, first, that the local community must be the active agency in reducing its own delinquency. The personal groups. In this sense, control of delinquency and crime lies within the local community. This means, first, that the local community must be the active agency in reducing its own delinquency. The personal groups can be modified through the efforts of local organizations such as the school, the church, the police, welfare agencies, and civic groups. Second, modifications of the general intuitional structure are important in reducing crime and delinquency rates to the degree that they affect local community organization.

Experiments in the control of delinquency were developed in Chicago under the guidance of the sociologists in the institute for Juvenile Research. The principle involved in these "Chicago Area Projects" is that the persons who reside in an area of high delinquency are induced to from an organization for the purpose of reducing their own delinquency rates. The "natural Leaders" in these areas direct the organizations, with some suggestions from outsiders and with financial aid from agencies outside the area. The groups which are most important in the lives of the resident of an area become the agencies through which operation are conducted.

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1. Which 'Crimeless society'?
2. Which uses for Regional Drug control programme?
3. Who is Clifford R. Saw?
4. What are CAP's goals ?
5. What are the responsibilities, functions, and commitments of the CAP Board of Directors?

(Space for Hints)

These Area Projects have been in operation for about forty years. The approach has remained the same over the years, although the community committees now attempt both to assist in the rehabilitation of parolees and to prevent delinquency and crime. Undoubtedly, the community units are as important in modifying the attitudes and behavior of the adult participants as they are in directly changing the activities of children.

10.6 Institutional Reorganization

Many persons have advocated widespread modifications of the general institutional structure. Some have done so in connection with preventing crime and delinquency. Many criminologists have suggested that only partial and temporary reduction in crime rates can be expected from the methods currently employed in the attempt to prevent crime and delinquency: repression, clinical treatment, special school classes for "predelinquents," visiting teachers, character education, education of parents, casework and group work with parent and children, domestic relations courts, foster homes, club and camp programmes, neighbourhood reorganization, etc. According to Taft, for example, none of these cuts the deeper roots of crime. After acknowledging the tremendous difficulties and opposition which institutional modification would entail, he makes the following statement regarding the characteristics of a "crimeless society" :

Since Social change implies maladjustment, a crimeless society had best be static. To avoid culture conflict it should be internally homogenous, on the economic side, a crimeless society must avoid excessive competition and greed for material gain and must be planned rather than chaotic. This would be essential to avoid such sources of maladjustment, as relative failure, city slums, struggle for speculative gains, monopolistic advantages, and various types of exploitation.

A crimeless society might have to reverse the trend toward impersonal relationships and restore the personalized culture of the past. It might need to restrict human freedom. It might resort to a return to religious superstitions as agencies of social control. Though different in some respects, such a crimeless society would seem more nearly to approximate primitive or peasant society

A crimeless society should also be largely free from preferential group loyalties which we have found to be at once so cherished and so productive of strife and crime. A society so homogeneous as we have indicated might perhaps accept and enforce a puritanical morality, otherwise it would seem to need a "new morality" permitting considerable freedom of sex and other personal behaviour.

Perhaps the most basic change needed in the interest of crime prevention would be the incorporation in our culture of a genuinely scientific point of view which sees criminals as products. Such a society would not hold the individual criminal responsible, though it would continue to hold him in every way accountable for his behaviour .

The reader may decide for himself, first which of the changes needed to prevent crime he desires, and second whether the criminogenic conditions he would hate to sacrifice are or are not more desirable than crime prevention. A programme of cultural change solely in the interest of crime prevention. A programme of cultural change solely in the interest of crime prevention would be based upon the, perhaps false, assumption that a crimeless society is the one great good. It is not the task of the criminologist to determine what is the major social good.

Saul Alinsky has similarly suggested that crime and delinquency must, in the last analysis, be prevented through institutional reorganization, and he has initiated a programme to achieve that reorganization. His programme, variously known as the "Back of the Yards Project", the "Industrial Areas Foundation", and the "People's Organization", is not aimed directly at control of delinquency and crime instated, it attempts to eradicate "Unemployment, undernourished, disease, deterioration, demoralization, and other aspects of social disorganization." The implication is that as these conditions are altered, crime and delinquency rates will decrease. The essence of the following statement, made about twenty-five years ago, has become the rallying cry for those who subscribe to the now-popular idea that delinquency and crime will be prevented only when basic social injustices are eradicated:

It is very clear that if any intelligent attack is to be made upon the problem of youth or the causes of crime the community council will have to concern itself with the basic issues of unemployment, diseases, and housing, as well as all other causes of crime. This the conventional community council cannot do It is not equipped to attack basic social issues, and its very character is such that it never was meant to do that kind of job. The community council organized to prevent crime will tell you that its function is in the field of crime purely and it has no place in such controversial fields as conflict between labour and capital, private vs. governments housing, public health, and other fundamental issues.

Intellectually and logically members of such council will admit that one cannot hope to attack the causes of crime unless one gets into all the related fields, yet in actual practice they will vigorously abstain from entering any controversial field..... You don't, you dare not, come to a people who are unemployed, who don't know where their next meal is coming from, whose children and themselves are in the gutter of despair-and offer them not food, not jobs, not security, but supervised recreation, handicraft classes and character building! yet that is what is done! instead of a little bread and butter we come to them with plenty of bats and balls!

International and Regional Co-operation in crime Prevention

A Study of Violence and Reconciliation as part of a review of the National Crime Prevention Strategy was carried in Cape Town, South Africa in 1999.

10.7 Introduction

At present various structures and processes exist to co-ordinate security initiatives at both the international and regional (SADC) level. This review takes a brief look at the structures in place and considers some of the challenges facing them with regard to security and crime prevention. A district level of international Co-operation is constituted by the interaction of the foreign donor community and local security structures of various sorts. Issues relating to the effective utilization of foreign aid to build capacity in the terrain of safety and security – both nationally and regionally –are also briefly considered.

Co-operation: The National Legislative Framework

At the national level the legislative frame work for law enforcement cooperation has been boosted through the enacted of two pieces of legislation in particular:

- The International Co-operation in Criminal Matters Act, no. 75,1996
- The Extradition Amendment Act,no.77 of 1996

Co-operation: The National Policy Framework

National policy frameworks of relevance in considering the priorities for co-operation between state and civil society as well as at the interstate level include:

- National Crime Prevention Strategy 1996
- National police plan and policing priorities and objectives 1997/8 19998/9

10.8 Co-operation: Regional Policy Frameworks

SADC Multilateral Agreement of Co-operation and Mutual Assistance in the field of crime combating specifies the areas of cooperation between law enforcement agencies and sets out conditions under which police officials may exercise right of entry into hosting countries. The former includes: exchange of crime related information, planning and execution of joint operations, border control and crime prevention in border areas, controlled delivery and technical assistance. Ratification of this agreement is currently in progress. Since the enactment of the agreement various cross-border operations have been executed.

It should be noted that, at present there is no readily accessible inventory of such collaborative ventures. Furthermore there is a need for critical assessments of the impact of such initiatives on crime control/prevention in the region.

SADC Regional Drug Control Programme (SRDCP) 1998-2002 was adopted by the Heads of State of Government in Maseru 1995 and the process of ratification by member states is still underway. Implementation of the protocol will take place through the SADC Regional Drug Control Protocol. Six main areas have been identified: Regional Capacity Building and Co-ordination, Legal Development, National Capacity Building and Co-ordination, Supply Reduction, Demand Reduction and Illicit Drugs and HIV/AIDS. The European Union has expressed support for the implementation of the programme.

Declaration and plan of Action on Drug Abuse and Illicit Trafficking Control in Africa (OAU). This plan of action was adopted by the 32nd Ordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government in July 1996. It aims at strengthening drug control institutions through regional co-operation.

African Common Position on Drug Abuse and Illicit Trafficking Control in Africa (OAU) 1998 was endorsed by the OAU Council of Ministers and Heads of State in June 1998. It profiles the drug and drug trafficking problem faced by the African continent and outlines international co-operation in this field. The document is currently being revised and will be submitted for consideration to the next meeting of the OAU Council of Ministers and Heads of State.

Zone of Peace and Co-operation in the south Atlantic (ZPCSA). In April 1996 a campaign was launched against the drug trade amongst the 24 nations ZPCSA. Information on traffickers is exchanged and member states are urged to enact forfeiture laws. It has been claimed that this agreement has developed successful policies in the area of denuclearization, environmental protection and drug trafficking.

The students of criminology should note here that a more substantive review of initiatives in the field of organized crime and drug trafficking needs to be undertaken. The social policies that shape actual co-operation on the ground also need to be scrutinized in order to ensure a balanced approach,

Bilateral agreement, Various bilateral agreements currently exist between South Africa and various other governments that set the terms for co-operation between law enforcement agencies.

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As in South Africa, Countries like India should have developed cooperation with other countries, At present information regarding such agreements are “not readily available. More detail on the form and content of such bilateral agreements are required as well as the operational activities pursued in terms of such agreements.

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10.9 Organizational Structures for Regional Co-operation

The SACD Desk at Foreign Affairs plays a facilititating role regional co-operation in the law enforcement field. It provides assistance with the signing of agreements and gives logistical support at regional conferences.

Interpol. South Africa gained readmission to Interpol in 1993. A Sub-Saharan Interpol Bureau was established in Harare in 1995 and commenced operation in February 1997. SAPS members are located at both the Harare office and at the General Secretariat in Lyons, France.

Interpol, Pretoria aims to “provide and efficient service to the various South African Police Service Units and to facilitate the utilization of the Interpol data base and infrastructure to the optimum investigation of crime”, More recently a decision was taken to establish an African organized crime database. close working relationship between the sub-bureau and SARPCCO exists.

Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-ordination Organisation (SARPCCO) formed in August 1995 this structure draws representation from twelve member countries. Its objective is to “promote, strengthen and perpetuate co-operation and foster joint strategies for the management of all forms of cross- border and related crimes with regional implications”. SARPCCO plays a particularly important faction the level of exchange of information, joint management of criminal records, and in providing support for joint operations. The body consist of a Council of Police Chiefs (the manin decision-making structure) and a permanent Co-ordinating Committee which comprises the Heads of the Criminal investigation Services and handles all policing/investigation functions. The Legal Subcommittee attends to legal harmonization and the promotion of mutual assistance on criminal investigations. The Training Subcommittee formulates systematic regional police training policies and strategies- Amnesty International has indicated interest in supporting regional police training initiatives.

The Inter-State Defence and Security Committee (ISDSC) of the SADC Organ on policy, Defence and Security is meant to focus on security co-operation and also attends to the harmonization of legislation. Its work is conducted through three subcommittees: Defence, Public Security and State Security. The Public security Subcommittee is expected to fulfil various co-ordination functions related to cross-border crime. Close working relationships were envisaged between this committee and SARPCCO with the latter acting as a vehicle for the implementation of decisions forged within ISDSC ranks. However, disputes between SADC and the Organ on the most appropriate locus of power of the Organ have generally impeded the structure’s ability to address the security challenges in the region and to partake into collaborative ventures.

United Nations Drug control Programme. The UNDCP is actively involved in a variety of assistance programmes within the SADC region. This structure has three manin responsibilities: treaty implementation, policy implementation and research and operational activities. The SAPS and the UN Office for Drug Control and crime Prevention (UN-ODCCP) have signed an agreement on drug law enforcement. This agreement also makes allowance for the deployment of international experts (from Interpol, the DBA, US and British customs department) to train South African counterparts. ODCCP has decentralizing its operations,

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with the African counterparts. ODCCP has been decentralizing its operations, with the African continent as a major beneficiary. A drug demand reduction strategy is to be pursued in Africa, based on assessment, capacity-building and technical co-operation (ACT). Furthermore, a law enforcement project is being developed to strengthen border controls and cooperation between South Africa, Swaziland and Mozambique against organized crime.

Drug Liaison Officers from South Africa have been posted to various countries such as the UK, Brazil, Mozambique, Swaziland and Ghana. In turn, South Africa hosts Drug Liaison Officers from a variety of countries e.g. US and UK.

Students are reminded that the example of South Africa is taken where the international cooperation in Crime Prevention is commending and worth mentioning.

Regional co-operation remains adversely affected by political tensions amongst member states on the one hand and inter-institutional rivalry amongst key structures on the other. Furthermore the quest for co-operation has to contend with resource constraints as well as a dire lack of infra-structural capacity within state institutions of the region. SARPPCO is generally regarded as one of the most successful agencies on the regional front and is likely to attract international support in future. Whilst the structure has a natural predisposition toward a narrowly defined law enforcement role (as opposed to broadly defined crime prevention one) it is a predisposition which needs to be challenged.

10.10 Co-operation: International Frameworks

The 1998 UN Draft Convention for the Suppression of Transnational Organised crime is considered a major global initiative to counteract organised cartels. SA participated in the UN-sponsored meeting in early 1998. This Convention will expand opportunities for judicial co-operation and is expected to contain protocols on firearms and trafficking in human beings. The date of enforcement was late 1999.

1998 UN Convention Against Illicit in Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances is the most critical of UN conventions. It attempts to promote international Co-operation to combat the illicit traffic in narcotic drugs. States are expected to take specific law enforcement measures to improve their capacity to identify, arrest, prosecute and convict drug traffickers. Signatories are provided with a framework of measures to promote co-operation and are obliged to prohibit the cultivation of various drugs (cannabis, opium and the coca bush). The convention also aims at depriving those involved in drug trafficking of the proceeds of their crime. South Africa became a signatory in 1998. Signatory governments are obliged to comply with requests for the extradition of drug offenders and to provide legal assistance in criminal prosecutions. Article 7 in particular makes provision for member states to receive law enforcement assistance and training. The Convention has been a powerful engine for strengthening domestic narcotic laws.

10.11 Official Donor Assistance (ODA) and State Capacity

ODA constitutes a critical resource in building strong institutions (both within and beyond the state) capable of effective co-operation. In the SA case official donor assistance amounts to less than 2% of its annual budget. A sizeable proportion of overall ODA, particularly in the form of grants and technical assistance, is earmarked for good governance and democracy. Donor support in the area of Governance and Democracy constitutes approximately 8% of overall ODA. For the period 1994 to 1998 the justice cluster has received about R256 Million in ODA.

According to a recent influential report, the system of donor aid suffers from various ailments (at both the central and sectoral level) and is thus “not functioning optimally”. It is against this backdrop that the report suggests “that a concerted effort should be made to improve it as far as practically possible in order to gain the greatest possible benefit from their valuable resource. “Support for the findings of this report is to be found elsewhere too. In recent months various recommendations to streamline the system of Official Donor Assistance have been forthcoming. Such recommendations include:

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- Devising a macro policy framework and implementation guide for ODA based on a strategic review of priorities
- Developing a proactive strategy in procuring and managing ODA
- Streamlining structures and processes to allow for better co-ordination efforts at all levels
- Ensuring better provincial integration in to the ODA system
- Examining ways of apportioning donor resources both. sectorally and geographically
- Enhancing data capturing capacity on donor assistance programmes
- Profiling civil society organizations as worthy recipients of donor funds in the field of governance and security

Students are requested to note that against the backdrop of the above-mentioned challenges there is a specific need for clarification of the role of the NCPS in the quest for streamlining the management of ODA processes in line with specific policy frameworks and in pursuit of the expansion of service delivery in the terrain of crime prevention.

The local Neighborhood can be organized to deal effectively with its own problems. In these areas are remarkable untapped resources in human leadership.

-Clifford R. Shaw, Founder, Chicago Area Project

What is Chicago Area Project (CAP)?

Who is Clifford R. Shaw?

What is CAP's Mission?

What is Cap's philosophy?

What are Cap's goals?

What are cap's Objectives?

What is a CAP affiliate?

What are the guidelines for affiliates?

What is a CAP programme?

What is a Special Project?

What is the role of the CAP Board of Directors?

What are the responsibilities, functions, and commitments of the CAP Board of Directors?

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What is Chicago Area Project (CAP)?

The Chicago area Project was created in the 1930s by the sociologist Clifford R. Shaw to address the problems of juvenile delinquency in some of the poorest communities in Chicago. The values and philosophy of CAP are centered around improving the quality of neighborhood life with special focus on solving problems faced by young people and their families.

Through its many affiliate programmes, CAP provides direct services to diverse communities throughout Cook County. Through its community based affiliate organizations and special projects, the CAP staff collectively provides human and financial resources to its affiliates to promote leadership in youth, their parents and their entire community.

Who is Clifford R. Shaw?

A sociologist who devoted his life to finding the causes of crime in large cities, Clifford R. Shaw came from a small community in rural Indiana. He was born in 1896 in Luray, Indiana, the fifth of ten children. His father was a farmer and owned a small general store.

Shaw often related his own brush with delinquency as a young boy. Caught stealing bolts from a blacksmith, Shaw was initially scolded by the blacksmith and then asked why he took the bolts. Later, the blacksmith helped Shaw repair his toy wagon with the bolts. This experience was used by Shaw to illustrate small town reaction to delinquency, and the importance of reincorporating the offender into conventional society became a key component in his methods to dissuade a youngster from committing future crimes.

While in graduate school at the University of Chicago, Shaw worked part-time from 1921-1923 as a parole officer for the Illinois state Training School for Boys at St. Charles, Illinois. From 1924-1926, he was a parole officer at the Cook County Juvenile Court. Many of his ideas grew out of these "real life" experiences, as well as his association with colleagues at University of Chicago Institute for Juvenile Research.

In 1927, Shaw was appointed director for the newly created Department of Research in Sociology. Working with Henry McKay, whom Shaw had known in graduate school, he plotted the residences of official delinquents on maps of Chicago and found them to be overwhelmingly concentrated in areas adjacent to commerce and industry. This concentration of crime in specific areas over long periods of time was offered as striking evidence against the then-popular theory that psychological factors were the cause of crime.

Shaw also developed the use of personal life-history of individual delinquents and criminals, which he gathered through contacts at reform schools and prisons. Several were published containing the official Juvenile and criminal records of the individual along with the delinquent's biography told in his own words. In 1930, the first of these autobiographies, *The Jack Roller*, was published and it became a classic in criminology. The life-history approach was used by Shaw to explain how the social factors which dominated areas of high crime were responsible for encouraging delinquents' acts, not any particular personality flaws on the part of the delinquent.

In 1932, the Chicago Area Project was begun in three of the city's highest crime areas to test juvenile delinquency prevention techniques. As director of the research department and later as CAP's first director, Shaw developed both private and public sources of funding to

expand the programme to other areas of Chicago throughout the 40s. His failing health during the last ten years of his life lessened his activist role and he died in 1957 before the full impact of the Chicago Area Project on public policy was realized.

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The Chicago Area Project became the prototype for delinquency prevention and welfare programmes. Its principles of community organization, self-determination, and using natural leader indigenous to neighborhood were quite radical when first proposed by Shaw in the early 1930s, but are used by many groups today to successfully solve local problems.

What is Cap's Mission?

The Chicago Area Project (CAP) is a private, not-for-profit organization with a distinguished history and demonstrable track record of over sixty years of work in delinquency prevention and service in disadvantaged urban neighborhoods. The original mission of CAP has not changed since its inception:

To work toward the prevention and eradication of juvenile delinquency through the development and support of affiliated local community self-help efforts, in communities where the need is greatest.

What is Cap's philosophy?

Chicago Area Project's philosophy is to improve the quality of neighborhood life with the special focus on solving problems faced by young people and their families. The agency believes that residents must be empowered through the development of community organizations so that they can act together to improve neighborhood conditions, hold institutions serving the community accountable, reduce anti-social behaviour by young people, protect them from inappropriate institutionalization, and provide them with positive models for personal development.

What are CAP's goals?

The goals of Chicago Area project are to develop special projects and establish locally controlled organizations that implement the directives put forth in Cap's mission and philosophy. Projects and affiliates are mandated to positively impact areas in the Chicago vicinity with high rates of juvenile delinquency or other symptoms of social disorganization.

What are Cap's Objectives?

The objectives for Chicago Area Project projects and affiliated organizations include the following:

- To develop local leadership broadly representative of the communities that are being served.
- To conduct an annual community survey to assess needs and develop an action plan with a clear set of goals and objectives.
- To improve the climate for the positive development of young people by achieving such improvements as increases in educational achievement levels and vocational skills.
- To develop young people's leadership skills by involving them in youth initiated community improvement activities or in cooperative projects with adults.
- To set measurable goals and show progress in improving undesirable conditions.

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- To demonstrate an ability to raise funds, manage staff, and be accountable financially and programmatically.
- To promote and inform the community about all the programmes.
- To develop a referral/resource network with other agencies and institutions.
- To develop and maintain all contractual record keeping documents as required.

What is the CAP Model?

The Cap model uses a three pronged approach to address issues affecting youth, families, and communities:

Advocacy: Chicago Area Project is dedicated to advocacy on behalf of youth and other resident concerns.

Direct Service: CAP provides direct service for youth and adults.

Community Organizing: CAP facilitates community organizing directed toward improving the quality of neighborhood life.

Cap believes in strengthening Chicago's neighborhoods through action. Nothing offers a greater chance for raising a child who shares society's values than a neighborhood where everyone works together in a positive, cooperative way to care for the children growing up in their community, But how do you mobilize a neighborhood? How do you get people to work together? can a child survive the complicated urban problems our inner-city neighborhoods face?

The answer lies in tapping the natural leadership and concern for community found within each neighborhood. while some delinquency prevention programmes try to impose outside policies upon local residents, the Chicago Area Project's philosophy is to encourage the people who live in the neighborhood to seek their own solutions. This is done by forming a community committee as the primary force for change. The committee consists of local citizens who encourage participation and effective representation in decisions affecting their neighborhood.

The Chicago Area Project has over 40 affiliates and special projects throughout the city. Over the years, the programmes and issues have changed. just as the neighborhood change. But the democratic ideals of self-determination and self-improvement remain the same and these key principles of the Chicago Area Project continue to serve its neighborhood.

What is a CAP affiliate?

An affiliate is a community organization formally accepted by CAP to become part of its organizational structure. Acceptance is based on commitment to adhere to the CAP programme model. Affiliates are an integral part of Cap's contractual arrangement with funders. Resources from CAP are detailed in bilateral agreement documents between CAP and each affiliate.

What are the guidelines for affiliates?

A community organization formally accepted by CAP to become part of its organizational structure must follow the following guidelines. Acceptance is based on

commitment to adhere to CAP programme model expressed through the following operational standards:

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- Have written bylaws outlining governance principle of leadership.
- Governance structure is based on democratic principles of leadership.
- Organization operation comforts with democratic principles of leadership.
- Has a membership base comprised at least 51% community residents.
- Non-sectarian in all respects (e.g. membership, participation not based on race religion, ethnicity, etc.)
- Maintains “good standing” status as a charitable organization.
- Federal tax exempt status is a goal.
- Complies with all local, state and federal laws.
- Adheres to all CAP’s policies and governing affiliates.
- Complies with all contracts and agreements with respect to specific programmes.
- Meets programme/service targets as a well as a resource obligations of contract/agreement.

What is CAP programme?

A programme is an organized activity or set of activities, designed to provide constructive outlets for addressing social, economic and other needs that have a direct or indirect influence on the quality of life of participants, Under the CAP model, programmes are a means toward the end of getting those affected to take steps that will remedy their problems by getting to their root causes. Within the context of “community”, members’ involvement in the process is key. A further aspect is the “utilization of community resources as a definite strategy, as well as the development of community organizations to orchestrate this process. CAP programmes include the community Service Programme (CSP). Community Organizing (CO). Juvenile Justice Diversion, and Title XX.

What is a Special Project?

Special projects are assigned to departments within CAP, and are designed to address specific problems within a specified time frame. The departmental director has the responsibility for project management, as well as insuring that the project is implemented in accordance with Cap’s policies. CAP special projects include African American Male Rites of passage (ROP) Mentoring, Training & Employment (MTE), the Open Book Programme, the Statewide youth Advisory board, Teen Reach. Women in Transition (WIT), and Youth as Resources (YAR) Youth Net (Phillips High School), and Youth Net (Resoled).

What is the role of the CAP Board of Directors?

The Chicago Area Project’s (CAP) Board of Directors has been integral to the organization’s mission from the beginning. To attain the goal of providing a staff, and to secure private funds and other resources, Clifford R. Shaw organized a group of prominent business, civic, and professional leaders into Cap’s first board of directors.

The members of that Board of Directors were successful in interesting of the State of Illinois to provide pervade personnel for the new delinquency prevention programme. Thus, the foundation was laid upon which Chicago Area Project was built. over the year, cap's Board of Directors has continued to help build the organization through its oversight and interest in issues and programmes that affect youth, families, and communities. The membership the CAP Board is made up of eminent and concerned leaders from the Chicago metropolitan Area. that leadership has included people like Elliott Donnelley and Ernest W. Burgess.

Today, juvenile justice and tapping the natural leadership and concern for community found within each neighbourhood remain a primary concern for the board. The Board abheres to the CPA model and methodology that stresses advocacy, direct service, and community organizing.

What are the responsibilities, functions, and commitments of the CAP Board of Directors?

Responsibilities

There are six principle areas of responsibility for board members. they are:

Policy Making- determining the mission and setting the polices that ensure that both the organization's charter and legal requirements are met.

Planning- Short, medium, and long- tern. Setting broadly stated goals and more specific objectives for the development of the organization as a whole.

Fiscal Responsibility- establish fiscal boundaries, polices, budgets, and financial controls through approval and monitoring of the organization's budget.

Fund raising- providing adequate resources for the operation of the organization and consistently seeking further funding opportunities for organizational development.

Hiring and working with the Chie Executive- The key relationship between ht board and the staff of the organization involving appointment, monitoring, and evaluation if performance.

Public Relations- providing an important link between the organization and diverse communities and audiences for the promotion and development of Cap's work

Functions

Three important functions of the Board are:

Question- inquiry is probably one of the most important functions of board members. This means being prepared to ask tough questions, seek information, clarification, and explanations about the operation of CAP. The Board must not be lulled into irresponsibility by superficial indicators, tranquility of the assurances of staff.

Challenge- listening carefully and presenting alternative views, perspective, and strategies. A useful board members is considerably more than a human rubber stamp. Open communication is important and alternative helpful in checking the validity of ideas, policies, and practices.

Support- finding the way for board members' skills and capabilities to work in harmony with Cap's mission and operation. this can be shown in many ways: personal relationship; active

participation in CAP activities; financial and in-kind contributions; and enabling organizational growth through new ideas, relationship, and resources.

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Commitments

The commitments of Board membership include:

- The commitment to serve carries with it a responsibility to support the board and the organization within the established framework.
- to agree to serve on at least on committee or task force, attend all meetings, and participate in the accomplishment of its objectives.
- To establish a high priority of attendance at all meeting of the Board and the committees and task forces on which members serve.
- To come prepared to contribute to the discussion of issues and business to be addressed at scheduled meetings, having read the addenda and all background support material relevant to the meeting.
- To observe the parliamentary procedures outlined in Cap's condensed Parliamentary Procedure.
- To avoid conflicts of interest between the position as a Board Member and personal/business life. If such, a conflict arises, the board member is expected to declare that conflict before the Board, and refrain from voting or discussing matters in which the conflict rests.
- To support in a positive manner all actions taken by the Board of Directors even when personally on such actions.
- To represent CAP in a supportive manner at all times and in all places. To honour confidentiality.
- To refrain from intruding in administrative issue tat are the responsibility of staff, except as required to exercise the oversight function.
- To participate in all Board development programmes designed to enhance the effectiveness of the performance of Board members. To participate in the annual Board Self- Assessment process.
- To visit affiliates on a regular basis.

10.12 Conference to honour Shaw's work on Juvenile Crime Prevention

Chicago sociologist noted for work in city's neighbourhoods. A conference honouring the work of Clifford Shaw, a leading Chicago figure in juvenile crime prevention who studied sociology at the University was help.

"Shaw was both a great sociologist and a humanitarian," said Robert Sampson, Professsor in Sociology. Sampson was an organizer of the conference, a programme for juvenile crime prevention that Shaw founded in 1932.

Sampson said is best known for two contributions to the study of delinquency: that use of autobiographical documentation as a source of data on life histories, and the study of

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multiple city neighbourhoods to understand differences in social organization that lead to high rates of juvenile delinquency.

The conference recognizes the 100th anniversary of Shaw's birth. Shaw received his B.A. from Adrian College and was a graduate student at the University from 1919 to 1924 while working at a Chicago settlement house and as a probation officer for the Cook county juvenile court. He later served as executive director of the Chicago Area Project until his death in 1957.

The Chicago Area Project began with a focus on the city's three highest crime areas, establishing independent neighbourhood organization in those areas to combat juvenile delinquency. As executive director, Shaw expanded the programme to include a broader range of city neighbourhoods. The project's work continues till today in neighborhoods throughout the city and suburbs.

The conference also discussed the following:

- International Crime
- History
- Purpose of Interpol
- Cooperation Principle
- Member Countries

The Word 'INTERPOL' is radio- telegraph code for the international criminal Police Organization which consists of 182 member countries who have agreed to "ensure promote the widest possible between all criminal police authorities in the prevention and suppression of ordinary law crimes" the Organization's headquarters is in Lyon, France.

The INTERPOL organization now incorporates 182 member countries, an intergovernmental organization second in size only to the United Nations, where Interpol also has observer status. International police co- operation has become increasingly complex: differing legal systems, definitions of crimes, rules for evidence, varying responsibilities between law enforcement and judicial services, incompatible extradition laws, incompatible information systems, restrictions on sharing information. These are just a few of the barriers Interpol strives to help the world overcome in the fight against ever higher levels of international crime.

One thing it does not have is the Interpol agents or detective who travel the world over, chasing spies, murderers, etc. and conducting investigations in different countries, The I.C.P.O.- INTERPOL in fact, is an international police organization to extend co- operation for co- ordinate action on the part of member countries and their police forces which may furnish or request for information or services for combating- international crime.

10.13 International Crime

The development of increasingly sophisticated facilities for rapid travel has made it far easier for criminals to move around the world. At the same time, the complex structures of modern societies and the constant growth of international exchanges provide more and more opportunities for international criminal activity, which has now reached alarming proportions.

But the term "international crime" although in common use, does not necessarily refer to a specific category of offence defined in law.

Some offences are covered by international conventions, for instance currency-counterfeiting (1929 Convention) traffic in human beings and the exploitation of prostitution (1949 Convention), and drug trafficking (1988 Convention).

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Other offences however can be class as “international” because of the behavior of the offenders. For instance, preparations for committing and offence may be made in one country while the actual offence is committed in one or more other countries. To take another example, similar offences may be committed one after the other in several different countries. Finally, on offender may escape across a border after committing his offence, he may transfer his illicit gains aboard, or he may conceal objects or documents used to commit the offence in another country.

Tracing and arresting such offenders may prove extremely difficult; problems can arise in connection with exchanging information, identification, international investigations and subsequent extradition. Because of these problems, police departments in different courtiers must work together if they are to combat international crime successfully.

History

The principles and procedures governing international police co- operation have grown up gradually over the year to form the present INTERPOL system.

1914 During the First international Criminal police congress help in Monaco from 14th to 18th April, legal experts and police officers from 14 different countries and territories studied the possibility of establishing an international criminal records office and of harmonizing extradition procedures.

The outbreak of the First World War prevented any further progress.

1923 The Second international police Congress met in Vienna, Austria, and set up the international Criminal Police Commission (I.C.P.C) with its own statutes, and official Headquarters in Vienna. The I.C.P.C. operated satisfactorily until the out break of ht Second World War but was essentially a European organization.

1946 After the Second World War, a conference was help in Brussels to revive the I.C.P.C. and the whole concept of international police co- operation. New Statues were adopted and the commission’s Headquarters moved to paris.

“INTERPOL” was chosen as the telegraphic address of the Headquarters.

1956 the I.C.P.C. became the international criminal police Organization- INTERPOL, abbreviated to ICPO- INTERPOL

1966 The ICPO- INTERPOL General Secretariat moved into its present headquarters building Saint Cloud, outside Paris.

1973 The organization celebrated its fiftieth anniversary at its birth place, Vienna.

1984 the new Headquarters Agreement signed with the French Government came into force.

1989 On 27th November, the Organization’s new Headquarters building in Lyons was officially inaugurated.

2003 Sh. P.C.Sharma, the then Director/ CBI and Head of NCB- India was elected as vice- president for Asia for the period 2003- 2006

2004 the number of member states reached 182.

Purpose of Interpol

Under Article 2 of the Organization's Constitution, Interpol's aims are:

- To ensure and promote the widest possible mutual assistance between all criminal police authorities, within the limits of the laws existing in the different countries and in the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
- To establish and develop all institutions likely to contribute effectively to the prevention and suppression of ordinary law crimes,"

The limits of its operation are laid down in Article 3:

"It is strictly forbidden for the Organization to undertake any intervention of activities of a political, military, religious or racial character.

According to the interpretation given to Article 3, a political offence is one which is considered to be of a predominantly political nature because of the surrounding circumstances and underlying motives, even if the offence itself is covered by the ordinary criminal law in the country in which it was committed,. This interpretation, based on the predominant aspects of the offence, is embodied in a resolution adopted by Interpol's general Assembly in 1951.

In addition, a resolution adopted in 1984 states that, in general offences are not considered to be political when they are committed outside a "conflict area" and when the victims are not connected with the aims or objectives pursued by the offenders.

10.14 Co- operation Principles

International police co- operation within the ICPO- INTERPOL has always been conducted in accordance with the guiding principle listed below.

- **Respect for national sovereignty**

Co- operation is based on the actions taken by the police forces in the various member States, operating within their own national boundaries and in accordance with their own national laws.

- **Enforcement of ordinary criminal Law.**

The Organization's field activities are limited to crime prevention and law enforcement in connection with ordinary criminal offences. This is the only basis on which there can be agreement between all member states.

- **Universality**

Any member state may cooperate with any other and co- operation must not be impede by geographical of logistic factors.

- **Equality of all Members States.**

All the member state is provided with the same services and have the same rights, irrespective of the size of their financial contributions to the Organization.

- **Co- operation with other agencies**

Co- operation is extended through the National Central Bureaus to any Government agency concerned with combating ordinary criminal offences.

- **Flexibility of working methods**

Although governed by principles designed to ensure regularity and continuity, working methods are flexible enough to take account of the wide variety to structures and situations in different countries.

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Respect for these principles means that Interpol cannot have teams of detectives with supranational powers who travel around investigating cases in different countries. International police cooperation has to depend on co-ordinate action on the part of the member states' police forces all of which may supply or request information or services on different occasions.

Member Countries

Afghanistan	Guinea	Qatar
Albania	Guinea- Bissau	Romania
Algeria	Guyana	Russia
Andorra	Haiti Honduras	Rwanda
Angola	Hungary	St. Kitts& Nevis
Antigua& Barbuda	Iceland	St. Lucia
Argentina	India	St. Vincent& the Grenadines
Armenia	Indonesia	Sao Tome & Principe
Aruba	Iran	Saudi Arabia
Australia	Irag	Senegal
Austria	Ireland	Serbia & Montenegro
Azerbaijan	Israel	Seychelles
Bahamas	Italy	Sierra Leone
Bahrain	Jamaica	Singapore
Bangladesh	Japan	Slovakia
Barbados	Jordan	Slovenia
Belarus	Kazakhstan	Somalia
Belgium	Kenya	South Africa
Belize	Korea (Republic of)	Spain
Benin	Kuwait	Sri Lanka
Bolivia	Kyrgyzstan	Sudan
Bosnia- Herzegovina	Laos	Suriname
Botswana	Latvia	Swaziland
Brazil	Lebanon	Sweden
Brunei	Lesotho	Switzerland

Bulgaria	Liberia	Syria
Burkina faso	Libya	Tajikistan
Burundi	Liechtenstein	Tanzania
Cambodia	Lithuania	Thailand
Cameroon	Luxembourg	Togo
Canada	Magedonia (former)	Tonga
Cape Verde	Yugoslav (Republic of)	Trinidad& Tobago
central African Repiblic	Madagascar	Tunisia
Chad	Malawi	Turkey
Chile	Malaysia	Turks and Caicos (UK)
China	Maldives	Uganda
Colombia	Mail	Ukraine
Comoros Republic of	Malta	United Arab Emirates
Congo	Marshall Islands	United Kingdom
Congo Rep. Dem. of ex Zaire	Mauritania	United States
Costa Rica	Mauritius	Uruguay
Cot d'Ivoire	Mexico	Uzbekistan
Croatia	Moldova	Venezuela
Cuba	Monaco	Vietnam
Cyprus	Mongolia	Yemen
Czech (Republic)	Morocco	Zaire
Denmark	Mozambique	Zambia
Djibouti	Myanmar	Zambia
Dominica	Namibia	U.K. Sub Bureaus
Dominican Republic	Nauru	Anguilla
Ecuador	Nepal	Bermuda
Egypt	Netherlands	British Verging islands
El Salvador	Netherlands Antilles	Cayman Islands
Equatorial Guinea	New Zealand	Gibraltar
Eritrea	Nicaragua	Monsterrar
Estonia	Niger	Turks& Caicos
Ethiopia	Nigeria	U.S.Sub Bureaus

Fiji	Norway	American Samoa
Finland	Oman	Commonwealth of the
France	Pakistan	Northern Mariana Islands
Gabon	Panama	Guam
Gambia	Papua New Guinea	Puerto Rico
Germany	Paraguay	U.S. Virgin Islands
Georgia	Peru	Portugal Sub Bureau
Ghana	Philippines	Macao
Greece	Poland	China Sub Bureau
Grenada	Portugal	Hong Kong
Guatemala	Puerto Rico (USA)	

(Space for Hints)

INTERPOL (in brief)

Criminality has become a global phenomenon in the modern computer age. The tendons growth in the means of transport and inter- communications has brought in its wake new problems of criminality. Now-a- days escape by air or sea is at common feature resorted to by criminals who operate on an international plane. The dangers of international crime have to be faced squarely by all the nations. Therefore, every individual country has its own international agency to tackle the problems of international crime. This agency is familiarly known as 'INTERPOL' [International (criminal) Police Organization] which concerns itself mainly with the establishment of direct contact with the police forces outside the ordinary channels of diplomacy. The affected country' makes a friple request to INTERPOL to seek, hold and deliver the criminals.

INTERPOL has assumed great importance in recent years due to rising incidence of trafficking in drugs, gold, stones, forgeries of traveler's cheque, documents passports and counterfeiting of currency notes. The assistance of INTERPOL is invariably sought in making arrest of criminals involved in hijacking of aero planes.

The activities of INTERPOL also include searching and cahsing of international criminals; circulatin of information regarding international crime and criminal gangs received from member police forces, assisting in arrest of international criminals and making arrangements for keeping them under surveillance, pending their extradition.

The purpose of INTERPOL (International Criminal police Organisation) is

(1) "to ensure and promote the widest possible between all criminal police authorities within the limits of the laws existing in different countries and in the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights", and

(2) "to establish and develop all institutions likely contribute effectively to the prevention and suppression of ordinary crimes.

In short, the Interpol enables the police forces in different countries to co- ordinate their work effectively in the areas of law enforcement and crime prevention: It refrains from

indulging in any activity relating to cases- which have a political, military, religious or racial character.

Model Questions:

1. State the circumstances under which easement are extinguished.
2. State law regarding revival of easement.
3. Define license and distinguish between licence and easement.
4. State in what cases a licence is deemed to be a lease.

10.15.Key words

Termination	–	Cancellation
Enjoyment	–	Using
Suspension	-	Stopping

10.16. Answer to CYP questions

For Question No 1 - Refer section 10.1

For Question No 2 - Refer section 10.2

For Question No 3 - Refer section 10.4

For Question No 4 - Refer section 10.5

For Question No 4 - Refer section 10.7

For Question No 4 - Refer section 10.9

10.17.Model Questions

(A) Short Answer Questions

1. What is CAP?
2. What is Cap's Mission?
3. What are the six principle areas of responsibility for board members?

(B) Breif Answer Questions

1. Explain about official donor Assistance (ODA) and state capacity.
2. What are the role of the CAP Board of Directors?
3. Explain the Co-Operation principles.

Model Questions

1. Write an essay the dire necessity of international cooperation in crime prevention, This can be highlighted with some illustrations.
2. Describe in brief the international perspectives in Crime Preventions.
3. Explain in detail the role of Interpol in crime prevention.
4. Examine the four principal theories regarding the origin of criminal law.
5. Elucidate the contribution of Beccaria for the development of Criminology.
6. What are the characteristics of organized crimes.
7. Explain Bonger's economic theory of criminology.
8. Poverty is the major cause of Crime.
9. "A criminal is not born but made"- Discuss.
10. "Crime is a social abnormality due to economic influences"- Discuss.
11. Whether capital punishment is to be retained? Critically examine.
12. Recidivism as a phenomenon raises questions which penology finds it difficult to answer"-Elucidate this statement.
13. What are the special problems of investigations and trial of white collar crimes in India
14. "The notion of crime is not only different in different ages but it also varies in different countries"- Explain.
15. Examine the three important inter- related divisions of criminology.
16. Explain the conflict between punitive and treatment reactions.
17. Examine critically the various views for retention of capital punishment.
18. Suggestions the changes to be made in criminal law and procedure for prevention of crime
19. What are causes of Juvenile Delinquency
20. Critically evaluate the contribution of the psychiatric school of criminology to
21. Define: Setting, Practice and Programme.
22. Enumerate the seven institutional settings that are involved in crime prevention,
23. Bring out the importance of the interdependence of these factors for effective crime prevention.

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Previous year question papers

OCTOBER 2008

PREVENTION OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Time: Three hours

Maximum : 100 marks

Answer any FIVE questions.

(5x20=100)

1. Examine how far educational programs have assisted crime prevention activities.
 2. Write short notes on :
 - (a) Recidivism
 - (b) Training and assistance of crime prevents acts.
 3. Define and explain about group relation's method and clinical method.
 4. Write short notes on:
 - (a) Reducing first offenders
 - (b) Environmental design
 5. What is corruption? Explain the measures to curb and control the problem of corruption.
 6. Even after various types of crime prevention programs the rate has crime hasn't come down much. Critically evaluate this statement.
 7. Elucidate about the programs aimed to reduce school failures.
 8. Examine the need and significance of socialization of youth at risk.
 9. Write short notes on :
 - (a) Community watch
 - (b) Neighbourhood watch
 10. What is an NGO? Explain the role of NGO'S in crime prevention, how far has it been successful in its responsibilities.
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Previous year question papers

MAY 2010

PREVENTION OF CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Time: Three hours

Maximum :100 marks

Answer any FIVE questions.

(5x20=100)

1. Explain the objectives of crime prevention programs. Trace the history of crime prevention.
 2. What are the various primary, secondary and tertiary crime prevention programs?
 3. Define and explain about mechanical method and mass method.
 4. Write short notes on
 - (a) Environmental design
 - (b) Punitive methods.
 5. Explain the crime prevention activities undertaken by the police.
 6. Examine how far police information centers and surveillance has helped in reduction of crime rate.
 7. Elucidate about the programs aimed at slums and bad family.
 8. Explain the process involved in demotivation of potential offenders.
 9. Explain the role played by friends of police and boys club in crime prevention activities.
 10. Examine the need for international cooperation in crime prevention.
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