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## **Economics of Crime : A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Convicted Female and Male Criminality In Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu**

**S. Santhanalakshmi, Ph.D.**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE  
AVINASHILINGAM UNIVERSITY FOR WOMEN  
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**IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF  
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*Economics of Crime: A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of  
Convicted Female and Male Criminality In Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu*

## CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**” submitted to the Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, for the award of the **DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS** is a record of original research work done by **S.SANTHANALAKSHMI**, M.Sc., M.Phil., during the period of her study in the Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, under my supervision and guidance and the thesis has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree / Diploma / Associateship / Fellowship or similar title to any candidate of any university.

  
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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the matter embodied in this thesis entitled **“ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU”** submitted to the Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore - 43, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the **DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS** is a record of original research work done by me in the Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore, under the supervision and guidance of **Dr.A.Rajeswari**, M.A., Dip.Ed., M.Phil., Ph.D. (Avinashilingam), Professor and Head, Department of Economics, Avinashilingam University for Women, Coimbatore – 43 and that it has not formed the basis for the award of any Degree / Diploma / Associateship / Fellowship or similar title to any candidature of any other university or institute.



Signature of the Candidate



Signature of the Guide

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## CHAPTER – I

### INTRODUCTION

Man cannot remain an Island by himself because man by nature is social and his interests are best protected under the membership of the society. Although most people prefer to follow the policy of 'live and let live', there are certain deviants who, for some reasons or other, deviate from the normal path (as designed under the socio-legal norms) and associate themselves with illicit activities. This obviously imposes an obligation on the part of the Government which is the guardian of the society to hold such deviants in proper check, with a view to maintain the normalcy in the society.

The problem of crime is commonly visualized through various disciplines such as psychology, sociology, criminology, philosophy and economics. The thinking process on crime from economic angles began with Gary S. Becker's work in 1968. The concept of crime has been changing through the ages with the changing dynamic social policies. What is crime and how it affects the very existence, upkeep and welfare of the society is a matter of great concern for the society.

The theories based on socio-economic conditions on crime attempt to locate the cause of crime in socio-economic environments faced by law-violators. Various theories are available in literature regarding crime. The theories which are oriented towards socio-economic conception of criminalization includes economic or punishment and reward theory, sociogenic theories, anomie theories, family background theories and cultural conflict or labeling theories.

The economic approach isolates the importance of probabilities and magnitude of reward and punishment and indicates how they can be treated

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formally. Micro and macro level study of criminal behavior indicates the way in which socio-economic phenomena can influence the observed pattern of offending in a rational individual (for micro models) and across different areas (for macro models). Of these various theories, the present study emphasizes on "Economic or punishment and reward theory". This theory developed by George (1958) stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables him / her to choose courses of action freely and also the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. Decision making in this sense is to act rationally, that is to choose courses of actions which maximize one's expected utility (within the resource constraints that is his own, perception and information based on practice, circumstances and past penalty). A potential offender behaves as if he has a view about and is responsive to both the probabilities of detection and the possible punishment as well as the range of opportunities available to him for both illegal and legal activities. It is these perceptions which determine his behavior. Some persons become criminals not because their basic motivation differs from that of other persons but because their benefits and costs differ. The best way of controlling crime is a judicious application of pleasure and pain principle.

In foreign countries this subject has been analysed and given importance for quite sometime, whereas in India the contribution to this field has been quite disappointing. Empirical estimates of the impact of micro and macro economic variables in crime have been generally consistent across the studies of Freeman and Richard (1995) ; Weinberg and Mustard (1997) ; Machin and Meghir (2000) ; Donohue and Levitt (2001) ; Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001) ; Keith Ihlanfeldt (2002) ; Steven (2004) ; Ansari (2005) ; Coomaraswamy (2005) and Hutchinson and Yates (2007).

According to Saviz (1967), before an act can legally be defined as a crime, atleast theoretically, five conditions must be met. An act must take

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place that involves harm inflicted on someone by the actor. An act must be legally prohibited at the time it is committed, the perpetrator must have criminal intent when he engages in the act, there must be a casual relationship between the voluntary misconduct and the harm that results from it, and there must be some legally prescribed punishment for any one convicted of the act.

Crime in India has increased about twice as fast as population growth. In India, though the incidents of total violent crime has gone down from about 2,08,736 in 2004 to about 2,02,640 in 2005 in terms of rate per 1,00,000 of the population, homicide stood at a constant 3.8 per cent during the past 10 years. Murder alone accounted for 58.6 per cent of the total convicts under IPC crimes.

The highest percentage (28.3 per cent) of under trials was charged with murder. The National Crime Records Bureau states that Tamil Nadu ranks 10<sup>th</sup> in the percentage share of all India crime rate and ranks 9<sup>th</sup> in the rate of murder during the year 2005. It also states that one case of murder is registered every 16 minutes and one case of attempt to commit murder every 19 minutes in India (National Crime Records Bureau, 2005).

A prison is a place where the prisoners convicted by the court of law are detained for a period of their punishment. In India the total number of jails amount to 1,140 of which 107 are central jails, 268 are district jails, 678 are subjails, 14 are women jails and 73 are other jails. In Tamil Nadu, there are seven categories of prisons namely central prisons, special prisons for women, sub-jails, special sub-jails, borstal school, farm prison and open air prison (Tamil Nadu Prisons Department, [www.Google.com](http://www.Google.com)).

The number of prisons in Tamil Nadu is given in Table – I.

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**TABLE – I**  
**PRISONS AS ON 2006 – 2007 IN TAMIL NADU**

Category of prisons	Number
Central prisons	9
Special prison for women	3
Borstal school	1
Special sub-jails (Men : 3 and Women : 3)	6
District jails	6
Sub-jails (Men : 98 and Women : 9)	107
Open air prison	2

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

Table – II indicates the population accommodated in prisons in Tamil Nadu.

**TABLE – II**  
**POPULATION AS ON 06.01.2008 IN TAMIL NADU PRISONS**

Category	Female	Male	Total
Authorised accommodation	1791	18385	20176
Actual prison population	1173	15818	16991
Category wise population			
Convicts	191	6268	6459
Under trials	54	2196	2250
Remand prisoners	899	6611	7510

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

To control the criminal activities and to maintain the prisons and to arrange for rehabilitation measures the government has to undertake

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expenditure on prisoners. The Table – III shows the budget details for 2007-2008 in Tamil Nadu.

**TABLE – III**  
**BUDGET DETAILS FOR 2007-2008 (IN RUPEES)**

Budget estimate	9637.30 lakhs
Expenditure on prisoner 2006 – 2007 (in Rupees)	
Diet	1060.42 lakhs
Medicines	39.21 lakhs
Transport charges	0.47 lakhs
Over head and other charges	4846.40 lakhs
Industries (2006 – 2007) (in Rupees)	
Number of prisoners employed	1071
Value of prison made articles produced during the year	267.14 lakhs
Wages paid to the prisoners during the year	241.63 lakhs

Source : Tamil Nadu Prison Department.

Crime is increasing at a rapid rate, and along with it are changing fast the concepts regarding it. Till now most of the researchers on crime have confined themselves to males, because crime has been considered a male behavior. In India, statistical reports on crime have always revealed that men involve in greater offences than women who are considered to be more religious-minded than their male counterparts and less prone to unethical and immoral activities.

Today, however, with the upsurge of women offenders in the country, the former notion is proved wrong. Women, like men suffer from jealousy, enmity and hatred which motivates them to commit crimes. They are fast indulging in all sorts of crimes with the aid of the latest technique. A few years back they were hardly heard of committing such daring offences as dacoity,

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smuggling or train-robbery, but these incidence are not uncommon these days. The changing social norms and values as well as the impact of other cultural patterns culminating in the complexity of life are largely responsible for this change.

Very few studies have been made on Indian women criminals to highlight their offences and the criminal tendencies present in them. The increase in the criminal rate among women becomes conspicuously alarming in the light of the fact that a large number of such incidents go unreported. Many factors may be responsible for this short-reporting, the chief among which are : the police may show carelessness or relaxation in recording the commission of crimes by women ; the family members and neighbours may often try to conceal the crimes of women in order to save prestige. Besides, male victims suffering at the hands of women offenders such as prostitutes or pickpockets may attempt to suppress facts to avoid publicity.

In India crimes committed by women are rapidly increasing, and the types of the offences are probably similar to those committed by women abroad. However, the predominant factors which are found to determine criminal tendencies in Indian women are economic insecurity, social deprivation and emotional disturbances, besides family and domestic quarrels ; Destitution may also significantly affect the criminality of women.

Most of the problems of society are the problems of women. By and large men have a tendency to escape the problems whereas women are subjected to the problems. Thus illiteracy, dowry, crime, poverty etc. are more problematic to women than to men. If a crime is committed by an individual, the wife, the mother and the daughter of the offender are affected psychologically more than the criminal himself.

'Economic offences' are the manifestations of criminal acts done either solely or in an organised manner with or without associates or gangs with an intent to earn wealth through illegal means, and carry out illicit activities violating not only the laws of land, but also other regulatory, statutory provisions governing the economic activities of the government and its administration.

The economic offences cause significant damage to the general economy of the country and adversely affect the growth and development of nation. Some of the major impacts that may be caused by the economic offences are :

1. Increase in inflationary pressure.
2. Uneven distribution of resources
3. Marginalization of tax base
4. Generation of abundant black money
5. Creation of parallel economy
6. Development works / effects undermined.
7. Country's economic equilibrium at stake
8. Breeding ground of corruption
9. Illicit business and public office corruption thriving and affecting normal business activities.
10. Resources of financial institutions and commercial institutions diverted and distorted.
11. Weakened morale and commitment of the citizens.
12. The poor / weak continuing to be poorer and at risk.

The underworld is the sector of the polity and the economy which seems to have prospered over the years not only in India but also elsewhere in the third world and the advanced countries. It is based on ill-gotten money,

muscle power and a superstructure of its own. In most countries it has close links with political and bureaucratic powers and these are used in the most unscrupulous channels to serve their own ends. The underworld has enormous economic and political clout.

While the underworld is thus active in socio-political affairs of a country and very frequently engages itself in political subversion, espionage and even riots and terrorism, its principal arsenal comprises what are generally known as economic offences.

Economic offences, are a group of activities loosely so called to indicate a number of eco-commercial manoeuvres for profiteering on the sly, covering such disparate concepts and phenomena as smuggling, tax-evasion, money laundering and corruption.

The entire phenomenon of such activities has been referred to as the parallel economy, as distinct from the official economy. The parallel economy which covers the entire gamut of the subterranean world of economic offences and crimes, very frequently and over large areas intermingles with the official world every day.

Economic offences as a phenomenon in India, and for that matter in many other countries, particularly in the emerging third world, have lately become an integral part of the economy. Actually, the multifarious economic offences, perpetuated as manifestations of the sprawling subterranean economy, have highly deleterious repercussions on the official economy. In fact, the former, runs not only parallel but also largely counter to the latter. Such misdemeanours have not only become extensive but also highly pestering to the man in the street. These no more are crafts practised by a few persons or groups of persons, but have already become a definite part of industrial entrepreneurship and business dealing in which a multitude of

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persons participate with uncanny finance and organisation and unlimited finance and endowment.

In conjunction with smuggling, money laundering, tax-evasion and black market as extremely potent socio-economic forces, the parallel economy based on a barrage of economic offences has today become a major hurdle bedeviling the polity and the economy. The linkage of crime and espionage makes the parallel economy strong and powerful. The strategies that it deploys, the currency and the produce that it controls form a definite branch of applied economics today.

The extent to which the parallel economy, in conjunction with black money, smuggling and money laundering-forces ancillary but exceedingly potent have ramified into the economic activities of countries is to be analysed.

There is little research or interest to study economics of crime but there are two important factors that provide relevance to the study. The important factors are :

- (i) The early neglect and inadequate interpretation of economics of crime in research and in practice
- (ii) The notion of the increased incidence of economic crimes, with the attendant need to understand and curtail it, which form the background of the study of the investigator.

On this background the investigator has done a study on  
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**CRIMINALITY IN A SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU”** with the following objectives.

### **OBJECTIVES**

- (i) To analyse the extent of various forms of crimes under Indian penal code in Tamil Nadu during the period 1990-2005.
- (ii) To analyse the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money-laundering, cultural object theft) in India during the period 1990-2005.
- (iii) To assess the socio-economic conditions of female and male convicted prisoners from the selected prisons for the period 2005-2006 in Tamil Nadu.
- (iv) To examine the factors which motivated the convicted prisoners to commit crime in the period 2005-2006.
- (v) To analyse the rehabilitation measures undertaken by the Government for the convicted prisoners in Tamil Nadu.

The following null hypothesis are tested as follows :

- (a) The potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.
- (b) There is no association between the age group of the convicted prisoners and their nature of offence.
- (c) Socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.
- (d) Duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

## **CHAPTER – II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The review of literature pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**”, is discussed under the following headings :

- 2.1 Studies Relating to Factors Influencing Criminal Activities
- 2.2 Studies Relating to Economics of Crime
- 2.3 Studies Relating to Socio-Economic Conditions of Female and Male Criminality
- 2.4 Studies Relating to Economic Offences
- 2.5 Other Related Studies

#### **2.1 STUDIES RELATING TO FACTORS INFLUENCING CRIMINAL ACTIVITIES**

The factors activating the criminogenic process are various in number with respect to their nature and magnitude. These factors can be grouped in two classes as,

- 1. Incentives to offend
- 2. Socio-demographic factors

##### **2.1.1 Incentives to Offend**

Smigel (1965) and Ehrlich (1967) find there are significant negative effects of crime of probability of conviction and severity of punishment and that usually the effect of probability of conviction exceeds that of severity of

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punishment, indicating preference for risk in the region of observation. This is also supported by Carr-Hill and Stern (1979) in the study, although crime decreased as both probability of conviction and severity of punishment increased, the absolute value of the co-efficient of probability of conviction was often as such as three times or even greater than that of severity of punishment.

Walker (1968) suggests, “theft and housebreaking are facilitated by the long nights of winter ; forgery, on the other hand is an all weather pursuit” and at a more detailed level.

Phillips et al. (1972) found a strong relationship between the rising arrest rates of young males and lower rates of labour force participation (after allowing for the influence of some other variables), and advocate the creation of job opportunities as a method of combating high crime rates.

Ehrlich (1973) think that an individual’s decision to commit a crime is not qualitatively different from his decision to buy an orange or any other commodity, just as an increase in the price of an orange or other commodity under ‘Ceteris paribus’ condition, should decrease consumption of oranges so should an increase in the expected cost of committing a crime decrease the number of crimes committed. This leads to the conclusion that criminals react to incentives as fast as “the rest of us” do and deterrence occurs.

Mansfield et al. (1974) correlated the crime rates with recorded temperature, day, light, sunshine and rainfall for each month and found that the first three factors were strongly correlated with such crimes but showed negligible correlations with forgery.

The actual penalty received in court is only a part of the punishment as seen by the individual which is supported by the work of Willcock (1974)

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which showed that in a sample of adolescents, considerable weight was attached to the shame of appearance in court.

Belson (1975) found in his study of 500 adolescents that family disapproval was a much more powerful deterrent to delinquent activity than the perceived likelihood of being caught.

The works of Danziger and Wheeler (1975), Jasso (1980) provide a strong association between recorded offence rates and income inequality distribution in a society.

Cook (1977) summarizes well the conclusion that emerges from these surveys : "There is strong evidence that an increase in the threat of punishment can reduce the amount of some crimes in some circumstances, but very little evidence about the long-term effects, the typical magnitudes involved, the relevance of process, the responsiveness of juveniles to threats, or the extent to some important crime categories (such as murder) are responsive to changes in the threat level.

Long and Witte (1981) have surveyed both the aggregate and individual studies that seek to determine if there is a relationship between criminal activity and legitimate opportunity. Their survey concludes that the evidence only very weakly supports the simple economic model (i.e., that higher income and lower unemployment rates are associated with lower levels of criminal activity). This conclusion is consistent with the result as reported in Schmidt and Witte (1984).

A study by Hofer and Tham (1987) found no significant effect on the theft rate from the variation in imprisonment rate for change in the risk of detection.

### **2.1.2 Socio-Demographic Factors**

There are several socio-demographic factors which may be important in influencing the individual's propensity to offend such as : prevalence of ethnic minorities, sex ratio, types of neighbourhood, concentration of working class people, proportion of young people in total population, number of broken homes, lack of parental care and amount of overcrowding in houses (Sharma, 1999).

## **2.2 STUDIES RELATING TO ECONOMICS OF CRIME**

Becker's (1968) exposition of an economic model of crime assumed that a potential offender acts as an expected-utility maximiser who allocates his time between competing activities, both legal and illegal, with uncertain consequences. A rational agent will thus engage in some illegal activity as long as the marginal return from crime exceeds the marginal return from legal occupation by more than the expected value of the penalty. The theoretical foundations of the link between economic deprivation and crime is based upon the notion that deprivation creates economically motivated offenders who are compelled to commit crime in order to satisfy basic needs. A major problem with these theories is that they rely on the troubling supposition that macro-level relationships reflect the sum of a series of individual-level social-psychological processes.

Darold Maxwell (1970) conducted a study on "Crime, Youth and Labour Market". This research utilizes a model permitting alternative partitioning of the population. Classified by labour market status which links individual subsets to property crime. The study concentrates on eighteen-to-nineteen-year-old white and non white males. When distinguishing between those who

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are not working and all the others having significantly higher crime rates. Between labour force and in the labour force, the latter group appears the most criminal. To conclude that economic opportunity is a key factor in generating youthful crime and that, properly weighed, participation rates may be a better measure of economic opportunity than simply unemployment rates.

Mays' (1970) study on "Crime and its Treatment", analysed that changes in the standard of living are felt by all classes of the community, but they are felt keenly by the classess nearest the poverty line. The kinds of crime which the various strata of society are most likely to commit, and their amount, are by no means the same. One of the most fruitful approaches to elucidating the influence of the economic factor would be to measure the economic conditions of the various classes or groups of society.

1. Crime is a predominantly urban phenomenon and in comparatively small, static and homogenous rural areas crime rates are low.
2. Criminal statistics suggest that crime is closely associated with lower-class neighbourhoods. It has a strong subcultural basis and is a reaction on the part of depressed groups against social and economic frustrations imposed on them by more successful and more powerful classes.
3. Crime is part and parcel of a special way of life which has grown up in lower class and economically poor neighbourhoods and is intimately associated with the positive cultural values of such localities. Homogeneous slum neighbourhoods encourage juvenile gangs and so perpetuate a delinquent tradition independently of middle class culture and institutions.

4. Crime is unevenly distributed even amongst lower status groups, all of whom might be expected to react against social and economic frustrations with equal force. Differential delinquency rates are to be found amongst people living in the same kind of locality and in the same broad occupational class.
5. The ecological distribution of high crime rates amongst people living in older and poorer areas might partly arise, it seems reasonable to suppose, because of the experience of discrimination arising from the resident's lowly occupational and economic roles.

Following these studies, and particularly in 1970, an attempt was made to formulate a more comprehensive model of the decision to engage in unlawful activities and to test it against some available empirical evidence by Stigler (1970). The analysis goes beyond that of Becker and other previous contributions in several ways. First, it incorporates the concept of opportunities both punishment and reward – costs and gains from legitimate and illegitimate pursuits – rather than the cost of punishment alone, the attempts to identify and test the effect of their empirical counterparts. Specifically, it predicts and verifies empirically a systematic association between the rate of specific crimes on the one hand, and income inequality as well as law enforcement activity on the other. Second, it links formally the theory of participation in illegitimate activities with the general theory of occupational choices by presenting the offender's decision problem as one of an optimal allocation of resources under uncertainty to competing activities both inside and outside the market sector, rather than as a choice between mutually exclusive activities. The model developed can be used to predict not only the direction, but also the relative magnitude of the response of specific offenders to changes in various observable opportunities. In addition, the analysis distinguishes between the deterrent and preventive effects of

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punishment by imprisonment on the rate of crime and enables an empirical implementation, the researcher analyse the interaction between offense and defense - between crime and collective law – enforcement activity through police and courts – and employ a simultaneous equation econometric model in estimating supply – of – offenses functions and a production function of law – enforcement activity. The results of empirical investigation are then used to provide some tentative estimates of the effectiveness of law enforcement in deterring crime and reducing the social loss from crime.

Leon and Morvin (1971) who had studied “The Criminal in Society”, analysed that the more complex the economic structure of society becomes, the harder it is to measure the rhythm of its economic situation, of its economic cycles, of depression or prosperity, of the real economic changes which may occur within different classes and groups and in the various parts of the country. Thus to measure the economic situation of a relatively simple agricultural community is a feasible proposition. To do the same of our society is not. The task continuous to baffle the imagination and knowledge of our most expert economists. To adopt economic indices, which must be multiple and diversified, to serve as a sensitive and relevant barometer of economic change, and then to bring them into some kind of relationship with the trends in crime, is an undertaking even more formidable.

Allingham and Sandmo (1972) and Kolm (1973) had analysed in “Income for tax evasion – A theoretical Analysis”, the individual who is confronted with the problem of deciding what proportion of income not to report to the tax authorities. At variance with Becker’s model where the income of crime is a parameter, here the income of criminal activity is a function of the proportion of the exogenous income not reported.

Both the probability and the severity of punishment are found to deter crime for a person who does not want to take risk. For risk lovers, the effect of the severity of punishment is uncertain. An increase in the severity will have similar effects for illegal activities as a wage decrease in labor supply models will have for legal activities.

Two effects obtained are : substitution effect and an income effect. The substitution effect of a more severe punishment will consist in less crime. The sign of the income effect is positive, and the total effect on crime of a change in severity becomes indeterminate. The effects of changes in gains from crime and in exogenous income depend on whether there is decrease or increase in the risk aversion an individual will allocate a larger proportion of his income to tax cheating the higher his exogenous income and the higher the gains from crime.

Ehrlich (1973), in his study concluded that the assumption of a fixed leisure time obviously requires that the time allocated to legal and illegal activity changes in opposite direction (and with equal amounts), but the effects of changes in some of the parameters are also different from the previous model. Whereas the effects on crime of changes in exogenous income and gains to crime are the same as above, the effect of changes in the severity of sanctions become inconclusive without further restrictions on some parameters.

Ehrlich (1973) conducted a study on “Participation in Illegitimate Activities : A Theoretical and Empirical Investigation”, where a theory of participation in illegitimate activities is developed and tested against data on variations in index crimes across states in the United States. Theorems and behavioural implications are derived using the state preference approach to behaviour under uncertainty. The investigation deals directly with the

interaction between offence and defense crime and collective law enforcement. It indicates the existence of a deterrent effect of law enforcement activity on all crimes and a strong positive correlation between income inequality and crimes against property. The empirical results also provide some tentative estimates of the effectiveness of law enforcement in reducing crime and the resulting social losses.

Baldry and Jonathan (1974) in his analysis, "Positive Economic Analysis of Criminal Behaviour", introduces the assumption that a person has to choose between zero or a given number of hours of legal work per week. Transforming the Ehrlich model into a nonlinear programming model, obtains unambiguous predictions of the effects on crime of changes in sanctions and economic variables.

Block and Heineke (1975) conducted a study on "Labour Theoretic Analysis of the Criminal Choice", in which they had studied a model where a vector of attributes of the penalty, interpreted as the length of sentence, is included in the utility function. In this model one obtains considerably more ambiguous results than from the previous models. Unless one is willing to make strong assumptions about individual preferences, it is not possible to decide whether criminal activity will decrease or increase as a result of changes in the probability of punishment, of changes in returns to legal and to illegal activity, and of changes in exogenous income. They have shown that changes in legal and illegal remuneration lead to changes in illegal activity that are composed of stochastic counter parts of the substitution and income effects of traditional supply and demand theory. But the similarity is not close. Even if one assumes that illegal activity is inferior (that is, that such activity is decreasing with income), it is not possible to sign the relevant terms. Increasing the penalty, for instance, will not deter crime.

Votey and Phillips (1976) study focuses on four of the seven FBI index crimes for which an economic motive would be expected namely larceny, burglary, robbery and auto theft. This study makes two contributions ; one is the formulation of a model which permits alternative partitions of the population, classified on the basis of labour market activity, showing how each of the subsets is linked to youthful crime.

The second contribution, which follows directly from the model, is the proportion that labour – force participation may be a crucial element in the explanation of youthful crime. Our econometric analysis demonstrates that the model explains variations in crime rates for youth. In the process it reveals the importance of including participation rates as explanatory variables. Finally, the results are consistent with and extend Fleisher’s earlier work.

The finding concludes that changing labour-market opportunities are sufficient to explain increasing crime rates for youth. To test this hypothesis, this study constructed a model which includes all of the population subsets, classified by labour-market activity and colour, for a particular population age group. This formulation of the model has explanatory and predictive power but is plagued by collinearity between the independent variables, particularly between the colours. For purposes of analysis, two alternative formulations of the model are tested. Classifying the population as not working (unemployed plus not in the labour force) and others, and as in the labour force or not in the labour force and others. The estimates of the not-working formulation indicate that an increase in the unemployment rate and / or a decrease in the participation rate for either colour will increase the crime rate. Collinearity between the explanatory variables by colour is such that one can only obtain significant estimates of the impact of changing labour-market conditions for both colours jointly using either the white or the non-white variables.

The labour-force / not in the labour force formulation has greater explanatory power than the not working formulation, demonstrating the importance of participation rates relative to unemployment rates in explaining crime rates. This point is reinforced when one observes that during the middle and latter sixties, crime rates rose while unemployment rates declined. It is the decline in the participation rate which provides an explanation for the rise in crime during this period. The findings indicate that a successful attack on rising crime rates must consider the employment problems facing young people.

Heineke (1978) had analysed "Economic Models of Criminal Behaviour" where he studied somewhat different types of models where the individual allocates his time (and not his wealth or income) between legal and illegal activities. The individual's income is assumed to be equal to the sum of three elements : exogenous income, the monetary and monetized benefits and costs of illegal activities. (Monetization implicitly takes place if an individual, having to choose between actions involving non-monetary gains and losses, acts rationally according to certain axioms). If convicted, this income is reduced by a factor that represents the monetary and monetized costs of crime. Here, some of the individuals may choose to specialize in either legal or illegal activities, whereas others may choose a mix of the two.

A marginal increase in the probability or the severity of sanctions will affect the optimal mix of activities, whereas such an increase may be insufficient to have an effect on individuals who have specialized in one of the two activities. Assuming leisure time not fixed, the same comparative statistics results as for the portfolio choice model are obtained. The reason for this similarity is the monetization of psychic benefits, and the high degree of independence between the types of activities.

Carr-Hill and Stern (1979) estimated “Crime, The Police and Criminal Statistics” and emphasize that the economic and criminological approaches should be seen as complementary rather than conflicting. They maintain that the economic approach isolates the importance of the probabilities and magnitude of reward and punishment, and show how they can be treated formally. The criminological approach takes these for granted and indicates how different groups might view and react to less probabilities, rewards and punishments.

These two approaches are related to the issue of opportunities of hitting valuable and low-risk targets. Those who more or less explicitly dismiss the theory of rational choice often focus on the motivation of individuals, assuming that behaviour is determined by individual characteristics and by the norms of the groups to which they belong.

Witte (1980) had studied a simplified version of their several sanctions model where time spent in legal income-generating activity (work), time spent in illegal income-generating activity (theft and so on), time spent in illegal consumption activities (drug use, assaultive activities and so on) are separate arguments in the individual’s utility function. Here too, similar inconclusive results are obtained. When benefits and costs of legal activities are risky, even more ambiguous results are obtained.

The standard assumption that people maximize expected utility is appealing because it follows from the Von Neumann – Morgenstern axioms of individual behaviour that many scholars regard as reasonable, or at least as a fruitful hypothesis. However, many laboratory experiments have shown that people do not always choose in accordance with these axioms, in particular Lattimore et al. (1992), who included burglaries in a set of risky prospects to

choose between. As a result, various alternative forms of preference functions that are non-linear in the probabilities have been proposed.

Hellman (1980) tries to explain criminal behaviour in economic terms. The standard model begins with an assumption about behaviour. All it means is that in making choices the criminal takes account of expected gains and costs from various actions, where gains and costs include all kinds of psychic possibilities, including a taste or distaste for crime based on moral considerations. There are several categories of gains and costs to be considered. It is necessary to keep in mind that the importance of various ingredients in the criminal choice, as well as the applicability of the assumption of rationality, varies from one individual to another and from one crime to another. The kinds of gains that can be derived from a criminal act vary, depending on the type of crime and the individual criminal. The most obvious form of gain is a monetary one. Stealing property yields monetary gains; murdering for insurance money also yields monetary gains. For some crimes, the exact value of the monetary gain is known. For example, the potential thief may know that there is \$ 50,000 in the safe. In other cases, only the expected value or average monetary value to be gained is known. As an example, on the average a thief may expect to take \$ 400 worth of property in a burglary in Boston's back bay area.

The second category of gain is psychic gains. This is a very general category and includes lots of possibilities – the thrill of danger or value of risk, a feeling of “getting back at the system”, peer approval, a sense of accomplishment, and so forth. The importance of psychic gains depends on the crime. The psychic gains derived from a rape are different from those derived from a burglary. Psychic gains also depend on the individual committing the crime. The psychic gains to a juvenile from auto theft are likely to be larger than those to an adult professional.

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Ehrlich (1981) in his U.A. suggest that opportunity approach the number of offences is determined by the interaction of potential offenders, who are seeking the best targets and potential victims, who by measures of private protection seek to be less attractive or vulnerable to crime.

Studies of tax cheating based on individual data by Clotfelter (1983), Slemrod (1985), Witte and Woodbury (1985) and Klepper et al. (1989) conclude that both the probability and severity of punishment have negative effects upon crime.

The portfolio model of time allocation with non-fixed leisure time has been somewhat extended by Schmidt and Witte (1984) had analysed “Economic Analysis of Crime and Justice : Theory, Method and Applications” and introduced four possible criminal justice states, each taking place with a certain probability. In these models the effects of changes in sanctions, and in gains and losses of crime become more ambiguous than in the previous models. Especially, and somewhat surprisingly, illegal activity will decrease with increasing unemployment under the standard assumption of decreasing absolute risk aversion. The explanation is that unemployment implies a lower income, and therefore a higher risk aversion, and then again a lower expected utility of crime under risk neutrality time allocated to illegal activity is not affected by change in the expected employment rate.

A good survey of the main contributions to the development of the economic models of crime is found in Schmidt and Witte (1984). The gains and losses included in the economic models of criminal behaviour are usually meant to represent all kinds of benefits and costs that have an effect on the people’s decisions.

The kinds of gains obtained from a criminal act vary, depending on the type of crime and the individual criminal : some are monetary, obtained from

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theft, robbery, insurance fraud and so on. Others are psychic, such as the thrill of danger, peer approval, retribution (bank robbery), sense of accomplishment, or 'pure' satisfaction of wants (rape). For some property crimes the prices obtained on markets of stolen goods are of importance.

Ferrajoli and Zolo's (1985) study on "Marxism and the Criminal Question" has analysed the question whether it is possible to trace a theoretical strategy for a criminal policy on the basis of Marx's work. The answer offered is that Marxian political and economic analysis does not supply any "general theory of criminality and that any attempt to formulate such a theory (as in Lenin, Pankaj Mishra and Gramsci) necessarily leads to authoritarian and regressive conceptions of crime and punishment. Nevertheless the authors maintain that it is possible to trace three theoretical suggestions within Marxian thought which allow of a fruitful approach to the criminal question. The first suggestion relates to the economic roots of many aspects of modern criminality ; the second regards the Christian and bourgeois "superstition of moral liberty and individual culpability ; the third suggestion deals with the lack of a guaranteed "social space as the prime root of crime". These theoretical suggestions permit clarification of the social character of penal responsibility and this character points to the need for the socialization (but not deregulation) of criminal treatment. This essay grew out of a reply to a questionnaire drawn up by *la questione criminale*, an Italian review which tries to approach the criminal question from a Marxist stand point.

According to Camoron and Samuel (1987), the economic model of crime suggests that changes in benefits and costs of committing a particular type of crime might have effects on other types of crime. If, for instance, the probability of being convicted for robbery increases, some robbers might shift to burglary. One crime is substituted for another, just as people buy more

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apples instead of oranges when the price of oranges goes up. A certain number of statistically significant effects are found. Indicating that some crimes are substitutes whereas others are alternatives.

Phillips and Votey (1987) studied on “The Influence of Police Intervention and Alternative Income Sources on the Dynamic Process of Choosing Crime as a Career”. This study demonstrates how a rational process of choice may be influenced by both deterrence forces and economic opportunities. This choice is modeled by a dynamic (Markov) process which captures self-sorting by youth among the categories of innocents, desisters and persisters in crime. A key to the results is the introduction of the perceived probability of punishment and its influence on the sorting process. The analysis shows how this force and the availability, or lack of, economic opportunities or income sources modify transition probabilities. The long-run consequences will be a larger subpopulation of individuals who have experimented with crime but subsequently revert to crime-free behaviour and a smaller subpopulation of individuals who commit a greater share of crime. Empirical evidence is based on data from the New Youth Cohort of the National Longitudinal Surveys.

Cameron and Samuel (1987) in his analysis on “A Subjectivist Perspective on the Economics of Crime”, states that superficially the theory of criminal activity is a subjective one as it derives allegedly from subjective expected – utility theory according to which decision – makers choose on the basis of the weighted average utility from success or failure in some act. The weights are the subjective probabilities that the individual attaches to outcomes. In the case of crime, the relevant outcomes are states where some punishment is experienced and the punishment true state of escape from detection. All individuals obey the same calculus and even have the same utility function, which is unchanging over the life cycle. Anyone will, in this

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model become a criminal if the price is right ; if the prices cease to be right, people will cease being criminals. Entry and exit into and out of crime are symmetrical. It is thus mistaken to talk about criminals as all individuals have criminal intentions ; whether or not they are observed exposed to perform criminal acts simply depends on the values of the relevant constraints and expectations in the time period under consideration.

According to Blumstein and Cohen (1987) a criminal learns about the techniques of crime and the available opportunities for crime from other criminals. Punishment plays a special role in this as the prison is a veritable university of crime where the criminal has an opportunity to learn from the past successes and failures of masters of the art. In this approach, entrants to crime are rational utility maximizers with time-invariant preferences ; this implies that they should purposefully get arrested in order to obtain entry to prison. Entry to crime is an act of resolving conflict in an environment where risks are not known because of the absence of repeated sampling and the substantial uniqueness of each person's entry. Mixing with more experienced criminals cements the decision to become a criminal, but it is not the by product of a deliberate decision to obtain human capital by going to prison. To conclude, a vast literature exists on the economics of crime, the great bulk of it being constructed by analogy with neoclassical general-equilibrium models of commodity – market and factor – market interdependence. The main conclusion of this book is that for the most part, the economics of crime has been methodologically misguided. From time to time in the literature, observations have been made that show recognition of this, but these have never been integrated in a meaningful way.

Women's lack of economic security forces them to put up with extreme acts of violence for the sake of survival. Inheritance laws and practices, the lack of access to land, the lack of education and the denial of mobility

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contribute to keeping women locked into situations from which there is no escape. David Levinson in an 90 country study found that the lack of economic dependence is one of the main reasons for violence against women (Levinson and David, 1989).

Gottredon and Hirschi (1990) had studied a useful introduction into “crime economies” which avoids a reliance on complex economic theory is to consider crime relationships within model markets. Such an analysis complements the interest in globalization by reflecting the dominant influence in contemporary economic restructuring in a post-communist world. In addition, it is consistent with simplistic representations of crime as profit, marked by greed and self-interest. Market models of economic development are even more appropriate to the contextual study of crime, in that many of the rational choice assumptions which underpin such market models also appear in traditional as well as more recent, explanations of crime. With choice being an essential component of market economics, and also for theories of crime as – opportunity, limitations of choice, whether through structures and institutions of crime control or market regulation, will influence the analysis of crime and economy from a market perspective.

Analysis of Bennett (1991) on “Development and Crime : A Cross-National, Time Series Analysis of Competing Models”, concludes that economic development affects crime rates. Two competing models, the Durkheimian and opportunity, claim to explain this relationship. It attempts to assess the effects of change using cross-sectional designs and variables that measure level of, rather than actual change in, economic development. This study evaluates these competing explanatory models by analyzing the effects of level of development and rate of growth on crime rates. The findings indicate that both affect the rate and type of crime in ways that refute the Durkheimian and only offer qualified support for the opportunity model. A

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pooled time series, cross sectional analysis that controls for possible spurious factors reveals interesting nonlinear effects that allow further specification of the crime and development relationship.

Marriman (1991) observed in “An Economic Analysis of the Post World War II Decline in the Japanese Crime Rate”, that since the end of world War II there has been a dramatic decrease in reported Japanese crime. Adult arrest rates have fallen steadily since the early 1950s and juvenile arrest rates have fallen since the early 1960s. An economic analysis of crime predicts that crime rates depend upon returns to crime relative to returns in legal pursuits and the certainty and severity of punishment. Regression analysis is used to test this theory using Japanese data. The empirical results indicate that the economic model does not outperform alternative models. However, the results are consistent with the hypothesis that increases in returns to legitimate work diminish both adult and juvenile crime. Unemployment affects some adult crimes but has little impact on juvenile crime. The share of the population in poverty has no significant impact on either type of crime. Increases in the certainty of punishment deters adult crime but there is little evidence that increases in either the certainty or the severity of punishment deter juvenile crime. There is weak evidence to support the hypothesis that increases in the severity of adult punishments deter crime.

Lessan (1991) had analysed “Macro-Economic Determinants of Penal Policy : Estimating the Unemployment and Inflation Influences on Imprisonment Rate Changes in the United States, 1948-1985” and studied the conflict theory that proposes that systemic economic distress generates problem populations which require control via palliative and coercive means. Most previous research has concentrated on examining the unemployment-imprisonment relationship. A review of the literature suggests that other structural conditions that generate marginalization as well as the state’s

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placative control must be considered in order to understand the linkage between economic-fiscal forces and penal policy. Using annual time-series data for the period 1948-1985, the present paper examines the extent to which changes in imprisonment rates reflect (a) governmental attempts to offset the threat of unemployment and inflation and (b) fiscal limitations placed by state expenditures on placative controls. The results indicate support for the conflict thesis, with inflation rates and annual fluctuations in black and white male unemployment rates exerting an independent positive effect upon imprisonment-rate changes, after controlling for variations in violent crime rates, prison capacity, and age structure. Possible reasons for the lack of evidence regarding trade-offs between state's placative and coercive policies are discussed and suggestions for further research are noted.

Petras and Davenport's (1991) study "Crime and the Transformation of Capitalism", investigates factors that enhance criminal behaviour. Typically, explanations for increasing crime rates discuss various familial and community attributes ; i.e., single parent households and poverty rates. When crime has increased, these attributes are cited as being responsible. As a result, the familial and community attributes suggested as causing crime are seen as intervening variables ; which are either attenuated or amplified in their ability to control criminal behaviour by the condition of the economy itself. Within this study, five urban cities (New York, Detroit, Newark, Boston, and Philadelphia) are observed over a twenty eight year period. Structural change is measured by industrial employment and crime is measured by three indices : burglary, robbery and murder. The investigation reveals a strong relationship between declining industrial employment and increasing crime rates. In addition, we find that the magnitude of this relationship is subject to variation. This variation is dependent upon whether or not the industrial decline experienced was steady or vacillating between high and low levels. These

findings support the contention that familial units and other communal organizations are merely intervening variables between large-scale structural changes and criminal behaviour. Moreover, it suggests that unless anti-crime efforts (increasing the size of the police forces, increasing state expenditures for law enforcement, etc.) are accompanied by strategies of industrial reorganization, they will have no impact on reducing crime rates.

Pyle and Deadman (1994) cite two reasons why a positive association may not always be observed : first, during a recession there is less property available to steal and second, with more people at home during the day due to unemployment, the surveillance of residential premises is increased. Thus whilst one set of theories predict that property crimes should increase in times of economic hardship (motivational theories), the other that property crimes may fall during a recession (opportunity theories) part of the problem lies with the fact that statistical “correlation” between variables does not necessarily imply a ‘casual’ relationship.

Panther (1995) attempted a study on “The Economics of Crime and Criminal Law : An Anti Thesis to Sociological Theories”, where he studied that the relationship between sociology and economics of crime has been dominated by mutual prejudice and misunderstanding. This study tries to contribute to a change of this state of affairs by showing that, on the one hand, the economics of crime does not as a method imply politically conservative policy recommendations and on the other hand, that insights of the sociology of crime may enrich the economic approach considerably. This is done via a brief survey of the economics of enforcement, the literature on the relation of income distribution and unemployment on crime, and the literature relating to sociological theories of crime and methodological individualism.

To a certain extent, the interaction which is crime and economy substantiates Reiner's fourfold framework for an analytical understanding of crime (Morrison, 1995).

- (a) As a legal category - where labels such as 'legal', 'legitimate' and 'deviant' delimit certain aspects of economic activity as being criminal ;
- (b) As a motive – whereby a particular behaviour or relationship which has been labeled criminal is the preferred economic choice ;
- (c) As an opportunity – wherein this choice is invited usually as a result of certain constrained or directed market conditions ;
- (d) As an absence of control – again into a market sense where internalized controls such as business 'ethics' or commercial 'conscience' are either compromised or re-interpreted, and where external or situational regulators make the crime choice both economically sensible and commercially profitable.

Morrison suggests that by adopting an interactive analysis, such as with crime and economy, and must not separate from meta theory of modern life and its problems – must locate the domain of our study within modern life and its problems. Essential to such a meta theory of modern life, and perhaps one of its most significant modern problems, are the material, financial and opportunistic disparities which emerge out of economic development. The position of crime in addressing such disparities itself presents problems for economic development, and may well emerge as a feature of it.

Eide and Erling (1995) has substituted the assumption of rank-dependent expected utility for the ordinary expected utility in various models of criminal behaviour.



Masih and Masih (1996) capture the essence in stating that a 'criminal activity is not something that can be caused by a single factor or two unless combined with a host of other factors, the dynamic interactions of which create an attitude as well as an environment which result in the final act of crime'.

Crime as economy emphasizes the need to view crime as a process of interconnected relationships working towards the maximization of profit. This occurs within a context of set power structures and social constraints. As with other profit 'maximisers', crime is dependent on market conditions such as competition. This is particularly so when it comes to the application of criminal enterprise within situations of opportunity. At least for crime and crime relationships (as structures and conditions of profit), crime control may be viewed both as directed against market conditions and against criminal behaviours and crime relationships.

Freeman and Richard (1996) in his analysis on "Why do so many young American men commit crimes and what might we do about it?" makes the point that there are two crude indicators of the aggregate cost of crime to society. At the one extreme, lies a society that spends nothing on crime control and the aggregate cost would then be the loss of property, lives and misery due to crime. At the other extreme, imagine a society that spends so much on crime prevention that no crimes are committed. The cost of crime would then be the opportunity cost of crime control resources like prison, police and private spending that could be spent on other activities. Clearly no societies represent that extremes. At the social optimum, society would spend first enough on crime control so that the marginal dollar spent equals the marginal reduction in social costs of crime.

There is diverse evidence in the United States that young men respond to economic incentives for crime.

- The demographics of the criminal population show that those who commit crimes consist disproportionately of persons with low legitimate earnings prospects the young, the less educated, persons with low test scores.
- Areas with higher unemployment tend to have higher crime.
- Greater inequality is associated with higher crime rates.
- Surveys show that individuals who commit crime have lower perceptions of the risks of crime, higher assessments of the relative earnings of criminal behaviour and lower legitimate hourly pay.
- Time worked by men in the lower deciles of the earnings distribution fell in the 1980s as their real earnings fell.
- Many youths combine crime and work or shift between them readily.

Steven (1996) in his work on “The effect of prison population size on crime rates : evidence from prison over crowding legislation”, offers a vivid illustration. Previous research on prisons and crime recognizes two channels through which longer prison stays and higher rates of incarceration can reduce the crime rate. One channel is incapacitation : Longer average prison stays prevent criminals from committing crimes by keeping them off the street. The other channel is deterrence : Longer and more certain prison terms raise the costs that prospective criminals must balance against the benefits of criminal activity. These channels are difficult to evaluate separately, because sentence lengths and conviction rates are correlated in complex ways with a state or a community’s aggregate crime rate. A high crime location will

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typically generate more prison-years of incarceration than a low crime one. However, this positive association between the prison population and the crime rate is not due to the incentive effects of prison terms on criminal activity. Alternatively, if some “anticrime” communities tend to be tough on criminals, work hard to solve crimes and apply longer prison terms to those who are convicted, such communities may have higher rates of imprisonment and lower crime rates than communities that are more tolerant of crime. This pattern could induce a negative correlation between prison time and crime rates that is not the result of behavioural response on the part of criminals.

To develop new insights on the casual relationships between prison time, incarceration rates and crime rates, a researcher would like to find changes in a jurisdiction’s prison population or in its typical prison term that are not attributable to any of the confounding factors described above. Steve focuses on one such source of variation : court – imposed changes in prison over crowding legislation. Steve argues that these suits are exogenous shocks to the number of criminals held in correction facilities, in part because there are long and unpredictable delays between filing and resolution of these suits. Using these stocks as instrumental variables, he finds powerful evidence that the size of the prison population has a negative effect on the level of crime in a state. His estimates suggest that a 10 per cent rise in the prison population is associated with a 4 per cent decline in violent crime and a 3 per cent decline in property crime. These estimates are several times larger than ordinary least squares estimates and they are substantially greater than conventional estimates. When these parameter values are combined with standard estimates of the costs of crime they suggest that the marginal social benefit of an additional prison-year in the 1990s was approximately \$ 50,000, compared with a marginal cost of incarceration of roughly \$ 30,000. The prison population has increased since these estimates were compiled, so the

marginal benefit today is probably lower, but estimates of this type remain a critical input to the design of public policy. This important study not only offers new estimates of the marginal effect of imprisonment on crime, but it also suggests a new research strategy for identifying key relationship in the economics of crime.

Siddique (1997) who had studied on “Bongers Theory of Economic Structure and Crime”, analysed the most notable and stimulating contribution to criminology in understanding the relation of crime and economic structure who sought to explain the phenomenon of crime on the basis of the Marxist approach. Born in a religious Dutch family, he developed an antagonism to religion as a reaction to the stuffy atmosphere at home. Without denying the influence of hereditary traits in human behaviour, he emphasized the importance of environmental factors not only in the case of criminals but also in great men. It was due to him that criminology has become a separate field of science in Holland. Through his classic book, *An Introduction to Criminology* and His Doctorate thesis, *Criminality and Economic Conditions*, Bonger had great influence on American and English minds. Bonger insisted that the criminal was a product of the capitalistic system which, instead of promoting altruistic tendencies among members of the society, created selfish tendencies. The system based on ‘capitalistic exchange’ is motivated by profit element. In such a system each member tries to get the maximum from others in return of the minimum from himself. This attitude of the capitalist according to Bonger, affects the attitudes of the proletariat as well. “The oppressed resort to means which they would otherwise scorn the basis of social feeling is reciprocity. As soon as this is trodden underfoot by the ruling class, the social sentiments of the oppressed become weak towards them”. Bonger identifies many evils in the capitalist system which are conducive to the spread of criminal behaviour. Child labour according to Bonger is entirely a capitalistic

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phenomenon which is one of the salient features of juvenile delinquency. Long hours of work by workers have a brutalizing effect on them.

Finally, illiteracy among people of lower classes contributes greatly to the commission of crimes. The theory propounded by Bonger no doubt indicates one very important basis of the causes of criminality. He, however, ignores the tangle of inter-relationships among social, cultural, economic, political, religious and other set of factors. According to his theory, the phenomenon of crime should have come to an end, or at least controlled to a very great extent in socialist countries like the U.S.S.R. which is not at all the actual position. According to the study made by the Carans, juvenile delinquency was frequent in all strata of the Soviet society.

The proponents of the Marxist view, however hold that crime cannot be eliminated in socialist societies within a sort period after a new economic order has been introduced. It will need a long time for the “reminants” of criminality to disappear altogether, which can happen only after “the remnants of the bourgeois way of thinking are eventually eliminated”.

There is no doubt, however, that poverty does play an important role in delinquency and the capitalistic system may also contribute to poverty in certain sections of the society and give values which determine success in life purely in terms of money. In India, criminal statistics clearly reveal that there is a direct nexus between poverty and criminal behaviour. Out of the total of 96,144 juvenile offenders about whom data of economic set up was available, 80 per cent were from lower classes. Out of 1,62, 782 juveniles offenders about whom data of economic set up was available, 85 per cent were from lower class families.

Criminal statistics shows the representation of lower groups may not necessarily give the exact relative positions of deviations from different socio-

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economic strata because of differential police action in different situations. The changes of a crime committed by some one from the upper strata going unreported to the police or lack of action by the establishment are higher than in cases of persons from lower economic strata.

The indirect effects of poverty noted by Clifford show by focusing attention on his well known concept of “delinquency area”. These areas are characterized by physical deterioration, high proportion of population or welfare rolls and a high proportion of ethnic and racial minorities. Inadequate housing is one of the most serious problems in such delinquent areas which creates tension between members of the family living in a cramped atmosphere.

Murphy and Coleman (1997) who studied on “Economics of crimes, philosophy of law : An Introduction to jurisprudence” analysed that the economic analysis of crime usually falls in to three categories. The subject matter of the first category is the potential criminal. Here economic analysis involves applying principles of rational choice under uncertainty in order to model criminal behavior. The analysis focus on the extent to which variations in the probability of detection and severity of sanction can induce conduct in conformity to the dictates of the criminal law. The second category is concerned primarily with society’s decision regarding the distribution of resources spent on law enforcement. There is only so much money at a government’s disposal. Some of it goes to national defense, some to public health, social programs, education etc. some of it goes to law enforcement. There are two subcategories here. The first is determining the general level of appropriate expenditures on crime ; the second assumes a given expenditure and is concerned with distributing it optimally. In both the first and second categories of economic analysis of crime, some characterization of conduct as criminal is taken as given. Given a characterization of conduct as criminal, the

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first type of analysis asks how to use economic theory to induce compliance. The second form of analysis asks both-how much should be spent on enforcement generally and how should the funds be optimally distributed. In contrast, the third kind of economic analysis of crime is concerned with giving an economic analysis of the conditions of criminality. The general point is that as long as individuals are assumed to be risk neutral they are concerned only with expected outcomes. On these assumptions rational enforcement would be set equal to the least enforcement cost compatible with the constraint that no fine can exceed the average wealth of the citizen.

Shihadeh and Qusey (1998) correctly point out that the challenge for macro-social research on crime is to identify the macro-social contents that are conducive to crime rather than to reproduce individual-level analogs at a higher level. As a result they view economic deprivation as having profoundly destructive consequences on both the 'Organization and Normative Structure' of communities, consequences that are far more calamitous to the design of social life than economically motivated offenders. Studies of crime in American ghettos where joblessness and poverty are daily realities reveal that the structural impediments such as deleterious labour force conditions can generate milieu effects that are conducive to crime (Shihadeh and Ousey, 1998). In conditions of mass unemployment young males have little hope of finding work and are deprived of the primary means by which men prove their worth. Instead they seek peer support and foster an image based on violence.

Atrik (1998) had analysed in "Policy and Planning in Criminology", that during the last decade there had been an increasing recognition in a number of countries of the cost of crime. The cost could be assessed in terms of the losses and damages to individuals and society-public expenditures for crime prevention and control, and the anxiety generated in the population regarding the prevalence and increase of both violent and property crimes. Concern had

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expanded beyond the fears endangered of ordinary crimes of assault and theft to the serious effects of illegal activities of business and trading enterprises and the corruption of public officials.

It was generally accepted that the main concern in the last quarter of the twentieth century was the link between crime and quality of life and that there was a crucial link between crime and other social problems that demanded urgent attention that required the development of strategies to minimize the negative economic and social impact of crime, and the more equitable distribution of those consequences which could not be avoided. Indeed, it was contended by some that the strategies required might result in the criminal justice system itself playing only a secondary role in the prevention and control of criminality and that major emphasis would have to be placed on sensitizing and utilizing the overall economic and social complex to provide the ingredients of an effective and rational crime prevention and control policy. The cost of crime varied with the structure of crime and with different economic and social systems. There was no doubt that, in its effects, crime distorted national goals and impeded their attainment and that it prevented the optimum use of national resources.

The impact of crime was relatively well perceived at the micro level, the level of the individual or a small segment of society. The indirect costs of crime at the macro level were less clearly perceived and less easily measured, particularly in the developmental context, there was an urgent need for better information on the impact of increases in crime and changes in types of crime. To describe the indirect economic consequences of crime and crime control, one had to address oneself to questions of efficiency and equity of misallocation of scarce resources at both the national and transnational levels, of improper distribution of income both within and between nations,



and of the effect of improper resource allocation and income distribution on development and growth.

It was emphasized that, in the analysis of some of the economic consequences of crime, care should be taken to provide data that would permit estimates to be made of its impact on the development. There should therefore be some means of identifying crimes which have relevance to development. Some attempts should be made to find alternative methods of crime control in such circumstances. The solutions to those kinds of problems were conceptual in nature and called for problem related research to minimize their economic consequences while at the same time supporting the developmental process. The experience of certain countries could be used as an illustration of the substantial economic burden imposed by crime.

Witt and Witte (1998) who had analysed on “Crime imprisonment and female labour on force participation : A time series approach”, studied that rapidly growing prison population in the US has led to an upsurge of interest in discerning the impact of this costly increase on crime rates. Estimates of impact vary. The new estimates of the impact of prisons using different data, specification and estimation technique results at both higher levels of imprisonment and increases in labour force participation of women are related to significantly higher crime rate. The impact of female labour force participation is much larger than the impact of imprisonment.

Findlay (1999) had studied on “Crime Economics”, that with the emergence of ‘global economies’ and recent reflections on the capacity of modern industrialized societies to transform in the face of powerful political change, crime is receiving recognition as a significant commercial determinant. Rapid technological change and associated explosions in communications media have led not only to an erosion of national economic

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boundaries but to a globalization of market opportunities. The challenge facing global society is to advance socio-economic development in a manner which does not necessarily enhance crime while wealth and prosperity remain in the needs of the few, and capital and resource disparity is rarely alleviated through development. Crime will continue to exist within developing economies – as a consequence of such disparity, as well as a reaction to it. Disparity being a consistent feature of contemporary economies, crime and economy are thus inextricable.

Nanci and Daniel (1999) had analysed “Economic conditions, Deterrence and Juvenile Crime : Evidence from Micro Data”. The study tests the economic model of crime deterrence among juveniles using micro data drawn from the National Longitudinal study of adolescent health, wave (In-Home interview N = 16,478 U.S. high – school students). The intent was to analyse the determinants of selling drugs, and of committing assault, robbery, burglary and theft, among youth.

Turner et al. (1999) who attempted a study on “Predictors of Approval of Opening a Casino in Niagara Community” had analysed. The study reports on the findings of a survey prior to the opening of a casino in Niagara Falls, Ontario (N = 1002 adults) on approval of the casino, expectations regarding the impact of the casino, attitudes toward gambling, gambling behaviour, and demographic information. The respondents generally had a positive attitude towards gambling. The expectations of community impact clustered into three factors : negative social consequences (crimes, addiction), negative environmental consequences (litter, noise, traffic) and positive economic consequences (jobs, stores, income). The majority of respondents expected economic benefits from the casino as well as a decrease in the environmental quality of the city. Expectations regarding social problems were mixed with a majority expecting an increase in serious crimes, but only a minority expecting

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an increase in people on welfare. Covariance structure modelling revealed that a positive attitude towards gambling and expecting economic benefits were positively related to approval of the casino, and expecting social problems was negatively related to approval. Given that more than seven in ten respondents supported the opening of the casino, the expected economic benefits coupled with a generally positive attitude towards gambling, apparently outweighed concerns about problems associated with gambling.

Londono and Guerrero (1999) in their study examines the main issues concerning crime and victimization from an economic perspective, combining a review of the main results established in the literature with original research on the causes of crime and the risk factors of victimization.

The study examines the main issues concerning crime and victimization from an economic perspective, combining a review of the main results established in the literature with original research on the causes of crime and the risk factors of victimization, the literature on the causes of crime, which extends from Becker's original contribution to the recent developments that emphasize social interactions. The survey covers both theoretical results and empirical evidence, emphasizing how the interaction between the two has stimulated their development. Finally, crime data describes the main sources of information regarding crimes, victims and offenders and it discusses the relative advantages of crime statistics derived from official sources and from victim and offender surveys.

The objective of this study is to analyse the social and economic determinants of homicide and robbery rates (at a national level) in a world wide sample of countries. It starts with an empirical model in which the main determinants of violent crime rates are economic variables. This basic model includes as explanatory variables the average and distribution of national

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income, the growth rate of output, the average educational attainment of the adult population, and the lagged crime rate (to allow for inertial effects). In turn, the basic model along five dimensions : (1) deterrence factors ; (2) activities related to illegal drugs ; (3) demographic issues ; (4) income and ethnic polarization and (5) social capital.

Buvinic and Morrison (1999) had analysed the concern with crime is well justified given its pernicious effects on economic activity and, more generally, on the quality of life of people who must cope with a reduced sense of personal and proprietary security. Several approaches have been used to measure the social costs of crime, and estimates vary considerably depending on the adopted methodologies and assumptions.

The simplest way is to adopt an accounting perspective and add up all the direct and indirect losses from crime. Lack of appropriate data and disagreements on the specific assumptions about the opportunity costs of the lost resources constitute the main limitations to this type of calculation. The most common categories considered in the accounting of the costs from crime include the amounts spent on policing, courts and prisons, private lost due to murder or crime – related disabilities ; and the health-care costs associated with traumas caused by violence (when they do not result in death or disability). Crime also leads to other indirect costs that are more difficult to quantify. Complete estimates should include the discounted value of stolen property, the under investment that crime causes in the legal sector, the reduced productivity of businesses, reductions in the rates of human and social capital accumulation, the lowering of labour force participation rates, and the intergenerational transmission of violent behaviours.

Glaesar and Edward (1999) had studied since money stolen goods are not lost of society as a whole but are instead transferred from victims to

criminals, it is not obvious that the total value of those goods should be accounted as a social cost. Since the value of stolen property is potentially smaller for the criminals than for the victims, one could argue that only the difference between these two valuations should be taken into consideration as a welfare loss. However, as Glaesar emphasizes, given that the time spent by criminals in illegal rather than legal activities is in fact a social loss and since the value of goods taken should in equilibrium be equal to the opportunity cost of the criminals' time, all property losses should be considered social losses.

Estimates performed in industrialized countries indicate that the cost of shattered lives account for the largest share of all measured crime costs. In Australia, England, France and the United States the value of cost lives represents more than 40 per cent of those costs. In the specific case of women, every year nine million years of healthy lives are lost worldwide as a result of rape and domestic violence. This loss is larger than the corresponding loss due to all types of cancer in women and twice as large as the loss due to motor-vehicle accidents suffered by women.

Londono and Guerrero (1999) studied in the United States, a study using 1992 data estimated that crime caused a loss of \$ 170 billion in the form of suffering and potential years of life lost, while public expenditures on the criminal justice system and private security costs amounted to \$ 90 billion and \$ 65 billion respectively. In Latin America, a recent study conducted at the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) estimates that the social costs of crime, including the value of stolen properties, amount to \$ 168 billion, or 14.2 per cent of the region's GDP.

The largest cost category in this study is that of intangibles, which accounts for half of the estimated costs of crime. This category includes the effects of crime on investment and productivity and the impact on labour and

consumption. One could argue that the very high intangible costs from crime found in Latin America are the result of the region's higher levels of crime, possibly coupled to a non-linearity in the relation between crime and its impact on citizens' welfare. That is, the pernicious effects on the quality of life may in fact accelerate when crime rates cross some threshold level. It is also theoretically plausible that crime produces diminishing welfare effects as its incidence rises. Alternatively, the higher Latin American estimates of so-called intangible costs may stem from methodological differences or from the sensitivity of the results of the quality of the available data.

If one excludes intangibles and the value of stolen goods (about \$ 25 billion dollars), the remaining social costs of crime still amount to 4.9 per cent of Latin America's GDP, with the largest category being the cost of potential lives cost and other health-related costs (1.9 per cent of the region's GDP), followed by expenditures on police and the criminal justice system (1.6 per cent GDP) and the cost of private security (1.4 per cent of GDP). The IDB estimates demonstrate considerable differences across countries. While Mexico stands close to the region's average with crime costs of 4.9 per cent of GDP, crime in El Salvador and Colombia lead to losses of 9.2 and 11.4 per cent of GDP, respectively. At the other end of the spectrum, crime-related costs in Peru and Brazil amount to 2.9 per cent 3.3 per cent of GDP, respectively.

The very high social and economic costs of crime and violence indicate that these problems have become serious obstacles to sustainable social and economic development in many countries around the world. Moreover, the recent worrisome trends in crime rates have created a sense of urgency. Governments and international organizations now face the formidable challenge of designing and implementing policies to prevent and reduce crime

and violence. A necessary first step is to develop a better knowledge of the causes of crime and violence.

Zak (2000) who had analysed “Larceny”, had studied a dynamic general equilibrium model of larceny – or property crime – which in both economic conditions and government policies affect the commission calculus. The model provides a behavioural framework that is used to estimate the effects of government policies on the commission of larceny. The model using the data from cities in Los Angeles Country, the impact of a number of government policies and of economic development on larceny are quantified. The simulations show that longer prison sentences and higher conviction rates for criminals are the most effective methods to reduce larceny ; subsidizing leisure activities, increasing police expenditures and income transfers have little effect on larceny. Using a game-theoretic optimality criterion, all the policies examined are currently overfunded.

Fajnzylber et al. (2000) in their study on “Crime and Victimization : An Economic Perspective”, analysed the incidence of crime and violence that varies widely across nations and regions of the world. Notwithstanding the enormous heterogeneity in the levels of crime and victimization rates, there are signs that over the past decades the problems of crime and violence have worsened considerably throughout the world. Crime rates in industrialized countries have increased by 300 to 400 per cent since the late 1960s. From the early 1980’s to the mid 1990s, the rate of international homicides increased by 50 per cent in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa and by more than 100 per cent in eastern Europe and Central Asia.

The recent upward trend in crime rates has suppressed widespread public concern about issues related to crime and insecurity which in many countries now attract more attention than traditional economic issues such as

unemployment, inflation and taxes. In the United States, public opinion polls conducted in the mid 1990's reported violent crime as the nation's most serious problem. In England and the Netherlands more than half of the public see crime as the number one problem facing their country while in France 39 per cent place it at the top of citizen's concerns. Similar conclusions can be derived from polls conducted in seventeen Latin American countries in 1996, which describe violence as the region's main social and economic problems.

Luiz (2001) had studied on "Temporal Association, the Dynamics of Crime and their Economic Determinants : A Time Series Econometric Model of South Africa". The study examines the association between various crime series for South Africa and their economic determinants between 1960 and 1993. The study uses Johansen co-integration techniques to establish the importance of income per capita (economic opportunities), police officers per capita, conviction rates and political instability on per capita crime levels. The results caution previous studies that find a close relationship between the level of economic activity and recorded crime. Previous work relied on the Engle-Granger technique assuming a unique co-integrity vector. The results for South Africa indicate that while total offenses are negatively associated with income per capita, disaggregated crime series do not always yield co-integrating vectors.

The post apartheid dispensation in South Africa has been marred by the escalating crime waves that have turned South Africa into one of the worst crime centres in the world. Repeatedly, public opinion polls have shown that the South African public regards crime together with unemployment to be the two most pressing problems facing the country while much has been written on the possible effects that crime may have on investor confidence and hence economic growth ; very little has been said about the reverse, namely the effect that economic performance may have on crime levels. Certainly no

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econometric models have been used in estimating a crime equation in a time series context in South Africa. This study attempts to do just that by employing recent innovations in time series econometrics to explore the determinants of crime in South Africa between 1960 and 1993. It begins by surveying the literature on the relationship between crime and economics, both on an empirical and a theoretical level. Thereafter it proposes a time series crime model and examines the trends in South African crime series.

Daniel (2001) studied on “Measuring the Economic Benefits of Developmental Prevention Programs”. This study examines the economic costs and benefits of crime policy, specifically the economic evaluation of developmental prevention programs. The conclusion that developmental prevention is a cost-effective alternative to criminal sanctions for averting crime events cannot be convincingly sustained. Instead, a more holistic, individual level approach is necessary that values benefits across multiple domains of individual functioning. Analyses that have valued more than crime benefits, by and large, measure financial effects on the public treasury. This is too narrow a focus. Finally, estimates of the costs of crime focus on victim consequences rather than on aggregate social consequences. Although consequences for victims are important, they do not capture the full effects of crime on society. Estimates of the costs of crime should value tangible consequences to non victims and victims alike. Strategies for estimating the economic benefit of achieving a qualitative improvement in an individual’s life chances involve studying the actual decisions that parents make in raising their children, and adopting methods for measuring quality-adjusted life years in the medical domain to value developmental interventions.

Garoupa (2001) observed in “Optimal Law Enforcement when Victims are Rational Players” that the economic analysis of crime usually views a victim as a passive party whose role is limited to suffering harm. This study

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extends the economic theory of law enforcement by modeling victims as an active party in criminal deterrence. First, they may take some precautions to avoid victimization. Second, they may or may not report their victimization. The lack of reporting weakens law enforcement and criminal deterrence by reducing detection rates. This suggests that victims could be encouraged to report by being paid a compensation. Nevertheless, compensating victims certainly reduces precaution. It may be argued that such effect never offsets the gains obtained in terms of criminal detection and apprehension.

Gilbert and Russell (2002) had studied “Globalization of Criminal Justice in the Corporate Context”. Globalization, the rising of an economy outside the paradigm of government by nation-states, has created new opportunities for transnational corporate crime, defined broadly here as avoidable harms inflicted across national borders for purposes of economic gain. The authors reexamine theories of corporate criminal liability in the transnational context and applaud the recent French codification of corporate criminal liability in terms broad enough to encompass the new economic realities. Finally, they examine the inability of current adjudicative to effectively assert jurisdiction over transnational corporations and suggest that the harms associated with toxic waste spills, unethical marketing practices, and other corporate misconduct are more ubiquitous and dangerous than the harms of terrorism and war crimes that have captured the attention of the emerging global civil society.

Cowen (2002) in his study on “Crime and drugs : Economic issues and policy”, analysed that crime, broadly defined, imposes huge costs in the United States each year. These costs include both the damage to property and people from criminal activity and the cost of policies – undertaken by government to prevent and punish criminal activity. Not all these costs can easily be assigned a monetary value. One element of these costs that is

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relatively easy to measure is the cost of administering the criminal justice system, which consists of police, courts and prisons. This system intended to prevent and punish crime, was responsible for expenditures of \$ 120 billion by federal, state and local governments in 1996. Indeed, expenditures for the criminal justice system are an increasingly important item in state government budgets over time. Resources absorbed by the criminal justice system cannot be used for tax relief, education, housing, health care, or any other worthwhile purpose, so it is important that these resources be used wisely. Economics may help us to analyze the effectiveness of our policies to combat crime. A crime is any activity forbidden by law and punishable by criminal penalty. The expenditures on our criminal justice system, which includes police, courts and prisons, have increased greatly in inflation adjusted dollars in the past 20 years. The greatest increase has occurred in the prison system. The appropriate methodology to evaluate crime prevention measures is cost-benefit analysis. A policy should be adopted or kept only if its benefits are greater than its costs. The results of cost benefit studies on our prison expansion are contradictory and inconclusive. Some crimes are victimless because they are the result of consensual transactions between two parties. These crimes are illegal only because society, or a significant group in society, disapproves of them on moral, health, or ethical grounds. Legalizing these victimless crimes arguably may be more efficient than prohibiting them. Both demand and supply would increase, price would decrease atleast slightly and equilibrium quantity would increase. Although use increases, the goods and services involved would be provided legally and earn lower profits, so their provision would be less attractive to organized crime. In these victimless crimes were made legal, we would regulate them in part through taxation.

Josten (2003) conducted a study on “Inequality, Crime and Economic Growth : A Classical Argument for Distributional Equality”. This study

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analyses the dynamic general-equilibrium interactions between inequality, crime and economic growth by embedding the rational choice-theoretical approach to criminal behaviour in a heterogeneous-agents endogeneous-growth OLG model. Based on their respective opportunity costs, individuals choose to specialize in either legal or criminal activities. While legal households contribute to aggregate goods supply over time by either working or building human capital, criminals make a living by expropriating legal citizens of part of the latter's income. An increase in inequality lowers the economy's growth rate and possesses negative welfare effects for all agents with endowments equal to or above average and for agents with endowment below average that are born sufficiently far in the future.

Naylor (2003) attempted a study on "Towards a General Theory of Profit-driven Crimes". This essay and review presents a general theoretical model and a clarified terminology by which profit driven crimes can be understood in economic rather than sociological terms. It proposes a typology that shifts the focus from actors to actions in a way that differs from, but is compatible with, the scripts and situational crime approaches. The typology divides profit-driven crime into three categories : predatory, market-based, and commercial. Principal characteristics include : whether property transfers occur by force, free market exchange, or fraud ; whether they involve redistribution of wealth, distribution of income, or redistribution of income ; and whether the optimal response is restitution, forfeiture, or compensation. The approach permits crimes to be better assessed as to their impact on national income and economic welfare levels. In addition, it helps separate the primary offense (the illegal acquisition of criminal proceeds) from secondary ones, such as corruption, violence, tax evasion, and money laundering.

Steven (2004)'s study on "Why Crime Fell in the 1990's : Four Factors that explain the Decline and Six that do not", analysed the decade of the 1990s which saw sustained economic growth. Real GDP per capita grew by almost 30 per cent between 1991 and 2001. The annual unemployment rate fell from 6.8 in 1991 to 4.8 per cent in 2001. The improvements in legitimate labour market opportunities make crime relatively less attractive. This prediction is likely to be more relevant for crimes involving direct financial motivation such as burglary, robbery and auto theft, but less important for homicide, assaults and rape.

Empirical estimates of the impact of macro-economic variables on crime have been generally consistent across studies : Freeman and Richard (1995) surveys earlier research and more recent studies include Machin and Meghir (2000), Gould, Weinberg and Mustard (1997), Donohue and Levitt (2001) and Raphael and Winter-Ebmer (2001). Controlling for other factors, almost all of these studies report a statistically significant but substantively small relationship between unemployment rates and property crime. Violent crime, how ever, does not vary systematically with the unemployment rate. Studies that have used other measures of macro economic performance like wages of low. Income workers come to similar conclusions. Based on these estimates, the observed two percentage point decline in the U.S. unemployment rate between 1991 and 2001 can explain an estimated two per cent decline in property crime, without any change in violent crime or homicide.

The sharp increase in crime in the 1960s a decade of strong economic growth further corroborated and weak link between macro economics and crime. If the economy has a major impact on crime, the likely channel is not through the direct effect estimated in the studies noted above, but rather, indirectly through state and local government budgets. Two factors that are

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more important in reducing crime are increased spending on police and prisons. To the extent that these budget items are affected by macro economic performance, one would expect to observe a stronger link between the economy and crime than is found in the studies above, which control for criminal justice variables when estimating the link between economic variables and crime.

Crime fell sharply and unexpectedly in the 1990s. Four factors appear to explain the drop in crime. Increased incarceration, more police, the decline of crack and legalized abortion. Other factors often cited as important factors deriving the decline do not appear to have played an important role. The strong economy, changing demographics, innovative policing strategies, gun laws and increased use of capital punishment (Steven, 2004).

Kumar (2004) who had analysed “Relationship of Caste and Crime in Colonial India : A Discourse Analysis”, studied that the discourse of caste, in many instances, cannot be constituted in separation from discourses on several other aspects of the Indian social structure. This study however, seeks to understand a relationship of different order, that between caste and crime which in colonial India came to be linked in socially significant ways. Administrative discourse in colonial India sought to classify castes lower in the hierarchy and aboriginal tribes as criminal tribes and castes. Colonial administrative and metropolitan ideas and practices were thus used to classify certain groups ‘as criminal’. Even as the state specified due to requirements in the classification of such groups they were prompted by broader imperatives, the consolidation of the colonial administrative edifice. What was suppressed in this discourses was that any attempt to see the impact of British rule on the marginalization of several castes and tribes who may have been compelled to take to crime since their own source of livelihood were not available to them any more. Thus the general discourse on caste provided the frame work

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within which the connections between caste and crime were forged and then seen as unique mask of Indian society.

Engelen (2004) had analysed on “Criminal Behaviour : A Real Option Approach with an Application to Restricting Illegal Insider Trading”. He studied that traditionally criminal behaviour is analyzed within an expected utility framework. This study offers an alternative model to analyze criminal behaviour based on real option models. It is shown that all criminal decisions can be analyzed as real options, in a sense that they confer the possibility but not the obligation to commit a crime in the future. The criminal option model is a richer model compared to conventional economic models of crime, because it takes into account four additional variables. As such, the conventional economic analysis of crime is a special case of criminal option models. The criminal option model is then applied to the enforcement of illegal insider trading. Based on the six value-drivers of criminal options, an active management strategy can be developed for the criminal as well as for the legislator.

Ansari (2005) in his analysis on “Law on Mass Crimes and Victims”, states that given the states failure of governance in major communal riots, either due to partisan law enforcement or inefficiency, a central law under the provision of ‘internal disturbance’ in Article 355 holding the state government responsible for maintaining communal peace, is required. The state should be liable to dismissal under Article 356 if the rioting continues for, say, more than five days resulting in the loss of more than, say, 100 lives. There is also a strong case for a separate law on the protection and compensation for victims of crime and violence.

Coomaraswamy (2005) in her “Human security and gender violence”, analyses how all countries comprising the south Asian region have responded

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in some measure to the challenges posed by violence against women in the region. However, what remains a matter of concern is the fact that apart from India, none of the other south Asian countries have adopted domestic violence legislation or made the necessary changes to anti-trafficking legislation progress to ensure security and a world without violence for women. Violence against women, as borne out by research from around the world, can be effectively combated if a healthy partnership prevails between women's groups and the state apparatus.

The historically unequal power relations between men and women have manifested in a variety of ways. As the first report of the UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women states, "the system of male domination has historical roots and its functions and manifestations change over time. The oppression of women is therefore a question of politics, requiring an analysis of the institutions of state and society, the conditioning and socialization of individuals, and the nature of economic and social exploitation". Economic and social exploitation of women and their labour also contributes to violence against women. Women are often employed as bonded labourer and as low paid labourer in many economic enterprises around the world ; as migrant workers they face enormous hardship. The refusal to recognize women's economic independence and empowerment is one of the main reasons for violence against women, accentuating thereby, their vulnerability and abuse.

Newspaper pages in South Asia are full of tales of domestic violence. In 2002, 450 honour killings were reported in Pakistan, 15,000 young brides are burnt to death every year in India, and 10 women a week are subject to acid attacks in Bangladesh (OXFAM, 2004). Violence by intimate family members is one of South Asia's darkest legacies. Forty per cent of all sexual abuse cases in India are about incest. In a survey on violence against women

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in India, 94 per cent of the cases involved an offender who was a member of the family (Naved et al., 2004).

The violence against women in South Asia often begins before birth. It is estimated that 50 million women are missing in India either through sex selective abortions, female infanticide or female neglect. So much so that the sex ratio in certain states of India is very disturbing. There are 79.3 girls for every 100 males in the Punjab and 87.8 girls for every 100 males in Gujarat (OXFAM, 2004 : 10).

Domestic violence rates in South Asia does vary from community to community and depends on the questions asked. A survey of 1,842 women in Uttar Pradesh and Tamil Nadu in India presented a rate of 40 per cent of women interviewed stating they were victims of wife beating. In Pakistan, a survey of 1,000 women indicated that 55 per cent in the urban areas and 35 per cent in the rural areas stated that they were victims of domestic violence. In Sri Lanka, one survey put the figure at 60 per cent, another at 32 per cent (UNIFEM, 2004 : 10).

Porter and Steven (2005) in his analysis on “Steven D. Levitt : 2003 John Bates Clark Medalist”, states the theoretical and empirical analysis of criminal activity has a long and distinguished history within the field of economics. In his careful survey on this subjects, observes that Adam Smith, William Paley and Zeremy Bentham all wrote about the factors that lead to criminal activity and tried to understand the factors that determine the level of illegal activity.

Steve’s contribution to our understanding of the economics of crime consists of a collection of careful empirical studies that tackle central questions about the determinants of criminal behavior. These studies often address long-standing difficulties in the assignment of casual patterns. Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

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Steve's work has catalyzed an empirical renaissance in the economic analysis of crime. One strand of Steve's work has focused on how public policies affect criminal activity. This research has advanced long-standing debates about the roles of incapacitation and deterrence. A second has explored the social and economic factors that lead individuals to engage in crime. A third strand research has analysed the determinants of criminal behavior and the presence of law-breaking in non-standard environments.

The impact of crime prevention efforts, such as government spending on prisons and police and private spending on security systems is a subject of long running empirical controversy. Many studies have explored this issue, but most have faced a fundamental empirical difficulty. The crime rate is affected by law enforcement conditions, but it may also affect those conditions. If the crime rate in an area is high, police may maintain a greater presence there than in intrinsically safer areas, and private security outlays may be higher in the high-crime area than in other places. For this reason, a simple-minded regression in which law enforcement activity is treated as a determinant of the crime rate may show a misleading positive correlation.

Hutchinson and Yates (2007) in their study on "Crime on the Court : A correction", make an important contribution to the literature on the economics of both sports and crime. Utilizing a quasi experiment in the Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC) basket ball tournament, they find that an increase in the number of referees is associated with a large and statistically significant decrease in the number of fouls called. Here fouls committed are analogous to crimes, fouls called to arrests, and referees to police. An increase in the number of police presumably leads to an increase in the probability of detection ; if the crime rate remains constant, an increase in arrests could be expected. The fact that arrests actually decrease suggests that players respond rationally to the increase in the probability of detection by decreasing

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the crime rate. This is a strong evidence in favour of the so-called deterrent effect. McCormick and Tollison's results, however, are entirely due to data error. In fact, the increase in the number of referees is not associated with a change in the number of fouls called. After re-examining McCormick and Tollison's data, the study found that approximately half of the observations for their main dependent variable – number of fouls called were incorrect. Rebounds from box scores were inadvertently entered as fouls. These two statistics appear next to each other in McCormick and Tollison's data source. McCormick and Tollison report that the average number of fouls per game is 52.2, but the correct number is 38.0. Correcting McCormick and Tollison's error reveals that the increase in the number of referees is not associated with a change in the number of fouls called or the score of the game. Viewed in this light, the ACC results are now more consistent with those found in a similar quasi experiment from the National Hockey League.

### **2.3 STUDIES RELATING TO SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY**

Warner and Lunt (1941) had studied on "Socio-Economic Status and Crime Rates", where they analysed the social class system which operates as a ranking device that has great influence on the social experiences of the individual. Each person is assigned a status at birth based on the status of his family, his place of residence, his nativity, and his race. In an open class system such as ours, his status can be changed through personal achievement as evaluated on the basis of relative wealth, occupation, talent, formal education or membership in groups with power. Attached to his class status are norms which he learns through socialization within his family and other intimate groups. As a motivation for crime, poverty is a relative matter. The millionaire down to his last swimming pool may feel under privileged, while another man deems himself successful if he is able to purchase a

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battered automobile. The crux of the concept of relative deprivation is that the given individual (or group) considers himself under privileged when he compares his lot with some desired standard.

Sutherland (1949), in his analysis, stated positively, that persons of the upper socio-economic class engage in much criminal behaviour ; that this criminal behaviour differs from the criminal behaviour of the lower socio-economic class principally in the administrative procedures which are used in dealing with the offenders ; and that variations in administrative procedures are not significant from the point of view of causation of crime.

These violations of law by persons in the upper socio economic class are, for convenience, called “White Collar Crimes”. This concept is not intended to be definitive, but merely to call attention to crimes which are not ordinarily included within the scope of criminology. White collar crime may be defined approximately as a crime committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of his occupation. Consequently, it excludes many crimes of the upper class, such as most of their cases of murder, adultery, and intoxication, since these are not customarily a part of their occupational procedures. Also, it excludes the confidence games of wealthy members of the underworld, since they are not persons of respectability and high social status.

The less critical attitude of government toward businessmen than toward persons of lower socio-economic status is the result of several relationships.

- (a) Persons in government are, by and large, culturally homogenous with persons in business, both being in the upper strata of American Society.

- (b) Many persons in government are members of families which have other members in business. Almost every important person in business has many close personal friends in government.
- (c) Many persons in government were previously connected with business firms as executives, attorneys, directors, or people in other capacities. Many persons in government retain their business connections.
- (d) Many persons in government hope to secure employment in business firms when their government work is terminated. Thus the initial cultural homogeneity, the close personal relationships, and the power relationships protect businessmen against critical definitions by government.

Lander's (1954) study of delinquency in Baltimore concludes that socio economic area is not the variable associated with delinquency but, rather, the percentage of homes occupied by the owner and the percentage of nonwhites. He concluded that anomic, or normlessness, was the sociological explanation of the rates. He found that delinquency is still predominantly a lower class male phenomenon, related to transiency, poor housing, and economic indexes.

More recently the subculture theories have tried to explain higher rates of juvenile delinquency among lower class males. These attempt to point out distinguishing characteristics of the lower class milieu which might explain the higher rates of official delinquency.

Cohen (1955) his studies demonstrated that delinquent and criminal behaviours are not limited to the lower economic classes. In comparing the classes, Albert Cohen guessed that "conceivably" a greater proportion of the

delinquencies of the working class children, as compared to those of upper-class children, is not reported.

Ohlin (1964) his studies have found that among lower class juveniles, offenses are more characteristic of a criminal pattern compared to the petty types committed by middle class juveniles. His study, however, found among boys who did not live in lower class areas fighting gangs with characteristics similar to what is traditionally thought of as lower class gangs. And another study found middle class gangs with behaviour patterns and police contacts similar to those from the lower class.

Empey and Erickson (1966) found less delinquency among the unofficial delinquents as compared to the official delinquents, the difference was not statistically significant. They did, however, find differences in the kind of delinquency. Low status juveniles were disproportionately high on offences of driving without a license, stealing articles of over \$ 50, auto theft, skipping school, using narcotics, defying parents, and fighting and assault. Middle status juveniles were "more inclined to activities of a destructive and serious quality", while upper status juveniles more frequently committed the offense of defying parents.

Reckless's (1967) speculation that both the upper and lower classes have high risks of crime compared with middle class is based on two assumptions. First, the upper classes are exposed to opportunities for evasions of taxes, misuse of professional knowledge and skills, and other examples of "white-collar crimes". Second, the middle-class subculture, to an important degree, insulates it against activities usually treated crimes.

Nyle and Short (1967) in his studies of reported delinquency indicate little or no difference in the delinquency of those processed officially and those not processed. Two separate studies of reported behaviour found no

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significant relationship between the incidence of juvenile delinquency and socio economic status.

Nye et al. (1967) concludes that the conflict between the findings of the subculture theorists who argue that socio economic status is a relevant variable in juvenile delinquency – and the investigators of reported behaviour who argue that it is not – may be due to the different types of communities from which they draw their samples. Studies of subcultures are usually conducted in large cities, while those of reported behaviour are conducted in suburban or small towns. And another study found that “several single measures of socio economic status and delinquency are not highly correlated in rural areas and in small towns and cities”.

Becker (1968) states that in early stages of his work on crime, he was puzzled by why theft is socially harmful, since it appears merely to redistribute resources, usually from wealthier to poorer individuals. He resolved the puzzle by pointing out that criminals spend on weapons and on the value of the time in planning and carrying out their crimes, and that such spending is socially unproductive – it is what is now called “rent seeking”, because it does not create wealth, only forcibly redistributes it. Becker approximated the social cost of theft by the dollars stolen since rational criminals would be willing to spend up to that amount on their crimes. He should have added the resources spent by potential victims protecting themselves against crime.

One reason why the economic approach to crime became so influential is that the same analytic apparatus can be used to study enforcement of all laws, including minimum wage legislation, clean air acts insider trader and other violations of security laws, and income tax evasions. Since few laws are self-enforcing they require expenditure on conviction and punishment to deter violators. The US Sentencing Commission has explicitly used the economic

analysis of crime to develop rules to be followed by judges in punishing violators of federal statutes.

McNown and Singell (1974) had assessed "A Factor Analysis of the Socio-Economic Structure of Riot and Crime Prone Cities". The major purpose of this study is to investigate whether individual attacks against property and the recent urban riots, arise out of a similar set of socio-economic conditions. The study proceeds by first briefly reviewing the theoretical and empirical literature on the causes of crime and collective violence. This literature is then drawn upon to construct 24 independent variables which are measures of income, employment and educational opportunities, population characteristics and socio-political conditions. The statistical analysis in the second part of the study employed a sample of 129 large standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. 64 of which experienced one or more incidents of racial violence between 1965 and 1968 and 65 of which were non-riot SMSA's. From the 24 variables, seven factors were extracted by the minimum residual method and orthogonally rotated by the Kaiser varimax technique. These seven factors were then used as independent variables in both regression and discriminate analysis which riot intensity (measured by property and economic loss) and property crime rates were used as independent variables. The study concludes that criminal behaviour derives from fundamentally different causes than does riot activity.

Ehrlich (1975) explains empirical assessments of the effects on crime rates of prison terms, conviction rates, unemployment levels, income inequality and other variables have become more numerous and more accurate. The greatest controversies surround the question of whether capital punishment deters murders, a controversy that arouses much emotion but is far from being resolved.

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Koshal and Koshan (1975) had analysed “Crimes and Socio-Economic Environments”. The purpose of this note is to study the relationship between crimes and the socio-economic environment in the metropolitan areas of the United States. In this study we define total crime rate per 100,000 population as a linear function of (i) per capita personal income, (ii) the unemployment rate, (iii) the migration rate, (iv) racial imbalance, (v) climate and (vi) males as a percentage of total population. Our statistical results confirm the hypothesis that social and economic conditions cause crime.

Sue (1976) in his analysis on “Crime and Criminology”, denotes that traditionally official statistics have indicated that more crime and delinquency exists among the lower than the upper or middle classes. These figures have been “mapped” ecologically to show that the heavy concentration of crime and delinquency, and many social problems occur in socially and economically deprived areas of the city. Based on Burgess’s (1952) concentric circle theory of city growth, such studies indicate that the “zone of transition”. The physically deteriorated zone just outside the business district of the central city – consistently has the highest rates of crime and delinquency rates. People who live in the area are not only economically deprived, but they also lack many of the social and cultural opportunities of the middle and upper classes.

Votey and Phillips (1976) had studied “Minimizing the Social Cost of Drug Abuse : An Economic Analysis of Alternatives for Policy”. The use of heroin, with its concomitant social problems, is facilitated by an illicit market process which functions similarly to economic markets in general. The analysis of this process, incorporated in a model embodying the interacting relationships of crime generation and control, permits evaluation of three fundamentally different strategies for social control. These are controlling supply through law enforcement and other strategies, controlling demand by

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detaining addicts, or reducing illicit market activity by introducing an effective substitute for the services of that market. When all the social costs of addiction are taken into account and when minimizing the total of those costs is taken to be the objective, the authors conclude that the best solution will lie with the establishment of a drug maintenance program. Properly administered, such a program would undermine the illicit market by reducing demand. Furthermore, it can be expected to reduce levels of drug related crimes and to moderate factors encouraging addiction.

Chambliss (1977) had assessed, "Crime, Law and Social Change", studied by seeking to understand crime through the vision implied by the normative paradigm focus upon too narrow a set of phenomenon : namely the ideological structure of social systems or individual personalities. To include the very least of the political and economic history of that collection of activities which are generally defined by law as criminal. The historical development and political economy of opium and heroin from its introduction by European capitalists into China and southeast Asia down to its current place in the political economy of the United States has been explored in an effort to demonstrate the utility of refocusing energies towards a macro-sociological perspective.

Oyebanji (1982) who had studied "Economic Development and the Geography of Crime : An Empirical Analysis", examines criminality as one of the second order consequences of development which the society has been struggling off for so long. In the study area, Kwara State of Nigeria, positive associations between development and criminality have begun to manifest themselves. The highest positive associations are between criminality and urbanization, telephone and motor vehicles respectively, while the lowest associations are with industrialization, electricity and education. In order to reduce criminality without holding down development in the state, various

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suggestions have been made. Central measures include more equitable distribution of criminality, strengthening of the police force and free mobilization of policemen from high crime areas to low crime areas. Long term measures include improving the socio-economic well being of the general populace with special reference to the provision of modern industries, education, electricity, water and roads to rural dwellers and thereby curbing the wave of rural-urban migration and its attendant social ills. This should be accompanied by unqualified deep-rooted revolution in the monstrously unjust socio-economic system currently operate, for afterall, rightly observed “crime is a surface expression of discontents which lie deeply embedded in the social system”.

Toary (1998) had analysed in “The hand book of crime and punishment”, that while many citizens, policy makers, politicians, and academics assume that economic conditions derive crime rates, evidence of this relationship has proved elusive. As a result, there is a large disconnect between theory and empirical evidence on this point for theory building, the notion that crime is a function of economic opportunity has great intuitive appeal. Economic theorists, for example have long assumed that individuals allocate their time between legal work and crime depending on the relative returns to each activity. Advocates of employment – based solutions to the crime problem also rely on such a causal notion. Nonetheless, there has been surprisingly little convincing evidence to support this belief.

Evidence of a connection between the economy and crime has implications for macro level policy and for micro level interventions. If a booming economy yields crime reductions, this is an additional argument for pro-growth macro economic policy. If improved earning potential keeps individuals in the legal sector and out of illegal activity, training programs and subsidized employment are recommended. Further, an understanding of the

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relationship between economic conditions and criminal behaviour may help with our understanding of criminal behaviour more generally.

Much of the existing research has been of a very general nature. But in order to use economics to “solve” the crime problem, a very particular knowledge about how people respond to incentives should be gained. Ultimately, this requires a great deal of differentiation among crime types and among different populations. Moreover, it is necessary to understand the connection between the economy and crime at three levels : economy-wide, for communities, and for individual.

Terance (1999) had analysed “Links Between Rural Development and Crime”. This study uses an interdisciplinary ‘approach to identify socio economic determinants of crime that are pertinent in non metropolitan context. Data (1977-1995) on 1,706 countries were obtained from the U.S. uniform crime reports. Degree of country urbanization appeared to have a strong effect on crime. Crime rates were higher in countries with a low percentage of owner occupied housing, perhaps indicative of less local rootedness and higher rates of in and out. Migration, service sectors (e.g., recreation, amusements) rather than traditional sectors (e.g., mining, manufacturing) aggravated crime.

The effect of economic conditions varied per capita income, total employment growth and the unemployment rate were positively associated with crime ; poverty and a greater reliance on transfer of payments were negatively linked with crime. The remaining results were mixed positively related to crime rates were interstate highways ; high percentages of black, Hispanic, native American and older residents ; communities in the western united states ; and greater spending on law enforcement. Finally, countries with higher probabilities of arrest, perhaps because of more effective law

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enforcement procedures had lower crime rates. Suggestions are offered for the development of industrial targeting approaches to crime prevention.

Machin and Mejhiri's (2000) analysis on "Crime and Economic Incentives", state that in the United Kingdom crime increased rapidly through the 1970's and 1980's, reaching record levels by the start of the 1990's becoming an important public policy issue. The increase was far greater than that experienced in the rest of Europe. Moreover, property crime rose very rapidly in the United Kingdom through 1970's, 80's and early 90's. Indeed, a recent United States Bureau of Justice Statistics study states the level of property crime to be higher in 1996 in England and Wales than in the United States. At the same time, and in contrast to the rest of Europe, wage inequality, reached record high at the start of the 1990's. Central to these increase has been the rapidly deteriorating labour market position of less skilled workers in the United Kingdom at the bottom end of the wage distribution. Simple economic models predict that declining labour market opportunities are likely to alter the initiatives for individuals to participate in legitimate or illegitimate (criminal) activities. By examining the extent to which rising crime is related to the worsening labour market position of less skilled workers using area level data from England and Wales from the mid 1970s to the mid 1990s.

Because the social and economic costs associated with high crime rates are potentially enormous, this issue has probably not been examined in enough detail, particularly in the United Kingdom there are existing findings that sometimes point to significant correlations between crime and unemployment but the link with changes in actual labour market opportunities (e.g. measured in terms of wages) has been much less explored. This is true despite the fact that increases in crime have been given a lot of attention by several different social science disciplines over the years.

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Tas (2001) had analysed “Ethnic Minorities, Social Integration and Crime” discusses various dimensions of the social integration of minorities into society. The Netherlands is taken as an example, although research from other countries (such as the US and Sweden) is also taken into consideration. Useful concepts in this regard include the level to which these groups have social, informative and cultural capital that can help them to integrate into the dominant society. The second part considers the theoretical links between integration and criminal behaviour. The author assumes that the fundamental causal processes that lead to the development of criminality and other negative behaviour are independent of country of origin, ethnic group or the country of residence. In other words – these processes, as they emerge in social control theory, have a universal character. In the second place, she assumes that differences in crime between ethnic groups are linked to group differences in socio-economic integration in the host country and in culture-related variables. Furthermore, there are also differences in the criminality of allochthonous youth within ethnic groups. These are similarly assumed to be linked to differences in commitment to social institutions such as family and school and to differences in accepting specific Western norms and values.

Lochner and Moretti (2004) estimates the effect of education on participation in criminal activity using changes in state compulsory schooling laws overtime to account for the endogeneity of schooling decisions. Using Census and FBI data, the study find that schooling significantly reduces the probability of incarceration and arrest. NLSY data indicate that our results are caused by changes in criminal behaviour and not differences in the probability of arrest or incarceration conditional on crime. The result shows that the social savings from the crime reduction associated with high school graduation (for men) is about 14 – 16 per cent of the private return. Economists interested in the benefits of schooling have traditionally focused on the private return to

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education. However, researchers have recently started to investigate whether schooling generates benefits beyond the private returns received by individuals. Crime is a negative externality with enormous social costs. Given the large social costs of crime, even small reductions in crime associated with education may be economically important. There are many theoretical reasons to expect that education reduces crime.

By raising earnings, education raises the opportunity cost of crime and the cost of time spent in prison. Education may also make individuals less impatient or more risk averse, further reducing the propensity to commit crimes. To empirically explore the importance of the relationship between schooling and criminal participation, this study uses three data sources : individual-level data from the census on incarceration, state-level data on arrests from the uniform crime reports, and self-report data on crime and incarceration from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. All these data sources produce similar conclusions : schooling significantly reduces criminal activity. This finding is robust to different identification strategies and measures of criminal activity. The estimated effect of schooling on imprisonment is consistent with its estimated effect on both arrests and self-reported crime. Given the consistency of our findings, the study concludes that the estimated effects of education on crime cannot be easily explained away by unobserved characteristics of criminals, unobserved state policies that affect both crime and schooling, or educational differences in the conditional probability of arrest and imprisonment given crime.

Saridakis (2004) had analysed “Violent Crime in the United States of America : A Time-Series Analysis Between 1960-2000”. The study empirically assesses the effects of socio-economic and demographic variables on violent crime in the United States. Using national level time series data over the period 1960-2000, an unrestricted vector autoregression (VAR) model was

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estimated for overall violent crime, murder, rape and assault. The results indicate that there is no long-run relationship among the examined variables, but significant short-run relationships hold. Imprisonment growth, income inequality, alcohol consumption, and racial composition of the male youth population are shown to influence the short-run behaviour of violent crime.

Huck and Kosfeld (2007) who had analysed in their study “The dynamics of neighbourhood watch and norm enforcement”, proposed a dynamic model of neighbourhood watch schemes while the state chooses punishment levels ; apprehension of criminals depends on the watchfulness of citizens. On contrary to standard intuition, crime levels can increase in punishments. This is because neighbourhood watch schemes can fall victim to their own success if recruitment of new members is driven by fear of crime – a finding that is in line with the empirical literature. The study discussed the policy implications of this result and show how it extends to the more general problem of norm enforcement among interacting citizens.

Punishment does not serve, or serves only incidentally, to correct the guilty person or to scare off any possible imitators. Its real function is to maintain inviolate the cohesion of society by sustaining the common consciousness in all its vigour. ‘It’s an unfortunate fact that when a neighbourhood crime crisis goes away, so does enthusiasm for neighbourhood watch. Work to keep your watch group a vital force for community well-being’.

The dynamics of neighbourhood watch programmes and how public policy (by setting fines for criminal behavior) can desire the rise and fall of such criminal activity. Surprisingly, the study analysed that increasing punishment can have adverse consequences. If the survival of neighbourhood watch programmes depends on successful recruiting, deterrence can be too



effective. As crime rates fall, recruitment for neighbourhood watch programmes can become harder and ultimately, programmes might become victims of their own success. Once programmes have dissolved, crime rates can and will pick up again. This suggests that optimal policy might aim at a tolerable low crime rate rather than total prevention of crime.

## **2.4 STUDIES RELATING TO ECONOMIC OFFENCES**

In India economic offences as a concept first gained currency through the discourses of Kaldor (1955) on Indian public finance. Economic offences, however, are not confined only to surreptitious deals in international trade, and these may consist of tax evasion, black marketing, speculation in currency, illegal share transactions, unlawful ghost investments, and such other acts of omission or commission.

Smuggling, however, is concerned with economic offences which have a direct or indirect bearing on a country's international balance of payments, and are perpetrated through jumping or cornering the law on trade and commerce between India and any other country. The principal aspects of such economic offences rest in the multi-faceted activities lumped together as smuggling. Related to smuggling, and arising out of it, are such offences as international speculation in bullion, species, gold, jewellery, etc. or in the shape of opening and operating of shadow or numbered accounts in foreign banks, or in arranging and perpetuating trade channels with a view to evading the statutory and conventional laws on public finance of the home or foreign country, and all the while generally working contrary to the national development programmes. All these are known as smuggling of one sort or another.

Ray (1977) in his analysis on "Profiteering Curve", states that there are different types of manipulators, all working with a common objective, Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

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profiteering and operating through the media of price-jumping or stock-racketing. In the different tiers or stages, operators, who directly or indirectly participate, work in tandem or even unison. The study reckons with two aspects of such an analysis of the black market. The organizational and the financial structures of the black market which are different only with respect to their functional attributes, but are otherwise coextensive and interdependent.

The organizational structure of the black market can be discussed as follows :

1. Cornering, hoarding, silos, cold storages and hidden godowns. Retail and wholesale black market in commodities, particularly elastic and near-elastic, consumable and building materials.
2. Black market in production, spurious commodities, adulteration, fakes and imitations, jumping of standards, false packaging and labelling, rackets in supply, rackets in exports and imports as also substitution.
3. Scarcity manipulations and manoeuvres during famines.
4. Illegitimate speculation, gambling, stock market rackets, foreign-exchange rackets, permits, licenses and fake trade deals, ghost transactions in lands, hundis, shares, properties and investments.
5. Tax evasion
6. Smuggling and International trade market.

Smuggling as an economic offence is today one of the major maladies leading to an atrophy of the economy of many countries. What is most saddening is that it affects both exports and imports which are not accounted in international trade and which, therefore, leads to income loss to the official

economy and gain for the parallel economy. In the developing countries this is a growing manifestation. In fact, in the Indian subcontinent smuggling in food grains and other necessities flows from India to the neighbouring countries, whereas luxurious goods and industrial products are smuggled across the neighbouring countries from different corners of the world. By and large, India has not been able to arrest the flow of smuggling either way in a substantial manner.

Hellman (1980) had studied on 'Organized crime' and felt that economic analysis should be useful in defining the structure of organized crime. Thomas Schelling, an economist who served on the crime commission's task force on organized crime, equates organized crime with "large-scale continuing firms with the internal organization of a large enterprise" which makes a conscious effort to control or monopolize the market. The most useful way to view the problem of organized crime is in the context of illegal markets and illegal enterprises. Organized crime is a group of large-scale enterprises operating within illegal markets to maximize profits. A distinction should be drawn between organized crime and the "underworld" economy of which it is a part.

Many unorganized criminal business (e.g. robbery) operate within a highly organized economic framework that economy has a labour market and recruitment system, a marketing and distribution system, a communications system, a financial network, and a diplomatic system. For the underworld economy to be organized, is it necessary for a large firm or cartel to assume a leadership role? Perhaps for the underworld economy to run smoothly it is necessary to have certain activities centralized in a large firm – say, the diplomatic activities, or financial relations with the "upper world". Paul Rubin argues that organized crime is "a criminal firm whose function is the selling of goods and services to other criminal firms. The kinds of goods and services

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which organized crime might provide other firms in the underworld economy include capital, violence and police non-enforcement, which is accomplished through bribery. Organized crime may also provide specialized services, depending on the market.

While Harris (1983) who had studied on “Polity and economy of the underworld”, used the expression in relation to the underworld of economic offences. In conjunction with black money, smuggling and the black market as extremely potent socio-economic forces, the parallel economy based on a barrage of economic offences has today become a major hurdle bedeviling the polity and the economy.

The objectives with which the research was conducted and the treatise was written can be briefly enumerated as follows :

1. To unravel, by investigations and analyses, the depth, structure and organization of the network of economic offences, their links with the subterranean economy, spread over smuggling and the black market, their modus-operandi, and to also assess their social, political and economic repercussions on the economy and the society. In order to get to the roots of the phenomenon, allied pursuits and manoeuvres like fraud, misfinance, profiteering, adulteration and corruption in public life had also to be similarly probed and uncovered. It has also been considered necessary to broadly discover the linkage of the underworld of the economic offences with socio-political forces of crime and espionage.
2. To make an appraisal, in this context, of the price, spiral, inflation and money market, share market, stock exchange and the investment profile, with a focus on the Indian economy, but in the background of the third world, and to isolate in the course of such an appraisal the

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subterranean force of the black market, black money and the multiple economic offences.

3. To examine the different remedial strategies so far evolved and discussed in economic theory and practice in India and abroad, and to make an appraisal of their effectiveness in the free market.
4. To filter the measures best suited for the developing countries and to recommend, in the background of the overall analysis, further remedial strategies to combat the forces of the black market, black money and allied economic offences in the environment of the third world.

Even though the format of the study on polity and economy of the underworld is largely based on Indian empirical situations and some random instances from a few other developing countries, the conclusions and strategies should be largely applicable to the third world as a whole and in varying degrees to developed economies like the United States and France as well as developing economies like Indonesia and Nigeria. That apart, whenever the opportunity permitted, the phenomena of economic offences in such countries have also been probed, dissected, analyzed and commented upon.

Lombardo and Robert (1995) had analysed on “organized crime IV : the Russian connection” and contend that social, economic and historical influences have set the stage for the emergence and continued success of Russian organized crime. Louise I. Shelley describes the criminalization of industry privatization in the former Soviet union by the former communist party elite and organized criminal groups. Kelly et al. formulate the theoretical framework for understanding the dependency between the liberal democratic system now being introduced in Russia and its current mafiya activity. J. Michael Waller and Victor J Yasmann identify law enforcement agencies, Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

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security organs and intelligence services as institutional parts of the Russian organized crime problem, not only because of their cooptation and penetration by criminal elements, but also because of the lack of a legal bureaucratic culture.

Rufus et al. (1996), in a review explore the history of “African Americans in U.S. organized crime” and analysed that although organised crime has thrived in urban black ghettos since the 1920s, two turning points have increased the prominence of contemporary African-American organised crime. First, the Vietnam war exposed many black soldiers to the heroin markets of Asia, thus enabling organized crime groups to circumvent the Mafia and buy direct from Asian suppliers. Second, the entry of cocaine via Latin America encouraged crack trade that, in turn, transformed ghetto street gangs into drug trafficking organizations. The growth of organized crime groups appears to parallel the rise of African – American political consciousness and the awakening of social militancy.

Susan Rose – Ackerman (1997) in his analysis on the evolving of economic literature on corruption as also in major international socio-economic conferences, integrity and corruption have taken an important slot in recent times. This indicates how vital it is to analyze the fast spreading malaise of corruption in both the polity and the economy, and to devise and enforce a fairly effective remedial strategy. Corruption in public life is a disease which saps the vital of not only the polity, but also the economy. Corruption, in the sense, in this study, is socio-economic corruption in public life, and does not cover acts involving moral turpitude, but those which involve economic turpitude, and are normally perpetrated by a public servant in office or in collusion with him.

Parvesh (1998) had analysed “Current trends in crime and criminology”, where he studied that economic crime and its control and prevention continue to represent a pressingly problematic field and a topic of current interest in our society. The reasons for the special sensitivity towards, and the increase in awareness of, the dangers posed by economic crimes are to be found in the extent of damage suspected, in the potential for abuse, in the involvement of members of the middle and higher classes as well as in the presumption of wide victimization, particularly at times and in economic systems that are characterized by extensive opportunities for abuse through the existence of a large number of trustees of alien property must reckon with greater attention on the part of organs of social control so that dangers and disappointments are held within limits.

This study on the market for illegal goods and the case of drugs considers the costs of reducing consumption of a good by making its production illegal and punishing apprehended illegal producers. The study used illegal drugs as a prominent example. It shows that the more inelastic either demand for or supply of a good is, the greater the increase in social cost from further reducing its production by greater enforcement efforts. So, optimal public expenditures on apprehension and conviction of illegal suppliers depend not only on the difference between the social and private values from consumption but also on these elasticities when demand and supply are not too elastic, it does not pay to enforce any prohibition unless the social value is negative. It shows that a monetary tax could cause a greater reduction in output and increase in price than optimal enforcement against the same good would if it were illegal, even though some producers may go underground to avoid a monetary tax. When enforcement is costly, excise taxes and quantity restrictions are not equivalent.

Findlay (1999) concludes that it is now accepted that the globalization of the market has introduced more and new forms of opportunity for criminals. Globalisation has given those interested in fraud, for instance, the opportunity to act on an international level by taking advantage of the lack of regulations in the commercial and financial markets of some countries. They use the latest technologies to provide themselves with links between criminals all over the world without concrete need for physical contact. An example is the case of International fraud that was detected by the Italian police in collaboration with investigative forces from other countries. The operation, called "Ice trap", led to the arrest of six people and seizures in many Italian cities, and one arrest by the Swiss people. Investigation started with a communication by unilever international, a British commercial holding, claiming that hackers were spying on the activities of many of its firms by entering the computer system of its Italian affiliate through the "sprintet" and the "Itapac" nets. These computer nets were also used as a way of communication between Italian criminals and their European and North American counterparts. The members of the organization also used the bulletin board system on the internet to exchange messages and plan their illicit schemes. Credit cards, pins and passwords were illegally gained from the electronic databases and used for virtual transactions unknown to the legitimate owners of the credit cards. It demonstrates how criminal organizations can easily build international connections for the planning and the perpetration of crimes, with the use of new technical know-how and equipment. This Italian fraud case underlines the reality that economic criminals are getting organized around information exchange like never before, and reveals how computers help in the evolution of their enterprise. New and flexible forms of criminal organizations for economic crime are taking shape in the criminal arena. Today economic crime is characterized by the constant interaction between legal and illegal activities. The presence of figures that do not belong to the typical criminal scene makes

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it complicated to recognize the borderline between the legal and illegal. In those criminal commercial contexts in which information plays a relevant role, it is also extremely difficult to distinguish between economic crime and traditional organized crime. They increasingly have features in common. The distinction is becoming less viable.

Jordan and David (1999) had analysed “Drug politics : dirty money and democracies” and examine how narcotics trafficking, corruption and organized crime have become intertwined with the post-cold war international environment. Data are derived from secondary sources, as well as from the author’s experience as U.S. Ambassador to Peru and consultant to various government security organizations.

Governments and banks are deeply involved in, as well as dependent upon, the drug trade. In turn, the drug trade is dependent upon state cooperation and compliance. The accelerating globalization process allows wealthy elites to operate outside the boundaries of political accountability. Organized crime develops under such political protection, thereby becoming multi-ethnic and forging transnational alliances. Many national and international financial systems depend on cash from money laundering, and some governments are involved in protecting criminal cartels. Thus, the political, social, and financial impact of the international drug culture threatens democratic stability and the international political environment.

The U.S. war on drugs is being fought on an incorrect premise. Effective resistance to drug trafficking must come from a new internationalism that enlists a network of state institutions in different countries to combat regime corruption, money laundering, and criminal cartels ; a core strategy of demand reduction that emphasizes decreasing both hard-core and casual

users of addictive drugs ; and the protection of children and families from drug propaganda that is supported by a powerful liberalization legalization lobby.

Bovenkerk et al. (1999) who had studied “Organised crime in Netherlands”, investigate the nature, seriousness and scale of organized crime in the Netherlands. Data were obtained in 1995 from police documents and interviews with law enforcement experts. Organized crime was defined as what ensues when groups primarily focused on illegal profits systematically commit crimes that adversely affect society and are capable of effectively shielding their activities, in particular, by being willing to use physical violence or eliminate individuals by way of corruption. Organized crime in the Netherlands was still mainly confined to the traditional illegal supply of certain goods and services, drugs, arms and prostitutes, and to conducting financial and economic frauds. No criminal groups at either a national or local level had gained control of legitimate sectors of the economy by taking over crucial businesses or trade unions.

Albanese and Jay (1999) who had studied “Casino gambling and white collar crime : An examination of empirical evidence”, investigate the link between casino gambling and the commission of white collar crimes. Trends in embezzlement, forgery and fraud are examined before and after the introduction of casino gambling in nine of the largest casinos. In addition, city-by-city trends were compared to national trends in these crimes over the last decade. Data sources include : arrest statistics compiled for 1988-1996 by the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation’s Crime reporting unit ; a content analysis of articles published in USA today over a 10 year period ; and interview with convicted embezzlers.

Ernesto and Franscesca (1999) in “European money trails”, describe the different “money trails” or routes used by organized crime groups in

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Europe to concern the origins of the proceeds from criminal activities. Data were obtained from interviews with experts in each country, from police and court files, and from secondary sources. Criminals benefit from open markets and money laundering reflects the evolution of criminal organization from individuals to more sophisticated forms. This phenomenon is the dark side of the economic and social development of modern societies. The increasing complexity of criminal organizations is a mirror image of the modern economy and its related social complexity. The main policy implication is to meet the money laundering challenge with even more policy integration among the nations of Europe.

James and Robert (1999), had studied on the “Globalization of organized crime, the courtesan state, and the corruption of civil society”, a review that examines the linkages between globalization and organized crime, using eastern Asia and southern Africa as the main examples. The state’s autonomy is being reduced by numerous legal and illegal cross-border flows. A neoliberal global consensus in favour of deregulation has further reduced state autonomy. Consequently, there are vast areas of activities not regulated by national or international law. Criminal organizations have stepped into the breach wrought by these globalizing tendencies. Although some types of crime remain localized, increasingly organized crime groups are driven by efforts to exploit the growth mechanisms of globalization.

Transitional organized crime groups operate both above and below the state. They capitalize on tendencies of borderlessness and deregulation. They also offer incentives to the marginalized segments of the population that are trying to cope with the adjustment costs of globalization. Countries are put in the role of courtesan states submitting to powerful interests in the global political economy. In an attempt to move the national economy to higher levels of competitiveness, they are reducing expenditure in the social sector,

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thereby de-linking economic reform and social policy. Global organized crime nests in this void. In the global division of labour and power, some countries have become crime-exporting states. Civil society may play a role as a pressure point for greater accountability. But a large segment of civil society, comprising the realm of organizational activity between the individual and the state, is itself undemocratic.

Vittal (2000) concludes that it is the financial integrity which people have in mind when they talk about corruption. The world bank defines corruption as 'the use of public office for private profit? Of course, corruption is like two hands clapping, which involves the official done and the political leadership, and not so much on the supply side of corruption which involves the trade and business. The study confines only to the issue of corruption in the financial and economic sense or the use of public office for private profit.

Nicola and Scartezzini's (2000) "When Economic Crime becomes organized : the role of information technologies : A Case study" is based on the idea that economic crime is increasingly committed on an organized basis so that the boundary between economic crime and organized crime is disintegrating. The essential assumption of the study is that information technology is one of the main factors influencing this process of organization in economic crime. Economic criminals need information technology in order to manage essential and valuable information. The likely consequence of the use of these new technologies is a modification in the way criminals behave and organize. To develop this idea better, this comment looks at a famous and recent Italian case of computer crime : operation 'Ice Trap'.

Friedman and Robert (2000), in their journalistic study on "Red Mafiya : how Russian mob has invaded America", assert that, in the past decade, Russian organized crime has become the world's fastest-growing criminal

threat to global stability and safety in Europe, North America and Asia. The Russian Mafiya now directs worldwide trafficking in prostitutes, heroin and missiles. The black-market corruption of the Brezhnev era proved the perfect breeding ground for organized crime. Beginning in the 1970s, Soviet emigres quickly established themselves as a major criminal force in New York, Las Vegas and elsewhere. After the break-up of the Soviet Union, the Russian mob quickly became the dominant power in Russia. The Mafiya has spread to every corner of the U.S. and infiltrated its banks and brokerage firms, but U.S. Law enforcement is only now waking up to this enormous problem.

Pudney's (2003) study on "the Road to Ruin? Investigates the routes by which young people develop patterns of drug using and offending behaviour", the Survey data are used to assess the gate way effect the tendency for soft drug use to lead to subsequent hard drug use and criminal activity. The study argues that apparently strong gateway effects may be due to an observable personal characteristic which produces a spurious association between different forms of problem behaviour. After correcting statistically these confounding factors, gateway effects appear small. This casts doubt on the view that a more relaxed policy stance on soft drugs will lead to a hard drug epidemic. The growth in illicit drug use and related crime constitutes one of the most important social developments of the post-war world. Currently available estimates must be treated with extreme caution, but by any standards the UK market for illegal drugs is large.

Asok (2004) had analysed "Black money and its impact on Indian economy". He studied that corruption continues to be a strong source of black money. There should be coordinated effort and stringent legal measures to combat black money in view of its serious impact on the economy. The future of any civilized society is dependent on the quality of money. A large amount of unaccounted money, income and wealth is in circulation in our economy.

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Corruption continues to be a strong source of black money. India rated at 69 out of 90 countries in the corruption perception index by transparency international for the year 2000. Black money also traces its origin to the indomitable urge people have to avoid their tax liabilities. There should be coordinated effort and stringent legal measures to combat black money in view of its serious impact on the economy. In this study, the focus will be on issues related with black money in India. Further, it envisages magnitude of black money, causes of black money in India. Moreover, it analyses effect of black money in Indian economy and provides remedial measures for the same. An estimate given by various economists in a study reveals that there is a growing quantity of black money relative to GNP as well as in absolute terms. The IMF staff survey on the unaccounted sector of the economy has estimated black money in India was at 50 per cent of Gross National Product (GNP) which was Rs.1,45,141 crores in 1982-83 at current prices. On this computation, India's unaccounted sector is of the order of Rs.72,000 crores. Wanchoo committee estimated that black money was Rs.1800 crores in 1978-79. According to Dr.Saraj, B. Gupta, black money was 50 per cent of GDP in 1987-88. It is also stated that the annual rate of growth of black money is higher than the annual growth rate of GDP. There are several factors responsible for the generation of black money in India. Defects in the tax structure have been responsible for the existence of black money to a large extent. The strategy for removal of black money from the economy needs some measures. Black money is also called the parallel economy because in geometry parallel lines do not meet whereas black money intersects with practically all sectors of our Indian economy. The government should come up with stringent laws to curb the flow of black money in the country.

## **2.5 OTHER RELATED STUDIES**

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Meyer et al. (1998) had analysed “Webs of Smoke : Smugglers, Wartards, Spies”. The study describes the modern International drug trafficking industry and related law enforcement efforts. Data were obtained from archival records and secondary sources in the U.S., China, Japan and Europe. All players in the drug business – dealers, buyers, politicians and bureaucrats – are flexible and opportunistic. The drug trade exists to serve market demand and to make money for drug traffickers. In turn, the drug traffickers are business entrepreneurs who, over the years, have sought the help of political figures to resolve specific problems related to supply, delivery, finance and contract enforcement. Because drug trafficking is a business, any strategy to disable the drug trade should concentrate on its commercial weaknesses.

Johnson et al. (1999) had assessed “What Drug Dealers tell us about their Costs of doing Business”. The study examines the costs of and profits from drug dealing business in New York city, NY. Interviews were conducted with low-level drug dealers. Since the monetary costs of distributing drugs are modest, the proportion of sales revenue retained by these sellers is a meaningful indicator of their earnings. There were four distinct types of sellers with systematic differences across types in the proportion of sales revenue retained. Entrepreneurs who owned the drugs they sold retained the largest share (about 50 per cent). Independent consignment sellers retained less (about 25 per cent). Consignment sellers who operated within fixed selling locations or “spots” retained still less (10 per cent) and the sellers who were paid hourly to sell from spots retained the smallest proportion (3 per cent). The differences may have significant implications for the relative ability of enforcement against spots and enforcement against sellers operating outside of spots to drive up drug prices and suppress drug use.

Henry and Frank (1999) who had studied “State Drug Control Spending and Illicit Drug Participation” analysed the effect of U.S. state criminal justice expenditures and state public health expenditures on deterring illicit drug use. The empirical model is based on demand and supply model of drug markets. The effect of a given expenditure on criminal justice or public health programs is dependent on the magnitude of the resulting shifts in the two functions and the demand price elasticity. A reduced form of the demand and supply model is also estimated.

The data were obtained from the 1990 and 1991 National Household Surveys on Drug Abuse (NHSDA). Data on state and local spending for drug.

- related criminal justice programs and drug
- related public health programs were merged with the NHSDA.

Regression results indicated that drug control spending reduced drug use. However, for marijuana users the marginal cost of drug control exceeded the social benefits of drug control. This may not be the case for users of other illicit drugs. Spending for drug enforcement by police and drug treatment were found most effective in deterring drug use. However, spending for correctional facilities was never significant, which suggests that a more efficient method of reducing drug use might be to reduce spending on correctional facilities and increase spending on treatment.



## **CHAPTER – III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

The methodology pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**”, is discussed under the following headings :

- 3.1 Selection of the Topic
- 3.2 Locale of the Study Area
- 3.3 Selection of the Sample
- 3.4 Period of Study
- 3.5 Sources of Data
- 3.6 Concepts Used in the Study
- 3.7 Tools of Analysis
- 3.8 Limitations of the Study

#### **3.1 SELECTION OF THE TOPIC**

In a standard literature on economic development there is frequently a noticeable reluctance to consider the economics of crime as a separate problem of importance of its own. There is a need for gender classification. In India crimes committed by women and men are fast increasing and the main cause for committing crime seems to be poverty. Economic reasons seem to be the motivating force for female and male to commit crime. So a study on

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the “Economics of Crime : A Comparative Analysis of the Socio-Economic Conditions of Convicted Female and Male Criminality in Selected Prisons in Tamil Nadu” seems to be appropriate to analyse with the relevant data.

### **3.2 LOCALE OF THE STUDY AREA**

Data regarding female and male criminality was collected from the Special Prisons for Women at Vellore and from Central Prison at Salem located in Tamil Nadu. This area was selected because the investigator has more accessibility to the area.

### **3.3 SELECTION OF THE SAMPLE**

Regarding female and male prisoners, 120 convicted female offenders and 200 convicted male offenders were selected for the study based on convenience sampling method.

### **3.4 PERIOD OF STUDY**

The primary data was collected during the period 2005 – 2006. Secondary data sources are collected from 1990 – 2005.

### **3.5 SOURCES OF DATA**

The study relies on both primary and secondary sources of data to realize its objectives. The primary data was collected from the convicted prisoners on the basis of structured, pre-tested questionnaire through personal interviews (Appendix – I). Secondary data sources of Central and State Governments such as Economic Offences Data for India, Female and Male Crime Data for Tamil Nadu was mainly taken from the publications of

- (1) National Crime Records Bureau
- (2) Latest Crime Statistical Publication

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### (3) State Level Crime in India

The secondary data was collected for a period of 15 years (1990 to 2005), for the state of Tamil Nadu.

## **3.6 CONCEPTS USED IN THE STUDY**

### **(i) Money Laundering**

Money laundering is defined in the “International Guide to Money Laundering : Law and Practice” as “the criminal process where by the proceeds from crime are hidden and transformed by attempts to integrate them into the financial system in order to give them the appearance of legitimate funds”.

### **(ii) Homicidal Offences**

The term homicide refers the international, accidental or justifiable killing of a human being by the human being.

### **(iii) Immoral Traffic**

The term immoral traffic refers that procuring, inducing or taking person for the sake of prostitution.

### **(iv) Prohibition**

The term prohibition refers to a law by which the manufacture, transportation, import, export and sale of alcoholic beverages is restricted or illegal.

### **(v) Smuggling**

Smuggling refers to import or export without paying lawful customs charges or duties. To bring in or take out illicitly or by stealth (or) secretly importing prohibited goods or goods on which duty is due.

#### **(vi) Tax-Evasion**

An illegal practice whereby an individual intentionally avoids paying their true tax liability. Anyone caught evading taxes is generally subject to criminal charges and substantial penalties.

### **3.7 TOOLS OF ANALYSIS**

In order to analyse the data on the basis of the objectives of the study, the collected data has been analysed using, suitable statistical techniques such as

#### **(i) Chi-square Analysis**

In order to examine the association between the socio-economic factors across the various categories of offences, chi-square test was used. The variables selected for the analysis were age, marital status, education, occupation and family income, type of housing and economic contribution of spouse.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

$O_i$  - Observed frequency

$E_i$  - Expected frequency

with  $r-1 \times c-1$  degrees of freedom.

#### **(ii) Discriminant Analysis**

Discriminant analysis is a multivariate statistical technique which allows to study the differences between two or more groups of objects or individuals with respect to several variables simultaneously. In the present study, discriminant analysis was used to differentiate whether the selected socio-economic factors and motivating factors for crime can significantly differentiate the two groups. The first group comprises of the respondents in homicidal offences. The second group includes other offences. The factors included were age, marital status, educational qualification, family income, reasons for committing the crime and duration of sentence.

### **(iii) Analysis of Variance Technique**

Analysis of variance technique was used to examine the mean scores of different population between groups and within groups. The statistical inference is that  $TSS = ESS + RSS$ , which decomposed to total sum of squares (TSS) into two components, explained sum of squares (ESS) and residual sum of squares (RSS). To study these components in the present study, analysis of variance was applied.

### **(iv) Push Factors**

The push factors were estimated to find out the economic and non-economic factors for committing the crime by female and male convicts.

### **(v) Trend Analysis**

Trend analysis was used to find out the trend values for selected economic offences such as smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft for the period of 1990 – 2005 by substituting the values of 't' in the estimated growth equation.

### **(vi) Logit Model**

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To analyse the motivating factors for the female and male criminality to indulge in criminal activity logit expression was used.

The underlying equation of the logit model was :

$$P_i = E(y = \frac{1}{X_i}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_1 + \beta_j X_i)}}$$

which had the cumulative logistic distribution function as

$$P_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-Z_i}}$$

In its estimable form, the equation in terms of the log of the odds ratio became

$$L_{ij} = \ln \left( \frac{P_i}{1 - P_i} \right) = Z_i = \beta_0 + \beta_j X_i$$

Since the study is based on individual data sets obtained through survey, the maximum likelihood estimation procedure was used to fit the model (Gujarati, 1995).

The rate of change in the probability in the logit model was given by

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial X_i} = \beta_i P_i (1 - P_i)$$

where  $\beta_j$  is the co-efficient of  $j^{\text{th}}$  regressor.  $P_i$  was evaluated at the mean level.

The advantage in the logit model was that it guaranteed the estimated probability in the 0 to 1 range and ensured that these probabilities were

non-linearly related to the explanatory variables. That is the probability tended to taper off as the values of explanatory variables approached their limits.

### **3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

- Only smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft could be analysed because of the lack of accessibility to the data pertaining to other economic offences.
- The secondary data regarding the female and male criminality was analysed from 1990 to 2005. The continuous data was available only for the period 1995 to 2005.
- The study analysed the socio-economic conditions of the convicted female and male prisoners only from Special Prison for Women at Vellore and Central Prison for Men at Salem. The findings may or may not be generalized.

## CHAPTER – IV

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results pertaining to the study on “**ECONOMICS OF CRIME – A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU**” are presented and discussed under the following headings :

- 4.1 Crime and its Classification
- 4.2 Number of Persons Arrested by Sex-wise under IPC Crimes in Tamil Nadu
- 4.3 Details of Persons Arrested by Sex-wise under IPC Crimes in Tamil Nadu
- 4.4 Trends in Economic Offences (Smuggling, Tax-Evasion, Money-Laundering, Cultural Object Theft) in India
- 4.5 Socio-Economic Profile of the Offenders (Convicted Female and Male Prisoners)
  - 4.5.1 Family Background and Classification of Crime of Convicted Prisoners
  - 4.5.2 Age
  - 4.5.3 Marital Status
  - 4.5.4 Caste
  - 4.5.5 Education
  - 4.5.6 Reasons given by the School Drop Outs
  - 4.5.7 Residential Background
  - 4.5.8 Economic Status and Occupation
  - 4.5.9 Family Income
  - 4.5.10 Family size

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- 4.5.11 Type of Housing
- 4.5.12 Perception of Economic Sufficiency
- 4.5.13 Economic Contribution of Spouse
- 4.6 Crime History
  - 4.6.1 Duration of Sentence
  - 4.6.2 Recidivism Imprisoned
  - 4.6.3 Role in Crime
  - 4.6.4 Motive for Committing Crime
  - 4.6.5 Respondents' Awareness about the Punishment and Interest in Committing the Crime Again
  - 4.6.6 Living Conditions Inside the Prison
  - 4.6.7 Rehabilitation Measures for Convicted Prisoners in Tamil Nadu

#### **4.1 CRIME AND ITS CLASSIFICATION**

Crime has been described as a negative and pervasive effect of development or as a consequence of development that is disorderly or unbalanced. The two dominant explanations of crime in developing countries have been modernization and dependency (or under development) theory.

Crime and modernization theory analyses the effect of structural changes in society. The theory is based on a synthesis of many national and comparative studies that have focused on crime patterns in developed and developing capitalist countries, and in socialist countries. The premise – that social, cultural and economic development inevitably causes increase in criminal behavior was used to analyse crime patterns in Europe during the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries, and is now being applied to developing countries in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

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Crime of one type that affects people personally include crimes like theft, robbery, assault, rape and murder. This form of crime is called direct, because it involves a direct relation between offender and victim. A special form of direct crime is official crime, violence enacted by representatives of the state.

Official crime coincides with what are usually called “Human right violations”. The fact that imprisonment, physical and psychological abuse, torture and murder are practised by the state does not mean that they are legal. All human rights violations are against international law and are almost always, against the laws of nations where they are committed. Yet without a functional and independent judicial system, those who are responsible for official crime can act with impunity.

As opposed to direct crime, indirect crime does not involve a direct relation between offender and victim. Instead it victimizes the state and as such, society as a whole. Examples are offenses such as tax evasion, money laundering or the abuse of public funds. Indirect crime may be committed not only by individuals, but also by organizations. When committed by legal organizations it is called corporate. When perpetrated by illegal organizations organized crime.

The growing sophistication in the commission of various economic crimes along with its complexities, calls for an urgent need for adoption of multi-pronged strategies by the police and the law enforcement agencies to tackle the menace. Economic offences constitute a distinct class, mainly due to the fact that they have special modus operandi. In most of these cases any individual person is not the victim. Instead, it is the state or society as a whole which suffers economic loss due to such activity. Such activities are continued

without legality, some times by taking advantage of the deficiencies of the existing legal provisions.

The economic offences cause significant damage to the general economy of the country thus adversely affecting the growth and development of the nation.

**TABLE – IV**  
**ECONOMIC OFFENCES**

<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Economic Crimes</b>	<b>Acts of Legislation</b>	<b>Enforcement Authorities</b>
1.	Tax Evasion	Income Tax Act	Central Board of Direct Taxes
2.	Illicit Trafficking the Contraband Goods (Smuggling)	Customs Act 1962, COFEPOSA, 1974	Collectors of Customs
3.	Evasion of Excise Duty	Central Excise and Salt Act, 1944	Collectors of Central Excise
4.	Cultural Objects Theft	Antiquity and Art Treasurers Act, 1972	Police / CBI
5.	Money Laundering	Foreign Exchange Regulations Act, 1973	Director of Enforcement
6.	Foreign Contribution Manipulations	Foreign Contribution (Regulation) Act, 1976	Police / CBI
7.	Land Hijacking / Real Estate Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
8.	Trade in Human Body Parts	Transplantation of Human Organs Act,	Police / CBI

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		1994	
9.	Illicit Drug Trafficking	Narcotic Drugs and Psychotropic Substances Act, 1985 and PIT NDPS Act, 1988	NCB / Police / CBI
10.	Fraudulent Bankruptcy	Banking Regulation Act, 1949	CBI
11.	Corruption and Bribery of Public Servants	Prevention of Corruption Act, 1988	State Vigilance Bureau X / CBI
12.	Bank Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
13.	Insurance Frauds	IPC	Police / CBI
14.	Racketeering in Employment	IPC	Police / CBI
<b>S.No.</b>	<b>Economic Crimes</b>	<b>Acts of Legislation</b>	<b>Enforcement Authorities</b>
15.	Illegal Foreign Trade	Import and Export (Control) Act, 1947	Directorate General of Foreign Trade / CBI
16.	Racketeering in False Travel Documents	Passport Act, 1920 / IPC	Police / CBI
17.	Credit Cards Fraud	IPC	Police / CBI
18.	Terrorist Activities	Terrorist and Disruptive Activities	Police / CBI
19.	Illicit Trafficking in Arms	Arms Act, 1959	Police / CBI
20.	Illicit Trafficking in Explosives	Explosives Act, 1884 and Explosive Substance Act, 1908	Police / CBI
21.	Theft of Intellectual Property	Copy Right Act, 1957 (Amendments 1984 and 1994)	Police / CBI
22.	Computer Crime / Software Piracy	Copy Right Act, 1957	Police / CBI

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23.	Stock Manipulations	IPC	Police / CBI
24.	Company Frauds (Contraband)	Compact Act, 1956 MRTP Act, 1968	Civil in nature

Source : National Crime Records Bureau, Ministry of Home Affairs, 2005.

The economic offences may be either cognizable or non-cognizable in nature. Economic offences form a separate category of crimes under criminal offences. They are often referred to as white / blue collar crimes. Indulgence by technocrats, highly qualified persons, well to do businessmen, corporate persons, etc. in various scams and frauds facilitated by the technological advancements, is often seen. In economic offences not only individuals get victimised with pecuniary loss but, such offences often damage the national economy and defence. The offences, for example, smuggling of narcotic substances, counterfeiting of currency, financial scams, frauds etc. evoke serious concern about their impact on the nation's security and governance.

#### 4.2 NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU

The Table – V and Figure – 1 gives crime sex-wise breakup of arrested persons under the IPC crimes from the year 1990 to 2005.

**TABLE – V**  
**NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER**  
**IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU**

Year	Number of persons arrested				
	Females	Percentage	Males	Percentage	Total
1990	35478	4.14	821736	95.96	857214
1995	75708	3.75	1943445	96.25	2019154
1996	79378	4.12	1846037	95.88	1925415

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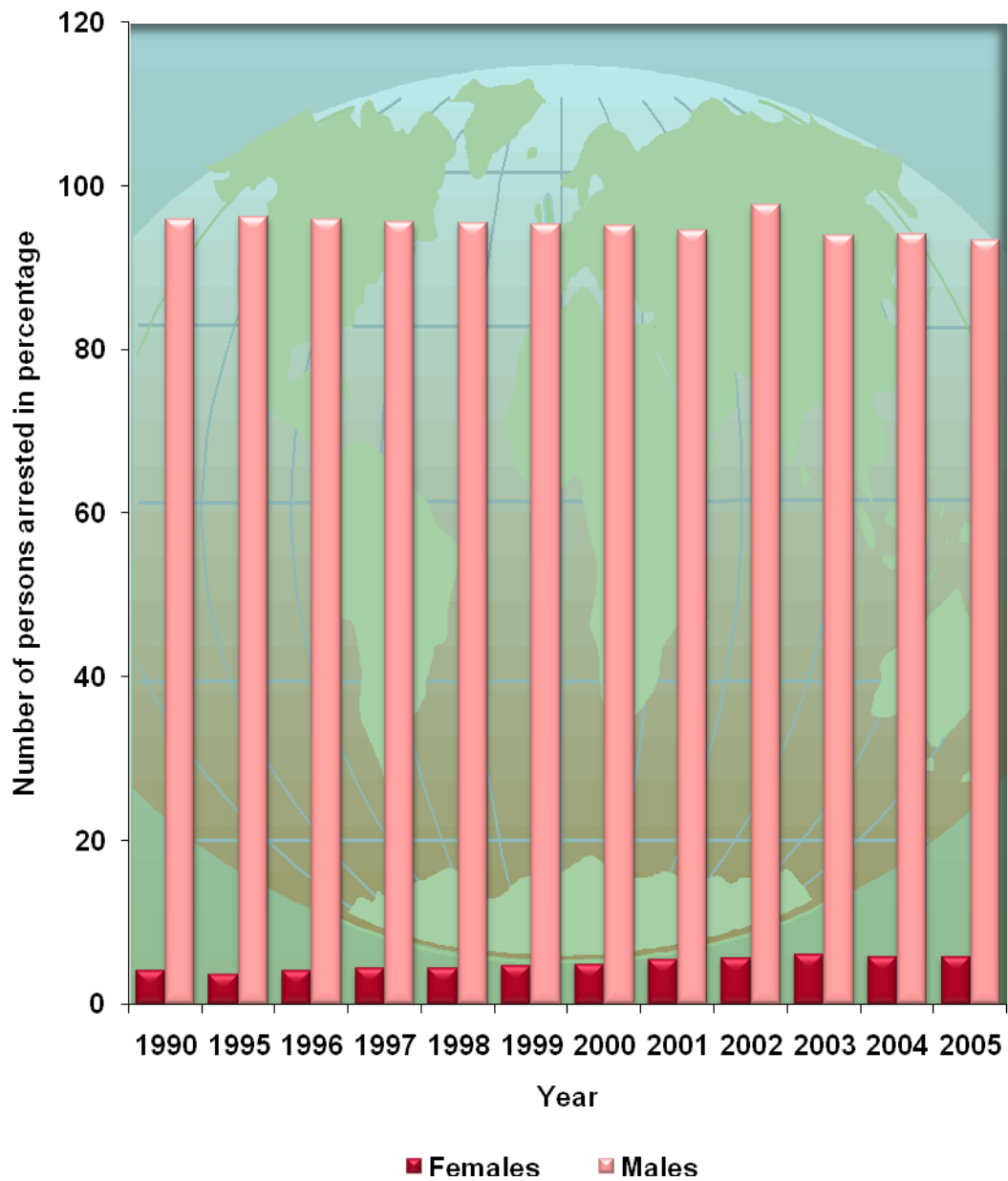
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1997	84448	4.41	1830095	95.59	1916343
1998	87248	4.46	1867795	95.54	1954863
1999	88957	4.71	1799909	95.29	1888866
2000	96453	4.85	1891123	95.15	1985099
2001	144608	5.4	2526932	94.60	2671540
2002	146308	5.6	2550235	97.69	2610668
2003	151675	6.0	2359217	94.00	2510892
2004	153969	5.8	2506941	94.20	2660910
2005	151309	5.8	2470238	93.33	2621547

Source : Crime in India, Ministry of Home Affairs.

In Tamil Nadu the number of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crimes from 1990 to 2005 is shown in Table – V. The table reveals that the total number of persons arrested in the year 1990 was 857214, in this female constituted 4.14 per cent and male constituted 95.96 per cent. In the year 2005, the total number of persons arrested was 2621547. The female constituted 5.8 per cent and male constituted 93.33 per cent. Between the years 1990 to 2005, the highest number of persons were arrested in the year 2001 (2671540). In this female constituted 5.4 per cent and male constituted

**FIGURE – 1**  
**NUMBER OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER**  
**IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU**



94.6 per cent. Regarding female criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2003, was six per cent and among the male criminality Language in India [www.languageinindia.com](http://www.languageinindia.com)

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the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2002, constituted 97.69 per cent.

The table shows that the percentage of female criminality has increased from 3.75 per cent in 1995 to six per cent in 2003. Contrary to this, the percentage of male criminality has declined from 96.25 per cent in 1995 to 94 per cent in 2003. Regarding the number of persons arrested between 1990 to 2005 female criminality shows an increasing trend and male criminality shows a declining trend.

#### **4.3 DETAILS OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN TAMIL NADU**

Men and women resort to crime for a number of purposes. The Table – VI gives details of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crime in Tamil Nadu for the period 1990 to 2005. Crimes can be classified as the economic and non-economic crimes. Even some of the non-economic crimes are done to gain something financially out of the crime. The table shows that the heads of crimes are classified into murder, culpable homicide, rape, kidnapping and abduction, dacoity, robbery, burglary, theft, riots, criminal breach of trust, cheating, counterfeiting and miscellaneous.

From the year 2001 to 2005 the data includes crimes like arson, hurt, dowry death, molestation, sexual harassment, cruelty by husband and relatives, importation of girls, causing death by negligence, other IPC crimes and total cognizable crimes under IPC. The following Table – VI shows details of persons arrested by sex-wise under IPC crimes in Tamil Nadu for the period 1990 to 2005.



**TABLE – VI**  
**DETAILS OF PERSONS ARRESTED BY SEX-WISE UNDER IPC CRIMES IN**  
**TAMIL NADU FOR THE PERIOD 1990 – 2005**  
**(a) 1990 – 1995**

Heads of Crime	1990				1995			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	973	1.81	52713	98.19	2926	3.53	79862	96.46
Culpabale Homicide	92	8.04	1052	91.96	403	4.99	7660	95.00
Rape	69	6.63	972	93.37	274	1.45	18574	98.55
Kidnapping and Abduction	75	0.98	7543	99.01	1255	4.65	25742	95.35
Dacoity	32	0.34	9346	99.66	297	1.16	25319	98.84
Robbery	236	3.38	6746	96.62	168	0.58	28877	99.42
Burglary	532	7.06	7002	92.94	1267	1.67	74802	98.33
Theft	1320	5.63	22134	94.37	4237	2.33	177051	97.67
Riots	14042	8.45	152160	91.55	22112	4.31	490380	95.69
Criminal Breach of Trust	123	2.51	4780	97.49	270	1.82	14537	98.18
Cheating	192	2.01	9346	97.99	806	2.90	26920	97.09
Counterfeiting	9	2.04	431	97.95	7	0.81	861	99.19
Miscellaneous	17783	3.15	547511	96.85	41687	4.11	972860	95.89
<b>Total</b>	<b>35478</b>	<b>4.14</b>	<b>821736</b>	<b>95.96</b>	<b>75708</b>	<b>3.75</b>	<b>1943445</b>	<b>96.25</b>

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

**(b) 1996 – 1997**

Heads of Crime	1996				1997			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	3168	3.92	77590	96.08	3473	4.36	76151	95.64
Culpabale Homicide	332	4.12	7725	95.88	237	2.88	7983	97.12
Rape	287	1.46	19336	98.54	317	1.58	19731	98.41
Kidnapping and Abduction	2770	10.02	24881	89.98	1500	5.40	26271	94.59
Dacoity	96	0.38	24546	99.61	1902	0.41	24560	99.58
Robbery	177	0.61	28898	99.39	132	0.45	28706	99.54
Burglary	1187	1.57	74232	98.43	1141	1.69	66016	98.30
Theft	4424	2.46	175134	97.54	4193	2.52	162516	97.48
Riots	23242	4.85	455925	95.15	24696	5.39	433138	94.61
Criminal Breach of Trust	271	1.71	15584	98.29	321	2.27	13801	97.72

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Cheating	952	3.06	30146	96.93	958	3.27	28337	96.72
Counterfeiting	12	1.67	705	98.33	17	1.75	954	98.24
Miscellaneous	42460	4.45	911335	95.54	47361	4.78	941931	95.21
<b>Total</b>	<b>79378</b>	<b>4.12</b>	<b>1846037</b>	<b>95.88</b>	<b>84448</b>	<b>4.41</b>	<b>1830095</b>	<b>95.59</b>

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

**(c) 1998 – 2000**

Heads of Crime	1998				1999				2000			
	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%
Murder	3444	4.25	77649	95.75	3492	4.77	73842	96.54	3573	4.31	79356	95.69
Culpabale Homicide	258	3.45	7208	96.54	186	2.58	7018	97.42	339	3.91	8326	96.09
Rape	335	1.72	19143	98.28	448	2.21	19865	97.79	541	2.43	21736	97.57
Kidnapping and Abduction	1522	4.99	28998	95.01	1595	5.25	28788	94.75	1677	5.52	28686	94.48
Dacoity	200	0.79	25021	99.21	91	0.39	23230	99.61	123	0.49	24811	99.51
Robbery	155	0.49	31638	99.51	153	0.51	29562	99.49	165	0.51	31968	99.49
Burglary	1022	1.41	71353	98.59	989	1.41	69200	98.59	1152	1.59	71273	98.41
Theft	4405	2.64	162723	97.36	4332	2.54	166028	97.46	4872	2.92	162176	97.08
Riots	23076	5.26	415894	94.74	21393	5.39	375673	94.61	22841	5.00	433626	94.99
Criminal Breach of Trust	426	2.82	14693	97.18	422	2.76	14845	97.24	443	2.87	14999	97.13
Cheating	1185	3.66	31213	96.34	1222	3.49	33724	96.50	1876	5.09	34996	94.91
Counterfeiting	11	0.67	1638	99.33	51	3.24	1521	96.76	62	3.45	1734	96.55
Miscellaneous	51029	4.96	980624	95.04	54583	5.39	956613	94.60	56312	5.45	977436	94.55

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<b>Total</b>	<b>87248</b>	<b>4.46</b>	<b>1867795</b>	<b>95.54</b>	<b>88957</b>	<b>4.71</b>	<b>1799909</b>	<b>95.29</b>	<b>96453</b>	<b>4.85</b>	<b>1891123</b>	<b>95.15</b>
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Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

**(d) 2001**

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3434	4.6	71888	95.4	75322
2.	Attempt to commit murder	1995	2.6	75844	97.4	77839
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	123	1.9	6472	98.1	6595
4.	Rape	495	2.4	19951	97.6	20446
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0	0	0	0
	(ii) Other rape	495	2.4	19951	97.6	20446
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1506	4.9	29379	95.1	30885
	(i) Of women and girls	1214	6.8	16605	93.2	17819
	(ii) Of others	292	2.2	12774	97.8	13066
6.	Dacoity	107	0.4	24396	99.6	24503
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	28	0.4	7402	99.6	7430
8.	Robbery	128	0.4	29395	99.6	29523
9.	Burglary	1039	1.6	65857	98.4	66896
10.	Theft	4250	2.6	157964	97.4	162214
	(i) Auto theft	151	0.5	30082	99.5	30233
	(ii) Other theft	4099	3.1	127882	96.9	131981
11.	Riots	20826	5.2	377540	94.8	398366
12.	Criminal breach of trust	422	2.7	15229	97.3	15651
13.	Cheating	1484	3.5	41303	96.5	42787

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14.	Counterfeiting	41	2.1	1939	97.9	1980
15.	Arson	269	2.0	13465	98.0	13734
16.	Hurt	30506	6.2	458080	93.8	488586
17.	Dowry death	4473	21.9	15908	78.1	20381
18.	Molestation	511	1.1	41733	98.9	42244
19.	Sexual harassment	140	1.1	12299	98.9	12439
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	25921	23.7	83546	76.3	109467
21.	Importation of girls	14	6.4	206	93.6	220
22.	Causing death by negligence	426	4.8	52280	95.2	52706
23.	Other IPC crimes	46470	4.8	924856	95.2	971326
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	144608	5.4	2526932	94.6	2671540

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(e) 2002

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3589	4.8	71438	95.2	75027
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2225	2.9	75587	97.1	77812
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	142	2.0	6925	98.0	7067
4.	Rape	456	2.1	20780	97.9	21236
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0	0	0	0
	(ii) Other rape	456	2.1	20780	97.9	21236
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1753	5.7	28975	94.3	30728
	(i) Of women and girls	1354	7.4	16867	92.6	18221
	(ii) Of others	399	3.2	12108	96.8	12507
6.	Dacoity	174	0.7	23303	99.3	23477
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	2	0	8061	100.0	8063
8.	Robbery	140	0.5	27437	99.5	27577
9.	Burglary	1200	1.9	63478	98.1	64678
10.	Theft	4951	3.0	158524	97.0	163475
	(i) Auto theft	229	0.8	30227	99.2	30456

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	(ii) Other theft	4722	3.5	128297	96.5	133019
11.	Riots	19422	5.2	355577	94.8	374999
12.	Criminal breach of trust	478	3.1	15033	96.9	15511
13.	Cheating	1786	3.9	43890	96.1	45676
14.	Counterfeiting	69	3.0	2197	97.0	2266
15.	Arson	315	1.7	17902	98.3	18217
16.	Hurt	30910	6.4	451234	93.6	482144
17.	Dowry death	4325	23.6	14021	76.4	18346
18.	Molestation	668	1.2	42493	98.8	43161
19.	Sexual harassment	158	1.2	12540	98.8	12698
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	25484	22.6	87472	77.4	112956
21.	Importation of girls	12	11.9	89	88.1	101
22.	Causing death by negligence	165	0.3	57386	99.7	57551
23.	Other IPC crimes	47884	4.7	965893	95.3	1013777
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	146308	5.4	2550235	94.6	2696543

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

(f) 2003

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3501	5.3	62495	94.7	65996
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2469	3.9	61393	96.1	63862
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	162	2.1	7546	97.9	7708
4.	Rape	495	2.5	19499	97.5	19994
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
	(ii) Other rape	495	2.5	19499	97.5	19994
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1450	5.5	25091	94.5	26541
	(i) Of women and girls	1116	7.1	14527	92.9	15643
	(ii) Of others	334	3.1	10564	96.9	10898
6.	Dacoity	102	0.5	18740	99.5	18842
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	14	0.1	10148	99.9	10162

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8.	Robbery	184	0.7	26152	99.3	26336
9.	Burglary	1090	1.8	60307	98.2	61397
10.	Theft	5280	3.3	154238	96.7	159518
	(i) Auto theft	76	0.2	32118	99.8	32194
	(ii) Other theft	5204	4.1	122120	95.9	127324
11.	Riots	17884	5.5	306120	94.5	324004
12.	Criminal breach of trust	504	3.3	14651	96.7	15155
13.	Cheating	2074	4.6	42799	95.4	44873
14.	Counterfeiting	43	1.8	2283	98.2	2326
15.	Arson	250	2.1	11892	97.9	12142
16.	Hurt	32591	6.9	437862	93.1	470453
17.	Dowry death	3861	23.2	12775	76.8	16636
18.	Molestation	834	2.0	41610	98.0	42444
19.	Sexual harassment	214	1.4	15137	98.6	15351
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	26465	23.9	84158	76.1	110623
21.	Importation of girls	3	5.5	52	94.5	55
22.	Causing death by negligence	279	0.5	53036	99.5	53315
23.	Other IPC crimes	51926	5.5	891233	94.5	943159
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	151675	6.0	2359217	94.0	2510892

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

**(g) 2004**

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3475	5.2	62740	94.8	66215
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2236	3.3	65536	96.7	67772
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	159	2.2	7071	97.8	7230
4.	Rape	525	2.3	21964	97.7	22489
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
	(ii) Other rape	525	2.3	21963	97.7	22488
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1685	5.7	29419	94.6	31104

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	(i) Of women and girls	1373	7.1	17877	92.9	19250
	(ii) Of others	312	2.6	11542	97.4	11854
6.	Dacoity	146	0.7	19905	99.3	20051
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	12	0.1	9866	99.9	9878
8.	Robbery	160	0.6	27530	99.4	27690
9.	Burglary	971	1.5	63484	98.5	64455
10.	Theft	4769	2.6	181236	97.4	186005
	(i) Auto theft	75	0.2	37401	99.8	37476
	(ii) Other theft	4694	3.2	143835	96.8	148529
11.	Riots	15768	4.7	318771	95.3	334539
12.	Criminal breach of trust	478	3.1	15080	96.9	15558
13.	Cheating	2351	4.8	46152	95.2	48503
14.	Counterfeiting	80	3.3	2361	96.7	2441
15.	Arson	283	2.4	11645	97.6	11928
16.	Hurt	32220	6.6	256922	93.4	489142
17.	Dowry death	4147	22.9	13972	77.1	18119
18.	Molestation	843	1.9	42736	98.1	43579
19.	Sexual harassment	255	2.0	12516	98.0	12771
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	27832	22.1	97825	77.9	125651
21.	Importation of girls	3	4.4	65	95.6	68
22.	Causing death by negligence	556	0.9	61093	99.1	61649
23.	Other IPC crimes	55015	5.8	939052	94.5	994067
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	153969	5.8	2506941	94.2	2660910

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

#### (h) 2005

S.No.	Crime head	Number of persons arrested				Total
		Female	%	Male	%	
1.	Murder	3684	5.6	61958	94.38	65642
2.	Attempt to commit murder	2091	3.2	62635	96.8	64726
3.	Culpable homicide not amounting to murder	151	2.2	6675	97.8	6826

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4.	Rape	572	2.5	22640	97.5	23212
	(i) Custodial rape	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
	(ii) Other rape	572	2.5	22637	97.5	23209
5.	Kidnapping and abduction	1757	5.5	30033	94.5	31790
	(i) Of women and girls	1369	7.1	17957	92.9	19326
	(ii) Of others	388	3.1	12076	96.9	12464
6.	Dacoity	202	1.0	19414	99.0	19616
7.	Preparation of assembly for dacoity	17	0.2	11029	99.8	11046
8.	Robbery	1380	2.1	65642	97.9	67022
9.	Burglary	156	0.6	27834	99.4	27990
10.	Theft	6110	2.9	202560	97.1	208670
	(i) Auto theft	108	0.2	43334	99.8	43442
	(ii) Other theft	6002	3.6	159226	96.4	165228
11.	Riots	15882	4.9	304991	95.1	320873
12.	Criminal breach of trust	534	3.4	15278	96.6	15812
13.	Cheating	2445	4.9	47415	95.1	49860
14.	Counterfeiting	54	2.1	2553	97.9	2607
15.	Arson	315	2.7	11366	97.3	11681
16.	Hurt	29180	6.3	435829	93.7	465009
17.	Dowry death	3848	22.4	13325	77.6	17173
18.	Molestation	719	1.7	42705	98.3	43434
19.	Sexual harassment	154	1.2	13038	98.8	13192
20.	Cruelty by husband and relatives	28745	22.5	98815	77.5	127560
21.	Importation of girls	22	10.4	190	89.6	212
22.	Causing death by negligence	258	0.4	62726	99.6	62984
23.	Other IPC crimes	53174	5.5	911587	94.5	964761
24.	Total cognizable crimes under IPC	151309	5.8	2470238	94.2	2621547

Source : National Crime Records Bureau.

In case of murder a comparison of female and male offenders percentage in the year 1990 reveals that while female constituted 1.81 per cent and male constituted 98.19 per cent. In the year 2000, the female

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percentage has increased to 4.31 per cent while male percentage had decreased to 95.69 per cent. In case of culpable homicide in the year 1990, 8.04 per cent were female offenders and 91.96 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders percentage was decreased to 3.91 per cent and the male offenders percentage was increased to 96.09 per cent. In case of rape in the year 1990, the female offenders constituted 6.63 per cent and the male offenders constituted 93.37 per cent. In the year 2000, the female offenders were decreased to 2.43 per cent and the male offenders were increased to 97.57 per cent. In case of rape the majority of the offenders were men, while a minimum percentage of females helped the men in this crime.

In the year 1990, 0.98 per cent of the female offenders and 99.01 per cent of the male offenders involved in kidnapping and abduction. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 5.52 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 94.48 per cent. In case of dacoity in the year 1990, 0.34 per cent were female offenders and 99.66 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female percentage has increased to 0.49 per cent and the male percentage has decreased to 99.51 per cent. In case of robbery in the year 1990, 3.38 per cent were female offenders and 96.62 per cent were male offenders. In 2000, the female offenders has fallen to 0.51 per cent and the male offenders had increased to 99.49 per cent.

In case of burglary in the year 1990, 7.06 per cent were female offenders and 92.94 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has decreased to 1.59 per cent and the male offenders was increased to 98.41 per cent. In case of theft in the year 1990, 5.63 per cent were female offenders and 94.37 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders were decreased to 2.92 per cent and the male offenders has increased to 97.08 per cent.

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In case of riots in the year 1990, 8.45 per cent were female offenders and 91.55 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has decreased to five per cent and male offenders increased to 94.99 per cent. In case of criminal breach of trust in the year 1990, 2.51 per cent were female offenders and 97.49 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 2.87 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 97.13 per cent.

In case of cheating in the year 1990, 2.01 per cent were female offenders and 97.99 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 5.09 per cent and the male offenders has fallen to 94.91 per cent. In case of counterfeiting in the year 1990, 2.04 per cent were female offenders and 97.95 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders has increased to 3.45 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 96.55 per cent.

In case of miscellaneous offences like arson, hurt, dowry death, molestation, sexual harassment, cruelty by husband and relatives, importation of girls, causing death by negligence, other IPC crimes and total cognizable crimes under IPC in the year 1990 shows 3.15 per cent were female offenders and 96.85 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2000, the female offenders had increased to 5.45 per cent and the male offenders had fallen to 94.55 per cent.

While comparing 2001 to 2005 with regard to murder in the year 2001, 4.6 per cent were female offenders and 95.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders were increased to 5.6 per cent and the male offenders were decreased to 94.38 per cent. In case of attempt to commit murder in the year 2001, 2.6 per cent were female offenders and 97.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders has

increased to 3.2 per cent and the male offenders also increased to 96.8 per cent.

In case of culpable homicide in the year 2001, 1.9 per cent were female offenders and 98.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.2 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.8 per cent. In case of rape in the year 2001, 2.4 per cent were female offenders and 97.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.5 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.5 per cent. In case of kidnapping and abduction in the year 2001, 4.9 per cent were female offenders and 95.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders had increased to 5.5 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 94.5 per cent. In case of dacoity in the year 2001, 0.4 per cent were female offenders and 99.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders increased to one per cent and the male offenders had decreased to 99 per cent.

In case of robbery in the year 2001, 0.4 per cent were female offenders and 99.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, the female offenders has increased to 2.1 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 97.9 per cent. In case of burglary in the year 2001, 1.6 per cent were female offenders and 98.4 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has decreased to 0.6 per cent and male offenders had increased to 99.4 per cent. In committing theft in the year 2001, 2.6 per cent were female offenders and 97.4 per cent in male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.9 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.1 per cent. In case of riots, in the year 2001, 5.2 per cent were female offenders and 94.8 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has decreased to 4.9 per cent and male offenders increased to 95.1 per cent.

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In case of criminal breach of trust in the year 2001, 2.7 per cent were female offenders and 97.3 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders had increased to 3.4 per cent and male offenders decreased 96.6 per cent. In case of cheating, in the year 2001, 3.5 per cent were female offenders and 96.5 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 4.9 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 95.1 per cent. In case of counterfeiting in the year 2001, 2.1 per cent female offenders and 97.9 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders and male offenders remains the same 2.1 per cent and 97.9 per cent. In case of arson, female offenders constitutes two per cent and male offenders constitutes 98 per cent. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 2.7 per cent and male offenders has decreased to 97.3 per cent.

In case of hurt in the year 2001, 6.2 per cent were female offenders and 93.8 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 6.3 per cent and the male offenders has decreased to 93.7 per cent. In case of dowry death in the year 2001, 21.9 per cent were female offenders and 78.1 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 22.4 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 77.6 per cent. In case of molestation in the year 2001, 1.1 per cent were female offenders and 98.9 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 1.7 per cent and male offenders decreased to 98.3 per cent. In case of sexual harassment in the year 2001, 1.1 per cent were female offenders and 98.9 per cent were male offenders in the year 2005, female offenders has increased 1.2 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 98.8 per cent.

In case of cruelty by husband and relatives in the year 2001, 23.7 per cent were female offenders and 76.3 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders decreased to 22.5 per cent and male offenders

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increased to 77.5 per cent. In case of importation of girls in 2001, 6.4 per cent were female offenders and 93.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 10.4 per cent and male offenders decreased to 89.6 per cent.

In case of causing death by negligence in the year 2001, 4.8 per cent were female offenders and 95.2 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders decreased to 0.4 per cent and the male offenders increased to 99.6 per cent. In case of other IPC crimes in the year 2001, 4.8 per cent were female offenders and 95.2 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders increased to 5.5 per cent and male offenders decreased to 94.5 per cent. In case of total cognizable crimes under IPC in the year 2001, 5.4 per cent were female offenders and 94.6 per cent were male offenders. In the year 2005, female offenders has increased to 5.8 per cent and the male offenders decreased to 94.2 per cent.

#### **4.4 TRENDS IN ECONOMIC OFFENCES (SMUGGLING, TAX-EVASION, MONEY LAUNDERING, CULTURAL OBJECT THEFT) IN INDIA**

Economic crime, smuggling, tax evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft are no new phenomena in our societies. These activities have developed over a long period of time. What is new is that they have now grown to an extent such that they pose real risks to economic and social stability at regional, national and international level, with possibly serious political consequences in less consolidated states and democracies.

The world's major economics continue to liberalise their economics. Far reaching economic reforms are taking place in former socialist societies and profound transformations from closed to open economics are under way, resulting in ever greater economic globalization. The global liberalization includes spectacular growth of capital markets and previously unencountered

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freedom of, and capacity for, money transfers and capital movements. In such conditions economic crime, including organized economic crime have been able to grow with alarming speed, often ignoring borders and spanning continents in ways reminiscent of that other world wide phenomenon, the multinational enterprise.

Table – VII shows the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money laundering and cultural object theft).

**TABLE – VII**  
**TRENDS IN ECONOMIC OFFENCES (SMUGGLING, TAX-EVASION, MONEY LAUNDERING**  
**AND CULTURAL OBJECT THEFT) IN INDIA**

Economic offences Year	Smuggling				Tax-evasion				Money laundering				Cultural object theft			
	Total number of seizures	Chain growth	Value in crores	Chain growth	Number of searches conducted	Chain growth	Assets seized in crores	Chain growth	Number of searches	Chain growth	Values in crores	Chain growth	Property stolen	Chain growth	Value recovered	Chain growth
1990	67613	-	720.00		5474		227.85		2114		1389		739		272.9	
1991	60173	-11.00	774.90	7.63	3468	-36.65	179.85	-21.07	2319	9.70	1482	6.70	1470	98.91	177.6	-34.92
1992	59270	-1.50	502.10	-35.20	4777	37.75	384.02	113.52	1215	-47.61	738	-50.20	964	-34.42	145.2	-18.24
1993	52963	-10.64	389.00	-22.53	5026	5.21	396.46	3.24	1234	1.56	843	14.23	1208	25.31	272.9	87.95
1994	49997	-5.60	535.20	37.58	4830	-3.90	381.43	-3.79	1540	24.80	1046	24.08	1483	22.76	124.6	-54.34
1995	55947	11.90	1062.00	98.43	4612	-4.51	458.14	20.11	1175	-23.70	832	-20.46	3759	153.47	98.5	-20.94
1996	49580	-11.38	553.40	-47.89	4299	-6.79	405.63	-11.46	1164	-0.94	868	4.33	2870	-23.64	133.4	35.43
1997	48993	-1.18	983.90	77.79	3653	-15.03	306.85	-24.35	1238	6.36	946	8.99	1677	-41.57	168.5	26.31
1998	39906	-18.55	1274.40	29.53	5746	57.30	300.54	-2.06	544	-56.06	361	-61.84	2600	55.04	464.8	175.84
1999	40066	0.40	436.40	-65.76	5469	-4.82	384.18	27.83	387	-28.86	299	-17.17	1460	-43.84	103.6	-77.71
2000	39178	-2.22	698.50	60.06	5321	-2.71	512.36	33.36	330	-14.73	262	-12.37	3139	115	173.9	67.85
2001	38998	-0.46	1019.70	45.98	4358	-18.10	344.34	-32.79	295	-10.61	207	-20.99	1913	-39.05	445.6	156.23
2002	38298	-1.79	369.25	-63.79	-	-	-	-	417	41.36	393	89.86	967	-49.45	102.5	-76.99
2003	50872	32.83	618.35	67.46	2492	-42.82	213.37	-38.04	242	-41.97	175	-55.47	2213	128.85	360.1	251.31
2004	44478	-12.57	1053.58	70.39	2377	-4.61	202.28	-5.20	78	-67.77	56	-68.00	2913	31.63	368	2.19

2005	323	-99.27	220.32	-79.09	3364	41.52	351.70	73.87	146	87.18	106	89.29	1012	27.37	310.6	2.03
<b>CV</b>	<b>32.55</b>		<b>43.21</b>		<b>24.52</b>		<b>28.92</b>		<b>77.62</b>		<b>72.63</b>		<b>46.62</b>	<b>250.67</b>	<b>47.79</b>	<b>276.74</b>
<b>Cgr</b>	<b>-12.79</b>		<b>-1.46</b>		<b>-3.01</b>		<b>0.17</b>		<b>-17.86</b>		<b>-16.81</b>		<b>-11.06</b>		<b>-2.81</b>	

Source : National Crime Records Bureau (2005).

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During the period of study, in the average number of seizure under smuggling was 46040, while the amount of seizure in value terms was Rs.700.69 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed greater variations (43.21 per cent) when compared to number of seizures (32.55 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of seizures and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth excepting in the years 1995, 1999 and 2003 which showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend almost in all periods excepting 1994, 1997, 2000 and 2003. However the chain growth exhibited positive trend. Taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of seizures and value of seizures were negative (-12.79 per cent and -1.46 per cent respectively).

The seizure by income tax department, during the period of study the average number of searches was 5379, while the amount of asset seized in value terms was Rs.317.9 crores. The co-efficient of variations indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed greater variations (28.92 per cent) when compared to number of searches (24.52 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of searches and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth excepting the years during 1992, 1993, 1998 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend almost in all periods excepting 1992, 1993, 1995, 1999, 2000 and 2005. However the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of the study. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches

conducted was negative, – 3.01 per cent and value of assets seized was positive 0.17 per cent.

In money laundering the average number of searches conducted was 902, while the amount of seizure in value terms was Rs.625.19 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the total seizure in value terms showed less variations (72.63 per cent) when compared to number of searches (77.62 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of searches and seizure in value terms was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. The growth in total seizures in quantity terms was in general negative. In chain growth 1991, 1993, 1994, 1997, 2002 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend in almost all periods. However, the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of searches and value of seizures was negative, – 17.86 per cent and – 16.81 per cent respectively.

In cultural object stolen and recovered, the average number of property stolen was 1958, while the property recovered was in value terms Rs.596.07 crores. The co-efficient of variation indicates that the property recovered in value terms showed less variations (47.79 per cent) when compared to the property stolen (46.62 per cent). The trend analysis of total number of property stolen and property recovered was done by computing chain growth and exponential trend. Growth in property recovered in value terms was in general positive. The chain growth excepting the years 1991, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2003, 2004 and 2005 showed a positive growth and in the remaining years it was negative. Similarly the property recovered in value terms, the chain growth had shown similar trend in almost all periods excepting 1993, 1996, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2003, 2004 and 2005. However, the chain growth exhibited positive trend, taking the entire period of

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the study, the average compound rate of growth for the property stolen and property recovered in value terms was negative, – 11.06 per cent and – 2.81 per cent respectively.

#### **4.5 SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE OFFENDERS (CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE PRISONERS)**

##### **4.5.1 Family Background and Classification of Crime of Convicted Prisoners**

The life and the attitude of an individual depends on the life which he lives with his community environment and is a powerful force which shapes his destiny. The socio-economic conditions of an individual influence his behaviour in the community. The investigator would like to analyse the socio-economic profile of the offenders in order to estimate how they effected their criminal activity. An attempt is made to understand the socio-economic, familial characteristics as well as the criminal history of the offenders. Information pertaining to variables such as family, work experience and perception have been elicited with the aid of an interview schedule. The purpose in examining such characteristics has been to identify whether there is a profile in terms of socio-economic and familial factors that can be typically associated with this group of men and women convicts. For authenticity, convicted offenders whose criminality is indisputable have been chosen as the samples for the study within the convicted groups too. The emphasis has been, as much as possible, on the more serious offender who has been awarded a long-term sentence. The primary data was collected from the Special Prison for Women at Vellore and Central Prison for Men at Salem.

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Figures 2 and 3 show the entrance of the Special Prison for Women at Vellore, and Central Prison for Men at Salem respectively.

When examining the offenders a fundamental distinction based on nature of offences was necessary. This is essential because, though the offenders apparently appear homogenous, they are basically different due to the nature of the crime committed. The women prisoners were classified as homicidal offenders, property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders. The men prisoners were classified as homicidal

**FIGURE – 2**  
**ENTRANCE OF THE SPECIAL PRISON FOR WOMEN AT VELLORE**



**FIGURE – 3**  
**ENTRANCE OF THE CENTRAL PRISON FOR MEN AT SALEM**



offenders, property offenders, prohibition offenders and theft offenders. Similar characteristics for the entire group may be there but basic differences between the categories cannot be overlooked. In case of female offenders, the comparison of a homicidal offender and an immoral traffic offender, will bring out the fundamental variations in the nature of offence, the circumstantial differences in the commission of crime, the period of sentencing and so on. In recognition of these differences, the respondents have been categorized on the basis of crime types for the purpose of bringing out the inherent background variations of each group.

The Table – VIII and Figure – 4 shows the classification of convicted prisoners.

**TABLE – VIII**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF CONVICTED PRISONERS**

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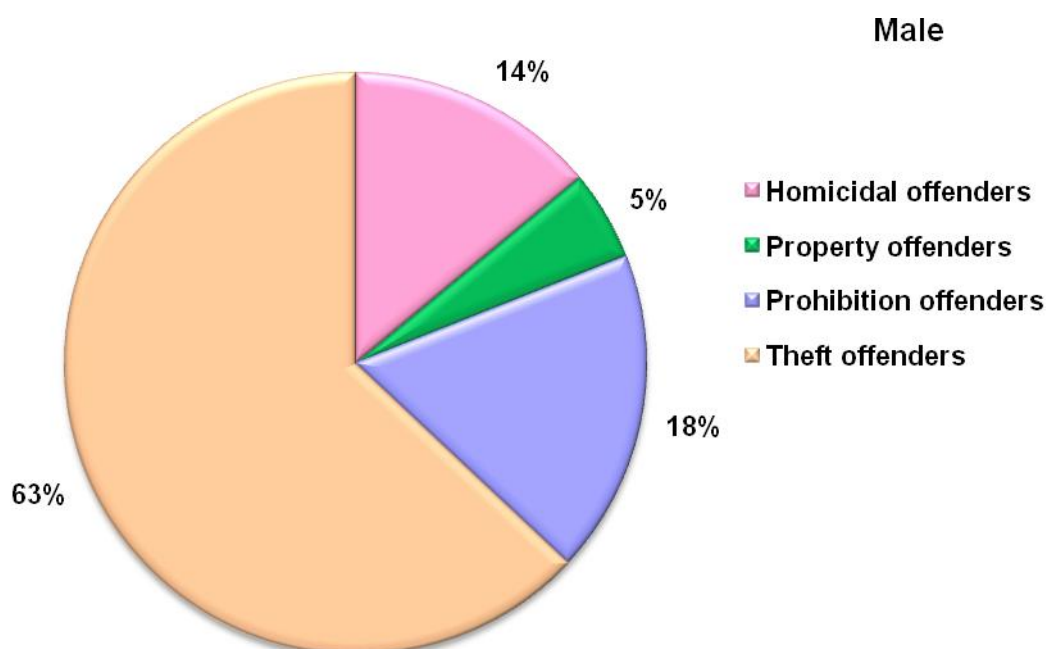
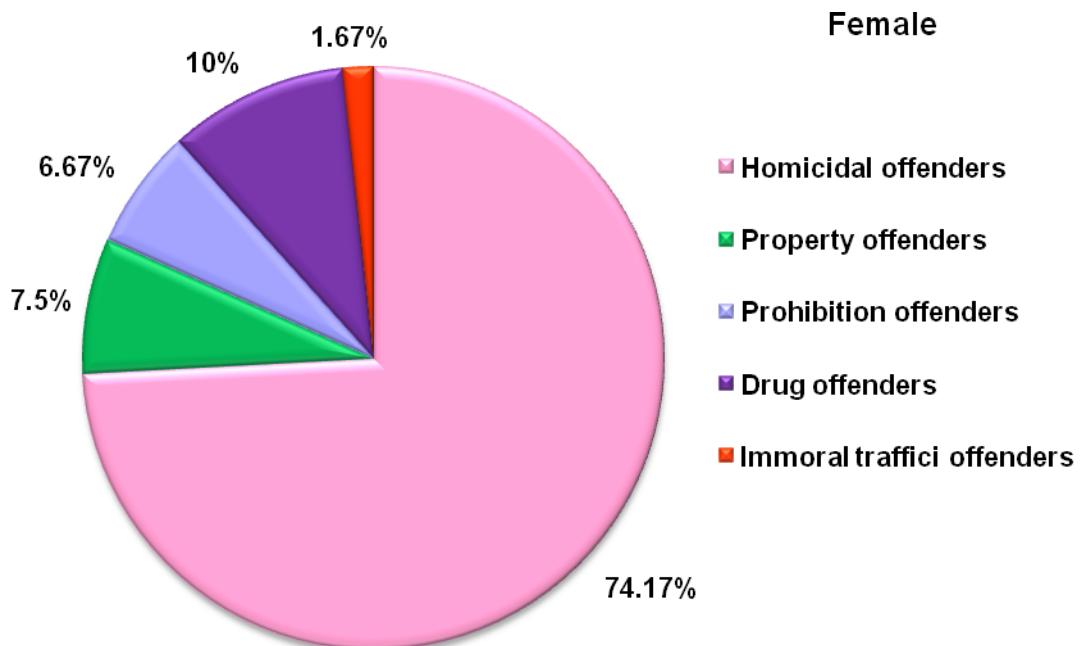
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Types of crime committed	Number of convicted prisoners				Total	
	Female		Male			
Homicidal offenders	89 (74.17)	(76.07)	28 (14.00)	(23.93)	117 (36.56)	(100.00)
Property offenders	9 (7.50)	(47.37)	10 (5.00)	(52.63)	19 (5.94)	(100.00)
Prohibition offenders	8 (6.67)	(18.18)	36 (18.00)	(81.82)	44 (13.75)	(100.00)
Drug offenders	12 (10.00)	(100.00)	-	-	12 (3.75)	(100.00)
Immoral traffic offenders	2 (1.67)	(100.00)	-	-	2 (0.62)	(100.00)
Theft offenders	-		126 (63.00)	(100.00)	126 (39.37)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(37.5)</b>	<b>200</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – VIII, shows that from the 120 female convicted prisoners, a majority of 74.17 per cent comes under the category of homicidal offenders,

**FIGURE – 4**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF CONVICTED PRISONERS**



10 per cent were drug offenders, 7.5 per cent were property offenders, 6.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and only 1.67 per cent of the female convicted prisoners committed immoral traffic offence. None of the female convicts committed theft offence. From the 200 male prisoners, a majority of them (63 per cent) of convicted come under the category of theft offence, 18 per cent of the male convicts were prohibition offenders and 14 per cent of the male convicted prisoners comes under the category of homicidal offenders. Only five per cent were property offenders. None of the convicted male prisoners involved in drug and immoral traffic offences. From 117 homicidal offenders, 76.07 per cent were female offenders and 23.93 per cent were male offenders. Among the 19 property offenders, 47.37 per cent were female offenders and 52.63 per cent were male offenders. Among the 44 prohibition offenders, 18.18 per cent were female offenders and 81.82 per cent were male offenders. Among the 12 drug offenders, 100 per cent were female offenders. Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were female offenders and among the 126 theft offenders, 100 per cent were male offenders.

Comparatively, among the 117 homicidal offenders, 89 were female offenders and 28 were male offenders. This shows homicidal offenders were very common among female convicts. Regarding property offenders, prohibition offenders and theft offenders, male offenders are more in the sample. Only female offenders committed drug offences and immoral traffic offences.

#### **4.5.2 Age**

The age of the offender is recorded by the police routinely at the time of arrest. Usually the nature of crime committed by the offenders depends upon the age at which it was committed.

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Table – IX and Figure – 5 shows the age distribution of female respondents by the type of crime.

**TABLE – IX**  
**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME**

Age distribution	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
20 – 25	3 (60.00) (3.37)	2 (40.00) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	5 (100.00) (4.17)
25 – 30	11 (84.61) (12.36)	2 (15.38) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
30 – 35	17 (85.00) (19.10)	1 (5.00) (11.11)	0 (0.00)	2 (10.00) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	20 (100.00) (16.67)
35 – 40	14 (70.00) (15.73)	0 (0.00)	2 (10.00) (25.00)	4 (20.00) (33.33)	0 (0.00)	20 (100.00) (16.67)
40 – 45	9 (60.00) (10.11)	2 (13.33) (22.22)	2 (13.33) (25.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (13.33) (100.00)	15 (100.00) (12.05)
45 – 50	10 (83.33) (11.24)	0 (0.00)	2 (16.67) (25.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	12 (100.00) (10.00)
50 – 55	3 (60.00) (3.37)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (40.00) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	5 (100.00) (4.17)
55 – 60	7 (77.78) (7.87)	2 (22.22) (22.22)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	9 (100.00) (7.5)
60 – 65	9 (69.23) (10.11)	0 (0.00)	2 (15.38) (25.00)	2 (15.38) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
65 – 70	4 (66.67) (4.49)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (33.33) (16.67)	0 (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
70 – 75	0 (0.00) (10.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (100.00) (0.00)
75 – 80	2 (100.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (100.00) (1.67)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Usually the age of the prisoners is taken into account to decide the prison in which they will be imprisoned. For the offenders who are below and above 12 years, juvenile home is the place where they are kept. The offenders between 12 and 18 years are kept in juvenile prisons constructed

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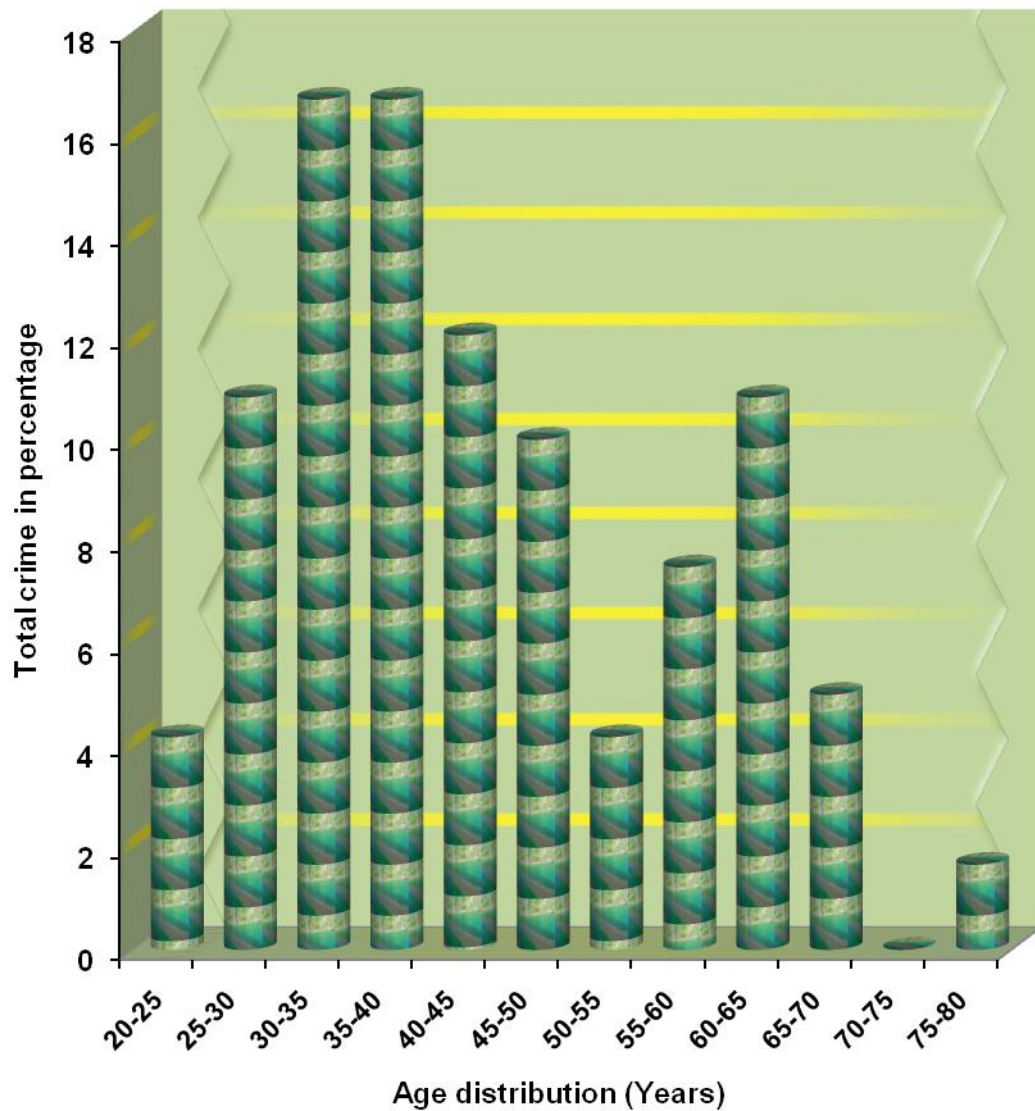
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for the purpose so as to give them proper education to reform themselves. The offenders above 18 years only are kept in the central prison.

It is observed from the Table – IX, that among the 89 female homicidal offenders, only 3.37 per cent were in the age group of 20-25 years and

**FIGURE – 5**  
**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME**



68.54 per cent of the female homicidal offenders belonged to the age category of 25-50 years. The remaining 28.09 per cent of the female

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homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 50-80 years. And no female in the age group of 70-75 years were involved in the homicidal offences.

Among the nine female property offenders, 55.55 per cent belonged to the age group of 20-35 years and 22.22 per cent belonged to 40-45 years and 55-60 years. None of the female property offenders belonged to the age group of 35-40 years or 45-55 years or 60-80 years.

From the eight female prohibition offenders, majority of the 75 per cent belonged to the age category of 35-50 years and the remaining 25 per cent were in the age group of 60-65 years. From the 12 female drug offenders, 50 per cent of the respondents belonged to the age group of 30-45 years, 16.67 per cent of the female respondents were in the age group of 50-55 years and 33.34 per cent of the female drug offenders belonged to the age group of 60-70 years. From two female immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were from 40-45 years.

From the five female offenders involved in the age group of 20-25 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders and 40 per cent were property offenders. None of them were prohibition offenders, drug offenders or immoral traffic offenders. From the 13 female offenders in the age group of 25-30 years, 84.61 per cent were homicidal offenders and 15.38 per cent were property offenders. None of them in the age group of 25-30 years were prohibition offenders, drug offenders or immoral traffic offenders.

From 20 female offenders in the age group of 30-35 years, 85 per cent were homicidal offenders, five per cent were property offenders and 10 per cent were drug offenders. None of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders belonged to the age group of 30-35 years. Among the 20 female offenders in the age group of 35-40 years, 70 per cent were homicidal offenders ; 10 per cent were prohibition offenders and 20 per cent were drug

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offenders. None of the property and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 35-40 years. Among the 15 female offenders in the age group of 40-45 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders, 13.33 per cent were property offenders, 13.33 per cent were prohibition offenders, and 13.33 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the drug offenders were in the age group of 40-45 years.

Among the 12 female offenders of 45-50 years, 83.33 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 16.67 per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the property offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 45-50 years. From the five female offenders in the age group of 50-55 years, 60 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 40 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 50-55 years.

Among the nine female offenders from 55-60 years, 77.78 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 22.22 per cent were property offenders. None of the prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 55-60 years. Among the 13 female offenders in the age group of 60-65 years, 69.23 per cent were homicidal offenders, 15.38 per cent were prohibition offenders and 15.38 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 60-65 years. Among the six female offenders in the age group of 65-70 years, 66.67 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 33.33 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders in the age group of 60-70 years.

Among the female offenders, none of the offenders were involved in any offence in the age group of 70-75 years. From two female offenders in the age group of 75-80 years, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were in the age group of 75-80 years. From the 120 convicted female offenders, 4.17 per cent belonged to the age category of 20-25 years, 66.22 per cent of the female offenders belonged to 25-50 years and 27.5 per cent of the female offenders belonged to the age group of 50-70 years. Only 1.67 per cent belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. None of the female offenders committed the crime in the age group of 70-75 years.

This shows that majority of the female prisoners between 25 and 50 years of age commit crimes. As they grow older, they did not want to involve in the risk of arrest.

The analysis of variance for testing the mean age of the female offenders is shown in Table – X.

**TABLE – X**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN AGE OF THE**  
**FEMALE OFFENDERS**

Group	Age of the offenders		F Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	42.112	13.7357	0.1732
Other offenders	43.1935	13.2901	

Source : Prison Survey.

The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower age group when compared to

other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

Table – XI and Figure – 6 shows the age distribution of male respondents by the type of crime.

**TABLE – XI**  
**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME**

Age distribution (years)	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
20 – 25	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (8.33)	(9.37)	29 (18.25)	(90.63)	32 (16.00)	(100.00)
25 – 30	8 (28.57)	(17.39)	1 (10.00)	(2.17)	9 (25.00)	(19.56)	28 (22.22)	(60.87)	46 (23.00)	(100.00)
30 – 35	7 (25.00)	(23.33)	2 (20.00)	(6.67)	5 (13.89)	(16.67)	16 (12.70)	(53.33)	30 (15.00)	(100.00)
35 – 40	7 (25.00)	(15.22)	4 (40.00)	(8.69)	9 (25.00)	(19.56)	26 (20.63)	(56.52)	46 (23.00)	(100.00)
40 – 45	1 (3.57)	(6.25)	1 (10.00)	(6.25)	2 (5.56)	(12.50)	12 (9.52)	(75.00)	16 (8.00)	(100.00)
45 – 50	2 (7.14)	(15.38)	1 (10.00)	(7.69)	5 (13.89)	(38.46)	5 (3.97)	(38.46)	13 (6.50)	(100.00)
50 – 55	2 (7.14)	(33.33)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (8.33)	(50.00)	1 (0.79)	(1.67)	6 (3.00)	(100.00)
55 – 60	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	4 (3.17)	(100.00)	4 (2.00)	(100.00)
60 – 65	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(100.00)	1 (0.5)	(100.00)
65 – 70	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (2.38)	(100.00)	3 (1.5)	(100.00)
70 – 75	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (10.00)	(50.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(50.00)	2 (1.0)	(100.00)

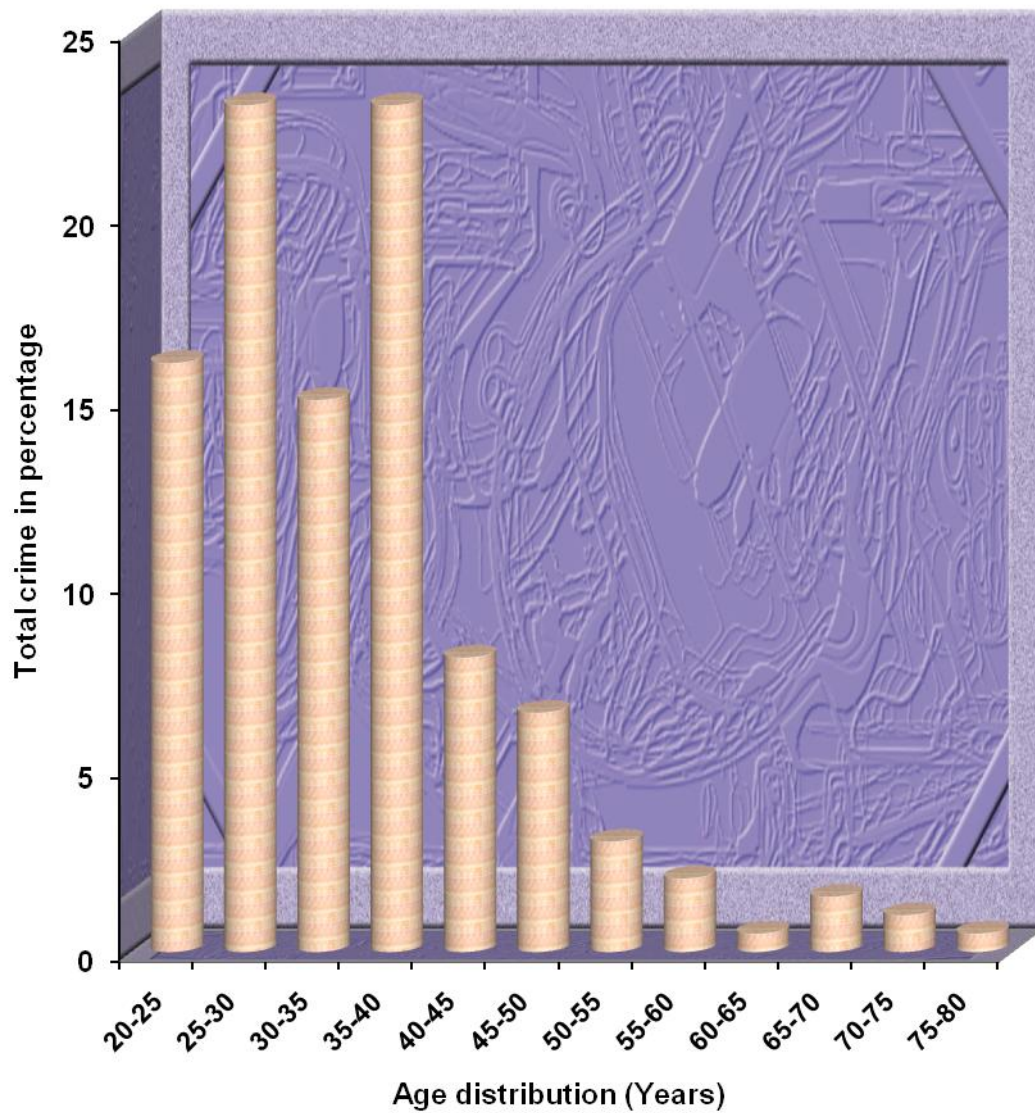
75 – 80	1 (100.00) (3.57)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	1 (100.00) (0.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XI, reveals that among the 28 male homicidal offenders, none of them belonged to the age category of 20-25 years and 96.42 per cent of the male homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 25-55 years. Only 3.57 per cent of the male homicidal offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. None of the male homicidal offenders were in the age group of 55-75 years. Among the 10 male property offenders, none of the male

**FIGURE – 6**  
**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY THE TYPE OF CRIME**





property offenders belonged to the age group of 20-25 years and 90 per cent of the male property offenders were in the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 10 per cent of the male property offenders belonged to 70-75 years. None of the male property offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years.

Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 8.33 per cent were in the age group of 20-25 years and 91.67 per cent of the male prohibition offenders were in the age group of 25-60 years. None of the male prohibition offenders belonged to 55-80 years. Among the 126 male theft offenders, 18.25 per cent of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 20-25 years, 69.04 per cent of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 25-50 years and 7.92 per cent of the male theft offenders were in the age group of 50-75 years. None of the male theft offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years.

Among the 32 male offenders in the age group of 20-25 years, 90.63 per cent were theft offenders and the remaining 9.37 per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the homicidal and property offenders involved were in the age group of 20-25 years. From the 46 male offenders in the age group of 25-30 years, 17.39 per cent were homicidal offenders, 2.17 per cent were property offenders, 19.56 per cent were prohibition offenders and 60.87 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 30 male offenders in the age group of 30-35 years, 23.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.67 per cent were property offenders, 16.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and 53.33 per cent were theft offenders.

From the 46 male offenders in the age group of 35-40 years, 15.22 per cent were homicidal offenders, 8.69 per cent were property offenders, 19.56 per cent were prohibition offenders and 56.52 per cent were theft offenders.

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Among the 16 male offenders in the age group of 40-45 years, 6.25 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.25 per cent were property offenders, 12.5 per cent were prohibition offenders and 75 per cent were theft offenders. From the 13 male offenders in the age group of 45-50 years, 15.38 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.69 per cent were property offenders, 38.46 per cent were prohibition offenders and 38.46 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the six male offenders in the age group of 50-55 years, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 50 per cent were prohibition offenders and 1.67 per cent were theft offenders. None of the male property offenders belonged to the age group of 50-55 years. From four male offenders in the age group of 55-60 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of the homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders belonged to the age group of 55-60 years. From the only one male offender in the age group of 60-65 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of them belonged to homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders in the age group of 60-65 years.

Among the three male offenders in the age group of 65-70 years, 100 per cent were theft offenders. None of them were homicidal offenders, property offenders and prohibition offenders in the age group of 65-70 years. From the two male offenders in the age group of 70-75 years, 50 per cent were property offenders and the remaining 50 per cent were theft offenders. None of the homicidal and prohibition offenders were belonged to the age group of 70-75 years. From the one male offender in the age group of 75-80 years, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property, prohibition and theft offenders belonged to the age group of 75-80 years. From the 200 male offenders, 16 per cent belonged to 20-25 years and 75.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 8.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 50-80 years.

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The following Table – XII shows analysis of variance for testing the mean age of the male offenders.

**TABLE – XII**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN AGE**  
**OF THE MALE OFFENDERS**

Group	Age of the offenders		'F' Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	36.0357	10.4580	1.2521
Other offenders	33.5988	10.7277	

The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a higher age group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant differences in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

A comparative analysis of the age at which the offender committed the crime indicates that 66.22 per cent of the female offenders and 75.5 per cent of the male offenders committed crime in the age group of 25-50 years. This shows that both women and men commit crime only when they are young. As they advance in their age they seem to hesitate to indulge in crime. These results more or less confirm the findings of the Central Bureau of Correctional Services in India (Government of India, 1972 : 42) which found that majority of the convictions are in the age group of 21-50 years both among the female (72 per cent) and male (67 per cent) offenders. This disproves the hypothesis, that there is no association between the age group of the female offenders

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and their nature of offence and the male offenders and their nature of offence, because in the sample crimes are committed mainly between age groups of 25-50 years.

#### 4.5.3 Marital Status

In the highly traditional society women and men derive their status primarily from their husbands and wives and the number of children they have. Therefore their marital status has much to do with their sense of stability. Women who are unmarried, married, widowed, separated or divorced are inevitably marginalized in a society, where their primary identity is that of a wife and mother. The marital status of the respondents is therefore of relevance and interest to the present study. The Table – XIII and Figure – 7 shows the marital status of the female respondents.

**TABLE – XIII**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS**

Marital status	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Unmarried	3 (50.00) (3.37)	3 (50.00) (33.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
Married	68 (74.72) (76.40)	6 (6.59) (66.67)	6 (6.59) (75.00)	9 (9.89) (75.00)	2 (2.19) (100.00)	91 (100.00) (75.83)
Widowed	13 (81.25) (14.61)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (12.5) (25.00)	1 (6.25) (8.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	16 (100.00) (13.33)
Separated	4 (100.00) (4.49)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)
Divorced	1 (33.33) (1.12)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (66.67) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	3 (100.00) (2.5)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

It is evident from the Table – XIII, that the marital status of the female offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident 75.83 per

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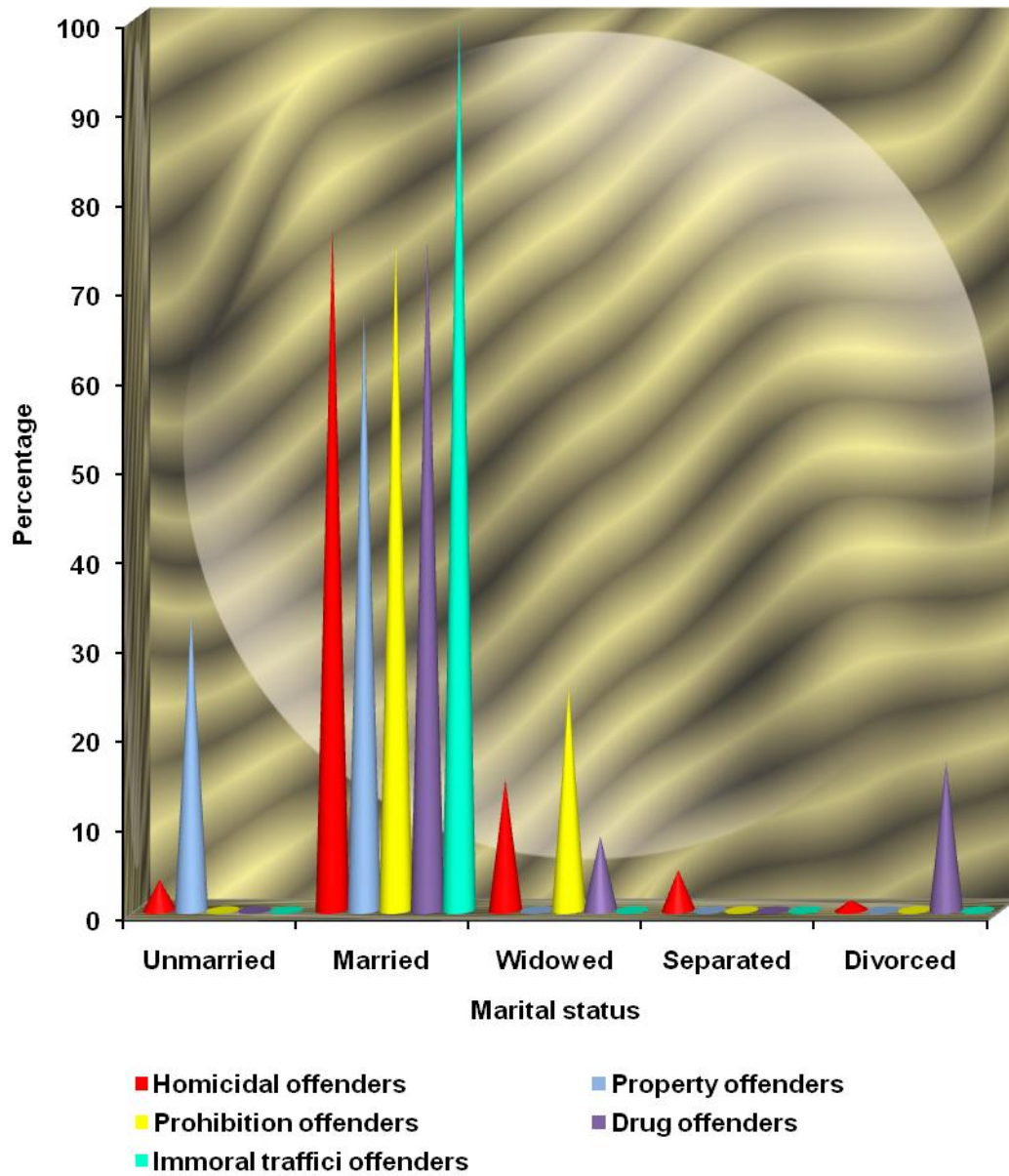
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cent of the female offenders were married, among the rest 13.33 per cent were widowed, 3.33 per cent were separated, five per cent were unmarried and the remaining 2.5 per cent were divorced. Among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 3.37 per cent were unmarried, 76.4 per cent were married, 14.61 per cent were widowed, 4.49 per cent were separated and only 1.12 per cent were divorced.

From the nine female property offenders, 33.33 per cent were unmarried and 66.67 per cent were married. None of the female property offenders were widowed, separated or divorced. Among the eight prohibition offenders, 75 per cent were married and the remaining 25 per cent were

**FIGURE – 7**

**DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS**



widowed. None of the female prohibition offenders were unmarried, separated or divorced. Among the 12 female drug offenders, 75 per cent were married, 8.33 per cent were widowed and 16.67 per cent were divorced. None of the female drug offenders were unmarried or separated. From the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were married. None of the female immoral traffic offenders were unmarried, widowed, separated or divorced.

From the six unmarried female offenders, 50 per cent were homicidal offenders and the remaining 50 per cent were property offenders. None of the female unmarried offenders involved themselves in prohibition offence, drug offence or immoral traffic offence. Among the 91 female married offenders, 74.72 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.59 per cent were property offenders, 6.59 per cent were prohibition offenders, 9.89 per cent were drug offenders and 2.19 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. From the 16 widowed female offenders, 81.25 per cent were homicidal offenders, 12.5 per cent were prohibition offenders, 6.25 per cent were drug offenders, and none of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were widowed. Among four separated female offenders, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the separated female offenders were involved in property, prohibition, drug or immoral traffic offence.

From the three divorced female offenders, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders and 66.67 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property, prohibition or immoral traffic offenders were divorced. This proves that married females commit crime more than the females belonging to other category. Marriage by itself cannot guarantee stability or protection from crime. Many sociological enquiries (Prasad, 1982 ; Nagla, 1982 and Rani, 1983), suggest that it is the married women who are more vulnerable to crime,

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than their unmarried counterparts because they have to cope with highly stressful family situations.

The marital status of the male respondents is given in Table – XIV and Figure – 8.

**TABLE – XIV**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS**

Marital status	Homicidal offenders		Property offenders		Prohibition offenders		Theft offenders		Total	
Unmarried	3	(4.54)	4	(6.06)	15	(22.73)	44	(66.67)	66	(100.00)
Married	25	(89.29)	6	(60.00)	21	(58.33)	82	(65.19)	134	(67.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>(100.00)</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>(5.00)</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>(18.00)</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>(63.00)</b>	<b>200</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

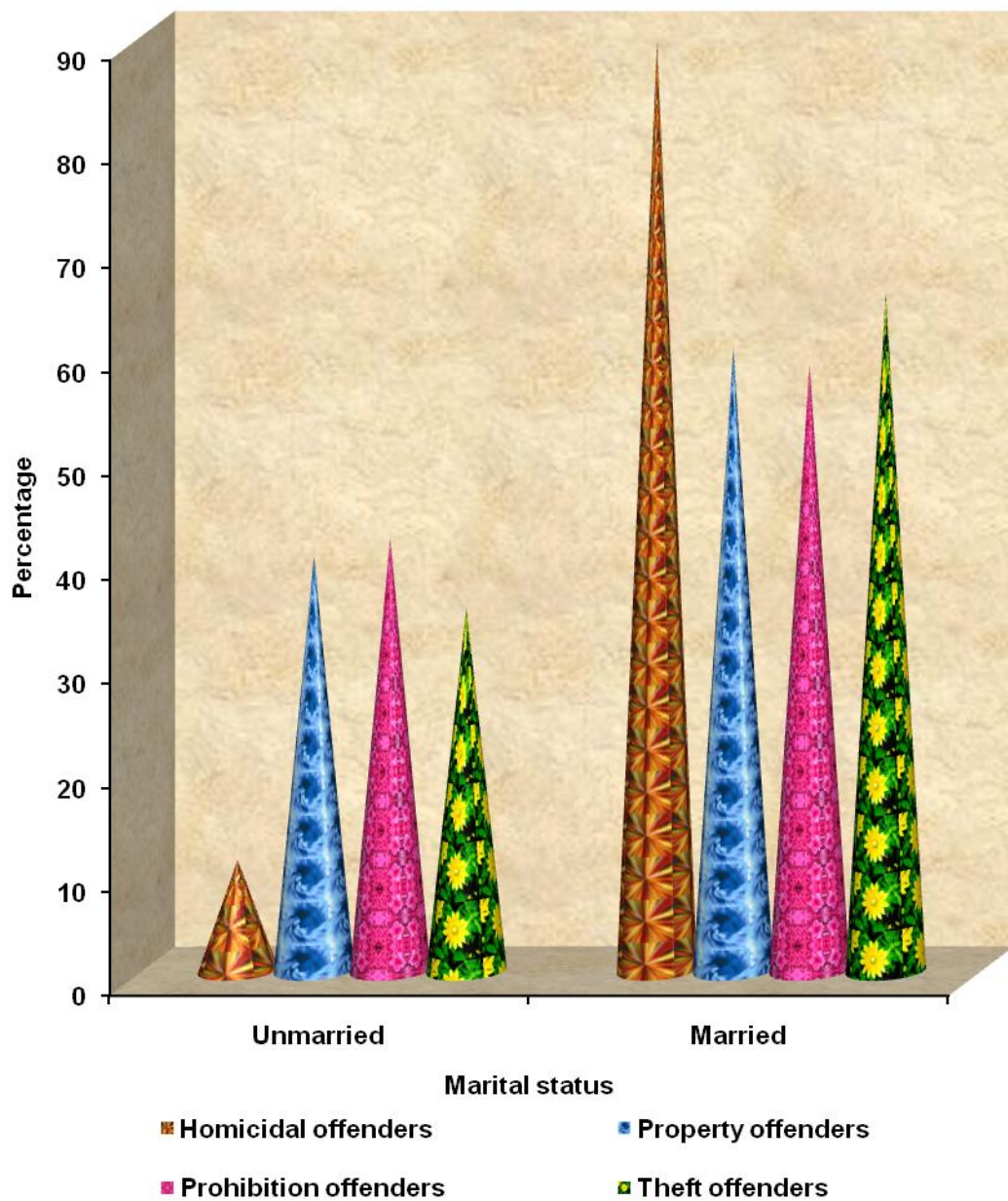
The Table – XIV shows that the marital status of male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident, 67 per cent of the offenders were married and the remaining 33 per cent remain unmarried.

Among the 28 homicidal male offenders, 89.29 per cent were married and the remaining 10.71 per cent were unmarried. From the 10 property offenders, 60 per cent were married and the 40 per cent were unmarried. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 58.33 per cent were married and the remaining 41.67 per cent were unmarried. From the 126 theft offenders, 65.19 per cent were married and 34.92 per cent remain unmarried.

From the 66 unmarried male offenders, 4.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.06 per cent were property offenders, 22.73 per cent were prohibition offenders and 66.67 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the 134 married male offenders, 18.66 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.48 per cent were property offenders, 15.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and 61.19 per cent were the theft offenders. Even among the men prisoners, it was the married prisoners who were involved in more crimes than the unmarried prisoners. Comparatively, the committance of crime is more among married women and men than the unmarried.

**FIGURE – 8**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY MARITAL STATUS**



#### 4.5.4 Caste

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In India, caste is an important indicator of a person's social status. Economic status is another factor which is universally correlated with official measures of crime. The poor are known to be arrested as well as convicted in large numbers when compared to the affluent not only because of selective processing, but also due to their intertwined low economic and social status, which can serve as inducers of criminality. In the sample, majority of the convicts belonged to backward castes.

Table – XV and Figure – 9 shows the distribution of the offenders' population by caste.

**TABLE – XV**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENDERS POPULATION BY CASTE**

<b>Caste</b>	<b>Number of female offenders</b>		<b>Number of male offenders</b>		<b>Total</b>	
Ritually high caste	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	2 (1.00)	(100.00)	2 (0.62)	(100.00)
Upper peasant caste	4 (13.33)	(13.33)	26 (13.00)	(86.67)	30 (9.37)	(100.00)
Backward caste	63 (52.50)	(38.41)	101 (50.50)	(61.59)	164 (51.25)	(100.00)
Scheduled caste	44 (36.67)	(40.74)	64 (32.00)	(59.25)	108 (33.75)	(100.00)
Scheduled tribe	1 (0.83)	(20.00)	4 (2.00)	(80.00)	5 (1.56)	(100.00)
Miscellaneous	8 (6.67)	(72.72)	3 (1.50)	(27.27)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120 (100.00)</b>	<b>(37.50)</b>	<b>200 (100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320 (100.00)</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

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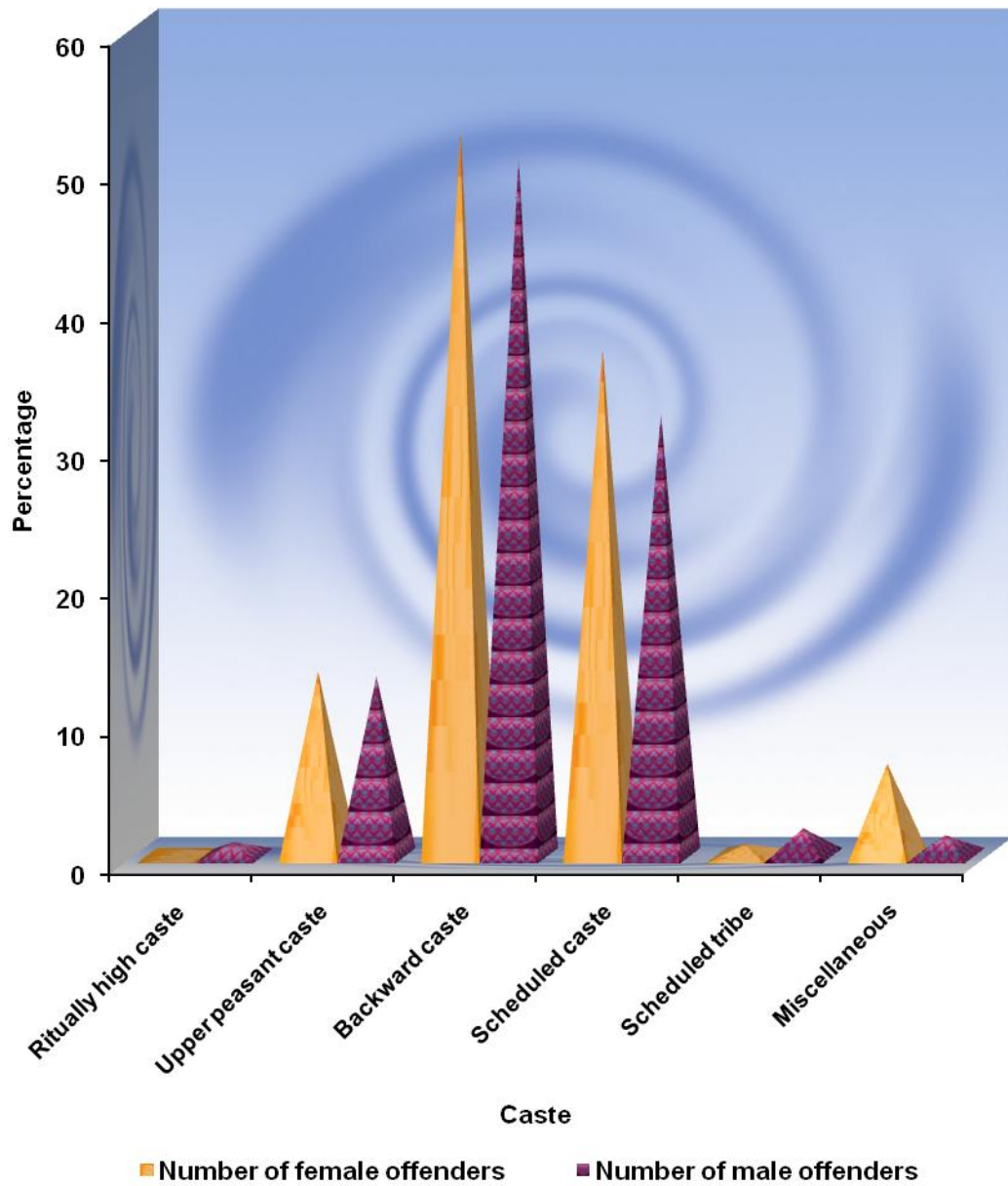
**FIGURE – 9**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENDERS POPULATION BY CASTE**

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From the Table – XV, the distribution of offenders population shows a high representation of the backward castes, 52.5 per cent of the female population and 50.5 per cent of the male population respectively.

Among the 120 female offenders, 13.33 per cent belonged to upper peasant caste, 36.67 per cent belonged to scheduled caste, 0.83 per cent belonged to scheduled tribe and the remaining 6.67 per cent were belonged to miscellaneous category. None of the female offenders belonged to ritually high caste.

Among the male offenders the same trend is visualized, 50.5 per cent of the male offenders belonged to backward caste, 32 per cent belonged to scheduled caste, two per cent belonged schedule tribe and 13 per cent belonged to upper peasant caste. Only one per cent of the male offenders belonged to ritually high caste and 1.5 per cent belonged to miscellaneous castes. As in a class stratification, the class system in India creates a chasm between groups where the upper castes can and do victimize the backward castes. Misuse of law and judicial processes against the backward castes lead to backward caste women and men to go against law and commit crime.

#### **4.5.5 Education**

The importance of education for opening new horizons and linking people to the larger society hardly needs to be stressed. At the individual level, the person's ability and capacity to cope with life and enhanced education instill a sense of self-worth and adequacy in the person. Though illiteracy cannot be linked to criminality, the ability of education to act as a mitigating factor to cope with adverse circumstances as well as to foresee consequences of action cannot be underestimated.

The Table – XVI and Figure – 10 shows the educational level of female respondents.

**TABLE – XVI**  
**EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS**

<b>Educational level</b>	<b>Homicidal offenders</b>	<b>Property offenders</b>	<b>Prohibition offenders</b>	<b>Drug offenders</b>	<b>Immoral traffic offenders</b>	<b>Total</b>
Illiterate	51 (73.91) (57.30)	5 (7.25) (55.56)	4 (5.79) (50.00)	9 (13.04) (75.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	69 (100.00) (57.5)
Primary	14 (82.35) (15.73)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (11.76) (25.00)	1 (5.88) (8.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	17 (100.00) (14.17)
Middle	18 (81.81) (20.22)	2 (9.09) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (9.09) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	22 (100.00) (18.33)
High	4 (50.00) (4.49)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (25.00) (25.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (25.00) (100.00)	8 (100.00) (6.67)
College	2 (50.00) (2.25)	2 (50.00) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XVI, reveals that in the 120 female offenders, 69 females were illiterates. This constitutes 57.5 per cent. Among the 69 female offenders, 73.91 per cent committed homicidal offences, 7.25 per cent committed property offences, 5.79 per cent committed prohibition offences and 13.04 per cent committed drug offences. Among the 17 female offenders, studied up to primary level, among them 82.35 per cent committed homicidal offences, 11.76 per cent committed prohibition offences and 5.88 per cent committed drug offences. None of them committed either property offences and immoral traffic offences. Among the 22 female offenders (18.33 per cent) of the total studied upto middle level. Among them 81.81 per cent were in homicidal offences, 9.09 per cent were property offenders, 9.09 per cent committed drug offences and they did not commit prohibition offences and

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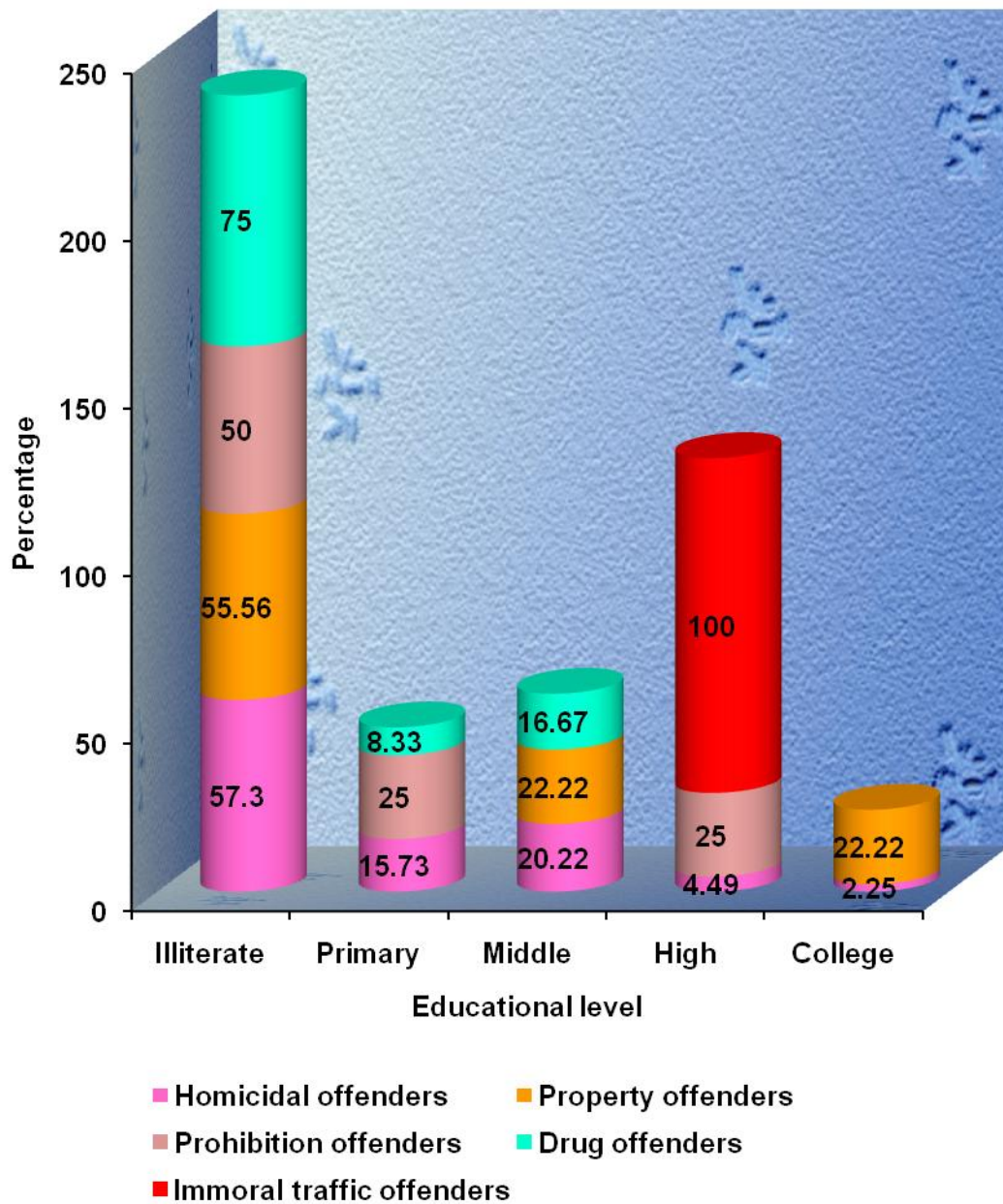
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immoral traffic offences. Eight female offenders studied upto high school level (6.67 per cent). Among them 50 per cent were homicidal offenders, 25 per cent committed prohibition offences and 25 per cent were in immoral traffic offences. This category did not commit property offences and drug offences. One important observation is that only in this category two female offenders committed immoral traffic offences. Four female offenders were college

**FIGURE – 10**  
**EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS**



educated among them 50 per cent committed homicidal offences and the other 50 per cent committed property offences. They did not commit other offences. In the total 120 female offenders, homicidal offenders form the majority (74.17 per cent) and only 1.67 per cent committed immoral traffic offences. Illiteracy combined with inadequate knowledge about the consequences of their act encouraged the female offenders to commit crimes.

The Table – XVII and Figure – 11 shows the educational level of male respondents.

**TABLE – XVII**  
**EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MALE RESPONDENTS**

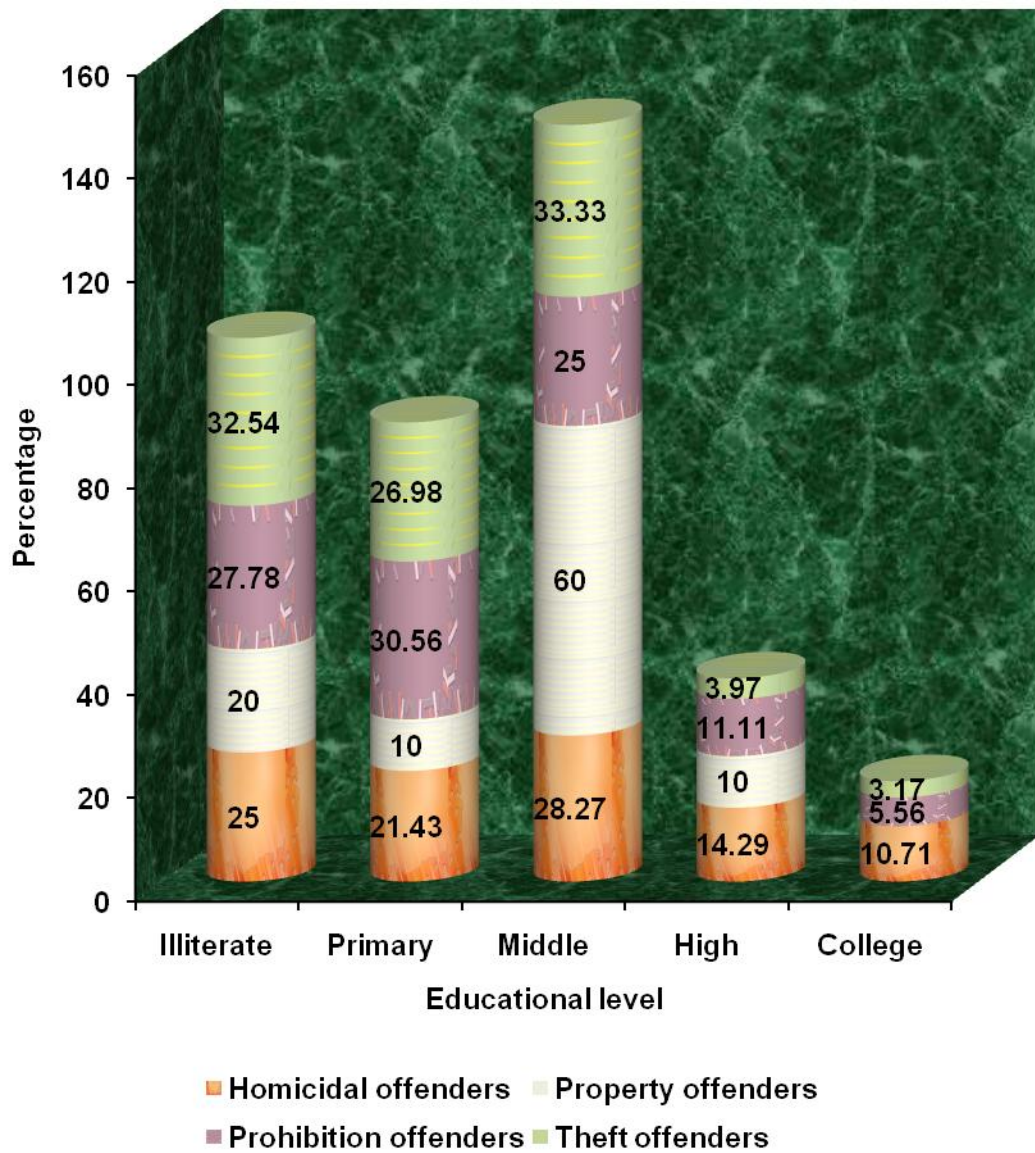
<b>Educational level</b>	<b>Homicidal offenders</b>		<b>Property offenders</b>		<b>Prohibition offenders</b>		<b>Theft offenders</b>		<b>Total</b>	
Illiterate	7 (25.00)	(11.67)	2 (20.00)	(3.33)	10 (27.78)	(16.67)	41 (32.54)	(68.33)	60 (30.00)	(100.00)
Primary	6 (21.43)	(11.54)	1 (10.00)	(1.92)	11 (30.56)	(21.15)	34 (26.98)	(65.38)	52 (26.00)	(100.00)
Middle	8 (28.27)	(12.31)	6 (60.00)	(9.23)	9 (25.00)	(13.85)	42 (33.33)	(64.61)	65 (32.50)	(100.00)
High	4 (14.29)	(28.57)	1 (10.00)	(7.14)	4 (11.11)	(28.57)	5 (3.97)	(35.71)	14 (7.00)	(100.00)
College	3 (10.71)	(33.33)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	2 (5.56)	(22.22)	4 (3.17)	(44.44)	9 (4.50)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(14.00)</b>	<b>10</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(5.00)</b>	<b>36</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(18.00)</b>	<b>126</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(63.00)</b>	<b>200</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – XVII, it is seen that majority 70 per cent of the male offenders were literates, only remaining 30 per cent of the offenders were illiterates. It shows entirely different results from the female population. Among the 60 illiterate male offenders (30 per cent), 11.67 per cent were homicidal offenders, 3.33 per cent were property offenders, 16.67 per cent

were prohibition offenders and 68.33 per cent were theft offenders. Among 52 male offenders (26 per cent) studied upto primary level, 11.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 1.92 per cent were property offenders, 21.15 per cent

**FIGURE – 11**  
**EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MALE RESPONDENTS**



were prohibition offenders and 65.38 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 65 male offenders (32.5 per cent) studied upto middle level, 12.31 per cent were homicidal offenders, 9.23 per cent were property offenders, 13.85 per cent were prohibition offenders and 64.61 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 14 male offenders (7 per cent) studied upto high school level, among them 28.57 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.14 per cent were property offenders, 28.57 per cent were prohibition offenders and 35.71 per cent were theft offenders. Among the nine male offenders (4.5 per cent) were educated upto college level, 33.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 22.22 per cent were prohibition offenders and 44.44 per cent were theft offenders. None of the college educated male offenders committed the property offence.

Comparatively, female illiterates committed more crimes than men. Among men, the offenders who were educated upto primary and middle level committed more crimes. It supports the findings of Freeman (1991), (1986), Ehrlich (1975) and Witte and Tauchen (1994), which states that the criminal tend to be less educated and from poorer background than non criminals. Majority of them are illiterates and the persons with higher educational levels have lower incidence of crime mainly because higher average levels of education may be associated with less under reporting of crimes. Higher educational level with wealthier background allows the offenders to escape from the law even if they commit the crime.

#### **4.5.6 Reasons given by the School Drop Outs**

Education is supposed to inculcate values among men and women. Since majority of the convicts were illiterates, efforts are taken to find out the reason for their dropping out from the school. The greatest number of respondents attributed it to financial constraints followed by assisting parents

at home, their own lack of interest, distance to school, puberty, early marriage, undertaking some training and no answer.

Table – XVIII and Figure – 12 shows the respondents' reasons for dropping out of school.

**TABLE – XVIII**  
**REASONS FOR SCHOOL DROP OUT FOR RESPONDENTS**

Reasons	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Financial constraints	34 (28.33)	(64.15)	19 (9.5)	(35.85)	53 (16.56)	(100.00)
To assist parents	24 (20.00)	(61.53)	63 (31.5)	(38.46)	87 (27.18)	(100.00)
Respondents lack of interest	20 (16.67)	(44.44)	25 (12.5)	(55.56)	45 (14.06)	(100.00)
Parents lack of interest	12 (10.00)	(44.44)	15 (7.5)	(55.56)	27 (8.44)	(100.00)
Distance to school	12 (10.00)	(41.38)	17 (8.5)	(58.62)	29 (9.06)	(100.00)
Puberty	10 (8.33)	(100.00)	-	-	10 (3.12)	(100.00)
Early marriage	7 (5.83)	(100.00)	-	-	7 (2.19)	(100.00)
To undertake some training	-		29 (14.5)	(100.00)	29 (9.06)	(100.00)
No answer	1 (0.83)	(3.03)	32 (16.0)	(96.97)	33 (10.31)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120 (100.00)</b>	<b>(37.50)</b>	<b>200 (100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320 (100.00)</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

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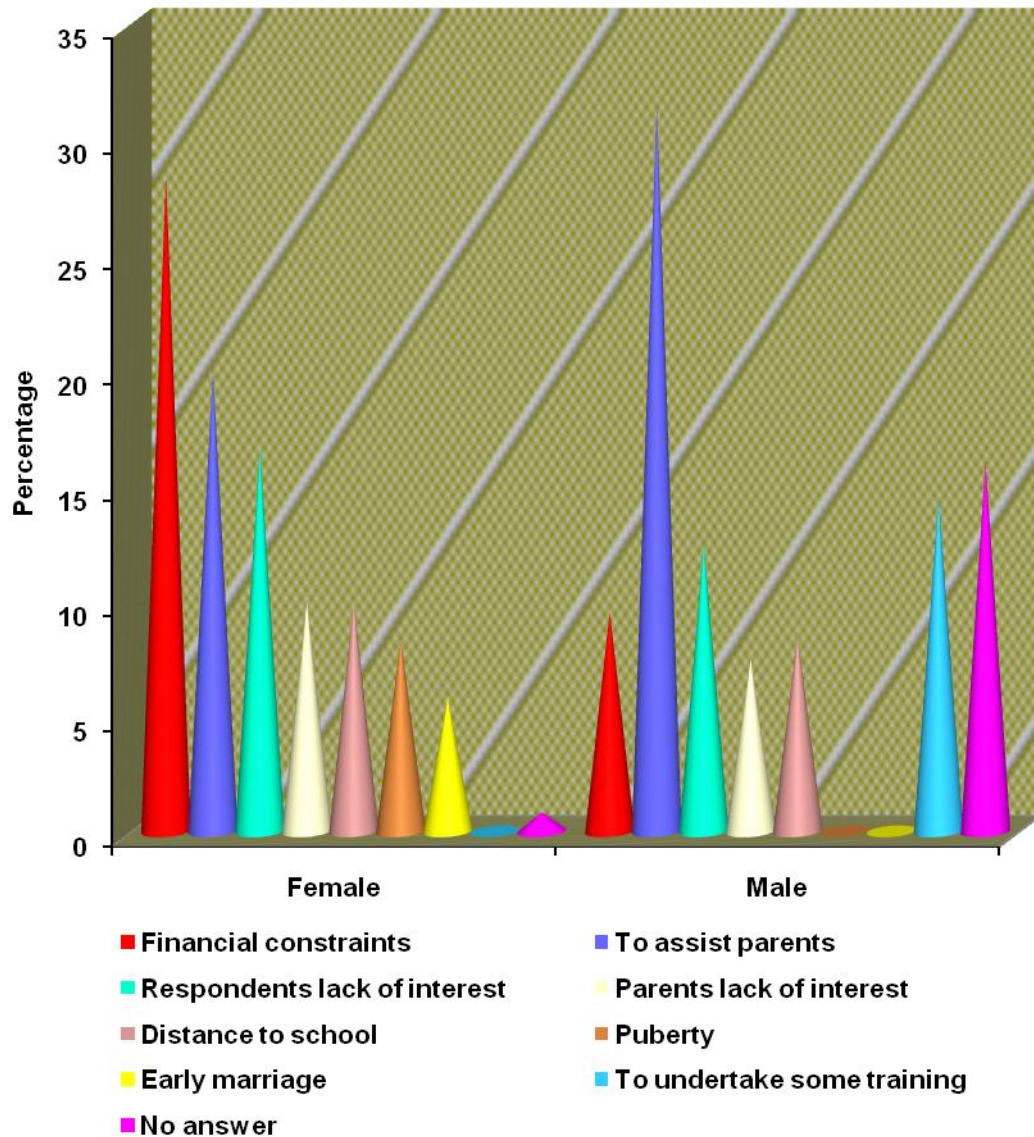
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Table – XVIII shows that, among the 53 respondents (16.56 per cent), 64.15 per cent of the female respondents and 35.85 per cent of the male respondents had dropped out from the school due to financial constraints, though free-education plan is implemented, students required financial help for books, dress, food and transport. The second important reason from the

**FIGURE – 12**

**REASONS FOR SCHOOL DROP OUT FOR RESPONDENTS**





drop outs was to assist parents, among 87 respondents (27.18 per cent), 61.53 per cent were female offenders and 38.46 per cent were male offenders. From the 45 respondents (14.06 per cent), 44.44 per cent of the female respondents and 55.56 per cent of the male respondents did not had interest in education. Among the 27 respondents (8.44 per cent), the parents of 44.44 per cent of the female respondents and 55.56 per cent of the male respondents did not take interest to send them to school.

Among the 29 respondents (9.06 per cent), 41.38 per cent of the female respondents and 58.62 per cent of the male respondents were denied school education due to the distance, because they have to travel a long distance to reach the school. Among 10 female respondents (3.12 per cent), 100 per cent of the female respondents dropped out because of the attainment of puberty. Among the seven female respondents (2.19 per cent), 100 per cent were denied school education due to early marriage.

Among the 29 male respondents (9.06 per cent), 100 per cent dropped out of school to undertake some training. From the 33 respondents (10.31 per cent), 3.03 per cent of the female respondents and 96.97 per cent of the male respondents did not give any reason for their dropping out of school.

From the 120 female offenders, 28.33 per cent of the respondents were denied school education due to financial constraints, 20 per cent dropped out of their schools to assist parents, 16.67 per cent were not interested in education and 10 per cent of the respondents' parents were not interested in education. Being girl child 10 per cent of the female respondents were denied school education due to longer distance. The rest of the reasons mentioned by female offenders were attainment of puberty (8.33 per cent), early marriage (5.83 per cent) and (0.83 per cent) of the female respondents did not give any reason for dropping out of school.

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Among the 200 male respondents, 9.5 per cent were denied their education in schools due to financial constraints, 31.5 per cent dropped out to assist parents and 12.6 per cent of the male respondents were not interested in studies. Parents of the 7.5 per cent of the male respondents had no interest in education, 8.5 per cent of the male respondents were denied their education in schools because they have to travel a long distance, 14.5 per cent of the respondents denied their schools to undertake some training and 16 per cent of the respondents did not mention any reason for their dropping out.

Lack of proper guidance through education may be one of the reasons for committing crime. Education is denied for girl child particularly among the lower poor community. This is in confirmation with the findings of Patel (1982) which states that assisting parents at home is especially significant for girl children because certain gender specific household jobs like caring for younger children, carrying water, fetching fire wood and cowdung, cleaning cattle shed, making dung cakes, chaffing, pounding, picking stones from grains, kitchen gardening, household poultry, sewing, etc. are usually entrusted to girls in many rural Indian households.

Comparatively, female offenders were denied education due to financial constraints, and assisting the parents is the major cause of school drop outs by the male offenders.

#### **4.5.7 Residential Background**

The residential background of the respondents is relevant to an understanding of female and male criminal behavior because of the distinct differences in the way of life in a city and village. Consequently, there are differences in the opportunities available and restraints imposed on women

and men, for deviant and non-deviant activities. Table – XIX and Figure – 13 shows residential background of female respondents.

**TABLE – XIX**  
**RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS**

Area	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Rural	34 (75.56) (38.20)	3 (6.67) (33.33)	4 (8.89) (50.00)	2 (4.44) (16.67)	2 (4.44) (100.00)	45 (100.00) (37.50)
Semi-urban	26 (74.28) (29.21)	2 (5.71) (22.22)	4 (11.43) (50.00)	3 (8.57) (25.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	35 (100.00) (29.17)
Urban	29 (72.50) (32.58)	4 (10.00) (44.44)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (17.50) (58.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	40 (100.00) (33.33)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

The data reveals that, from the 120 female offenders, 37.5 per cent resided in rural and 33.33 per cent in urban areas. Only 29.17 per cent respondents came from semi-urban area. Among the 45 female respondents resided in rural area, 75.56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.67 per cent were property offenders, 8.89 per cent were prohibition offenders, 4.44 per cent were drug offenders and 4.44 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. From the 35 female respondents from semi-urban area, 74.28 per cent were homicidal offenders, 5.71 per cent were property offenders, 11.43 per cent were prohibition offenders, 8.57 per cent were drug offenders and none of the immoral traffic offenders from semi-urban areas. Among the 40 female respondents from urban areas, 72.5 per cent were homicidal offenders, 10 per cent were property offenders, 17.5 per cent were drug offenders and none of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders from urban areas.

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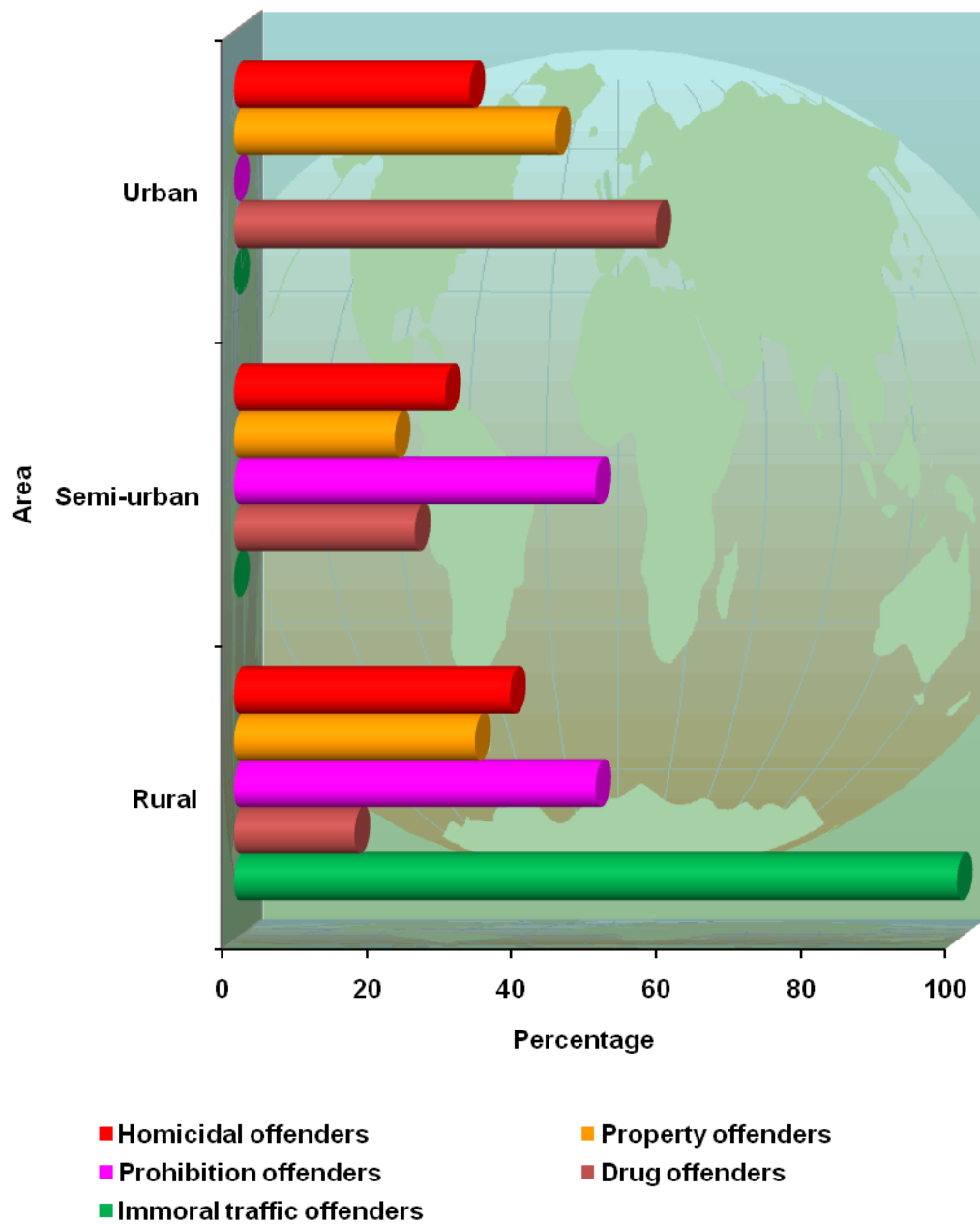
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Among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 38.2 per cent resided in rural areas, 29.21 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 32.58 per cent belonged to urban areas. Among nine female property offenders, 33.33 per cent belonged to rural areas, 22.22 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 44.44 per cent belonged to urban areas. Among eight prohibition offenders, 50 per cent from rural areas and the remaining 50 per cent were from semi-urban areas. None of the female prohibition offenders from urban areas.

**FIGURE – 13**  
**RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS**



Among 12 drug offenders, 16.67 per cent were from rural areas, 25 per cent were from semi-urban areas and 58.33 per cent were from urban areas. Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent resided in rural areas. This reveals that the type of crime committed is influenced by the area and the surroundings in which the offenders lived.

The predominance of homicidal offenders among rural women is probably due to the limited socio-cultural and economic options available to women in rural communities where compulsions to live within prescribed boundaries including repressive family situations are quite high. In contrast economic offences seem to flourish in urban and semi urban areas where anonymity as well as opportunities for commission of crime are greater, while social stigma and risk of apprehension are comparatively less.

Table – XX and Figure – 14 shows residential background of the male respondents.

**TABLE – XX**  
**RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF MALE RESPONDENTS**

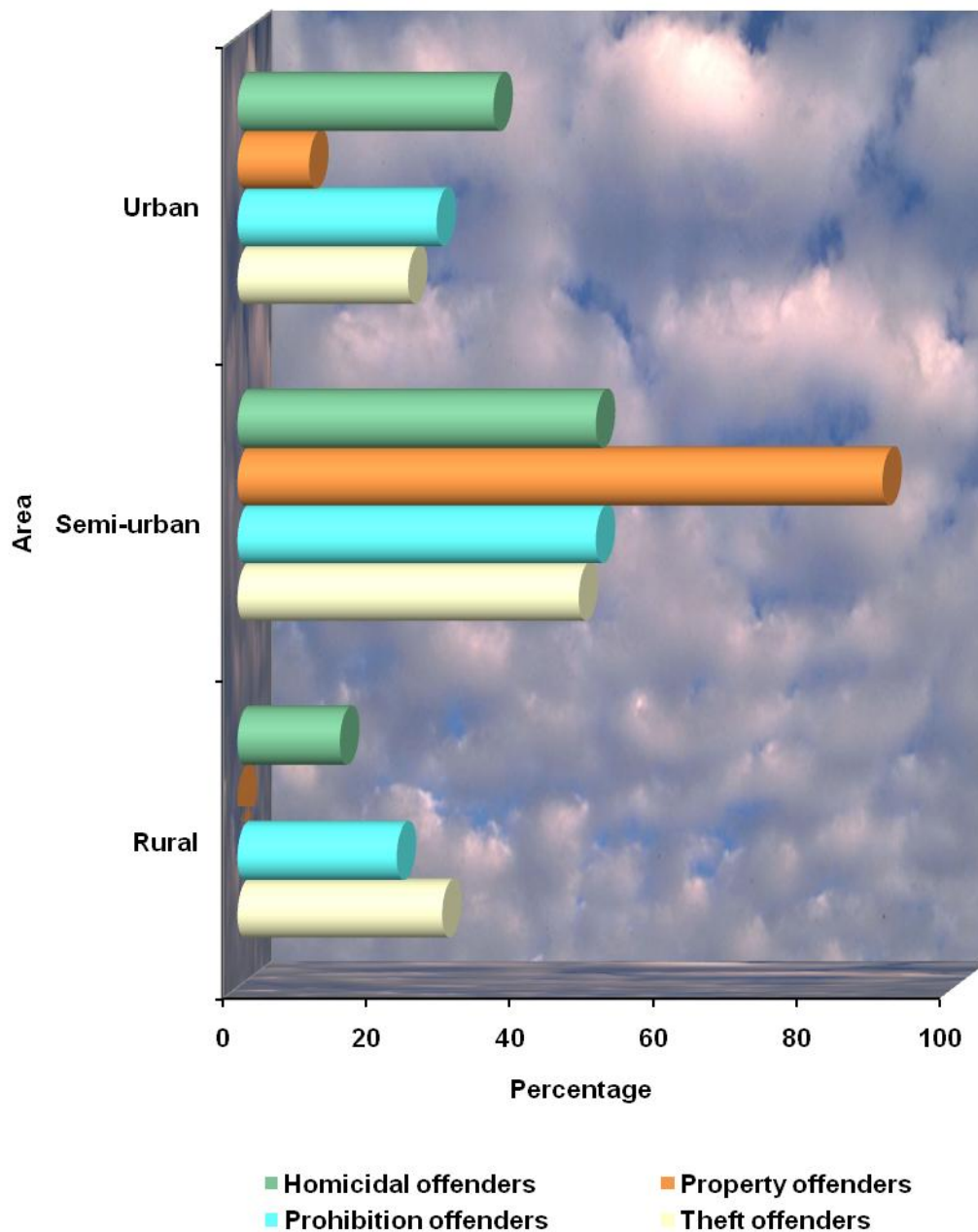
Area	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Rural	4 (8.33) (14.29)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	8 (16.67) (22.22)	36 (75.00) (28.57)	48 (100.00) (24.00)
Semi-urban	14 (13.86) (50.00)	9 (8.91) (90.00)	18 (17.82) (50.00)	60 (59.40) (47.62)	101 (100.00) (50.50)
Urban	10 (19.61) (35.71)	1 (1.96) (10.00)	10 (19.61) (27.78)	30 (58.82) (23.81)	51 (100.00) (25.50)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – XX, among the 200 male respondents, 24 per cent were resided in rural areas, 50.5 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas, and 25.5 per cent resided in urban areas.

**FIGURE – 14**  
**RESIDENTIAL BACKGROUND OF MALE RESPONDENTS**





Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 14.29 per cent resided in rural areas, 50 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 35.71 per cent resided in urban areas. Among the 10 property offenders, 90 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and the remaining 10 per cent resided in urban areas. None of the property offenders resided in rural areas. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 22.22 per cent resided in rural areas, 50 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 27.78 per cent resided in urban areas.

Among the 126 theft offenders, 28.57 per cent resided in rural areas, 47.62 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 23.81 per cent belonged to urban areas.

Among the 48 male respondents, 8.33 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 16.67 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 75 per cent of the theft offenders resided in rural areas. None of the property offenders belonged to rural areas. Among the 101 male respondents, 13.86 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 8.91 per cent of the property offenders, 17.82 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 59.4 per cent of the theft offenders resided in semi-urban areas.

Among the 51 male respondents, 19.61 per cent of the homicidal offenders, 1.96 per cent of the property offenders, 19.61 per cent of the prohibition offenders and 58.82 per cent were theft offenders. This reflects the fact that the residential background of the offenders influences the type of the offences committed by them.

#### **4.5.8 Economic Status and Occupation**

The employment and earning capacity of an individual are important determinants of his / her sense of well being. With regard to the criminal population, the general hypothesis has been that poverty and the consequent

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sense of frustration coupled with illegitimate opportunity structures (Ohlin, 1964) could lead to crime. However, given the Indian situation where a large segment of the population subsists below poverty line, it is expected that most of the offenders would invariably be poor. The criteria for assessment, therefore, is not objective poverty as such, but rather the subjective perception of poverty due to relative deprivation where the respondents experience their economic situation as poor, wretched or not so bad after all. Information pertaining to occupation, perception of economic sufficiency, family size and living standard were elicited.

Studies on the relation between occupation and female crime have drawn no uniform conclusion with regard to the influence of occupation on criminal behaviour. The early studies of Pollack (1950) and Smith (1962) found a substantial portion of the female offenders engaged in domestic service. Table – XXI shows details regarding occupation of the female respondents.

**TABLE – XXI**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION**

Occupation	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Agricultural labourers	7 (63.63) (7.87)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (18.18) (25.00)	2 (18.18) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	11 (100.00) (9.17)
Labourers	22 (75.86) (24.72)	2 (6.89) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	3 (10.34) (25.00)	2 (6.89) (100.00)	29 (100.00) (24.17)
Skilled workers	2 (100.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (100.00) (1.67)
Domestic workers	37 (75.51) (41.57)	5 (10.20) (55.56)	2 (4.08) (25.00)	5 (10.20) (41.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	49 (100.00) (40.82)
Begging and lottering	21 (72.41) (23.60)	2 (6.89) (22.22)	4 (13.79) (50.00)	2 (6.89) (16.67)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	29 (100.00) (24.17)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

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The Table – XXI reveals that, among the 89 female homicidal offenders, 7.87 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.72 per cent were laboureres, 2.25 per cent were skilled workers, 41.57 per cent were domestic workers and 23.6 per cent belonging to begging and lottering. From the nine female property offenders, 22.22 per cent were labourers, 55.56 per cent were domestic workers and 22.22 per cent were begging and lottering. None of the female property offenders belonged to agricultural labourers and skilled workers.

Among the eight female prohibition offenders, 25 per cent were agricultural labourers, 25 per cent were domestic workers and 50 per cent of the female prohibition offenders had resorted to begging and lottering. None of the female property offenders were labourers or skilled workers. Among the 12 drug offenders, 16.67 per cent were agricultural labourers, 25 per cent were labourers, 41.67 per cent were domestic workers and 16.67 per cent of the female drug offenders resorted begging and lottering. None of the female drug offenders were skilled workers.

Among the two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent were labourers. None of the female immoral traffic offenders were agricultural labourers, skilled workers, domestic workers and they did not resort to begging or lottering.

Among the 11 agricultural labourers, 63.63 per cent were homicidal offenders, 18.18 per cent were prohibition offenders and 18.18 per cent were drug offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders belonged to agricultural labourers.

Among the 29 female labourers, 75.86 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.89 per cent were property offenders, 10.34 per cent were drug offenders and 6.89 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the

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prohibition offenders belonged to labourers. Among the two female skilled workers, 100 per cent were homicidal offenders. None of the property offenders, prohibition offenders, drug offenders and immoral traffic offenders were skilled workers. Among 49 domestic workers, 75.51 per cent were homicidal offenders, 10.2 per cent were property offenders, 4.08 per cent were prohibition offenders, 10.2 per cent were drug offenders and none of the immoral traffic offenders were domestic workers.

Among 29 female respondents who resorted to begging and lottering, 72.41 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.89 per cent were property offenders, 13.79 per cent were prohibition offenders, 6.89 per cent were drug offenders and none of the female offenders who resorted to begging and lottering were immoral traffic offenders.

Among the 120 female respondents, 9.17 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.17 per cent were labourers, 1.67 per cent were skilled workers, 40.82 per cent were domestic workers and 24.17 per cent were begging and lottering. This shows interestingly that in the sample 40.82 per cent of the female respondents who were working as domestic servants and 55.56 per cent resorted to property offences. This observation supports the findings of Pollack (1950), Smith (1962) and others that the women in domestic service were more for homicide and property crime as they are constantly exposed to the life styles of those much wealthier than them.

The Table – XXII shows the distribution of male respondents by occupation.

**TABLE – XXII**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY OCCUPATION**

Occupation	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
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Agricultural labourers	3 (10.71)	(11.54)	3 (30.00)	(11.54)	6 (16.67)	(23.07)	14 (11.11)	(53.85)	26 (13.00)	(100.00)
Labourers	17 (60.71)	(19.10)	4 (40.00)	(4.49)	12 (33.33)	(13.48)	56 (44.44)	(62.92)	89 (44.50)	(100.00)
Skilled workers	1 (3.57)	(4.76)	1 (10.00)	(4.76)	3 (8.33)	(14.28)	16 (12.70)	(79.19)	21 (10.50)	(100.00)
Domestic workers	7 (25.00)	(12.28)	1 (10.00)	(1.75)	13 (36.11)	(22.80)	36 (28.57)	(63.16)	57 (28.50)	(100.00)
Begging and lottering	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (10.00)	(14.29)	2 (5.56)	(28.57)	4 (3.17)	(57.14)	7 (3.50)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(14.00)</b>	<b>10</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(5.00)</b>	<b>36</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(18.00)</b>	<b>126</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(63.00)</b>	<b>200</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XXII, shows that among the 28 male homicidal offenders, 10.71 per cent were agricultural labourers, 60.71 per cent were labourers, 3.57 per cent were skilled workers, 25 per cent were domestic workers and none of the homicidal offenders resorted to begging and lottering.

Among the 10 male property offenders, 30 per cent were agricultural labourers, 40 per cent were labourers, 10 per cent were skilled workers, 10 per cent were domestic workers and the remaining 10 per cent resorted to begging and lottering.

Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 16.67 per cent were agricultural labourers, 33.33 per cent were labourers, 8.33 per cent were skilled workers, 36.11 per cent were domestic workers and 5.56 per cent went for begging and lottering.

Among 126 male theft offenders, 11.11 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.44 per cent were labourers, 12.7 per cent were skilled workers, 28.57 per cent were domestic servants and 3.17 per cent were resorted to begging and lottering.

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Among the 26 male agricultural labourers, 11.54 per cent were homicidal offenders, 11.54 per cent were property offenders, 23.07 per cent were prohibition offenders and 53.85 per cent were theft offenders. Among 89 male labourers, 19.1 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.49 per cent were property offenders, 13.48 per cent were prohibition offenders and 62.92 per cent were theft offenders.

Among 21 male skilled workers, 4.76 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.76 per cent were property offenders, 14.28 per cent were prohibition offenders and 79.19 per cent were theft offenders. Among 57 male domestic workers, 12.28 per cent were homicidal offenders, 1.75 per cent were property offenders, 22.8 per cent were prohibition offenders and 63.16 per cent were theft offenders.

Among seven male offenders resorting to begging and lottering resorted offenders, 14.29 per cent were property offenders, 28.57 per cent were prohibition offenders, 57.14 per cent were theft offenders and none of the homicidal offenders resorted to begging and lottering. Among 200 male respondents, 13 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.5 per cent were labourers, 10.5 per cent were skilled workers, 28.5 per cent were domestic workers and 3.5 per cent resorted to begging and lottering.

This indicates that, the labourers were also exposed to the life styles of those for whom they work and commit crimes to improve their standard of living. Fleisher (1966) in their empirical studies, finds that unemployment rates are less important than income levels and distribution. Time-series studies have failed to uncover a robust, positive and significant relation between unemployment on crime, but most studies based on cross-sectional and individual data do point in that direction. In the sample, comparatively demonstration effect seems to be an important factor which influenced both

male and female offenders to commit crime to improve their economic status. In the sample 24.17 per cent of female respondents and 3.5 per cent of male respondents were engaged in begging and lottering because they were unemployed. More than the above category, it was the domestic workers among females and labourers among males who committed more crime.

#### 4.5.9 Family Income

Since low family income can contribute to family tensions especially when combined with unsatisfactory family relationships, the family income patterns of the respondents was analysed. Though the respondents' biases and possibility of misreporting cannot be overruled, whatever evaluation possible is attempted with the data at hand. The family income of the female and male respondents are shown in Table – XXIII and Figure - 15.

**TABLE – XXIII**  
**FAMILY INCOME OF THE RESPONDENTS**

Income distribution (Rs.)	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
1 – 100	53 (44.17)	(85.48)	9 (4.50)	(14.51)	62 (19.37)	(100.00)
101 – 250	43 (35.83)	(37.39)	72 (36.00)	(62.61)	115 (35.94)	(100.00)
251 – 500	5 (4.17)	(26.31)	14 (7.00)	(73.68)	19 (5.93)	(100.00)
501 – 750	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	10 (5.00)	(100.00)	10 (3.12)	(100.00)

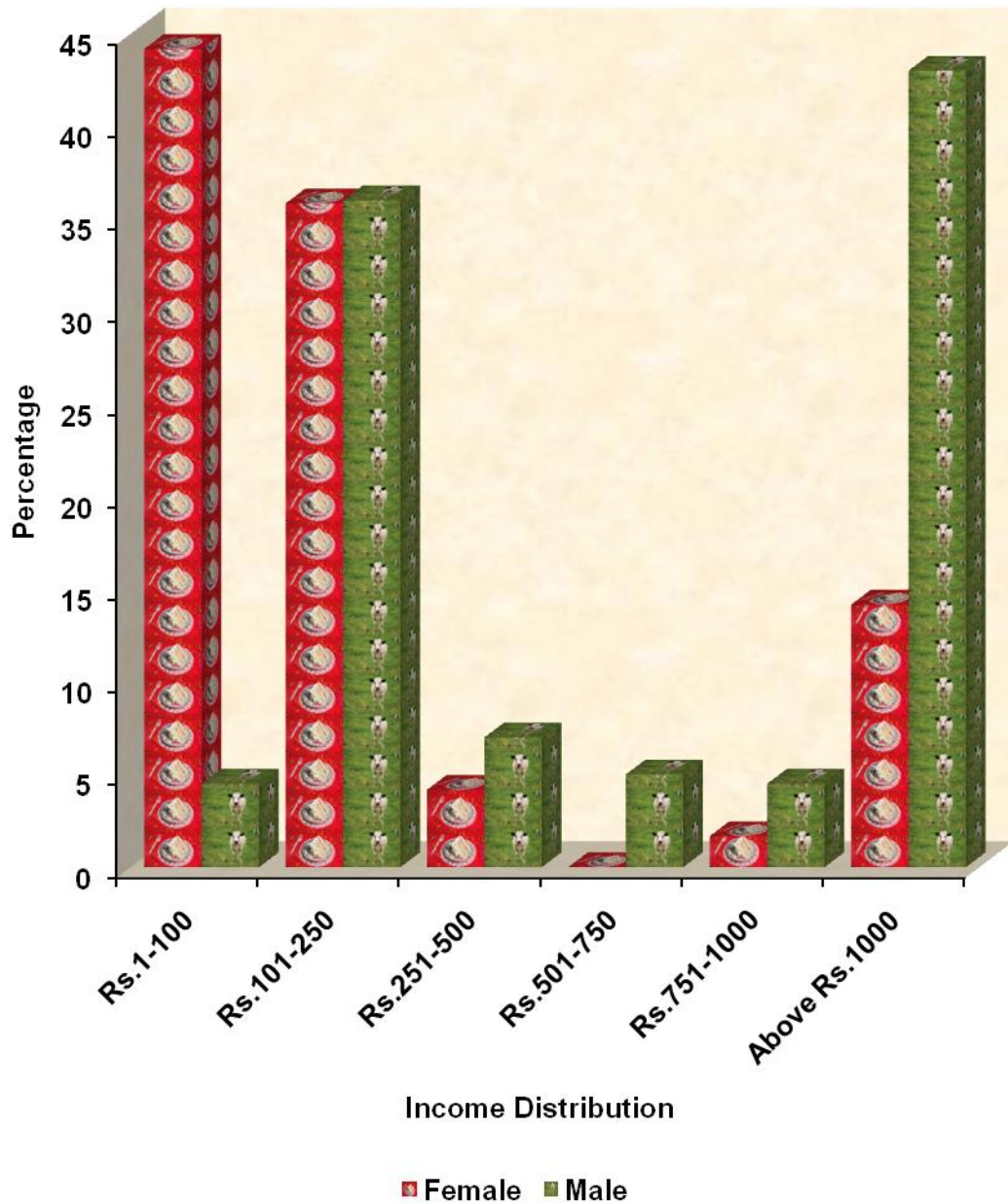


751 – 1000	2 (1.67)	(18.18)	9 (4.50)	(81.81)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
Above 1000	17 (14.17)	(16.50)	86 (43.00)	(83.49)	103 (32.19)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(37.50)</b>	<b>200</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

From Table – XXIII, it is inferred that from the 120 female offenders, 44.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.1-100, 35.83 per cent were getting the income between Rs.101-250 per month and 4.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.251-500. None of the female respondents were getting the family income between Rs.501-750. Only 1.67 per cent were getting the income between Rs.751-1000 and 14.17 per cent were in the income category above Rs.1000 when looking at the family income of the female respondents. While in case of male offenders, 4.5 per cent were getting the income between Rs.1-100, 36 per cent were in the income category of Rs.101-250, seven per cent were getting the family income between Rs.251-500, five per cent were in the income category of Rs.501-750, 4.5 per cent were getting the family income between Rs.750-1000 and 43 per cent were getting above Rs.1000 as their family income.

**FIGURE – 15**  
**FAMILY INCOME OF THE RESPONDENTS**



Among the 62 respondents in the income category of Rs.1-100, 85.48 per cent were female respondents and 14.51 per cent were male respondents. From the 115 respondents in the income category of Rs.101-250, 37.39 per cent were female respondents and 62.61 per cent were male respondents. From the 19 respondents in the income category of Rs.251-500, 26.31 per cent were female respondents and 73.68 per cent were male respondents. From the 10 respondents in the income category of Rs.501-750, 100 per cent were male respondents and none of the female respondents were getting the income between Rs.501-750. Among 11 respondents in the income category of Rs.751-1000, 18.18 per cent were female respondents and 81.81 per cent were male respondents. Among 103 respondents in the income category of above Rs.1000, 16.5 per cent were female respondents and 83.49 per cent were male respondents.

The Table – XXIV shows the analysis of variance for testing the mean income of the different female offenders.

**TABLE – XXIV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN INCOME**  
**OF THE FEMALE OFFENDERS**

Group	Income of the offenders		'F' Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	3.8929	2.36	6.4339
Other offenders	2.5813	2.0636	

The analysis of the income profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to higher income group when compared to the other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was a significant difference in the mean income between the homicidal offenders and other offenders.

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The Table – XXV shows the analysis of variance for testing the mean income of the different male offenders.

**TABLE – XXV**  
**ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR TESTING THE MEAN INCOME**  
**OF THE MALE OFFENDERS**

Group	Age of the offenders		F Ratio
	Mean	Standard deviation	
Homicidal offenders	1.3033	1.86	7.0624
Other offenders	2.4516	2.58	

The Table – XXV shows that the analysis of the income profile of different group of male offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower income group when compared to other offenders. The ‘F’ ratio indicates that there was no significant differences in the mean income of these groups of offenders.

Comparatively, male respondents received higher income than the female respondents. Female offenders seem to commit crime to improve the family income because majority of them got an income between Rs.1-500. Based on the cost of living the income is not sufficient even to meet the necessities. So they indulged in crime to get more money to support their family. Poverty seems to be the main cause for women to go for crime to earn more money. In the case of male offenders even though 43 per cent got an income of above Rs.1000, they have resorted to crime to improve their economic position since they were the main supporters of their family. This proves that economic motive is the important motive which forces a person to resort to illegal means to earn livelihood.

#### **4.5.10 Family size**

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Since any inference regarding the family income will be incomplete unless it takes into account the family size, this information has been gathered and presented along side.

Table – XXVI and Figure – 16 shows female and male respondents family size.

**TABLE – XXVI**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY SIZE**

Family size	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Small family (1 – 4)	80 (66.67)	(35.87)	143 (73.00)	(73.00)	223 (69.69)	(100.00)
Large family (4 – 10)	35 (29.17)	(41.67)	49 (24.00)	(24.50)	84 (26.25)	(100.00)
Very large family (10 and above)	5 (4.17)	(38.46)	8 (4.00)	(4.00)	13 (4.06)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120 (100.00)</b>	<b>(37.50)</b>	<b>200 (100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320 (100.00)</b>	

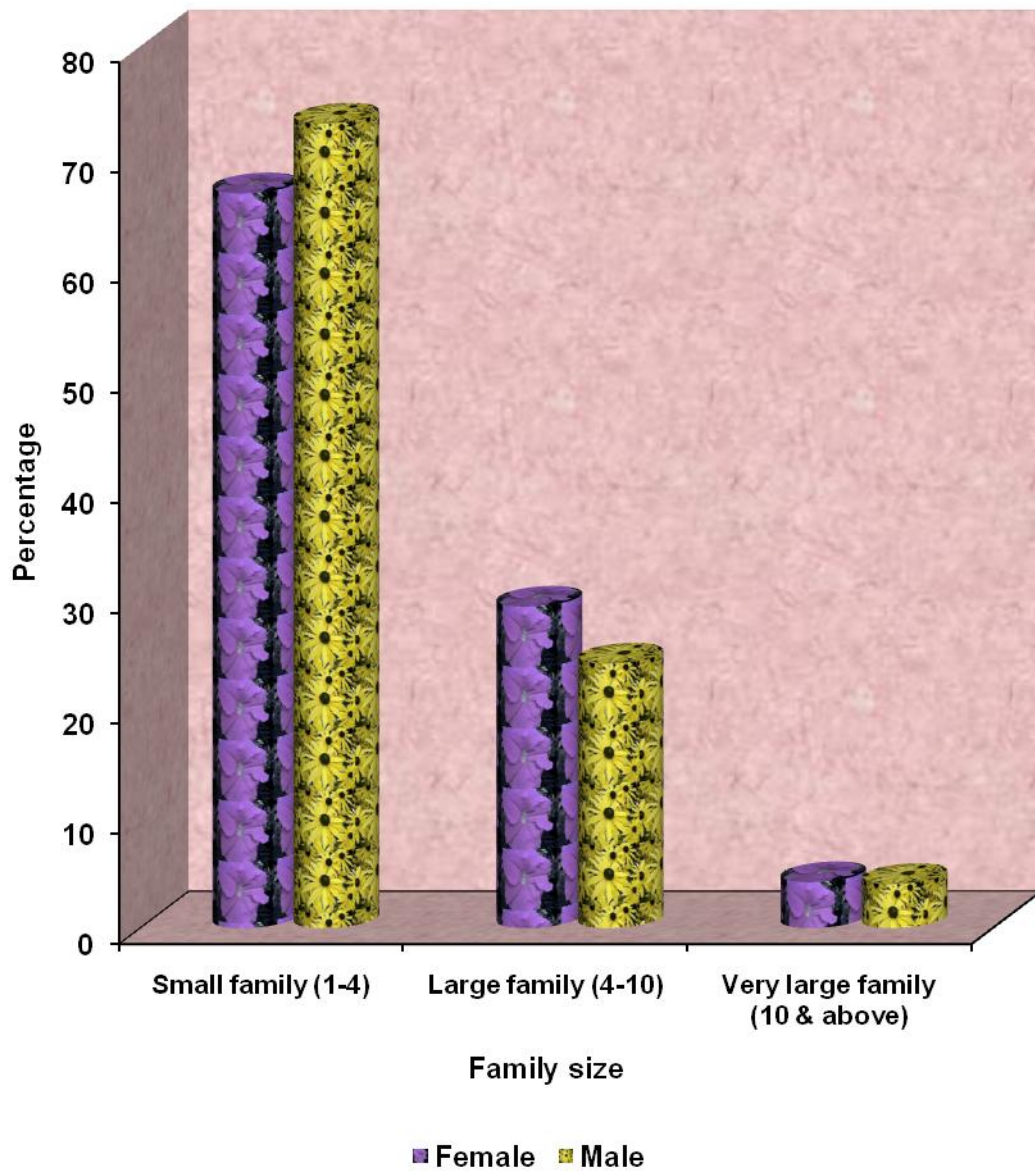
Source : Prison Survey.

Finding the number of persons in the family is one way to estimate the number of persons among whom the family income has to be distributed. The data shows that among the 120 female offenders, 66.67 per cent belonged to small family, 29.17 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining 4.17 per cent belonged to very large family. From the 200 male respondents, 73 per cent belonged to small family, 24 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining four per cent belonged to very large family size.

Among the 223 small families, 35.87 per cent were female respondents and 73 per cent were male respondents. From the 84 large families, 41.67 per

cent were female respondents and 24.5 per cent were male respondents. From the 13 very large size families, 38.46 per cent were female respondents and four per cent were male respondents. From the 320 sample, 69.69 per cent belonged to small family, 26.25 per cent belonged to large family and 4.06 per cent belonged to very large family. It is clearly brought out that the majority of the female and male offenders belonged to small size family.

**FIGURE – 16**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS BY FAMILY SIZE**



#### 4.5.11 Type of Housing

The type of dwelling is an indicator of the economic status of the individual and can help gauge the economic situation of the respondents. So the respondents were asked to state the type of house they had resided in.

The Table – XXVII and Figure – 17 shows the type of dwelling of the respondents.

**TABLE – XXVII**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS**  
**BY TYPE OF DWELLING**

Type of House	Number of female offenders		Number of male offenders		Total	
Thatched	65 (54.17)	(35.13)	120 (60.00)	(64.86)	185 (57.81)	(100.00)
Tiled	43 (35.83)	(40.18)	64 (32.00)	(59.81)	107 (33.44)	(100.00)
RCC	4 (3.33)	(23.53)	13 (6.50)	(76.47)	17 (5.31)	(100.00)
Platform dwellers	8 (6.67)	(72.73)	3 (1.50)	(27.27)	11 (3.44)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(37.50)</b>	<b>200</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

The responses indicate that 54.17 per cent of the female respondents had resided in thatched houses, while 35.83 per cent and 3.33 per cent respondents had lived in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 6.67 per cent of the female respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. The type of dwelling by male respondents shows their standard of living, the earning capacity and also the economic situation of the family. Among the sample 60 per cent of the male

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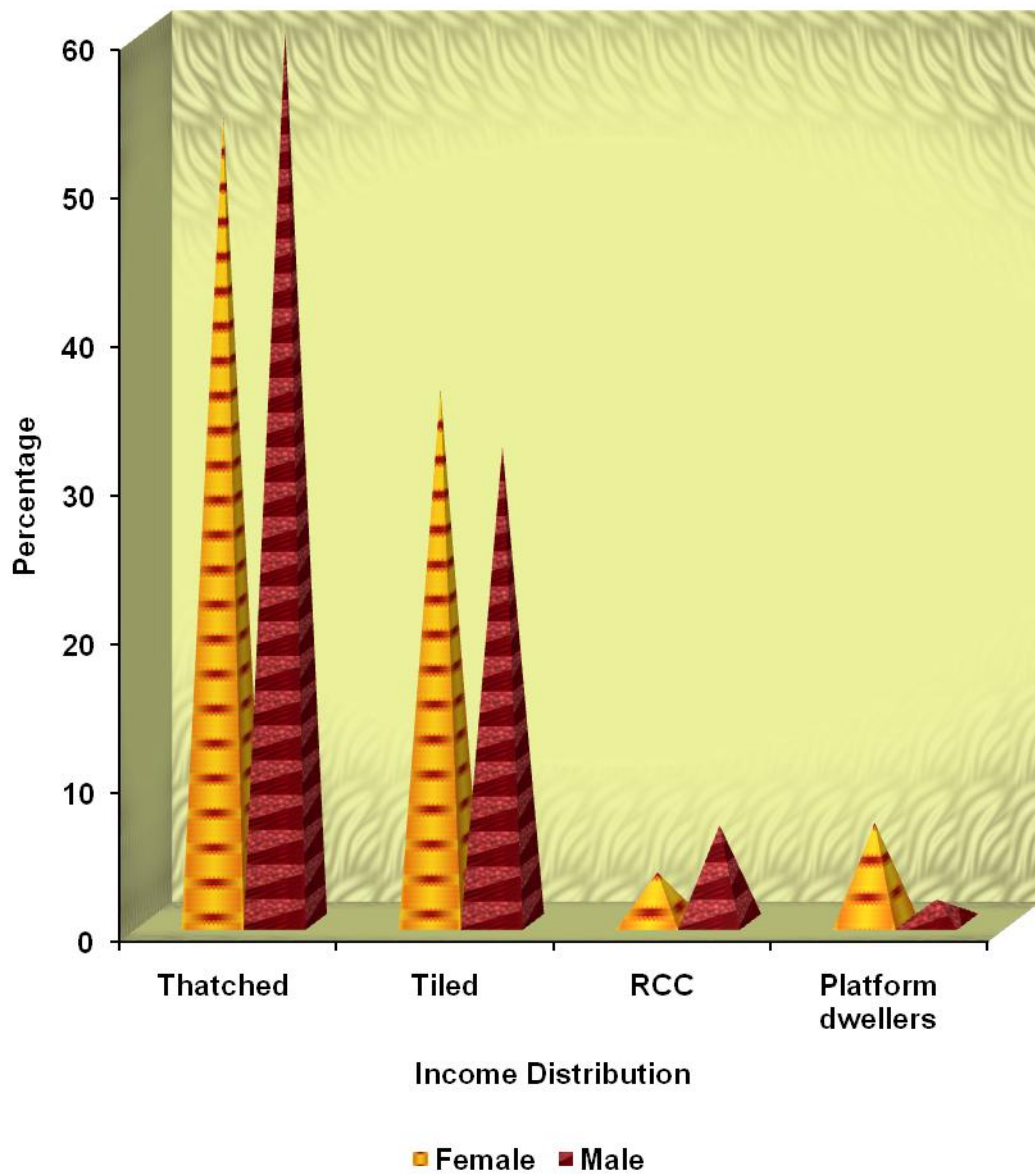
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respondents resided in thatched houses, while 32 per cent and 6.5 per cent had resided in tiled and RCC houses. The remaining 1.5 per cent of the male

**FIGURE – 17**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS**  
**BY TYPE OF DWELLING**



respondents had resided in any other form of houses. Among the 185 respondents who resided in thatched houses, 35.13 per cent were female respondents and 64.86 per cent were male respondents. From the 107 respondents, 40.18 per cent were female respondents and 59.18 per cent were male respondents who lived in tiled houses. Among the 17 respondents residing in RCC houses, 23.53 per cent were female offenders and 76.47 per cent were male offenders. From the 11 respondents, 72.73 per cent of the female respondents and 27.27 per cent of the male respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. This finding shows, that the overall economic situation of the female and male respondents was poor with respect to their type of dwellings.

#### 4.5.12 Perception of Economic Sufficiency

In any analysis of the condition of the people, the income of the respondents cannot fully account for their sense of sufficiency since other factors such as relative deprivation could come into play. With this in view, the respondents were asked to give their opinion regarding income sufficiency in matters related to their day to day affairs such as food, clothing and shelter as shown in Table – XXVIII.

**TABLE – XXVIII**  
**RESPONDENTS PERCEPTION OF INCOME SUFFICIENCY FOR**  
**FOOD, CLOTHING AND SHELTER**

Income sufficiency for	Female					Male				
	No		Yes		Total	No		Yes		Total
	No	%	No	%		No	%	No	%	
Food	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	193	96.50	7	3.50	200
Clothing	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	195	97.50	5	2.50	200
Shelter	78	65.00	42	35.00	120	193	96.50	7	3.50	200

Source : Prison Sufficiency.

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The inference is that whatever the limitation of income reporting or income presentation, the fact remains that the respondents were feeling poorer pertaining to their economic needs. Clearly the economic responsibility of managing the family is more keenly experienced by women in their status as mothers and wives, rather than as daughters of the family. Perhaps this accounts for their greater sense of economic inadequacy, though it would be too simplistic to hypothesize that a sense of deprivation alone leads to criminal behaviour of both the female and male respondents. What is significant is that almost all these offenders have expressed to having economic needs which are largely unmet.

Comparatively, male respondents perception of income sufficiency for food, clothing and shelter shows much poorer status than that of the female respondents. Since they perceived insufficiency in food, clothing and shelter, 65 per cent of the female respondents and 96 per cent of the male respondents resorted to crime to rectify their needs.

#### 4.5.13 Economic Contribution of Spouse

Economic condition of spouses also plays an important role in the economic condition of women prisoners. The Table – XXIX shows economic contribution of the spouse.

**TABLE – XXIX**  
**FEMALE RESPONDENTS ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSE**

Income contribution of spouse	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Complete	24 (82.76) (35.29)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (6.89) (20.00)	3 (10.34) (33.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	29 (100.00) (31.87)
Part	18 (60.00) (26.47)	3 (10.00) (50.00)	4 (13.33) (80.00)	3 (10.00) (33.33)	2 (6.67) (100.00)	30 (100.00) (32.97)
None	26 (81.25) (38.24)	3 (9.38) (50.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	3 (9.38) (33.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	32 (100.00) (35.16)

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<b>Total</b>	<b>68 (74.73)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>6 (6.59)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>6 (86.59)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (9.89)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (2.19)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>91 (100.00)</b>
<b>NA</b>	<b>21 (72.41)</b> <b>(23.59)</b>	<b>3 (10.34)</b> <b>(33.33)</b>	<b>2 (6.89)</b> <b>(25.00)</b>	<b>3 (10.34)</b> <b>(25.00)</b>	<b>0 (0.00)</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Excluding the unmarried, widowed, divorced and separated categories, among the female offenders, 31.87 per cent of the respondents indicated that their husband's economic contribution for the household had been a total 32.97 per cent said it was part of the income coming in, implying that other family members too contributed their share.

However, what is significant is that their spouses' contribution to the family income had been nil for 35.16 per cent of female respondents indicating that the men in those households had shirked their responsibilities or had failed to fulfil them for reasons of their own.

Among the categories, the homicidal offenders seemed to be better off in his regard, with nearly 35.29 per cent of their menfolk shouldering the family financial burden, 26.47 per cent of the respondents' spouses had shared their income partially and 38.24 per cent of the respondents' spouses failed to support the family.

This suggests that the financial needs and responsibilities of the family are more keenly felt by these women than the rest. Among the property offenders, 50 per cent of the respondents' spouses shared their income partially and 50 per cent of the female respondents' spouses failed to support their family. Among the prohibition offenders, a majority of 80 per cent of the female respondents' spouses had partially supported their family, the remaining 20 per cent fully supported their family.

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Regarding drug offenders 33.33 per cent of the female respondents' spouses gave complete support to their family, 33.33 per cent of the spouses partially supported and the remaining 33.33 per cent refused to share their income. 100 per cent of the female immoral traffic offenders' spouses contributed partially to their family.

The respondents whose spouses failed to support them, were asked to give reasons for their husbands' failure to financially provide for the family. Out of 91 respondents nearly 35.16 per cent of the respondents attributed it to indulging in bad habits by their spouses, such as drinking, gambling, drug taking and promiscuous behaviour. The remaining 32.97 per cent of the respondents felt that their spouses failure to provide for their family was not intentional but due to insufficiency of income, ill health, infirmity, etc. Economic contribution of spouse plays an important role in the economic condition of male prisoners. The Table – XXX shows economic contribution of spouses to male respondents.

**TABLE – XXX**  
**ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF SPOUSES TO MALE RESPONDENTS**

Income contribution of spouse	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Complete	9 (34.61) (36.00)	3 (11.53) (50.00)	2 (7.69) (9.52)	12 (46.15) (14.63)	26 (100.00) (19.40)
Part	6 (22.22) (24.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	9 (33.33) (42.86)	12 (44.44) (14.63)	27 (100.00) (20.15)
None	10 (12.35) (40.00)	3 (3.70) (50.00)	10 (12.35) (47.62)	58 (71.60) (70.73)	81 (100.00) (60.45)
<b>Total</b>	<b>25 (18.65)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>6 (4.47)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>21 (15.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>82 (61.19)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>134</b>
<b>NA</b>	<b>3 (4.54)</b> <b>(10.71)</b>	<b>4 (6.06)</b> <b>(40.00)</b>	<b>15 (22.72)</b> <b>(41.67)</b>	<b>44 (66.67)</b> <b>(34.92)</b>	<b>66</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

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	(100.00)				
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Source : Prison Survey.

Excluding unmarried male respondents, 19.4 per cent of the respondents indicated that their wife's economic contribution for the household had been total, 20.15 per cent of the male respondents said it was part of the income coming in. However, the finding shows that for 60.45 per cent of men respondents, their contribution to the family income had been nil indicating that the women in those households had shirked their responsibilities or had failed to fulfil them for reasons of their own.

Among the categories, the homicidal offenders and property offenders seemed to be better off. In this regard, nearly 50 per cent and 36 per cent of the property and homicidal offenders spouses contributed their income fully to their family and 42.86 per cent of the prohibition offenders spouses contributes atleast partially.

These suggests that the financial needs and responsibilities of the family are more keenly felt by these men than the rest. The reason for their spouses failure for financial assistance was attributed to their own spending and neglect though this was not intentional but the lack of insufficiency in income, ill health, transport etc.

Comparatively, among 120 female respondents only 59 female respondents' spouses helped them with income to run the family. The rest did not contribute anything for their family maintenance. Among 200 male respondents only 53 members received financial help from their spouses. Because of the insufficiency of funds to meet atleast the basic necessities of the family, both female and male respondents resorted to criminal activities to gain economically.

An attempt was made to analyse the impact of the socio-economic factors on the nature of offences committed by female and male offenders by computing chi-square analysis.

The hypothesis framed was as follows :

H<sub>0</sub> : There is no association between the nature of offence committed and the socio-economic factors.

H<sub>a</sub> : There is significant association .

The following Table – XXXI shows the chi-square results for female and male respondents.

**TABLE – XXXI**  
**CHI-SQUARE RESULTS FOR FEMALE AND MALE RESPONDENTS BASED ON NATURE OF OFFENCE WITH SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC VARIABLES**

S.No.	Variables	Female		Male	
		Calculate d $\chi^2$ value	Critical value 5%	Calculate d $\chi^2$ value	Critical value 5%
1.	Age	11.24*	9.488	13.037*	12.592
2.	Marital status	0.453	5.991	7.944*	7.815
3.	Caste	8.549	15.507	13.302	24.996
4.	Education	19.010	31.410	17.993	24.996
5.	Occupation	4.722	15.507	12.499	21.026
6.	Residential background	0.626	9.488	10.248	12.592
7.	Type of housing	24.603*	12.592	16.095	16.919
8.	Food	0.919	5.991	0.501	7.815
9.	Clothing	0.919	5.991	1.221	7.815

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10.	Shelter	0.919	5.991	2.028	7.815
11.	Economic contribution of spouses	6.811*	5.991	14.095	16.919

\* Significant at 5 per cent level.

The results proves the hypothesis, that the socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.

From the Table – XXXI, the results reveals that the age, type of housing and economic contribution of spouses emerged to have a significant influence with the nature of offence by female offenders and in case of male offenders the variable age and marital status emerged significantly associated with nature of offence. The majority of the female respondents between 25 and 50 years of age committed crimes. As they grew older, they did not want to commit crimes while the male offenders committed crime in the age group of 25-50 years. This shows that both women and men commit crime only when they are young. As they advance in their age they seem to hesitate to indulge in crime. Similarly, the female respondents poverty which forced to live in deplorable housing condition would have forced to commit crimes. Lack of financial assistance for their own spending leading to insufficiency, would also made these women to commit crime. Marital status of the male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. Among the male offenders, it was the married offenders who involved in more crimes than the unmarried. This supports the findings of Prasad (1982), Nagla (1982) and Rani (1983) suggest, that it was the married women and men who are more vulnerable to crime than their unmarried counterparts because they have to cope with highly stressful family situations.

#### 4.6 CRIME HISTORY

Crime and criminality are said to be an inevitable part of the process of economic and social development (Zvekc, 1990). Economics of crime

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emphasizes the need to view crime as a process of interconnected relationships working towards the maximization of profit. This occurs within a context of set power structures and social constraints. Crime has been described as a negative and pervasive effect of development or as a consequence of development that is disorderly or unbalanced.

#### **4.6.1 Duration of Sentence**

The criminal career idea has not permeated the work of economists to any great extent. This does not mean that a conventional economic analysis of it is not possible. Such an approach could be developed by taking account of learning and information acquisition. As time passes a criminal learns about the techniques of crime and the available opportunities for crime from other criminals.

Punishment plays a special role in this as the prison is a veritable university of crime where the criminal has an opportunity to learn from the past successes and failures of masters of the art. In this approach entrants to crime are rational utility maximizers with time in variant preferences ; this implies that they should purposefully get arrested in order to obtain entry to prison. Entry to crime is an act of resolving conflict in an environment where risks are not known because of the absence of repeated sampling and the substantial uniqueness of each person's entry. Mixing with more experienced criminals cements the decision to become a criminal, but it is not the by-product of deliberate decision to obtain human capital by going to prison.

The primary data collected reveals that the females are involved in homicide offences, property offences, prohibition offences, drug offences and immoral traffic offences and the male respondents were involved in homicide offences, property offences, prohibition offences and theft offences. Table –

XXXII indicates distribution of female respondents by duration of sentence for the above crimes.

**TABLE – XXXII**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS BY DURATION OF SENTENCE**

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Over six months to under one year	0 (0.00)	6 (66.67)	0 (0.00)	2 (16.67)	2 (20.00)	10 (100.00)
Over one year to under five years	13 (56.52)	3 (33.33)	6 (26.09)	1 (4.35)	0 (0.00)	23 (100.00)
Over five years	14 (56.00)	0 (0.00)	2 (8.00)	9 (36.00)	0 (0.00)	25 (100.00)
Lifers	62 (70.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	0 (0.00)	62 (100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XXXII reveals that among the 89 female homicidal offenders, majority 70 per cent of the respondents were life convicts, 15.73 per cent of the female respondents were convicted over five years and the remaining 14.61 per cent of the female respondents were convicted between one year to under five years. None of the female homicidal offenders were over six months to under one year. Among the female property offenders, 66.67 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. The remaining 33.33 per cent of the female respondents were convicted over one year to under five years. None of the female property offenders were lifers and convicted over five years. Regarding female prohibition offenders, 75 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and the remaining 25 per cent were convicted over five years. None of the female prohibition offenders were lifers and convicted over six months to under one year.

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Among the female drug offenders, 75 per cent were convicted over five years, 16.67 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year and 8.33 per cent were convicted over one year to over five years. None of the female drug offenders were lifers. Regarding immoral traffic offenders 100 per cent of the female convicts were convicted over six months to under one year.

Among the 10 respondents convicted over six months to under one year, 60 per cent were property offenders, 20 per cent were drug offenders and 20 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the homicidal offenders and prohibition offenders were convicted over six months to under one year. Among 23 female respondents convicted over one year to under five years, 56.52 per cent were homicidal offenders, 13.04 per cent were property offenders, 26.09 per cent were prohibition offenders and 4.35 per cent were drug offenders. None of the immoral traffic offenders were convicted over one year to under five years.

Among the 25 female offenders convicted over five years, 56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 36 per cent were drug offenders and only eight per cent were prohibition offenders. None of the property offenders and immoral traffic offenders were convicted over five years. Regarding 62 respondents convicted as lifers, 100 per cent of the homicidal offenders were lifers. This proves that homicidal offenders were convicted for more years of imprisonment than other offenders.

Table – XXXIII depicts the distribution of male respondents by duration of sentence.

**TABLE – XXXIII**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF MALE RESPONDENTS BY DURATION OF SENTENCE**

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Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Over six months to under one year	6 (5.21) (21.43)	8 (6.96) (80.00)	21 (18.26) (58.33)	80 (69.56) (63.49)	115 (100.00) (57.50)
Over one year to under five years	4 (8.70) (14.29)	1 (2.17) (10.00)	8 (17.39) (22.22)	33 (71.74) (26.19)	46 (100.00) (23.00)
Over five years	3 (15.79) (10.71)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (36.84) (19.44)	9 (47.36) (7.14)	19 (100.00) (9.50)
Lifers	15 (75.00) (53.57)	1 (5.00) (10.00)	0 (0.00) (10.00)	4 (20.00) (3.17)	20 (100.00) (10.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Unlike female offenders among the 200 males, 28 were homicidal offenders. Among them 53.57 per cent male respondents were undergoing life sentence, 21.43 per cent of the male respondents were convicted over six months to under one year and 14.29 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years. The remaining 10.71 per cent were convicted over five years. Among the 10 male property offenders, 80 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 10 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and the remaining 10 per cent of the male property offenders were lifers. None of the male property offenders were convicted over five years. Among the 36 male prohibition offenders, 58.33 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 22.22 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and 19.44 per cent were convicted over five years. None of the prohibition offenders were undergoing life sentence. Among the 126 theft offenders, 63.49 per cent of the male offenders were convicted over six months to under one year, 26.19 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years, 7.14 per cent were convicted over five

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years and 3.17 per cent were convicted as lifers. Among the 200 male offenders, 57.5 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year, 23 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years, 9.5 per cent were convicted over five years and 10 per cent were lifers.

Among the 115 male respondents convicted over six months to under one year, 5.21 per cent were homicidal offenders, 6.96 per cent were property offenders, 18.26 per cent were prohibition offenders and 69.56 per cent were theft offenders. From the 46 male respondents convicted over one year to under five years, 8.7 per cent were homicidal offenders, 2.17 per cent were property offenders, 17.39 per cent were prohibition offenders and 71.74 per cent were theft offenders.

Among the 19 male respondents convicted over five years, 15.79 per cent were homicidal offenders, 36.84 per cent were prohibition offenders and 47.36 per cent were theft offenders. None of the property offenders were convicted over five years. Among the 20 life convicts, 75 per cent of the male respondents were homicidal offenders, 20 per cent were theft offenders and only five per cent were property offenders. None of the prohibition offenders were undergoing life sentence. An analysis of the punishment given to different offences reveal that for the homicidal offences the punishment was severe than other offences. An attempt was made to find out how many of them indulge in crime after their release from the prison and return to the prison repeatedly. This proves the hypothesis that the duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

#### **4.6.2 Recidivism Imprisoned**

Inspite of the imprisonment undergone by the convicts they repeatedly committed crime to gain economically. This shows that punishment has less impact on them than the reward which they get if they escape from their

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criminal activity. This finding supports the theory (Economic or Punishment and Reward Theory) developed by George (1958). The theory stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables the individual to choose courses of action freely and also believed to possess the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. The decision making in this sense is meant to act rationally that is to choose courses of actions which maximize his expected utility (within the resource constraints that is his own perceptual and information based on practice, circumstances and past history) and to minimize disutility (the cost of penalty).

The Table – XXXIV indicates distribution of recidivists among the female respondents.

**TABLE – XXXIV**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF RECIDIVISTS AMONG THE FEMALE RESPONDENTS**

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
First time	83 (72.80) (93.26)	9 (7.89) (100.00)	8 (7.01) (100.00)	12 (10.53) (100.00)	2 (1.75) (100.00)	114 (100.00) (95.00)
Second time	6 (100.00) (6.74)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	6 (100.00) (5.00)
More than twice	-	-	-	-	-	- -
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

The Table – XXXIV reveals that among the 89 homicidal offenders, 93.26 per cent were imprisoned for the first time and 6.74 per cent were imprisoned for the second time. All the property, prohibition, drug and immoral traffic offenders were imprisoned for the first time. This shows that except a minimum percentage of female offenders all others committed crime for the first time.

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The Table – XXXV indicates that distribution of recidivists among the male respondents.

**TABLE – XXXV**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF RECIDIVISTS AMONG THE MALE RESPONDENTS**

Period	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
First time	18 (19.56) (64.29)	7 (7.61) (70.00)	19 (20.65) (52.77)	48 (52.17) (38.10)	92 (100.00) (46.00)
Second time	1 (2.27) (3.57)	1 (2.27) (10.00)	6 (13.63) (16.67)	36 (81.81) (28.57)	44 (100.00) (22.00)
More than twice	9 (14.06) (32.14)	2 (3.12) (20.00)	11 (17.18) (30.56)	42 (65.62) (33.33)	64 (100.00) (32.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XXXV depicts 46 per cent of the male convicts were first timers, 22 per cent were second timers and 32 per cent committed the offence more than twice. Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 64.29 per cent were first timers, 3.57 per cent committed crime second time and 32.14 per cent committed more than twice.

Among the 10 property offenders, 70 per cent were first timers, 10 per cent committed second time and the remaining 20 per cent committed more than twice. Among the prohibition offenders, 52.77 per cent were first timers, 16.67 per cent were second timers and 30.56 per cent committed more than twice. Among the theft offenders, 38.1 per cent were first timers, 28.57 per cent committed crime second time and 33.33 per cent committed more than twice.

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Among the 92 male respondents who committed crime first time, 19.56 per cent were homicidal offenders, 7.61 per cent were property offenders, 20.65 per cent were prohibition offenders and 52.17 per cent were theft offenders. Among the 44 male respondents, 2.27 per cent of the homicidal offenders committed the crime second time, 2.27 per cent of the property offenders committed crime second time, 13.63 per cent of the prohibition offenders committed crime second time and 81.81 per cent of the theft offenders committed crime second time. Among 64 male respondents, 14.06 per cent of the homicidal offenders committed the crime more than twice, 3.12 per cent of the property offenders committed more than twice, 17.18 per cent of the prohibition offenders committed crime more than twice and 65.62 per cent of the theft offenders committed crime more than twice. These findings revealed that a large proportion of the male convicts are habitual offenders with respect to the nature of offence.

### **Discriminant Analysis**

Discriminant analysis was used to determine the factors that discriminate the female homicidal offenders and other offenders. Seven variables were selected namely, Age (A), Marital Status (MS), Educational Qualification (EQ), Family Income (FI), Occupation (OCC), Duration of Sentence (DS), Reasons for Committing the Crime (RCC) and they have been established as the major factors determining the criminal activity and are, therefore, taken as independent variables for developing the model.

The means of the independent variable are shown in the Table – XXXVI.

**TABLE – XXXVI**  
**MEANS OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLE FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS**

S.No.	Variables	Homicidal offenders	Other offenders	Grand means
1.	Age	43.194	42.011	42.3167
2.	Marital status	2.194	2.247	2.2250
3.	Educational qualification	2.000	1.775	1.8417
4.	Family income	2.452	1.303	1.6000
5.	Occupation	3.419	3.483	3.4667
6.	Duration of sentence	2.032	3.551	3.1500
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	6.484	9.213	8.5167

It was found from the Table – XXXVI, that there were significant differences in age, educational qualification, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime, while there were not much differences in the mean values of the remaining factors.

The unstandardized canonical discriminant function which represent a linear composite of the original data that maximizes the ratios of among group variability to within group variability was estimated as follows :

$$Z = 3.206 + 0.007 (A) + 0.067 (MS) - 0.039 (EQ) + 0.182 (FI) + 0.085 (OCC) - 1.236 (DS) - 0.029 (RCC)$$

In the above function, the variable age, marital status, family income and occupation had a positive sign indicating that these variables had higher discriminating powers between the groups. The variables of educational qualifications, duration of sentence and the reasons for committing the crime had a negative sign indicating lower discriminating powers.

The validity of the above discriminant function was valued at group centroids (group means) and the results are shown in the Table – XXXVII.

**TABLE – XXXVII**

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**CLASSIFICATION OF SAMPLE CASES FOR FEMALE OFFENDERS**

S.No.	Classification	Actual	Predicted
1.	Actual	27	4
2.	Predicted	16	73
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>77</b>

Table – XXXVII indicates that among the 43 respondents included in actual, 27 were assigned correctly in actual and 16 were assigned incorrectly in predicted. In predicted, of the 77 respondents, four were correctly assigned to actual and 73 were incorrectly assigned to predicted and the overall per cent of the sample correctly classified was 83 per cent.

The relative contribution of each factor in discriminating the two groups was found out and are given in Table – XXXVIII.

**TABLE – XXXVIII  
RELATIVE DISCRIMINATING POWER**

S.No.	Variables	Relative discriminating power	Percentage contribution of the variables
1.	Age	0.091	64.04
2.	Marital status	0.050	3.39
3.	Educational qualification	-0.045	3.39
4.	Occupation	0.378	3.19
5.	Family income	0.113	4.92
6.	Duration of sentence	-0.945	8.76
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.118	12.32

From the Table – XXXVIII, it is evident that age differentiates the two groups significantly the discriminating power of this variable is 64.04 per cent.

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The second most discriminating factor is reasons for committing the crime 12.32 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 8.76 per cent.

The following seven variables have been selected for inclusion in the discrimination function for the male respondents. The major factors determining the male respondents criminal activity were Age (A), Marital Status (MS), Educational Qualification (EQ), Family Income (FI), Occupation (OCC), Duration of Sentence (DS), Reasons for Committing the Crime (RCC). The means of the independent variables are shown in Table – XXXIX.

**TABLE – XXXIX**  
**THE MEANS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLE FOR MALE OFFENDERS**

S.No.	Variables	Homicidal offenders	Other offenders	Grand means
1.	Age	33.599	36.036	33.9400
2.	Marital status	1.686	2.143	1.7500
3.	Educational qualification	2.244	2.714	2.3100
4.	Family income	2.581	3.893	2.7650
5.	Occupation	2.744	2.714	2.3100
6.	Duration of sentence	1.517	2.964	1.7200
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	5.866	6.036	5.8900

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It was found from the Table – XXXIX, there were significant differences in the mean age, marital status, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime, while there were not much differences in the mean values of the remaining factors.

The unstandardized canonical discriminant function which represents a linear composite of the original data that maximizes the ratios of among group variability to within group variability was estimated as follows :

$$Z = 2.990 + 0.001 (A) - 0.629 (MS) - 0.173 (EQ) + 0.067 (OCC) + 0.027 (FI) - 1.013 (DS) - 0.006 (RCC)$$

In the above function, age, occupation and family income had a positive sign indicating that there exists a strong relationship between the groups and the discriminant function. The remaining variables – marital status, educational qualification, duration of sentence and reasons for committing crime had a negative sign indicating lower discriminating powers.

The validity of the above discriminant function was evaluated at group centroids (group means) and the results are shown in Table – XL.

**TABLE – XL**  
**CLASSIFICATION OF SAMPLE CASES FOR MALE OFFENDERS**

S.No.	Classification	Actual	Predicted
1.	Actual	148	24
2.	Predicted	8	20
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>156</b>	<b>44</b>

Table – XL indicates that among the 156 respondents included in actual, 148 were assigned correctly and eight were assigned incorrectly to predicted ; similarly of the 44 respondents in predicted, 24 were correctly assigned to actual, and 20 were incorrectly assigned to predicted. The overall percentage of the sample classified correctly was 84 per cent.

The relative contribution of each factor in discriminating the two groups was found out and are given in Table – XLI.

**TABLE – XLI**  
**RELATIVE DISCRIMINATING POWER**

S.No.	Variables	Relative discriminating power	Percentage contribution of the variables
1.	Age	0.009	62.28
2.	Marital status	-0.370	4.64
3.	Educational qualification	-0.195	5.19
4.	Occupation	0.086	4.20
5.	Family income	0.069	4.78
6.	Duration of sentence	-0.876	7.69
7.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.019	11.19

It is evident that age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 62.28 per cent. The second most discriminating factor the reasons for committing the crime is 11.19 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 7.69 per cent.

#### **4.6.3 Role in Crime**

For a comprehensive understanding of criminal behavior, it is essential to gain information on all aspects of the crime including the actor's specific

role in its commission. It is also interesting to study to learn the exact nature of respondents participation in different types of crime.

Table – XLII reveals that female respondents role in crime.

**TABLE – XLII**  
**FEMALE RESPONDENTS ROLE IN CRIME**

Role	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
Sole proprietor	38 (63.33) (42.70)	5 (8.33) (55.56)	8 (13.33) (100.00)	9 (15.00) (75.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	60 (100.00) (50.00)
Accomplice	40 (86.96) (44.94)	2 (4.35) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (4.35) (16.67)	2 (4.35) (100.00)	46 (100.00) (38.33)
Gang member	11 (78.57) (12.36)	2 (14.28) (22.22)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	1 (7.14) (8.33)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	14 (100.00) (11.67)
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67)</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLII reveals that in the sample 50 per cent of the women convicts had committed the crime single handedly, 38.33 per cent had operated as accomplices and 11.67 per cent of the female convicts committed the crime with gang membership. Among the 89 homicidal offenders, 42.7 per cent committed single handedly, 44.94 per cent were accomplices and 12.36 per cent committed with gang membership. Among nine female property offenders, 55.56 per cent committed the crime single handedly, 22.22 per cent acted as accomplices and 22.22 per cent indicated gang membership. Among eight prohibition offenders, 100 per cent committed crime single handedly and none of the prohibition offenders acted as accomplices and gang membership. Among 12 drug offenders, 75 per cent of the female convicts acted as sole proprietors, 16.67 per cent committed as accomplices and only 8.33 per cent committed with gang membership. Among two immoral traffic offenders, 100 per cent acted as accomplices.

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Among the 60 female convicts who committed the crime single handedly, 63.33 per cent were homicidal offenders, 8.33 per cent were property offenders, 13.33 per cent were prohibition offenders, 15 per cent were drug offenders and none of the female convicts had acted as sole proprietor in immoral traffic. Among the 46 female convicts as accomplices, 86.96 per cent were homicidal offenders, 4.35 per cent were property offenders, 4.35 per cent were drug offenders and 4.35 per cent were immoral traffic offenders. None of the female prohibition offenders acted as accomplices. Among the 14 women convicts acted as gang members, 78.57 per cent were homicidal offenders, 14.28 per cent were property offenders, 7.14 per cent were drug offenders and none of the prohibition offenders and immoral traffic offenders acted as gang membership. Among the categories, in prohibition and drug offences, the women in accordance with their traditional gender roles have been used as conduits to distract and allay suspicion. A major crime like murder may require help in planning and execution as well as psychological dependence of a kind, very different from what is necessary for minor offences.

The interviews reveals that in almost all cases the women had acted as accomplices to close family members i.e., husband, paramour, son, daughter, etc. Immoral traffic and property offenders had operated independently for the most part, but it is only for these two crimes we find gang membership indicating organized crime activities though drug trafficking is one to involve the most sophisticated of crime networks. Our respondents in the category were who had merely been used as conduits and therefore little information was forthcoming from them. Among the immoral traffic offenders, respondents stated that they had some sort of male protection for their activities. The understanding of criminal behavior of the male respondents by their crime



including the actor's specific role participated in its commission is given in Table – XLIII which reveals the male respondents' role in crime.

**TABLE – XLIII**  
**MALE RESPONDENTS ROLE IN CRIME**

Role	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Theft offenders	Total
Sole proprietor	16 (11.68) (57.14)	6 (4.38) (60.00)	29 (21.17) (80.56)	86 (62.77) (68.25)	137 (100.00) (68.50)
Accomplice	4 (14.81) (14.29)	3 (11.11) (30.00)	5 (18.52) (13.89)	15 (55.55) (11.90)	27 (100.00) (13.50)
Gang member	8 (22.22) (28.57)	1 (2.77) (10.00)	2 (5.56) (5.56)	25 (69.44) (19.84)	36 (100.00) (18.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28 (14.00) (100.00)</b>	<b>10 (5.00) (100.00)</b>	<b>36 (18.00) (100.00)</b>	<b>126 (63.00) (100.00)</b>	<b>200</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLIII reveals that most of the offenders had committed the crime single handedly amount to 68.5 per cent, 13.5 per cent of the male offenders acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Among the male homicidal offenders, 57.14 per cent had operated the crime single handedly, 14.29 per cent operated the crime with accomplices and 28.57 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Among the 10 property offenders, 60 per cent committed the crime single handedly, 30 per cent of the offenders acted as accomplices and 10 per cent acted as gang membership. Among the 36 prohibition offenders, 80.56 per cent committed crime single handedly, 13.89 per cent acted as accomplice and 5.56 per cent committed crime as gang membership. Among 126 theft offenders, 68.25 per cent were sole proprietors of their crime, 11.9 per cent acted as accomplice and 19.84 per cent committed gang membership.

As a whole, 68.5 per cent of the male respondents committed the crime single handedly, 13.5 per cent acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime with gang membership. Comparatively, most of the female and male respondents indulge in crime single handedly when compared with other roles such as accomplice and gang member.

#### 4.6.4 Motive for Committing Crime

According to Beckers (1968) exposition on an economic model of crime assumed that a potential offender acts as an expected – utility maximiser who allocates his time between competing activities, both legal and illegal with uncertain consequences. A rational agent will thus engage in some illegal activity as long as the marginal return from crime exceeds the marginal return from legal occupation by more than the expected value of the penalty (Marselli and Vannini, 1997). The theoretical foundations of the link between economic deprivation and crime is based upon the notion that deprivation creates economically motivated offenders who are compelled to commit crime in order to satisfy basic needs (Shihadeh and Qusey, 1998). Effort was taken to find out the motives which encouraged the respondents to commit the crime. Dispute over property, vendetta, sexual causes, economic gain and provocation were the motives mentioned by the respondents for committing crime.

Table – XLIV and Figure – 18 shows the female respondents’ motives for committing crime.

**TABLE – XLIV**  
**FEMALE RESPONDENTS’ MOTIVES FOR CRIME**

Motives	Homicidal offenders	Property offenders	Prohibition offenders	Drug offenders	Immoral traffic offenders	Total
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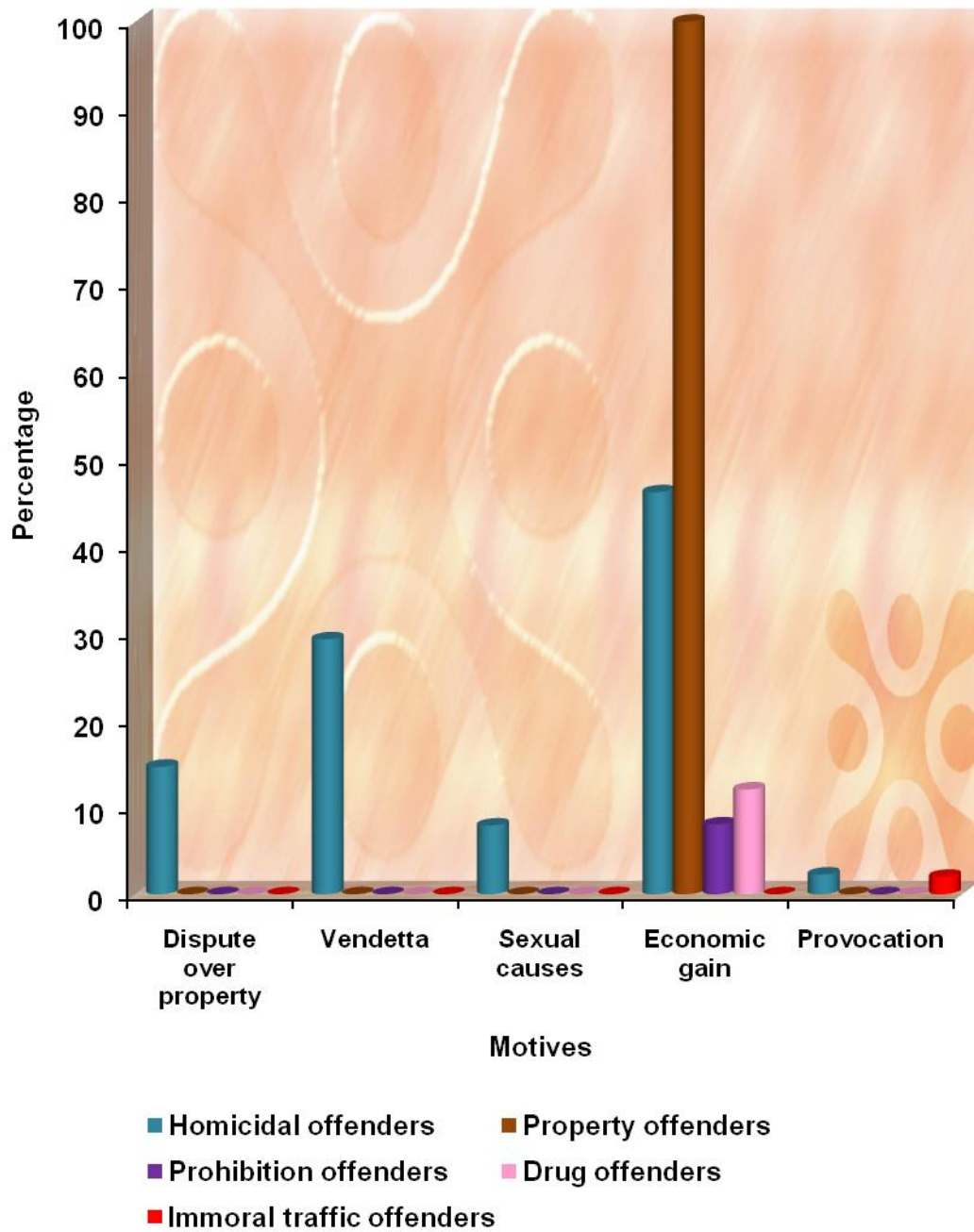
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Dispute over property	13 (100.00) (14.61)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	13 (100.00) (10.83)
Vendetta	26 (100.00) (29.21)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	26 (100.00) (21.67)
Sexual causes	7 (100.00) (7.87)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	7 (100.00) (5.83)
Economic gain	41 (58.57) (46.07)	9 (12.86) (100.00)	8 (11.43) (100.00)	12 (17.4) (100.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	70 (100.00) (58.33)
Provocation	2 (50.00) (2.25)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	0 (0.00) (0.00)	2 (50.00) (100.00)	4 (100.00) (3.33)	
<b>Total</b>	<b>89 (74.17) (100.00)</b>	<b>9 (7.5) (100.00)</b>	<b>8 (6.67) (100.00)</b>	<b>12 (10.00) (100.00)</b>	<b>2 (1.67) (100.00)</b>	<b>120</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

**FIGURE – 18**  
**FEMALE RESPONDENTS' MOTIVES FOR CRIME**



From the Table – XLIV, it is evident that among the motives, economic gain seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime 58.33 per cent. Fully knowing the consequences of their crime and the punishment they may get if they are caught, they attempted to commit the crime in order to have better economic gain. For 21.67 per cent of the female respondents vendetta was the second important motive for their crime. Dispute over property was the motive for 10.83 per cent of the female offenders. For 5.83 per cent of the female offenders motivation for criminal activity was sexual causes. Only 3.33 per cent of the female respondents specified that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Among the 89 homicidal offenders, 14.61 per cent of the respondents' motivation for committing the crime was dispute over property, 29.21 per cent of the respondents' motive for crime was vendetta, 7.87 per cent of the respondents' motive for crime was sexual causes, 46.07 per cent of the respondents' motive was economic gain and only 2.25 per cent of the respondents' motive was provocation. For property, prohibition and drug offenders economic gain was the main motive for committing crime. For immoral traffic offenders provocation was the main motive to commit crime.

Table – XLV and Figure – 19 shows the male respondents' motives for crime.

**TABLE – XLV**  
**MALE RESPONDENTS MOTIVE FOR CRIME**

<b>Motives</b>	<b>Homicidal offenders</b>		<b>Property offenders</b>		<b>Prohibition offenders</b>		<b>Theft offenders</b>		<b>Total</b>	
Dispute over property	5 (17.86)	(55.56)	1 (10.00)	(11.11)	2 (5.56)	(22.22)	1 (0.79)	(11.11)	9 (4.5)	(100.00)
Vendetta	5 (17.86)	(71.43)	1 (10.00)	(14.28)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.79)	(14.28)	7 (3.5)	(100.00)
Sexual causes	1 (3.57)	(100.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	1 (0.5)	(100.00)
Economic gain	15 (53.57)	(8.43)	8 (80.00)	(4.49)	34 (94.44)	(19.10)	121 (96.03)	(67.97)	178 (89.0)	(100.00)
Provocation	2 (7.14)	(40.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	0 (0.00)	(0.00)	3 (2.38)	(60.00)	5 (2.5)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>28</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(14.00)</b>	<b>10</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(5.00)</b>	<b>36</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(18.00)</b>	<b>126</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(63.00)</b>	<b>200</b>	

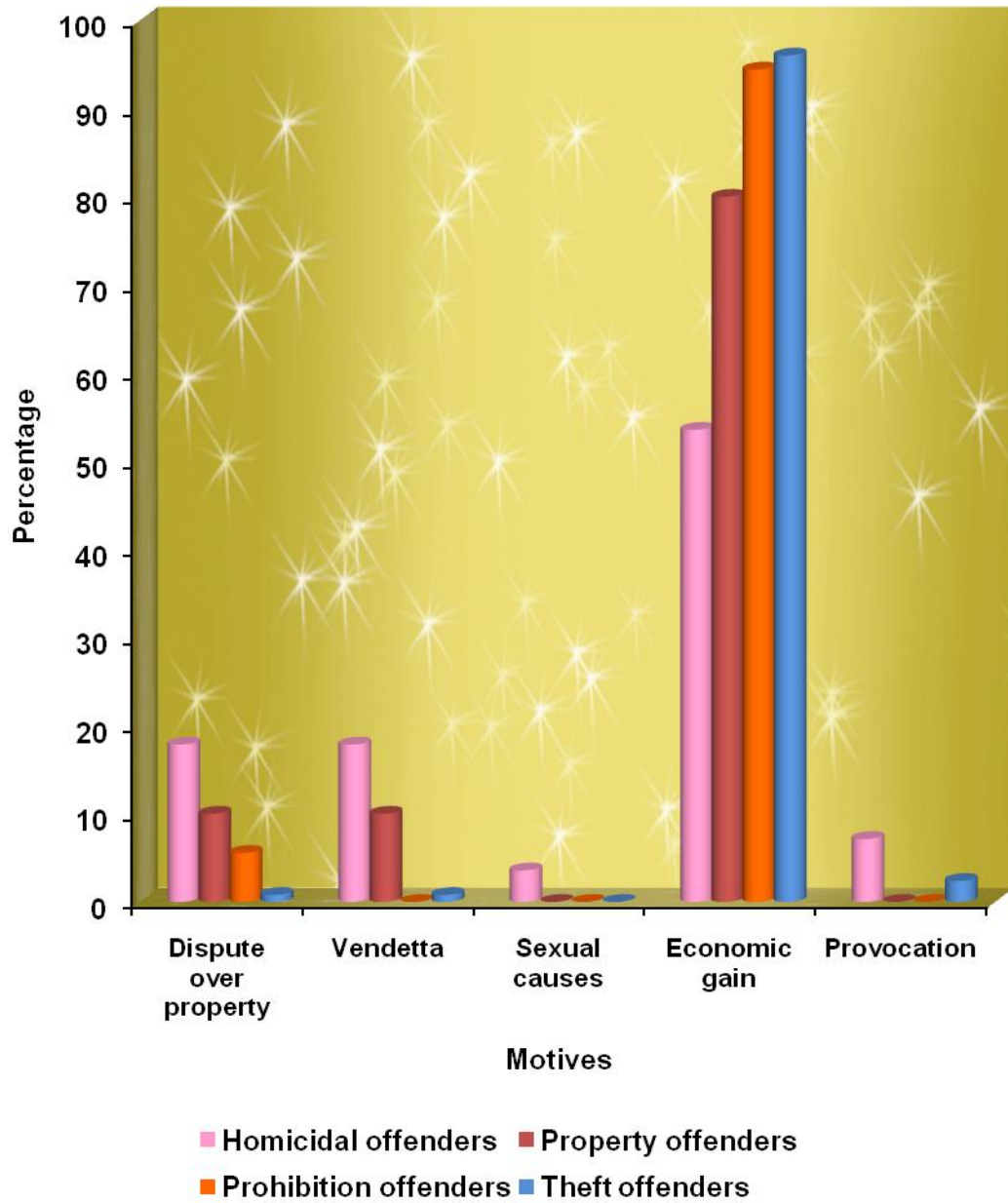
Source : Prison Survey.

Table – XLV reveals that economic gain is the main motivating factor for committing crime. Among the 200 male respondents, 89 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically and 4.5 per cent of the respondents specified that dispute over property was the motivating factor for committing the crime. Vendetta was the main motive for 3.5 per cent of the male offenders, 2.5 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the motivating factor for their criminal activity and 0.5 per cent of the male offenders indicated sexual cause was the motive for committing crime.

Among the 28 homicidal offenders, 53.57 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically, 17.86 per cent of the respondents specified dispute over property as the motive, 17.86 per cent of the male respondents indicated vendetta was the motivation factor for crime

and 7.14 per cent of the male respondents indicated that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Only 3.57 per cent of the male respondents committed crime for sexual cause. Among the 10 property offenders, 10 per cent of the respondents' motive was dispute over property, 10 per cent of the respondents motive for committing the crime was vendetta

**FIGURE – 19**  
**MALE RESPONDENTS' MOTIVES FOR CRIME**





and 80 per cent of the male respondents main motive was economic gain. From the 36 prohibition offenders, 94.44 per cent of the respondents motive was economic gain and the remaining 5.56 per cent respondents motive for committing the crime was dispute over property. Among 126 theft offenders, 96.03 per cent of the respondents motive for committing crime was economic gain, 2.38 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the main motive for committing crime, 0.79 per cent of the respondents motive for crime was dispute over property and 0.79 per cent of the respondents motive for crime was vendetta. This proves the hypothesis that the potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.

The slope co-efficient derived in the logit estimates are reported in the Table – XLVI.

**TABLE – XLVI**  
**LOGIT ESTIMATIONS FOR FEMALE RESPONDENTS**

S.No	Variables	Co-efficient	Standard error	't' value	Probability
1.	Age	-0.3422	0.249	-1.371	0.1703
2.	Marital status	-0.1354	0.4432	-0.031	0.9756
3.	Caste	-0.6334	0.4101	-1.545	0.1225
4.	Educational qualification	0.3837	0.2938	0.131	0.8961
5.	Occupation	-0.5224	0.2499	-2.090	0.0366
6.	Family income	-0.5582	0.1698	-3.288	0.0010
7.	Residential background	-0.3915	0.3967	-0.987	0.3237
8.	Family management	-0.5014	0.1427	-0.351	0.7253
9.	Economic contribution	-0.6268	0.3521	1.780	0.0750
10.	Motive for crime	-0.6147	0.3285	-1.871	0.0613
11.	Expected gain from crime	-0.9393	0.3378	-0.278	0.7810
12.	Duration of sentence	0.1946	0.4036	4.821	0.000
13.	Reasons for committing the	0.2054	0.8210	2.500	

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crime					0.0124
Constant	0.7379	0.3051	2.419		0.0156

Log likelihood Function = -25.4865

Restricted log likelihood = -68.5568

Chi-squared value = 86.1405\*\*

Degrees of freedom =13

Only the variables occupation, family income, duration of sentence and reasons for committing the crime emerged significantly and influenced the probability nature of offence. The other variables are not significant with the nature of offence for the female respondents. Since the calculated Chi-squared value is significant at 1% level, it can be concluded that the overall fitted logit model is an adequate model.

### **Logit Estimations for Male Respondents**

The co-efficient of the variable age shows a non-significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and it came out with a negative sign indicating that the age variable does not influence the nature of offence performed by the male offenders.

Marital status shows a significant relationship with the nature of offence and the co-efficient of the variable marital status coming out with the positive sign implies that marital status was an important variable influencing the probability of nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable caste emerged insignificant with the negative sign revealing that the caste does not influence the male respondents to indulge in crime. The variable educational qualification had a positive sign showing statistically an insignificant

relationship with the nature of offence. The estimation reveals that the variable educational qualification was not an important factor influencing the probability nature of offence.

The slope co-efficients derived in the logit estimates are reported in the Table – XLVII.

**TABLE – XLVII**  
**LOGIT ESTIMATIONS FOR MALE RESPONDENTS**

S.No	Variables	Co-efficient	Standard error	't' value	Probability
1.	Age	-0.7129	0.2091	-0.341	0.7332
2.	Marital status	0.8952	0.3696	2.422	0.0154
3.	Caste	-0.9627	0.2679	-0.359	0.7194
4.	Educational qualification	0.3198	0.1899	1.685	0.0921
5.	Occupation	-0.5471	0.1744	-0.314	0.7538
6.	Family income	-0.1088	0.9675	-1.127	0.2610
7.	Residential background	-0.1309	0.3187	-0.411	0.6813
8.	Family management	0.3232	0.1299	0.249	0.8035
9.	Economic contribution	-0.4925	0.3202	-1.538	0.1240
10.	Motive for crime	-0.8345	0.2750	-3.033	0.0024
11.	Expected gain from crime	-0.1965	0.3472	-0.566	0.5779
12.	Duration of sentence	0.1491	0.2389	6.239	0.000
13.	Reasons for committing the crime	-0.3944	0.7089	0.556	0.5715
	Constant	0.2307	0.2139	1.078	0.2810

Log likelihood Function = -49.6569

Restricted log likelihood = -80.9927

Chi-squared value = 62.6715\*\*

Degrees of freedom =13

The variable marital status, motive for crime and duration of sentence emerged significantly with the probability nature of offence for the male respondents. The other variables show an insignificant relationship with the probability nature of offence. Since the calculated Chi-squared value is significant at 1% level, it can be concluded that the overall fitted logit model is an adequate model.

### Push Factors

The motives for crime are classified as 'push factors' which emphasise the origin of crime. The investigator identified 16 factors which could be treated as 'push factors' that motivate the respondents to indulge in crime. The responses given by the respondents as the origin of crime were listed in the following Table – XLVIII and Figure – 20.

**TABLE – XLVIII**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY THE IDENTIFIED**  
**PUSH FACTORS TO COMMIT CRIME**

N = 320

S.No.	Factors	Number	Percentage
<b>I.</b>	<b>Economic Factors</b>		
1.	Poverty	162	50.62
2.	Unemployment	158	49.38
3.	Family indebtedness	106	33.12
4.	Low wages	181	56.56
5.	Economic insufficiency	196	61.25

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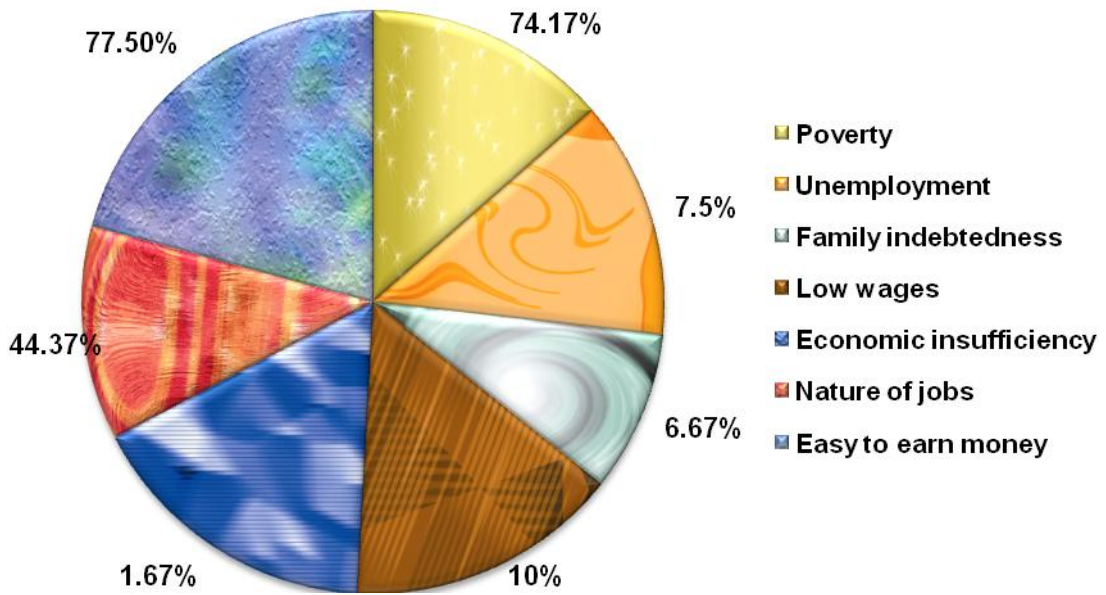
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6.	Nature of jobs	142	44.37
7.	Easy to earn money	248	77.50
<b>II. Non-Economic Factors</b>			
1.	Size of family	97	30.31
2.	Illiteracy	129	40.31
3.	Lack of awareness about punishment	182	56.87
4.	Unhappy marriage	157	49.06
5.	Less duration of punishment	125	39.06
6.	Family members are already criminals	56	17.50
7.	Access to information sources	48	15.00
8.	Lack of parental control	52	16.25
9.	Influence of the media	72	22.50

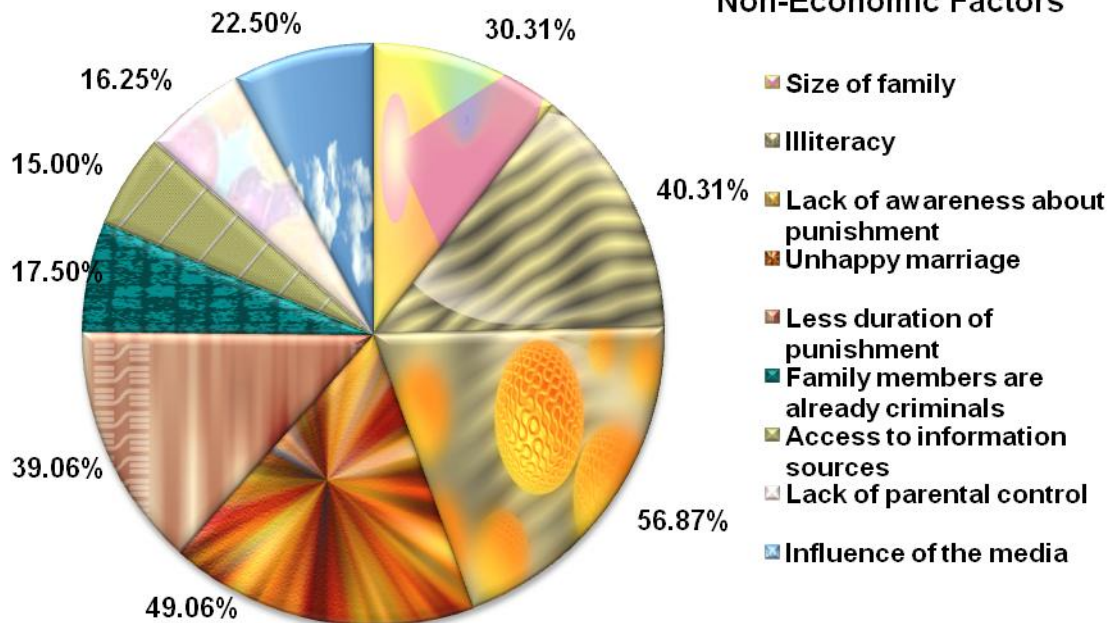
Source : Prison Survey.

**FIGURE – 20**  
**DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY THE IDENTIFIED**  
**PUSH FACTORS TO COMMIT CRIME**

### Economic Factors



### Non-Economic Factors



From the Table – XLVIII, it was observed that ‘push factors’ which were primary causes for committing the crime were classified into economic and non-economic factors. Economic factors deals with level of poverty, unemployment, family indebtedness, low wages, economic insufficiency, nature of jobs and easy to earn money. Non-economic factors include size of family, illiteracy, lack of awareness about punishment, unhappy marriage, less duration of punishment, family members are already criminals, access to information sources, lack of parental control and influence of the media. Among the economic factors, easy to earn money (77.5 per cent) was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit crime. Economic necessity (61.25 per cent) comes as a second main factor to indulge in criminal activity. Low wages (56.56 per cent), level of poverty (50.62 per cent), unemployment (49.38 per cent), nature of job (44.37 per cent) and the family indebtedness (33.12 per cent) were other push factors for committing crime.

Among the non-economic factors for committing the crime, lack of awareness about punishment (56.87 per cent) was the prime push factor to commit crime. Unhappy marriage (49.06 per cent), illiteracy (40.31 per cent), less duration of punishment (39.06 per cent), size of family (30.31 per cent), influence of the media (22.5 per cent), family members are already criminals (17.5 per cent), lack of parental control (16.25 per cent) and access to information sources (15 per cent) were the other important non-economic factors which pushed them to commit crime. These results reveal that from the economic factors easy to earn money was the prime push factor for the respondents to indulge in crime and for the non-economic factor lack of awareness about the punishment was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit criminal activity. These findings support the studies of Carroll and Weaver (1986), Tunnell (1992), Nagin and Paternaster (1993) and Niggli and Alexander (1994).

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#### 4.6.5 Respondents' Awareness about the Punishment and Interest in Committing the Crime Again

The respondents' awareness about the punishment and interest in committing the crime again are shown in the Table – XLIX and Figure – 21.

**TABLE – XLIX**  
**RESPONDENTS' AWARENESS ABOUT THE PUNISHMENT AND INTEREST IN COMMITTING THE CRIME AGAIN**

Respondents' awareness about the punishment and interest in committing the crime again	Female			Male		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
Awareness about the punishment	47 (39.17)	73 (60.83)	120	128 (64.00)	72 (36.00)	200
Interest in committing the crime again	16 (13.33)	104 (86.67)	120	155 (77.50)	45 (22.50)	200

Source : Prison Survey.

From the 120 female respondents, 39.17 per cent had awareness about the punishment for their crime and the rest did not have the awareness about the punishment. Among male respondents (200), 64 per cent were aware of the punishment and 36 per cent did not have awareness about the punishment. Among female respondents only 13.33 per cent expressed their interest to commit the crime again. Majority of the female respondents 86.67 per cent did not show any interest in committing crime again. Among the male respondents, majority of 77.5 per cent were interested in committing crime.

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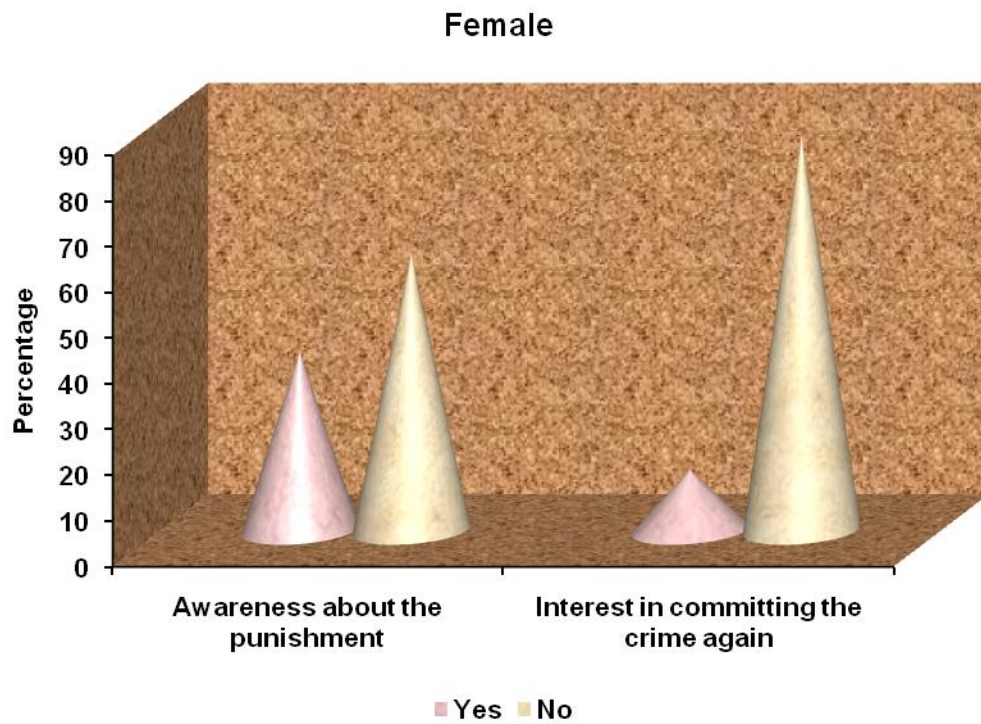
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This reveals that irrespective of the awareness about the punishment it was the male respondents who expressed that they would like to commit crime.

**FIGURE – 21**  
**RESPONDENTS AWARENESS ABOUT THE PUNISHMENT AND INTEREST IN COMMITTING THE CRIME AGAIN**





#### 4.6.6 Living Conditions Inside the Prison

Effort was taken to find out the level of satisfaction felt by the sample respondents regarding the living conditions inside the prison. Table – L shows the respondents' views of the living conditions inside the prison.

**TABLE – L**  
**RESPONDENTS' VIEWS OF THE LIVING CONDITIONS INSIDE THE PRISON**

Level of satisfaction or living conditions	Female		Male		Total	
Fully satisfied	22 (18.33)	(41.51)	31 (15.5)	(58.49)	53 (16.56)	(100.00)
Satisfied	59 (49.17)	(47.58)	65 (32.5)	(52.42)	124 (38.75)	(100.00)

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Not satisfied	39 (32.50)	(27.27)	104 (52.00)	(72.72)	143 (44.69)	(100.00)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(37.5)</b>	<b>200</b> <b>(100.00)</b>	<b>(62.5)</b>	<b>320</b>	

Source : Prison Survey.

In the Table – L, from the 120 female offenders, 18.33 per cent were fully satisfied, 49.17 per cent of the female offenders specified that they were satisfied with basic needs and 32.5 per cent were not satisfied with the living conditions inside the prison. Among the 200 male offenders, 15.5 per cent were fully satisfied, 32.5 per cent of the male respondents were satisfied with the basic necessities and the living conditions inside the prison and 52 per cent of the male offenders were not satisfied with the living conditions. Among the 320 sample, 16.56 per cent were fully satisfied, 38.75 per cent were satisfied and 44.69 per cent were not satisfied with the living conditions inside the prison. Among the 53 fully satisfied respondents, 41.51 per cent were female respondents and 58.49 per cent were male respondents. Among the 124 satisfied respondents, 47.58 per cent were female respondents and 52.42 per cent were male respondents. Among the 143 dissatisfied respondents, 27.27 per cent were female respondents and 72.72 per cent were male respondents.

These findings reveal that female respondents were not much satisfied when compared with male offenders with the living conditions inside the prison.

#### **4.6.7 Rehabilitation Measures for Convicted Prisoners in Tamil Nadu**

Efforts were taken to find out the awareness among the prisoners regarding the rehabilitation measures taken by the government to reform and

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rehabilitate them after they will be released from prison. Table – LI shows the rehabilitation of prisoners.

**TABLE – LI**  
**REHABILITATION OF PRISONERS**

Rehabilitation measures	Female	Male	Total
Awareness about rehabilitation measures	86 (62.32) (71.67)	52 (37.68) (26.00)	138 (100.00) (43.12)
Lack of awareness about rehabilitation measures	34 (18.68) (28.33)	148 (81.32) (74.00)	182 (100.00) (56.87)
<b>Total</b>	<b>120 (37.5) (100.00)</b>	<b>200 (62.5) (100.00)</b>	<b>320</b>

Source : Prison Survey.

From the Table – LI, the findings revealed that among the 120 female offenders, 71.67 per cent were aware of the rehabilitation measures and the remaining 28.33 per cent were not aware of the rehabilitation measures. Among the 200 male prisoners, 26 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 74 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measure provided by the government.

From the 138 respondents who were aware of rehabilitation measures, 62.32 per cent were female respondents and 37.68 per cent were male respondents. Among the 182 respondents who were not aware of rehabilitation measures, 18.68 per cent were female offenders and 81.32 per cent were male offenders. Among the 320 respondents, 43.12 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 56.87 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measures provided by the government.

It is a fact that nothing is materially done either by the Discharged Prisoners Aid Society or by the District Collector out of their funds for the rehabilitation of discharged prisoners. The prisoners are trained in the following trades by qualified instructors, so that they can earn sufficiently after their discharge from prison.

- (i) Weaving industry
- (ii) Handmade paper industry
- (iii) Book binding industry
- (iv) Aluminium industry
- (v) Blacksmithy industry
- (vi) Sericulture unit

Prisoners are also trained in simple trade (plumbing) by a qualified instructor appointed specially for this purpose and trade certificates are issued after completion of training by the Director of Employment and Training, Chennai.

## CHAPTER – V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Economic offences are the manifestation of criminal acts done either solely or in an organized manner with or without associates or gangs with an intent to earn wealth through illegal means and are carried out in an illicit manner violating the laws of land, other regulatory statutory provisions governing the economic activities of the government and its administration.

Economic or punishment and reward theory developed by George (1958) stresses that the human being is basically a rational animal possessing a will that enables the individual to choose courses of action freely and also believed to possess the desire to achieve pleasure and avoid pain. Some persons become criminals not because their basic motivation differs from that of other persons but because their benefits and costs differ.

Crime is increasing at a rapid rate and along with it are changing fast concepts regarding it. Till now most of the researchers on crime have confined themselves to males, because crime has been considered a male behaviour but with the upsurge of women offenders in the country the notion is proved wrong. Women, like men suffer from jealousy, enmity and hatred which motivates them for criminality. Very few studies have been made on Indian criminals to highlight the offences and the criminal tendencies present in them. The economic offences causes significant damage to the general economy of the country and adversely affect the growth and development of the nation.

The importance of gender as a crucial parameter in social and economic analysis is complementary rather than competitive. There is little

research or interest to study economics of crime but there are two important factors that provide relevance to the study. The important factors are

- (1) The early neglect and inadequate interpretation of economics of crime in research and in practice.
- (2) The notion of the increased incidence of economic crimes with the attendant need to understand and curtail it.

Considering these factors, the investigator has done a study on **“ECONOMICS OF CRIME : A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS OF CONVICTED FEMALE AND MALE CRIMINALITY IN A SELECTED PRISONS IN TAMIL NADU”** with the following objectives :

- (vi) To analyse the extent of various forms of crimes under Indian penal code in Tamil Nadu during the period 1990-2005.
- (vii) To analyse the trends in economic offences (smuggling, tax-evasion, money-laundering, cultural object theft) in India during the period 1990-2005.
- (viii) To assess the socio-economic conditions of female and male convicted prisoners from the selected prisons for the period 2005-2006 in Tamil Nadu.
- (ix) To examine the factors which motivated the convicted prisoners to commit crime in the period 2005-2006.
- (x) To analyse the rehabilitation measures undertaken by the Government for the convicted prisoners in Tamil Nadu.

The following null hypothesis are tested as follows :

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- (e) The potential criminals behave rationally and the economic motive is the main cause for the crimes committed by them.
- (f) There is no association between the age group of the convicted prisoners and their nature of offence.
- (g) Socio-economic background of the convicted prisoners will influence their criminal activity.
- (h) Duration of imprisonment will influence the criminal activity of the convicted prisoners.

The major findings of the study are given below :

- (1) In Tamil Nadu the number of persons arrested sex-wise under IPC crimes from 1990 to 2005 reveals that the total number of persons arrested in the year 1990 was 857214, in this female constituted 4.14 per cent and male constituted 95.96 per cent. In the year 2005, the total number of persons arrested was 2621547. The female constituted 5.8 per cent and male constituted 93.33 per cent. Between the years 1990 to 2005, the highest number of persons were arrested in the year 2001 (2671540). In this female constituted 5.4 per cent and male constituted 94.6 per cent. Regarding female criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2003 was six per cent and among the male criminality the highest number of persons arrested in the year 2002 constituted 97.69 per cent. Regarding the number of persons arrested between 1990 to 2005 female criminality shows an increasing trend and male criminality shows a declining trend.
- (2) Analysis of the extent of various forms of crimes sex-wise under Indian penal code for the period 1990 to 2005 revealed that the percentage of



male offenders are greater than the female offenders in the total number of persons arrested. The number of female and male offenders increased between 1990 to 2005. The rate of increase was more in the case of female offenders than male offenders.

- (3) During the period of study, in smuggling the average number of seizure was 46040, while the amount of seizure in terms of value was Rs.700.69 crores. Taking the entire period of the study, the average compound rate of growth for the number of seizures and value of seizures was negative  $-12.79$  per cent and  $-1.46$  per cent respectively.
- (4) The seizures made by income tax department showed an increasing trend. The average number of searches was 5379, while the amount of asset seized in terms of value was Rs.317.9 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches conducted was negative,  $-3.01$  per cent and value of assets seized was positive  $0.17$  per cent.
- (5) In money laundering the average number of searches conducted was 902, while the amount of seizures in terms of value was Rs.625.19 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the number of searches and value of seizures was negative,  $-17.86$  per cent and  $-16.81$  per cent respectively.
- (6) In cultural property stolen and recovered, the average stolen was 1958, while the property recovered was in terms of value Rs.596.07 crores. The average compound rate of growth for the property stolen and property recovered in terms of value was negative,  $-11.06$  per cent and  $-2.81$  per cent respectively.

## **Socio-Economic Background of the Convicted Female and Male Prisoners**

- (7) From the 120 female convicted prisoners, a majority of 74.17 per cent came under the category of homicidal offenders, 10 per cent were drug offenders, 7.5 per cent were property offenders, 6.67 per cent were prohibition offenders and only 1.67 per cent of the female convicted prisoners committed immoral traffic offence. None of the female convicts committed theft offence. From the 200 male prisoners, a majority of the (63 per cent) convicted come under the category of theft offence, 18 per cent of the male convicts were prohibition offenders, 14 per cent of the male convicted prisoners comes under the category of homicidal offenders. Only five per cent of them were property offenders. None of the convicted male prisoners involved in drug and immoral traffic offences.
- (8) Majority of the female prisoners (66.22 per cent) between 25 and 50 years of age committed crimes. As they grew older, they did not want to involve in the risk of arrest.
- (9) The analysis of the age profile of different groups of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower age group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.
- (10) From the 200 male offenders, 16 per cent belonged to 20-25 years, 75.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 25-50 years. The remaining 8.5 per cent belonged to the age group of 50-80 years.
- (11) The analysis of the age profile of different group of offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a higher age group when

compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean age of these groups of offenders.

- (12) The results prove the hypothesis, that there is association between the age group of the female convicted offenders and their nature of offence and the male convicted offenders and their nature of offence, because in the sample, crimes are committed mainly between age groups of 25-50 years.
- (13) Marital status of the female offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident 75.83 per cent of the female offenders were married, among the rest 13.33 per cent were widowed, 3.33 per cent were separated, five per cent were unmarried and the remaining 2.5 per cent were divorced. The marital status of male offenders have a bearing on their criminal behavior. As is evident, 67 per cent of the offenders were married and the remaining 33 per cent remain unmarried. Comparatively, the committance of crime is more among married women and men than the unmarried.
- (14) The distribution of offenders population by caste shows a high representation of backward castes ; 52.5 per cent of the female population and 50.5 per cent of the male population respectively belonged to backward caste.
- (15) The educational level of female and male offenders shows that 57.5 per cent of the female offenders were illiterates and 70 per cent of the male offenders were literates. Female illiterates committed more crimes than men. Among men, the offenders who were educated upto primary and middle level committed more crimes.

- (16) The reasons for school drop out for the respondents reveals that the female offenders (28.33 per cent) were denied education due to financial constraints, and assisting the parents (31.5 per cent) was the major cause of school drop out by the male offenders.
- (17) The residential background reveals that from the 120 female offenders, 37.5 per cent resided in rural and 33.33 per cent in urban areas. Only 29.17 per cent respondents came from semi-urban area. Among the 200 male respondents, 24 per cent resided in rural areas, 50.5 per cent belonged to semi-urban areas and 25.5 per cent resided in urban areas. This reflects the fact that the residential background of the offenders influences the type of the offences committed by them.
- (18) The distribution of female respondents by occupation shows that among 120 female respondents, 9.17 per cent were agricultural labourers, 24.17 per cent were labourers, 1.67 per cent were skilled workers, 40.82 per cent were domestic workers, 24.17 per cent were begging and lottering. The distribution of male respondents by occupation shows 13 per cent were agricultural labourers, 44.5 per cent were labourers, 10.5 per cent were skilled workers, 28.5 per cent were domestic workers and 3.5 per cent resorted to begging and lottering. It was the domestic workers among females and labourers among males who committed more crime.
- (19) Family income inferred that from the 120 female offenders, 44.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.1-100, 35.83 per cent were getting the income between Rs.101-250 per month, 4.17 per cent were in the income category of Rs.251-500. None of the female respondents were getting the family income between Rs.501-750. Only 1.67 per cent were getting the income between Rs.751-1000, and 14.17 per

cent were in the income category of above Rs.1000 when looking at the family income of the female respondents. While in case of male offenders, 4.5 per cent were getting the income between Rs.1-100, 36 per cent were in the income category of Rs.101-250, seven per cent were getting the family income between Rs.251-500, five per cent were in the income category of Rs.501-750, 4.5 per cent were getting the family income between Rs.750-1000, 43 per cent were getting above Rs.1000 as their family income.

- (20) The analysis of the income profile of the different group of female offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to higher income group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was a significant difference in the mean income between the homicidal offenders and other offenders.
- (21) The analysis of the income profile of the different groups of male offenders revealed that the homicidal offenders belonged to a lower income group when compared to other offenders. The 'F' ratio indicates that there was no significant difference in the mean income of these groups of offenders. Comparatively, male respondents received higher income than the female respondents.
- (22) The classification of the respondents by family size shows that, among the 120 female offenders, 66.67 per cent belonged to small family, 29.17 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining 4.17 per cent belonged to very large family. From the 200 male respondents, 73 per cent belonged to small family, 24 per cent belonged to large family and the remaining four per cent belonged to very large family size. It is clearly brought out that the majority of the female and male offenders belonged to small size family.

- (23) The classification of female and male respondents by type of dwelling indicates that 54.17 per cent of the female respondents had resided in thatched houses, while 35.83 per cent and 3.33 per cent respondents had lived in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 6.67 per cent of the female respondents did not have any proper residence and they resided wherever possible. The type of dwelling by male respondents shows their standard of living, the earning capacity and also the economic situation of the family. Among the sample 60 per cent of the male respondents resided in thatched houses, while 32 per cent and 6.5 per cent had resided in tiled and RCC houses respectively. The remaining 1.5 per cent of the male respondents had resided in any other form of houses. The overall economic situation of the female and male respondents was poor with respect to their type of dwelling.
- (24) Male respondents' perception of income sufficiency, food, clothing and shelter shows much poorer status than that of the female respondents. Since they perceived insufficiency in food, clothing and shelter, 65 per cent of the female respondents and 96 per cent of the male respondents resorted to crime to rectify their needs.
- (25) The economic contribution of spouses indicates that among 120 female respondents only 59 female respondents' spouses helped them with income to run the family. The rest did not contribute anything for the family maintenance. Among 200 male respondents only 53 members received financial help from their spouses. Because of the insufficiency of funds to meet atleast the basic necessities of the family, both female and male respondents resorted to criminal activities to gain economically. The results prove the hypothesis, that the socio-

economic background of the convicted prisoners influences their criminal activity.

### **Crime History of the Convicted Prisoners**

- (26) The distribution of female offenders by duration of sentence reveals that among 120 female offenders, 51.67 per cent were life convicts, 20.83 per cent of the female offenders were convicted over five years, 19.17 per cent of the female offenders were convicted between one year and under five years. The remaining 8.33 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. Among the 200 male offenders, 10 per cent were undergoing life sentence, 9.5 per cent were convicted over five years, 23 per cent were convicted over one year to under five years and 57.5 per cent were convicted over six months to under one year. An analysis of the punishment given to different offenders reveals that for the homicidal offences the punishment was severe than other offences.
- (27) The distribution of recidivists among the female offenders shows that 95 per cent were imprisoned for the first time and only five per cent were imprisoned for the second time. With regard to male offenders, 46 per cent of the male convicts were first timers, 22 per cent were second timers and 32 per cent committed the offence more than twice. These findings revealed that a large proportion of the male convicts are habitual offenders with respect to the nature of offence.
- (28) The results of the discriminant analysis of the female offenders shows that the age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 64.04 per cent. The second most discriminating factor is reason for committing the crime 12.32 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 8.76 per cent.

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- (29) The results of the discriminant analysis of the male respondents shows that age differentiates the two groups significantly and the discriminating power of this variable is 62.28 per cent. The second most discriminating factor is reason for committing the crime 11.19 per cent. Duration of sentence has a discriminating power of 7.69 per cent.
- (30) Female respondents' role in crime reveals that in the sample 50 per cent of the women convicts had committed the crime single handedly, 38.33 per cent had operated as accomplices and 11.67 per cent of the female convicts committed the crime with gang membership. Among the male respondents most of the offenders had committed the crime single handedly which amounts to 68.5 per cent, 13.5 per cent of the male offenders acted as accomplices and 18 per cent committed the crime as gang membership. Comparatively, most of the female and male respondents indulge in crime single handedly when compared with other roles such as accomplice and gang members.
- (31) The motive for crime for female respondents is evident that among the motives economic gain seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime with 58.33 per cent. Fully knowing the consequences of their crime and the punishment they may get if they are caught, they attempted to commit the crime in order to have better economic gain. For 21.67 per cent of the female respondents vendetta was the second important motive for their crime. Dispute over property was the motive for 10.83 per cent of the female offenders. For 5.83 per cent of the female offenders motivation for criminal activity was sexual causes. Only 3.33 per cent of the female respondents specified that provocation was the motivating factor for their criminal activity. Among the male respondents, 89 per cent of the male respondents committed crime to gain economically, 4.5 per cent of the respondents specified



that dispute over property was the motivating factor for committing the crime. Vendetta was the main motive 3.5 per cent of the male offenders, 2.5 per cent of the male respondents indicated provocation as the motivating factor for their criminal activity and 0.5 per cent of the male offenders indicated sexual cause as the motive for their committing crime.

- (32) The results of the logit estimations for female respondents shows that though the co-efficient of the variable age emerged significantly, it came out with an inconsistent negative sign. The apriori expectation for the co-efficient was that it would turn out positive, implying that the probability of the nature of offence is a significant factor which influences the different age groups of the female respondents. The findings reveal that the marital status of the respondents shows non-significance with the negative sign. The result shows most of the female respondents belonging to the backward caste. And the educational qualification had a greater impact on the nature of offence performed by the individual. The finding reveals that more number of respondents, came under illiterate category. The findings implies that there is an association between the family income of the respondents and the type of crime committed by them. The co-efficient of the variable economic contribution had positively influenced the probability of nature of offence as shown by statistically significant positive co-efficient for this variable in the estimation. The co-efficient of the variable expected gain from crime turned out statistically significant, highlighting that the gain expected from crime had a greater influence on the probability nature of offence. The result implies that the duration of sentence was an important factor which influences the crime performed by female offenders.

- (33) Logit estimations for male respondents revealed that the co-efficient of the variable age shows a non-significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and it came out with a negative sign indicating that the age variable does not influence the nature of offence performed by the male offenders. Marital status shows a significant relationship with the nature of offence and the co-efficient of the variable marital status coming out with the positive sign implies that marital status was an important variable influencing the probability of nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable caste emerged insignificant with the negative sign revealing that the caste does not influence the male respondents to indulge in crime. The estimation reveals that the variable educational qualification was not an important factor influencing the probability nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable motive for crime came out with the negative sign, indicating statistically significant relationship with the nature of offence. The co-efficient of the variable duration of sentence came out with a positive sign, showing statistically significant relationship with the probability nature of offence and the result indicates that the sentence period had greater impact on the type of crime they have performed.
- (34) The results regarding the push factors reveal that from the economic factors, easy to earn money was the prime push factor for the respondents to indulge in crime and for the non-economic factors lack of awareness about the punishment was the prime push factor for the respondents to commit criminal activity.
- (35) Majority of the female respondents, 86.67 per cent did not show any interest in committing crime again. Among the male respondents, majority of 77.5 per cent were interested in committing crime. This reveals that irrespective of the awareness about the punishment it was

the male respondents who expressed that they would like to commit crime.

- (36) The findings reveal that female respondents were not satisfied when compared with male respondents with the living conditions inside the prison.
- (37) Among the 320 respondents, 43.12 per cent were aware of rehabilitation measures and 56.87 per cent were not aware of rehabilitation measures provided by the government.

## **CONCLUSION**

To conclude, the analysis of crime by female and male criminality bring to light that the crimes are the product of their circumstances ; poverty and the consequent sense of frustration coupled with illegitimate opportunity structures could lead to crime. In India where a large segment of the population exists below poverty line, most of the offenders were invariably poor. A sense of deprivation leads to criminal behaviour. Among the motives for crime economic motive seems to be the main motivating factor for committing crime.

## **SUGGESTIONS**

A few suggestions that would help to prevent crime and alleviate the problems of criminals are :

- (1) Government sponsored family counselling centres to assist men and women in coping with their interpersonal problems.
- (2) Empowerment of women through formal education and gainful employment.

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- (3) Provision of work for pay schemes in the prison to help the prisoners to raise the sufficient capital to start small self-sufficient units for their livelihood after release.
- (4) Prisons should focus on rehabilitation, particularly for first time offenders. Different types of facilities should be created to separate first time and repeat offenders and to segregate convicts according to the seriousness of their crime.
- (5) Rehabilitation should have two components, one should prepare convicts for a successful reentry in economic life and secondly the offenders should be educated according to their abilities and interest. Ex inmates should be helped to find fitting employment.
- (6) Efforts should be taken to create and strengthen attitudes that keep a person from doing harm to others and to society as a whole ; specialized staff such as psychologists and criminologists, should provide counselling by helping people analyse their particular situation and the origins of their behaviour. Civics courses should contribute to creating a greater understanding of citizen's rights and obligations in the society. Thus convicts should be made to see clearly the unfairness of victimizing individual persons as a response to perceived injustices in society.
- (7) Psychological tests, reviews and interviews should provide insight into the success of resocialization therapy. Passing those tests and reviews should be made a condition for release from prison. Those not showing the needed changes in attitudes should be kept in confinement. Thus, the length of stay in prison would be determined by both the seriousness of the crime and the preparedness of the offenders to re enter society and lead a normal life.

Much research still needs to be done.

1. Research should focus on the impact of economic crime on the national economy.
2. The influence of parallel economy on the development efforts of the government.
3. Additional research is needed for understanding the mechanism through which poor economic activity increases crime.

Crime is self-perpetuating. Economic growth can be an effective way to fight crime. Much merit has been ascribed to growth, from reducing poverty to promoting democracy. It appears that crime alleviation should be added to the list of benefits from economic reforms that lead to sustainable growth. In other words, once we account for economic growth and income inequality, our country's crime rate is no longer a puzzle.

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**APPENDIX – I**  
**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE TO ELICIT INFORMATION**  
**ABOUT PRISONERS**

**I. PERSONAL DATA**

1. Age at Commission of Crime :
  1. 18 – 21
  2. 21 – 31
  3. 32 – 42
  4. 42 – 51
  5. 52 – 61
  6. 62 and above
2. Marital Status :
  1. Unmarried
  2. Married
  3. Widowed
  4. Separated
  5. Divorced
  6. Married twice
3. Caste :
  1. R.H. Caste
  2. U. Peasant
  3. Backward Caste
  4. Scheduled Caste
  5. Scheduled Tribe
  6. Miscellaneous
4. Education
  1. Educational Qualification :
    1. Illiterate
    2. Primary
    3. Middle
    4. High

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5. College
2. If illiterate or School / drop – out : 1. Parents lack of interest  
2. Respondents lack of interest  
3. Inaccessibility of school  
4. Financial constraints  
5. To assist parents  
6. Early marriage  
7. Others
5. Occupation : 1. Domestic worker  
2. Skilled worker  
3. Unskilled worker  
4. Salaried job  
5. Any other
6. Respondents' income :
7. Residential background : 1. Rural  
2. Semi-urban  
3. Urban

## II. SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

Relation to respondent	Age	Sex	Marital status	Education	Occupation	Income	Whether living with the family

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### III. LIVING CONDITIONS

1. Type of House :
  - a. Thatched
  - b. Tiled
  - c. R.C.C.
  - d. Rented
  
2. Was the family income sufficient to cover basic necessities such as
  - (a) Food Yes ( ) No ( )
  - (b) Clothes Yes ( ) No ( )
  - (c) Shelter Yes ( ) No ( )
  
3. a. What was the economic contribution of your spouse for the running of the household :
  1. Total
  2. Part
  3. None

### IV. CRIME HISTORY

1. Name of the Offence :
  
2. Reasons for committing the Offence :
  
3. Duration of punishment :

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4. Role in Crime : 1. Sole Perpetrator  
2. Accomplice  
3. Gang number  
4. Instigator  
5. Any other
5. Recidivism imprisoned : 1. For the first time  
2. For the second time  
3. More than twice

#### V. MODUS OPERANDI

1. Mode of Commission :
2. How much time you have taken to plan the activity ? And how many attempts you have tried ?
3. What precautions have you taken to commit the crime ?
4. What type of gain you expected by committing this crime ?
5. Are you aware of the punishment you get if you get caught ?
6. If you are released will you go for committing the crime again ?
7. Are you aware of the rehabilitation measures provided by the government to rehabilitate prisoners who would to lead a crime free normal life ?
8. What do you think about the attitude of the people towards the prisoners after they get released from the prison ? Will they get any employment opportunities to earn their livelihood ?

9. Living conditions in the prison.

(a) Satisfied

(b) Not satisfied

(c) Fully satisfied

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