
UNIT 13 POVERTY AND ITS SOCIAL DYNAMICS

Structure

- 13.0 Objectives
- 13.1 Introduction
- 13.2 Poverty as a Social Problem
- 13.3 Definition and Approaches to Poverty
 - 13.3.1 Definition
 - 13.3.2 Approaches
- 13.4 Causes of Poverty
 - 13.4.1 Inequality and Poverty
 - 13.4.2 Vicious Circle Theory
 - 13.4.3 Geographical Factors
- 13.5 Consequences of Poverty
 - 13.5.1 Poverty and Its Consequences
 - 13.5.2 Culture of Poverty
 - 13.5.3 Poverty in India
 - 13.5.4 Inequality of Income Distribution
- 13.6 Poverty Alleviation Programmes
 - 13.6.1 The IRDP and Employment Programmes
 - 13.6.2 Women and Youth and Area Development Programmes
- 13.7 Let US Sum Up
- 13.8 Key Words
- 13.9 Further Readings
- 13.10 Answers to Check Your Progress

13.0 OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this unit you should be able to :

- describe poverty as a social problem;
- define poverty;
- explain the causes of poverty;
- discuss poverty and its consequences; and
- explain some poverty alleviation programmes.

13.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last block we talked about social problems pertaining to different types of labour, viz. industrial, rural, women and children. In this block we are going to talk about the problems related to patterns of deprivation and alienation. The first unit of this block has to do with poverty and its social dynamics. In

this unit we define poverty and indicate categories for its measurement. Next we look into the causes of poverty, the vicious circle theory and geographical factors. Next we deal with the consequences of poverty. This includes a coverage of the culture of poverty, poverty in India, and inequality of income distribution. Finally we deal with poverty alleviation programmes which include the IRDP, employment programmes, women and youth area development programmes and urban areas.

13.2 POVERTY AS A SOCIAL PROBLEM

There has been poverty in all societies over a long period. However the 'extent' of poverty is more in some countries than others. Every society, however, affluent, has people who are poor. In the USA more than 25 million are said to live in poverty (12-15%). It was only in the 60s that there was recognition of the prevalence of poverty. A programme of 'War on Poverty' was then started in USA. In England, the Poor Law was passed in 1601 A.D. The law provided for the establishment of a work-house to provide work to those who were without any means to meet their basic needs. The conditions and the pay in the work-house were depressing. However, this can be said to be the beginning of the idea of public assistance to the poor. For example USA an affluent society has poverty too. But by and large these countries prosperous. In India however poverty is a major problem. Thus the concept of poverty is relative. It has been so much with us that not much attention has been paid to it. It was considered a normal aspect of any society. Till recently there has been little sense of social responsibility for dealing with poverty. On the other hand there has been a rationalisation of poverty. The poor were believed to be responsible for their own plight. Unemployment was considered a sign of laziness. The Karma theory suggested poverty was a consequence of wrongs or sins committed in earlier births. When poverty has been voluntary it has been praised by society. In such a case one cannot call it poverty per se because it is part of a saint's life style. Mahatma Gandhi lived in 'voluntary poverty'. So did the Buddha. This is different from involuntary poverty where the necessities of life are in very short supply.

In recent times there has been an acceptance of poverty as a social problem. India with the coming of independence has made some efforts to raise the level of income of people living in poverty. In 1960 the concept of poverty line was emphasised by Dandekar and Rath (1971). Specific programmes of poverty alleviation were initiated in the 4th plan.

Systematic study of the poverty is a recent phenomenon. It has been suggested that there were four questions that need to be answered to understand poverty.

- i) What is poverty ?
- ii) What is the extent of poverty ?
- iii) What are the causes of poverty?
- iv) What are the solutions ?

To (iii) one may also add what are the consequences of poverty? This unit will look at poverty using these questions as a framework. The effort will be to look at the sociological aspects.

13.3 DEFINITION AND APPROACHES TO POVERTY

In this section we shall be discussing various definitions and approaches to poverty. Let us define poverty first.

13.3.1 Definition

The approach to defining poverty has usually been in economic term – the levels of income, property and living standards. People are said to be poor when their income is such that it does not enable them to meet the basic needs such as food, shelter, and clothing. The concept of “poverty line” used both in India and USA fixed an income. If people fall below this line, they are considered to be poor. The poverty line is arbitrarily fixed, hence there can be questions about it. Nevertheless, it does provide one way of determining who the poor are. Sometimes, the word “pauperism” is used to denote extreme poverty. It describes a category of people who are unable to maintain themselves. In recent times there are many dimensions that are considered in looking at poverty. It is no longer seen as purely an economic phenomenon. It is now realised that there are sociological, political, psychological and geographical reasons as well as attitudes or value systems that need to be considered to understand poverty.

We suggest that a minimum approach by government in any society which has significant inequality must provide for raising minimum levels not only of incomes but also self-respect and opportunities for social mobility and participation in many forms of decision-making. What is being stated here is that in dealing with poverty one is not only concerned with the income but also with the individual’s political role, opportunities for his children and self-respect. Poverty is not only a condition of economic insufficiency; it is also social and political exclusion. Poverty is therefore to be seen not only merely in economic terms but also in its social and political aspects. The concepts and approaches to poverty have been dealt with in detail in Unit 12 of ESO-02. There we have viewed poverty as a level of living that is so low that it inhibits the physical, mental and social development of human personality. There it has been pointed out that poverty has been with human culture and civilisation since ages. In the beginning of the development of human society human beings were at a low level of social organisation and technological development and that the state of poverty was general in nature, faced by all members of society. In the process of evolution of human society there have been enormous developments in social organisation and technology. However the fruits of this progress have not been equally shared by all sections of society. There have been the rich and there have been the poor.

Thus poverty has been related to the prevailing socio-economic structure of the society. Experts on poverty have broadly used two approaches. First the nutritional approach. Here poverty is measured on the basis of minimum food requirements. Second, the relative deprivation approach. Here poverty is seen in terms of relative deprivation of a section of population against the predeveloped sections. We shall be discussing these matters in detail in our section on the measurement of poverty.

13.3.2 Approaches

There are various approaches for the measurement of poverty. The major factor considered in measuring poverty is income. The question that is asked is, what resources can a particular income command? Does the income allow for obtaining the basic necessities? Consequently, it has also been suggested that the actual intake of food should be the criteria. If an adult person is unable to have a certain number of calories (2,250) a day he is considered to be poor. The economic aspect usually involves the judgment of basic needs and is mentioned in terms of resources required to maintain health and physical efficiency. Such an approach is now being questioned. Among the basic needs are also include, education, security, leisure, recreation. When the resources commanded by average individuals are so low that they are in effect excluded from living patterns, customs and activities of the society, they are said to be living in poverty. Among the ideas which have an objective and dependable measurement of poverty is a concept of PQLI — (Physical quality of live index). The three indicators used in PQLI are life expectancy at age one, infant mortality and literacy. An index number is to be calculated for all countries based on the performance of each country in these areas. The worst performance would be designated by the in index number zero and the best performance by 100. In the 70s, the PQLI index for India was 43. Various important studies have been conducted in India for the measurement of poverty. For example Ojha in his study has used the average calorie intake as the basis for defining poverty. To him persons who are below the poverty line have an intake of less than, 2,250 calories per capita per day. Dandekar and Rath (1971) have estimated the value of the calories (2,250) in terms of 1960-61 prices. They observe that there would be variation in the extent of rural and urban poverty in terms of financial index. Here they suggested that whereas the Planning Commission accepts Rs.20/- per capita per month or Rs.240/- per annum as the minimum desirable standard, it would not be fair to use this figure both for rural and urban areas. They suggested a lower minimum of rupees 180/- for the rural population and a higher amount of Rupees 270/- per annum at 1960-61 prices.

i) **Absolute Poverty**

Absolute poverty refers to the inability of a person or a household to provide even the basic necessities of life. It refers to conditions of acute physical wants, starvation, malnutrition, want of clothing, want of shelter, total lack of medical care. At times “absolute poverty” is also called “subsistence poverty”, since it is based on an assessment of minimum subsistenc requirement. Nutrition is measured by intake of calories and proteins, shelter by quality of dwelling and degree of over-crowding, and the rate of infant mortality and the quality of medical facility. With the broadcasting of the definition of poverty it is also suggested that one should go beyond the physical need and also include cultural needs—education, security, leisure and recreation.

It is difficult to fully accept the argument. The nourishment needs of a farm labourer would be different from those of a clerk in an office. Similarly clothing requirements will also differ. If cultural needs are also included then measurements become more complex.

Box 13.01

The growth experienced after 1947 in India has been unparalleled in its own history. However compared to other developing countries it has been a slow and painful process. In the past 40 years mass poverty has also grown. It is not a question of pockets of poverty, but a very large number of people living below the poverty line throughout the country.

The poverty line is often defined as a minimum intake of calories (about 2400) to live and work per day. This measure therefore does not include other subsistence needs such as housing, clothing health and education. It is thus a real minimum.

ii) **Relative Poverty**

As there are difficulties in accepting “absolute poverty” fully, another term “relative poverty” has been developed. Poverty according to this concept is to be measured according to standards of life at a given time and place. The idea is that standards of society can be changing standards. Definition of poverty should therefore be related to the needs and demands of changing societies. In 1960 those who had a per capita income of Rs.20/- or less per month in rural areas were considered to be below the poverty line. In 1990 those who have an income of less than Rs.122/- per month are considered to be below the poverty line.

The term “relative poverty” also refers to the fact that different societies have different standards, hence it is not possible to have a universal measurement of poverty. Those who are considered poor in USA by their standards, may not be considered so in India.

Check Your Progress 1

i) How do we define poverty? Give your answer in 5-7 lines.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

ii) What is the minimum approach to poverty? Give your answer in 5-7 lines.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

13.4 CAUSES OF POVERTY

The Human Development in South Asia 1999 reveals situation of glaring poverty, inequality and deprivation in South Asia in general and India in particular. According to this report South Asia, with 23% of the world population is the planet's poorest region. About 540 million people, or 45% of the region's population, are living below poverty line, with daily income of less than one US dollar. India has the greatest number of the poor people with 53% people living below the poverty in 1999 (i.e. earning less than one US dollar a day). This report also points out that there are dramatic desperation and concentration of wealth and power among the richest members. The highest income earning layer of 20% own 40% of total income in the region while the lowest 20% owns only 10%. In India the richest 10% earns 6 times higher than the poorest 10% earns 6 times higher than the poorest 10% of the country.

Poverty has direct linkages with social and economic deprivations. Some indicators of these deprivations are highlighted below :

Indicators	South Asia	India
– Deprived to proper sanitary facilities	879 million	661 million
– Deprived of safe drinking water	278 million	178 million
– Child Birth death rate per 1,00,000 live birth	480	437
– Children under 5 years suffering from acute malnutrition	79 million	59 million
– Children not enrolled in Primary Education	50 million	35 million

There are many causes of poverty and we intend to discuss these in this section and subsequent subsections. First is the nexus between inequality and poverty. Then the vicious circle theory and finally geographical factors.

13.4.1 Inequality and Poverty

Earlier the effort was to study poverty by itself, that is, not relating it to the total conditions of the society. It has been suggested by a British social welfare expert that poverty should not be defined as income insufficiency, but the focus ought to be on the degree in inequality in the distribution of wealth in a society. Inequality is generated by the capitalist economy where wealth is concentrated in the hands of a few according to Marx. These few gain control of the means of producing wealth such as slaves, land and capital. They are able to influence the political process, by which social inequality is managed. Essentially poverty boils down to this fact that some people are poor because others are rich. Since the rich have greater political power than the poor, the government policy tends to favour them. The rich therefore tend to remain rich and the poor tend to remain poor. Marx claimed that all history is a history of class conflict; hence the situation can change only when the poor have greater political influence.

There are others who believe that there are different roles to be performed by members of a society. Some roles required long training, (doctors, engineers, lawyers, physicists etc.) They get higher rewards from the society. Others like vegetable-sellers, sanitation workers, taxi-drivers, typists, receive lower rewards. There is inequality but as it happens to maintain the society, it is considered functional. All these jobs have to be performed to meet the needs of the society.

13.4.2 Vicious Circle Theory

This theory argues that the poor are trapped in circumstances which make it difficult for them to escape poverty. The poor have inadequate diet which makes for low energy and hence poor performance in school and at work. Poor diet also makes them vulnerable to illness. They have poor housing and often have to go long distances for their work. They cannot afford or are not allowed to stay near the place of work. The circumstances combine to make the poor continue to be in poverty. Discussing the problem of poverty in rural areas of India a leading authority in rural development asks the question :”Does the policy in rural development considers integrated rural poverty?” Aspects of which include poverty, physical weakness, vulnerability, isolation, powerlessness. As this theory suggests the poor cannot get over their poverty. But it is difficult to accept such a deterministic view, a view suggesting that they cannot escape poverty. Sometimes this explanation of poverty is called “Situational Theory” in the sense that poor find themselves in a particular situation and have great difficulties in getting out of it, if at all.

13.4.3 Geographical Factors

Poverty is explained at times by the geographical conditions in which people live. The resources are scarce and people are unable to overcome the problems of lack of resources. The desert areas, the hill areas are good examples. In India, certain areas have been designated as drought-prone areas. Survey in these areas indicate that not only that the conditions are poor but in spite of hard work they are unable to overcome the situation.

Neither of these theories by themselves can explain the totality of the phenomena of poverty. They do however provide some analysis and understanding as to why poverty exists.

13.5 CONSEQUENCES OF POVERTY

As mentioned earlier the rich have influence to continue to be rich. In them there is a vested interest in the continuance of poverty. Poverty survives in part because it is useful to a number of groups in society. Poverty benefits the non-poor in general and rich and the powerful in particular. There are a number of functions of poverty:

- i) Poverty ensures that ‘dirty work will get done, there are many menial jobs that have to be done in society. It is the poor who take up such jobs.
- ii) Poverty provides a market for inferior goods and services-second-hand clothes, stale food material, poor houses, and services from unqualified persons.

- iii) Poverty facilitates a life style of the affluent. The work done by the cooks, gardeners, washermen, house cleaners etc. enable the upper classes to lead a life of comfort.
- iv) Poverty provides a group that can be made to absorb the political and economic causes of change. Technological development means more unemployment for the unskilled. Building of dams displaces the areas where the canals are built. People with no land get no compensation. Policies which change, when there is a tight budget situation, are the welfare programmes. The rich and often the government itself has a vested interest in the continuation of poverty. As it tends to provide for the maintenance of the stability of the society.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) What are the causes of poverty? Give your answer in 5-7 lines.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

- 2) What are the functions of poverty ? Give your answer in 5-7 lines.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

13.5.1 Poverty and its Consequences

Poverty and its consequences are discussed in the subsection below. First there is the culture of poverty which is discussed. We specify this discussion with poverty in India. Finally there is the inequality of income distribution.

13.5.2 Culture of Poverty

In the previous paragraphs discussions has been with regard to the causes of poverty. The structural or the vicious circle theory suggests that poor find it almost impossible to get out of the situation. How do people in such sad conditions manage to live? One explanation is that poverty forces them to develop certain patterns of behaviour enabling them to survive the sordid conditions of poverty. This pattern has been termed 'Culture of poverty'. The concept was developed by an anthropologist, Oscar Lewis, based on his studies in Mexico. He suggests that the poor develop a culture of their own, or rather

a subculture which is not part of the behaviour pattern or the value system of the society in which they live. Lewis says that the poor tend to be socially isolated. Apart from the family, no matter what other group they belong, their outlook remains narrow. They do not relate themselves to total society in which they live or to the poor in other parts of the country. The individual who grows up in this culture has strong feelings of fatalism, helplessness, dependence and inferiority. Their orientation is to living in present, they hardly think of the future. In brief it can be said that the culture of poverty is both an adaptation and a reaction of the poor in the marginal position. It is an effort to cope with the feeling of hopelessness and despair due to a realisation that it is almost impossible to achieve success according to values of the high societies. Their isolation also means lack of participation in the activities of the society-political, social and economic. There is also a suggestion that children are socialised into such a culture and hence are not willing to make use of opportunities to improve themselves they would feel insecure in a new situation.

There are many criticisms of this concept. One of the questions that is relevant is as to whether the culture of poverty applies to the rural conditions. Lewis develops the concept on the basis of his studies in slum areas. There is some evidence that the poor in rural areas also have developed a subculture, and defense mechanisms. Some feel that the poor do not participate not because of the culture that they have developed but because the larger society in a way prevents their full participation. Participation in social institutions requires certain levels of resources which the poor do not have (for example-participating in religious festivities). Another criticism is that the concept of culture of poverty tends to put the blame on the poor for being poor, rather than holding the social system responsible. Earlier there has been a discussion of how inequality is perpetuated in society. It also suggests that the culture of the poor is a consequence or a result of the poverty rather than the cause of poverty.

Activity 1

Visit the houses of a potter or a washerman or a dishwasher. Ask them regarding whether they have a social circle of friends. Try to find out all you can about the culture of poverty. Write down your findings in two pages and then discuss them with other students in the Study Center.

13.5.3 Poverty in India

There has been a substantial discussion of poverty in India since about 1960 when Dandekar and Rath focused the attention on the number of people who were below the poverty line. At that time they had calculated that if the income per capita per month was less than Rs.20/- the person was said to be below the poverty line. Separate figures are mentioned for rural and urban areas (For Bombay the amount indicated is Rs.200/- per month in 1960). The amount is based on what is needed to buy the required calories of 2400 per person per day. For rural areas, the figures was RS.122/- in 1988.

There are various estimates of the number of people below poverty line in rural areas. In 1977-78 it was estimated that 51% of the rural population (252 millions) were below the poverty line. In 1987-88 it was estimated that about 45% (261 millions) were below the poverty line. Although percentage-wise there is a fall, but in absolute numbers there is an increase as the population has increased. Although there are different estimates, it is generally accepted

that there are substantial number of people living in poverty. (In the urban areas the number of people living in poverty). In the urban areas the number of poor in 1987-88 was estimated 77 million (38%); in 1990, it is estimated that in rural and urban areas together about 350 millions are below the poverty line.

Table 1: Poverty prevalence Ratios by Rural-Urban Location: All India and 14 Major States (1993-4 to 1999-2000)
(Percentage of Population Below the Poverty Line)

States	Rural		Urban	
	1993-94	1999-2000	1993-94	1999-2000
All India	39.36	36.35	30.37	28.76
Andhra Pradesh	27.97	25.48	35.44	32.28
Assam	58.25	61.78	10.13	12.45
Bihar	64.41	58.85	45.03	45
Gujarat	28.62	26.22	28.86	21.7
Haryana	30.52	14.86	13.4	13.79
Karnataka	37.73	38.5	32.41	24.55
Kerala	33.95	26.5	28.2	31.89
Madhya Pradesh	36.93	39.35	46.02	46.29
Maharashtra	50.21	50	33.52	32.16
Orissa	59.12	62.67	36.99	34.27
Punjab	17.61	14.24	6.79	6.74
Rajasthan	25.92	15.01	30.6	24.36
Tamil Nadu	37.27	39.37	37.83	29.82
Uttar Pradesh	39.08	29.87	34.23	36.39
West Bengal	54.15	56.16	20.97	16.74

Notes: State specific poverty lines for 1993-94 have been adjusted for inflation by reference to the Consumer Price Index for Agricultural Laborers (for rural population) and the Consumer Pries Index or Industrial Workers for the urban population.

Source: Sundaram, K. 'Employment and Poverty in 1990s: Further Results from NSS 55th Round Employment-Unemployment Survey', 1999-2000, Economic and Political Weekly, 11 August 2001, pp. 3039-49.

In recent years there has been a decline in the proportion of people living below the poverty line at the all India level. However, those are several regional variations among the state. Again in some of the state while the extent urban poverty has declined the rural poverty has increased, for example the state of Karnataka, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and West Bengal. However in the case of Haryana, Kerala, while rural poverty has decline urban poverty has marginally increased. In the case of Assam and Madhya Pradesh extent of poverty has in creased both in the rural and in the urban areas.

13.5.4 Inequality of Income Distribution

Income distribution is very unequal. The share of the bottom 20% is 4% of the total income in rural areas whereas the share of the top 10% is 36%. Similarly in urban areas while the share of the bottom 20% is 9% that of the top 10% is

42%. The situation is indicative of the wide gap between the rich and the poor. The consumption expenditure also shows the same pattern. While the top 20% of the population accounts for 42% of the consumption, the bottom 20% accounts for about 10%. The pattern of land distribution confirms the wide difference between “haves” and “have not”. About 15% of the cultivators own nearly 50% of the cultivated land whereas 50% own less than 20%. There are questions about the exact figures—but there is general agreement of the overall pattern of maldistribution of wealth, income and consumption pattern among the people.

The maldistribution of assets leaves at least one-third of the population without effective means of satisfying their basic needs. The net result is that a large number of people lie just below the poverty line or above the poverty line. And a few keep on accumulating assets. Because of such a phenomenon, one wonders whether the gap between the poor and the rich can be bridged. Poverty is the result of unequal distribution of production assets, entitlements and surpluses reinforced by a power structure of closely knit economic, political and bureaucratic forces and vested interests. When discussing the causes of poverty one of the major ones mentioned was inequality. Poverty is therefore not merely an economic phenomenon but also has political and social ramifications.

13.6 POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROGRAMMES

Planning in India has always had some concern about high levels of poverty. The approach in the earlier plan has tended to deal with the problem indirectly i.e. increasing of GNP, land reforms, provision of services, minimum needs programme etc. It is in the 6th plan that a specific poverty alleviation programme was initiated. However, there is recognition that the problem is too deep to be solved by a specific programme. The VIIth Plan documents says “Poverty alleviation programmes have to be viewed in the wider perspective of socio-economic transformation of the country. The present strategy of direct attack on poverty through specific poverty alleviation programmes is justified on account of insufficient percolation of benefits to the poor from overall economic growth. It should be appreciated that the strategy of direct attack on poverty cannot be sustained and would not yield the desired results if the growth of the economy itself is slow and the benefits of such growth are inequitably distributed. The economic betterment of the poorer section can’t be achieved without social transformation involving structural changes, educational development, growth in awareness and changes in outlook, motivation and attitude.

The specific programmes which are described here should therefore be understood in the perspective of the above statement. The programmes that are mentioned here were operative in the VIIth Plan.

13.6.1 The IRDP and Employment Programmes

The Integrated Rural Development Programme was introduced in the late 70s. The main objective of the IRD Programme was to evolve an operational integrated strategy for the purpose—on the one-hand of increasing production and productivity in agriculture and allied sectors based on better use of land, water and light, and on the other of the resources and income development of vulnerable section of the population in Blocks of the country.

The Integration is in terms of bringing various programmes which dealt with specific programmes or areas, together. For example: Small Farmers' Development, Marginal Farmers and Agricultural Labourers, Drought-Prone Area Programme. The programmes were to help the poorest of the poor i.e. whose household income was less than Rs.4,800/= per year. If the cut off point for the poverty line is Rs.240 p.a. how can this amount represent the poorest of the poor? The specific activities were target group oriented. The programmes of special rise programme, operation flood, programme for handloom, sericulture etc. Steps were to be taken to increase the industries, services and business. The financial assistance consisted of subsidies and loans.

Unemployment is a major factor in poverty. In rural areas, agricultural labour has work available only seasonally. The rate of unemployment has tended to increase. In 1971 about 31/2million persons were unemployed. In 1983 it has risen to 4.5 million. About 30 million are registered in the Employment Exchange Centre all over the country. Employment Generation is therefore an important programme in meeting the problem of poverty.

Two programmes in these areas were initiated namely, National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) Rural Landless Employment Guarantee Programme (RLEGP). In the later part of the 80s another programme Jawahar Rojgar Yojana was introduced. The NREP was expected to generate 300-400 million mandays per annum. The programme envisaged creation of durable assets such as irrigation canals, social forestry, soil conservation, roads, school buildings, panchayat ghars etc. The RLEGP was introduced with the objective of improving and expanding employment opportunities for the rural landless. It aimed at providing guarantee of employment for at least one member of every landless household up to 100 days, and also to create durable assets. Housing, and social forestry, were among the activities to be undertaken in these programmes. In the Jawahar Rojgar Yojana the employment was to build community halls, panchayat ghars etc.

Activity 2

Visit a rural area or a slum and try to collect information on the poverty eradication programmes initiated in these areas. Based on your information write a short note of about 20 lines on the impact of poverty eradication programmes in rural/slum areas. If possible, discuss your note with your co-learners at the Study Center.

13.6.2 Women and Youth and Area Development Programmes

The Programme entitled Development of women and child in rural areas was initiated as a Pilot Project in the early 80s. The purpose was to increase their income and also to provide support, services, needed to enable them to take up income generating activities. Employment, education and improvement of health was the focus for improving the status of women. Training for rural youth for self employment was also launched in the beginning of the VIth Plan. The target group was youth between the age of 18-35 from families living below the poverty lines. The number to be trained was 40 per block per annum. Stipends to the selected youth were provided. Efforts were made to provide training relevant to the needs of the geographical areas.

There are areas which are affected adversely because nature has not been bountiful to them, viz. drought-prone areas, desert areas, hill areas etc. The incomes in these areas are subject to great fluctuations. Various programmes have been initiated to help the poverty-stricken people in these areas. In DPAP areas, for example, productive dry land farming, livestock development, sericulture, were among the activities introduced. In the desert areas, the activities included afforestation, animal husbandry, exploitation of ground water etc.

The major emphasis in the urban areas was the environmental improvement of the urban slums. Pre capita assistance of Rs.300/- per month was provided in the infrastructure, roads, payments, water supply etc.

The description of the programmes is very sketchy. The purpose is only to provide a general idea of the approach of the government to meet the problems of poverty. There have been many evaluation studies of these programmes. Most of these are of the view that while there is some improvement in the situation, target set are far from being achieved.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Discuss poverty and its consequences. Use 5-7 lines for your answer.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- 2) Discribe a poverty alleviation programme. Use 5-7 lines for your answer.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

13.7 LET US SUM UP

The unit is divided into various section to provide a conceptual and also a pragmatic view of poverty. Definition of poverty includes how poverty is measured. The causes and consequences of poverty have been described. In the last section of the unit the extent of poverty in India and the policies and programmes to overcome poverty have been briefly mentioned. Solution to problems of poverty needs a multidimensional approach. These are also discussed here.

13.8 KEY WORDS

- Absolute Poverty** : Absolute poverty refers to the inability of a person or a household to provide even the basic necessities of life.
- Area Programme** : There are areas which are not bountiful by nature. Various programmes have been initiated to help poverty-stricken people in these areas.
- Poverty** : This has been defined in many ways—mainly by a poverty line falling below which a person is called poor. Now sociological, psychological and political dimensions are also taken into consideration.
- Relative Poverty** : Poverty according to this concept is to be measured according to the standards of life at a given time and place.

13.9 FURTHER READINGS

Marickan S.J. (Ed) 1988. *Poverty in India*, Xaier Board : Trivandrum.

Swamy D.S. and A. Gulati 1986. From Prosperity to Retrogression : Indian Cultivators during the 1970's. *EPW*, June 21-22, p.A-63.

13.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Poverty is defined relative to a 'poverty line' and if people fall below this line they are considered to be poor. One drawback is that the poverty line is arbitrarily fixed, hence we can question it. However, it does provide a way of determining who the poor are.
- 2) The minimum approach to poverty is to try to raise to the minimum level all those who are poor. It is to try and raise the self-respect and opportunities for social mobility in many forms of decision-making.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) There are many causes of poverty. The first of these causes is inequality of distribution of wealth in a society. Next is the vicious circle theory where the poor remain poor due to lack of funds. Finally the geographical factors where the area where people are settled is unproductive and hence leads to poverty.
- 2) There are a number of function of poverty. These are that :
 - i) it ensures menial labour
 - ii) inferior goods and services and purchased and manned by the poor respectively.
 - iii) it facilitates the life cycle of the affluent
 - iv) it produces a group that is made to absorb the political and economic causes of change.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Poverty has several consequences. One of these consequences is the culture of poverty. In such a culture the poor learn to survive in solid conditions of poverty. This subculture is not the same as in the society they live. Further the poor tend to be socially located often living below the poverty line.
- 2) The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) was introduced in the late 1970s. The main objective of the IRD Programme was to increase yields in agriculture and allied areas based on land. It was also to develop the resources and income of vulnerable sections of society.



ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

UNIT 14 CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Structure

- 14.0 Objectives
- 14.1 Introduction
- 14.2 Crime and Interaction
 - 14.2.1 Juvenile Delinquency
 - 14.2.2 Crime and Delinquency
- 14.3 Dark Figures in Crime and Delinquency
 - 14.3.1 Police Report
 - 14.3.2 Causative Factors in Crime
- 14.4 Innate and Environmental Factors
 - 14.4.1 Reality Versus Fantasy
 - 14.4.2 Health and Disease
- 14.5 Environmental Factors in the Family
 - 14.5.1 The Family
 - 14.5.2 Structural Breaks in Family
 - 14.5.3 Child Care and Delinquency
 - 14.5.4 Poverty in the Family
- 14.6 Social Environment
 - 14.6.1 Slum Neighbourhoods
 - 14.6.2 Earning and Schooling
 - 14.6.3 Negative Impact of Mass Media
 - 14.6.4 Poverty and Low Income
- 14.7 Policy on Crime and Delinquency Control
- 14.8 Let Us Sum Up
- 14.9 Key Words
- 14.10 Further Readings
- 14.11 Answers to Check Your Progress

14.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit you should be able to :

- discuss the notions of crime and juvenile delinquency;
- comment on the “dark figures” in crime and delinquency;
- explain the innate and environmental aspects of crime and delinquency; and
- describe the impact of the familial and social environment on crime and delinquency.

14.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit (Unit 13) we have examined poverty and its social dynamics. In this unit we turn to crime and delinquency. We begin with notes on crime and interaction and go on to deal with juvenile delinquency and crime and delinquency. We examine in the next section crucial statistics of crime and delinquency in India. After this we turn to innate and environmental factors in crime. Among the environmental factors are mainly the family. Structural breaks within it include child care, poverty, arrest and conviction. Beyond this we go 'outside the family' and examine the family environment. This section includes analysis of slum neighbourhood, earning and schooling and impact of mass media. Finally we deal with the policy on crime and delinquency control.

14.2 CRIME AND INTERACTION

Whenever people get together to satisfy individual and group needs, they set limits and make rules to regulate behaviour. Wherever there have been rules and regulations, there have also been individuals who have not followed the permitted conduct.

Every society, in the process of growth, develops certain values and norms for expected behaviour. Some of these norms later get codified into laws. Their violations become punishable by the state.

The term 'crime' means a form of anti-social behaviour that violates public sentiment to such an extent that is forbidden by law. A crime is an act which the public regards as dangerous and condemns and punishes the perpetrator of such an act. Crime thus represents a specialised portion of the totality of undesirable behaviour.

There is a large field of unethical conduct which is not punishable by law. Such behaviour is left to the control of the public. The borderline between crime and unethical or immoral behaviour is little. Acts which in some countries are regarded as crimes, are viewed as only unethical in others. Only when such practices are considered dangerous enough to call for legislative action, they do qualify to be called crimes in any society. For example buying or selling liquor may be a crime in one state in India while it is not the same in other states. Excessive drinking, though considered unacceptable will not be a legal wrong, where drinking liquor is otherwise permitted. Failure to honour one's parents will be unethical but not a legal wrong i.e., crime.

14.2.1 Juvenile Delinquency

A crime is termed "juvenile delinquency" when committed by a young person under a certain age. The age of the juvenile delinquent is not consistently set around the world. In India, this age limit is set at **16 years for boys and 18 years for girls**. The other aspect in case of young persons is that there are certain behaviour which would not be considered criminal in nature if committed by adults, but they will be taken note of as crime if committed by youth. For example, a person below the age of 16 years who:

- i) is uncontrollable by his parents or guardians by reason of being wayward or by being habitually disobedient.
- ii) Habitually plays truant from school
- iii) Lives without ostensible means of subsistence
- iv) Habitually behaves in such a way as to endanger the morale or health of himself/herself.

All these types of juvenile delinquents can be dealt with by the police and courts.

14.2.2 Crime and Delinquency

Ever since society was organized and the codes of conduct were formulated, there have always been individuals who have violated these codes. Always, and everywhere, some juveniles and many adults have flouted the patterns of permitted behaviour. The increase in such behaviour has reached alarming proportions. These unlawful activities have become intolerable in many part of the world. In comparison, we in India may be considered somewhat fortunate. However, in absolute terms the loss of life, property, and the pain inflicted is reaching quite serious dimensions.

These days, on an average, **one** person is murdered every seventeen minutes. **Twenty seven** females are raped every day. A riot takes place every five minutes and **forty-seven** persons are kidnapped or abducted every day. A robbery or dacoity is committed every sixteen minutes and three hundred and fifty three houses are broken into and burgled every day. And one theft takes place every minute and a half. The value of property stolen annually is in the range of three hundred and thirty five crores of rupees of which only about 1/3 is recovered by the police.

When we consider Indian Penal Code offences (like murder, rape, kidnapping, abduction, riot, robbery, burglary, theft, cheating, etc.), little more than twenty three lakh persons were arrested by the police during 1989. Additionally, there were about forty lakh persons arrested for offences under the Local and Special Laws like Prohibition Act, Gambling Act, Excise Act, Indian Railways Act, Immoral Traffic Prevention Act, Narcotics Act, etc. Out of these total arrests of sixty three lakh persons, juveniles accounted for about thirty six thousand —24,777 boys and 11,615 girls.

14.3 DARK FIGURES IN CRIME AND DELINQUENCY

Given below are the statistics from official records (Crime in India) but actually how many persons violate the legal norms in a given society, nobody can say for sure. Many authorities believe that official crime and delinquency figures reveal nothing more than the activities of control his agents, hardly anything at all about the “real” extent of criminal behaviour. Nonetheless, howsoever imperfect these may be, crime known to the police remains the best available index since it represents crimes reported to the police by citizens, or crimes discovered by them.

Table 1: Crime in India at a Glance

Incidence of Total Crimes in (00,000)	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	N.A.	N.A.	38.6	39.3	50.5	64.1	61.8	49.1	51.6
IPC	6.5	6.3	9.5	13.9	16.8	17.2	17.8	17.6	17.7
SLL	NA	NA	29.1	25.4	33.7	46.9	44.0	31.5	33.9
Rate*									
Total	NA	NA	701.1	569.8	594.3	671.2	636.7	497.8	515.7
IPC	NA	16.2	26.8	61.0	12.6	7.9	9.4	8.9	9.3
SLL	NA	NA	142.8	97.7	22.1	4.4	6.0	5.6	5.6
Incidence of Juvenile Crimes in ('000)									
Total	NA	NA	169.6	158.7	34.7	12.3	15.4	14.5	14.9
IPC	NA	16.2	26.8	61.0	12.6	7.9	9.4	8.9	9.3
SLL	NA	NA	142.8	97.7	22.1	4.4	6.0	5.6	5.6
Rate*									
Total	NA	NA	30.8	23.2	4.1	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.4
IPC	NA	3.7	4.9	8.9	1.5	0.8	1.0	0.9	0.9
SLL	NA	NA	25.9	14.3	2.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5
Decennial Crime Growth									
Total	NA	NA	NA	1.8	28.4	28.3	18.7	-8.7	5.5
IPC	NA	-3.1	50.8	46.3	21.1	22.2	23.5	15.3	10.4
SLL	NA	NA	NA	-12.7	32.4	30.7	16.9	-18.2	3.1
Police Strength (in '00,'000)(Actual)									
Total	NA	NA	7.07	8.98	11.53	12.80	13.1	13.2	13.0
Civil	NA	NA	5.34	6.92	9.04	9.90	10.2	10.3	10.3
Armed	NA	NA	1.73	2.06	2.49	2.90	2.9	2.9	2.7
Decennial Police Growth	NA	NA	—	27.0	28.4	20.8	23.3	17.7	15.1
Density of Police Personnel (Per 100 Sq. kms.)	NA	NA	—	27.3	35.1	40.4	41.5	41.8	41.0
Police Strength (Per 1,00,000 Population)	NA	NA	129	131	136	134	135	134	129

* -Incidence per lakh (1.00.000) of population

NA – Stands for Not Available.

Population figures for non-census years are based on mid year provided by RGI office.

Table 2: Crime Snapshots - 2000

- 17.2 lakhs IPC crimes; 34.0 lakhs SLL crimes reported during the year, 0.4 per cent increase in IPC crimes; 7.9 per cent increase in SLL (Special and Local Laws) crimes over 1999.
- 1.2% decrease in IPC crime rate, 6.2 per cent increase in SLL crime rate over last year.
- 3 IPC crimes, 6 SLL crimes reported on an average in 1 minute in the country.
- Among States, Rajasthan, Jammu & Kashmir and Assam were more violent compared to West Bengal, Punjab and Sikkim which reported low violent crime rate.
- NCT of Delhi reported highest crime rate (399.0) for all IPC crimes, 2.3 times the national crime rate of 176.7. The frequency of Violent Crimes in Delhi was comparatively lower (one case in 13 reported IPC crimes) compared to Tripura which reported 1 violent crime in 3 IPC crimes against National Average of 1:7.
- 6300 per cent increase in Importation of girls, 70.7 per cent in Counterfeiting, 24.5 per cent in Sexual Harassment cases.
- Punjab reported 1900 per cent increase in Sexual Harassment while Karnataka reported 746 per cent increase in Counterfeiting cases.
- Bangalore reported more than half (53.1) of Cheating cases among all cities.
- 79.0 per cent IPC cases were investigated and 78.4 per cent of them were charge sheeted. 18.3 per cent cases tried, 41.8 of them resulted in convictions.
- 30.7 per cent of trials completed within 1 to 3 years, 24.2 per cent completed between 3 to 5 years.
- Pondicherry reported the highest conviction rate for IPC crimes (91.9 per cent) as compared to national level rate 41.8
- 67.4 per cent Conviction in 'Sexual Harassment' cases followed by 48.1 per cent in 'Auto Theft' cases.
- 0.5 per cent share of Juvenile crimes to total IPC crimes increased by 4.3 per cent over 1999.
- Uttar Pradesh reported 20.7 per cent of Murder cases while 40 per cent of the victims of Murder by firearms belonged to Bihar state.
- On an average, 1.5 arrests per IPC case.
- 4.1 per cent increase in Crimes against Women. Highest crime incidence in Uttar Pradesh (14.0%); highest crime rate in Rajasthan (24.0) as compared to 14.1 at All-India.
- 960 per cent increase in cases of Buying of Girls for Prostitution, 49.2 per cent increase in Foeticide cases over 1999.
- 62.5 per cent of Importation of girls cases reported from Bihar State.
- In 87.4 per cent of Rape cases, Offenders were known to the victims; 30 per cent of these were neighbours.

- 19.3 per cent; Crime against Children; highest in Madhya Pradesh.
- 33.7 per cent of Child victims of Kidnapping and Abduction (upto 10 years age) belonged to N.C.T. of Delhi.
- 28.8 per cent; highest share in Crime against Scheduled Caste in Uttar Pradesh; 44.0 per cent, highest share highest in Crime against Scheduled Tribes in Madhya Pradesh.
- 1:7 national average ratio of Police Officers (ASI and above) to the subordinate Staff (Head Constables and Constables)
- Only 38.6 per cent of police force provided with the housing facility by the Government
- Only 5.9 per cent of lost/recovered motor vehicles co-ordinated.
- 11 per cent decline in Police fatalities; Accidents claim 56 per cent of them. Almost half (46.5%) of the deceased were young (18-35 years).
- 111 serving Police Officials committed suicide.

Source : National Crime Record Bureau 2001 Crimes in India. Ministry of Home Affairs Government of India.

14.3.1 Police Reports

While the crimes discovered by police will depend on its efficiency, there are many reasons why people may be reluctant to report to the police. Some of these are :

- i) the offence may be trivial
- ii) the police station may be far away
- iii) the low confidence people have in the various features of the legal system (police, prosecution, courts, etc.)
- iv) the fear of harassment from the criminal or his associates
- v) the offence may be of embarrassing nature to the victim (sex offences)
- vi) especially in juvenile cases, neighbours may adjust payment for property damage with the parents of the offending child; storekeepers may stop a young shoplifter as he leaves the store and relieve him of stolen articles; many more types of delinquencies may be ignored by the observers, even by the victims, as a part of the process of growing up.

The phenomenon of 'hidden crime and delinquency' becomes more complex when we examine the results of 'self-report' studies. Though no such efforts seem to have been made in our country, in the West, researchers interviewed in confidence 'normal' school and college students about their deviant activities. The results showed that their behaviour was not very significantly different from those proportion of training-school youth admitted, to committing many types of delinquencies. They committed them more frequently than the school and college boys and girls.

Socio-economic levels were no barriers to such behaviours, although the 'official cases' were disproportionately from the lower strata. This should be understandable since the socio-economic status of the family has an important bearing on whether the offending youth will be arrested, convicted and

institutionalised, or treated otherwise. This may also confirm the memories many of us have of our own adolescent activities. Informal inquiry among one's classmates, friends, or guests at get-togethers, ordinarily brings out plenty of information about the occurrences in 'good' families of stealing, shoplifting, assault on friends, robbing the garden or throwing stones at passing trains, etc. For this sort of conduct they could have been arrested had there been anyone concerned enough to report it.

14.3.2 Causative Factors in Crime

What causes juvenile delinquency or adult crime? There is no simple or straightforward answer available. Although criminal behaviour sometimes has its roots in juvenile delinquency, many juvenile delinquents do not become criminals as adults. Further, many criminals have no prior history of juvenile delinquency. However, the range of offences, motivations and associated causative factors are much the same in both delinquency and crime and it may be appropriate to discuss them together.

Activity 1

Collect clippings on crime from the newspapers and magazines for four weeks. What do these clippings suggest regarding the cause(s) of crime? Write a note of about two pages on this and compare it with other student in the Study Centre.

What impels some people—children, women and men to break social sanction or any law? Efforts have been made by a number of writers and researchers to understand the factors involved and they have discovered many : physical, emotional, psychological and environmental. According to a renowned authority it has not been possible to assign a single universal source nor even two or three. Crime flows out of a wide variety of sources and usually from a multiplicity of alternative and converging influences. In all, about 170 distinct conditions have been encountered, every one of them conducive to misconduct which may lead to juvenile delinquency or crime in a few years. In any given case, amid all accessory factors, some single circumstance (or a few of them) frequently stands out as the most prominent.

Box 14.01

Without contending that they will inevitably cause delinquency or crime, it is now accepted that certain conditions are more favourable to this causation than others. For example, physical deformity, mental imbalance, mental deficiency, emotional insecurity, a slum environmental stimulation to crime, etc., are obviously more favourable to anti-social behaviour than their opposites. It is also true that any or all of these unfavourable conditions will not inevitably drive a given person to commit a crime in all circumstances. It is true that all seemingly favourable circumstances are no insurance against a person committing a crime. Hidden factors that tip the scale either way can never be eliminated from specific situations by all the theories of causation in the world.

In this sort of perplexing situation then, what we can say, at best, is that the area of unknown regarding human behaviour is quite substantial though some personal factors and some common social and economic conditions go hand in hand with the committing of crime and delinquency. And the impact of

these factors, and their varying combinations, differ greatly from one individual to another. In some cases the factors responsible may be more personal than environmental, whereas in other cases the reverse may be true.

Check Your Progress 1

1) What is juvenile delinquency? Explain in about five lines.

.....

2) Explain the causative factors in crime. Use about five lines for your answer.

.....

14.4 INNATE AND ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Let us now discuss the innate characteristics and environmental factors in some detail. Personal pathology consisting of physical factors like poor health, chronic diseases, physical deformities may cause an inferiority complex and impel the individual to seek for short-cuts to compete in this competitive world. Mental factors like low intelligence, neurotic or psychotic disorders may lead to exploitation or compulsive actions or deviant sexual gratification. There is the possibility of prolonged emotional and social withdrawal, the frustration culminating in an outburst of violent behaviour.

The emotionally mature individual is one who has learned to control his emotions effectively, and who lives at peace with himself and in harmony with the standards of conduct which are acceptable to the group. Many authorities believe that delinquency and criminality are the result of serious emotional imbalance or conflicts in personalities of individuals. They are at odds with the values and mores of their groups and typically offend the sensibilities of those closest to them. Thus, from the psychological point of view, individual exhibits a distorted personality; his personal whims are largely responsible for his antisocial behaviour and he is alienated from those in his immediate social environment.

14.4.1 Reality Versus Fantasy

Stated somewhat differently, since few persons have a completely satisfactory set of experiences from birth onward, or find life entirely to their liking in adulthood, the great majority of normal human beings create for themselves a

realm of fantasy in which they realise aspirations denied to them in actual life. But in all these normal cases reality occupies the leading role in their life interests and activities. On the other hand, those with emotional disturbances are unable to face reality, resulting in mental conflicts. Their life experiences, childhood onwards, might have been such that they have created mental reaction patterns that make it very difficult for them to meet adult responsibilities. They may have suffered from insecurity, rejection, severe resentment, harsh living conditions, professional failures, and a large number of other unfortunate experiences. This may make it extremely difficult for them to face realities of life and they get into conflict with law.

Physical abnormalities as mentioned earlier and many personality problems of children and adults are developed by physical handicaps or other such abnormalities. Short stature, skin blemishes, oversized ears, obesity, to refer to a few, are likely to cause serious personality or emotional difficulties in social relationships among those afflicted. They are usually avoided in social contacts and find themselves at a disadvantage in marriage opportunities, in securing employment, and in numerous other ways. The pent-up resentment may become acute and compensatory behaviour develops, in such a manner that various forms of alienation result. A youth may compensate for his feeling of inferiority by becoming a daring robber; one may get very angry and hit back his actual or imaginary tormentors. But we must not forget, however, that quite a majority of persons thus afflicted make an adequate adjustment in their world. This is particularly true of those who have grown through childhood with a set of understanding parents and friends who have not rejected them.

14.4.2 Health and Disease

As regards poor health or chronic diseases, we do experience that persons who are ill (or fatigued, for that matter) often are irritable, unreasonable, and less controlled in their behaviour than usual. Feeble minded persons and probably more easily led to crime and delinquency because they have less ability to think critically and very often cannot make satisfactory decisions and govern their conduct accordingly. Any mental disease condition which alters the individual's judgement or capacity for self-restraint will affect his behaviour which may take absurd, dangerous, or antisocial directions. Sex murders, arson, compulsive thieving (kleptomania) are instances of crimes which involve a neurotic element.

14.5 ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS IN THE FAMILY

There can no doubt be personal factors in every delinquency or crime situation in which an individual disobeys a law. But there are also social, economic and community factors commonly termed as environmental factors, which are important in stimulating antisocial activity. We usually think of the environment as merely the more apparent factors in the life of an individual—his neighborhood, the house he lives in, his family life, his school or workplace, and the interactions he has with his friends. These are of course part of the environment. But as a scientific concept, environment must include every stimulus that impinges on the individual's structure from the moment of conception—the moment the new life begins. The environment is represented

by every possible interaction between the individual and every other individual with whom he comes in contact. His reading, the motion pictures (even posters!), the radio, television—all are a potent part of the environment.

14.5.1 The Family

We may discuss environmental factors in two parts—‘within the family’ and outside the family’. Of course, these two cannot be put into separate compartment since there is a constant interplay among their influences on each other, on the one hand, and on the physical, mental and emotional states of the individual, on the other.

Family is the first crucial group in the life of the child. No one can say at birth that a child will inevitable become a delinquent nor can it be said that it will inevitably remain a law-abiding individual. Family is the first agency to nurture a child’s social and personal growth. Within the family lie tremendous forces for producing or presenting antisocial behaviour. This is because it has almost exclusive contact with the child during the period of greatest dependency, which lasts several years. From a warm, loving, stable family, the child learns that people are friendly, worth knowing, and can be depended upon. When a family is cold, rejecting, or neglectful, the child learns distrust, hostility, or hatred of people.

‘Under-the-roof’ family situation and relationships can have many ‘interacting’ aspects. These are involved in the formation of a cumulative atmosphere, which may affect the behaviour of the child one way or the other. Take for example the broken home, which may have been caused by death, desertion, or divorce/separation. Mother and father are generally considered two wheels of a family cart which cannot move smoothly when either of them is removed or relations between them are damaged. There is a strong belief that broken family tends to rear children with sick personalities. Sick personalities have unusual difficulty conforming to social rules. A number of investigators have pointed towards the high incidence of structural breaks in the family backgrounds of delinquent youths.

14.5.2 Structural Breaks in Family

Structural break in the family, except in case of death, is always seen to be receded by daily parental quarrels. Much tension and disruption of peaceful living have quite a traumatic effect on the children. In some circumstances, the break in the family may, at times, improve the home atmosphere. Thus, the interpersonal conditions of family relationships are very important. In disharmonious families, children too often get ‘pushed’ from home because of these disturbances. They have to seek outside contacts for resolving feelings of insecurity and frustration, rather than being ‘pulled’ by outside attractions.

Through the years, perhaps, one of the most frequently heard causes of delinquency and crime is parental inadequacy, in their role of bringing up children. Socialisation is the process through which the child becomes aware of the basic values of his society and acquires the attitudes characteristic of it. Early family training influences strongly the inculcation of these values. The growing child must learn which action is permitted, which prohibited, and why. It must learn how to get along with others, children and adults. Depending upon the patterns of disciplining and guiding and also the role models at home,

the child will learn to handle the pressures and responsibilities of growing up inside and outside the home.

Mother nature, not doubt, has helped a lot by providing, in most instances, an affectionate bond between parents and the child. However affection alone is not enough to influence the conduct of children in a wholesome way. Affection has to be backed up by consistent control and appropriate disciplining efforts. When the parents are inconsistent in behaviour the child feels very insecure. This is because he or she never knows how his parents are going to react to what he does. He or She finds that they are at times angry, sometimes interested and other times disinterested, he or she is completely confused. His or Her problems are still more when each parent reacts in a completely contradictory manner, or when one condones, and the other punishes with undue harshness.

14.5.3 Child Care and Delinquency

Working mothers have often been blamed on the assumption that a young child needs the mother's constant attention to assure its proper emotional and physical development. This becomes very difficult when she is away for a substantial part of the day and returns with nervous and physical exhaustion. Additionally, in adolescent years when supervision becomes more essential, maternal employment reduces its effectively thereby unduly exposing them to unhealthy influences. However, the evidence available does not conclusively show significant relationship between delinquency and the mother being at work. What is important is not the employment of the mother but the lack of supervision. If the mother remains at home but does not keep track of her child he/she is far more likely to become delinquent than if she is away but has made arrangement for supervision by an acceptable substitute. Actually, a working mother's economic contribution can be an integrating and stabilising influence in the family. It may mean a desire for providing greater family security, continued education of children, a summer vacation, or any of a number of things thought to be of benefit to all members of the family.

14.5.4 Poverty in the Family

Poverty in the family has been another popular explanation advanced as a cause of unsocial conduct. It is true that in a great majority of apprehended children, the economic status of the family has always been found to be low. Our data also indicates that about two-thirds of them are from families which had monthly income of up to Rs.500/= and only 4 per cent belongs to families which had income of Rs.2000/= and above. But it is also true that the majority of the poor children do not become offenders. There are far more honest than dishonest poor people. Conditions of affluence are no sure guarantee against law violations by youth as well as by adults. Had that been so, the higher standard of living in the western world should have reduced their delinquency and crime rates. It has not only not reduced them but increased them!

Paradoxically, the trend towards increasing equality in the distribution of consumer goods generates expectations of further equality. And when expectations are raising faster than the standard of living, the greater availability of consumer goods makes for greater, dissatisfaction. In other words, many crimes may be traced to economic causes. However, it is not correct that most of those who committed the offence were driven to do it by hunger. It is the envy and ambition rather than hunger and cold that stimulate many petty crimes,

in the same way that greed urges on the big-time criminals. It is not the lack of clothing, but expensive clothing that tempts hundreds of girls to become call girls. Actually, it is not always the poverty but the contrast that is the disturbing element.

Check Your Progress 2

Fill in the blanks.

1) Amongst the important factors in delinquency and crime are the and the.....factors.

2) What are the environmental factors within the family? What effect do breaks within it have on crime and delinquency? Use 7 to 10 lines for your answer.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

14.6 SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Under the above heading we will briefly consider three main factors :

- i) slums or neighbourhoods that are quite low on socio-economic scale;
- ii) preparation for honest earning through schooling, and
- iii) the components of mass-media like newspapers or magazines, radio, television, and films.

14.6.1 Slum Neighbourhoods

With many people flocking to towns and cities housing has become a problem. Slums have grown to accommodate those who were shelterless, unemployed, low salaried, etc. Crime rates are higher in these deprived sections because it is here that life is not disorganised. There are extra pressures to make a living. People in slums also want the same good things that they see others enjoying. They find that they cannot get them honestly, often because of lack of education or opportunity. This situation creates frustration and tensions, and some of them develop an indifference to law, and do not see the necessity of obeying it. Many times crime becomes an accepted way of life, an alternative to the honest work which seems unavailable or out of reach, although it may be reorganised as desirable and preferable. They are also exposed to undesirable models around, those crooks who make good money through illegal means and appear respected in the locality, nonetheless. Crime and delinquency thus become attractive, but one again we can only see an indirect relationship. Thousands of people living in substandard homes do manage somehow to remain away from unlawful activities.

14.6.2 Earning and Schooling

Besides equipping the child to learn the skills to later earn a living, education means development of personality. Through education the child is supposed to be introduced to ideals and higher types of men who can cater to refinement and broader mental outlook. Generally speaking, middle-class families place a high value on ambition, on getting ahead. Academic achievement and the acquisition of skills that have long-range economic pay-offs are highly appreciated. They socialise their children to struggle hard, exercise self-control and postpone gratifications, and to plan for the future. In the poor class family children are withdrawn from school because family needs the economic aid of the child. He or she may also be needed to take care of the siblings in the absence of the mother while on work. Dropping out may mean more leisure. More free time may mean diminishing adult supervision as well as increased scope for developing undesirable associates

14.6.3 Negative Impact of Mass Media

There is a growing concern these days that the mass media which undoubtedly inform, educate and entertain have also become a source of contamination. It is frequently alleged that newspapers, film magazines, and comics, radio television and movies have been exerting an unhealthy influence, particularly on children. Sensational reports of criminal activity in newspapers by detailing the modus operandi (i.e., types and techniques), can affect readers in two different and dangerous ways. It may affect some highly suggestible persons, among whom are many young people, to commit similar crimes. Or it may create an attitude of indifference to law and asorder through the constant repetition and exaggeration of the details of the crimes. Motion pictures dealing with rime quite often show that it is easy to lie without working legitimately. They show that crime is exiting, even though it may not pay in the long run.

They indicate that there are methods of erading the law, at least in the early parts of the film. Young girls find from many movies that love can be thrilling, that good clothes make the woman. There are many scenes which are titilating sexually. Television has grown in importance and is reaching more and more home. Not that T.V. is objected to wholesale—the prime culprits are those films and programmes loaded with vice. Such violence or vulgarity are allegedly said to induce viewers to raping, prostitution, robbery, assault or murder.

Activity 2

Watch two or three commercial movies on T.V. or in the theater. What distinguishes the criminal (villain) from the hero in the movie? Do both break the law? Then why are they separated so far as their social status and meting out of legal punishment is concerned?

Write two pages for your answer and compare these notes with other students in the Study Centre.

In a country like ours where literacy rate is quite low, the impact of radio on general attitude and approaches to behaviour can be much more potent than the published material. However, what is objected to in radio programmes are generally the crime dramas and advertising of films with violence themes, especially the sponsored programmes by producer/distributors.

Many authorities, believe that mass media has been made too much of a scapegoat for the deteriorating delinquency and crime problems. Occasionally a person states that he got the idea for a crime from a newspaper account of the activities of another criminal. But the publicity given to the modus operandi of the criminal may make the public more aware of the techniques of such activities because sooner or later police do catch the offender. About the radio, television and films it is contended that millions of people, both young and not so young, listen or view these programmes. It would be absurd to state that most of them are adversely affected. It will mostly depend on the type of person who is listening or viewing their output. Stable people, juveniles and adults, will be little affected since such influence is transient. The unstable and socially maladjusted may be somewhat affected. However, because of this unidentifiable segment of population harsh controls should not be placed on the mass media. Mass communication media have become quite important in the present times for providing information and education as well as entertainment. The freedom of expression is quite a sensitive subject for democracies.

14.6.4 Poverty and Low Income

The vast majority of those arrested and convicted belong to poor economic status. We must bear in mind that they have no one to come between them—the police and courts, when the law is broken. They lack resources and the police as well as other law enforcing authorities are more severe on them. In actual terms the administrative processes of law enforcement are seen to be quite favourable to person in economic comfort. If two persons on different economic levels, have committed the same offence, the one on the lower level is more likely to be arrested, and convicted.

It will have to be accepted that the economic factors are quite important. Poverty can engender antisocial activities in many indirect ways. Unsatisfactory human relations have been frequently seen to emanate from destitution and poverty. The feelings of inadequacy, and emotional insecurity play their part upon the inner life of potential offenders. Poverty does cause undernourishment and poor physical health which, in turn, may lead to a lowered mental resistance to temptation. Poverty-stricken families have very little choice in the selection of residential locality. Usually they live in chawls or **jhugi-jhopadies** where living conditions are congested, playgrounds are either few or altogether absent. Here the living space is too small to afford the comfort and privacy required for the development of self-respecting personalities.

Evidently, because of poverty and poor circumstances, the options of the children get severely limited. In families, generally larger than the average, with little living space and inadequate facilities, the children are driven to seek their recreations on the streets. The daily budgeting battle, often giving rise to frayed tempers between husband and wife, when there is very little money to provide for the minimum basic necessities of food, clothing, education, etc., impose extraordinary strains on the family. The parents in such situations can take little or no interest in their children, although they have affection for them. Further, because of lack of money, very often the reasonable demands of school going children are mocked at and education suffers.

However, as mentioned earlier, we cannot say that environment of poverty

makes every one delinquent or criminal since there are plenty of people who come from such surroundings and remain law-abiding. But poverty does different things to different people. For some its pressures can be among the important causes of antisocial behaviour.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) Tick the right answer.
 - a) Slum neighbourhoods have a bad effect on crime rates making them rise higher.
 - b) Slum neighbourhoods have a good effect on crime rates making them go down.
- 2) What is the impact of mass media on crime? Use about five lines for your answer.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

14.7 POLICY ON CRIME AND DELINQUENCY CONTROL

Adult crime and juvenile delinquency are not present day phenomena : they have always existed and always will. What is possible is that their extent can be controlled. If one talks in terms of wider origins of criminal behaviour, one has to think of human nature which contains these impulses, and we require a set of restraining institutions, for internal as well as external controls. When the family, the school, the local community are not operating effectively or are disrupted, these impulses are likely to get a free play. Again, when the agencies or criminal justice system are inadequate or ineffective, some people get freed from moral sensibilities. More and better law enforcement, more and better prepared policemen and the application of men and scientific methods of crime detection are at least partial answers to the problems of crime and delinquency. If detections are almost certain, court proceedings swift and punishments appropriate, it is possible that many a person would avoid criminal behaviour. Also, there is abundant need to strike at poverty and its related ills to reduce that problem. Family relationships require strengthening and children should have wholesome and constructive outlets for play. They should be kept away from forming undesirable habits and companionships. Though it is not guaranteed, it can be said that the more opportunities for wholesome use of leisure in childhood, the less likelihood there is of indulgence in delinquency.

Concurrently, we will need to deal with those found guilty in a manner that they are helped to improve their conduct through counseling, education and furthering occupational skills so that they do not offend again. These intentions are being translated into action through the correctional institutions—children’s

institutions, brothels, and prisons—as well as through non-institutional processes of probation, parole/license, and aftercare. However, much more inputs of qualified men and adequate material resources are required if we have to achieve substantial gains in reforming and rehabilitating juvenile delinquents and adult criminals.

14.8 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed crime and delinquency. We started our discussion with crime and interaction, juvenile delinquency, crime and delinquency. We turned next to the dark figures in crime and delinquency. Beyond this we examined the environmental factors involved in crime and delinquency. These include the perception of the divide between reality and fantasy, and the facts of health and disease. The environmental factors discussed include family structure, breaks in family structures, childcare and delinquency and so on. We have also discussed the environment around the family, e.g. slum neighbourhoods and impact of mass media. Finally we turned to policy on crime and delinquency control.

14.9 KEY WORDS

Dark Figures	:	Figure or statistics which have not come to light.
Delinquency	:	A violation of norms and values often amounting to a crime.
Environmental	:	This could be within the family or outside it. The first is family environment of the family, e.g. slums.
Innate	:	That which is within a thing, or inherent to it, e.g. an innate talent for mathematics.
Slum	:	A very poor semi-permanent type of colony housing for very poor people.

14.10 FURTHER READINGS

Cavan, R.S. and T.N. Ferdinand, 1975. *Juvenile Delinquency*. J.B. Lippincott: Philadelphia.

Sarkar, C. 1987. *Juvenile Delinquency in India*, Daya Publishing House : Delhi.

14.11 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) Juvenile delinquency is a crime which is committed by a young person under a certain age. This juvenile delinquent age is not the same all over the world. In India this age is set at 16 for boys and 18 for girls.
- 2) The causation of juvenile delinquency is not a simple or straightforward set of facts. However physical, emotional, psychological and environmental factors are very important causes for such crime.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) 'innate' and 'environmental'.
- 2) Family is the most influential group within which a person operates. When a family is friendly and warm it has a good influence. When it is cold rejecting and neglectful, the child begins to distrust and hate people. Structural breaks imply disharmony (quarrels) or imbalance (death of parents or one parent). Such parental inadequacy is a major reason for juvenile delinquency.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) a)
- 2) Mass media which has a very powerful informative role to perform, can also be a source of contamination. Sensational reporting, with details of the crime can affect suggestible young people to commit the crime. Movies can show that crime pays. Many crimes including rape and robbery have been influenced by mass media.



ignou
THE PEOPLE'S
UNIVERSITY

UNIT 15 DRUG ADDICTION AND ALCOHOLISM

Structure

- 15.0 Objectives
- 15.1 Introduction
- 15.2 Emerging Phenomenon
- 15.3 Definition of Important Concepts
 - 15.3.1 What is a Drug?
 - 15.3.2 Drug Use and Abuse
 - 15.3.3 Addiction, Tolerance and Dependence
- 15.4 Facts About Alcohol
- 15.5 Facts About Narcotic Drugs
 - 15.5.1 Stimulants
 - 15.5.2 Depressants
 - 15.5.3 Hallucinogens
 - 15.5.4 Cannabis
 - 15.5.5 Opiates
- 15.6 The Process of Addiction
 - 15.6.1 Addiction to Alcohol
 - 15.6.2 Addiction to Drugs
- 15.7 Causes of Addiction
 - 15.7.1 Physiological Causes
 - 15.7.2 Individual or Psychological Causes
 - 15.7.3 Sociocultural/Environmental Causes
- 15.8 Drugs, Crime and Politics
- 15.9 Intervention : Treatment, Rehabilitation and Prevention
- 15.10 Let Us Sum Up
- 15.11 Key Words
- 15.12 Further Readings
- 15.13 Answers to Check Your Progress

15.0 OBJECTIVES

Through this unit, the learner should be able to:

- Give an overview of the global situation of drug and alcohol abuse and addiction;
- Describe what are drugs and how the process of addiction occurs;
- Explain the causes of addiction;

- Discuss the relationship between drugs and crime; and
- Describe the broad rehabilitation programme and the importance of prevention of alcohol and drug abuse.

15.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit we dealt with crime and delinquency. In this unit we deal with drug addiction and alcoholism. Drug addiction and alcoholism are also deviant activities. We begin the unit by defining some important concepts like drug use and abuse, addiction, tolerance and dependence. We then deal with some important facts about alcohol, and narcotic drugs. The process of addiction is described both for alcohol and for drugs. Next, the causes of addiction are explored. Also the connection between drugs, crime and politics is discussed. Finally we deal with treatment, rehabilitation and prevention of drugs and alcohol abuse.

Addiction to drugs and alcohol is today a worldwide crisis. Both supply and demand for natural and laboratory-produced drugs is on the increase. Many new countries are being affected and the number of addicts is increasing. National productivity has suffered as a result. Most countries are now beginning to take serious note of the problem and are taking steps to reduce this problem. This unit presents the problem of drug addiction and alcoholism from the point of view of:

- i) the extent of the problem
- ii) the nature of drugs and alcohol
- iii) the causes of addiction
- iv) the rehabilitation programmes
- v) the relationship between drugs and crime.

15.2 EMERGING PHENOMENON

If data on the world situation is examined, it is seen that alcohol, opium and cannabis are the main drugs abused (described in detail later). Men, more than women are their addicts. Over the last few years, addiction to heroin in particular (described later) is rising rapidly. Taking drugs by injection exposes the individual to a high risk of developing other diseases and health problems like AIDS (Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome) as well as of death due to some of these problems and due to taking an over-dose.

Earlier, addiction was restricted to only some groups but today there is a wide range of users. In fact, using many drugs simultaneously, e.g. combining narcotic drugs with alcohol, is increasingly practiced. Experimenting with drugs including alcohol is beginning at an earlier age than before. In India, the problem is steadily increasing, both among urban and rural populations, due to

- i) the growing prosperity
- ii) the stresses of modern life
- iii) high economic and social disparity
- iv) an increasing sense of dissatisfaction with one's life.

If we look at drug and alcohol production we find that in almost all countries, drug and alcohol production has risen in spite governmental control. To fight the problem, (i) governments have begun strict vigilance, (ii) have often ordered destruction of poppy fields and laboratories, (iii) passed harsh laws against trafficking (i.e. dealing in drugs for financial profit), and (vi) have offered international co-operation on all matters related to drug use.

Governments are also encouraging preventive education programmes. Public awareness programmes are being taken up by governmental and non-governmental agencies for prevention of addiction. Such strong efforts, however, are not noticed in the case of alcohol which is a more socially accepted drug and has become a part of the daily life of people. Other than high taxes, in most countries, no curbs are placed on its production, sale and use. Alcohol continues to be a major income-earner for many countries. Alcoholism affects a larger section of society than drug addiction and affects all socio-economic sections. Today there is a strong demand to view alcoholism as a serious social problem along with drug addition.

It is important to understand why addiction is viewed as a phenomenon that alienates and deprives. Alcohol is today almost a part of life in many societies. Legalisation of some drugs is being seriously considered in some nations. Then how can addiction be seen as alienating and depriving? This is because of the havoc caused by the substance to which one is addicted. An addict is one

- i) who cannot function physically and psychologically without drugs or alcohol,
- ii) who takes alcohol/drugs beyond the socially or culturally accepted level and at times even on an inappropriate place and time,
- iii) who faces harmful consequences on his/her personal, family, work and social life.

Strangely this phenomenon only affects some persons who consume alcohol and drugs and not all. It is viewed as a deviation in most countries. It is necessary to understand why alcoholism and drug addiction occur. But first, let us understand the substance itself, viz. alcohol and other drugs.

15.3 DEFINITION OF IMPORTANT CONCEPTS

In the following subsections we are going to discuss the definitions of some of the important concepts like drug use and abuse, addiction, tolerance, dependence and so on.

15.3.1 What is Drug?

Any substance (usually chemical) which influences our bodies or emotions when consumed may be called a drug, i.e. it is a chemical substance, that, when put into your body can change the way the body works and the mind thinks. These substances may be medicinal i.e. prescribed by a doctor for reducing minor ailments or problems, e.g. lack of sleep, headache, tension, etc. but are also

- i) used without medical advice,

- ii) used for an excessively long period of time,
- iii) used for reason other than medical ones.

The use of such drugs is usually legal.

Some drugs may be nonmedicinal in nature. Their use is illegal e.g. heroin. Another group of drugs are those that are legal, but are harmful for the person if consumed in excess, regularly, e.g. alcohol. There are other substances like cigarettes, coffee, tea etc. which can be termed as socially accepted legal drugs. But these are not seen as harmful. Some drugs like alcohol, brown sugar, etc. are dangerous and addictive. It is these drugs that will be discussed in the next subsection.

15.3.2 Drug Use and Abuse

Using drugs to cure or prevent an illness or improve one's health may be called drug 'use'. Using drugs (medicinal/non-medicinal) in quantity, strength, frequency or manner that damages the physical or mental functioning of an individual, is termed as drug abuse. This means that even taking medicines in excess or too often or too long or for the wrong reasons or in the wrong combination implies drug 'abuse'.

15.3.3 Addiction, Tolerance and Dependence

Such 'abuse' leads to addiction, i.e. inability to lead a regular life in the absence of the drug/alcohol. It causes tolerance and dependence, and withdrawal symptoms may occur in its absence. Explained simply, tolerance means the need for more quantity and more frequent use of the drug to produce the same effect as before. Dependence can be both physical and psychological. Physical means that the body cannot function without taking the drug. Psychological dependence means constantly thinking about the drug and its use, continuously trying to get it and being emotionally and mentally unable to lead one's regular life without it. Some drugs like cannabis produce only psychological dependence while others like opium and heroin, produce both physical and psychological dependence.

If the drug consumption is suddenly stopped after one became a dependent on it, withdrawal symptoms occur. These range from mild discomfort to severe vomiting and convulsions, depending on the drug being used. All drug addicts may not experience the severe withdrawal symptoms shown in TV serials and films. The severity of these symptoms varies with.

- i) The type of drug
- ii) The amount regularly consumed
- iii) The duration of taking the drug and the treatment provided in special medical units, where such withdrawal is usually managed.

Helping the person through 'withdrawal' from drugs (usually medically supervised) so that the person's body gradually gets released from the clutches of the addiction, is known as detoxification.

It is important to note that withdrawal symptoms make it, specially difficult to give up drugs as they are very unpleasant. The user is thus afraid to quit drugs, even if he/she knows the harmful effects of drugs on his/here life.

Activity 1

If possible watch a TV Serial or movie in which drug withdrawal symptoms are shown. Discuss them with other students in the Study Centre.

15.4 FACTS ABOUT ALCOHOL

There are many types of alcohol. Only one can be consumed, viz. ethyl alcohol (which is used in beer, wine, toddy, whisky, brandy, rum, arrack or locally prepared liquor). When alcohol enters the blood-stream, it circulates all over the body. Its effects depend on the quantity taken. They vary depending on the speed at which a person drinks. His/her weight and the presence of food in the stomach also make a difference. The percentage of alcohol in the drink and to some extent, some psychological factors like who one is drinking with are also important. Past experience of drinking and attitude to drinking is another pair of important variables. Alcohol affects the brain directly slowing down its activities as well as those of the spinal cord. It acts as a depressant, i.e. it slows down responses. It gives the false impression of being a stimulant because it lowers inhibition and makes people lively. Contrary to popular conceptions, alcohol contains only empty calories, without any nutritive value.

Alcohol leads to dependence in the case of several people. This causes serious difficulties in occupational and family life. It also causes problems in financial areas, social interaction and physical and mental health of the addict and his/her family.

The short-term effects of alcohol consumption in small quantity can lead to a lowering of inhibition. It also leads to increased anger, forgetting of unpleasant events and a feeling of relaxation. Regular, frequent, excessive and inappropriate use of alcohol leads to moodiness and loss of judgment. It leads to lack of control over body movements, and absence of alertness. It also creates loss of clarity of speech, absence of judgment and even chronic illness and death.

15.5 FACTS ABOUT NARCOTIC DRUGS

A drug is a substance that affects feelings, thinking or behaviour, initially due to chemical reactions in the brain. Alcohol is also a drug in that sense. Drugs are consumed by eating, smoking, inhaling, sniffing, drinking or by injections. Excluding alcohol, drugs can be classified as follows:

- i) Stimulants—Drugs that increase the activity of the brain.
- ii) Depressants—Drugs that slow down the activity of the brain.
- iii) Hallucinogens—Drugs that change the way we see, hear and feel.
- iv) Cannabis—Drugs like Ganja, Hashish and Bhang produced from the hemp plant.
- v) Opiates or drugs obtained from opium or artificially produced substitutes which have opium like effects.

15.5.1 Stimulants

Stimulants are popularly known as ‘uppers’, pep pills or ‘speed’ as they give a feeling of excitement and elation. Amphetamines are the most common ones in this category. They are used often by students and sportsmen to increase

alertness temporarily and give instant extra energy to study, or participate in sport for long periods. The body can consume and tolerate large amount of its intake. Stimulants are usually swallowed. Cocaine is the most dangerous stimulant. Prepared from the coca plant in South America, Cocaine is snorted, i.e. inhaled through the nose. 'Crack' is another form of cocaine and heroin that is becoming increasingly popular in the West. Though cocaine is physically not addicting, it is highly addictive psychologically. Some of its effects include anxiety, depression and fainting. Long-term effects include weight loss, feeling of being persecuted, loss of sleep and restlessness.

15.5.2 Depressants

Depressants are popularly known as 'downers'. Tranquilizers and sedatives fall in this category as they make us relaxed and calm. Usually they come in the form of tablets like Mandrax, Valium and Librium. Alcohol, which also falls in this category is dangerously combined with tablets; this combination can lead to death. Another type of depressant pill contains chemical called barbiturates which are often found in sleeping pills. These are stronger than tranquilisers and produce dependence. An over-dose to these can lead to death while sudden withdrawal of the drug can be dangerous, if unsupervised medically.

15.5.3 Hallucinogens

These drugs are often all "psychedelic drugs". They cause one to see and hear things in a highly detailed but different way. The type of company has a great deal of influence on the effects experienced. Intense emotions can be experienced, sensations can be heightened, and lack of awareness of time, place and identity can occur. LSD (Lysergic Aids Diethylamide) or 'Aid' is the best known of these drugs, the effect of which (called 'trip') can last for several days. A tiny amount of it is adequate to give a feeling of being 'high'. Mixed with 'speed', it can result in a 'bad trip'. Also, taken without proper guidance from others, it has been known to lead even to death. In India, 'datura' a plant, is known to have even a stronger effect than LSD, sometimes leading to mental instability. Datura can be smoked as dried leaves, eaten or drunk as an extract of the stems, roots and seeds.

15.5.4 Cannabis

Ganja, hashish (charas), and bhang are all known as cannabis drugs as they are produced from different parts of the hemp or cannabis plant. These drugs are the most widely used in the world. Ganja (known also as grass, pot, joint, weed, marijuana, reefer and dope, etc.) is smoked with cigarettes while charas is prepared in black 'golis' and is put into cigarettes for smoking or eaten with food. Bhang is usually smoked or drunk and even eaten in a paste form.

The immediate effects of smoking cannabis are a sense of relaxation, and a tendency to feel and see more sharply. It increases the current emotion and lowers inhibition. More strikingly it may hang one's sense of time and movement. It may damage one's ability to perform tasks that require concentration, quick action and coordination. It may produce psychological dependence. Its major danger, however, is that its consumption leads to taking of stronger or 'hard' drugs, after some time.

15.5.5 Opiates

There are three major types of opiate, viz. opium itself, heroin and morphine, all of which come from the poppy plant. Opiates can be natural or produced in the laboratory. Opium itself is commonly taken by villagers in India and does not always cause social problems, if rarely consumed. However, for many, it becomes an addiction, leading to mental and physical dependence.

Morphine which is used as a pain-killer is highly addictive. Heroin, however, is the most devastating laboratory product of morphine, and the most commonly used. Heroin is several times stronger than morphine, both in its effect and in the addiction that is caused. Pure heroin is expensive. Therefore, its unrefined form viz. ‘brown sugar’, ‘smack’ or ‘gard’ had become very popular. Its initial price is cheap, making it easily available to the poor. It can be injected or smoked, but is usually “chased”. i.e. it is placed on a spoon or silver foil and the smoke that comes out when the foils is heated from below, is taken in through the mouth. A highly addicting drug—both physically and psychologically—it is the most abused drug in India these days.

In addition to the above, there are other artificially produced opiates known as ‘methadone’ and ‘pethidine’, the former being used in the West to replace the more addictive substance i.e. heroin for addicts.

Box 15.01

Four thousand urban students on Saugar University Campus (M.P.) were studied through the network sampling technique. They shared a common liking for psychoactive drugs. Two typologies were developed. The first was ‘Dependence typology’ based on the frequency of drug use. The other was “Persistence typology” based on duration of use.

It was found that most drug users came from urban areas with an average age of 23.72 years. Most of them were Hindus. A vast majority came from service, agriculture and business backgrounds. Economically they were well off. Four-fifths of them were ‘senior’ students pursuing graduate or doctoral programmes. About forty per cent were in the Faculty of Technology. The rest were studying non-professional Courses. Alcohol and tobacco were found to be the most widely used substances although cannabis and several other drugs were also used. The students were multiple drug users. Alcohol and tobacco users amounted to 46.7% of the sample. While 67.7% of the respondents were casual users, a little less than one third were habitual users.

Infection from non-sterile or unclean needles or water, and improper injecting causes several other health problems among the opiate-addict. Additionally, malnutrition and self neglect are typical of the opiate abuser.

Check Your Progress 1

- i) What is drug abuse? How does it differ from addiction? Answer in 8 lines.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....
.....
.....
.....

ii) What are the different types of drugs? Answer in 8-9 lines.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

15.6 THE PROCESS OF ADDICTION

It is generally recognised today that addiction is a disease and not simply a sign of moral weakness or of a lack of will power. In this section, the process of addiction to alcohol and drugs are examined separately, though the general path is similar.

15.6.1 Addiction to Alcohol

Alcoholism has been described as chronic illness which is characterised by repeated drinking of alcoholic drinks, to the extent that it

- i) exceeds customary use and social standards of a community.
- ii) interferes with the drinker's health and social or economic functioning and leads to continuing problems.

An alcoholic is unable to take note of these problems or if he/she takes note, is not able to stop drinking completely.

Alcoholism has been described in the following way:

- i) It is a disease by itself and not just a symptom of a psychological problem. The disease itself causes psychological and physical problems, which can be handled, only if the alcoholism itself is treated.
- ii) It is a progressive disease, i.e. in the absence of treatment, it worsens.
- iii) It can be a terminal illness, i.e. if untreated for medical problems like cirrhosis, the person can die.
- iv) It is a treatable disease, i.e. it can be checked or its progress stopped with proper treatment, which aims at totally giving up alcohol. An alcoholic thus cannot drink one in a while, i.e. he/she cannot become a 'social drinker'. This is so even if he/she has remained sober, i.e. without alcohol, for many years. Even if he/she takes a small quantity of alcohol he/she will return to frequent drinking.

As a progressive disease, it goes through various phases. The signs of these phases are described below:

i) **Early Phase**

- a) Need for more alcohol for the same effects, as earlier.
- b) Avoid talk about alcohol due to guilt.
- c) 'Blackouts', i.e. forgetting all that one did under the influence of alcohol.
- d) Preoccupation with drinks, i.e. thinking of how, when and where one can get the next drink.

ii) **Middle Phase**

- a) Loss of control over the quantity, time and place of consumption.
- b) Giving excuses for one's drinking to others and self.
- c) Grandiose behaviour, i.e. doing things beyond one's capacity, e.g. spending too much or showing off.
- d) Aggression through words and action.
- e) Guilt and regret.
- f) Temporary periods of giving up drink.
- g) Changing the drinking pattern, e.g. changing the type of drink, the time/place of drinking, etc, to limit one's drinking, which does not give any positive results.
- h) Problems in social relationships and increase of problems in family, job and financial matters.
- i) Morning drinking in some cases in order to handle the hangover i.e. the feeling of illness and unpleasant physical symptoms the morning after an evening of heavy drinking.
- j) At times, the alcoholic may seek help for alcoholism at this stage.

iii) **Chronic Phase**

- a) Decreased tolerance i.e. now get 'drunk' even with a very small quantity.
- b) Physical complaints.
- c) Binge drinking, i.e. continuous drinking for days together.
- d) Keeping a constant watch over the quota of one's drinks, due to fear of being without a drink.
- e) Criminal behaviour to get alcohol and ethical breakdown, i.e. unable to live up to social values.
- f) Paranoia or suspicious feelings that everybody is against him/her.
- g) Loss of sexual desire/functioning in men which increases their suspicion about their wife's fidelity.
- h) Fears of simple things, e.g. being alone.
- i) Lack of motor coordination, i.e. shakes and tremors, prevent him from performing simple acts.

- j) Hallucinations, e.g. imagining voices speaking, seeing what does not exist, or feeling sensations in the absence of external stimuli.
- k) If alcohol is discontinued, severe physical discomfort and pain follows.
- l) Either death or mental illness at the final stage.

15.6.2 Addiction to Drugs

Addiction to drugs is similar to alcohol addiction, in terms of its characteristics. The stage of addiction to drugs are also similar and are described below.

i) Early Phase

- a) The amount of drug and the number of times it is taken, goes up.
- b) The person begins to spend more time and money on drugs and less on other activities in life.
- c) Thoughts about drugs and the need to have them become important.

ii) Middle Phase

- a) The person needs the drug in larger quantity than before to feel well, i.e. addiction occurs.
- b) Loss of control over drug use in spite of repeated efforts and decisions to stop or reduce the taking of drug.
- c) Begins to hide drug supplies.
- d) Problems in all areas of life, e.g. educational, work, family, etc.
- e) Neglect of personal hygiene.
- f) Staying away from friends and earlier interests.
- g) Change in personality.

iii) Chronic Phase

- a) Total loss of control over drug use.
- b) Almost constantly under the influence of drugs.
- c) Needs people to attend to own needs, e.g. eating.
- d) Remains only with other drug taking persons.
- e) Possibility of early death.

Drug addiction thus leads to changes and deteriorations in behaviour, and social life, as well as in mental faculties like judgment, thinking and emotions.

15.7 CAUSES OF ADDICTION

Addiction is a complex phenomenon that research indicates is likely to be caused by a variety of factors rather than a single one. It was earlier believed that people who were of a certain type, viz. deviant were more likely to become addicted. There is no fixed type of personality which is addiction prone. Some factors may however, create a favourable environment or the development of addiction, while some factors may make it more difficult to give up addiction. These are looked at in the following sub-sections.

15.7.1 Physiological Causes

It has been found that if both parents of a child are addicted, the child has greater chances of developing addiction. While this does not mean that children of all addicts will become addicts, it suggests a greater possibility. Alcoholism, in particular, tends to run in the family, suggesting that the predisposition to be an addict may be inherited. However, several other factors may also effect the development of the problem, viz.

- i) amount of drug taken and frequency
- ii) the route of intake (injected drugs and more addicting)
- iii) the availability, access and price
- iv) the influences in one's environment, other than familial.

Several other physiological factors are believed to contribute towards the development of addiction, e.g. in the case of alcoholism, nutritional deficiency, dysfunction of different body system, e.g. endocrine system, etc. However none of these have been conclusively proved.

15.7.2 Individual or Psychological Causes

For several years, addiction has been viewed as a mental abnormality, caused by individual problems. Studies have indicated that addicts are insecure people. Many addicts report symptoms that range from mild to severe mental disturbance. However, it is not clear whether mental disturbance causes addiction or addiction causes mental problems. Whatever the relationship, there is enough evidence to indicate that addicts suffer from deep personality problems, feelings of inadequacy, dependency, powerlessness, isolation and low sense of self-respect—Childhood-related problems are observed among addicts as well as current stresses before the setting in of addiction.

It is also argued that addiction is the result of learning. After taking drugs initially, there is a pleasurable feeling or experience. This acts as a reward, and may lead to a continuous increase in the intake. Thus, initial experience, if pleasant, may lead to addiction. However, the generally believed theory is that some personalities are more prone to addiction than others.

15.7.3 Sociocultural /Environmental Causes

Several theories are offered today which claim that addiction has sociocultural origins. People in societies that view that consumption of drugs and/or alcohol a acceptable, and where drugs are easily and cheaply available are likely to have high consumption of drugs/alcohol. In some tribal societies, the consumption of alcohol is a part of religious rituals and ceremonies. Such regular consumption may cause some people to become addicted. This does not mean that only availability and acceptance encourages addiction. In societies where this consumption is not accepted, some people turn to drugs/alcohol because they suffer normalness. Youth often take drugs as a rebellion against adult norms and values. The cultural defiance theory thus, indicates that drug addiction develops because of these emotional and social ties, with a nonconventional group.

To add to this is the factor of social acceptance of alcohol and milder forms of

drugs in certain sections of society. In India, tradition has accepted the use of alcohol, bhang, ganja on certain religious and social occasions like marriage, death, celebrations, etc. and more so among certain sociocultural groups. Today, the social consumption of alcohol in particular has risen in all sociocultural groups and it is considered to be a sign of social prestige to drink. In certain Western countries, taking alcohol is socially the norm and taking pills to reduce pain or improve performance, in the regular practice.

The legal status of the addicting substance is also an important factor in determining the incidence of addiction. Whether a culture accepts the consumption of a drug or punishes it, is also believed to be closely related to the extent of addiction in that culture. Thus, both legal and cultural approval of drugs are believed to increase rates of addiction. However, if milder forms of drugs are legally permitted, the number of persons addicted to “hard” drugs will reduce. Such persons hold that classifying all drugs into one broad category has had a negative impact on attempts at preventing addiction.

Among young people, growing up is a stage of proving oneself to one’s peer i.e. those in the same age group, who help to shape one’s sense of identity. Since ability to tolerate alcohol is equated with one’s manhood, boys often begin to consume alcohol and at times drugs at a young age, due to peer pressure.

As in the case of age and cultural background, occupation too has been found to be related to addiction. Persons in jobs that create stress—physical and/or mental are known to become addicted. Those prone to addiction thus include:

- i) persons in conservancy jobs, morticians and morgue workers, ragpickers, etc. whose job is associated with unpleasant activities,
- ii) those performing excessively exhausting, monotonous, laborious work e.g. load-carriers and porters, drivers, etc.
- iii) persons in competitive target-oriented jobs, where many deals may be struck around alcohol, like marketing and sales, etc.

Family influence is believed to be another important environmental factor in addiction. Imitation may occur if the family has an adult addict. Other factors that operate are:

- i) the aggravating of stress by the family at periods of transition, e.g. adolescence,
- ii) the absence of reasonable parental control.
- iii) a disunited and dysfunctional family.

Peer group influence in initiating drug abuse and encouraging it to the point of addiction is even more decisive, as mentioned earlier. Socialisation determines the extent to which people choose to conform to the larger social norms or to break the social bonds and choose deviance, living a life of addiction.

Different cultures provide diverse means to their members of gaining satisfaction and of handling tensions. If a culture provides many healthy ways of reducing tensions, and of gaining pleasure, e.g. sports, creative arts, rituals and ceremonies, etc., especially to young people and those under physical or mental stress, they are less likely to turn to alcohol or other drugs and thus be less prone to addiction.

Sociological theorists offer other explanations as well. The theory of strain holds that people turn to drugs and alcohol because social conditions in their environment do not provide them adequate opportunity for achievement. This is particularly so for lower socio-economic groups and other socially disadvantaged groups.

It is also believed that people, because of their consumption of alcohol and other drugs and life-style become labeled as “deviants”, tend to become dependent on drugs and/or alcohol, as these become the most important aspects of their lives.

It, therefore, is clear that several sociocultural, psychological and physical factors can contribute towards alcoholism, often in combination, rather than singly.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) What are the four characteristics of alcoholism as a disease? State the answer in about ten lines.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

- ii) How is family influence one of the causative factors in addiction? Answer in about nine lines.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

15.8 DRUGS, CRIME AND POLITICS

Addiction poses a danger not merely to the health of people but also a law and order, and national security. It has serious implications for the larger society.

Most countries regulate the production, consumption and sale of drugs through laws, that range from being mildly discouraging to highly punitive. However, drug production and selling (trafficking) are big business. The product is attractive and customers keep demanding more. Quite naturally, criminal organisations run drug trafficking business.

They do it, ruthlessly, cutting down all attempts at restricting their activities. When governments make strict laws, traffickers go into temporary hiding but carry out hidden campaigns against the 'harmful' effects of government policies. When laboratories that process the drugs are identified and destroyed, new or mobile ones appear. Corruption, bribery and violence often leading to death are not uncommon in the field of drugs, crime and politics.

Consumption of drugs itself, often leads to crime of both, petty and serious nature. Desperate for a 'fix', i.e. a single dose of the drug to enter his/her body, an addict will not hesitate to steal. He/She will cheat or sell his/her belongings or even kill somebody. Addiction also influences people to commit violent crimes due to the chemical condition created in their body. However, one needs to condemn even more strongly the big time drug traffickers. They are usually camouflaged by the small-time peddler or 'pusher' as he/she is known. The latter is often an addict himself/herself who sells drugs and is always looking to create new converts to drug-abuse, to support his/her own drug-taking habit. The traffickers in turn, are ruthless business men, interested in easy and big money. They are difficult to hunt down as they often have links with the underworld of crime, money and power. Large trafficking organisations use schemes that disguise the real source of their earnings viz. drug-selling via bogus corporations in countries, like Hong Kong, and Switzerland. These countries are quite far away from drug-producing countries.

By 1985, most of the 81 government which submitted annual reports to the UN Commission on Narcotic Drugs reported the existence of illicit drug trafficking. Well-established routes exist for the distribution of drugs, e.g. some countries are used for sale, some for transit, others for production. However, drug addiction rates are high in all the three types of countries.

Seizures of drugs by the authorities are on the increase but they represent the tip of the iceberg. However, nations are coming together.

- i) to plan strategies to prevent international drug trafficking,
- ii) to reduce production, and
- iii) to lower the general public attraction for drugs, through harsher penalties and prevention programmes.

To conclude, it must be noted that while there is a united and strong effort to combat drug production, sale and consumption, no such serious attempt is witnessed in the case of alcohol. A source of revenue for most governments, alcohol is largely controlled through the ban on advertisements or public endorsements on the mass-media. However, in India itself the contradictions in the policy are glaring—prohibition is a valued ideal but many state governments earn an important portion of revenue from alcohol licences and sale.

As a drug, alcohol is equally if not more addicting and dangerous as other drugs. Drunken driving leads to many deaths. Addiction to alcohol can lead to

involvement in criminal activities. It destroys families and individuals and causes industrial losses and accidents.

It is thus unfortunate that most governments hesitate to look upon it as the most damaging drug and thus public enemy number 1.

Box 15.02

The goal of education on drugs is to diminish the use of drugs. This goal could attract moralists, legal groups and politicians in their role as legislators. The problem that we face is that in a medical sense, why should we prohibit drug use? Again some variety of “high” has been used ritually since ages. This use of psychotropic agents is not easy to ban.

The prevention of drug abuse aims at a middle range of action by

- i) reducing drug victims
- ii) removing the harm of the drug
- iii) providing an easier reconciliation for the ex-addict.

All the goals are easier articulated than put into practice.

15.9 INTERVENTION : TREATMENT, REHABILITATION AND PREVENTION

It is fortunate that addiction is a treatable disease. Like a physical illness, it requires some medication. However, this medication does not cure addiction. It can be used to encourage appetite, build up stamina and strength, handle withdrawal symptoms and recover from other illnesses developed due to the addiction. The aim of treatment is basically to give up alcohol or drugs totally (abstinence) over a period when relapse (or a slip into taking alcohol or other drugs) will occur at sometime or the other as a natural event.

This phase begins after detoxification i.e. the period during which the patient is medically supervised and managed, through his physical withdrawal from the substance. During this phase, psychological help via counseling to the patient and family, individually, in groups, on couples or in the family is given. This is aimed at overcoming problems in the area of job, finance, recreation, family and daily living. The focus is on changing attitudes, improving lifestyles and restoring the place in society that the addict had lost. This is done by helping the ex-addict to locate a job, be accepted in his family and society, take up recreation and hobbies, etc. Related emotional problems need to be handled as well as concrete details of daily living, e.g. managing money, and finding alternative way to relax.

Various methods and resources are being used for the above phases. Physical management may be organised in hospitals (special/general), special centers or even at homes, under guidance. Psychological help is provided in :

- i) professionally run places like hospitals, general hospitals, mental hospitals, private hospitals, or units specially meant for de-addiction, i.e. moving away from addiction.
- ii) institutions (day-care or residential) run by recovering addicts and/or professionals,

- iii) by Alcoholics Anonymous/Narcotics Anonymous fellowships of recovering. Addicts that help others and self to stay sober and to help others to achieve and retain sobriety or to remain 'dry' i.e. stay away from the addicting substance.

The entire process of helping addicts to physically, psychologically and socially cope with situations that are likely to be encountered after detoxification to find one's place in society, so as to take up one's duties and fulfil one's rights may be described as the process of rehabilitation. Vocational placement or integration thus, forms an important aspect of this process, which may be organised via income-generating projects, and job placement services.

To sum up, the goals of rehabilitation may be defined as follows:

- i) total abstinence
- ii) improving one's physical condition
- iii) taking up responsibility for one's behaviour
- iv) developing faith in oneself, others, and a higher spiritual power
- v) learning to develop a healthy self concept and understanding oneself
- vi) developing socially acceptable and meaningful goals in life
- vii) developing internal control
- viii) resuming one's education, job and social roles
- ix) re-entering the family.

Activity 2

Read Section 15.9 carefully and list the reasons why the sale of drugs is difficult to control. Now write some points on what steps are needed to reduce the sale of drugs in our society.

All of these goals and stages are difficult ones. In view of the number of known addicts and the large number that remain camouflaged, the available therapeutic services in most countries are inadequate. Just as identification and building the motivation of an addict is a difficult task, so is handling relapse (which is very common) and providing aftercare. Vocational placement is even more difficult, especially in view of the social stigma and, in many countries, limited resources.

The task of preventing drug abuse, thus, becomes a matter of paramount importance. For this, one needs to reduce both the supply and demand, i.e. ensure that drugs and alcohol are not sold or are not available easily (supply) as well as convince people to stay away from them (demand). Adequate facilities to keep people away from drugs are needed on the one hand, e.g. recreation facilities, employment services etc.

On the other hand, uniform and strict laws against the sale of drugs and their implementation are needed. Education of vulnerable groups (i.e. those most likely to turn to drugs) on the problems of addiction and life-skills (i.e. abilities to cope with life's regular and special problems), can help to keep them away from drugs. Time, effort and money spent on preventive programmes will be of immense value in curbing addiction.

Check Your Progress 3

Tick mark the correct answers

- i) Who among the following are not responsible for the increasing use of illicit drugs in society.
 - a) Western music singers
 - b) Drug traffickers
 - c) Peddlers of drugs
 - d) Government policy-makers.
- ii) The goals of the rehabilitation of addicts are:
 - a) To take up one's education, job, family and social roles.
 - b) Total abstinence.
 - c) Self-confidence and self-control
 - d) All of the above.

15.10 LET US SUM UP

This unit began with a description of the worldwide situation on drug and alcohol abuse. It then described in detail what drug and alcohol mean and explained the difference between key concepts like abuse, addiction, alcoholism, dependence, tolerance and withdrawal. The details of different drugs and the process of alcoholism and addiction were then explained. The physiological, psychological and sociocultural causes of alcoholism and addiction were then described. The unit ended with a discussion on drug and crime and of the important areas of treatment, rehabilitation and prevention in addiction and alcoholism.

15.11 KEY WORDS

- Addiction** : Inability to lead a regular life in the absence to use of the chemical substance; is defined as a disease.
- Alcohol** : A drug that is addictive and affects the way the body and mind works.
- Alcoholism** : A chronic illness involving excessive and repeated drinking beyond customary use, such that it interferes with work, family, social and economic life of person.
- Cannabis** : Drugs produced from different parts of hemp plant.
- Dependence** : The body cannot perform its normal functions without taking the drug (physical). One constantly thinks about the drug, its use, how to get the drug and one is unable to emotionally lead a normal life without taking the drug (psychological).

Depressants	: Drugs that slow down the activity of the brain.
Detoxification	: The process through which the person's body gradually gets used to being without drugs.
Drug	: Any chemical substance which when put into the body affects the way the body works and the mind thinks due to chemical reactions in the brain.
Drug Abuse	: The use of chemical substances (medicinal and non-medicinal) in an amount, strength, frequency or manner that damage the physical or mental functioning.
Hallucinogens	: Drugs that change the way we see, hear and feel.
Opiates	: Drugs obtained from opium or artificial substitutes that have opium-like effects.
Rehabilitation	: The stage after detoxification when one is helped to take up responsibilities and enjoy one's rights in society as its functioning member, which the addicts had been deprived of, when addicted.
Stimulants	: Drugs that give a feeling of excitement as they increase the activity of the brain.
Tolerance	: The need for more quantity of the drug and frequent use of the drug to produce the same effect from the drug, as earlier.
Withdrawal Symptoms	: Painful physical reactions ranging from physical discomfort to severe vomiting and cramps, when the drug consumption is suddenly stopped, in the case of an addict.

15.12 FURTHER READINGS

Singh, Gurmeet, 1984. "Alcoholism in India", in Alan and D.A. DeSouza (ed.) *Psychiatry in India*, Bhalani Book Depot, Bombay : pp.240-251.

TTK Hospital. 1999. *Addiction to Alcohol and Drugs : Illustrated Guide for Community Workers*, TTK : Madras.

TTK Hospital. 1989. *Alcoholism and Drug Dependency*, TTK : Madras.

15.13 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

- i) Using drugs either those prescribed by a doctor for medicinal purposes or others, in a quantity, frequency, or manner that damages the physical or mental functioning of an individual is called drug abuse. This abuse in turn leads to addiction, i.e. inability to live life without drugs.

- ii) The different types of drugs are :
- a) stimulants, i.e. drugs that increase the activity of the brain. (Amphetamines)
 - b) depressants, i.e. drugs that slow down the activity of the brain. (Alcohol is a depressant). e.g. Valium.
 - c) hallucinogens, i.e. drugs that change the way we see, feel and hear. e.g. LSD.
 - d) cannabis, i.e. drugs produced from the hemp plant. e.g. Bhang, Charas.
 - e) opiates, i.e. drugs produced from opium or producing effects like opium. e.g. Smack, Heroin.

Check Your Progress 2

- i) The four characteristics of alcoholism as a disease are:
- a) It is not just a symptom of a psychological problem but is a disease by itself, causing physical and psychological problems of its own.
 - b) It is a progressive disease i.e. it worsens if untreated.
 - c) It can be a disease that if untreated leads to death.
 - d) It is a treatable disease, i.e. it can be checked with proper treatment.
- ii) The family may increase the stresses at certain periods of stress in life, e.g. adolescence, leading to addiction. Excessive control or absence of control by the family may also be a causative factor. A family that is disunited and in which communication is not healthy can also influence the member to turn to drugs and alcohol. Imitation of an addict in the family may be yet another factor leading to alcoholism/addiction.

Check Your Progress 3

- i) b
- ii) d

UNIT 16 VIOLENCE AND TERRORISM

Structure

- 16.0 Objectives
- 16.1 Introduction
- 16.2 Concept of Violence and Terrorism
- 16.3 Causes and Patterns of Violence and Terrorism
 - 16.3.1 Causes
 - 16.3.2 Patterns
- 16.4 Politics and Terrorism
 - 16.4.1 Violence and the Law
- 16.5 Ethnic Identity and Violence
 - 16.5.1 State Violence and Human Rights
 - 16.5.2 Measures to Deal with Violence
 - 16.5.3 Steps to Tackle Terrorism
- 16.6 Let Us Sum Up
- 16.7 Key Words
- 16.8 Further Readings
- 16.9 Answers to Check Your Progress

16.0 OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of this unit is to enable you to :

- explain the concept of violence and terrorism;
- discuss the underlying causes of violence and its changing patterns;
- examine the relationship between political violence and maldevelopment;
- describe ethnicity and violence; and
- narrate violence against weaker sections.

16.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last unit we described and analysed drug addiction and alcoholism, and now we are going to analyse violence and terrorism. First of all we will analyse the concept of violence and go on to analyse that of terrorism. We then examine the causes of violence and terrorism. Following this we will discuss politics and terrorism. Related to the above and examined next is violence in the context of maldevelopment. After this is discussed ethnic identity and violence. An aspect of this theme is state violence and human rights. Next come the measures to deal with violence and finally steps to tackle terrorism. Let us now turn to the beginning of our unit.

16.2 CONCEPT OF VIOLENCE AND TERRORISM

Violence is as old as the history of mankind. In mythologies and legends it is presented as some thing linked to the beginning of history and always looked as deeds of heroes. Historically, violence is considered as a “human phenomenon” Violence, as defined in the Dictionary of philosophy is “the illegitimate or (at all events) illegal exertion of force. It is a function of the evolution of the democratic spirit”. For violence is a phenomenon opposed to freedom and happiness; it must be fought. But it remains an aspects of human, non-animal behaviour and it is some times the last resort against violence itself. In other words violence is an encroachment on the freedom of others. Violence is the use of force in order to gain from the individual or the group something which they do not like to give away of their own free will.

Rape for example is always conspicuous and is considered a total form of violence, because it is obtained by force. Violence is horrifying but also fascinating. This is because it enables the strong to establish a profitable relationship with a weaker person or group without incurring much loss to themselves.

Violence itself has many meanings. However a recent study (Mackenzie, 1975. 39) defines violence as “the exercise of physical force so as to inflict injury on or cause damage to persons or property; action or conduct characterised by this, treatment or usage tending to cause bodily injury or forcibly interfering with personal freedom.”

Violence is considered to be ‘pathological’ behaviour.

A three-tier typology explains violence in terms of:

- i) turmoil, e.g. riots, political strikes
- ii) conspiracy e.g. small scale terrorism, political assassination
- iii) internal war, e.g. highly organised political violence.

The causes of violence include:

- i) The frustration anger theory feels that the anger produced by frustration causes violence.
- ii) Relative deprivation theory (Gurr, 1970) points out that deprivation is a spur to action.
- iii) It is believed that a revolutionary outbreak of violence occurs when frustration due to lack of achievement manifests itself. They are often fueled by generated expectations that have failed.
- iv) Some scholars talk about systemic frustration. This is experienced by societies as a whole. These frustrations lead to social change.
- v) Other scholars feel that lack of viable political institutions does not allow for control of violence particularly when there is social change. Traditional and modern societies are less prone to violence than transitional ones. Revolutions and insurrections are common in transitional societies.

All these theories are based on the postulate of stable political systems. They also look for stability than change. Moreover they do not deal with decolonisation which is very important in the present context.

Decolonisation generates tremendous violence. As Fanon has pointed out violence can both be a catharsis and a harbinger of change. For Fanon (Fanon, 1965) the colonised man finds freedom in violence. It is viewed as a cleansing force.

Though violence has existed within society from time immemorial, yet in recent years the emergence of the problem of terrorism has become a burning issue. The headlines of newspapers, news bulletins on television and radio broadcasts tell us how people were shot dead, injured, or kidnapped, planes are highjacked with many passengers, are looted and so on. The photographs portrayed the killed or injured. They display property destroyed, and arms and ammunitions in varying quantities seized from the terrorists etc.

During the last three decades the problem of terrorism has increased manifold. Terrorism has been defined in several ways. In United States it is defined as “Those acts of violence or threat, aimed at a state or organisation with the intention to damage its interests or obtain concessions from it.” Another definition is that “Terrorism is the threat of violence, individual acts of violence or campaign of violence designed primarily to instill fear to terrorise.”

It is better to explain the definitions that we have given with some examples of terrorism as they will describe it better. In 1953 Dec. 17, as car bombing took place outside Harrod’s in London, six people were killed and ninety four were wounded. Paul Karanaph of Belfast was charged with conspiring in this attack. He had conspired five times before. This was an IRA (Irish Republic Army) bombing and randomly aimed at Christmas shoppers, and not directly political. The idea was to underline the IRA fight and to demand withdrawal of England and Northern Ireland.

Another case was the Maoist guerilla movement Shining Path of Peru. From 1980 onwards they have involved themselves with attacks on the whites in cities and on Police Stations. They have been blowing up power lines, and raiding attachments as well.

The guerillas number is uncertain—anywhere from hundreds to thousands. They have been known to take over enclave villages. They stage trials which they call “People’s Court”. They have executed administrative personnel in these villages.

The military campaign against them, launched by President Belaunde Terry resulted in many casualties. However even after four years the numbers of the Shining Path seem to keep growing.

Terrorism is an ancient practice. The terrorists using fear as the key have often been successful in manipulating and intimidating large numbers. The effects of violence are not usually predictable. Terrorists have various motives. They say their fight is against inequitable distribution of income. However most of them are little more than bandits and are in it for the spoils. It is also a way out of personal frustration. Some terrorists are also pathological cases deriving pleasure from killing innocent people like K030 Okamoto, the surviving terrorist of the Lydda Airport Massacre.

Terrorists use shocking and outrageous methods. One wonders what would happen if they get hold of unclear weapons.

From the foregoing discussion it may be possible to term certain activities as terrorist activities. These are:

- i) use of threat or violence to commit murders, arson, highjacking, sabotage etc.;
- ii) political motives behind an operation or act;
- iii) to terrorise and coerce the government to achieve certain goals;
- iv) select important targets, and
- v) they have no limits for their activities.

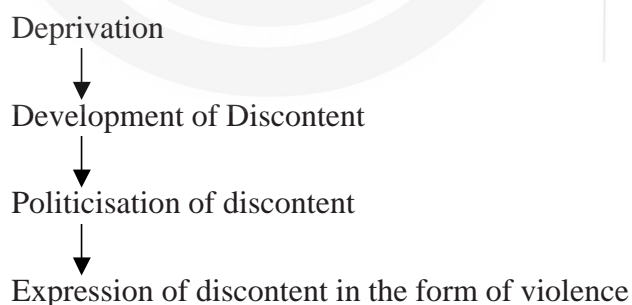
16.3 CAUSES AND PATTERNS OF VIOLENCE AND TERRORISM

Terrorism and violence are destructive social phenomena. They are caused by various interrelated social factors. Violence and terrorism are having specific patterns in different types of societies. In the following subsections we shall be taking to you on the causes and patterns of this social phenomenon with special reference to India.

16.3.1 Causes

As regards causes, studies in America show that nature provides us only with the capacity for violence. It is social circumstances that determine whether and how we exercise that capacity. Studies also show that violence and instabilities is more prevalent in countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America which are undergoing rapid economic and social change but have yet developed viable political institutions. Traditional and modern societies are less prone to political violence and instability. Military coups, insurrections, guerilla warfare and assassination are common features of the transitional societies.

Many sociologists are of the view that deprivation leads to discontent among people and this when coupled with politicisation leads to discontent which is expressed in the form of violence. This phenomenon may be indicated as below:



Deprivation may be in the form of lack of opportunity for education, training, employment or lack of ways to meet physical or social needs. For example, if legal means for attaining jobs are not available, people may resort to smuggling of arms, trafficking in drugs etc. If these illegal activities are not controlled, other problems will creep in. Deprivation will be felt at different levels and a feeling that the political system is incapable of meeting the situation will arise. Deprivation is likely to lead to discontent. Discontent may be in the form of strikes, bandhs, demonstrations, morchas etc. If these methods do not invite the attention of the state there is politicisation of these demands. When that happens the due process of the law may be bypassed.

The expression of discontent at this juncture may be in the form of murder,

arson, bank robberies, looting of personal property, kidnapping etc. The indiscriminate killing of innocents spreads wave of fear among the people. The release of those arrested on political consideration have given way for exploiting the situation by the terrorists.

However, religious fundamentalism and growing intolerance to other religion have emerged to be a crucial factor for the emergence and sustenance of terrorism at the international level. The religious indoctrination has led to the emergence of Taliban in Afghanistan in 1990s, Al Quida Forces in the Middle East. The attack on the World Trade Centre in the US on Sept, 11, 1999, Indian Parliament on Dec., 12, 1999 and on the foreign Embassies and High Commission in several state capitals of the world. All these have marked the emergence of global terrorism. The global terrorism has threatened the very basis of democracy of the world. Along with the emergence of global terrorism, there has also been the phenomena of cross-border terrorism, of which India has become a victim. Here terrorist were trained from across the border of the neighboring countries to destabilise the democratically elected Government. Thus there has been a slogan for fight against global terrorism. Indeed cross border terrorism is a part of global terrorism. Unfortunately in the fight against terrorism even the states who themselves sponsor terrorism in disguise, have emerged to allies of such fight. In this regard unfortunately terrorism has not been uniformly defined by the west, who are spearheading the fight.

At the local level there have been the attacks of the Maoist terrorists in Andhra Pradesh, Bengal, Orissa, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand and in many ohter states. There have also been terrorism of regional kind spearheaded by various ethnic groups.

16.3.2 Patterns

During last three decades violence and terrorism have become major issues. The word violence has been used differently in different phrases like:

- i) 'violent crimes' (physical assault or threat thereof),
- ii) violence in the streets (provocation, demonstration, police violence, partisan counter-violence, internal war),
- iii) violence to self (suicide, alcoholism, drug addiction etc.),
- iv) violence at the wheel (killing by vehicular accidents).
- v) violence in the media (a syndrome : news or fiction of violence stimulating further violence),
- vi) social violence (repressive to toleration).

Activity 1

If possible collect newspaper or magazine clippings on terrorism and violence for four weeks. Now study them and note down:

- i) types of violence
- ii) types of terrorism

Compare your notes with other students in the Study Centre if possible.

Though violence is most frightening and at times most reprehensible yet it becomes less scandalous when it remains for a longer time in the community,

and more, so if it is protected by respectable institutions or ideologies. In other words it is interpreted in terms of sensitivity to violence. Sensitivity and tolerance to violence are recent phenomenon or at least have recently assumed very significant dimensions.

In fact there are different viewpoints on dealing with the phenomenon of violence/terrorism. Certain countries including India have suffered the repressive activities by colonial rulers, and racist regimes have been terroristic. For example the freedom struggle in South Africa can be termed as terroristic.

16.4 POLITICS AND TERRORISM

A totalitarian state makes use of violence as a system of government. But a democracy resorts to it only selectively during a period of crisis, when they even overlook the international convention that insists on respect for human rights. The gravity of situation is assessed by the government and such situation is prone to possible abuse. The term crisis implies a threat to the regime. In weak democracies also rulers resort to direct or indirect violence to continue in power. In order to stay in power, rulers who had reached a point at which their follower is disowned them or because a minority, may overturn democracy. The military may help them behind the scenes. Every democratic constitution has provisions to enable the Government to assume special powers. Here again there is danger of abuse of power.

Terrorism demoralises the population of a region or state. In some instances however it serves as an integrating factor. However terrorism itself always invokes problems of law and order. Yet it is not capable of disrupting the entire social system. Terrorism is not a revolutionary movement and so far terrorists have not succeeded in fulfilling their aims. Terrorist killings do not change the structure of politics. However this is not to say that they have no effect on the social and political fabric. They do loosen it somewhat. Mechanisms have to be created to prevent acts of terror.

Box 16.01

Terrorist operations often involve systematic planning, which resemble a minor military operation. The intended victim (or other terrorist plan) is studied carefully. All habits and movements of the people involved are studied. The terrorists need transport to and from the scene of crime. They have to have false identity papers, weapons and money. Again to make a success of their criminal activity they need a publicity unit. All major terrorist groups have a central high command, which is either very professional or could be amateurish. Terrorism always involves an element of improvisation. Finally even the most careful planning cannot possibly make provision for all eventualities.

Individuals and group take to violence when their legitimate demands are not met through legitimate means. For example when there is

- i) corruption
- ii) malpractices
- iii) exploitation
- iv) failure on the part of state to protect law-abiding citizens

There is a likelihood of people taking to violence to fulfil their demands. When the use of conventional methods such as protests, dharnas, demonstrations, strikes, etc. become ineffective, then alone do the nonconventional methods for example murder, arson, looting of banks, personal property, kidnapping etc. are resorted to. This apart, terrorising people and assassination of important persons follow.

Check Your Progress 1

i) Give five phrases which have been used to express violence:

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

ii) When does an individual group take on violence? Explain in about five lines.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

16.4.1 Violence and the Law

There is much evidence available to indicate that maldevelopment results in tensions, conflicts and violence. The frequency of outbursts in a number of countries over a period of time indicate that rapidity of social change is associated with violence. The higher rate of social change is associated with instability. Social change may result in imbalance of privileges in a society and hence change can affect some people in a society adversely.

Activity 2

If you have seen some TV Programme or a movie or read a novel made on violence and terrorism, then note down how outlaws indulge in terrorism and violence. What does the law do to prevent these activities? Note down your observations and if possible compare with other students in the Study Centre.

Countries with a colonial rule background have inherited the problem of

- i) poverty
- ii) inequality, and
- iii) the lack of equal opportunity as a legacy.

This legacy has been prolonged as there were no structural change in the system we have inherited. This has furthered the levels of exploitation, by the elites who wield power in the new political set-up. Poverty, inequality and exploitation have remained intact with us. The new political power group has legitimised exploitation with the new political order.

In a unequal society (divided by tribal, caste, class, religious or other cleavages), maldevelopment means unequal opportunities in the competition for jobs, services, educational and social facilities. These factors also aggravate groups and class conflicts and accentuate individual frustration. This has led to the rich becoming richer. The middle class has expanded activities in different spheres of life and the poor have either remained poor or in some cases have become poorer. This is because of the increasing gulf between the “haves” and the “have nots”.

The regulatory laws, and the provisions in the Constitution to prevent exploitation and any kind of discrimination have not been of much avail. The terrorist activities in Punjab, Assam, Jammu and Kashmir, and the naxalite problem in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Orissa, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh are examples of perceived maldevelopment and people taking to arms. The State policy of reservation has further aggravated the situation in many states and there have been incidents of violence.

16.5 ETHNIC IDENTITY AND VIOLENCE

There have been instances where it is clearly seen that violence is directed towards a specific group. Studies show that there are social, economic and political disparities between the races in the United States of America. They are sufficient to justify the fear that the Blacks would be found to have higher crime rate than Whites. Similarly it can be seen from the population in the Indian prisons that most of the inmates come from lower socio-economic background. This may mean two things:

- i) that those who belong to lower socio-economic strata of the society are more involved in criminal activities than others,
- ii) that the law is enforced more vigorously in the case of the poor rather than the rich.

If we look at the situation in India we have concrete examples of ethnic violence. This is so particularly in the case of the communal riots which take place sporadically in different parts of the country. The riots are often between the Hindus and the Muslims, Hindus and Sikhs, Shia and the Sunni Muslims. Besides, there are intercaste and intracaste conflicts. There is heavy loss of property and life during these conflicts.

When there are difference between the different segments of society violence may occur. This happens when they feel insecure or that they are being exploited by the other group(s). The killing of persons belonging to one segment by another brings out very clearly the ethnic nature of violence.

16.5.1 State Violence and Human Rights

Violence on the part of the State usually has the cover of legitimacy. There is also approval (at various times and places), of certain forms of violence under certain conditions. Justification for violence is just often an excuse. It is often reported that there was an encounter with terrorists or with the naxalites and so many of them were shot dead. There are also allegations that the encounters have been fake. The individuals or the group of people were killed without sufficient cause. Violence on the part of the State, particularly the police always finds some justification.

Totalitarian states use violence as a part of the system. In democratic states it functions as a control mechanism during crises. During crisis, even in democratic countries, almost all the fundamental rights are suspended and there is no place for human rights. The international conventions are kept at bay. The situation is usually measured by the State. Because of crisis, the threat to the regime is contained by using violence with the help of the police and the military. Most of the Constitutions in the democratic countries have provisions to enable the government authority to attain special powers. This, in fact negates all the conventions for the protection of human rights.

The proclamation of Emergency during 1975-77 and Operation Blue Star (1984) in Punjab are much discussed issues. These acts of the central government are considered as terroristic. Time and again such instances are repeated and the human right of the individual and group are taken away by the government.

16.5.2 Measures to Deal with Violence

A spurt in international activities by terrorists led to various conventions to tackle the problem. These conventions are :

- i) The 1937 Convention for the prevention and punishment of terrorism
- ii) The 1971 Convention to prevent and punish acts of terrorism, crimes against persons and related extortion that are of international significance.
- iii) The 1973 Convention on the prevention and punishment of crime against internationally protected persons including diplomats.

In the same year there was an European Convention on : (i) suppression of terrorism; and (ii) the 1979 International Convention against the taking of hostages. This apart there were conventions on air hijacking. They are:

- i) The Tokyo Convention, 1969
- ii) The Hague Convention
- iii) The Montreal Convention to tackle the problem of commission of offence on board, seizure of aircraft and it also includes offences in air or on ground and permits the State to take action for preventing the offences.

Box 16.02

Nuclear terrorism does not only pose a threat to a single nation. It could lead to a major international crisis. The potential of nuclear blackmail is very dramatic. However other equally lethal weapons do exist : these include poisons like OPAS : Nerve gases like the monofluoroaliphatic compounds (BTX) which is lethal no matter how it enters the body.

Anthrax, bubonic plague, encephalitis and psittacrisis can all be produced by chemical terrorism. An epidemic of these diseases could spread far and wide. These weapons however are more likely to be used by a madman than a terrorist.

Terrorists can possibly gain nuclear weapons (a bomb) by theft or gift. Another possibility for terrorists is to manufacture a nuclear bomb with the help of scientists and engineers having the right specialisation. The potential/possibility of such nuclear terrorism is that it may turn into nuclear war.

Check Your Progress 2

1) Write short notes on state violence and human rights. Use five lines for your answer.

.....

2) Various conventions were held to reduce or eliminate terrorism and one of these Conventions was (Tick the right answer):

- i) 1937 Convention for the Prevention and Punishment of Terrorism
- ii) 1990 Law Against Violence and Terrorism
- iii) Neither is right
- iv) Both are right.

16.5.3 Steps to Tackle Terrorism

India has enacted a law known as “Terrorists and Disruptive Activities (Prevention) Act, 1985 to tackle such problems. This Act has special provisions for prevention of, and for coping with, the terrorist and disruptive activities and matters related with it. The Act provides abundant powers to the law enforcement agencies to deal with the terrorists and disruptive activities. The major provisions under the Act are : that whoever commits a terrorist act and causes death of any person shall be punished with death. In other cases of terrorist activities the term of imprisonment shall not be less than five years. This may extend to a life-term and also be liable to a fine. In case of conspiring, the minimum punishment shall not be less than three years. This may extend to life and also include fine.

As regards disruptive activities, the punishment is similar to conspiring to commit terrorist activities. The disruptive activities, whether directly or indirectly, which may affect the sovereignty or territorial integrity of India, cession or secession, by action or speech and so on, are considered as disruptive activities. The Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, make rules to prevent or to cope with, terrorist and disruptive activities. Section 5 of this Act gives vast powers to the Central Government, the state governments and the administrators of the Union Territories, for dealing with the terrorists and disruptive activities. Section 6 of the Act provides for enhanced punishment. Where there is contravention of the Arms Act, 1959, the Explosive Act, 1884, or the Explosive Substances Act, 1952. Any contravention of these provisions by any person shall be liable for a term which may extend to 10 years or term for life and also be liable for fine.

All proceedings before a designated court shall be in camera. The identity of the witnesses may be kept secret. The proceedings may be held at a protected place. Any record which is accessible to public contains no names and addresses of the witnesses. In a nutshell it may be mentioned that the Act provides enough tooth to deal with the problem of terrorists and disruptive activities.

POTA:

16.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we have discussed various aspects of violence and terrorism. We began with the concept of violence and terrorism. After this were described the causes of terrorism. Next we turned to politics and terrorism. After this we turned to maldevelopment of society in relation to violence and the law. Following this we discussed ethnic identify and violence. The other three aspects discussed are state violence and human rights; measures to deal with violence and finally steps to tackle terrorism.

16.7 KEY WORDS

Deprivation	: Not to have something which is regarded as a common necessity.
Exploitation	: The use of power and intelligence to take unfair advantage of those people, groups and communities which are weak.
Kidnapping	: Forceful and unlawful lifting of a person and keeping him or her in criminal custody.
Maldevelopment	: In the context of unequal society it means unequal opportunities in the competition for jobs, services etc.

16.8 FURTHER READINGS

Laqueur, walter, 1987. *The Age of Terrorism*. George Weidenfield and Nicolson Ltd: London.

Merkl, Peter H. 1986. *Political Violence and Terror: Motif and Motivations* University of California Press: Berkeley and Los Angeles.

16.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) i) Violence in the streets
- ii) external war
- iii) violence in the wheel
- iv) violence in the media
- v) social violence

- 2) Individuals in groups take to violence when their legitimate demands are not met through legitimate means. For example if there is a failure on the part of the state to protect law-abiding citizens, violence may erupt in various ways.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Violence on the part of the state has a cover of legality. Totalitarian states use violence as part of the system. In democracies it is used during crises. Thus human rights do occasionally get trampled upon by the state.
- 2) 2 (i)



REFERENCES

- Cavan, R.S. and T.N. Ferdinand, 1975. *Juvenile Delinquency*. J.B. Lippincott: Philadelphia.
- Dandekar, V.M., and Rath. N.1971. 'Poverty in India, Dimensions and Trends', *Economic and Political Weekly* Jan 2, 1971 and Jan 9, 1971.
- Fanon, Frantz. 1965. *The Wretched of the Earth*, Publisher : Penguin. London.
- Government of India, (2000) Yearly Publication. *Crime in India*. Ministry of Home Affairs. Bureau of Police Research and Development. New Delhi.
- Government of India, (2001) *Crime in India*. Ministry of Home Affairs . New Delhi.
- Gurr. T.R. 1970. *Why Men Rebel*, Princeton University Press. Princeton.
- Laqueur, Walter, 1987. *The Age of Terrorism*. George Weidenfield and Nicolson Ltd: London.
- Lewis, Oscar, 1960. *Tepoztlan : A Case Study in Cultural Anthropology*. Holt R.W.: New York.
- Machenzie, W.J.M. 1975. *Power Violence and Decision*. Penguin : London.
- Marickan S.J. (Ed) 1988. *Poverty in India*, Xaier Board : Trivandrum.
- Merkl, Peter H. 1986. *Political Violence and Terror : Motif and Motivations*. University of California Press : Berkeley and Los Angeles.
- Sarkar, C. 1987. *Juvenile Delinquency in India*, Daya Publishing House : Delhi.
- Singh, Gurmeet, 1984. "Alcoholism in India", in Alan and D.A. DeSouza (ed.) *Psychiatry in India*, Bhalani Book Depot, Bombay : pp.240-251.
- Swamy D.S. and A. Gulati 1986. From Prosperity to Retrogression : Indian Cultivators during the 1970's. *EPW*, June 21-22, p.A-63.
- TTK Hospital. 1989. *Alcoholism and Drug Dependency*, TTK : Madras.
- TTK Hospital. 1999. *Addiction to Alcohol and Drugs : Illustrated Guide for Community Workers*, TTK : Madras.
- UNDP *Human Development Report, 2003*. Oxford University Press. New Delhi.