

**SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF STREET CRIMES  
AMONG YOUTH: A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED  
DISTRICTS OF KHYBER PAKHTUNKHWA, PAKISTAN**



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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank Allah Almighty, the supreme creator of the universe and the ultimate source of guidance and knowledge, without His Special Blessings and Mercy; I would have not been able to accomplish this task. Countless blessings are on our beloved Prophet Muhammad (PBUH), the last messenger of Allah, who has enlightened the humanity with knowledge and wisdom. With utmost sincerity and gratitude, I wish to acknowledge few names who made this work possible through their honest and sincere contribution.

I extend my heartfelt thanks to my supervisor Prof. Dr. Niaz Muhammad, Chairman, Department of Sociology, for his undying support, encouragement and invaluable supervision that enabled me to accomplish this research work. He was truly a source of inspiration, motivation and enlightenment for me throughout this research process. Not only he played his role as supervisor but he also remained like a friend and mentor through this tough journey of six years. Thank you very much, sir, you were always with me, you responded me timely in person, by phone and email.

I also wish to thank my Co-supervisor Prof. Dr. Anwar Alam for his support, guidance and motivation. I always found him amicable in extending his help in my research and administrative support throughout.

I want to acknowledge the support of my family members, especially my respectable father and my respectable mother, who brought me up to the top of intellectual ladder. I salute their courage and greatness who endured many difficulties to enlighten me with the light of knowledge.

My thankfulness also extended to my brother Salman khan who stood against every odd time and give me his time to pursue this study. I deeply value the sincere contribution and support of him in the completion of this tremendous work as He always provided me the emotional and physical support.

Last but not the least; I honestly acknowledge the contribution of my wife Faiza Israr, for her motivation, valuable suggestions, care and support. She did a wonderful job while helping me complete my Thesis.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIHRC	Afghanistan Independent Human Rights Commission
BJS	Bureau of Justice Statistics
ISRD	International Self-Report Delinquency Study
Hrw	Human right watch
NLSY	National longitudinal survey of youth
NSYC	National Youth in Custody Survey
KPK	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa
OSAC	Overseas Security Advisory Council
NACTA	National Counter Terrorism Authority
PCGN	Permanent Committee on Geographical Name
UNESCO	The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

## ABSTRACT

The present study titled as “Sociological Analysis of Street Crimes among Youth: A Case Study of Selected Districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan” was carried out in seven districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan, with focus on jails therein being the available places of target population. The major dimensions of the study encompassed the causes and impact of street crimes beside inmates’ perception towards offences they committed. The study objectives were focused on dimensions mentioned in foregoing lines. Quantitative approach was employed for data collection through structured questionnaire. A sample size of 300 youth offenders, having the age from of 15 to 29 years, was selected by applying Yamane’s formula with proportional allocation strategy for further distribution of samples in selected jails of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Basic data was analyzed through simple percentage distribution, whereas association between study variables was measured through bi-variate and multivariate analyses. The study findings reveal that mostly the selected respondents suffered physical punishment at the hands of their parents/guardians on trivial issues. Majority of the respondents experienced less familial support in education and financial needs, nor did they receive any recognition from their parents/guardians for good deeds. They often lend money from their friends and resultantly remained attached to such peer groups who were involved in diverse kinds of antisocial activities like physical fights, drugs trading etc. They were prone to violent media programs, which encouraged them to participate in various street crime. Furthermore, youth participation in street crimes had significant effects on employment opportunities, inmates’ education and divergent psychological problems like depression, stress and aggression. Findings of multivariate analysis show that in most cases harsh practices at family, lack of family support, attachment with delinquent

peer group, exposure to media and economic incompetence had highly significant relation as seen through income group with a level of below 40,000 PKR and literate group. However, the relationship between the social-economic and psychological impact of street offending was observed significant through background variables. Further, the inmates mentioned repentance for their misdeeds. Findings of the present study support the key assumptions of General Strain theory, proposing some goals (unachieved social status, economic incompetence and inability to achieve occupational goals) taking an individual to the arena of crimes if not fulfilled. Apart from it, the prevalence of noxious stimuli and removal of the positive stimuli significantly contributed to street offending behavior. Creation of job opportunities, economic development programs for youth like skill development as per human potentials, extensive socio-psycho therapies in jails, provision of vocational trainings in jails, community-based awareness programs regarding family practices, morality and youth socialization are some of the recommendations based on the findings of the study.

criminology focus on tracing out the causes and remedies of street crimes (Braithwaite, 1989a; Waqar, 2017).

## 1.1 Nature of Street Crimes: Global Overview

The exact data regarding the nature of youth participation in street crimes is not available in the existing literature. However, available literature on street crimes relating to developed and developing countries depicts that street crimes in Europe, the United State of America, and Australia, etc. are mostly committed by racist male youngsters. For instance, a report from the United Kingdom and other European countries explores that uptrend in street criminal incidences indicate that the majority of the male youth particularly placed in the age group of 14 to 17 year are indulged in street criminal activities (Fitzgerald et al., 2003; Lalander & Sernhede, 2011). Surprisingly, the main victims of these street crimes are also young people. Furthermore, not only male youth are involved in street crimes but a meagre per cent i.e. 5.7% of young girls are also participating in street crimes. It could be attributed to the fact that male youth are involved in street crimes for the purpose to develop their manhood on their respective streets (Brookman et al., 2007). In London, the areas where the incidents of street crimes frequently occur often have a high concentration of black youth (Fitzgerald et al., 2003). Likewise, in America, youth arrested in street crimes are disproportionately from a racial minority. Furthermore, females have usually less participation in violent street crimes (Burke et al., 2019; Lalander & Sernhede, 2011; Malcolm et al., 2006; Richard, Fiona, & Bennett, 2006). Furthermore, in Malaysia, street crime (mobile and purse snatching) occur primarily in urban and overpopulated areas in the early morning hours (OSAC, 2020; Soh, 2012). Factors and impacts of street crimes are comprehensively discussed in the forthcoming sections of this chapter.

## Chapter – I

### INTRODUCTION

Every country across the globe desires socio-economic development but the development of a country relies upon peaceful socio-economic, political, religious, administrative, environmental, demographic and psychological environments. However, the prevalence of crime negatively affects the socio-economic development paradigms. Anwar et al. (2015) indicate that crime affects every segment of the community and also generates fear and uncertainty that drastically impairs the quality of human life, hampers the process of development and disturbs societal peace and harmony. In addition, there is variation in the definition of crime, because it varies from culture to culture. However, crime is generally defined as an act prohibited by the statutory law that can be punished by fine, imprisonment or both. Rape, murder, robbery, and burglary are some of the common examples (Pollock, 2013). Whereas, street crimes are on the increase across the globe including Pakistan. It is a normative disorder embodied in cultural dynamics and non-conformity with prevalent social order. Street crime is a phenomenon, which contains deviant acts, endangering the life and property of an individual, leading to disturbing the prevalent social order; it includes robbery, carjacking, pickpocketing, larceny, rape, assault, murder, vandalism and burglary (Smith & Jonathan, 2003). Thus, street crime is a major act of violence that mainly affects the youth across the world. Different empirical studies revealed that mostly rowdy youths, drunk or aggressive people are involved in the commission of street crimes (Painter, 1996). Structural and functional dysfunctions could be adjusted, but variation to magnitude and nature of crime is often situational. Institutional approaches based on disciplines like sociology, psychology and

## 1.2 The Nature of Street Crimes in Pakistan

A bulk of research studies have disclosed that street crimes are mostly committed by male youth, while female participation in street crimes is very rare and mostly co-offence with male offenders. In addition, street crimes are not only committed by professional criminals as the majority of the offenders found guilty are inexperienced. The reason behind this is that street robbery is a stress-free crime needing slight planning. In the past, the commission of street crimes was only confined to urban areas but surprisingly it has spread now to all the major cities. The most vulnerable and common targeted snatching item is mobile phone and vehicle theft. In 2019, about 700,000 street crimes have been reported across the country. These crimes include mobile phone snatching, vehicles theft, street robbery, burglary and other petty thefts. It is observed that snatching-related street crimes are mostly done alone (Shaukat, 2019b). However, street robbery is committed mostly in the form of a group. It is worth mentioning here that the majority of the street crimes are not reported due to the tricky refusal of the Police Department. Exact statistics/ figures regarding street crimes at the country level or provincial level are not available. However, it is noteworthy that robbery, snatching of mobile phones, ladies purse snatching, carjacking, car lifting and motorbike lifting are the cases that are on the increase in Pakistan in general, and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in particular (Kashifullah, 2020).

## 1.3 Victim of Street of Crimes

Street crime is predominantly an intra-racial and intra-class problem, contrary to media myths, working-class families most likely experience their homes damaged or ripped off by street youths. The victims of street crimes in Europe and USA are

predominantly poor people especially those of Chicanos and blacks having residents in metropolitan areas. Moreover, those people who are less defensive and easily intimidated are the easy victims of street crimes (Tompson, 2010). A comprehensive Victimization Polls survey by LEA found that excluding theft, the most likely cases of serious crime of violence and property loss were the households with annual income under \$3000 (Platt, 2014). Another research study, applying similar indices, showed that jobless people were more likely than employed people to be offenders of street crimes at rates two to three times higher (Latimaha et al., 2019b). Similarly, the greatest level of violent street crimes and property related street crimes were observed among the poor, jobless and particularly among the over-exploited labour class and young men. Although violent crimes which account for less than 10% of street crime are a significant cause of victimization and demoralization among the working-class community (Platt, 2014; Smitpaul & Richard, 1973). Moreover, in Pakistan on daily basis, local native people, journalists and people from elite families are looted from valuables, cell phones and cash etc. In addition, students often remained the target of street crimes in Pakistan (Sumaira, 2018).

## 1.4 Hot Spots of Street Crime

Hot spots of street crimes are described as small areas where the incidence of crime is a constant phenomenon on regular basis (Sherman, 1995). Crime hot spots include locations such as public parks, apartment buildings, street corners, street segments, shopping malls and train stations where complaints to the police are lodged. Research finding of Schnell et al. (2019) conducted in U.S reveal that above half of the citizens reported crimes from 34% of all areas (Weisburd et al., 2012). The hot spot areas of crime have been identified by scholars from multiple disciplines including

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facts. Similarly, border relaxation along with insecure conditions of a country prompted the increase of crimes like human trafficking and sexual exploitation (Syed & Ahmed, 2013). Informal justice is another unforeseen factor, which may lead to the destruction of the prevailing social order (Bennett & Brookman, 2008). The existence of bars and taverns are observed as a reason for street crimes (Friedson & Sharkey, 2015; Pridemore & Grubestic, 2013; Sampson, 2012). Furthermore, breakdown of family, negligence, physical abuse and parental disorder are some of the leading factors for anti-social behaviour (Arney et al., 2014; Baron & Hartnagel, 1997a; Elijah, 2000; Pridemore et al., 2018; Richard & Topalli, 2013). Moreover, youth is placed at increasing risk to be involved in crime due to reasons like certain prenatal styles, parental conflict, faulty supervision, split family and poor economic condition of parents (Hay et al., 2006; Jagers et al., 2013). Affiliation with the gangster group causes anti-social behaviour amongst the teens. As the empirical study of Mccarthy and Hagan (1995) disclosed that attachment with criminal peer-group enhances youth participation in street crimes. Likewise, a recent study by Marotta (2017) reconfirmed that youth involvement in street crimes significantly upsurged by affiliation with peer groups engaged in similar offending behaviour. Interestingly, various scholars disclosed that covering different crime scenes through media contributes to human aggression, which further tends to fuel this vicious spiral towards criminality (Craig et al., 2003; Gentile, 2016a; Peiser & Heaven, 1996). Similarly, Nabi and Sullivan (2001) explored that youth spending time on media significantly enhances their involvement in street crimes. Likewise, an empirical study of Saeed et al. (2018) demonstrated that exposure to media violence significantly encourages youth participation in criminal activity.

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environmental planning, geography, social psychology, architecture, political science, criminology, social psychology and sociology in their respective studies. Recent empirical work on crime hot spot spaces include a range of scientific perspectives like routine activities, crime reduction through environmental designing and prevention of situational crimes etc. Researchers claim that crime is not a spontaneous phenomenon rather a product of variable factors such as environment and situational. In certain areas, the variables such as closeness to transport routes, construction designs, street lighting, easy accessibility to steel goods, supervision and guardianship open ways to street crimes. In other areas, such factors may deter street crimes from happening when there is a great degree of guardianship and uneasy access to steel goods (Liu et al., 2013). In Pakistan, most of the street crimes occurs in metropolitan areas, main streets, mini food streets and near the universities premises (Kashifullah, 2020). Furthermore, the incidence of street crimes also occurs near the ATM booth, highways and crowded areas.

## 1.5 Causative Factors Behind the Commission of Street Crimes

Silverman (2004) has explored the social order composition based on economic attainment in the shape of poor and non-poor as a profiling factor for the likelihood of emerging social deviance and economic deviance based on the leading values within the neighbourhood on the analogy of vicious circle. Harrington and Mayhew (2001) also advocate the mentioned causes and associate them with the worst socio-economic conditions. Alves et al. (2018) explain another dimension within the purview of social disorganization as an outcome of high population density, weak social institutions and loss of informal social control. Likewise, Jacobs and Wright (1999) have also established a link between robbery with status boosting based on the aforementioned

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## 1.6 Impact of Street Crimes on Youth Involved in Street Crimes

The occurrence of street crime in a particular society enhances the ratio of unemployment (Calvo-Armengol & Zenou, 2003), and have adverse effects on the economic growth of the county (Detotto & Otranto, 2010). In addition, crime contributes to a considerable social cost in the shape of security expenses, expenses of restoration of damages, costs of victimization and provision of health services expenses. At the same time, offenders also encounter the diverse consequences of their criminal acts. Hannon (2003) identifies that people in a society don't like a relationship with criminals and the majority of the offenders suffer from social stigma. Primarily, labelling theory also hints at the concept of offenders' stigma (Edwin, 1973; Scheff, 1971). Labelling theory depicts that a person who is labelled as a criminal adopts stigmatizing attitude, repudiates from the community, and conforms to a criminal identity (Edwin, 1973). Likewise, the labelled adolescent is more prone to exclusion from social activity (Zhang, 1994). It could be attributed to the work of Barry (2002), that those who are involved in the anti-social activity are excluded from social activities and other functions including little access to educational opportunities, meaningful employment and even not respected in society (Hobcraft, 2002). Moreover, several studies reveal that delinquency decreases an offender's chances of marriage, e.g. a person involved in criminal activity encounters difficulties in finding a partner of life as compared to a non-criminal (Ryan et al., 2007; Lopoo & Western, 2005; Svarer, 2011). Similarly, the empirical work of Marcia et al. (2004) pointed out that youth's offending behaviour could limit their marriageability and their criminal behaviour increases the apparent risks of abusing a potential partner. Apart from this, they also lose their jobs and face a decrease in the level of their income due to arrest or imprisonment (Lochner, 2004). Moreover, crimes affect

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offenders' access to legitimate opportunities in the job market and reduce their earning opportunities. For example, James (1981) argued that those ex-offenders have little earning income opportunity than non-offenders (Hardin, 1976; Witte & Reid, 1980). Another empirical work by Rud et al. (2013) emphasizes ascertaining the drastic impacts of unlawful activities on educational achievements where participation of youth in crimes generate negative consequences on the completion of education. Street crime is an ultimate resultant phenomenon pushed up by low socio-economic profile that triggers the highest degree of emotions and socio-psychological imbalance such as inferiority complex, personality disorder, aggression, frustration and relative deprivations with low self-control (Agnew, 2007; Boutwell & Beaver, 2010; Fergusson & Horwood, 1999; Gibson et al., 2010; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Heimer, 1997; Inzlicht et al., 2012). Moreover, Blevins et al. (2010) explored that the prevalence of mental health problems among youth criminals consequently surge by noxious experiences closely associated with participating in criminal activity e.g. Police custody, court trials, and imprisonment. Similarly, Sayed et al. (2016) pointed out that the offending behaviour of youth is contributing to severe depression and anxiety along with other psychological problems. In addition, a recent empirical study by Huesmann et al. (2017) explored that emotional distress among youth criminals was the outcome of offending behaviour. Moreover, Kinner et al. (2014) who collected data from 515 youth criminals in Victoria prison, explored the high prevalence of drugs dependencies, social exclusions and major symptoms of depression and other psychological disorders among these inmates. Clinkinbeard et al. (2011) stated that sleep disorders among criminals were the results of their offending behaviour. Further, about 11–81% of the jail inmates experienced insomnia e.g. sleeplessness.

## 1.7 Crime Trend in Pakistan

Table-1.1 illustrates the statistics of different types of crimes, including homicides, theft, burglary, vehicle-related thefts and victimless crimes reported in different years. The table simultaneously shows statistics of the total population and the ratio of crimes per hundred thousand populations. Pakistan's total population was 139.76 million in the year 2000 and the total number of registered crimes was 388909 while crimes per 100,000 populations were 278. Moreover, in 2005, the continuous increase in population led to 153.69 million and the total number of registered crimes jumped to 453264 and the ratio of crime per hundred thousand populations increased to 295. In 2010, the population increased to 173.51 million and the total number of reported crimes reached 583791, while crime per one hundred thousand populations rises to 336. Similarly, in 2015 the total population increased to 191.71 million, and crime figures reached 633299, while the ratio of crime dropped to 330 per one hundred thousand populations. The decline in crime ratio per one hundred thousand population could be attributed to the fact the sudden increase in population growth. In 2016, the growing population trend moved upwardly to 195.40, million and registered crimes increased to 677554, while crimes per one hundred thousand comparatively moved up to 347. An increase in the ratio per one hundred thousand population is the outcome of a slight increase in population growth and an uptrend in crimes compared to the year 2015. Furthermore, the total population was 207.9 million in 2017 and the total reported crimes were 683925, while the crime per one hundred thousand population dropped to 329. Fluctuation in crime ratio per one hundred thousand population is the result of high population growth and a low increase in crime rate. The total population of Pakistan in 2018 reached 212.2 million and the total reported crimes were 703481 while crimes per one hundred thousand reached 332.

**Table 1.1: Crime Trend in Pakistan**

Year	Total Population (In Million)	Total Crime in Numbers	Crimes Per Hundred Thousand Population
2000	139.76	388909	278
2005	153.69	453264	295
2010	173.51	583791	336
2015	191.71	633299	330
2016	195.40	677554	347
2017	207.9	683925	329
2018	212.2	703481	332

Source: (BOS, 2018; Mahmood, 2018)

## 1.8 Provincial Crime Data (1951-2017)

Table-3.5 illustrates data regarding the total number of reported crimes of Punjab, Sindh, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Baluchistan provinces from 1951 and 2017. In 1951, the number of registered crimes of the Punjab province was 50006, which surged to 405845, during the last 67 years. The rate of crime increased annually at the rate of 3.17% between 1951 and 2017. The table further reveals that the total number of registered crimes of Sindh were 15518 and this number increased to 70273 in 2017, showing 2.28% annual growth in the aforementioned duration. Moreover, in 1951, the total number of registered crimes in Balochistan was 1538, which jumped to 9492, which indicates an annual increase of 2.75% between 1951 and 2017. In 1951, the total number of registered crimes of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa was 9457 and this number increased to 180830 in 2017. Thus, the aforementioned years showed annual growth of 4.50%. The growth rate of reported crimes in KP was the highest of the other provinces. The number factors associated with the upward trend of delinquent activities in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. The incidence of the 9/11 attacks on the US and

the influxes of Afghan refugees adversely impacted the internal security of Pakistan (Borthakur, 2017). Moreover, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa is a multi-ethnic province where disparity, youth social exclusion, dysfunctional political setup, worst law and order situation, and economic unpredictability drastically increased the crime rate. In addition, due to uncertain circumstances by the terrorist and militant forces demerged the educational and employment opportunities of youth. Furthermore, the youth of this area has no present and future plan regarding their career. Thus, these socially marginalized youths started participating in different street crimes and deviant activities.

**Table 1.2: Provincial Crime Data (1951-2017)**

Year	Punjab (Registered crime)	Sindh (Registered crime)	KPK (Registered crime)	Baluchistan (Registered crime)
1951	50006	15518	9457	1538
1961	46334	20997	11659	910
1972	97503	33709	22736	2774
1981	99775	43159	35751	3281
1992	172865	40170	67409	4445
1998	286466	47703	85070	6606
2004	272699	48875	100983	6196
2008	374436	77656	114083	10010
2012	394603	78688	147807	8209
2015	383055	72630	152401	8911
2017	405845	70273	180830	9492.00
Annual Compound Growth Rate (%)	3.17%	2.28%	4.50%	2.75%

Source: (BOS, 2018; Mahmood, 2018)



## 1.9 Crime Trend in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Table-1.3 portrays year wise statistics of crimes reported in the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. It further furnishes information regarding the total population and rate of offences per hundred thousand population. The total number of registered crimes was 136665 in 2010 and the total population was 25.342 million while offences per 100,000 population were 539. Moreover, in 2011, the rate of crimes increased to 142729 and the population increased to 26.057 while offences remained 560. Notwithstanding, in 2012, the population increased to 26.792 million and the rate of crime increased to 147807 while per 100,000 crime decreased to 552. Furthermore, in 2015, the continuous trend in population growth led to 29.126 million while the total number of reported crimes increased to 152401 and crimes per 100,000 decreased to 523. Moreover, in 2017, the population increased to 30.523371 million and the number of reported crimes show an uptrend and reached 180830 while crimes per hundred thousand population increased to 592 (BOS, 2019). The Post Afghan war, militant attacks, armed conflicts and sectarian-based violence negatively affected the economic activities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa which contributed to different criminal activities.

**Table 1.3: Crime Trend in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa**

Year	Total Population (In Million)	Total Crime in Numbers	Crimes Per Hundred thousand population
2010	25.342	136665	539
2011	26.057	145856	560
2012	26.792	147807	552
2015	29.126	152401	523
2017	30.523	180830	592

Source: Bureau of Statistics KP 2019

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## 1.10 Street Crimes Trend in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Table-1.4 presents statistics of various types of street crimes that occurred in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in the mentioned years. The total number of registered street crimes was 15310 in 2013. In which the highest rate of street crimes i.e. 13452 was related to drugs followed by Vehicle snatching with 877 occurrences. Besides this, the total number of the reported street crimes regarding robbery/mobiles/Goods/wallets snatching was 851 and the total number of physical assaults was 130 in 2013. In 2014, the number of street crimes jumped from 15310 to 20394 in which the total number of drug-related street crimes was 18088 while that of vehicle-related crimes was 1109. Moreover, the total number of thefts related to mobiles/goods and wallets snatching was 1061 and the number of physical assaults was 136 in 2014. In 2015, the total number of street crimes decreased from 20394 to 18555. This time the total number of drug-related crimes was 15887 and that of vehicles related crimes were 15887. In addition, the total number of street crimes regarding robbery and goods snatching was 1340 while the total number of physical assaults was 138. In 2016, the number of street crimes rose from 18555 to 22310 in which the highest number of street crimes was related to drugs (19907) followed by robbery and goods snatching. Similarly, the total number of Vehicles related to theft/ snatching was reported as 1023 and the number of physical assaults was reported 164 in the same years. The continuous increase in street crimes reached 24044 in 2016 in which the total number of the registered crimes related to drugs were 21827 and that of robbery and goods snatching number dropped to 1185. Similarly, vehicles related theft/ snatching decreased to 844 with a slight increase in the number of physical assaults reported as 188 in the same year. We know that the law and order of society directly influence the crime ratio of that particular society. The decreased trend in street crime could be attributed to the

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police reforms in KP in 2017. Under these reforms model, police stations were inaugurated and new police training schools were established. Similarly, the transformation of "Directorate of Terrorism to Counter Terrorism Department", "Police Assistance Service", and increase in police force etc. are some of the positive steps which helped to curb street crimes (Minhas & Shah, 2019).

**Table 1.4: Street Crime Trend in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa**

Nature of Street Crime	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Robbery/ Mobile/Good/Wallet snatching	851	1061	1340	1216	1185
Motorcycle/ Vehicle related theft/ snatching	877	1109	1190	1023	844
Drugs related street crime	13452	18088	15887	19907	21827
Physical assault	130	136	138	164	188
<b>Total number of street crimes</b>	<b>15310</b>	<b>20394</b>	<b>18555</b>	<b>22310</b>	<b>24044</b>

Source: Bureau of Statistics KP 2019

## 1.11 Prisons and Prisoners Population in Pakistan

The continuous upsurge in various crimes significantly increased the prison population in Pakistan. The official data (2000-2017-18) regarding the prison population indicate that the total population of prisoners has increased from 78,938 to 84,287 in 112 different jails across the country. Moreover, the imprisonment rate was 41 per hundred thousand population. Whereas, the total official capacity of the jails is 53,744 while the total occupancy rate is 157% (NACTA, 2017).

**Table 1.5: Prisons and Prisoners Population in Pakistan**

Year	Total Prison Population	Increase Per Hundred Thousand Population	Number of Jail	Official Capacity	Total Occupancy
2017-18	84,287	41	112	53,744	157%

Source: National Counter Terrorism Authority, 2017

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## 1.12 Number of Prisoners in Population in Pakistan

Table-1.6 indicates that the number of prisoners housed in different jails of the provinces, Northern areas and Islamabad capital territory (ICT). In Punjab, the number of inmates housed in 40 jails is 50,405. Moreover, Sindh is accommodating 18,998 prisoners in 26 jails, whereas KP has 22 prisons where the total population of inmates is 1,330. Moreover, Baluchistan is having 2,453 inmates in 11 jails. In Azad Jammu Kashmir, the prisoner population is 753 who are housed in 7 prisons. Furthermore, the total population of prisoners in Gilgit Baltistan is 374 housed in 6 prisons. Apart from the aforementioned, about 60.6% of the total prison population is housed in Punjab jails (NACTA, 2017).

**Table 1.6: Number of Prisoners in Population in Pakistan**

Province/Administrative Territory	Prisoners Population 2017-18	Percentage of total Prisoners
Punjab	50,405	60.6%
Sindh	18,998	22.8%
KP	11,330	13.6%
Baluchistan	2,427	2.9%
AJK	753	0.9%
GB	374	0.4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>84,287</b>	<b>100%</b>

Source: National Counter Terrorism Authority, 2017

## 1.13 Statement of the Problem

The incidents of street crimes like robbery, car snatching, mobile snatching, bicycle/bike theft, physical assault, burglary, vandalism and other valuables snatching are increasing day by day in different parts of the country. There are multiple reasons, which are prompting street crimes, and it has become a serious challenge for law enforcement agencies to control or mitigate the growing rate of crimes. The young generation is particularly indulged in the commission of various kinds of offences;

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mostly affiliated with anti-social groups; influenced by media/social media, faulty socialization and other reasons. Such incidents have become a routine matter creating a sense of fear and no security among the people. The present study was focused on identifying the causes and impacts of criminal acts on the youth of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. For this purpose, youth involved in diverse crimes facing the trial process or undergoing imprisonment in seven selected jails of the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were interviewed.

## 1.14 Significance of the Study

The intensity of street crimes has become a worldwide phenomenon, which creates distress for everyone in the world. News regarding street crime in print and electronic media has not only taken away the peaceful public life but also put them in anxiety and tension. Many causal mechanisms of street crime were explored globally. However, in Pakistan, there is a lack of literature on the mentioned phenomena. The current study will play a significant role to draw the attention of the state towards the issue of street crimes to formulate policy recommendations accordingly. The government and other stakeholders will get an opportunity to utilize the study results as evidence towards devising an effective policy towards the eradication of street crimes in Pakistan. In addition, it will be fruitful for academicians to get guidance for future studies on the said issue. Moreover, it will help minimize the frequency of street crimes by creating awareness among the common people especially youth involved in street crimes. This study will proceed under the shadow of the following research questions and objectives:

## 1.15 Objectives of the Study

- To identify the multidimensional causes behind the commission of street crimes by youth.
- To investigate the Socioeconomic and psychological effects of street crimes on the personality of youth involved in divergent street crimes.
- To investigate the jail environment from the respondents in the contexts of facilities/problems and other confronting threats there.
- To seek the perception of youth involved in street crimes towards their criminal act.

## 1.16 Research Questions

- What causes are involved in the street crimes of youth?
- What are the Socioeconomic and psychological effects of street crimes on the personality of youth?
- How is the jail environment from the lenses of situation the young inmate are experiencing?
- What is the perception of criminal youth towards their criminality?

## 1.17 Hypotheses of The Study

- Greater the Frequency of socio-economic disfavor higher would be the occurrence of street crimes
- Street crimes affect socioeconomic and psychological life of youth.

## 1.18 Limitations of the Study

Even though this study is a potential work in the context of Pakistan but it is with some limitations.

1. Due to economic constraint, limited time framework and security barriers to approach all the jails of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, only 7 prisons were selected as sample units for the present study. Further, such barriers also limited the sample size of offenders. However, in the present study sample size was selected on the bases of total population of street offenders in the selected jails. Nevertheless, the sample size of this study is sufficient.
2. The researcher was intending to expend the spectrum of the study to criminal/delinquent youth who were away from the lockup, but due to time factors and strict security issue at jails it was not materialized.
3. Females young criminals were also not included in this study because of rigid cultural environment.

## 1.19 Future Research Prospect in the Study Area

1. This study suggests further research on the issue of criminality among female criminals/delinquents by a female researcher who could frankly, discussed the issue with them and bring to surfaces the root causes of criminal tendencies on their part.
2. The present study was carried out under the cross sectional study design, future research in this area can be undertaken under of longitudinal study design.
3. The present study assesses the impact of the street crimes on those youths involved in street crimes but impact of youth criminality on their families could be ascertained through another study.

## 1.20 Organization of the Study

This thesis was encapsulated in the following chapters:

### Chapter – I

This chapter of the study provides a detailed introduction of street crimes along with some definitions of crimes and street crimes. The chapter also provides information regarding the victims of street crimes and hot spots of street crimes. Moreover, the chapter presents a general overview of causes and their socio-economic relation along with psychological impact of street crimes on youth involved in street crimes. Furthermore, a statistical overview regarding crimes, street crimes and prison population at national and provincial level is present in this chapter. Moreover, this chapter is containing statement of the problem, significance of the study, objectives and research questions of the study.

### Chapter – II

Chapter-II entails a comprehensive review of the literature related to the topic. This chapter is further divided into two parts: Part-I is concerned with the prior researches conducted on street crimes and delinquent behavior, and in sighting forces like family harsh practices, lack of family support, attachment with the delinquent peer group, exposure to violent media, and economic disparity. Likewise, a review of earlier literature on the impact of street crimes on youth involved in street crimes contains social, economic, and psychological impacts. In addition, literature on offenders' perceptions towards their offence and life in jail is also available. Whereas, Part-II of the chapter contains theoretical framework utilized in the present study that strengthens the current study on the theoretical ground.

## Chapter – III

Chapter III provides information regarding the research plan of the study in detail. It contains the universe of the study, selection of sample and sampling procedure, methods and tools of primary data collection, conceptual framework of the study, hypothesis of the study, operationalization of the hypothesis, measurement scales and statistical analysis etc. It also includes the positivistic approach furnishing guidelines to a quantitative study.

## Chapter – IV

The analysis chapter is a portrayal of study finding. It offers statistical findings and discussion. Moreover, this chapter is divided into three sections: Section-I contains findings regarding the demographic profile of the sampled youth on the basis of their age, family monthly income, criminal history and fathers' occupations etc. Findings regarding cause and effects of street crimes and perception of the sampled youth towards their criminal act are discussed in section -II. Whereas, section-III presents the findings of bi-variate and multivariate analyses based on the collected data.

## Chapter – V

Chapter-V is the last chapter of the study, which includes summary of the major findings, conclusions, and recommendations derived from the study outcomes.

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meta-analysis to determine factors closely associated with family structure and triggering the youths' criminal behavior. They explored that parental supervision, psychological control of youth and lack of family support were significantly correlated with criminal behavior. Undoubtedly, parental practices have long term effects on youths' criminal behavior. Besides, Petts (2009) has done a research study, based on the life-course approach, to examine how family structure impacts criminal trajectories at an individual level, from teenage years through young adulthood. Data for the study was taken from the NLSY79. The results suggested that living with both parents and cooperative parental practices reduces the probability of youth participation in criminal behavior. Likewise, various empirical studies also demonstrated that spending more time with parents decline the ratio of youth involvement in a delinquent activity (Keijsers et al., 2010).

Parental supervision and control of children also serve as an important factor in the study of criminal behavior. Control theory postulates that adolescence whose parents gives little attention to them are probably less attached to their parents. Similarly, as the level of attention and supervision increases, youths' attachment with the parents also increases, thereby and developing normative behavior among youngsters (Baumrind, 1978). Meanwhile, youths' offending behavior is the outcome of poor parental supervision and control as disclosed by the many studies (for example,; Hirschi, 1969; John et al., 1981; Olweus, 1980; Patterson, 1982; West & Farrington, 1973; Hoeve, et al. 2012; Farrington, 2010).

### 2.1.2 Family Harsh Practices

Nye (1958) conducted a study on the family as a source of social control for youth in Washington USA. Primary data was collected from 780 youth. The findings of his study indicated that youth delinquent behavior was the outcome of unsatisfactory and

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## Chapter – II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the existing knowledge about the current research topic. It provides important and critical knowledge regarding the current study. This chapter begins with a review of various empirical works to highlight the sociological phenomenon of youth criminal behavior in street crimes and document the role of socio-economic convergence of relationship apart from youth affiliation with deviant peer group with the support of relevant theories and the influence of media/social media in aggravating the deviant behavior. The review also reports various research findings regarding the socio-economic and psychological impacts of street crimes and the life of youth in jails and their perception towards the criminal act they have committed. The subsequent part of this chapter examines and reviews theories to explain different factors behind the criminal behavior of youth.

### 2.1 Familial Factors Behind Street Crimes

Numerous empirical studies revealed that familial factors such as harsh family practices and low family support significantly increase youth delinquency/criminality.

#### 2.1.1 Parental Monitoring

Different empirical studies disclosed that parental monitoring is one of the most significant factors in preventing youth delinquency. Empirical work of Gerald and Yoerger (1993) illustrates that parental monitoring is inversely associated with youth criminality. Moreover, empirical findings of Eitle (2005) is also in line with the findings of the above-mentioned work; it links the frequent monitoring of youths by their parents to the reduction of youth participation in criminal activities. These research findings have also been endorsed by Hoeve et al. (2009) who conducted a

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poor social control. Even the work of Covin (1982) also affirmed that youth criminal behavior is strongly associated with parental discipline technique. He points out that families where members used lax, strict, and erratic disciplinary methods, their youngsters were mostly found to participate in antisocial activity along with lack of self-control of parents (Marjolein et al., 2007).

Classical work of Glueck and Glueck (1950) revealed that parents' techniques to deal their children with kindness contributed to less delinquency. Similarly, those parents who use harsh techniques probably create more delinquent youngsters (Straus et al., 2013). This is because such unjust treatment and low levels of parental monitoring inversely affect children's socialization. Because of these factors, youngsters adopt criminal values instead of normative values (Rodman & Grams, 1967). Likewise, the use of coercive and unfriendly controlling techniques at home also triggers delinquency among youth (Alfaro, 1981; Oates & Oates, 1982; Widom, 2001).

The importance of family environment is widely acknowledged in the field of criminology. A number of studies have been conducted on the family's negligence and youth crimes. The significance of early home life is reported by the Enforcement and Justice (1967) that family is the primary and elementary institution for the development of a child's aptitude. It is the family environment where youngsters learn to restraint their wishes and internalized societal values and norms. The work of Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber (1984) disclosed that offending behavior among youngsters was the outcome of a dysfunctional family management. Moreover, Peiser and Heaven (1996) also pointed out that negative family relation (e.g., harsh disciplinary practices) and indifference of parents

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towards their children triggered offending behavior while parents support inversely associated with criminal behaviour (Jensen 2017).

## 2.1.3 Attachment to Parents

Alarid et al. (2000) disclosed that parental attachment was negatively correlated with youth participation in delinquent behavior. Their empirical findings revealed that parental attachment significantly reduces female participation in offending behaviour than males who are involved in violent crimes. Likewise, Demuth also explores the negative association of family structure with youth offending behavior while analyzing data from the national longitudinal survey of youth (NLSY, 1995). A sample size of 16,304 youths from different types of families i.e. both parents, single parent, and stepfamilies were examined. They found that youth follow-up, love and affection, supervision, and monitoring were inversely associated with youth criminal behavior. Besides, parental attachment and education have a strong impact on youth criminality than direct controls. Similarly, the empirical work of Kostecky (2005) also supports the fact that parental quality and good relationships were negatively associated with youth drugs and alcohols use.

Wiatrowski et al. (1981) conducted a longitudinal study where data was collected from 2,213 youth offenders regarding their involvement in various criminal activities and with relationships to various social groups. The findings of the study showed that close ties with parents had a significant impact on youth delinquent behaviour. The study recommended that parental love and attachment exerts a significant influence on adolescents.

Duncan (1978) collected data from ex-criminal youth and non-criminal. He discovered that attitude of the deviant youth was negative about their parents than the

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sample consisting of 300 youth who were involved in drug/alcohol rehabilitation programs. Results pointed out that parental rejection was one of the contributing factors in having strong effects on criminal behaviour. They further added that the absence of family bond contributed to serious delinquencies. Notwithstanding, about 80% of the youth offenders opined that they felt rejected. Moreover, the researchers drew inferences that parental refusal may promote delinquency among youth, but is not a sufficient condition for promoting criminal behavior, as also suggested by some other previous studies. However, various studies have concluded a positive association between criminal behavior and family factors.

Hirschi (1969) measured the association between offenders' attachment to parents and their participation in criminal behavior. Results of the study showed that there is a negative relationship between parent's attachment and youth involvement in criminal behavior, as an increase in attachment with parents decreases the involvement of youth in criminal behaviour. Likewise, Hindelang (1973) also found that a close attachment between parents and youth works as a disincentive to adolescent's criminal behavior. Similarly, the work of Conger (1976) disclosed that criminal behavior is reduced when parents respond to their children's interaction with affection. In addition, Wilson and Herrnstein (1985) pinpoint that attachment is facilitated by parental affection and youth who are closely attached to their parents give more importance and value to parental approval in their daily life activities. Undoubtedly, as the degree of closeness and respect between youth and their parents' increases, the possibility of participation in crime decreases as youth probably think of his/her parents good name and reputation in such a situation (Gray, 1987; Rankin & Kern, 1994).

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non-criminal youth. Furthermore, the empirical work of Hepburn (1976) regarding the attitudes and behavior of local youth based on data collected from 139 males and their male friends living in a medium-sized, mid-western city disclosed that families serve as catalysts in mitigating the occurrence of crime in society. For instance, Krohn and Massey (1980) discovered the impacts of family attachment with criminal behavior through variables related to pity and serious crimes. Findings of their study revealed that youth participation in serious crimes were triggered by many factors, while family attachment has no role in violent crimes. Thus it can be stated that family relationships have minimal role in crimes to the exclusion of serious criminal behavior. The empirical study of Void et al. (1986) have also indicated that most of the studies have ignored the role of family factors in the causes of violent crimes.

Gardiner (1976) conducted ten in-depth interviews of adolescences involved in serious offenses and discovered that these youths have a miserable family relationships and domestic lives. Similarly, among these youths, only one had been loved by their parents, while most of them were treated harshly by their parents. Similarly, the empirical work of Poole and Regoli (1979) who randomly selected 105 white adolescents at Hepburn disclosed that lack of family support pushed youth in serious offending behaviour. Furthermore, Stephen (1984) collected data from 110 students. In his study parental neglect and emotional abuse (rejection) were the major variables. He explored that parental emotional abuse was significantly associated with minor and serious offending behaviours.

## 2.1.4 Lack of Family Support

Simons et al. (1987) have undertaken a longitudinal study design to seek out the effects of family factors on youth criminal behavior. Data was collected from a

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## 2.1.5 Family Structure

The structure of families has dramatically changed over the years in the shape of broken homes around the globe. The term broken home indicates a home that is characterized by the nonexistence of at least one natural parent because of divorce, death, desertion, or job-related opportunities. Due to the growing number of broken families, many studies have been conducted to ascertain the association between broken homes and youth criminal behaviour. Findings of these empirical studies usually concluded a positive association between broken families and youth participation in various crimes. For instance, the empirical study carried out by Glueck and Glueck (1950) where the authors collected data both from criminal and non-criminal youths based on their previous records. Findings of their study indicated that nearly 60% offenders and 34% non-delinquents belonged to broken homes. Likewise, Toby (1957) explored that youth delinquency is significantly correlated with a broken home. Interestingly, the work of Slocum and Stone (1963) who collected data from 3,242 respondents shows that about half of the youths from broken families were found to have criminal characteristics as compared to the youngsters from intact families. Similarly, the study by Tennyson (1967) regarding the effects of broken homes on youth criminal behavior, also disclosed very little variation in both blacks and whites concerning the relationship between broken homes and criminal behavior. Correspondingly, an empirical study was conducted in Florida during 1969 to find a correlation between the involvement of youth in crimes and family disruption. The study concluded that most of the youth offenders, involved in serious crimes, were dwelling in disruptive home (Chilton & Markle, 1972). Moreover, Wilkinson (1974) found a significant relationship between broken homes and occurrences of crimes. He stated that characteristics like mutual aggression, lack of concern or un-cohesiveness in families contributed to greater delinquency. Similarly, Wadsworth (1976) indicated that youngsters raised in dysfunctional

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families probably developed criminal tendencies as compared to those who were socialized in intact homes. Besides, James and Herrnstein (1998) stated that attachment between parents and youth is negatively affected by disrupted home environment leading to decrease in the ability of the parent to socialize, supervise and control their youngsters and to internalize normative behavior. Thus, a broken family enriches youth criminal propensities. Likewise, Juby and Farrington (2001) explored that crime rate was greater among youths living in disruptive families as compared to youngsters living in supportive families. Furthermore, Price and Kunz (2003) disclosed that youngsters from broken homes were mostly indulged in status, theft, and drug-related crimes.

Previous research studies also reported that broken families when coupled with poverty increase the ratio of youth participation in various delinquent behaviour. For instance, Farnworth (1984) analyzed longitudinal data to ascertain the negative impacts of the broken home on youth delinquency. She collected data from 123 black youngsters belonging to lower-class backgrounds. The findings disclosed no considerable relation between offending behavior and family factors. Similarly, Matsueda and Heimer (1987) who collected primary data from black and white youth, summarized the association between broken families and youth criminality. They further added that lower socio-economic status of a family, when accompanied by broken families, subsequently increases youth involvement in various crimes.

## 2.1.6 Family Support

Parenting style and family support have been considered some important determinants in the development of youth normative behaviour. Similarly, the association between lack of familial support and youth criminal behavior was scientifically established by many researchers. For example, Medinnus (1981) conducted a longitudinal study to

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that poor slums contributed to delinquency (Curtis, 1974; Quinney, 1966; Schuessler, 1962). Likewise, higher level of aggregation also serves as a driving force for crime and worst economic conditions not only in cities (Humphries & Wallace, 1980) but on country sides as well (Dwayne & Parker, 1980; Loftin & Hill, 1974). However, the work of Lander (1954) recommended that economic condition is not the main cause of criminal behavior but the anomie which is the main cause of criminal behavior. Likewise, Sha and Mckay research also endorsed by Kornhauser (1978) who illustrated that social disorganization is caused by the poor economic condition of an area. This further leads to criminal behaviour which is indirectly caused by the poor social-economic condition. Moreover, Miller (1958) theory related to culture poverty indicted that criminal behavior expressed itself even more powerfully in poverty than Shaw and Mckay highlighted in their theory. In his theory, the basic cause of delinquency resembles Lander's anomie interpretation. Urban slums create some subcultures, which bring youth into conflict with law and these subcultures promote hardness, stylishness, thrill, and fatalism. Thus, Miller concluded that criminal behavior is mostly caused by shared cultural values which are further caused by the poor condition or sub cultural values of urban slums rather than individual poverty. Similarly, the work of Banfield (1974) disclosed that the lower class of society has an innate tendency to commit crime.

## 2.2.2 Poverty and Crime

Several empirical studies demonstrate the influence of economic disparity in the causation of delinquency. For instance, Stichman (2010), quoting the work of Bongor (1916), confirmed that the root cause of delinquency is the financial pressure of the capitalistic system. This system turns the man greedier towards making money through unlawful means. Similarly, joblessness and insecure economic system are the

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measure the impact of family environment on criminal behaviour of youth. The findings of the study revealed that lack of parental monitoring, parental conflict, and material support significantly increases youth criminal behaviour. Moreover, parental intolerance also contributed to youth criminal behaviour. Likewise, an empirical study carried out by Dahlberg (1998) pointed out that parental delinquent behaviour is negatively associated with youth normative behavior. Adding to this, lack of parental supervision, and absence of family support, both emotional and material, subsequently develop offensive behavior in youth. Santrock (2003) reconfirms that lack of family support and unpleasant family management practices significantly trigger youth criminal behavior. A more recent study undertaken by Sari and Nurhayati (2019) also revealed that punitive family practices by parents increase the probability of youth participation in offending behaviour.

## 2.2 Economic Disparity and Street Crimes

We know that poverty, unemployment and low family income along with low wages are some of the contributing factors responsible for criminal behaviour among youth.

### 2.2.1 Socio-Economic Conditions and Youth Crimes

At the University of Chicago, the importance of socioeconomic conditions for the occurrence of criminality was acknowledged very early in ecological studies. Of these, the most well-known study is by Shaw and Mckay (1942) who associated crime rates of various areas and found that even though their populations and racial compositions entirely changed during that time but for several years, the same changes were found in the criminal behaviour among socioeconomically different urban areas. Shaw and McKay concluded that poor quality of life, heterogeneity and mobility encourage high crime rates. Poverty among these factors is rated as the most important one in promoting delinquency as it is clear from different research studies

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outcome of industrialism and are considered the prominent factors in the commission of crimes. He also added that majority of crimes are committed by poor people. For example, Clark (1962) conducted an exploratory study of deviant behavior for which he collected the data from 1,154 respondents in four different communities. He found out that high intensity of criminal behavior prevailed among lower-class adolescences who were dwelling in homogenous and disadvantageous neighbourhoods. Similarly, an empirical study was undertaken in Philadelphia by Wolfgang et al. (1972). Their works reconfirmed that black youth belonging to the lower-class were mostly involved in offending behavior. Similarly, a longitudinal study conducted by Ageton and Elliott (1978) also concluded that youth from the lower-class was reported with a higher number of crimes than middle-class adolescences. He further added that youth who participated in serious criminal activity was most probably from lower-income families. Correspondingly, a longitudinal study done by Farrington (1986) reported that material goods were the major cause of criminal behaviour among youth. Moreover, poor youngsters who are not capable of accomplishing their goals legally are more prone to commit criminal acts.

Several empirical studies evidenced that poverty has a significant relationship with crime. People with low family income or low economic background, are unusually involved in criminal activities (Deborah et al., 2006; Hayden & Bohm, 2008). Likewise, findings based on the studies, such as, Morgan (2000), Parker (1989), Pridmore (2011), Ramiro (1996) indicated that poverty contributed to violent crimes such as homicide, mugging, and domestic abuse. Correspondingly, Piff et al (2012), and Reay (2005) had another standpoint while ascertaining the association between crime and family economic background. Findings of their study demonstrated that lower-class youngsters were more likely to be involved in criminal activities than the

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upper class in order to access their material needs i.e. income, social recognition, and social prestige, relative to the upper and middle class of a particular society. Therefore, lower-class youth are likely to engage in different street crimes to minimize their deprivation. In addition, Uche and Harries- Jenkins (1994) stated that youth belonging to strong economic backgrounds have access to good educational institutions which groom their personalities, and thereby minimize the risk of indulgence in criminal activities as compared to the youth with deprived or poor family backgrounds.

Many scientific studies concluded that poverty is one of the contributing factors responsible for offending behaviour. Besides, antisocial behavior is adopted more by those belonging to unstable economic family backgrounds. Moreover, youths who run away from their families and stay in streets are more prone to be involved in activities like snatching, looting or other street crimes for their survival (Pryor & Paris, 2005). However, prior study of Postman (1982) explored youth participation in crime from another standpoint. He stated that unstable political systems, monetary uncertainty and poor government policies subsequently increase youth participation in street crimes. Financial hardship, economic disparity and a disadvantageous economic system are significantly associated with unemployment among adolescence which increases their participation in criminal activities. Similarly, the ratio of criminal activities among youth was recorded more for the offenders who had either run away from their homes or fulfilled their own material desires which previously had remained unsatisfied due to unemployment or lack of financial resources. Despite economic deprivation, youth with lower wages jobs were also found more inclined towards criminal activities than youth having a high-status job (Berti & Pivetti, 2019; Farrington et al., 1986; Mcara & Mcvie, 2016; Santiago et al., 2011).

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Today, the ranking of our country in the world is very low in the human development index. The high fertility rate makes the poor segment even poorer and they cannot afford to feed a large family. The main causes of their miserable plight are joblessness, low-income opportunity, and inflation as faced by the poor youth. Economic negligence, bribery and nepotism have triggered unemployment and economic deprivation (Bibi, 2006).

A link between economic adversity and criminal activities was brought to public notice by many scholars and media. Several studies indicated that unemployment significantly affects the capacity of youth to earn through any legal ways. In addition, unemployment not only leads to illegal activities but also weakens the social fabrics and cohesion in a social system. Thus lack of job opportunities expose youth to criminal activities and push adolescence towards criminal subcultures where participation in delinquent activities becomes a normal behavior (Weatherburn, 1992).

Farrington et al. (1986) found to record the crime rate among the male population for which data was collected from 411 youth respondents. Findings of their study indicated that a high crime ratio was recorded among those who were jobless. Similarly, youth having a poor financial background or low status job was also prone to offending behavior. Their study also demonstrated that economic disparity does not nurture law-abiding youth but enhances offending behaviour among youth. However, some other factors also help in promoting criminal activities such as divorced and single parents, etc. (Naffine & Gale, 1989).

The relation between unemployment and crime has been discussed and paid very close attention. Lack of job opportunities is undoubtedly one of the major contributing factors to economic adversity. Yet another contributing factor in offending behaviour

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## 2.2.3 Unemployment and Crime

Julius (1987) argued that the expansion of poor urban areas contributed to social transformation within the structure of the city. This alteration has very powerful impact on people which triggered the level of delinquency. Moreover, Wilson's (unknown) emphasized the fact that growth of urban areas in some neighbourhoods made a different social environment. More specifically, social marginalization was the characteristic of disadvantageous neighbourhoods. In addition, socially excluded people have limited employment opportunities and little exposure to the role models. Furthermore, working and middle-class families mitigate the negative impacts of unequal and poor economic conditions in these societies. All of the above-mentioned characteristics of the social environment significantly enriched the level of crime. Notwithstanding, the expansion of urban areas and poverty made the people socially isolated from mainstream society and further connected them to the disadvantaged neighbourhood. By making this argument as a base, many scholars have examined the relationship between poverty and criminal behavior, such as drug addiction, prostitution and other violent crimes. The scientific evidence from research (such as, Ekpenyong et al., 2011; Elijah, 1990; Ludwig et al., 2001; Sampson et al., 1995; Skogan, 1992; Wacquant, 1993) also supported the fact that disadvantageous neighbourhood and poverty undoubtedly increase the levels of delinquent activities. Social control to dispirit delinquent activity was particularly lacking in such an environment. Similarly, people in such a neighbourhood were socialized to participate in offending behaviour by imitating the actions of other criminals. Thus, a crime-ridden zone encourages further offending behaviour. As a result, local people would use violence and carry guns to protect their lives and property (Massey, 1994).

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is income. Several studies investigated the association between crime and income. For example, the work of Belknap (1989) provides a strong evidence regarding the association between the income level of a particular area and its crime rate but she did not explore strong association between absolute income and criminal behavior. Likewise, in a scientific study, Box (1987) stated that street crimes have a positive relationship with income disparity. He further added that income inequality significantly enhances offending behaviour, more than unemployment.

## 2.2.4 Inflation and Youth Participation in Crime

Numerous studies indicated that youth participation in crime is the subsequent outcome of unemployment as the individual is unable to maintain his living standard (Brenner & Harvey, 1978; Brenner, 1976; Brenner, 1978; Harvey, 1971). Likewise, the rise of prices reduces the purchasing power of an individual and increases the cost of living. As a result, the ratio of delinquent activities significantly upsurges because people are failed to sustain their prior lifestyle. Besides, a number of studies explored the negative impact of inflation on delinquent behavior (Curtis, 1981; Ralston, 1999; Teles, 2004). However, these studies are only confined to an explanation of the association and failed to provide any empirical findings regarding the relationship between crime and inflation. Moreover, a survey conducted in the inner cities of America indicated that the ratio of crime has not only been affected by unemployment, but inflation has also played a central role in the development of criminal activities (Tang & Lean, 2007). Chungviwatanant (1982) pointed out that high prices in the United States were significantly associated with crime rate. The rise in prices significantly decreases a person's buying power and the cost of living becomes relatively higher therefore, a human being is likely to participate in delinquent activities to uphold or increase their buying power.

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An empirical study carried out by Long and Witte (1981) disclosed that the ratio of criminal activities increases with the rise of inflation because hard times and inflation encourage criminal activities and hinder the capacity of peoples to avoid unlawful activities. Likewise, Devine et al. (1988) reported three determinants that make a positive relationship between inflation and crimes. First, the gap between price and income at one hand and inflation on the other hand motivates the criminals because of increasing demand and high profit in the black market. Second, inflation drastically affects social control. Third, inflation corrodes the financial ability of societies to uphold the actual level for restriction. A recent empirical study conducted by Deadman and Macdonald (2002) reported that sustainability in economic growth, job opportunities, and low inflation are inversely associated with the crime rate.

## 2.2.5 Economic Disparity and Youth Offending Behavior

Previous research explored the relationship between the financial condition and criminal activities from two major perspectives (Chiricos, 1987; David & Land, 1991; Land et al., 1995). Holder of the motivational perspective stated, that there is a strong positive association between crime and poor financial conditions, for example, people get motivated towards crime due to financial deprivation (i.e., inequality), financial hardship, and/or the prevalence of frustration and anxiety. At one point, these individuals fail to maintain or get a meaningful job and at another point, they also want a qualitative and standardised living (Bonger, 1916; Brenner & Harvey, 1978; Chiricos, 1987; Fox, 1978; Greenberg, 1977; Hale & Sabbagh, 1991; James, 1983; LaFree & Drass, 1996; Ohlin, 1960; Parker & Horwitz, 1986; Thornberry & Christenson, 1984). Hence, a dysfunctional economic system and low level of job opportunity triggers youth towards offending behavior. In addition, jobless youth mostly participate in street crimes such as looting and burglary to satisfy their

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glanced to motivational perspective. He argued that youth is more involved in crime related activities because of the influence of media and scarcity of jobs in the adult labor market. Besides, youth has high desires and other wishes of luxury which most of the times their families cannot bear to fulfill. The only way to overcome this situation and fulfill their needs is to engage in some kind of job/work. When youth realises that jobs are limited in the market and their desires are imminent to be suppressed, it works as a stimuli and push youth towards crimes to satisfy their wishes.

## 2.3 Media and Street Crimes

Existing scientific evidences disclosed that exposure to violent media contents is one of the contributing factors in the development of violent behaviour among youth.

### 2.3.1 Youth Exposure to Violent Media

The greater exposure of youth to media increased their probability of greater exposure to media violence (Jeffrey et al., 2002). For instance, empirical work of Klein et al. (1993) reveal that most of the youth preferred to watch violent and action movies (Arnett, 1995). Likewise, prior studies of Herman and Leyens (1977) also reported that between 1972 and 1975 in Belgian, action movies had considerably more viewers than non-violent movies. In addition, Nabi and Sullivan (2001) reported that spending more time on media significantly enhances t youths' delinquent behaviour and their participation in various street crimes like robbery and assaults etc. Likewise, the empirical work of Lambie et al. (2014) also advocated the ideas of dose-response impact which vividly demonstrated that greater exposure to media contents significantly affected human behaviour, particularly young viewers. Thus, more people watching criminal content on various different media sources, more probable

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financial needs and other desires for maintaining their lifestyle. Another source of motivation for crimes is considered as one's own interest and choice of being involved in such criminal activities (Block & Heineke, 1975; Ehrlich, 1973; Gary, 1993). From this point of view, youth compare the pros and cons of offending behaviour against prosocial behavior, where the total gain from antisocial behavior is expected higher than the cost of crime. Thus in both the cases, poor economic condition and scarcity of meaningful jobs significantly increase the ratio of street crimes particularly among the poor segment of the society due to attractiveness, as a motive for the crime (Cantor & Land, 1985; Cohen, 1981; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen et al., 1980; Cohen & Land, 1987a, 1987b; Cook, 1986; Land et al., 1995; Lawrence & Felson, 1979; Lawrence et al., 1981). Contrary to the motivational school of thoughts, an opposite association between offending behavior and an unstable economic system is expected. The ratio of street crimes and violent crime is subsequently the outcome of individual property circulation in a particular society (Cantor & Land, 1985; Land et al., 1995). Correspondingly, access to job opportunity keeps people engaged and most of the time they remained absent from their homes. Similarly, these people spend money on purchasing goods which create opportunities for offending behaviour. However, the relationship between unemployment rate and personal property circulation is mostly seen in inverse because jobless people are less able to buy goods e.g. television or automobile, and other precious items which are at risk of being stolen. Likewise, the incidents of theft occur in the absence of individuals in their homes (Dorsey & Robinson, 1997).

A large body of empirical work describes the association of youth and economic disparity with offending behavior. For instance, the work of Greenberg (1985) indicated that the ratio of crime among youth is found higher than older people by a

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are the chances of them being influenced by such contents, thereby showing criminogenic behaviours.

A large body of scientific evidence reported that the invention of television is one of the most contributing factors in the development of violent behaviour among youth. For instance, Hennigan et al. (1982) had undertaken a "time series analysis" and explored that the exposure of youth to television in the United States significantly increases the incidents of theft related crimes. A strong association between viewing aggressive contents on media and offending behaviour has been explored by previous scholarly work. This work indicated that habitual exposure to aggressive and violent programs develop criminal propensities and hostile habits among youngsters (Huesmann & Miller, 1994; Savage, 2004). However, Saleem et al. (2013) had another standpoint. They stated that aggressive contents or programs on media not only contribute to aggressive behaviour but also negatively affect character building among youth. Similarly, prior empirical work disclosed that violence in movies not only triggered the expression of violence but also formed aggressive behaviour because often youth and children copy characters from their favorite movie and assume themselves in the imaginary world of movies (Bandura et al., 1963). Correspondingly, Mcquail (1994) pointed out that evidence also exists that media can contribute to a violent lifestyle. However, such a lifestyle is the subsequent outcome of violent acts, simulations and identification with violent character especially the heroes which make youth sensitize towards real violence. Likewise, Saeed et al. (2018) conducted a study in Pakistan to ascertain the impact of movie violence on the criminal behaviours of youth. The findings of their study revealed that exposure to media violence significantly encouraged youth participation in criminal activity, particularly in Pakistani society.

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Frequent exposure to violent media contents could subsequently enhance aggressive reinforcements such as surveillance for enemies, violent behaviour towards others, negative beliefs, expecting aggressive behaviour from others and encourage favorable attitudes pertaining to the use of violence (Gentile et al., 2011). Furthermore, exposure to violent media is inversely correlated with altruistic behavior and positively associated with an uncaring attitude along with desensitization towards delinquent behavior (Anderson et al., 2010; Huesmann, 2010; Krahe & Moller, 2010; Krahe et al., 2011).

### 2.3.2 Parental Monitoring Regarding Viewing Media Contents

Kirsh (2011) stated that frequently viewing media violence significantly enhances the vulnerability of aggression. He further added that an easy access to violent media contents and spending most of the time outside homes reduces the opportunities for parental monitoring. He concluded that youth is more prone to the negative effects of media as he established that association between viewing media violence usage and delinquent behaviour is more consistent in youth as compared to other periods of their life.

### 2.3.3 Negative Effects of Media Violence on Youth

Since 1920 scholarly work of social scientists in the western countries has been exploring the negative effects of media violence on society (Hassan et al., 2009). Likewise, too much exposure to violent media contents and its relationship with hostile behaviour has been scientifically studied since 1960. Several longitudinal and experimental researches were conducted on this association and it was scientifically established that viewing violent media content significantly contributed to antagonistic behavior (Violence & Youth, 1993). Similarly, criminal behavior among

youth was subsequently increased by media violence (Ledingham et al., 1993). The work of Potts et al. (1994) explores several factors of media violence that negatively affected human social behavior. For instance, a violent program showing aggressive characters are internalized by youth, thus drastically change their behaviour into violent behaviour. Similarly, watching violent media programs not only leads to violent behaviour but also work as stimuli to instigate youth for risk-taking behaviours.

Several studies demonstrate that violent contents in entertainment media trigger hostile and violent behaviour in real life (Edward & Smith, 1997; Huesmann et al., 1997; Sparks & Sparks, 2002). The impact of screen-based media violence on youth and children was studied thoroughly and many of the scholars stated that this impact is equivalent to the one assumed by those to be involved in community violence. Similarly, showing and reinforcing hostile actions desensitize one to real-life violence (Funk et al., 2003; Huesmann & Malamuth, 1986; Joanne, 2000; Rule & Ferguson, 1986; Strasburger et al., 2009). In addition, violent video games are also one of the most current and powerful actors related to youth criminal behaviour. For example, Wartella et al. (2000) disclosed that the active nature of video games made them exceptional in the entertainment media. Players in such video games participate actively up to some extent rather than to be merely a passive consumers of the contents. To progress in a violence related video game, the participant players recognize and then adopt violent strategies. Frequent violent adoptions subsequently increase reward and enhance negative cognitions which ultimately affect human behaviours (Bushman & Huesmann, 2001; Jeanne & Buchman, 1996).

Major findings of the UNESCO review disclose that media violence negatively affect human behaviour. However, the impact rely on a person's cognitive appraisal and socio-physical environment. In addition, facts regarding the negative effects of media on gender demonstrated that men are less sensitized regarding real-life violence than women after viewing violent content on media. For instance, an empirical study in South Africa conducted by Slater et al. (2003), and collecting data from female respondents, discovered that female felt disempowered while watching media aggression. Moreover, some personality traits, like low temperament, are significantly associated with media violence. Likewise, some scholars believe that a person with high-trait aggression is drastically affected by media than others (Philo et al., 1996; Reid & Finchilescu, 1995; Slater et al., 2003).

Existing empirical findings regarding the influence of media on youth criminal behaviour support the notion that watching violent content is strongly associated with violence (Paik & Comstock, 1994; Wood et al., 1991). For instance, Donnerstein and Linz (1995) reported that youth exposure to violent media is a risk factor in offending behaviour. Likewise, Palermo (1995) pointed out that undoubtedly some youngsters significantly develop criminal behaviour due to excessive and prolonged viewing of violent content on media. Moreover, Sege (1997) stated that youth participation in offending behaviour is pushed by many factors, but one of the major documented factors of the recent upsurge in criminal behaviour/violence is closely associated with youth exposure to media violence.

Different schools of thought have explored the drastic impact of media coverage on youth criminal behaviour. For instance, the "General Aggression Model" (Bushman & Anderson, 2002; Dewall et al., 2011) demonstrated that watching violent crimes on media trigger hostile attitudes and insensitive youth towards real violence. Similarly,

researchers having this perspective also believed that media is moderately responsible for criminal behaviour (Laser et al., 2007), and leads to violence by less sensitizing individuals to the pain of others people (Bushman & Huesmann, 2014). However, "Uses and Gratifications" and "Self-Determination" theories (Andrew et al., 2010; Sherry et al., 2006) had another standpoint. Most of the scholars who favour the afore-mentioned theories disclosed that media coverage of violence is a rudder of criminal behaviour, which means a force that can steer criminal activity or shape antisocial behaviour. (Doley et al., 2013a; Ferguson et al., 2008; Savage & Yancey, 2008a). Likewise, media reporting of violent crimes teaches new techniques for criminal behavior, as the empirical work of Surette (2013), who collected data from male and female inmates, disclosed that media significantly influenced the style of delinquent activities while providing "instructional models" to incline youth towards criminal behaviour.

Furthermore, review studies were undertaken by Brown and Bobkowski (2011) while exploring the effects of media on youth health and well-being. Findings of their study disclosed that youth exposure to violent media contents contributed to an unhealthy lifestyle, including violent and antisocial behaviour. Likewise, an empirical study on the association between youth exposure to violent programs on TV and viewers' aggression shows that violent programs on TV triggers aggressive behaviour among youth. Similarly, the work of Pinto da Mota Matos et al. (2012) investigated, and concluded a significant impact of identification with violent television heroes' character, loving television violence and perceiving truth in TV violence-related content on verbal and non-verbal aggressive behaviour of adolescence.



## 2.3.4 Imitating Criminal Behaviour from Media

Several longitudinal empirical studies revealed that people with low hostile behaviour have a greater surge in hostility after exposure to media violence (Krahe & Moller, 2010). Besides, observational learning theory by Bandura's and some other empirical studies explored that how viewing violent media content contributed to aggressive behaviour. For example, Bandura's theory postulates that youngsters learn behaviour by copying models or other people in their lives. However, these people or models may be their friends or adults they know or they are perceived in media (Bandura et al., 1963; Huesmann, 2010; Krahe et al., 2011). This theory also pointed out that youngsters imitate what they watch in the short run which contributes to new cognitive scripts for their behaviours, views regarding the world and moral principles for long-term behaviour. More specifically, human social behaviour is regulated through an internal self-regulation system i.e. behaviours once copied are converted into the cognitive process. This suggests that as a youngster grows their imitated behaviours are converted into new trends that have long-lasting effects on their social behaviour which become crystallized and hardly changed at a later age. Hence before crystallization and growth of such behaviour, youngsters are vulnerable to violence even in normal routine (Dubow et al., 2009; Krahe et al., 2011). Thus it is clear from the above-mentioned evidence that youth exposure to violent media apparently contributes to violent behaviour throughout life (Wagar & Mandracchia, 2016).

## 2.3.5 Lack of Unrestrained Media Programs

The lack of unrestrained media programs and absence of self-regulation significantly increase the ratio of crimes in society. In addition, the availability of hostile behaviour and illicit relationships significantly increase delinquent behaviour among youth (Shali, 2017). Moreover, reports of forensic psychiatrists, based on their personal

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interaction with criminal friends increases their chance of becoming a criminal (Becroft, 2009; Ngale, 2009).

## 2.4.2 Attachment with Delinquent Peer Group

Over a hundred years, researchers have shed light on the role of friend's influence in offending behaviour. Indeed, Breckinridge and Abbott (1912) pointed out that it was hard to recognize a criminal who was not a member of a criminal peer group. In addition, they believed that even a lone criminal was probably influenced by criminal peer groups. Moreover, the companion's role in the development of offending behaviour was further supported by Shaw (1931) empirical work which centers on the influence of peer group and mentors in one's participation and continuation of criminal activity. Similarly, findings based on Short's (1960) work show a positive association between youth offending behaviour and affiliation with delinquent friends. Correspondingly, peer influence on criminal behaviour may be in the shape of friends' approval for offending behaviour, close attachment with delinquent friends and peer pressure for antisocial activities (Joan & Ensminger, 1995).

McCarthy and Hagan (1995) collected data from (N = 390) homeless youth involved in various street crimes e.g. theft, prostitution and drug trade. Findings of their study demonstrated that embeddedness in deviant peer group gives access to tutelage relationships that assist the attainment of offending behaviour, skill and attitudes, and resources called "criminal capital." They concluded that attachment with criminal associates increases exposure to tutelage affiliations, and such exposure enhances youth participation in street crimes.

There exist groups in every society which are part of the larger society. All of them are adhered together to the values and norms of the larger society which encourage

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observation, show that youth criminal behavior, such as, homicide and sexual assaults are significantly developed by violent scenes. For instance, Sue Bailey examined 40 youth murderers and 200 sexual assault cases of youth offenders. He found that frequent access to violent and sexual materials on media were important determinants in hostile and sexual crimes. Certainly, empirical study about copycat crimes demonstrated that one in four crimes of the violent youth, the criminal has tried to imitate crime portrayed in the media contents. (Browne & Hamilton-Giachritsis, 2005; Chitsabesan et al., 2006; Meloy & Mohandie, 2001; Surette, 2002).

## 2.4 Peer Group and Street Crimes

Youth who was closely attached with deviant peer group was probably participating more in the street crimes and other delinquent activities themselves.

### 2.4.1 Peer Group

Peer group can be defined as a social group of individuals which comes into existence on the base of similar interest and activities. Youths generally spend most of the time with friends and share everything with them. Prior empirical studies have also demonstrated that peer networks apparently resemble each other including physical characteristics (Christakis & Fowler, 2007; Valente et al., 2009), educational qualification (Chen et al., 2008) and personality traits. In addition, attachment with a peer group has both positive and negative impact on one's behaviour (Vaquera & Kao, 2008), as the work of Nisar et al. (2015) indicated that youth delinquent behaviour was significantly triggered by dysfunctional family setup and delinquent peers. Moreover, attachment with criminal friends contributed to antisocial behavior and criminal personality due to the internalization of certain norms and values of their delinquent friends. Likewise, some previous study also demonstrated that youth

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antisocial life. Thus, delinquent behavior is a subsequent outcome of the collective response which is directed by the counterculture of specific collectivities like peer group within the dominant culture. Moreover, among these peer groups, individual makes their friends or form a close relationship with some members. Additionally, peers have a significant influence on the lifestyle of their group members. In addition, they have their culture, tradition, values and norms, sanctions, ceremonies, and rituals into which they all are socialized and those who do not obey any of these values and norms are subsequently removed from the peer network. In fact, peer group association is an agent of socialization which determines and internalises social codes in human being. Thus, an individual's attachment with antisocial group consequently enhances their own criminal tendencies than those who follow the rules of the society. Hence offending behaviour of youth is the outcome of peer delinquency and delinquent behaviour is learned in the company of delinquent peer groups (Carlson, 2010; Esiri, 2016; Mike et al., 2003; Nsofor, 2013; Sutherland et al., 1992).

A large body of empirical work in criminology considers that childhood trauma has an inverse relationship with friendly peer relationships. For instance, youth who has been treated harshly by their family members is usually involved in antisocial activities, cause distress with friends and is probably disliked by their peers (Cicchetti & Toth, 2005; Dodge et al., 1994). Therefore, such youth may search out or form a relationship with other maladaptive or criminal youth (Anthonsamy & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007). By this process, youth could imitate one other's criminal behaviour, and thus subsequently pushed towards a chronic antisocial lifestyle.

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A number of empirical studies have explored that youth who has been associated with deviant friends was probably participating in the delinquent activity themselves (Akers & Jensen, 2011; Carrington, 2009). For instance, in a recent study of Marotta (2017) collected data from 16,046 inmates in federal and state prisons of the United States. The findings of his study revealed that youth participation in street crimes (damaging other people's property, participation in mugging, pickpocketing, extorting and drug trading, etc.) was significantly triggered by their affiliation with peer group engaged in similar offending behaviour. Similarly, research evidences also pointed out that youth participation in offending behaviour is a strong significant predictor of drugs abuse (McGloin & Piquero, 2010; McGloin et al., 2008) and most of the time the use of illicit drugs occur within the company of friends (Barnes et al., 2006).

Ahmad and Ali (2015) collected data from 15 inmates in Karak jail of Pakistan who were involved in street crimes and other delinquent behaviours. The findings of their study revealed that most of the inmate's criminal behaviour was developed by their relatives and peer group. Status boosting and acquiring wealth were the contributing factors to their participation in criminal activities. Likewise, some previous studies demonstrated that family hardship, disadvantaged backgrounds and prior conduct problems subsequently lead to form relationship with delinquent friends. Youth which was closely attached with their family was comparatively protected from criminal group influences (Vitaro et al., 2000).

In this era, the main concern of young people is the sense of identity among their friends (Dahlberg, 1998). Most of the time youth violate societal values and normative behaviour taught by the family for the sake of boosting status and acceptance among peer groups. The work of Smith (2003) indicated that participating

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empirical studies that attachment with friends not only increases participation in offending behaviour but also enhances diversity in crime because offenders imitate criminal behaviour from each other. Attachment with deviant friends enhances criminal opportunities accessible to a potential criminal. In addition, Thomas (2016) collected data from 1554 offenders to examine their offense patterns. His study findings revealed that isolated offenders were specialized in delinquent activities, while non-isolated criminal commits various crimes that could lead to diversity in their offending behaviour. Contrary to this view, Tumminello et al. (2013) stated that hanging out with delinquent peers contributed to specialisation in criminal behaviour as criminal groups are generally composed of those delinquent members who shared similar skills or potential required for specific offending behaviour. Similarly, Jennings et al. (2014) disclosed that the absence of legitimate opportunities and learning processes via interactions with other criminals leads to a "specialization in crime".

## 2.4.3 Peer Pressure in Criminal Behaviour

The role of peer pressure in individual offending behaviour was acknowledged across the globe. Peer pressure can be defined as a pressure to follow any behaviour exerted on adolescence by their peer group. However, the empirical work of Kelly et al. (2017) indicated that most of the time youth experience pressure from their peer group to participate in offending behaviour. Likewise, Dijkstra et al. (2010) stated that denying group pressure is considered a threat to faithfulness and as a member of the group one must follow the norms and practices of the group to demonstrate his commitment. Thus, this conformity enables youth to form and solidify relationships but it also contributes to antisocial activities.

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in street crimes with peer group increased reputation and status. Likewise, some longitudinal studies on youth delinquent behaviour disclosed that youth offending behaviour is prompted by affiliation with criminal peers. Peer relationship with criminals is significantly correlated to delinquent lifestyle (Stoolmiller, 1994).

In the existing literature, youth affiliation with delinquent friends has scientifically been investigated as an attempt to measure its negative impacts. A large body of empirical findings in this area considers that young people who associates with criminal or alcohol addicted friends are more vulnerable to antisocial activities (Elliott & Menard, 1996; Farrington et al., 2012; Fergusson & Horwood, 1996). However, attachment with antisocial peer enhances the risk of engaging in delinquent activities via many processes like social imitation, and friends' pressure. Facilitation in delinquent activities triggers youth participation in various risk-taking behaviour that subsequently increases the ratio of crime (Fergusson et al., 2003).

The findings of empirical research in the field of Criminology provided ample evidences that attachment and spending too much time with friends in "unstructured socializing activities" enhance the risk of being in situations favourable for criminal behaviour. These situations encourage youth to participate in criminal behaviour more often in the company of their peer group. In addition, such friendship increases the risk of committing antisocial activities by disclosing that "the lack of structure leaves" opportunity available for crime; the company of friends makes it possible to participate in offending behaviour; while the absence of guardian supervision also leads to participation in crime (Osgood et al., 1996). However, Thomas (2016) had another standpoint by claiming that friends create ample opportunities for delinquent behaviour in the shape of "frequency and crime types". He affirms from prior

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Esiri (2016) disclosed that the major causes of youth offending behaviour are peer rejection. He further stated that youth normative and negative behaviour are being produced due to peer pressure and association. For instance, delinquent peer group pressurizes their friends and support violations of rules and regulations of the society, thus contributing to offending behaviour and participation in criminal activity. However, lack of family support and an unfriendly family environment contribute to peer pressure because youth intend to adjust and be accepted by their peer group (Ahlgren et al., 1982). Likewise, Jagers et al. (2013) also pointed out that peer pressure force an individual to do certain deviant acts. Family stability keeps youth aside from delinquent behaviour and mitigates the risk of getting involved in peer delinquent activities. However, the less stable is the family bond, the more is the risk to be involved in offending behaviour and close attachment to criminal gangs. Thus, youth which is a member of a group that is involved in anti-social activities e.g. in stealing, robbery, illegal drugs and any other delinquent behaviour is more prone to participate in them (Esiri, 2016).

The influence of peer group in the development of criminal behaviour and has widely been discussed by many scholars (Pratt et al., 2010). Different contributing factors were discovered responsible for attachment with delinquent peer and offending behaviour. For instance, the work of De Vries et al. (2003) disclosed that youth smoking behaviour was significantly influenced by their peer smoking habits. More broadly, empirical analysis of Posick (2013), based on data of ISRD-2 and collected from youths across 30 countries, indicated that youth participation in criminal activity was significantly increased by having criminal friends.

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Holsinger (1999) stated that youth participation in criminal activity was triggered by socialization in a criminal setting. Moreover, empirical findings by Losel et al. (2003) indicated that the formation of self-related concepts and values that instigate criminal behaviour among delinquent youth was shaped by peer influence. Likewise, Boduszek et al. (2012) reported that criminal peer group association, when accompanied by a lack of parental control, plays a major role in the development of delinquent social identity. Similarly, prior work of Poole and Regoli (1979) disclosed that criminal peer group has drastic impacts on offending behaviour of youth who has little/weak family support. Likewise, Mason et al. (1994) also highlighted that youth attachment and closeness with family decreased the influence of criminal friends.

Empirical Studies of Walters (2016) demonstrated that youth with low self-control were more often rejected by their friends than those with high self-control. In addition, the rejected youth was more prone to criminal behaviour than non-rejected youth. Hence peer rejection may work as a driving force for attachment with the criminal peer.

Childs et al. (2010) pointed out that the use of illegal drugs by friends have a drastic impact on youth. They further added that a one-unit increase in friend's substance uses subsequently increase about 13.4% of youth substance use. Likewise, a friend's delinquent behaviour significantly predicts the offending behaviour of another youth. Correspondingly, Dodge et al. (2006) stated that youth who participated in an antisocial activity or exhibiting antisocial behaviour are vulnerable to negative influences from criminal friends. Similarly, close and strong affiliation with criminal friends subsequently enhances pro-delinquency beliefs or criminal inclinations (Pardini et al., 2005).

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Peer group influence on youth participation in criminal activities is often examined from either normative influence perspective or the opportunity perspective (Haynie & Osgood, 2005; McGloin & Thomas, 2019). From a normative point of view, peers network socializes youth to adopt behaviour, beliefs and motives favourable for offending behaviour and molds individual personality slowly. Such process of socialization could occur via direct and indirect reinforcement (Akers, 2011). Likewise, from an opportunity perspective, friends can influence youth behaviour immediately by making criminal behaviour easier and recompensing to commit. In addition, motivation for delinquent activity could be fleeting and situational (Hoeben & Thomas, 2019; Osgood et al., 1996; Warr, 2002).

Homogeneity pertaining to criminal behaviour among peer networks has clearly been explored by many scholars. For example, an empirical study of Weerman (2011) demonstrated that relationship with delinquent peers drastically influences the offending behaviours of individuals. Likewise, Agnew (1991) stated that the impact of antisocial peers' network on an individual's own probability of committing delinquent activities was stronger among those who are more closely attached and who spend comparatively more time with their friends. Similarly, Rokven et al. (2017) stated that association with criminal friends increases individual own risk of criminal behaviour, especially when individuals are closely attached and live in the same neighborhood of their delinquent friends. However, Wright et al. (2001) had another standpoint, who believe that individuals with strong self-control are less influenced or inspired by delinquent peer networks.

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## 2.5 Prevalence of Street Crimes in Pakistan and Worldwide

### 2.5.1 Street Crimes across the World

Street crimes encompass less serious incidents that happen on the streets, public parks train stations and low-level incidents occurring in places like bars and restaurants. Moreover, street crimes mainly occur in the evenings and on weekends. Street crimes include selling and distributing drugs in street, drug trafficking, prostitution, road rage, street robbery, graffiti vandalism, social incapacity, and social and physical distress. These are usually offenses which involve the exchange of small quantities of drugs, grasping handbag and money with force and robberies, graffiti and vandalism on train stations, and conflicts in clubs, pubs, and public places (Hayes & Prenzler, 2014).

### 2.5.2 Street Crimes in Pakistan

In Pakistan, the ratio of general crimes is falling down. However, the rate of street crimes is increasing since last decades. Besides, street crime incidents were only confined to Karachi but surprisingly it has now occurred in all cities of Pakistan with a rapid speed. It was noticed that these street crimes were of personal interest rather than any other classical robbery aims (Shaukat, 2019c). In Pakistan, mostly young people were found involved in these unlawful activities and the main goals of these people were to snatch the mobile phone and other goods. It was also observed that young people have more access to expensive mobile phones and other expensive desirable things bought by their parents for them. It has been noticed that none of the school-going children are able to earn enough to buy such an expensive instrument, whereas for single parents it has been difficult to make both ends meet. Thus, individuals from the poor backgrounds were found to be more involved in street levels crimes. In addition, dysfunctional family background and poor economic resources are the contributing factors for street crimes. Notwithstanding, some youth left their homes for having unfulfilled/unsatisfied desires and were accommodated in

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their peer homes which helped these youths to generate their incomes from these stolen items (Curran et al., 2005; Fitzgerald et al., 2003). In sum, a number of social, economic and psychological factors contributed to street crimes among youth. It is also observed that location, availability of suitable target and weather of the area are contributing factors in the occurrence of street crimes.

### 2.5.2.1 Most Common Street Crimes in Pakistan

Thousands of street crimes and incidents take place every day in Pakistan. About 50% of crimes are never recorded by the police. Some of these crimes include rape, gang rape, robbery, car theft, kidnapping, murder or attempted murder. Men armed with guns snatch cash and valuables from the public. Moreover, looting of shop keepers, passengers, street motorists, gold and purse snatching from women and paraphilia has become a routine. Following are some of the types of street crimes most occurs in Pakistan:

#### 1) The Problem of Social Disorders on Streets

The term social disorder on street generally refers to the incidence of deviant and disorderly conduct on street. It prevails in each and every society in different ways. For instance, in Pakistan, social disorder crimes include low-level of incidents such as people urinating in public, yelling in the streets, throwing and breaking empty bottles, people loitering, ditching drugs, street prostitution, falling into paraphilia and weapon exhibitors (Hayes & Prenzler, 2014). According to a woman as reported by Afzal (1997), there is a man displaying propensity of exhibitionism and stays at his stop 24/7 and the police is constantly moving and watching him, but the man is never caught or has no restrictions to show such behavior. Furthermore, it is also reported that harassing pedestrians and blocking sidewalks to them along with blocking streets

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are recurring second-order street crimes but sadly these are not reported as these should be (Afzal, 1997).

## 2) The Problem of Street Assaults and Robberies

The Pakistan Crime Investigation Unit investigated that assault is the most prevalent type of street crime against a person but it is still the most under-reported crime. According to a police spokesman, the Islamabad Police Special Investigation Unit (SIU) detained the dacoity interstate gang and seized two vehicles and weapons from five gangs arrested after a heavy police encounter. The SIU team obtained information from credible sources about the involvement of gangs in the area of Islamabad, who were involved in targeting money-changing vehicles that usually bear money and drive from Mansehra to Islamabad and Rawalpindi (BOS, 2018). This year, Islamabad police detain 50 people involved in street crimes and restored 74 stolen mobile phones, cash and valuables including gold ornaments from their custody (Arifeen et al., 2015; Mehdi & Sultan, 2011). However, the survey indicates that many of these cases are never reported to the higher authorities. The Crime Victimization Survey testified that 49% of physical assaults, 62% of threatened face-to-face assaults and 18% of robberies were not reported to the police in 2009-10 (BOS, 2018).

## 3) The Problem of Graffiti and Vandalism

Graffiti and vandalism are common problems in urban areas, most of which are not reported. In urban areas, graffiti and vandalism are common issues and mostly go unreported. Graffiti encompasses all types of markings, paintings and etchings that spoil public and private property. Vandalism means a building or emblem that is conspicuously defaced or damaged, such as shattering bus stop windows, tearing down street signs, destroying walls, smashing car windows. (Gómez, 1992; Halsey & Young, 2002). There is a huge public cost associated with vandalism where 50% of

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this amount is the direct value of property loss or damage and the rest intangible losses such as pain, suffering, misery, and loss of quality of life (Mayhew, 2003). In short, vandalism may seem minor but the cost and impact of vandalism reach well beyond cleaning up the mess. Syeda (2011) writes in a blog (Dawn newspaper) that we, the inhabitants, cannot tolerate this practice as it destroys the beauty of the neighborhood and puts people at a risk of violence annoyed by messages chalked on their walls. The Raval Town Municipal administration (TMA) has recently removed graffiti, banners and posters from the main streets and highways of the city in a special effort to curb these crimes. According to the special directives of Administrator Saif Anwar Zappa, the municipal administration launched a drive to remove chalk from the walls of the major districts of the city.

## 2.5.3 Causes of Street Crimes in Pakistan

Population boom, hunger, inflation and unemployment are the main reasons behind the rise in street crimes in Pakistan. The disgusting lifestyle, especially in rural areas forces employees to migrate to urban areas to find work is also the contributing factor of street offending. Displaced people in urban areas are usually labourers and some of them work as domestic servants or house cleaners. Investigating agencies believe that this flood also contributes to the increase in street crimes in Lahore. Foreign investment has fallen dramatically since 2008 and some industrialists have moved their investments abroad. A large force of educated youth is looking for job opportunities. These people have become vulnerable to violence because they are dejected by unemployment and hunger. (Haider & Ali, 2015; Khalid et al., 2015). In addition, youth unemployment is the outcome of lack of resources, worst law and order situations, and ineffective education, over population and employees' retirement at old age.

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## 2.6 Socio-Economic Impact of Street Crimes

Participation in street crimes significantly affects social and economic life of youth. It includes jobs, education, family life and social interaction.

### 2.6.1 Street Crimes and its Socio-Economic Impact on Youth

Imprisonment has long term consequences on the offender's social life and economical status. For instance, those who were punished for long-term imprisonment apparently lost altruistic and pro-social contacts in their respective communities and lawful opportunities i.e. job and education after incarceration (Kazemian & Travis, 2015; Liem, 2016; Liem & Garcin, 2014; Liem & Richardson, 2014). Besides, the re-entry of these criminals contribute to societal unrest due to the fear of doing it again. The most recent empirical work in this regard is that of Liem and Weggemans (2018) who adopted in-depth interviews method for data collection from serious ex-criminals and professionals working with them. Results of the study demonstrate the negative impact of the imprisonment and media exposure on social domains e.g. education, employment, family, etc. Adding on, most of the criminals disclosed that their re-entry was obstructed indirectly by public attention and directly by post-release, in the shape of the negative influence of forming and upholding intimate relationships and securing a job. Moreover, majority of the offenders also revealed that due to incarceration, they lost contact with their family members, and close peer group.

### 2.6.2 Social Marginalization of Street Criminal

The concept of social marginalization indicated a practice of social breakdown. Socially excluded people were separated from social relations and were not allowed to participate in the social activity of their particular community (Silver, 2007). As Labeling theory posit that people who participated in delinquent activities were

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stigmatized by their respective society and their offending behavior negatively affected their life and social activities. Notwithstanding, these people were often rejected by their respective communities and socially excluded. They encountered difficulties at educational institutions, in family relations and had little access to workplaces because of their expected offensive behaviour in the future. Moreover, these disadvantaged people establish a relationship with other criminals due to lack of support and withdrawal from family, peer, and community (Braithwaite, 1989a;; Levenson & Cotter, 2005; Levenson, et al., 2007; Tewksbury, 2005; Zevitz & Farkas, 2000). Various studies reported that most of the time offenders experience societal rejection and isolation due to their criminal behaviour (Austin, 2004; Berry & Eigenberg, 2003; Petersilia, 2003; Taxman, 2004). Besides, stigmatized and marginalized youths often become professional criminals and associated themselves with antisocial peers. (Maertens & Anstey, 2007).

### 2.6.3 Criminal Behavior and Social Stigma

Tannenbum (1938) stated that official proceedings of criminals represent the "dramatization of evil". He further stated propagating of act of non-conformity in public and spell out as sinful and the deviant character of the subject was highlighted. Moreover, as the information regarding the legal sanction disclosed and spread in the community (Wilkins, 1964), youth was characterized as a criminal by their respective community members. Notwithstanding, stereotyped images of offenders in a particular society were attached as master status with the person's life (Becker, 1963; Edwin, 1967; Goffman, 2009). As the work of Bernburg(2003) argued that youths who were known as criminals in their societies felt comfortable while associating with criminal friends and would keep distance from non-delinquent in their society. Correspondingly, youth withdrew themselves from a conventional society and got

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attached with deviant people due to stereotypical beliefs, negative perceptions of people and fear of rejection (Jon et al., 2006). Similar empirical evidence has also been explored by Goffman (2009) who disclosed that social interaction among non-stigmatized and stigmatized people was often described by discomfort, awkwardness, ambiguity, shame and strenuous work at impression management. Thus the aforementioned characteristics could lead to a destigmatized image and the stigmatized people withdraw interaction from one another to avert uncomfortable relationship.

A number of scientific studies have documented that formally labeling adversely effected structured opportunities (Bernburg, 2003; Bernburg & Krohn, 2003; Davies & Tanner, 2003; Deli, 1999; Sampson & Laub, 1995) and parental attachment (Stewart et al., 2002). In addition, negative labelling develops self-concept i.e. criminal (Jensen, 1972; Matsueda, 1992) and internalization of criminal attitudes (Ageton & Elliott, 1974). Moreover, the labelled adolescent was more prone to be excluded from social activity (Zhang, 1994). All of the above-mentioned factors may compel a person to be in a relationship with other criminals and more imminently is in a relationship with those who were deprived and stigmatized by their societies and with those who provide opportunities what the conventional world does not. Thus, forming a relationship with a delinquent peer group subsequently increase offending behaviour during adolescence (Adams, 1996; Bernburg et al., 2006).

#### 2.6.4 Criminal Behavior and Union Formation

The findings of different scientific studies in this area confirmed the negative impacts of offender's lifestyle on union formation. For example, labelling theorists posit that delinquent behaviour adversely affected several life events and the stigma attached to

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criminal diminished his/her marital and romantic prospects as well (Paternoster & Iovanni, 1989). Besides, as individuals start participating in criminal activity, the negative outcome of stigma propagates in their lives, decreasing one's prospects for romantic involvement. Likewise, empirical evidence from some studies (such as, Huebner, 2007; Sampson et al., 2006) also argued that imprisonment reduces the likelihood of marriage. Similar studies have also been pursued by Poortman, et al. (2012) in which they compared the marriage probability of non-offender and offender. They found that the probability of union formation decreased up to 24% for criminals who committed more than six crimes and further declined to 42% for individuals who were involved in more than 10 crimes. Besides, those who participated in a few crimes have a similar probability of union formation as compared to non-offenders.

Youth criminal behaviour significantly hampers their transition to the marriage market since such anti-social behaviour decreases the perceived socio-economical and psychological benefits to union formation by a potential spouse. Moreover, youth participation in criminal activities moderates the probability of marriage ability and they are less preferred in the marriage's market. However, many factors significantly affect delinquent youth marriage prospects than non-offenders, for instance, involvement in criminal behavior which indicates forthcoming financial uncertainty. This is because such anti-social behaviour may raise the likelihood of arrest and imprisonment, thus eradicating the criminal partner and his or her income from the family (Ryan & South, 2011). In addition, the stigma of criminal history could also reduce job opportunities and earnings (Pager, 2003; Western, 2002). Apart from this, youth offending behaviour could also limit their marriage ability since such criminal behaviour increases the apparent risks of abusing of a potential partner. The demonstration of violent behaviour, especially from men's side enhances the

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possibility of women's corporal and sexual abuse which also discourages union formation (Marcia et al., 2004). Correspondingly, offending behaviour may also indicate socio-psychological and emotional unwillingness for the formation of the marital relationship. Both high and minor offending behaviour disclosed unpreparedness to assume the new role i.e. husband and father (Yamaguchi & Kandel, 1985). Adding on, youth reliability and altruism were also valued by potential partners and youth involved in criminal activities may not be considered fit for marriage due to the absence of the above-mentioned qualities and resources to perform the role of a husband and parent successfully (King & South, 2011).

#### 2.6.5 Criminal Behaviour and Jobs Opportunities

Empirical studies have also established the detrimental impact of antisocial lifestyle. For example, criminal records significantly limited access to meaningful employment (Pager et al., 2009; Uggen et al., 2014), welfare support (Gustafson, 2011), accommodation support (Thacher, 2008), education attainment (Evans, 2019) and societal participation (Manza & Uggen, 2008). These limitations were the subsequent outcomes of delinquent behaviour particularly for minorities and low-income citizens (Stewart & Uggen, 2020).

Many scholars explored that people with delinquent records encountered discrimination at the time of the job selection process. As pointed out by Schwartz and Skolnick (1962) that offending behaviour decreases positive responses from an organization regarding jobs and contribute to status degradation. Similar empirical work has been continued by Pager (2003, 2008) and Pager et al. (2009) to explore the impact of drugs on offending behaviour and found that criminal history negatively affected callbacks for the interviewee. However, the work of Pager (2008) indicated

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that Black people were more severely influenced by their criminal record than white. Even a recent empirical work which investigated the association between job attainment and criminal record also reconfirmed that criminal record significantly reduced interview calls. (Agan & Starr, 2017).

Finding a suitable and stable job with decent wages is undoubtedly the biggest challenge experienced by offenders after their release from jail due to the negative stigma attached to them. Besides, those who attain employment may earn less than other people (Holzer et al., 2006; James & Petersilia, 2002; Raphael, 2007; Shawn & Reuter, 2002; Western, 2002). A number of empirical studies have disclosed that employment contributed to successful reintegration and adjustment (Good & Sherrid, 2005; Laub et al., 1998; Maruna, 2001b; Rossman, 2003; Shawn & Reuter, 2002; Uggen, 2000; Uggen et al., 2005). Moreover, family and friend's relationship, mental and physical health along with the community where ex-inmates were dwelling could affect the probability of employment. Notwithstanding, employment served as an informal social control which mitigated the likelihood of antisocial behaviour (Visher et al., 2011). However, the jails almost failed in the provision of new skills to inmates that may help in a conventional career. Adding on, job-related programs were often unavailable in prisons and turned down during the past decade (Lynch, 2001). It has also been observed that ex-prisoners with such programs also faced difficulties in getting jobs due to low educational qualifications, no job experience and long term unemployment (Western, 2006, 2007). Similarly, various other factors significantly affected the employment possibility of offenders directly and indirectly, like most of the time statutory law and requirements about professional licensing directly excluded individuals with a criminal history. Likewise, employers also face direct difficulties while recruiting previously incarcerated people due to state law and other legal

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requirements. Indirect hindrances indicated societal and country law that allowed employers to withdraw job applications of ex-offenders without considering the nature and extent of their crimes. Adding on, employers felt reluctant to recruit individuals with delinquent history, especially for jobs related to public dealing, handling of money or monitoring of children (Harris & Keller, 2005; Holzer, 2009; Samuels & Mukamal, 2004; Travis, 2005).

Criminogenic inclinations and behaviours of the offenders can also hinder their participation in employment. Adding on, ex-inmates who continue their anti-social behaviour after imprisonment were unlikely to adopt a prosocial lifestyle and participate in legal employment. In addition, inmates who opined that the legal system is dysfunctional, were more prone to participate in delinquent activities after release and had little chances to find jobs. Notwithstanding, relapse to substance use along with any physical or psychological health conditions could also limit job opportunity and make it tough for persons to uphold employment (Greifinger, 2007; Sampson & Bartusch, 1998).

Many individual and societal determinants (e.g. age of the inmates, job experience and involvement in vocational programs earlier and during the custodial delinquent history, drug addiction, along with familial moral and financial support) influence the ability of inmates to attain and sustain job after imprisonment. Apart from the above-mentioned factors, educational qualification also plays an important role in post-release work (Sabol, 2007; Western, 2007). Likewise, Holzer et al. (2007) reported that some inmates may find employment with former employers or in professions that require limited skills or client contact. In addition, empirical work by Holzer et al. (2002, 2006) also collected data from 3,000 employers through survey method in

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required for seeking a job. However, excessive support may decrease motivation for employment and permit inmates to postpone their job search (Braman, 2007; Laub et al., 1998; Travis, 2005; Uggen et al., 2005).

## 2.6.6 Criminal Behavior and Stream of Education

A recent empirical study of Stewart and Uggen (2020) investigated the negative influence of criminal records on the college-level admissions through the experimental audit method. During the admission process, 72 percent of academics asked about the criminal history of the applicants which could certainly curtail the chances to attain the benefits related to higher education. As prior work of the following authors (such as, Rosenthal et al., 2015; Weissman et al., 2010) indicated that when the student disclosed the antisocial history, they were required to submit supplementary information like an explanation letters, recommendation letters, guarantee and an official report of a criminal record. Since gathering and submitting these materials were painstaking and time consuming, therefore, most of the applicants stopped or dropped the process of admission at this stage, which could negatively affect the educational attainment of ex-offenders.

Most of the previous and current scientific evidences argue that adolescent criminal activities are negatively associated with their education completion. For instance, a recent study carried out by Anna and Doyle (2015) at Chicago, Illinois concluded that high imprisonment rate decreases the completion rate at high school. Adding on, adolescent imprisonment was expected to decrease education completion by 13%. To explain the reason behind these negative effects, they argued that once a youth is imprisoned, he is unlikely to come back to school. In addition, criminal labelling and

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several urban areas to explore employer's decisions regarding recruiting individuals with an offending history. Findings of the survey indicated that about 60% of employers did not hire candidates with a criminal history. The study also reported that violent criminal applicants were vividly disfavoured by employers than those who were involved in property or drug-related crimes. It is also observed that ex-offenders have a low level of education and insufficient work experience, which creates hurdles for them in finding meaningful employment. As already discussed, age of the offenders, racial background, and personal attitudes about self and job influence the employment possibility of prisoners. Prior empirical studies disclosed that self-efficacy helps in fruitful rehabilitation of the offenders (Maruna, 2001b). The term self-efficacy indicates an individual's confidence and trust in their ability to implement an action plan and control their life. Consequently, inmates with stronger self-efficacy were probably doing hard work and effort to secure and uphold a job. Likewise, older ex-inmates were less prone to recidivism as compared to younger inmates (Rosenfeld et al., 2005) and probably more motivated to attain employment to avoid delinquent activity and adopt normative behavior once they came back to their community (Shover, 1996; Terry, 2003; Uggen, 2000). Additionally, black ex-criminals experienced additional hurdles in finding a job because of racial discrimination in the workplace (Holzer, 2001; Pager, 2007).

Marital status, attachment to family and familial support could positively influence participation in the workplace. Likewise, marriage and children also inspire ex-prisoners to search job to deepen these personal relationships and choose the right path for a successful reintegration in society. Correspondingly, soon after the release, inmates rely on the family for accommodation, financial assistance and sentimental support. This support may provide inmates with money, garments and conveyance

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behaviour changes due to imprisonment which significantly affect youth education completion and increase their participation in delinquent activity. For example, imprisonment can negatively affect youth psychological health, which contributes to behavioural problems in an educational institution and within family. Similarly, while treating and labelling them as criminals, increases their involvement in delinquent lifestyle (Forrest et al., 2000; Kashani et al., 1980).

## 2.7 Psychological Impact of Street Crimes

Existing empirical evidences indicate that participation in street crimes trigger a number of psychological problems among youth.

### 2.7.1 Youth Criminal Behaviour and Depression

There are ample empirical evidences which support the argument that criminal behaviour in youth triggered depression and violence in their later lives (Caspi et al., 1995). This fact was also supported by Bond et al. (2005) who disclosed that depression among youth was the outcome of drug addiction and participation in delinquent activities (Beyers & Loeber, 2003; Fergusson & Woodward, 2002). Recent scientific studies investigated the relationship between delinquent behaviour and depression where gender was used as a background factor (Costello et al., 2003; Flannery et al., 2001; Maughan et al., 2004). The research indicated that gender may have a little role in the relationship between antisocial life and depression symptoms. For example, Costello et al. (2003) stated that the growing prevalence of delinquent behaviour was greater among males than females. Meanwhile, multivariate analyses explored that among females, depression simultaneously existed with antisocial behaviour, then males. Adding on, violent females were more prone to severe depression in comparison to males (Flannery et al., 2001; Measelle et al., 2006).

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It has been scientifically established that offending behaviour negatively influenced offender's mental health. The work of Blevins et al. (2010) outlined that psychological problems among youth offenders subsequently upsurges by noxious experiences closely associated with offending behaviour e.g. police custody, court trials and imprisonment. Likewise, Sayed et al. (2016) also disclosed that antisocial life contributed to severe depression and anxiety along with other mental health problems. In addition, Huesmann et al., (2017) have another standpoint which is that emotional distress was the consequence of offending behaviour and subsequent participation in criminal activity. Even the most recent work in this area conducted by Huesmann et al. (2019) reconfirmed the negative outcome of offending behaviour on the mental health of the youth involved in various criminal activity. They concluded that criminality among youth subsequently amplified the probability of mental disorder.

Moffitt (1993) stated that long-term participation in crimes and criminal activities leads to chronic psychological problems among youth. Similar findings have also been pointed out by Bardone et al. (1998) that indulging in criminal activity during adolescence is negatively correlated with their physical and psychological health. Notwithstanding, the work of Coster and Heimer (2001) also explored that a higher frequency of various psychological problems existed among criminals. In addition, it has also been reported that the higher rate of depression and anxiety existed among youth criminals in England and Wales ( Gatward, et al., 1998). Similar findings were also explored by other studies (such as, Vaughn et al., 2011; Wilper et al., 2009) in America and other countries. In addition, Defoe et al. (2013) explored the prevalence of mental health problems among criminals from another standpoint, that is, they revealed that offenders who were housed in jails, disproportionately endured psychological problems which led to morbid experience and negative psychological

that criminal behaviour can increase depression in the long term since adolescent criminality threatens participation in the normative roles which help to mitigate depression in old age. In addition, studies have disclosed that youths who took part in the crime, or offending behaviours mostly suffered from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and depression issues (Flannery et al., 2001; Steiner et al., 1997). A similar study has also been pursued by Coster and Heimer (2001) in which they discovered that youths who were involved in criminal activities probably experienced future depression and hopelessness. Correspondingly, Kinner et al. (2014) collected data from 515 youth criminals in Victoria and found a high prevalence of drugs dependencies, social exclusions and major symptoms of depression and other mental health disorders among these offenders.

## 2.7.2 Disruptive Behavior Disorder among Youth offenders

In the existing literature, problems regarding mental health of offenders have been extensively examined and found that imprisoned youth severely suffered from mental health problems than the general youth population. A systematic study conducted by Robertson et al. (2004) in the United States of America found that about 71–82% youth criminals have a high probability of psychological and drug addiction disorders. Their findings also indicated that nearly half of the offenders have conduct disorder while 35.2% of the delinquent were diagnosed with a disruptive behavior disorder. Moreover, more than half i.e. 58.5% of the offenders in the study have significant, anxiety issues. Adding on, the results of the study also reported that issues of eating, sleeping and somatization along with mood disorders were also prevalent among these offenders.

issues later in life. Likewise, a recent meta-analysis by Reising et al. (2019) ascertained the relationship between engagement in delinquent activities and its psychological outcome. Findings of the study explored a significant association between offending behaviour and severe psychological issues. They further added that participation in criminal activity increased subsequent mental health issues about 85.7% among the offenders. Their work also concluded that, psychological problems were significantly prevailing among habitual criminals and subsequently increased due to criminality.

Different scholarly works shed light on the issue that offending behaviour contributed to depression among youth. For instance, Patterson et al. (1992) have suggested a stage model to explore multiple consequences of early criminal behaviour including mental health problems. In this model, adolescents' delinquent behaviour subsequently developed due to rejection by family and peers along with poor academic performance. All of these factors negatively affected the smooth process of normative socialization and contributed to attachment with delinquent peers, criminal tendencies and mental health problems, especially depressed mood. In line with the above work, Capaldi (1992) also explored that boys at Grade 6 with conduct disorder revealed significantly depression symptoms. Likewise, Beyers and Loeber (2003) empirical findings also yield that mid-adolescent (13.5–17.5 age) criminal behaviour predicted a greater probability of depression.

It has been scientifically evidenced that youth involved in criminal activity were characterized by mental disorders. For instance, Timmons-Mitchell et al. (1997) conducted a study on youth inmates housed in various jails and explored that about 27% of male inmates and 84% of female inmates were in dire need of psychological health services. Likewise, Hagan (1997) disclosed that empirical studies suggested

## 2.7.3 Sleep Disorder among Youth Offenders

Youth offenders tend to sleep very little and majority of the criminals have a sleep problem. Psychological problems and drug addiction, when accompanied with the stress of punishment and imprisonment, lead to sleeplessness among offenders. For instance, the empirical findings of Elger (2004) reported that nearly 83% of the inmates with insomnia have a prevalence of anxiety or depression. Similarly, withdrawal from familial life and separation from dear ones, harshly imposed routines, low level of physical activity, combined living and sleeping room, and low level of privacy exacerbate sleeplessness (Eytan et al., 2011; Hassan et al., 2013; Singleton, et al., 1998; Toler, 1978). However, Clinkinbeard et al. (2011) have another standpoint which is that sleep problems among criminal were the outcomes of their offending behaviours. Moreover, about 11–81% of jail inmates experience insomnia (e.g. sleeplessness) symptoms. In addition, various scholars reported that aggression and anger were some of the negative consequences of insomnia in youth offenders housed in prisons. It is also observed that insomnia leads to a mood disorder that enhances suicide imaginations, attempts of suicide and complete suicides among the imprisoned population (Barker et al., 2016; Carli et al., 2011; Dewa et al., 2015; Feron et al., 2005; Ireland & Culpin, 2006).

## 2.7.4 Suicide among Youth Offenders

Suicides in prisons have been widely reported and the upturn in suicides among prisoners had scientifically been explored by various scholars (Wortzel et al., 2009). Previous studies reported that frequency of suicide among male inmates have been higher as compared to the general population (Blaauw et al., 2005). Likewise, the work of Fazel et al. (2011) reported an average ratio of suicides among male inmates from 2003–07 in 12 western countries between 50 and 150 per 100,000. Moreover, an

empirical review of 34 studies disclosed that mental health problems lead to suicide in jails (Fazel, et al., 2008). Similarly, suicidal imagination, prior history of suicidal attempts, phobia and depression are some of the contributing factors of suicide among inmates. Notwithstanding, Liebling (1999) argued that those who commit suicide in custody have more disrupting behaviour, limited friends in jails, poorer coping skills and low educational qualification.

The criminal population undoubtedly has been noticed more prone to suicidal risk. The report of Bureau of Justice (2013) demonstrated that about 35% of prisoners and 5.5% state prisoners committed suicide in 2011. Various mental health disorders (e.g. psychopathy) determine suicidal desire among offenders. In addition, the concept of psychopathy can further be divided into primary and secondary psychopathy. The term primary psychopathy indicates an “affective and interpersonal characteristic”, such as insensitivity, shameless or lack of empathy and manipulatives, while secondary psychopathy reveals around anti-social life characteristics, for example, impetuosity, hostility, and carelessness (Cooke & Michie, 2001; Hicks et al., 2004). However, among delinquents, the prevalence of secondary psychopathy was positively associated with suicidal behaviour (Douglas et al., 2006; Verona et al., 2005; Verona et al., 2001). As Verona et al. (2001) posit that extremely negative emotionality (e.g. Uneasiness, aggression) and less restriction (e.g., agitation, high impulsivity) were some of the characteristics of suicide attempters. Likewise, a recent empirical study on male inmates disclosed that secondary psychopathy, along with depression, significantly contributed to suicidal ideation (Pennington et al., 2015).

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problems and dependency on drugs might be the subsequent outcome of offending behaviour and lack of psychiatric services including physical and human (Fazel et al., 2009; Priebe et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 1999; Wallace et al., 1998). Consistent with the above work, Byng et al. (2015) also pointed out that criminals were more exposed to psychological problems with a higher ratio of impulsive behaviour and aggression, poor self-esteem, and coping skills. Similarly, results were also explored by Armistead et al. (1992) that youth offenders in prison were more prone to depression, anxiety, aggression, rebelliousness and hyperactivity as compared to non-offenders.

## 2.7.7 Prevalence of Aggressive Behaviour among Delinquent Youth

Most of the early empirical findings center around the prevalence of aggressive behaviour among delinquent youth. The intention of hurting someone either physically or verbally is called as aggressive behaviour. Sharma and Kirmani (2016) conducted a study to observe “Reactive and proactive aggression” in delinquent and non-delinquent youth. Reactive aggression can be defined as a hostile behaviour that is unplanned and spontaneous against perceived threats while proactive aggression is planned and non-impulsive. The findings of their study reveal that criminal youth have an extremely high prevalence of reactive aggression than non-delinquent youth. In addition, the prevalence of this aggressive behaviour among delinquents was triggered by frustration. Consistent with the above findings, prior work of Escrivá et al. (2012) posit that little control over the emotions contributes to anger which leads to aggressive behaviour.

## 2.8 Youth Perception towards their Criminal Acts

Even though the empirical work in criminology is growing, including several studies on criminals themselves, but very limited empirical works explore the perception of

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## 2.7.5 Self-harm among Criminals

A large body of empirical study in the field of criminology suggests that self-harm is quite common among imprisoned people. A recent study by Justice (2016) reported incidents of self-harm among incarcerated offenders. According to it, annually 35,000 cases of self-harm in prisons were recorded annually in England and Wales and this ratio was 27% greater than the last year. Likewise, a review in this area by Czachorowski et al. (2016) also concluded that every week about an average of 600 cases of self-harm and suicides are reported in the prisons of UK. In addition, about 16.2% of delinquents in police custody were reported with recent suicidal ideation. Among these offenders 86.2% have a prior history of self-harm or suicidal attempts (Forrester et al., 2016). Likewise, prior work of Cook and Borrill (2015) also pointed out that nearly 12% of delinquents passing through their sentences were at high risk of suicide. Similarly, 46% of male and 21% of female inmates stated that they had tried to kill their selves (Czachorowski et al., 2016).

## 2.7.6 Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

As it has already been discussed in this chapter that delinquent youth, being underprivileged and belonging to socially excluded segments of the society, have been found less healthy than the non-delinquent youth. However, it is clear that frequency of psychological problems among imprisoned youth was much higher than the general population. Most of the inmates in Western countries have a mental disorder or severe depression (Steadman et al., 2009). In addition, one-fifth of the inmates experienced “Post-traumatic stress disorder”. Likewise, majority of the inmates, both male and female, were addicted to illegal drugs (Fazel & Baillargeon, 2011; Goff et al., 2007). However, prevalence of the above-mentioned psychological

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the offender towards their criminal acts. An empirical study was conducted by Patowary and Gopalan (2019) to investigate adolescent views regarding their offending behaviour. Findings of the study concluded that more than half of the offenders opined that they committed their criminal acts at the time of vulnerability. The study also explored that most of the offenders have little self-control at the time of offending behaviour. Likewise, youth involved in street crimes reported that to fulfill their wishes they committed such unlawful activities. The study also concluded that about 40% of the offenders stated that they felt they did something wrong and disgraceful after committing the act.

## 2.9 Life in Jails

A number of studies have been conducted to explore and identify various dimensions of incarcerated life and its negative and positives impacts on inmate's behaviour.

### 2.9.1 Miserable Condition of Jails

Many criminologists and penologists conducted numerous studies to identify the impact of incarceration on inmate's behaviour. Prior empirical studies demonstrated that the prison system in developing nations were extremely punitive, harsh and overpopulated. Besides detainees in these countries were treated badly and abused (Morris, 2008). Evidence from recent scientific studies also pointed out that prison conditions in low and under developed countries were usually characterized by malnutrition, overloaded prisons, poor sanitation system and little or no access to health facilities (Almanzar et al., 2015; Cohen & Amon, 2008). However, (Hayes & Blaauw, 1997) stated that unfair treatment and humiliation of inmates were inversely associated with the inmate's adjustment to incarceration. Correspondingly, below

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standard living conditions and emotional abuse accelerate psychological disorders in prisoners (Almanzar et al., 2015; Baranyi et al., 2019; Jack et al., 2018).

Birk et al. (2011) reported that exploitation by the prison staff triggered various mental health problems along with sexual and physical disturbance among youth inmates. It was also observed that often abuses of the inmates happen at the time of pre-trial imprisonment. In addition, unfair treatment and exploitation of the inmates were practiced across the globe since long. For instance, Ullah (2018) disclosed that the report of AIHRC demonstrated that majority of the inmates in prison have been harshly treated in various jails of Afghanistan. Likewise, in Iraq, reports of the various organizations, including national and international, disclosed that inmates were tortured and harshly treated through various methods including panting, physical beating, nail removal, sexual abuse, fracture in fingers and flaming etc. Correspondingly, in Pakistan, reports of human rights groups revealed that often police or jail staff harshly treated inmates housed in jails and lock them up which involved inverted hanging, foot whipping, cigarettes burning, denial of foodstuff or sleep and electric shock (Birk et al., 2011; Ullah, 2018). Similar results have also been concluded by Hasan and Fazal (2018) in which they reported that condition of Pakistani prisoners is very miserable as inmates in these jails encounter many issues such as below-standard living, communicable and non-communicable disease, unhygienic food, physical punishment, unfair treatment, nepotism and corruption.

Rehabilitation of the prisoners was closely associated with the living condition of the prison environment. As the scholarly work of Ullah (2018) pointed out that clean, peaceful environment and provision of basic facilities including a bedstead, healthy food, clean water, toilet and education, etc. accelerate prisoner's rehabilitation.

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Most of the time, criminal justice system disfavours the disadvantaged and poor segments of the society. Apart from this, these segments were also subjected to pretrial detention. Moreover, prejudiced attitudes in custody sparked the risk of abuse and assault of the above-mentioned group. Similarly, marginalized and disadvantaged inmates had little access to justice, either due to a negative attitude or because of their low financial and social status. For instance, such discriminatory attitudes can be observed in the treatment of drug-addicted and homosexual inmates and often times they were deprived of the basic health facilities. Besides, inmates under pretrial were humiliated and tortured physically and mentally on a daily basis. For several days, such brutal practices have been repeated (Birk et al., 2011; Nowak, 2009). A similar pathetic condition of prisons was also observed in Pakistan as the empirical review of Bhutta and Akbar (2012) disclosed that most of the juveniles and youth were incarcerated with adult criminals due to limited space, where they were sexually abused and psychologically tortured by adult criminals. Moreover, poor inmates have limited or no access to lawyers and fair trial due to the apathy of prison staff and worse justice system.

Several structural factors are closely associated with discrimination and dysfunctional criminal justice system. Resources scarcity, poor management of incarceration facilities, lack of professional training for prisoners, incongruous law and no sense of accountability for the prisoners accelerate inmate's exploitation. Likewise, discriminatory treatment towards the prisoners was also the subsequent outcome of the limited resources. Correspondingly, the inability of inmates to redress grievances and a low level of monitoring enhanced the probability of harsh and abusive practices in prisons (Birk et al., 2011).

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## 2.9.2 Gangs in Prisons

The prevalence of gang affiliation in jails was systematically explored by many scholars. Relationships with gangs in prison provide social support, boosts social status, individual safety and access to illegal drugs (Kalinich & Stojkovic, 1985; Ralph, 1997; Scott, 2001). Moreover, those prisoners who were affiliated with gangs were more violent and hardly followed the formal rules of the prison (Davis & Flannery, 2001; Fleisher & Decker, 2001). Similarly, Huebner (2003) collected data from 4,168 male inmates in 185 state prisons to identify the contributing factors of inmate's violence. His findings demonstrated that gang affiliation was the main contributing factor of assaults on both jail staff and prisoners.

Skarbek (2014) stated that gangs in prisons were the key source of disturbance, misbehaviour and violence for the prison officials. Besides, prison gangs also promote and support various delinquent activities including prostitution and gambling. Meanwhile, gangs in jails also ensure the protection of their members and prevent or settle conflicts among the gang members. Likewise, the prior study also explored that gangs in jails were usually involved in violence and drug trade (Ingraham & Wellford, 1987).

A recent empirical finding of Khan (2018) explored that in Pakistan inmates in jails establish relations with gangsters to solve their issues. These gangsters in prison also provide illicit drugs and money to youth inmates. He further added that majority of the inmates were sexually abused by the gangsters in prisons. Adding on, these inmates learn the various skills of criminal activities from adult gangsters.

Violence among inmates in prison is an endemic issue prevailing in almost all the prisons (Worrall & Morris, 2012). Findings of the study of Worrall and Morris

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(2011) demonstrated that over five years, 14 percent of the prisoners acted aggressively towards other prisoners. Likewise, most of the inmates were subjected to numerous forms of abuses and majority of these incidents were not reported (Bottoms, 1999; Maitland & Sluder, 1998; Odonnell & Edgar, 1998). There were various factors associated with prison violence, which include racial background, age of the inmates, and criminal history. However empirical studies have disclosed that gang affiliation also accelerates individual participation in delinquent activities behind the bars (Gaes et al., 2002; Griffin & Hepburn, 2006). Consistent with the above scholarly work, recent studies identify that prisoner's attachment with prison gang significantly enhanced delinquency and violent activities behind the bars (Worrall & Morris, 2012).

## 2.9.3 Sexual Exploitation of Inmates

In the last six decades, empirical evidence on the sexual conduct of men in jails demonstrated their inaccessibility to women (Fishman, 1934; Fleisher & Krienert, 2009) contributing to homosexual behaviour in prisons. However, many scholars argued that these activities were some time coercive or a combination of coercion and convincing, but most of the time sexual activity was consensual (Fleisher & Krienert, 2009; Henslin, 1971; Wooden, 1982). Sexual assault of the inmates occurred at that time when mutual agreement is absent in sexual behaviour. Initial empirical work on sexual assault of male prisoners in jails was conducted by Davis (1968). He collected data from 500 staff and 3,304 prisoners in the Philadelphia prisons and review the existing record of jails and examine the polygraph record of the inmate victims. Findings of his study demonstrated that an average of 1 in 20 (4.7%) prisoner was sexually assaulted in custody, but in reality about 60% of the inmates were sexually assaulted. He further added that majority of the inmates failed to report these incidents

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