CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF

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In this chapter various types of relevant researches have been presented in the summary form-

*Rangaswami and Bashyam (1993)* compared the aggressive behaviour of mentally in criminals and institutionalised mentally ill individuals. The sample comprised 28 offenders and 28 mentally ill individuals. Results revealed that mentally ill criminals expressed more hostile and aggressive behaviour which led to more disturbed ward behaviour compared to the institutionalised mentally ill individuals. *Diaz (1993)* discussed the prevention of victimisation in India within the integrated process of development covering offencevictim and offender-oriented strategies. Victimisation in India, increasing crime rate and vital aspects of crime prevention are highlighted. Cooperation from the community, political will and systematic enforcement of crime prevention measures are more effective in controlling victimisation in the long run. All development programmes should promote quality of life and social justice to the disadvantaged and prevention victimization of all kinds in particular and delinquency and crime in general.

*Tondon (1994)* examined the relationship between drug abuse and criminality. Some people believe that drug abusers exhibit high crime rates whereas others believe that a large proportion of criminals are drug addicts. The present study focused on the nature of crime drug abuse addicts get involved in prior to their addiction status. *Tripathi (1994)* analysed the drawbacks in the prosecution system as functional in increasing the crime rate in India. Prosecution in criminal courts in India
has failed due to non-cooperation of the public, unwillingness of witnesses, lengthy investigation procedure, lack of coordination between the investigating agency and the prosecuting agency, corruption, inefficiency of investigators and prosecutors, long delay in justice, expensive trial procedure and political interference. Among the measures suggested to reform the prosecution system are judiciary free of political interference, introduction of computers in courts, widening of the ‘Lok Adalat System’, appointment of law officers to guide investigation replacement of inefficient prosecutors and investigators, strengthening the police with more facilities, power and training, payment of compensation by the accused to the victim.

*Chopra (1995)* studied the effect of compromise on the complainant (woman victim) and the offenders (husband and in-laws) and the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the compromise made by the police. The study revealed that the scope of women cells needs to be enlarged as methods used by the police are inadequate in handling compromise cases. *Srivastava (1995)* identified some of the challenges facing the discipline of criminology in India and argued that the development of Indian criminology needs its own knowledge base, tradition and perspectives. Carefully planned studies of crimes and criminals of a non-traditional variety are required. Development can be associated with crime prevention instead of criminality by modernisation accompanied with rationalisation and humanisation of the criminal justice system. Criminal justice administration in India seeks the commitment of criminologists for producing policy specific writings.

*Mehra (1995)* examined the influence of peer groups of drug abuse and criminal behaviour of drug addicts and alcoholics. A sample of
200 drug addicts and alcoholics (aged 15-39 years) labelled as heavy, moderate, light, experimental and non-users according to the frequency of drug use responded to a questionnaire prepared for the study. Heavy and moderate users had a higher number of friends who used drugs whom they met frequently to use and to buy/sell drugs. They were more prone to commit predatory and nonpredatory crimes in connivance with these friends than light and experimental users.

Bharadwaj (1995) estimated the level of ego strength among different types of male prisoners (accused and convicts) from different literacy and socio-economic status background. Findings revealed that (a) weak ego strength was a prominent factor in the criminal’s personality, (b) illiterate convicts and literate accused from middle and upper middle socio-economic status had weak ego strength and (c) illiterate accused and literate convicts from middle and upper middle classes and literate accused from lower middle class had weaker ego strength. Sindwani & Chowdhry (1996) compared the rate of incidence of five categories of crime in the USA and India and Houston and Delhi as reported by the respective government for the year 1991. Lower rates of all categories of crime in India than in the USA have been described to socio-cultural factors. While most of the Houstonians believed that the use of drugs and guns contributed to crimes, Delhi residents considered population explanation and illiteracy as the major contributing factors.

Srivastava (1996) discussed the existing political system and the possibly related criminogenic trends in India. The political processes which depend heavily on expressive violence and the institutionalisation of violence as a tool of success: a necessary adjust of political activism. Kaliappan (1996) also discussed the importance of police autonomy and
accountability in handling the emerging politics-crime-economy nexus. *Rustamji (1996)* presented an Indian view of the causation of crime and disorder focusing on its evolution and emphasised that the forces that have built society need to be understood and the fact that human kind must strive to socialise and bring together, debate understand and guard against the frenzis that effect individual and people in communal violence and terrorism.

*Sundarm and Madhava (1996)* examined the association between the victimisation experience and levels of fear in an urban community. Victimisation of the respondents and the frequency of its experience, vicarious victimisation and its treatment by the police and courts constituted the victimisation experience. Major correlations were found between fear levels and victimisation experience. *Kodandaram (1997)* examined the social identity of criminals and drug dependent individuals. The sample comprised 30 drug dependents selected from the outpatient and inpatient department of the national Institute of mental health and neuroscience, Bangalore and 30 inmates of the central prisons Bangalore. Results indicated that no significant differences between drug addicts and criminals, both groups had scored high on the social Identity scale indicating degraded social identity.

*Aminabhabi (1997)* examined the level of criminality among high school students in relation to their adjustment problems and explores if there are any gender differences in the level of criminality. There was a positive relationship between adjustment problems and criminal tendencies among High School students. Findings also indicated that High School boys had significantly higher criminal tendencies than girls. *Yoshida (1997)* discussed the system of settlement out-of-court currently prevalent in
Japan and its influence on the victim’s attitude. The settlement out-of-court or compensation for damage is useful to recompense the economic loss and to heal the psychological pain. Criminal justice practitioners should be made aware of the “restorative justice” model which would be a sound and rational basis of formulating a criminal/victim policy. Schneider (1997) described the nature, pattern and etiology of criminal homicide and analysed the pattern and causes of different types of homicide such as serial and mass murders, assassinations and murders by children.

Mukherjee (1997) presented a socio-spatial analysis of crime against women in India with special references to Uttar Pradesh and found that such crimes mostly violent in nature, are related to high population density, lower literacy level and low sex ratio both at the micro and macro levels. At the micro level, however urbanisation exerts a greater influence in giving rise to criminality against the vulnerable section of society, that is women. Mathur (1997) discussed the causes of increasing domestic crimes in India with special focus on child abuse and emphasised the need for developing a well-planned and clear policy to control domestic crimes. Arumugaswamy (1997) discussed the accused-oriented nature of Indian criminal law and emphasised the need to compensate victims of violent crime under the criminal law and a mandatory provision may be made in the criminal procedure code for awarding compensation by the court to such victims. Taking cognisance of the present social reality, criminal courts should award satisfactory settlement to compensate the need and describing victims of crime which will be a fair and right step in the largest democracy of the world, India.

Kodandaram (1997) examined the social identity of criminals and drug dependent individuals to understand behavioural dysfunction by
employing a social psychological model called the social identity model. Two groups of 30 criminals and drug dependent individuals each were administered Sarbin's Conduct Impairment Scale. Findings indicated that both groups manifested similar personality characteristics, thereby confirming the earlier findings. Criminals and drug dependent individuals did not differ in their social identity, both groups manifested degraded social identity.

*Baroun, Sinha and Sen (1998)* compared criminals and non-criminals in their personality dynamics and degree of religiosity. The sample consisted 20 criminals (murders and dacoits) and 20 non-criminals in the age group of 21 to 31 years. Subjects were administered the standard progressive Matrices, the Religiosity scale, 16PF Questionnaire and TAT. Findings indicated that criminals were more religious than non-criminals. In the personality dimension, there was no absolute difference between criminals and non-criminals. However, there were differences in personality type among criminals.

*Singh and others (1998)* compared the degree and extent of social, economic, moral and religious values among 200 criminals (100 females and 100 males) and 200 non-criminals (100 females and 100 males). Results revealed that criminals were significantly different from non-criminals in all the values except economic value. Criminals as a whole, manifested lower levels of all values than their non-criminal counterparts and male criminals exhibited lower levels of different values.

*Singh and Kumar (1999)* compared the anxiety level of property and person female criminals with that of male criminals and non-criminals. The results revealed that female property criminals were
significant different from male person criminals and female person criminals who were significantly different from male property criminals. There was no significant difference between female person and property criminals. All criminal groups reported significantly higher level of anxiety than non-criminals. Female person criminals were the most and male non-criminals were the least anxious groups. Shanker (1999) discussed the applicability of geographic information systems (GIS) as a cartographic and analytical tool for the mapping of crime. GIS aid in capturing, storing, updating, manipulating, analysing and displaying the geographically represented information. GIS provide visual representation of crime data which can enhance the detection of crime patterns, make them more readable and facilitate comparison. Police agencies in the developed world utilise GIS technology in many ways.

Dave (2000) discussed the field realities and knowledge gained from a field action project in the police system spanning a period of 15 years. The co-option of the project by the state is aimed at including feminist practice in the police system, gender sensitisation for the police, etc. There is a need for the government to respond to violence against women with much more vigour and commitment. The convenient mindset that glorifies social work as voluntary and honorary, is said to result in underutilisation of trained social workers.

Rokach (2000) examined the influence of in carceration on the efficacy of coping with loneliness. A heterogeneous criminal population was divided into 5 homogeneous subgroups and their experience of loneliness was compared. Results indicated significant differences in the manner in which the criminals coped with loneliness. When the criminal
sample was divided according to offence type, there were differences in coping with loneliness amongst the criminal subgroups.

Recently, Srivastava (2000) compared 100 criminals and 100 normal persons of criminal felt of Bundelkhand region (Uttar Pradesh) and found that normal persons have more positive attitude towards their socio-cultural environment rather than the criminals. The criminal persons have more negative attitude towards their society, family, authority. The normal persons have more social desirability, extraversion, ego-ideal and empathy, while the criminal persons have more psychoticism, dogmatism, alienation, emotional instability, self-confidence and dominance.