

**16 December**  
**an act that all faiths condemn**



# Pakistan Journal of Criminology

Volume 6/Number 2/Jul - Dec, 2014

Recognized by  
**Higher Education Commission (HEC), Pakistan**  
vide letter No. DD/Jour/SS&H/2012/216  
in "Y" Category



PAKISTAN SOCIETY OF CRIMINOLOGY (PSC)  
<http://www.pakistansocietyofcriminology.com>

# **Pakistan Journal of Criminology**

**Volume 6, No. 2, Jul - Dec 2014**

## **Contents**

Editorial (The Case of Crime Rise in City of Peshawar)	i
'Situation and Scope' of Existing Labour Laws to Address the Issues of Home-Based Women Workers in Pakistan.	
Dr. Syeda Mahnaz Hassan	1
Impact of TV Crime Shows on Rob Criminals of District Camp Jail, Lahore: A Critical Analysis of Travis Hirschi's Social Bond Theory.	13
Sumera Batool & Sidra Ishaq	
Sociological Analysis of Mass Media Role in Promotion of Mob Violence (A Case Study of Two Selected Cities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa).	23
Nizar Ahamd, Farhatullah, Shagufta Shah & Farman Ullah	
Child Victimization: Case Study of Child Scavengers in Twin Cities of Pakistan.	33
Jalal Shehzad	
Crime and Institutional Response: A Study of Mobile Snatching and Street Assaults in Pakistan.	43
Asad Salahuddin	
Theoretical Analysis of Socio-Economic and Political Causes of Terrorism in Pakistan.	53
Sajjad Hussain, Dr. Basharat Hussain, Dr. Amir Zada Asad Waseem Khan	
Environment of Crimes and Violence at Community Level and its Exclusionary Effects on Children.	65
Asad Ullah , Mussawar Shah & Bushra Shafi	
Structure of violence in Pakistani Schools: A Gender Based Analysis.	83
Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali , Dr. Mussarat Anwar & Dr. Syeda Nabahat	
Gender Differences in Depression Among the Affectees of War on Terrorism and the Role of Psychological Interventions in the Rehabilitation	95
Summiya Ahmad, Hayat Mohammad, Shakeel Ahmed & Imran Ahmad Sajid	

Delaying Tactics used by Lawyers in Dispensation of Civil Justice in Lower Courts of Pakistan.	
RazaUllah Shah, ShadiUllah Khan, Sumera Farid, & AmanUllah Shah	113
Corporal Punishment as a Means of Discipline for Children. (A Case Study of District Nowshera, Kpk - Pakistan)	
Muhammad Ibrar & Raazia Hassan Naqvi	123
Dynamics of Gender Based Violence: Investigating the Effects of Violence in Pakistani School on School Dropout and Loss of Creativity among Students.	
Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali, Dr. Mussarat Anwar & Dr. Syeda Nabahat	133
Public Perception About the Causes of Crime and Insurgency in Federally Administered Tribal Area (FATA) in Pakistan. A Case Study of Khyber Agency.	
Intikhab Alam, Niaz Muhammad, Shakeel Ahmed, Summiya Ahmad & Kifayat Ullah	147
Testing the Vires of Protection of Pakistan Act (PPA), 2014 on the Touchstone of Constitution.	
Dr. Faqir Hussain	161
The Nexus of Legal Institution with Child Trafficking: From the Perspective of Experts and Policy Analysts of Peshawar.	
Syed Rashid Ali (PhD) & Niaz Muhammad	171

Visit: <http://www.pakistansocietyofcriminology.com>

Email: [pscatpeshawar@yahoo.com](mailto:pscatpeshawar@yahoo.com)

[pscatcriminology@gmail.com](mailto:pscatcriminology@gmail.com)

Free access to tables of contents and abstracts.

## Editorial

### The Case of Crime Rise in City of Peshawar

Crime is an all time existing phenomenon. Societies have never been able to completely get rid of crime. According to Durkheim, crime is essential for bringing progress in the society. For it is through crimes and deviancy that society draws and redraws its normative boundaries. The rate of crime, nonetheless, can go up or down depending upon the society's response to crimes and criminals.

In this context, daily *The Frontier Post* on December 02, 2014 reported that the crimes are on a steep rise in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. It stated a startling rise of 900% in extortion cases. The Chief of Peshawar city police also endorsed a significant increase in extortion crimes. (December 14, 2014, *The News*). No day goes off when a senior police official does not show up on media or quoted in newspapers telling about the various reforms and institutional changes initiated in the police. It too is a fact that the present Police Chiefs in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, the Punjab and Balochistan provinces have brought significant reforms in their respective police forces. The police have now a rapid response force, an elite force, counter-terrorism squad, special branch, police emergency units, and customer friendly police stations. There have been quantitative and qualitative reforms in the police in the last two years in these provinces. Increase in equipments, vehicles, weapons, and the reforms, both structural and functional, in trainings and courses etc have been much talked about in the police circles. Despite these changes and reforms, argues *The Frontier Post* story, the rate of crime in Peshawar city is sky-rocketing.

This seems a puzzling situation to the criminologists and criminal justice decision makers. Previously, it was argued that the reforms in police will certainly reduce crime and ensure normalcy in the streets. It is one of the major assumptions of crime-control model of policing as well. However, that assumption did not hold in the city of Peshawar. What has gone wrong?

To solve this riddle, let us have a look at the current political and strategic position of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. This province is at the frontline in war against terrorism. Now and then, the police have to respond to the incidents of terrorism, the origin of which is often the tribal areas, which are beyond the legal ambit of the police. By the first 11 months of this year, the province was hit by 185 terrorist incidents (SATP, 2014). Only in the first two months of this year, the province was hit by 42 terrorists' incidents killing 103 civilians, and 42 security forces officials (SATP, 2014). The worst of terrorists incidents, probably in the history of the world, occurred on 16<sup>th</sup> December 2014 when a group of terrorists assaulted the Army Public School and College, Peshawar, killing almost 160 persons including 141 children ranging between 8 and 18 years of age (Dawn, 17<sup>th</sup> December, 2014). The

The Provincial Police Chief (IGP) KPk was on the scene of incident. He announced on the electronic media that terrorists should fight with the police, not children. He loudly spoke against the militants and openly challenged them, which was an encouraging sign and a great consolation for the otherwise demoralized police. Leadership spoke on the occasion. In the presence of such an intense situation, the police are more focused on incidents of terrorism and matters of security than routine policing. It leaves the police less focused towards ordinary street crimes, resulting a 900% increase in extortion. Another aspect of the high rate of certain crimes like terrorism, is that police have no powers to investigate case of money-laundering and financing terrorism across the borders. This limits their scope of investigation. The police on the contrary may argue that increased reporting of crime is the reason for this hike as now people have an open, free and easy access to registration of case.

Despite serious attacks on police guards and mobiles, the presence of the police can be felt by the citizens of Peshawar and other cities of the province. It was a non-existent scene to see a traffic police warden after 07.00 pm in any city in KPk. Now, the traffic police wardens are regularly seen on roads. Police visibility itself is a sign of police commitment and constant supervision by the Police Chief.

The story of the city of Peshawar speaks a lot about increase of crime. The crime-control model of the policing does not work alone. For an effective response to crime, the society needs to mobilize the entire criminal justice system, including the judiciary, prosecution and punishment. Despite the fact that one of the most significant roles is played by the prosecution, it is the weakest link in the chain of CJS. The rate of conviction is extremely low. In terrorism cases, it is not more than 6% (Prosecution, 2014). They lack courage, professionalism, commitment and an assertive response. One of the reasons, probably, is their lower status in the criminal justice hierarchy in our country. Whatever the reasons might be, it is suggested that, in addition to police, reforms should be also introduced in the prosecution segment so as to improve its efficiency and effectiveness. The police too have to publish major changes in their departments and behaviour, so the reforms are documented, debated and tested on the touchstone of empirical research by scholars and practitioners.

**Imran Ahmad Sajid &**

**Farhat Ullah**

Assistant Editors

## References

- SATP. (2014). Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. in *South Asian Terrorism Portal*, Retrieved December 23, 2014 from  
<http://www.satp.org/satporgtp/countries/pakistan/nwfp/index.html>
- Prosecution. (2014). In *Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Official Gateway to Government*. Retrieved December 23, 2014 from  
<http://khyberpakhtunkhwa.gov.pk/Departments/Home/page.php?PageId=315>
- The Frontier Post*. (December 03, 2014).
- The News International*. (December 14, 2014).
- The Daily Dawn*. (December 17, 2014).



## **'Situation and Scope' of Existing Labour Laws to Address the Issues of Home-Based Women Workers in Pakistan**

*Dr. Syeda Mahnaz Hassan*

### **Abstract**

The theme of this study focuses on the exclusion of home-based women workers from the existing legal framework of the country. An overview of national labour laws has been presented in the present study. It also highlights the ineffectiveness and complicated nature of labour laws and flaws in its implementation mechanism. The paper also addresses the need for harmonizing the national labour laws with the international legal framework which provides protection to the home-based women workers. The core objective of the paper is to make home-based women workers visible as labour force and also to highlight their exploitative treatment from labour and human rights perspective.

### **Keywords**

Home-based Women Workers, Labour Laws, International Legal Framework, Visible, Labour Force.

### **Introduction**

Home-based work is not a new phenomenon. Since ages, the people had been conducting home-based economic activities throughout the world. Home-based work cannot be viewed as only a production sector, rather it covers a range of “industries”, categories of “trades”, dynamic “occupations” and diversified “activity statuses” (Sudarshan & Sinha, 2011). Pakistan is one of those countries where home-based remunerative work is carried out on a large scale (Lari & Zaman, 2013). However, reliable statistics and accurate data on home-based women workers are not available. Pakistan Economic Survey (2009) estimates 8.52 million home-based women labourers in Pakistan, representing 70% of the country's total labour force. Recent wave of globalization, cost effectiveness considerations on the part of manufacturers and lack of formal employment opportunities have given a tremendous increase to outsourcing work to home-based workers, mostly consisted of women, and their work setting is mostly their home (Unni & Scaria, 2009). Roughly, more than 100 million home-based workers are working within the confines of their homes in the whole world. In South Asia alone, more than 50 million home-based workers are present and out of these, approximately 80% are women (HNSA, 2013). In Pakistan, mostly the women are employed in informal sector and, in 2008, the women constituted 71.7% of the total labour force of the country (Saigol, 2011).



The home-based work has a significant contribution in the country's economy as it has become a major source of providing earning opportunities to the poor and less privileged segments of the society. This requires the attention of the policy makers and all the state forces to address the resultant changes in economic trends, family dynamics, gender patterns, local resource utilization and indigenous mode of production. These home-based women workers are not only engaged in producing traditional art and craft based items like embroidery, sewing, dyeing; but also engaged in producing export based and fast moving consumer goods (FMCGs) and manufacturing products for multinational companies, such as carpet weaving, soccer stitching, garment making (Lari & Zaman, 2013). Despite of the fact that they are major contributors in the national economy, they are not considered as 'labourers'. They remain invisible in national statistics and public discourse, undervalued in value chain and labour markets, unacknowledged in policy making and legal frameworks (ILO, 2010; Saigol, 2011; HNSA, 2013).

Besides the reasons identified by Hassan & Azman (2014), such as, illiteracy, lack of awareness and access to various provisions, limited skill set, low wage work involvement; the poverty and socio-culturally embedded gender discrimination were found to be the major reasons of women's increased participation in home-based work in South Asian countries (Bajaj, 1999; Doane, 2007; Mehrota & Biggeri, 2002; Sudarshan & Jhabvala, 2006). Higher level of poverty and more involvement of children in home-based economic activities at early ages were also reported in a research conducted by Homenet Pakistan (2011). These home-based women workers are extremely vulnerable to numerous risks, such as, exploitation of middlemen or work providers, unhygienic living and unhealthy working conditions, social exclusion and barred mobility (Hassan, 2014). Table 1, as given below, depicts the different types of social exclusion women face due to gendered ideology of work and patriarchal mindset of the society.

### ***Table 1 Types of Social Exclusion***

Depending on the general level of development of a society, the following dimensions are of most relevance:

- exclusion from goods and services (this usually means having no access to certain commodity markets, where the consumer goods typical for a concrete society are provided, but it may also mean exclusion from a basic right to livelihood);
- labor market exclusion, which has material and immaterial aspects;
- exclusion from land, a specific aspect of social exclusion in developing countries;

- exclusion from security, which covers material and physical security;
- exclusion from human rights, which may mean the real access to the legal system as well as political rights (to participate in the exercise of state power, freedom of association, freedom from discrimination) and social rights.

*Source:* Badelt (1999)

In the South Asian cultural context, the informal labour force mainly consists of women and girl child, due to the social acceptance for females to work within the surroundings of their homes, instead of going in market places, which restricts them to access the markets for purchasing raw materials, selling their goods, having access to credits and interacting with their counterparts. Furthermore, they are not protected by human rights, social security and legal provisions and are kept outside the development mainstream of the society.

This study examines the available legal frameworks and provisions for home-based women workers, their legal rights allocated by Constitution of the country, Labour Laws and commitments made by Pakistan in various International Covenants and ILO Conventions. This article is based on the researcher's five year intensive field work experiences while investigating the phenomenon of home-based women workers, applying both quantitative and qualitative research approaches, conducting in-depth interviews, taking case studies, interacting with the officials of the various NGOs working for the rights of home-based women workers. Moreover, the contents of the study has been sketched while consulting the national and international legal frameworks on labour and human right instruments as the primary source and reviewing the relevant literature in forms of articles, survey reports and policy documents as secondary sources. In addition, the opinion of legal advisors on the issue were also sought to get the broader perspective of the phenomenon under study. The study findings depict the complete lack of awareness among home-based women workers about their legal rights and lack of access to available social protection provisions. The flaws in existing laws and their outreach to the home-based women workers have been discussed and the applicability of the available legal provisions for women workers has been expounded as policy implications.

### **Fundamental Rights in the Constitution of Pakistan**

The prohibition of discrimination on the grounds of gender alone and the equality before the law have been provided in Article 25 of the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, 1973. The Article 34 of the Constitution declares 'full participation of women in national life'. The Article 37 mainly relates to the rights of

women and children, endorses 'social justice' and the financial interests of the diffident classes and areas. The Article also provides maternity benefits for women workers. The child labour, forced work, hazardous jobs and slavery have been prohibited according to Article 11. The fundamental rights to form trade union and to join any lawful occupation or profession are ensured in Article 17 and 18, respectively. The Article 38, subsection 'e' obliges that the state shall provide all citizens with social insurance and social security measures and shall make available fundamental necessities of life, like housing, clothing, education, food and medical facilities to all the people without any bias, who are permanently or temporarily incapable of earning their living due to unemployment, sickness or frailty and shall reduce difference in the earnings and income of the people.

### **Limitations of the Labour Laws in Pakistan**

The existing labour laws in Pakistan, 72 in all, relates to the six major groups; social safety nets/social security, employment and service conditions, wage/remunerations, Industrial relations, HRD and TVET competence and occupational safety & health. These laws have tended to disregard informal and agriculture sector by refuting legal protections, failing to execute existing laws, evading instituting inspection teams to check for compliance or refusing to reject the traditional gendered perception of labour to include women (Lari & Zaman, 2013).

The labour laws, specifically related to women workers, include maternity leave and pay protection during maternity leave, child care center, dedicated sanitary arrangements at work places, protection against hazards, restricted work hours, provisions of nurses by the employers and simultaneous leave for husband and wife. In Labour Laws, the women are provided specific laws keeping in view their peculiar needs.

The Constitution of Pakistan and Labour Laws provide a broad coverage to 'workers' in general and also includes women registered in organized and formal sector. Despite of all these defined fundamental rights and legal provisions, no law provides any cover to home-based women workers in Pakistan (Saigol, 2011). The labour laws' applicability is limited to 'workers' or 'employees' as defined in different enactments. The home-based women workers neither fall under any category of 'workers' nor their work settings as 'establishment' as defined in these rules such as in Factories Act 1934 and in Payment of Wages Act 1936, therefore, they remain out of all the legal provisions. The Minimum Wages Ordinance 1961 and the Maternity Benefits Act 1958 provide a cover to factory based piece-rate workers but the home-based workers are not covered under these laws.

## **International Legal Framework**

Pakistan is a member of United Nations (UN) since 1947. The UN has adopted Universal Declaration of Human Rights and other numerous conventions, like CEDAW, ICESCR; to provide fundamental rights, decent standards of living and working, equal earning opportunities and considerable support to all workers.

### **Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR)**

In 1948, the United Nations adopted UDHR. The UDHR's Article 23 and Article 24 provide significant legal support to all of the workers including home-based workers as well, such as, favorable work conditions, protection against unemployment, just remuneration, means of social protection, rest and leisure, limited working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

### **International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)**

Pakistan is party to ICESCR as it has ratified this covenant. This Covenant stresses the “*equal and inalienable rights of all*” and lays emphasis that “*conditions are created whereby everyone may enjoy his economic, social and cultural rights, as well as his civil and political rights*”.

### **Convention on Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)**

CEDAW's Article 11 provides comprehensive legal support to working women to protect their rights. The convention makes the states parties responsible for taking adequate measures for the enforcement of laws and implementation of human rights to guarantee the progression and development of women on the basis of equality with men.

### **International Labour Organization's (ILO) Conventions**

Since 1947, Pakistan is the member of ILO and has endorsed 34 ILO Labour Conventions. The relevant ILO's instruments which support home-based workers are given below:

- Freedom of Association, 1948 and the Right to Collective Bargaining, 1949 (No. 87 & No. 98)
- Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)
- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. C111)
- Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81)

## **Home Work Convention 1996 (C 177)**

Pakistan has ratified 34 ILO Conventions but still has not ratified the Home Work Convention C177 (ILO, 1996). The home-based workers were considered as a part of the work force in ILO Home Work Convention 177 (1996). The Article 4 of this Convention makes state parties responsible for the equality of treatment for the home workers in accordance with other workers, like, minimum wage rate, maternity benefits, right for occupational safety, prohibition of child labour and provision of social security measures.

## **Applicability of Existing Legal Provisions for Home-Based Women Workers**

The development of possible strategic path to bring changes in the status-quo of the poor conditions of home-based women workers through devising the constructive course of action within the existing laws and its implementation is not an easy and simple task. The procurement of any major legislative change to improve the conditions of home-based women workers is a herculean task as it may encounter the employer's hostility, union's resistance and the interpretation of volumes of laws. However, the existing realities of the home-based women workers, such as their dependence, unorganized, invisible, easily replaceable status, with minimal skills require legislative protection to ensure their inclusion and recognition in the labour force mainstream.

Legislative process and legislative possibilities, their repercussions on home-based women workers in terms of acceptance and enforcement, need to be viewed with great care, caution and concern, as they may adversely affect them. Two major areas can be identified while considering the possible options to provide legislative protection to home-based women workers: firstly, inclusion of home-based women workers in the existing labour laws and legal framework, secondly, distinctive/specific laws focusing on the particular issues of home-based women workers. The following existing labour laws can be interpreted, placed and practiced to benefit home-based women workers.

## **Payment of Wages Act 1936**

The applicability of the Payment of Wages Act 1936 can be extended to home-based women workers. It was found during field study that home-based women labourers are usually concentrated in the form of clusters, based on “niche based specialty” or “specific skill based activity” within a particular geographical area. Home-based work is carried out as a “group activity” to help and to socialize with one another, within the premises of their homes or in the neighbourhoods, which can be included in the definition of employer's establishment. This “premises” sometimes is also decided by middleman's choice. The home-based women workers

are neither considered “employed” nor their premises as “establishments” and are, therefore, not covered within the meaning of this Act. However, the broader definition and the wider perspective of the Act can be used to benefit the home-based women workers.

### **W.P. Shops & Establishment Act 1969**

The basic provisions of this Act include mode of wage payments, leaves and holidays, termination and work hours. The general nature of the Act can be beneficial for the inclusion of economically engaged home-based women as “workers” and their work settings as “establishments”.

### **Industrial Relations Ordinance (IRO) 1969**

This Ordinance deals with the unionised activity for the settlement of conflicting situations between the workers and the employers. The home-based workers can be brought within the purview of the Ordinance considering them as “workmen” and the given definition of the term “industry” in IRO can include the economic activities carried out by them. They, therefore, can join any trade union and can also form their own unions to improve their bargaining position against exploitative situations. Although, during the present study, not a single woman worker was found to be member of any trade union which adversely affect their position. Consequently, they have no voice against any harassment, gender discrimination and trade exploitation. This law needs more interpretation in case of home-based women workers, as they involve hidden employer-worker relationship and belong to unorganized informal sector.

### **Minimum Wage Ordinance 1961**

This Ordinance can be interpreted and extended to home-based women workers as they are engaged in even export-based industry for 12 to 14 hours per day as “workers”. The remunerations, they receive are the real “wages”. In the present study, it was found that home-based women workers are the most flexible and easily replaceable work force on meager wages and does not have any say against exploitation of middleman and contractors. Women home-based workers reported highly deduction rates and delayed payments as the exploitative tactics. However, a great deal of caution is required in the implementation of this Ordinance as it may leave a negative impact of the “hiring intentions” of the employers as their easily available worker's status on low wages is the major attraction for the employer.

### **Maternity Benefits Ordinance 1958**

Women constitute the major proportion of the home-based work and can be largely benefitted by the application of this Ordinance. Although, labourers working in organized set-ups like factory based workers are covered within the jurisdiction of

this Ordinance, irrespective of the fact whether they are actually benefitted or not. However, according to legal opinion, amendment in this Ordinance would be required for its application to home-based women workers. During the field study, it was found that home-based women workers have to work during their pregnancy due to their poor circumstances and dependency on the home-based work as only source of income for them. The long hours sittings and the tedious manual labour leaves adverse effect on the health of home-based women workers. The incidents of abortion and still births were also reported by women labourers. The protection by the maternity benefits Ordinance would be very beneficial and most relevant for them.

### **Labour Policy 2010**

The Labour policy framework 2010 emphasizes social justice and equality. In accordance with ILO Convention 100, it reinforces equal amount of wages for equal value of work. The policy provides the right of unionization, but the fragmented and scattered home-based women workers facing strong socio-cultural barriers cannot be benefitted from the existence of any union. The Labour Policy 2010 acknowledges the problems of this largest constituent of informal economy. The objectives of proposed policy for home-based workers are; provision of social protection measures, increase in women's incomes and economic viability and provision of a political framework through which women's demands and concerns can be articulated (Labour Policy, 2010). But, like other legal provisions and policies, this policy also awaits execution and practical implementation, so that the home-based women workers are actually benefitted from this policy (Saigol, 2011).

### **Conclusion**

In Pakistan, the rapidly growing informal sector, with increasingly harsh working conditions, calls for immediate attention of the policy makers. The increasing unemployment, coupled with high population growth rate, depicts that more labour force will fall into the informal workforce. The plethora of national legislations and international declarations, conventions, covenants, agreements and treaties speak for the rights of workers, like access to social security, work safety and health arrangements, payment of minimum wages, decent work, social protection provisions, skill development, productive and remunerative work, maternity benefits and old age benefits. All these legislations need to be implemented, as now these tend to embellish glossy pieces of paper lying on grimy shelves. The national legislative framework, labour laws, policies, plans and programmes can ameliorate the home-based women workers and seek social protection for them, who are susceptible in a highly capricious new world.



## Policy Implications

This is a well established fact that the issues of home-based women workers can be best resolved by providing legislative cover to them. The policy implications on the basis of study findings are given below:

- The home-based women workers should be registered as workers so that they can be brought into the ambit of formal definition of “workers” as given in the legal instruments.
- There is a need to create a strong advocacy for the ratification of C177.
- The problems of home-based women workers should be mainstreamed by revising the country's existing labour policies and through relevant enactments and effective legislations, to provide a supportive mechanism to them.
- The consultative approach should be used while lobbying for the legal rights of home-based women workers with the Federal and Provincial Governments, Ministry of Human Rights, Ministry of Labour and Man-Power, Ministry of Women Development, trade unions and the social activists.
- The whole labour code would have to be designed to find out the possibilities for the inclusion of home based women workers in terms of interpretation, addition, extension and amendments in the existing legal framework. This would enable the labour directorate to check the employer's exploitative practices. This would further enable the workers to join the trade unions and to form their own associations to exert pressure, to improve their working conditions. In presence of unions and worker's associations, the implementation of the laws would also be effective.
- There is a dire need to sensitize the national consciousness on the magnitude of home-based women workers in the country, their issues and to form strategies to uplift this less privileged segment of the society.



## References

- Bajaj, M. (1999). *Invisible workers, visible contribution: A study of home based women workers in five sectors across South Asia*. Retrieved on September 21, 2014 from
- Badelt, C. (1999). The role of NPOs in policies to combat social exclusion. Social Protection Discussion Paper No. 9912, The World Bank (Washington, D.C.).
- Chen, M., & Doane, D. (2008). *Informality in South Asia: A review*. Regional Paper Series. WIEGO network and SIDA.
- Doane, L.D. (2007). Living in the background: Home based women workers and poverty persistence. Chronic Poverty Research Centre (CPRC) Working Paper 97, HomeNet South East Asia.
- Government of Pakistan (2009). Pakistan Employment Trends for Women 2009, Series No. 5, April 2009, Labour Market Information and Analysis Unit, Ministry of Labour and Manpower.
- Government of Pakistan (2010). Pakistan Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Finance Division. IMF Country Report No. 10/183.
- Government of Pakistan (2010). *Labour policy 2010*, Islamabad, Ministry of Labour and Manpower.
- Hassan, S.M., & Azman, A. (2014). Visible Work, Invisible Workers: A Study of Women Home Based Workers in Pakistan. *Horizon Research Publication Corporation*. 2 (2): 48-55.
- Hassan, S.M. (2014). Need Assessment of Home Based Women Workers: A New Paradigm for Social Work. *Science International*. 26 (3): 1253–58.
- HomeNet South Asia (2013). Retrieved from [www.homenetsouthasia.net](http://www.homenetsouthasia.net).
- International Labour Organization (2010). *Statistical update on employment in informal economy*, Geneva, ILO Department of Statistics.
- International Labour Conference (2010). *Report of the Committee of Expert on the Application of Convention and Recommendation*, Report III (Part 1A), 99th Session, general observation, Convention No 81, p 526.
- Lari, M.Z., & Zaman, S. (2013). Ratification of ILO Convention 177 for Pakistan. Research on the Current status of ratification and strategies for working with the Government of Pakistan. HomeNet South Asia.
- Mehrotra, S., & Biggeri, M. (2002). *Social protection in the informal economy: Home based women workers and outsourced, manufacturing in Asia*, Innocenti Working Paper No. 97, UNICEF.

- Roots For Equity (2011). *Unacknowledged treasures: The home-based women labour of Pakistan*. Retrieved from [http://homenetpakistan.org/pdf/Unacknowledged\\_Treasure\\_uly\\_2\\_11.pdf](http://homenetpakistan.org/pdf/Unacknowledged_Treasure_uly_2_11.pdf)
- Saigol, R. (2011). *The informal sector; social protection and the budget 2010-11, A gender based perspective*. Lahore. HomeNet Pakistan.
- Sudarshan, R., & Sinha, S. (2011). Making home-based work visible: A review of evidence from South Asia, *Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO)*, Urban Policies Research Report, No. 10.
- Unni, J., & Scaria, S. (2009). Governance Structure and Labour Market Outcomes in Garment Embellishment Chains. *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*. 52, (4). pp. 631-650.

---

The author Dr. Syeda Mahnaz Hassan, Assistant Professor, Department of Social Work, University of the Punjab, joined as an academician in 2001. As a researcher, she has conducted numerous International and national research projects and has supervised post graduate research thesis. In 2011, she went abroad for PhD. She got distinction and was declared 'Graduate On Time (GOT)' by the Foreign University.



# **Impact of TV Crime Shows on Rob Criminals of District Camp Jail, Lahore:**

## **A Critical Analysis of Travis Hirschi's Social Bond Theory**

*Sumera Batool & Sidra Ishaq*

### **Abstract**

The present study explores the impact of TV crime shows on rob criminals of District Camp Jail, Lahore and critically analyzes Travis Hirschi's social bond theory in this respect. It attempts to investigate attachment and involvement levels of rob criminals with various social agents and reveals the responsible factor of violent behavior among rob criminals. Survey method was used as tool of investigation and it was found that rob criminals have high level of attachment and involvement with parents, low attachment and high involvement with delinquent peers. Moreover, criminals have low level of attachment and involvement in religion. Exposure to TV crime shows and peers were found main factors of robbery.

### **Keywords**

Crime Shows, Criminal Behavior, Social Agents, Hirschi's Social Bond Theory

### **Introduction**

The violence has become a popular form of entertainment and is cultivated through drama, films, Video games, cartoons and so forth. (Tompkins, 2003; Bryant and Thompson, 2002). The effects of TV violence are pervasive due to its popularity and heavy viewing and it causes aggression among adults and children. Several studies explored causes of criminal behavior that includes poverty and suburbanization (Jargowsky & Park, 2009), resistance by victims in violent situation (Guerette & Santana, 2010), uncaring parenting (Schaffer, Clark & Jeglic, 2009), school characteristics (Wynne & Joo 2011), low self control (Piquero, Schoepfer and Langton, 2010), bad neighborhood, nature of relation with parents and violent peers, (Bell, 2009). Literature also shows positive relation between media and violence and violent media contents were found as a reason of aggressive behavior and provocation of antisocial attitudes among individuals (Paik and Comstock, 1994, and Murray, 2008).

The behavior of a person also depends on parents, religion and peers. Henslin (2006) highlighted the importance of interaction to produce strong social bonds among family members. The adolescents have attachment with parents that has constructive effects and helps to develop life satisfaction among individuals. (Nickerson & Nagle, 2004; Updegraff, et al, 2002; & Devore and Ginsburg, 2005). However, peers have great effects on deviant behavior of individuals. (Meier,

Burkett and Hickman, 1984; Allen et al, 2005; Cleveland & Wiebe, 2003). Moreover, religion plays an important role in behavior formation as Schaefer (2002) stresses religious socialization influence and guide the adults how they organize their lives, moral development and behavior.

Therefore, this study is an endeavor to investigate which factor, either media or any other social agent (parents, religion, peers) is responsible of robbery by studying attachment and involvement level of robbers with various social agents.

## **Objectives**

The study aims to explore level of exposure of rob criminals to TV crime shows, their level of involvement (time & energy) and attachment (sensitivity, interest, affection, respect) with social agents and investigates the most responsible factor of robbery.

## **Limitations**

This study is limited to available respondents so various variable as age, gender, education, psychological conditions and socio economic status of criminals were not considered.

## **Theoretical Framework**

The study applies social learning theory in terms to explain how people learn from observation and social bond theory to explain effects of social bonding on individual's behavior. Social learning emphasizes individual's learning from observation who reenacts observed behavior i.e. '*modeling*'.

Hirschi (1995) viewed power of norms, values and involvement to enforce conventional behavior among individuals, *self-interested human beings*, who get ready to engage in deviant behavior, however, society works as a constraint and if it loses control, self-interested and deviant behavior will emerge (William & McShane, 1994, p. 188). Hirschi argued that the individuals tied to family, school and peers would be less likely to commit anti-social behavior, whereas, individuals who are not bonded to anyone are more likely to commit crime. As Aulakh (2007) asserts that involvement in family, school and peers protect the individual from the criminal behavior (p. 163). So this research examines the bonding of rob criminals with their social groups. Based on Social bond theory study tends to examine following:

RQ1 : Do rob criminals have attachment and involvement with parents?

RQ2 : Do rob criminals have attachment and involvement with religion?

RQ3 : Do rob criminals have attachment and involvement with delinquent peers?

## Research Design

Survey is employed as method of investigation as Wimmer & Dominick (2006) referred, “survey helps to explain why situations exist” (p.147) The rob criminals registered from 2011 to 2013 in the District Camp Jail, Lahore is **population** of study keeping in view the accessibility constraint. **Sample** of 200 respondents were selected by *purposive* technique. **Questionnaire** based interviews were used as instrument to collect data. **Reliability and pre testing of instrument** was tested on 30 filled questionnaires by applying Cronbach's Alpha that reported 81% value, which is considered as a high internal consistency among items. Nunnaly (1978) mentioned 70% is a satisfactory scale of reliability (as cited in Santos, 1999)

Table 1: Questionnaire Reliability

Cronbach's Alpha Test	Number of Items	No of Respondents
810	62	30

## Measure of Analysis

*Pearson's Correlation* is applied to test the strength of relationship between exposure to the crime shows and impact on robbers and to test the main factors of robbery, *Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)* is employed.

## Ethical Concerns

The research ensured anonymity, confidentiality, safety and voluntary participation of rob criminals.

## Operationalisation

*Exposure to TV crime shows* incorporates time spent, interest and frequency of watching TV crime shows. *Crime shows* include all the actual and fictional TV crime shows. *violent content* is any tactic of robbery, physical abuse, stunts and any other act which can create threat among audience. *Level of attachment* is operationalized in terms of *Sensitivity*, sympathy and kindness a rob criminal has for his family, delinquent peers and religion, *Interest*, participation in home, outside and religious activities, *Respect*, obeying decisions, and *Affection*, love and care rob criminals have for social agents. *Level of Involvement* is considered as time spent with family home, peers, and in religious practices. *Delinquent peers* are friends involved in antisocial behavior. (Andersen & Taylor, 2006, p. 88). *Rob criminals* are based on Ordinance of Pakistan 1979 which is operationalized as coercion stealing/burglary done by a person against property value of 455 gold of gram (as cited in Aulak & Khan, 2007). Persons having allegation in any sort of robbery in Lahore District Camp jail are considered.

## Hypothesis Testing

**H1:** Exposure to TV violent content of crime shows and attachment with delinquent peers are the main factor of robbery as compared to attachment with other social agents (parents and religion).

Table 2 Explanatory Factor Analysis for Sample Adequacy and Variables Correlation among analyzed factors

Variables Sampling	Adequacy	P - Value	Conclusion
Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO)	0.735	.....	Adequate
Bartlette's Test of Sphericity	.....	0.000	Significant
Total Respondents	200	.....	.....

Kaire-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value in the Table 2 indicated that the sample for the test of Explanatory Factor Analysis is adequate (KMO 0.735 > .07). On the other hand, Bartlette's test value illustrated that variables are highly correlated to provide a reasonable ground for explanatory factor analysis ( $p < .05$ ,  $p = .000$ ).

Table 3: Main Factors of Act of Robbery

Items	Variables	Components			
		1.	2.	3.	4.
1.	Situations of TV crime shows can apply practically	.725			
2.	Characters seem to real me	.708			
3.	Used to inspired by characters of TV crime shows	.696			
4.	Used to watch TV crime shows	.651			
5.	TV crime shows introduce new methods of robbery	.634			
6.	Used to follow peer suggestions	.613			
7.	Caring for Parents		.732		
8.	Concerned for Parents		.697		
9.	Share my feelings with Parents		.690		
10.	I love my Parents		.633		
11.	Familiar with my religious beliefs and values			.677	
12.	I recite my Holy book			.669	
13.	I follow religious values and beliefs			.624	
14.	Time spend with Peers				.660

Table 3 elaborated the main factors of robbery. The researcher excluded the components less than  $|.60|$ , because the factors loadings less than  $|.60|$  generally considered low. The items one to five have high loadings in each factor. Items one, two, three, four and five intended to reflect the perception of TV crime shows. Even, the items six and 14 under first and fourth components provided the perception of delinquent peers. While in the third component items seven, eight, nine and ten have high loadings which explains that parents are third factor of robbery. Further, religion is the fourth main factor of the robbery. Therefore, **H1** is accepted.

**H2** : Greater the exposure to the TV violent content of crime shows, the greater is impact on the robbers in District Camp Jail, Lahore.

**H2a** : The more robbers watch TV violent content of crime shows, the more characters seemed real to them.

Table : 4 *Correlation for Relationship between Exposure and Characters seemed real*

Variables	Correlation Strength	Sig. 2-tailed	Conclusion
Pearson Correlation	0.783		Strong relationship
P- value		0.000	Significant
Total Respondents	200		

Results of the Correlation test in Table 4 indicated a significant relationship between exposure and characters seemed real to robbers. The Pearson Correlation (r) value also elaborated a strong relationship among both variables,  $r (.783, N=200), p=.000$

**H2b** : The more robbers watch TV violent content of crime shows, the more they think that situations of crime shows can be applied practically.

Table: 5 *Correlation for Relationship between Exposure and Situations of Show can be Applied Practically*

Variables	Correlation Strength	Sig. 2-tailed	Conclusion
Pearson Correlation	0.635		Strong relationship
P- value		0.000	Significant
Total Respondents	200		



Results of the Correlation test in Table 5 indicated a significant relationship between exposure to TV crime shows and perception that situations of show can be applied practically. The Pearson Correlation (r) value also elaborated a strong relationship among both variables,  $r (.635, N=200), p=.000$

**H2c :** The more robbers watch TV violent content of crime shows, the more they learn tactics of robbery.

Table: 6 Correlation for Relationship between Exposure and Learn Tactics of Robbery

Variables	Correlation Strength	Sig. 2-tailed	Conclusion
Pearson Correlation (r)	0.355		Weak relationship
P- value		0.000	Significant
Total Respondents	200		

Results of the Correlation test in Table 7 indicated a significant relationship between exposures to TV crime shows and strengthen the existed beliefs about robbery that determine linear relationship between variables. While the Pearson Correlation (r) value elaborated a weak relationship between variables,  $r (.355, N=200), p=.000$

## Analysis and Discussion

Analyzing attachment and involvement level of criminals with parents, it was found that 49% respondents care, 55.5 % remained concerned, 25.5% share, 71.5% love, and 29 % obey their parents and majority like to spend time at home while 25% never participated in home that shows criminal's high level attachment and involvement with parents. So, It is not necessary that unconventional behavior is only associated with detachment and non involvement with parents that contradict Hirschi's social bond theory.

Exploring religious attachment and involvement levels of criminals, (50.5%) respondents never recite their holy book. (21%) are familiarize with religious values, (85.5%) knew robbery as punishable act, (40%) never participated in religious activities, moreover, (38 %) sometimes follow religious values. While (30.5%) spend less than two hours daily in religious activities. Here findings corresponds Hirschi's causal description of crime as Schaefer (2002) mentioned that religion has an integrative power because it holds a common value.

Investigating delinquent peer attachment and involvement, it was found that majority of the peers never get involved in robbery (68.5%), However, (58 %) respondents never got worried by peer's pain, (58.5 %) never used to participate with peers in outside activities, 54.5% never suggested by peers, 44.5% never felt sympathetic towards peers, 49% never care towards peers, (35.5 %) spend two hours daily. Overall indicators represent detachment of robbers with delinquent peers that contradict Hirschi's causal description of crime that individual's attachment with delinquent peers is the reason of delinquency.

The findings except religion, attachment and involvement with parents, and delinquent peers did not support the Hirschi's explanation of criminality. Even Hirschi's theory is limited for analyzing role of *media as social agent* and this model needs to rebuild. As Jarvis (2007) mentioned that popular culture has been flooded by reality based crime stories, biographies, video games and commodification of violence and is integrated in the popular culture.

## Conclusions

Exploring attachment and Involvement levels of criminals with various social agents, the main responsible factor for act of robbery and impact of TV crime shows on criminals, it is concluded that rob criminals have high level of attachment and involvement with parents, low attachment and high involvement with delinquent peers that is one factor of criminal behavior. The rob criminals were found less aware and detached from religious beliefs even involvement in religious activities was squat. The findings for religious attachment and involvement supported Hirschi's social bond theory that detachment with religion causes criminal behavior while, results for parents and peers attachment and involvement didn't support theory, so Hirschi's model needs to incorporate other responsible factors of criminality along with media. So, exposure to TV crime shows and peers are main while parents and religion are secondary factors of robbery.

It is also concluded that TV crime shows have impact on criminals that amplifies with an increase in exposure. The results are also supported by social learning theory as in reference to 'abstract modeling' in 'observational learning' criminals perceive TV character as real, apply criminal TV situations practically, learn tactics of robbery and their beliefs about robbery are strengthened.

## References

- Andersen, M. L., & Taylor, H. F. (2006). *Sociology: Understanding a diverse society* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thomson: Wadsworth.
- Allen, P. J., Porter, R. M., McFarland, F. C., Marsh, P., & McElhaney, K. B. (2005). The Two Faces of Adolescents' Success with Peers: Adolescent Popularity, Social Adaptation, and Deviant Behavior. *Child Development*, 76(3), 747-760, Retrieved October, 13, 2011, from <http://www.jstor.org/action/doBasicResults?>
- Aulakh, A. M. A., & Khan, R. A. R. (2007). *Crime & Criminology: A comparative study in the context of Islamic republic of Pakistan* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). Federal law house.
- Bryant, J., & Thompson, S. (2002). *Fundamentals of media effects*. Mcgraw Hill.
- Bell, K. E. (2009). Gender and Gangs:A Quantitative Compariso. *Crime & Delinquency*, 55 (3), 363-387, DOI 10.1177/0011128707306017 <http://cad.sagepub.com>
- Cleveland, H. H., & Wiebe, P. R. (2003). The Moderation of Adolescent-to-Peer Similarity in Tobacco and Alcohol Use by School Levels of Substance Use. *Child Development*, 74 (1), 279-291, Retrieved October, 13, 2011, from <http://www.jstor.org/action/doBasicResults?>
- DeVore, R. E.,& Ginsburg, R. K. ( 2005).The protective effects of good parenting on adolescents. *Division of Adolescent/Young Adult Medicine*. 17(4). Retrieved February, 21, 2012, from [percdublin.org/Files/Protective\\_effects\\_good\\_parenting.pdf](http://percdublin.org/Files/Protective_effects_good_parenting.pdf)
- Guerette, R. T., & Santana, S. A. (2010). Explaining Victim Self-Protective Behavior Effects on Crime Incident Outcomes: A Test of Opportunity Theory, *Crime & Delinquency*, 56 (2), 198-226, DOI 10.1177/0011128707311644 <http://cad.sagepub.com>
- Henslin, J. M. (2006). *Sociology: A down –to-earth approach: Core Concepts*. Pearson: United States
- Hirschi's, T. (1995).The Family. Wilson. In J. Q., & Petersilia, J. (Eds.), *Crime* (p. 121). ICS Press, Institute for Contemporary Studies, San Francisco, California.
- Jarvis, B. (2007). Monsters Inc.: Serial killers and consumer culture. *Crime, Media and Culture*, Retrieved from DOI: 10.1177/1741659007082469
- Jargowsky, P. A., & Park, Y. (2009). Cause & Consequences? Suburbanization and Crime in US Metropolitan Areas. *Crime & Delinquency*, 55(1), 28-50, 10.1177/0011128708323630, <http://cad.sagepub.com>

- Murray, J. P. (2008, April). Media Violence: The Effects Are Both Real and Strong. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 51(8), Retrieved May 09, 2011, from <http://abs.sagepub.com/content/51/8/1212.abstract>
- Meier, F. R., Burkett, R. S., & Hickman, A. C. (1984). Sanctions, Peers, and Deviance: Preliminary Models of a Social Control Process. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 25(1), 67-82, Retrieved October, 13, 2011, from <http://www.jstor.org/action/doBasicResults>
- Nickerson, B. A., & Nagle, J. R. (2004). The Influence of Parent and Peer Attachments on Life Satisfaction in Middle Childhood and Early Adolescence. *Social Indicators Research*, 66(1/2), 35-60, Retrieved October 13, 2011, from <http://www.jstor.org/action/doBasicResult>
- Piquero, N. L., Schoepfer, A., & Langton, L. (2010). Completely Out of Control or the Desire to Be in Complete Control? How Low Self-Control and the Desire for Control Relate to Corporate Offending. *Crime & Delinquency*, 56(4) 627-647, DOI: 10.1177/0011128708325052 <http://cad.sagepub.com>
- Paik, H., & Comstock, G. (1994, August). The Effects of Television Violence on Antisocial Behavior: A Meta-Analysis. *Communication Research*, 21(4), Retrieved May, 09, 2011, from <http://crx.sagepub.com/content/21/4/516.abstract>
- Santos, R. A. (1999). Cronbach's Alpha: A Tool for Assessing the Reliability of Scales. *Tools of the Trades*, 37 (2), Retrieved from <http://www.joe.org/joe/1999april/tt3.php>
- Schaefer, R. T. (2002). *Sociology* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). McGraw hill
- Schaffer, M., Clark, S., & Jeglic, E. L. (2009). The Role of Empathy and Parenting Style in the Development of Antisocial Behaviors. *Crime & Delinquency*, 55 (4), 586-599, DOI 10.1177/0011128708321359 <http://cad.sagepub.com>
- Tompkins, A. (2003). *The Psychological Effects of Violent Media on Children*. Retrieved on May 07, 2011, from <http://allpsych.com/journal/violentmedia.html>
- Updegraff, A. K., Madden-Derdich, A. D., Estrada, U. A., Sales, J. L., & Leonard, A. A. (2002). Young Adolescents' Experiences with Parents and Friends: Exploring the Connections, *Family Relations*, 51(1), 72-80, Retrieved October, 12, 2011, from <http://www.jstor.org/action/doBasicResults?>
- Williams III, P. F., & McShane, D. M. (1994). *Criminological theory*. Prentice Hall: Englewood, Cliffs, New Jersey.

Wimmer, R.D., & Domicik, R.J. (2006). *Mass media research: process, approaches and applications*. Wadsworth.

Wynne, S. L., & Joo, H-J. (2011). Predictors of School Victimization: Individual, Familial, and School Factors. *Crime & Delinquency*, 57(3) 458–488, DOI: 10.1177/0011128710389586 <http://cad.sagepub.com>

---

The author Sumera Batool is lecturer in Department of Mass Communication, Lahore College for Women University, Lahore and PhD scholar in Institute of Communication Studies, University of the Punjab, Lahore. Her specialization is in Communication Theory and Research.

The author Sidra Ishaq has been student of MS in Department of Mass Communication, Lahore College for Women University, Lahore.

## **Sociological Analysis of Mass Media Role in Promotion of Mob Violence**

### **(A Case Study of Two Selected Cities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa)**

*Nizar Ahamd, Farhatullah, Shagufta Shah & Farman Ullah*

#### **Abstract**

The study examines the role of mass media in promotion of mob violence in cities. Data was collected from a sample of 384 respondents from two major urban cities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa through a structured interview schedule based on Likert Scale. A Chi-Square test was applied to ascertain association between mass media and mob violence. The non-identification of mob violent perpetrator by mass media was found significantly associated ( $p=.016$ ) with mob violence while emphasis of media on sensitive issue has shown a non-significant association ( $p=.080$ ) with mob violence. Mass media can both; positively and negatively, influence the intensity of mob violence. Media should play its positive role of investigative journalism in the prevention of mob violence in the society.

#### **Keywords**

Mob Violence, Mass Media, Violence, Riots, Society

#### **Introduction**

Violence is a hot media issue now a day. The wider spread of mass media in our societal surrounding brought many changes to our environment such as the radio set, TV, shows, videos, video games, and social networking gaining an influencing role in our society. In one way or the other, the mass media is having a significant influence on our values, attitudes, and outlooks (Puddephatt, 2006). Many theorists have reported association of the mass media with violence. Violence generally secured by standard news media incorporates socially endorsed brutality (composed prizefighting, police movements) or brutality between and around social orders (Meadow, 2009). The impacts of one particular factor of the mass communication disclosure has predominantly unfavorable effects on viewers' and others' well-being (Puddephatt, 2006).

Meadow (2009) argues about numerous types of violence that are found in our society such as domestic violence, criminal acts and daily interpersonal conflicts. Most of violent acts happen in private, with no media coverage as these acts are eccentric, undetectable, irregular, or not subject to crowds. Media mostly report those incidents of violence which are open to access such as acts of terrorism, political violence and mob violence in urban areas. Mob violence is a very common phenomena today especially in underdeveloped world. According to oxford dictionary (2013), "mob mean, large crowd of people, especially one that is

disorderly arranged and intent on causing trouble or violence". Mob behaviour can be defined as the unique behavioural characteristic in which people act differently in a large group than they usually would as an individual or in a smaller group (Barnkart, 2008). Mob violence is "A disturbance of the peace by several persons, assembled and acting with a common aim in executing a lawful or unlawful enterprise in a violent and turbulent manner". The accurate quantification of human losses due to mob violence is impossible (Puddephatt, 2006). Mob violence is a crime against the communal harmony and stability, rather than an abuse of the privileges and rights of a particular person.

Mass media has an influence upon behaviour of the people. Norman (2010) elucidated that media violence is visual depictions of actions of physical violence by one human being against another. This meaning of media violence does not incorporate off-screen poisonings that could be intimated, but instead it alludes to outwardly depicted physically combative acts by one individual against an alternate. Movies and programs on television depicting ferocity of this type were common during the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and they are common now: *Dirty Harry*, *Mad Max*, *Cliffhanger*, *True Lies*, *Pulp Fiction*, *Kill Bill*, etc. with an unending list. Few measures also damage society's insight and public demonstrates for their rights. Mass media due to its few programs creates violence in the people. Violent behaviour denotes an action planned to harm or aggravate another individual. Such actions could be material or nonmaterial. This contains several types of acts that do not appear to shape the generally agreed sense of violence. Norman (2010) said that hurling insults and dispersing injurious rumours fit the classification. Obviously, the violent behaviours of utmost unease to society obviously involve material antagonism (Strasburger, 2009). The Guardian (2010) reported that "Western businesses burn in Pakistan riots".

Numerous studies have been conducted on media and violence but very limited literature is available on the role of media in the promotion and prevention of mob violence. In order to contribute towards filling existing gaps in literature on media role in mob violence, this study attempt to measure the association between mass media related factors with mob violence in cities.

## **Review of Literature**

Today in every part of the world mass media plays a major role in the promotion of mob violence. During the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> and in the beginning of 21<sup>st</sup> century, a huge expansion occurred in mass media through various discoveries such as the television set, the videocassette player and the digital computers eternally changed the way people get various kinds of information about the world, containing information regarding how aggressive the humanity is (Brad J. Bushman and Craig A. Anderson, 2001). Strasburger (2009) argued that the relationship of



mass media with violence is quite obvious. People in young age learn various attitudes about violence which are not easy to be changed later (Anderson et al, 2003; Bushman & Huesmann, 2006). It is projected that 10% of real-life violence is caused by media. Even though it's not the major reason but a harmful reason of promoting violence (Strasburger et al, 2009; Comstock & Strasburger, 1990). Nielsen media research company (2010) discovered that social media accounts for 22 percent of time spent on the Internet, and even among people age 65 and older—who are not generally considered prime users of new technologies—one in four people are now active on a social media website.

Different categories of media i.e. comic books, dime novels, rock and roll, various computer games, TV, internet (by computer or cell phone), movies, and several others have attracted speculations that clients of such categories of media might be converted into more violent, aggressive and morally wrong persons. Such types of situations are leading the world towards a mass media based conflicts and violence (Gauntlett, 1995; Trend, 2007; Kutner & Olson, 2008). Provenzo (1991) argued that more than 85% of the video games are violent. Many violent video games also influencing the children in their very young age. Since many years that exposure to violence in video games and on television leads to the development of violent attitudes and aggression in viewers. Due to this factor the threat of violent behaviour increases among people in society.

Brad J. Bushman and Craig A. Anderson (2001) commented that the present society is facing a huge quantity of media violence. Such conditions affect the whole humanity. Two major explosions occurred in the 20<sup>th</sup> century i.e. increase in violent crimes and explosions in mass media. Strange & Leung (1999) and Jordan & Page (1992) argued that public opinion and public policies are greatly affected by the news reports presented in print and electronic media.

Comstock (1991) stated that three to four hours duration on daily basis is spend by the children in the United States watching television. Violent and aggressive behaviour is also increases by television violence. More aggression and violence is found in youngsters who watch violent clips and movies as compared to those who do watch non-violent movies. Violence in video games also increases violence and aggression in children (Anderson & Bushman, 2001; Anderson et.al, 2005).

Norman (2010) argued that mob violence might occur due to inappropriate living or working [HYPERLINK http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quality\\_of\\_life](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quality_of_life) conditions, conscription or taxation, governmental oppression, hurting of religious sentiments, lack of food supply and various conflicts among ethnic groups. In the modern world, mass media play a key role in promotion of conflicts and violence. The role of mass media can take two dissimilar and oppose forms as



Brophy (2002) stated that “either the media takes an active part in the conflict and has responsibility for increased violence, or stays independent and out of the conflict, thereby contributing to the resolution of conflict and alleviation of violence”. Mass media can be used to prevent, respond, and inspect violence. It is important to have pre-established channels of social media communication. Mass media agencies should use experienced intelligence officers to determine the value of social media information and tips. Mass media agencies must work to get accurate information out to the public as mob violence often occurs in reaction to a perceived grievance or out of dissent, seen on media (Huesmann, 2005).

### **Methodology**

Data was collected from potential respondents, who have information regarding mob violence such as teachers, police men, lawyers, political activists and university students of two major city of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa i.e. Peshawar and Kohat. These are more mob violence prone cities of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and witnessed high number of mob violence incidents than other cities of the province. The sample size of 384 respondents was determined through Sikaran table of sample size derivation and online survey system software, which also gave the same result. A structured interview schedule based on Likert scale was used for data collection. Data was entered and analyzed on SPSS version 16. The Chi Square test was applied to ascertain association between the different media related factors and mob violence in the cities.

### **Results And Discussons**

This study regarding the role of mass media in mob violence was carried out in two major cities of Khyber Pakhtukhwa i.e. Peshawar and Kohat. A total of 384 respondents were interviewed through a structured interview schedule. Majority of the respondents were students (30%), followed by Lawyers (18%), Political Activists (17%) member of Law enforcement agencies (17%) and teachers (18%). Most of the respondents (93%) showed that they have had knowledge regarding mob violence, among which 38.5% opined that they have heard about mob violence, 38.3% reported that they have seen mob violence, 6.8% viewed they have taken part in mob violence and 8.9% showed no awareness regarding mob violence.

This study aimed to ascertain the mass media related contributing factors in mob violence. It was found that media education on the consequences of mob violence has a non-significant ( $p=.541$ ) relationship with mob violence. Likewise, Media cannot access mob violators because of lack of advance equipment in Pakistan was also found having no relationship ( $p=.212$ ) with mob violence. It is in consonance with the views of Meadow (2009) who wrote that in recent years, the slight mini cameras and satellite uplinks made it possible for orthodox media to on

air the election ferocity and broadcasted violent images from all over the world. On the other hand, a significant association ( $p=.001$ ) was found between media men do not risk their lives for reporting mob violence perpetrator with mob violence. In contrast the promotion of action and violent movies on the media inspire youth to imitate the same in mob has a non-significant association ( $p=.411$ ) with mob violence. Despite the fact that numerous specialists reported that different sorts of media, for example dime novels, funny stories, computer amusements, TV, motion pictures, web (by workstation or cell) and numerous others have pulled in theory that shoppers of such media might come to be more forceful, resistant or unethical (Gauntlett, 1995; Trend, 2007; Kutner & Olson, 2008). Provenzo (1991) found that 85% of the most prevalent video games were brutal and even junior kids are laid open to numerous fierce film diversions. Television roughness makes an expansion in fierce and combative conduct. The individuals who watch the brutal clips have a tendency to carry on more aggressively than do the individuals who view nonviolent clips (Anderson & Bushman, 2001; Anderson et.al, 2005). But the study could not find any evidence of all these things associated directly with mob violence. A significant association was reported between media is not properly identifying the violators/perpetrator ( $p=.016$ ) and mob violence. Although Meadow (2009) stated that there is no shortage of examples of violence in election captured in the broad communication but in mob the catching of individual pictures may be troublesome because of increased crowd and violence for photo journalists. Moreover, distinct demonstrations of brutality frequently go unmeasured, with the exception of on account of death (Meadow, 2009). People in mob incline to violence because they have seen mob violence on media and media repeated reporting of mob violence has no association ( $P=.407$  and  $P=.248$ ) with mob violence respectively. Although Anderson et.al. (2003) and Bushman & Huesmann (2006) stated that media shapes minds of the youngster about violence and once an aggressive attitude formed, then that is very difficult to change in later on. Conventional approximations are that violence on television may cause 10% of actual violence (Strasburger et al, 2009; Comstock & Strasburger, 1990). It could be said that the portrayal of violent characters and images by media may contribute to violence but this factor does not directly aid in promotion of mob violence. Wrong reports/misinformation of media is a causative factor behind mob violence was found significantly associated ( $p=.019$ ) with increased violence. Mass media can be used to prevent, respond to, and investigate riots. It is important to have pre-established channels of media communication. Media agencies should use experienced intelligence officers to determine the value of media information and tips. Media agencies must work to get accurate information out to the public (Huesmann, 2005). Media sometime exaggerate sensitive issues was found non-significantly associated ( $p=.136$ ) with increased mob violence and similarly a non-significant ( $p=.080$ ) relation was found

on highlighting of sensitive issues i.e. Ethnic, Religious, Governmental with mob violence. Similarly, Chappell et al. (1991) writing about the impact of sports violence on spectator by quoting that there is no empirical evidence that spectators of violence in sports are more prone to violence although it is deep rooted in public consciousness. So there may be other socio-political causes of violence in mob than media reporting of sensitive issues as many mobs or rallies have been conducted peacefully.

## **Conclusions**

It can be concluded that although mass media do not have a direct contributing role in the promotion of mob violence but its effect cannot be ignored as certain media related factors has shown strong association with mob violence in society. Mass Media can still play a positive role in the prevention of violence in mob through proper reporting and identification of the violent perpetrators. While reporting incidence of violence in mob there is a risk to the lives of journalists and they could not properly visualize the perpetrators of violence in mob on the screen. Misinformation and wrong reporting of issues in media mislead the people to organize rallies which may turn violent, causing destruction of public and private properties.

## **Recommendations**

The mass media role in promotion and prevention of violence is very important. Mass media institution should play a positive role in prevention of mob violence by improving investigative journalism. Mass media should critically report the violence by highlighting the perpetrators of violence. There should be a proper coordination mechanism between law enforcement agencies and mass media institutions for information sharing related to security issues. Media institution must ensure proper security arrangement and provision of advance technology to its personnel for reporting during mob and riots. Mass media personnel should be critical in reporting of sensitive issue which could create violent protests and rallies within the society. Training should be provided to journalists and camera men how to report mob violence perpetrators.

## References

- Anderson C.A and Bushman B.J. (2001). 'Effects of violent video games on aggressive behavior, aggressive cognition, aggressive affect, physiological arousal, and pro social behavior: a meta-analytic review of the scientific literature'. *Psychol. Sci.* 12:353–59
- Anderson C.A, Carnagey NL, Flanagan M, Benjamin AJ, Eubanks J, Valentine JC. (2005). 'Violent video games: specific effects of violent content on aggressive thoughts and behavior'. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, ed. M Zanna. New York: Academic. In press
- Anderson C.A. and Bushman B.J. (2002). 'Human aggression'. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* 53: 27–51
- Brophy, A. L. (2002). *'Reconstructing the Dreamland: The Tulsa RIOT OF 1921: Race, Reparations and Reconciliation'*, New York: Oxford Univ. Press.
- Bushman B.J. (1995). 'Moderating role of trait aggressiveness in the effects of violent media on aggression'. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* 69:950–60
- Bushman, B. & Anderson, C. (2001). 'Media violence and the American public: Scientific fact versus media misinformation'. *American Psychologist*, Vol. 56(6/7), P. 477-489
- Chappell et al. (1991). *'Australian Violence: Contemporary Perspectives, Australian Institute of Criminology'*, First published in 1991 by the Australian Institute of Criminology 2 Marcus Clarke Street, Canberra
- Comstock G, Paik H. (1991). *'Television and the American Child'*. San Diego, CA: Academic
- Comstock, G. A., & Scharrer, E. (1999). *'Television: What's on, who's watching, and what it means'*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- David G. (1995). 'Moving Experiences: Understanding Television's Influences and Effects', London: John Libbey  
<http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/mob>
- Huesmann L.R, Lagerspetz K, Eron L.D. (1984). 'Intervening variables in the TV violence-aggression relation: evidence from two countries'. *Dev. Psychol.* 20: 746–75
- Huesmann LR and Taylor L.D. (2005). The Role of Media Violence in violent behavior.
- Jordan, D. L., & Page, B. I. (1992). 'Shaping foreign policy opinions: The role of TV news'. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 36, P. 227-241.

- McCombs, M. E., & Shaw, D. (1991). 'The agenda-setting function of mass media'. In D. Protess & M. McCombs (Eds.), *Agenda setting: Readings on media, public opinion, and policymaking*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. P. 17-26
- Nielsen company (2010). 'Social NetworksBlogs Now Account for One in Every Four and a Half Minutes Online'. Accessed on 16 November 18, 2013 from <http://blog.nielsen.com/nielsenwire/global/social-media-accounts-for-22-percent-of-time-online>
- Norman J. (2010). 'Boomers Joining Social Media at Record Rate'. Accessed on November 16, 2013 from [www.cbsnews.com/stories/2010/11/15/national/main7055992.shtml](http://www.cbsnews.com/stories/2010/11/15/national/main7055992.shtml)
- Olson, C. (2004). "Media Violence Research and Youth Violence Data: Why Do They Conflict HYPERLINK  
"http://ap.psychiatryonline.org/cgi/content/full/28/2/144" HYPERLINK  
"http://ap.psychiatryonline.org/cgi/content/full/28/2/144"? *Academic Psychiatry*, 28, P. 144–150.
- Page, B., & Shapiro, R. (1989). 'Educating and manipulating the public. In M. Margolis & G. Mauser' (Eds.), *Manipulating public opinion: Essays on public opinion as a dependent variable*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole. P. 294-320
- Provenzo, E. F. (1991). *Video kids: Making .sense of Nintendo*, Cam bridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Puddephatt, A. (2006). *Voices of war: Conflict and the role of the media*'. (1<sup>st</sup> Ed.). Edited and published by International Media Support (IMS); published in Denmark my IMS
- Robert G. M. (2009). *'Political Violence and the Media, Marquette Law Review, 93(1) Symposium'*. International Media and Conflict Resolution, Available at: <http://scholarship.law.marquette.edu/mulr/vol93/iss1/14>
- Rogers, E., & Dearing, J. (1988). 'Agenda-setting research: Where has it been, where is it going'? In J. A. Anderson (Ed.), *Communication yearbook* (Vol. II). Newbury Park, CA: Sage. pp. 555-594
- Strange, J., & Leung, C. C. (1999). 'How anecdotal accounts in news and in fiction can influence judgments of a social problem's urgency, causes, and cures. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25, P. 436-449.
- The author Nizar Ahmad is a Lecturer in Sociology, Department of Social Work & Sociology, Kohat University of Science & Technology, Kohat-Pakistan. His area of Interest includes Peace building, conflict resolution, terrorism and gender issues. He can be reached at [nizar@kust.edu.pk](mailto:nizar@kust.edu.pk)

---

The author Farhat Ullah is serving as Assistant Editor, Pakistan Journal of Criminology since July 2014 and a Lecturer in Social Work, Department of Social Work & Sociology, Kohat University of Science & Technology, Kohat - Pakistan. His area of Interest includes Policing, Peace building, conflict resolution, terrorism and gender issues. He can be reached at mrlawyer002@yahoo.com

The author Shagufta Shah has a degree of MA in Co-existence & conflict from the Hiller School of Social Policy & Management, Brandeis University, USA. She can be reached at shahgufta@brandeis.edu

The author Farman Ullah has Master Degree in Social Work from, Department of Social Work & Sociology, Kohat University of Science & Technology, Kohat - Pakistan.



## **Child Victimization: Case Study of Child Scavengers in Twin Cities of Pakistan**

*Jalal Shehzad*

### **Abstract**

The piles of garbage and dump sites in Pakistan reflect the lives of innocent children whom survival is dependent on garbage picking. These young scavengers reflect the growing phenomenon worldwide of child labor. It is a phenomenon that has been closely linked with poverty and urbanization and it has serious impacts on the socio-physical wellbeing of children. These children are offering their contribution in the economic gains of family at the expense of their lives. Exploitation and violence are two important but neglected aspects of child scavenging. This study describes the violence against child scavengers at different places like on workplace, home etc. Moreover it also highlights the people who are responsible for violence against these children. This research was carried out in Kachi abadi of Peer Wadhaye, Islamabad Pakistan, through using participant observation, informal interviews, and purposive sampling techniques of data for this qualitative study was collected.

### **Keywords**

Scavengers, Violence, Dumpsite and Twin Cities.

### **Background**

Children always work especially in such settings where social hierarchy exists at large scale; it is normal for children from a disadvantaged background to work for betterment of families at an early age. Children in such societies are considered as the property of the employer or family, and do what they are instructed to do (Burra, 1995). Children are working both in formal and informal sector and their jobs include: agricultural labor, domestic labor, work in mines, work in industries, rag picking, shoe polishing carpet weaving, car washing etc and all of these works contain risk of exploitation and violence.

There are several cultural drivers and the predominant and primary factor of sending a child to work is poverty. This poverty may have been aggravated by family tragedy such as the loss of parents, or other economic shocks. Children below minimum working age often state that they are working because of their families' poverty status (Fallon & Tzannatos, 1998). Sending their children to work instead of school can be seen as part of a 'Faustian bargain' that poor parents make for immediate economic gain (Wood 2003).

The environment in which under-aged children are sent to work is usually unsupportive of child rights; thus physical, psychological protection and sexual violence is often ignored (Black 1996). Although risk of violence and exploitation



has become a part of every working activity but its intensity goes high in informal sector. Due to lack of rules and regulations in informal economic activities violence is a widespread act especially against children. This study describes the nature and extent of violence against a particular group of our society “Child Scavengers” (ILO 2004). This research further highlights the risks which are attached to the profession of scavenging. The children are not only being exploited at workplace but at different spheres of life also. Violence against child scavengers has only remained 'invisible' because the direct question is rarely façade so this study is helpful in identifying the nature and extent of violence against child scavengers. Findings of this study are helpful for Government and law enforcement agencies as they could take severe actions to punish the offenders. In addition it is also helpful for non-profit organizations to launch welfare projects to empower this marginal group of society.

### **Objectives of Study**

Keeping in view the nature of the study this study intends to:

1. Find out the major forms of violence practiced on child scavengers
2. Explore the perpetrators of violence against child scavengers

### **Materials and Methods**

This study was undertaken in *Kachhi Abadis* of 'Peer Wadhaye' Islamabad to capture the forms and perpetrators of violence against child scavengers. It was qualitative in nature and the unit of analysis of the research was the children living in *Peer Wadhaye* that were engaged in collection of waste and recyclable material and were facing violence for their continuous survival in society. All the male and female scavengers under 18 working in the Islamabad were considered the unit of analysis of the current study. Fifty respondents were selected for data collection through purposive sampling.

### **Results & Discussions**

It was sketched to map out the information related various sort of violence in the settings where child scavengers usually spend their time i.e. home, family, schools, workplaces and the community. In order to get a better picture of the scenario it is necessary to grasp the socio-economic statuses and the demography of child scavengers to know about the context of violence against children, contributory factors and risks.

For this study 50 respondents including 10 female, young scavengers, were interviewed. It is pertinent to mention that the entire female scavenger were non-Pakhtunes. Through the data it is found that it is customary in Pakhtune culture that girls are not allowed to do work outside the home. It was observed during the field work that majority of children are involved in scavenging and their ratio is

increasing continuously. Majority of the respondents belonged to the comparatively young age groups as the child scavengers are considered the fast rag pickers (ILO, 2004). According to the research, 70% of respondents were migrated Pashto speaking while Punjabi scavengers were 30% of the sample. It is revealed that in the target area, all respondents were migrants and adopted this profession because there were no other opportunities in formal sector for them. Couple with this it was new place where they feel no hesitation, disgrace or shyness in performing these filthy activities.

It is observed that 30% of respondent's were getting education in community school and were passionate for higher education to change their social status along with this profession. They think after getting education they will be able to get good position and will be able to run the family expenditure properly. Some of the respondents were getting education without the permission of their parents. One of the respondent are of the view that our parent claimed that time should be utilized in earning something not wasting time in other non-productive work (Education and Games). According to the Gul Bad-shah (father of one of the respondent) "*HunarKhe de, cha pa las k we darsara* –it's better to have a skill in hand". It expresses the future planning/prospects which the parents feel for their children.

### **Factors of Child Scavenging**

These are always some background force behind each activity and profession as well. In this study the background factors were also summarized that compelled children to join this exploitative profession of scavenging. Prior to all, poverty is the main reason behind the scavenging profession. The poor economic conditions force the children to involve in scavenging because it is considered a source of earning to fulfil the basic needs of the family. Peer group and established culture of the study locale was also provoking the child for scavenging and majority of children in the area were involved in this profession.

The scavenging was the established profession of the target area and group as well and is transmitted from generation to generation in the area. Every family of the area desires to sustain their status and guide their children to support family through scavenging. The orphan hood was another factor responsible for the scavenging in the locale and most of children adopted this profession on the instructions of their guardians. The family size in the research locale was very high that also added to the scavenging activities. In addition the child scavengers face bundle of problems in continuing their profession like health hazards, stigmatization, exploitation, deprivation from basic rights (Medina 2005) but worse of them is 'violence' and it is the most neglected part of previous studies on child scavengers.

## Violence Against Child Scavengers within Family Context

Indeed family is a place of love and protection for children but sometimes it proves dangerous for children and causes violence on children. In the case of child scavengers, families were seen as a basic institution of creating violence against these children. Violence occurred in different forms and the reasons of its occurrence are different. Despite the fact that the children were contributing to the family income at the cost of their childhood rights yet they were experiencing violence by their family members, parents and relatives. Forms, perpetrators and reasons of violence are given below in the table:

Table 1: Type / Perpetrators and Reason of Violence within Family Context

Type of Violence	Percentage of victim	Perpetrators of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Reason of Violence
Physical Violence (Beating, Physical torture & punishments)	Boys= 48% Girls =8% Total= 56%	Father	14%	Low Daily Income
		Mother	12%	Attending School
		Sister	4%	Spending Some Part of Daily Income
		Brother	8%	
		Relative (Uncle)	12%	Delay in Accomplishment of Household Tasks
		Aunt or Cousins	6%	
Psychological Violence (Insult, Threats, Isolation, Rejection)	Boys= 80% Girls =20% Total= 100%	Father	32%	Not Performing Household tasks
		Mother	28%	Adoption of Scavenging Profession
		Sister	10%	
		Brother	20%	Parental Loss
		Relative (Uncle)	8%	
		Aunt or Cousins	2%	No Income of Father
Sexual Violence	Boys=0% Girls=4% Total 4%	Uncle	2%	Sub-ordinate Position of Female Scavengers
		Cousin	2%	

In the mentioned above table major forms of violence against child scavengers like psychological, physical and sexual by their family are discussed. Perpetrators of such type of violence include mothers, fathers, brothers, sisters and close relatives like uncle, aunts, and cousins. Violence is a neglected aspect of this profession and the violence by the family is normally kept secret. The respondents of the study were facing the physical torture, beating, insults, threats and sexual abuse from their family members but they hesitate to express the attitude of their family members. They were beaten and insulted due to bringing less income at home; they were also tortured physically when they spend some of their part of income at workplace. The

orphan children living with their uncle/aunts are being tortured physically and psychologically because of their sub-ordinate position in the family. The female scavengers has to play dual roles i.e. work outside the home and work within home in such cases and whenever there is delay in household tasks, then they are tortured by their family members. There was some female respondents who were sexually abused by their relatives (cousins) who force them to sleep with them at night while outside the home police; shopkeepers abused them through touching, hugging and kissing.

Some of the respondents were attending schools without the permission of their family members and are forced to stop schools but when they go against the desires of their family members then they are beaten by their fathers especially fathers and elder brothers. Some children were indulged in scavenging activities by their own while their families were against this dirty occupation. So they were physically and psychologically abused by their family members due to joining the scavenging profession. Some children were of the view when their fathers do not earn anything that day they release their frustration by physically torture them. One of child scavengers '*Usman Gul*' expressed his views while saying that:

*"I feel that I am treated just like waste at every place; my value in my family and society is just like the waste"*

### Violence Against Child Scavengers in Schools

Educational institutions are the institutions which play an important role in the socialization and personality development of children but now-a-days many of these institutions are damaging the personality of innocent children instead of making them useful citizens of the society. In this study 30% were getting education own their own interest but they were also experiencing violence and discrimination due to their lower socio-economic status in society. Following table describes the scenario in the better way:

Table 2: Type/Perpetrators and Reasons of violence at Educational Institutions

Form of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Perpetrators of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Reasons of Violence
Physical Violence	Boys = 10%	Teachers	6%	Late arrival at school
	Girls = 0	Students	4%	
	Total = 10%	Principal	0	Not completion of home work
Psychological Violence	Boys = 20%	Teachers	12%	Marginalization
	Girls = 0	Principal	6%	
	Total = 20%	Students	2%	Blame of stealing, Not wearing Uniform, Pencils/erasers

As it is described above that 30% child scavengers were going to schools and all were males. So these children were facing the psychological, physical violence from their teachers, principal and other students. Most of the time the violence occurs when they come to school late or do not wear uniform. The victim children were of the view as they work outside the home after school timings so they usually return home late that's why they get late for school. Then sometimes due to dirty uniform, they are unable to wear it because they had to wash their uniform by themselves. Another reason they told that due to late arrival from work, they could not complete their home work so resultantly they have to bear physical punishment from teachers and sometimes from principal side. They are also treated as secondary citizens of our society so all people exploit them even other students in school blame them for stealing their pencils, book or notebook. Child scavengers told that resultantly they are not only beaten by the students after school timings but also punished by the management staff of the school. One of child scavengers 'Ibrahim' told that:

*“Other students consider us as thieves, we are not thieves, we work hard and never bargain while Punjabi scavengers do such kind of things”*

It is necessary to alleviate discriminatory attitudes, violence and exploitation against these children so that they could spend a happy life just like other children without any fear.

### Violence Against Child Scavengers at Workplace

Scavenging is an informal kind of activity so no rules and regulations exist in this profession that's why the children are exploited and abused frequently. On the obtained data the following categorization has created to address the issue of violence against child scavengers at workplace:

Table 3: Type / Perpetrators and Reasons of Violence at Workplace

Form of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Perpetrators of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Reasons of Violence
Physical Violence	Boys = 56%	Junkyard dealers	8%	Bargaining with dealers
	Girls = 16%	Adult scavengers	22%	
	Total = 72%	Co-workers	42%	
Psychological Violence	Boys = 80%	Junkyard dealers	32%	Competition with other child scavengers
	Girls = 12%	Co-workers	22%	
	Total = 92%	Adult scavengers	38%	Subordination Low Quality material

Findings show that child scavengers have to bear physical and psychological violence at workplace in order to continue their work activities. They are insulted, beaten and tortured by junkyard dealer, co-workers and adult scavengers due to several reasons. The children who work for dealers are usually beaten by them because of providing them low quality and quantity of scavenged material. Some scavengers are tortured in order to bargain with dealers or junkyard owners. Then some scavengers are also tortured at workplace by their co-workers because they fight with each other for recyclable material as there is competition among the children so when they found recyclable material they fight with each other that is mine “Da Ma Ledele De Awal” (because I saw it before). Female scavengers are abused in a greater way because they could not raise their voices against anyone. Lastly these children are tortured physically and psychologically by the adult scavengers due to working in their territory. Adult scavengers show their dominance over the child scavengers and they force and forbid them to work in their territory. So there should be some rules and regulations in this profession that every scavenger would have to follow and in this way violence against child scavengers at workplace can be removed.

### **Violence Against Child Scavengers in Community**

Community is a place which gives the feeling of protection to its members but at the same time community can prove a dangerous place for weak and marginalized group of society like old people, children, minorities and women. This study states that child scavengers are a marginalized group of our society and most of them 50% are migrated from Afghanistan. This thing tags them as a minority group and their children are violated and abused by the local community members. The children shared their views about what type of violence they have to face from the community side. Attitude of community towards child scavengers has been summarized in the following table:

Table 4: Type/Perpetrators and Reasons of Violence in Community

Form of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Perpetrators of Violence	Percentages of Respondents	Reasons of Violence
Physical Violence	Boys = 58%	Police	38%	For the sake of money
	Girls = 8%	Shopkeepers	22%	
	Total = 66%	People of Residential areas	6%	
Psychological Violence	Boys = 72%	Police	8%	Blame of theft
	Girls = 12%	Shopkeepers	54%	
	Total = 84%	People of Residential areas	22%	
Sexual Violence	Boys = 0	Police	4%	Not holding nationality of Pakistan
	Girls = 6%	Shopkeepers	0	
	Total = 6%	People of Residential areas	2%	

Violence in community against child scavengers cannot be ignored because community sees this segment of our society with disgrace and in humiliated way. These innocent children are also tortured by the members of community like police officials, shopkeepers, gangs and people of residential areas. First of all law enforcement institutions like police officials are considered as protector of our society but these people do not miss any chance to get benefit from these children. They torture, arrest and beat the child scavengers in order to fulfil their financial demands. They release these children when they pay them as one of child scavengers 'Rehan Khan' told that:

*“We are arrested by police sometimes because they demand money from us and sometimes when we have no money then they keep us in jail for one or two nights until we will pay money to them. They release us after getting 200-300Rs”*

Then a girl scavenger told that:

*“They are also psychologically, physically and sexually abused by the community. They expressed their views that police officials and shopkeepers call us near them and then kiss and hug us”*

The girl scavengers are immature and they could not understand the intention behind such kind of acts, they perceive it just a kind of sympathy but actually it is also a psychological abuse. Then expressing views about shopkeepers and common people, these children said that these people of society force us to run away from their shops or houses as they perceive we are thieves. In nutshell, whole society is responsible for creating violence against child scavengers consequently there is need to take strict actions against such type of brutal acts.

## Conclusion

After studying the phenomenon of violence against child scavengers, it makes clear that violence does not occur at work place only every institution of society like family and educational institutes are also responsible for creating violence against child scavengers. Violence is done due to different reasons like their sub-ordinate position in family and society, not holding nationality, low socio-economic status, blame of theft, illiteracy etc. These children are contributing in the economic gains of family but even after making contribution in the family income and development of country, they are mistreated and tortured. Their services and contribution is ignored and unacknowledged. It is needed to take action against the offenders who are responsible for violence and exploitation of these innocent children. Some strategies should also be designed for the welfare of these children so they could also become an active and useful citizen of our country.

## References

- Blanchet. T (2001). '*Child Work in a Bihari Camp and in the Benarasi Sari Industry of Mirpur*' Stockholm: Save the Children Sweden.
- Black M (1996). *Children First: The Story of UNICEF Past and Present*. UNICEF, Oxford University Press.
- Bourdillon M (2006). Violence against Working Children. Stockholm, Save the Children Sweden.
- Boyden J et al. (1999). '*What Works for Working Children*.' Save the Children Sweden and UNICEF.
- Burra N (1995). *Born to Work: Child Labour in India*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Fallon P, Tzannatos Z (1998). *Child Labor: Issues and Directions for the World Bank*. Washington DC, World Bank.
- ILO. (2004). *Child Labor*.
- Medina, M;. (2005). *Waste picker cooperatives in developing countries*. Ahmedabad, India.
- Naker D (2005). *Violence against Children: The Voices of Ugandan Children and Adults*. Raising Voices and Save the Children Uganda.
- Singular, D.T. (1992). *Scavengers, Recyclers and Solutions for Solid Waste Management in Indonesia*. Berkeley Indonesia: Center for Southeast Asia Studies Monograph.



World Report on violence against Children, (2006) published: United Nation Secretary-General's study on violence against children

Wood G (2003). Staying Secure, Staying Poor: The 'Faustian Bargain'. *World Development*, 31(3): 455–471.

---

The author Mr. Jalal Shehzad completed his M. Phil in Anthropology from Quid-e-Azam University, Islamabad - Pakistan. Currently, he is teaching as a lecturer at Swat University KPK Pakistan. He can be reached at [jalal.shahzada@gmail.com](mailto:jalal.shahzada@gmail.com)

## **Crime and Institutional Response: A Study of Mobile Snatching and Street Assaults in Pakistan**

*Asad Salahuddin*

### **Abstract**

Crime rates seem to be severely augmenting over the past several years in Pakistan which has perpetuated concerns as to what, when and how this upsurge will be eradicated. State institutions are supposed to be in utmost perplexity, given the enormity of worsening law and order situation, compelling government on the flip side to expend more resources in strengthening institutions to confront crime, whereas, the economy has been confronted with massive energy crisis, mass unemployment and considerable inflation which has rendered most of the people into articulate apprehension as to how to satisfy basic necessities.

A framework to investigate the variability in the rising street crimes, as affected by social and institutional outcomes, has been established using a cross sectional study. Questionnaire, entailing seven sections incorporating numerous patterns of behavior and history of involvement in different crimes for potential street criminals was observed as data collection instrument. In order to specifically explicate the intent of street crimes on micro level, various motivational and de-motivational factors that stimulate people to resort to street crimes were scrutinized. Intent of mobile snatching and intent of street assault as potential dependent variables were examined using numerous variables that influence the occurrence and intent of these crimes using ordered probit along with ordered logit and tobit as competing models. Model Estimates asserts that intent of mobile snatching has been significantly enhanced owing to perceived judicial inefficiency and lower ability of police reforms to operate effectively, which signifies the inefficiency of institutions that are entitled to deliver justice and maintaining law and order respectively. Whereas, intent of street assaults, as an outcome, affirms that people with lack of self-stability and severe childhood punishments were more tempted to be involved in violent acts.

### **Keywords**

Deprivation, Street Assault, Self control, Police Reform

### **Introduction**

Lawlessness and violence can be traced back to the very inception of Pakistan. Intensity of crime and crime related acts enhanced with the passage of time and with the availability of new weapons. Crime against property and crime against person has been on a rise with time owing to alarming increase in population and urbanization. Specially, Karachi has been lightened up the most by crime scenes as it is the biggest metropolitan city and centers a large number of incumbents belonging to different ethnic, cultural and political backgrounds. Criminal justice system incorporates institutions that are involved in maintaining law and order and provide justice to people. While, a defective criminal justice system may impart a great deal

of loss in maintaining law and order. System of witness protection in Pakistan is considerably weak or can be termed as nonexistent. Subsequently, people who are investigating officers, judges or witness against strong criminals are rendered no protection which has often result in their assassination. Conviction in such cases is a hard process to pursue due to which most of cases with similar intensity remains pending. Apprehended offenders have to be presented in the lower courts or magistrates courts within 24 hours which are operated by highly unprofessional and incompetent judges. This provides a room for offenders to resort unlawful mean to turn the conditions in their favor<sup>1</sup>. It provides an incentive for those who can bargain conviction for wealth. The dilemma in case of Pakistan is that most of the criminals sought political veil as to avoid apprehensions and it has been seen that they possess much better position in terms of ammunition, resources, wealth and planning (Nadeem, 2002). Many reforms have been introduced in terms of high salary, better training and modernize equipment, especially in the metropolitan cities of the country. To curb crime rates, it is imperative to provide resources to facilitate necessary training and guidance to the police in form of police reforms<sup>2</sup>. Police officials do not find themselves properly equipped to cope with the modern world challenges (Fasihuddin, 2009).

## **Proposed Framework of Analysis, Review of Literature and Model Building Preferences**

### **Intent of Mobile Snatching and Street Assault**

Property and violent crimes exist in societies purposely and it is quite evident that it transpires with some intention. There are various aspects that motivate and demotivates criminals in pursuing deviant acts. Crime is committed by keeping in view certain benefits and costs and it is deemed that if net benefits are greater than there will be a higher incidence of crime. Besides financial gain, there are several other factors that instigate intentions for resorting to crimes. Rational choice theory endorses the fact that criminals tend to base their decisions of whether or not to commit crime on the notion of utility maximization. Deterrence is also affected by sanctions and positive punishments. One might refrain from committing a deviant act not because he is fearful of getting apprehended but instead concerned about the envisioned loss of reward. Reasonable level of rationality is critical in committing crimes as it involves an in-depth scrutiny of benefits and costs (Akers, 1990).

### **Amalgamation of Socio-economic Deprivation and Societal Bindings, and the Prevalence of Street Crimes**

Financial deprivation<sup>3</sup> has been taken as the variable that incorporates the effects and implications of socio-economic deprivation, which is also of prime

importance regarding this study. It has been endorsed in various studies as part of potential independent variables which grasps the effect of poverty and financial disability. Deviant peers association is another such variable entailing factors actuating people to resort deviant or illegal acts. People replicate the way their friends or peers behave. It was presumed that incidence of crime would be greater a person have more high association with deviant peers. People with better “Educational Profile” are considered to be more intellectually stable and gentle and hence have lower incidence in crimes<sup>4</sup>.

Baron (2006), by using the further application of Classical Strain Theory stated that incidence of crime is directly related to economic conditions and affirmed that relative deprivation, monetary dissatisfaction and desire to achieve monetary goals leads to crime. Classical Strain Theory by Merton (1968) Merton approach that poverty leads to criminality is not supported by evidence. Theorists argued that relation between crime and deviant association is a causal relationship where people with antisocial sentiments tend to form a separate group that encourages substance abuse and crime involvement<sup>5</sup>. People, at younger age, when exposed to drugs and other substances, try to form the community of same sort which further motivates and encourage them to resort to deviant activities, often crime (Horwood, 2002).

### **Plunged Self-stability and Social Disharmonies, Triggering Abrupt Flare-ups**

Low self-control can be attributable to changing family structure, working women, parents fight, parent divorce and low monitoring as studied by Jeannie A. Fry (2010). She adopted a time series approach and incorporated data from time period 1960 to 2005 and the area of study was Virginia, U.S. The findings signified that adverse variation in the family structures (divorce/separation) adversely impacts parents' potential to give required attention and monitoring which leads to low self-control in children and later leads to crime (Fry, 2010). According to a study results, scholars based their opinion in the light that proportionally boys are hit more often and with greater intensity as compared to girls, so higher proportion of severe childhood punishments may result in higher violence in men later<sup>6</sup>. Studies revealed that parents who belong to a family where they have been brought up in a harsh and aggressive environment tend to practice same violence on their children as compared to people with mild family backgrounds<sup>7</sup>.

### **Inducement of Police Reforms Effectiveness (Police Efficiency) and Glaring Street Crimes**

As part of institutional variables, Police Reform Efficiency has been introduced as a de-motivational variable which shows the efficiency of police and law enforcement agencies in apprehending the criminals. And this efficiency in

turns hinges on the resources awarded to police in shape of better training, weapons and increased salaries. So, this variable measures the level of police efficiency which has been raised by the provincial government through various reforms.

Scholars suggested that most effective way to hamper the upsurge in crimes rate is to increase the police force<sup>8</sup>. This implies that greater police to public ratio, lower would be the crime rate. Raising the level of police is very critical to curb crime rate and studies have shown that country with lower level of police per thousand people confronts more problems in terms of crimes. But, gradual enhancement in police population per thousand people in same area experienced lower levels of crime<sup>9</sup>. Community policing came out to be a rapid way to discourage street crimes as probability of apprehension rises and it makes them more vigilant.

### **Portrayal of Judicial Incompetence and Crime Temptation**

In order to explicate the effect of judicial efficiency, a variable was introduced which measured the judicial ineffectiveness as “perceived probability of conviction” in hampering crimes. It has been observed that criminals with higher perception of conviction probability tend to commit fewer crimes and those with lower or weak perceptions of judicial performance are more prone to involve in crimes. Derek Pyne (2012) examined the effect of probability of punishment and enhanced severity of punishment on magnitude of crime, that which out of two have a greater deterrence impact. He argued that criminals hold abilities, which is gauged by the probability of not getting caught. As criminals keep on committing crimes, they perpetually update their level of abilities. He showed that greater probability of conviction will reduce the crimes in both current and later time periods (Pyne, 2012).

### **Statement of Research Hypothesis**

- Pre-testing the hypothesis that institutional outlay (as measured by police reforms) on intent of mobile snatching is significant/ insignificant.
- Pre-testing the hypothesis that self control on intent of street assault is significant/ insignificant.

### **Estimation, Analysis and Conclusion**

Table 1 comprises of intent of mobile snatching as a dependent variable with five set of independent variables used in a model as motivational and de-

Table 1: Estimates of Model with Dependent Variable as Intent of Mobile Snatching

Intent of Mobile Snatching	Ordered Prob it	Ordered Log it	Tob it
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Financial Deprivation	1.037 (2.40)*	1.827 (2.28)	0.3770 (2.62)
Deviant Peers Association	1.515 (2.74)*	2.651 (2.63)	0.3546 (3.17)
Police Reform Efficiency	-1.194 (-2.19)*	-2.054 (-2.19)	-2.777 (-2.35)
Educational Profile	-0.2997 (-1.18)**	-0.5347 (-1.14)	-0.0789 (-0.78)
Perceived Probability of Conviction	-1.118 (-2.62)*	-1.9334 (-2.53)	-0.2946 (-2.64)
Log Likelihood	-14.933853	-15.077	-25.7134
Pseudo R2	0.6831	0.6801	0.5015

It shows the estimates of model with dependent variable as intent of mobile snatching. Results show that all variables are significant except for the educational profile which is highly insignificant and do not lie under 90% confidence interval. Under Model 1 financial deprivation, deviant peer has a positive sign as proposed in all three models. Likewise, police reforms efficiency has a negative sign which asserts that lower value of this variable will lead to increase involvement in mobile snatching. It implies that areas where police reforms are efficiently operating tend to pose as a de motivation for the street criminals and resulted in lower mobile snatching. 50% of the sample recorded that they fear getting apprehended by the police and hence have lower incidence in mobile snatching. Simper (2005) showed that enhancing police population will not always increase the police performance rather it has to be accompanied with relative efficiency which he measured as ratio of occurrence of crime to that of clearance of crime<sup>11</sup>. Findings showed that areas which were operated by police with additional resources tend to confront lower street crimes in form of lower vehicle theft and burglaries. This asserts that areas operated by police, who are made subject of the reforms in terms of training and modern weapon, curbs the street crimes more effectively and efficiently. Approximately, 48% of the respondents who showed high participation in mobile

snatching doubted judicial system as highly inefficient in awarding conviction which explains their primary motivation that even if they get caught by the police, they will not be convicted. Perceived probability of conviction and educational profile both represents a negative sign which means they have a deterrence effect on mobile phone snatching.

Table 1: Estimates of Model with Dependent Variable as Intent of Mobile Snatching

	Ordered Prob it	Ordered Log it	Tob it
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Socio Cultural Deprivation	1.928* (2.13)**	3.3051 ( 2.09)	0.2110 ( 2.08)
Self-Control	-1.447* ( 2.13)**	-2.442 ( -2.25)	-0.2891 ( -2.69)
Family Disputes	2.443* ( 2.05)**	4.15 ( 2.05)	0.247 ( 2.69)
Childhood Punishments	1.412* (2.26)**	-4.945 ( -2.32)	0.2753 ( 2.82)
Parent Monitoring	-2.91* ( -2.36)**	2.46 ( 2.15)	-0.4087 ( -3.15)
Log Likelihood	-9.68867	-9.832	-21.24467
Pseudo R2	0.7871	0.7840	0.5814

Table 2 shows the relationship of street assault with five independent variables. Socio cultural deprivation is positively related to street assaults. Self-Control shows a negative sign which asserts that lower self-control leads to higher involvement in street assaults. Childhood punishments depict a positive sign which implies that it is directly related to street assaults. It is highly significant under 95% confidence interval.

## Conclusion

The rationale underlying this study was to highlight glaring factors that in one way or another tend to encourage or discourage street criminals to carry their activities. The intent behind street crimes has been deeply scrutinized. To have an insight, street crimes were decomposed into mobile snatching and street assault. To ascertain the intent of crime along with the motivational and de-motivational factors, different set of variables were analyzed with both dependent variables.

Ordered probit model was used to analyze the outcomes. Results were corresponding to the theories in practice which suggested that weak institutional setup lefts loopholes which makes potential criminal to participate in street crimes more bravely. Lower Perceived probability of conviction represents higher judicial inefficiency which becomes the root cause of soaring street crimes. Police reforms efficiency represents higher police control and effectiveness as part of 2002 police reform act presented which involves greater autonomy of police with improved communication and training. Areas where there was effective implementation of police reforms, those areas posed a threat to street criminals which led to decrease in their activities. Moreover, it has been empirically found that people with low self-control and sever childhood memories are people who are more likely involved in street assaults and possess less tolerance levels. Few policy guidelines, in view of estimated models, are enumerated below.

## End Notes

<sup>1</sup>Special report of United States Institute of Peace, on Pakistan titled “Reforming Pakistan's Police and Law Enforcement Infrastructure. Is It Too Flawed to Fix

<sup>2</sup>Police reform is the practice of improving the existing police structure by introducing few changes which enhances police efficiency and affectability. Police reforms are used in the context of new reforms that were being introduced as part of Punjab Police Act 2010, to check its validity, applicability and effectiveness in hampering street crimes.

<sup>3</sup>Deprivation is the inability to obtain something that one's feel he or she is entitled to posses, which not only includes financial resources but also social, political and cultural participation

<sup>4</sup>Baron (2006) in his Street youth, Strain theory, and Crime suggested that a person is motivated to street crimes due to high level of deprivation and monetary dissatisfaction. People with higher aims to get money but end up with empty pockets usually feel deprived as compared to others and thus are persuaded to commit crimes.

<sup>5</sup>It is suggested by Rosenfeld in “Robert Merton's contribution to the sociology of deviance” from page 453 to 456 that how deviant association leads to deviant acts. He presented the notion that if one is more prone to conceive from his friends rather than family then that person can be highly susceptible to erroneous acts depending on the company he is sitting in. If he has a sitting with drug abusers that there is a high probability that he will join their stance as well.



<sup>7</sup>Miller in his research article “Parental physical and psychological aggression: Psychological symptoms in young adults” from page 1-3 as published in “Child Abuse” explained how the physical punishments by parents change the course of later children and how they get involved in aggression and violence.

<sup>8</sup>Family structure has an enormous effect on the grooming and upbringing of children and usually it has been seen that families with ignorant and careless attitude usually are more violence orientated.

<sup>9</sup>The effectiveness of community policing in reducing violence is evident in various studies while studying developed countries, in particular by William Lloyd.

<sup>10</sup>A research paper presented by John L. showed relationship between levels of police population and crime. He affirmed that higher police per capita is imperative to curtail crime rates and this strategy is more effective in long run perspective.

<sup>10</sup>This value is the coefficient for the variable.

\* It shows z value which is a ratio of coefficient standard error. P-value is significant at 95% confidence interval which means it satisfies 0.05 alpha value.

<sup>11</sup>Simper empirically showed how police efficiency counters the offences and relationship between police efficiency and crime incidence as negative (Police Efficiency in Offences Cleared: An Analysis of English “Basic Command Units”)

\*\* It shows the z value which is a ratio of coefficient to standard error. Z values of all the variables have P value less than alpha value of 0.05 which shows that all variables are significant under 95% confidence interval.

## References

- Abbas, H. (2011). Reforming Pakistan's Police and Law Enforcement Infrastructure. Is It Too Flawed to Fix? United States Institute of Peace.
- Agnew, R. (1995). Strain and subcultural theories of criminality. *Criminology: A contemporary handbook*, 309,310,312,313.
- Aisha Ismail, S. A. (2014). Determinants of terrorism in Pakistan: An empirical investigation. *Economic Modelling*, 323,324.
- Akers. (1990). Rational Choice, Deterrence, and Social Learning Theory in *Criminology: The Path Not Taken. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, 654-655.

- Akers, R. L. (1998). *Social learning and social structure: A general theory of crime and deviance*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.
- Allen, R. C. (1996). Socioeconomic Conditions and Property Crime. *American Journal of Economics and Sociology* , 295.
- Amjad, A. I. (2014). Determinants of terrorism in Pakistan: An empirical investigation. *Economic Modelling* , 322-323.
- Baron. (2006). Street youth, strain theory, and crime. *Journal of Criminal Justice* , 209–218.
- Ben-Shahar, O. (1997). Playing Without a Rulebook: Optimal Enforcement When Individuals Learn the Penalty Only by Committing the Crime. *International Review of Law and Economics* , 410-15.
- Bill McCarthy, H. (1991). Homelessness: A criminogenic situation. *British Journal of Criminology* , 394-396.
- FAFEN. (2011). *Pakistan Crime Monitor*. Islamabad.
- Fasihuddin. (2009). Police Education and Training in Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Criminology* , 37 .
- Fry, J. A. (2010). Change in Family Structure and Rates of Violent Juvenile Delinquency.
- Horwood, D. M. (2002). Deviant peer affiliations, crime and substance use: a fixed effects regression analysis. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology* , 421,422,423.
- Kessides, I. N. (2013). Chaos in power: Pakistan's electricity crisis. *Energy Policy* , 271-272.
- Lloyd, W. (1995). Policing--give us the tools and we will do the job: 1992/93 Urban Crime Fund Programme . *International Journal of Project Management* , 404.
- Mack, K. Y. (2007). Reassessing the family-delinquency association: Do family type, family processes, and economic factors make a difference? *Journal of Criminal Justice* , 51-67.
- Miller, C. L. (2009). Parental physical and psychological aggression: Psychological symptoms in young adults. *Child Abuse & Neglect* , 1,2,3.
- Nadeem, A. H. (2002). *Pakistan: The political Economy of Lawlessness*. Karachi: Oxfor University Press.
- Neumayer, E. (2005). Inequality and Violent Crime: Evidence from Data on Robbery and Violent Theft. *Journal of Peace Research* , 101-102.

- Pyne, D. (2012). Deterrence: Increased enforcement versus harsher penalties. *Economics Letters*, 561-562.
- Rehman, Y. (2009). Unemployment, Poverty, Inflation and Crime Nexus. *Pakistan Economic and Social Review*, 79,80.
- Robert, S. a. (1987). The Effect of Male Joblessness and Family Disruption. *American Journal of Sociology*, 349-352.
- United States Department of State. (2014). *Pakistan 2012 OSAC Crime and Safety Report*: Karachi.

---

The author Mr. Asad Salahuddin is a graduate from Lahore School of Economics. He did BSc (Honors) Double Majors in Economics and Finance. He can be reached at [salahuddin.asad@gmail.com](mailto:salahuddin.asad@gmail.com)

## Theoretical Analysis of Socio-Economic and Political Causes of Terrorism in Pakistan

*Sajjad Hussain, Dr. Basharat Hussain, Dr. Amir Zada Asad  
& Waseem Khan*

### Abstract

Terrorism, on the one side, it is a matter of serious concern for the developed world while on the other hand it is becoming a colossal menace for the developing countries like Pakistan and Afghanistan. The current paper—though theoretical in nature—argues that absolute poverty, income disparity, social injustice, scarce job opportunities, lop-sided foreign policy, lack of dedicated leadership and system—in Pakistan are the main causes of terrorism. The paper recommends education and economic reforms, social justice, and stable political and democratic government as a salvation from terrorism.

### Keywords

Militancy, Terrorism, Poverty, Jihad, Radicalization, Politics, Capitalism, Globalization.

### Introduction

Although terrorism is not a new phenomenon (Jaspal, 2008), still the term terrorism has neither specific nor widely accepted definition. According to *Encyclopedia Britannica* terrorism is “the systematic use of terror as a means of forcing some political objective” (p.3). Terrorism, in addition, is 'a violence or threat of violence following the purpose for the achievement of some political goals' (Jenkins, 2001, p.10), that include gaining hold over the power structure, creation of panic, kidnapping, killing of hostages and distress among the public. Similarly, Oberschall, (2004:24) defines terrorism as “the use of covert violence by a group for political ends”. In this connection, Collins (2002) observes the notion of terrorism as 'Radicalism' as the faction who supports revolutionary change in society believes in radical ideology. It is not a new trend or phenomena and can be traced back to thousands of years (Hoffman, 1999). Causational factors and motives of terrorism or radicalization tend to alter over time. However its use and techniques are growing towards sophistication (Loza, 2009).

Obviously, terrorism is multivariate and multidimensional phenomenon, existing throughout the globe. Many international organizations have gained popularity in past owing to their “terrorist actions” and motivation through support and auspiciousness from each other such as, *The Italian Brigade Rosse, Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO), the German Rote Armee Fraktion, the Irish Republican Army (IRA), the Armenians, the Ustasha, the Basque ETA, the Neo-Fascist Ordine Nuove, the French Action Direct* etc., (Pasquino, 1989). The

scholars, Intellectuals and philosophers observe such kind of stimulation among these organizations, their prevalence and solidarity is due to political and economic injustice and suppression, external aggression and imbalance of power (Thomes, 2004). The developed states also suppress the less developed or developing states economically which leads to militancy in the form of suicide bombing for achieving their desired goals (Kazmi and Parvez, 2011).

Similarly the escalation of terrorism in the world is also considered as the end of war between the gigantic economic systems of the world. Victoroff and Kruglanski (2009) observe, as many as the occurrence of interstate hostilities declined with the end of the World War-II, appalling violence against innocent masses has augmented by anti-state group(s) with heinous agendas and their gruesome materialization—recurrently. Besides that Taliban are also considered responsible for the growing wave of terrorism in the region. Mann (2001) states that, Taliban not only waged war against Russia in Central Asian Republics but also took part in the Islamic opposition movements in Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. Such connections shaped religious extremism, a potential cause of destabilization in the region. Islamic militancy grew up in Pakistan and Bangladesh in the same period as well (Ahmad, 2009; Gupta, 2002). Regarding the role of Madrassa in spreading radicalism and terrorism, Butt, (2012) concludes that although Madrassas are playing an important role in spreading religious education to the children and transmitting religious values to the coming generations, but generally it is believed that these Madrassas are responsible for spreading militancy and terrorism in the world (Singer, 2001). In addition, these Madrassas are also used for training the militants (Stern, 2004). Limited data also confirms that a Madrassa student takes greater interest in Jihad than those of public schools (Hussain, Hussain, Bangash & Khalid, 2010). A few studies, such as Fasihuddin & Sajid (2013) and Pape & Feldman (2010), however finds no link of Madrassah education and terrorism.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The wave of terrorism in Pakistan gained significant local and global attention due to the use of newest and sophisticated weapons with varying motives of claiming more lives and confiscating a wider area (Hussain, 2010). Radicalization and militancy has acquired central point in debates on media (both print and electronic) in Pakistan and became an obvious challenge for government at the national and international levels (Azam 2009). This research primarily aims at highlighting the various causes and reasons of militancy and terrorism in Pakistan. In this regard, the dynamics of social change in Pakistan indicates four types of resultant conflicts—as a forthcoming ending of militancy: (a) between sub-cultures and national culture (b) between economic development and cultural preservation

(c) between Islamization and westernization; and, (d) between culture and ideology (Ahmed, 2009). Evidences show that such challenges and issues are not new in their nature—manifestations may vary and differ—over time and place. Politics and religion have been intertwined since the inception of Islamic history, according to the dictum that Islam is in its essence both “religion and state” (Bechar, Bar & Machtiger, 2006).

Regarding the role of Pakistan in supporting terrorist activities Asal, Fair and Shellman, (2008) are of the opinion that this news, around the world, has gained momentum that Pakistan has been a center of anti-social and terrorist activities owing to its religio-political organization as well as geographical connections (Looney, 2004). Wide range of literature, pertaining to the foregoing issue, has been published and circulated to symbolize Pakistan as a terrorist country which led to the hypothetical proposition that the militancy's root cause is laid in Pakistan (Tellis, 2008). As a result the determinants of radicalization are here in the economic, political and social structure of the region that has been forced without addressing all those factors through grave errors in the so called war on terrorism (Kazmi and Parvez, 2011).

The above discussion concludes that problem of radicalization and terrorism is deeply rooted in the social structure of Pakistani society. The socio-economic fabric of Pakistani society has been badly shaken by the war on Terror. Such a condition leads to social stigma both for the government and its people throughout the world.

## **Causes of Terrorism**

Although attention to terrorism has increased sharply in recent years; accessing their underneath factors is a compound and complex task. Several futile efforts to dig out one definition of terrorism have been irritated by the reality that the tag 'terrorism' is used to wrap a broad range of rather various phenomena (Bjorgo, 2005).

Following are the fundamental and essential factors and causes held responsible for the creation of terrorism and its irreparable aftermaths—that unequivocally illustrate what terrorism is and what are its major trigger points.

### **1. Socio-economic Causes**

History reveals that economic stability has been a source of prestige, power and sustenance. On the one hand economic strength ensures social security and channelizes the socio-political dimensions, while on the other hand, it is used for exploitation and discrimination. Such discrimination and disparity give rise to various types of conflicts and leads society in an inert manner (Engels, 2004).

Globalization is considered one of the reasons of terrorism as some countries have lagged behind in socio-economic and political competition and to avoid this shame on their face they pursue terrorist activities. Secondly, modern means of communications and transportations are added as additional sources to carry out terrorist activities rather easily (Lutz and Lutz 2013). In addition, the use of modern technology has enabled the terrorist to plan and coordinate their activities worldwide while remaining in shadow (Bush, 2001). Furthermore globalization has also facilitated the flow of money to the terrorist organization, movement of terrorists across the border (Gurr, 2006). Lutz and Lutz (2013) argue that changes brought about by globalization have resulted in outbreaks of political turmoil, including terrorist acts, from a variety of groups.

Hussain (2010) is of the opinion that Capitalism is more relevant factor in the promotion of terrorism in Pakistan because the American incursion on Afghanistan entails three major objectives: to fight against and eradicate *Al-Qaida*, access to the oil reserves in Central Asia, and encircling China. The war between Capitalist and Communist blocks that was fought in this territory caused mushrooming of *Mullahs*, Drugs and Kalashnikov culture that discolored and distorted the social fabric of Pakistani society.

Continuing with the causes of terrorism, Gurr (2006) and Michael (2007) concludes that a person more likely tends to be a terrorist in an oppressive society where exposure to political disempowerment, poverty and inequality are common occurrences than in a comparatively open society in which plenty of opportunities are available for prosperous and sustainable living particularly in socio-economic and political terms (Kenrick, 2009).

Pakistan is a poor country with sixty percent of Pakistan's population living below poverty line. The international poverty line is two dollars a day or an income of Rs 200 per day. Twenty one percent of Pakistan's population lives below \$1.25 per day. (Business Recorder, May 19, 2013). Due to bad economic governance the economy of the country is worsening day by day as inflation in the last three years has significantly been high at double digits for the last three consecutive years (Human Development Report, 2012). This ground reality cannot be overlooked that the potential for militancy and extremism already did exist in Pakistan due to its fragile social structure since independence in terms of, unemployment, ignorance, economic stagnation (Amhar, 2011), radical ideologies, bad governance, injustice and rigid culture (Hashmi, 2009)

Furthermore due to scarcity of resources and bad economic governance, the people have been deprived of basic needs and facilities like good food, education, health, and communication. Due to these deprivations and imparity they are suffering from inferiority complex which leads them to frustration and aggression

(Nasir & Hyder, 1988, p. 474). Hence, Tocqueville, (cited in Brynjar & Katja, 2000) stated that this social disparity is a major cause of terrorism in society. Similarly research studies confirm that (Mesoy, 2013) there is casual link between poverty and radicalism/terrorism especially in countries like Pakistan where due to poverty the young men join militant groups for earning handsome money. In addition, another research project in Swat Valley concludes that 63 percent household agreed that youth joined militant organization to improve their socio-economic condition (Aziz, 2010).

Contrary to this Hussain, Khalid and Hussain (2012), states that poverty may not be identified as the only reason of terrorism as terrorist do not exclusively belong to the poor states and strata, rather the well-off and educated people are drawn in terrorist activities as well, like Osama Bin Laden, who belonged to a prosperous and affluent family of Saudi Arabia. In addition Kreuger (2007) and Berrebi (2007) concludes that there is no link between poverty and terrorism nonetheless they recognize it as contributive factors in the causation of terrorist activities in the society. Similarly Sageman (2004) conducted an empirical study on the Al- Qaeda network in 2004 and concluded that most of the terrorist he studied belonged to middle class and they did not belonged to poor socio-economic backgrounds.

It can be safely said that due to economic debacle and disparity, unemployment, social ostracism, and political indifference—all inclusively—have led to the birth and growth of terrorism and militancy. Rather the said problems have been feeding and nurturing the menace quite recurrently.

## **2. Political Causes**

Although, terrorism has a long standing past but its methodical analysis is young enough with a short history. Analytical and investigative literature on the roots of terrorism has flourished in a short period of time (Feierabend, 1969). Ground reality suggests (Gupta et al. 1993) the association between political violence and Government coercion, is basically farmed like an inverted U. Coercion at lower level only insert fuel to the circumstances, while non-conformist activities can be curbed beyond a level of coercion and violence by pursuit of excessive forces of oppression and brutality (Moore, 1998). Terrorism and militancy has been an issue of greater concern and anxiety across the world but its disastrous impacts has adversely affected the developing countries especially like Pakistan and Afghanistan.



In such state of affairs and matter of precariousness, Pakistan has become a pivotal point in the current war which has eroded the socio-economic fabric of society (Ali, 2010). Various notable factors are at play behind the prevailing situation of anti-state activities, i.e., economic, social and dominantly the political dynamics. Regarding role of state in sponsoring terrorism, Byman (2005) concludes that Pakistan and Saudi Arabia both allies of USA sponsor more terrorism than any other state in the world. The association between terrorist activities and state may be seen in connection to the use of terrorism as a tool of foreign policy rather than the loaded expression 'state sponsorship' (Richardson, 2005).

Research studies also confirm that states have used terrorism as instrument of foreign policies by giving terrorists a far greater capacity and lethality. These states have used the terrorists as "guns for hire" (Borum, nd). There is a huge body of literature on the use of terror of state by the Communist Eastern European regimes of the 20th century, the 'fragile state' of Africa and Asia in the post independence era, the Nazis and the terror of southern Cone and Central American Right Wing regimes of the 1960 and 1970 (Valentino, 2004).

Duvall and Stohl (1983) is of the opinion that an expected utility model provides an insight into why a government prefers terrorism as a tactic while Richardson (1986) argues that any government's choice of terrorism as a policy could be understood with the help of expected utility models. The model could also be applied to a state's international behavior. The approach suggests that any government choosing terrorism as a strategy keeps three things in mind: preferred upshot, their intended action and expected favorable results and the expenses of the action for the preferred outcomes. The agents who use this plan may not be termed as extremist but they should be called rationalist because they use terrorism for positive outcomes. Coercive diplomacy is distinct from both diplomacy and traditional military activity as it uses coercive methods to persuade the rival for an agreeable solution of the conflict (George, 1994). Violent traditional conflicts can also be the cause of terrorism as is the case between Pakistan and India over the issues of Kashmir and water distribution (Kreamer, 2012). Similarly, Israel-Palestinian conflict is the cause of radicalism in both the countries and to some extent the major source of Al-Qaeda's hatred for the United States. In the same manner the Iraq war harbors opposition for the US policies (Jalata 2011).

Regarding relationship between democracy and terrorism, it is generally agreed that lack of democracy and rule of law are also contributing factors in the causation of domestic violence and terrorism. Furthermore, failed or weak states also leave space to the terrorists to plan and execute terrorist activities (Crenshaw, 2005, Club de Madrid, 2005, p. 14).

Thus, anti state and anti social activities are the direct outcome of the poor governance and weak law enforcement. Furthermore, weak democracy, political instability and somehow the absolute rule in the state cause such kinds of dangerous consequences.

## **Recommendations**

Prosperous, tolerant and healthy society can only be thought of and seen if the dissemination of quality education becomes the top priority of a nation. In this respect, attractive and accessible educational facilities must be made possible to the people that will, surely, cause a healthy change in the people's mind-set and similarly the socio-economic indicators will improve. Unquestionably, stable economy plays a significant and central role in the development and growth of a nation. Some people due to low standard of living and inadequate job opportunities tend to fulfill their daily needs through illegitimate anti-social ways and means.

Looking into the present turbulent scenario in Pakistan, abundant employment opportunities ought to be generated for the needy and deserving people that would prove helpful to encourage young generation and pull them out of deprivation and anti-social and anti-state engagements. Regrettably, most of the democratic governments failed miserably to ensure the provision of basic needs and rights to the general masses. Therefore the government or state should fulfill the needs and rights of masses on priority basis.

## **Conclusion**

Terrorism is the illegitimate and illegal use of force by a person or a group of persons against people with the intent of pressurizing, intimidating government or societies commonly for political and ideological purposes. The main objective of terrorism is to gain power. Brutality and violence, in order to achieve its malign goal, play a vital role. Such devices are used for creating terror in the minds of masses. The terrorist, at the same time, have malign intention to damage the image of the government by giving reflection to the people that it has failed to provide peace and security and thus has no right to be in power.

The recent wave of violence and terrorism has compelled people to leave their habitats that ultimately create unrest in the society at large. These are not exclusive acts of violence and terrorism in Pakistan alone but USA, UK, Egypt, Iran and Afghanistan have suffered from such acts since 1965. The igniting reasons of current terrorism are the lack of democratic culture, rise of capitalism, social injustice, hegemonic policies and practices, extremist ideologies and violent political conflicts.

This article reveals that Pakistan is encountered with this menace due to the defective and non-pragmatic foreign policy (which is the part of National Policy and Ideology) and nexus with US on war on terror. This issue needs to be re-addressed with well-thought-out and far-and-hind-sighted policy and practices. The curse of terrorism might not be wiped out from the country over night, however, can be alleviated through determined and sustained efforts at national and international forums.

## References

- Ahmad, Y. (2011, February 24 ). "Worsening Economy". Pakistan observer. Retrieved from <http://www.pakobserer.com>
- Ahmar, M (2011). The challenge of extremism in Pakistan: Are there lessons to be learnt from the experience of Singapore? IPRI JOURNAL XI, no 2. :44-63. Retrieved from [ipripak.org/journal/summer2011/Article%202.pdf](http://ipripak.org/journal/summer2011/Article%202.pdf).
- Ahmed, R. (2009). Interface of Political Opportunism and Islamic Extremism in Bangladesh: Rhetorical Identification in Government Response. *Communication Studies*, 60 (1), 82 – 96. doi:10.1080/10510970802623633.
- Ali, A (2010). Socio-economic cost of terrorism: A case study of Pakistan, Pakistan Security Research Unit, Brief No 57. Accessed on 12-11-2013 <https://www.dur.ac.uk/resources/psru/briefings/archive/Brief57B.pdf>.
- Asal, V., Fair, C. C., & Shellman, S. (2008). "Consenting to a Child's Decision to join a Jihad: Insights from a Survey of Militant Families in Pakistan. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 31(11), 1001-1022.
- Azam, M. (2009). "Radicalization in Pakistan: Socio-cultural Realities". PIPS Research Journal Conflict and Peace Studies, 2, (1) retrieved from [www.san-pips.com/ download.php?f=30.pdf](http://www.san-pips.com/download.php?f=30.pdf)
- Aziz, Khalid (2010). The main causes of the breakdown of Governance and then rise of militancy. Retrieved from <http://riport.org/update/downloads/>.
- Bachar, S., Bar. S., Machtiger, R. (2006). "Establishment Ulama and Radicalism in Egypt, Saudi Arabia, and Jordan." Centre on Islam, democracy, and the future of the Muslim world Monograph Series no 1, paper no. 4. Hudson Institute. Retrieved from <http://www.currenttrends.org/docLib/20061226>
- Berrebi, Claude. (2007). "Evidence about the link between education, poverty and terrorism among Palestinians." *Peace Economics, Peace Science and Public Policy*, 13(1). Accessed on 27/08/2013 Time 11 am.
- Bjorgo, T. 2005. Root causes of terrorism: myth, reality and ways forward. Routledge 2 Park Square, Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon OX14 4RN. P. 257

- Borum, R. (nd) The psychology of terrorism, University of South Florida.
- Brynjar, L., & Katja H-W, S. (2000). Why terrorism occurs - A survey of theories and hypotheses FFI/Rapport-2000/02769 Norway, Forsvarets Forsknings Institute Norwegian Defence Research Establishment, NO-2027 Kjeller.
- Bush, G. (2003). National Strategy or combating Terrorism: Address to a joint session of congress and the American People. Retrieved from CIA [https://www.cia.gov/news-information/cia-the-war-on-terrorism/Counter\\_Terrorism\\_Strategy.pdf](https://www.cia.gov/news-information/cia-the-war-on-terrorism/Counter_Terrorism_Strategy.pdf) Accessed on 26/08/2013.
- Butt, T. (2012). South Asian Studies. A Research Journal of South Asian Studies Vol. 27, (No. 2), Pp 387-88.
- Byman, D (2005). Confronting passive sponsors of terrorism. The Saban Centre for Middle East Policy at the Brooking Institution, Analysis paper (no 4).
- Collins Thesaurus of the English Language, Complete and Unabridged 2nd Edition(2002). <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/radicalism> Accessed: 05/01/2013 11:15 PM
- COT, Institute for safety, security and crises management, (2008). Concept of terrorism: Analysis of the rise, decline, trends and risk, deliverable 5, workshop package 3, transnational terrorism, security& the rule of law. Retrieved from [www.transnationalterrorism.eu/tekst/publications/WP3%20Del%205.pdf](http://www.transnationalterrorism.eu/tekst/publications/WP3%20Del%205.pdf).
- Kreamer, D. (2012). The past, present, and future of water conflict and international security, Journal of Contemporary Water Research & Education. Volume 149, Issue 1, pages 8795. DOI: 10.1111/j.1936-704X.2012.03130.x.
- Crenshaw, M. (2005), Addressing the causes of terrorism, The Club de Madrid Series on Democracy and Terrorism Volume I, © Club de Madrid Felipe IV, izqda.
- Duvall, R.D. and Stohl, M. (1983) 'Governance by Terror', in Stohl, M. (ed.) The Politics of Terrorism (2nd edn.). New York: Marcel Dekker, pp. 179-219. Encyclopedia Britannica <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/588371/terrorism>
- Engels, F. (2004). Origin of the Family, Private Property, and the State. International Resistance Books, 23 Abercrombie St, Chippendale NSW 2008, Australia.
- Fasihuddin & Sajid, I.A. (2013). Are Suicide Bombers Coming from Madaris in Pakistan? in Pakistan Journal of Criminology, 3(3), p79

- Feierabend, I., Feierabend, R. and Nesvold, B.A. (1969) 'Social Change and Political Violence: cross-national patterns. International Sociological Association. Retrieved from [cps.sagepub.com/content/5/2/231.refs](http://cps.sagepub.com/content/5/2/231.refs)
- George, A. and Simons, W.R (eds.) (1994). *The Limits of Coercive Diplomacy*. 2nd ed. Boulder, CO: Westview
- Grare, F. (2007). "The evolution of sectarian conflicts in Pakistan and the ever-changing face of Islamic violence". *South Asia*, XXX(1), 127-144.
- Gupta, A.K. (2002). "Islamic Fundamentalism in Bangladesh and Pakistan: Role of Madrassas". Retrieved from <http://www.ipcs.org/article/terrorism/islamic-fundamentalism-in-bangladesh-and-pakistan-role-of-madrassas-753>
- Gupta, D.K., Singh, H. and Sprague, T. (1993) "Government coercion of dissidents: deterrence or provocation?" *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 37(2), 301-40.
- Gurr, T. R. (2006) "Economic Factors." In Peter R. Neumann and Louise Richardson (eds.), *The Roots of Terrorism*. New York: Taylor and Francis, 85-101.
- Hashmi, A (2009) *Pakistan Politics, Religion & Extremism* IPCS Research Papers 21, Institute of Peace & Conflicts Studies.
- Hoffman, B. (1999). *Inside Terrorism*. New York: Columbia University Press pp.86-129. Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/20049971?uid=3738832&uid=2&uid=4&sid=21102784722933>.
- Hussain, S. E. (2010). *Terrorism in Pakistan: Incident Patterns, Terrorists' Characteristics, and the Impact of Terrorist Arrests on Terrorism*. University of Pennsylvania.
- Hussain, B., Hussain, S., Bangash, S., & Khalid M, (2010), *The history and politics of religious extremism in Pakistan*, *Journal of Law and Society* Volume no 40, (No 55 & 56). Pp 1-3.
- Hussain, S., Hussain, B., & Khalid, M. (2012). *A Critical analysis on the sociology of terrorism* *International Journal of Arts and Commerce* Volume 1, (No 5). Pp 155-61.
- Jaspal, Z (2008). *WMD Terrorism and Pakistan: Counterterrorism Defence against Terrorism* *Review* Vol. 1, (No. 2).
- Jalata, A. (2011). *Terrorism from above and below in the age of globalization*. *Sociology Mind* Vol.1, (No 1): 1-15 DOI:10.4236/sm.2011.11001.
- Jenkins, B. M (2001). *International Terrorism: The Other World War*. Cited in Kegley, C. W. (Ed) (1990). *Cambridge University Press*.

- Kazmi, S. F., Parvez, T. (2011). "Socio-Economic and Cultural Perspectives of Terrorism in Pakistan and the Madrassa (Mosque) Students". *International Journal of Academic Research*. Volume 3, Number 2. Retrieved [www.ijar.lit.az/en.php?go](http://www.ijar.lit.az/en.php?go)
- Kenrick, C. (2009). "Poverty, Illiteracy causes Terrorism Musharraf". Retrieved from [http://www.paloaltoonline.com/news/show\\_story.php?id=10802](http://www.paloaltoonline.com/news/show_story.php?id=10802)
- Kreuger, B. Alan. (2007). *What Makes a Terrorist? Economics and the Roots of Terrorism*. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Looney, R. (2004). "Failed economic Take-offs and Terrorism in Pakistan". *Asian Survey*, 44(6), 771-793.
- Loza, W. (2009). "Letter from the Chair, CPA Section on Extremism/ Terrorism. 1, (1)", Retrieved, May 7, 2013, from [http://www.prosocialscience.org/Extremism201\(1\)](http://www.prosocialscience.org/Extremism201(1)).
- Lutz, J & Lutz, B. (2013). *The Role of Foreign Influences in Early Terrorism: Examples and implications for understanding modern terrorism. Perspective on terrorism Volume 7, (No 2)*. Retrieved from: <http://www.terrorismanalysts.com/pt/index.php/pot/article/view/252>
- Mann, P. (2001). "Religious extremism in central Asia". *Strategic Analysis*, 25(9), 1029-1044. doi:10.1080/09700160108459019
- Mesoy, A. (2013). *NOREF Expert Analysis: Poverty and radicalization into violent extremism, a causal link*. Norwegian Peace Building Resource Centre. Retrieved from <http://www.isn.ethz.ch/Digital-Library/Publications/Detail/?lng=en&id=158431>.
- Michael, S. (2007). *Terrorism a Socio-Economic and Political Phenomenon with Special Reference to Pakistan Journal of Management and Social Sciences Vol. 3, (No. 1), 35-46*
- Moore, W. (1998) "Repression and Dissent: Substitution, Context and Timing", *American Journal of Political Science*, 42(3), 851-73.
- Oberschall, A. (2004). *Explaining Terrorism: The Contribution of Collective Action Theory* Reviewed work(s): *Sociological Theory*, *American Sociological Association Vol. 22, (No. 1)*. URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3648957> Accessed: 6/09/2013 12:28 pm.
- Pape, R., & Feldman, J. (2010). *Cutting the Fuse: The Explosion of Global Suicide Terrorism and How to Stop It*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press
- Pasquino, Gianfranco. (1989). "Terrorism". *PIPS Research Journal Conflict and Peace Studies*, 2, [san-pips.com/download.php?f=30.pdf](http://san-pips.com/download.php?f=30.pdf) Accessed July 13, 2013. 11pm.
- Richardson, L. (2005). "State sponsorship a root cause of terrorism?" in Tore Bjorgo (Ed.) *Root Causes of Terrorism: Myth, Reality and ways Forward*. Abingdon: Routledge, p. 257.

- Riedel, B. (2008). "Pakistan: The critical battlefield". *Current History*, 107(712), 355-361.
- Sageman, M. (2004). *Understanding Terror Networks*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Schaffer, T. C. (2008). "The Madrassah Challenge: Militancy and Religious Education in Pakistan". *Survival*, 50(5), 199-200.
- Singer, P. (2001). "Pakistan's Madrassahs: Ensuring a System of Education not Jihad." *Analysis Paper 14*. Retrieved from: <http://www.brookings.edu/views/papers/singer/20020103.p>
- Stern, J. (2000). "Pakistan's jihad culture". *Foreign Affairs*, 79(6), 115. JSTOR Retrieved from: <http://www.jstor.org/discover/10.2307/20049971?uid=3738832&uid=2&uid=4&sid=21102852878983>.
- Stern, Jessica. (2004). *Pakistan's drift into extremism: Allah, the Army and America's War on Terror*. New York: M.E.Sharp.
- Tellis, A. J. (2008). "Pakistan's Record on Terrorism: Conflicted Goals Compromised Performance". *Washington Quarterly*, 31(2), 7-32.
- Thomes, R.R. (2004). *Relearning Counterinsurgency*. Warfare Parameters. USA. [strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/pubs/parameters/articles/.../tomes.pdf](http://strategicstudiesinstitute.army.mil/pubs/parameters/articles/.../tomes.pdf) Accessed on October 17, 2013. Time 11 pm.
- Valentino, B.A. (2004). *Final Solutions: Mass Killing and Genocide in the 20th Century*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Victoroff, J., Kruglanski, A. W. (Ed) 2009. *Psychology of Terrorism*. Psychology Press Taylor & Francis Group. ISBN: 978-1-84169-465-8
- World Bank report 60 percent population living below poverty line. (May 19, 2013). EBusiness Recorder. Retrieved from <http://www.brecorder.com/top-stories/0/1187219:60-percent-population-living-below-poverty-line-world-bank-report/>.

---

The author Mr. Sajjad Hussain is Lecturer Social Work, Department of Sociology & Social Work, University of Malakand KPK Pakistan. He can be reached at [sajjadhussain2k@hotmail.com](mailto:sajjadhussain2k@hotmail.com)

The author Dr. Basharat Hussain is Associate Professor Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar KPK Pakistan. He can be reached at [basharat04@yahoo.com](mailto:basharat04@yahoo.com)

The author Dr. Amir Zada Asad is Professor Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar KPK Pakistan. He can be reached at [amir\\_zada\\_asad@yahoo.co.uk](mailto:amir_zada_asad@yahoo.co.uk)

The author Mr. Waseem Khan is Lecturer Department of Sociology & Social Work, University of Malakand KPK Pakistan. He can be reached at [waseemk2319@gmail.com](mailto:waseemk2319@gmail.com)



## Environment of Crimes and Violence at Community Level and its Exclusionary Effects on Children

*Asad Ullah , Mussawar Shah & Bushra Shafi*

### Abstract

What could be the exclusionary effects of general environment of crimes at community level and how unequal are these effects on children of different genders, religion, economic standings and family types is the theme of this paper. A total of 500 children (12-18 years old) were selected by systematic sampling technique, from seven shopping streets and seven high schools of the District Peshawar and interviewed. Likert scale was used as measurement tool. Association of variables was ascertained by using Chi-square test and Kendall's Tau-b statistics. Social exclusion in children was significantly and positively associated to prevalence of criminal threats in community ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.308$ ), people of the area pose damage to each other ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.243$ ), high crime rate in the area ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.183$ ), bullying as harassment ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.261$ ), poor control by law enforcing agencies ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.440$ ), fear of crimes at residence ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.555$ ), and increase in number of criminals day by day in the vicinity ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $Tb= 0.194$ ). The influence of environment of crime in social exclusion of children was universal in its influence on children from genders, and economic background. However, its effect was spurious for children from joint and nuclear families. Strengthening law enforcement through enabling enforcing agencies, strict implementation of the rules through community participation while controlling criminal threats, criminal acts and fear of crimes at community and family level were suggested policy recommendations.

### Keywords

Social Exclusion, Crimes, Violence, Community, Children

### Introduction

The Term Poverty As A Strong Ingredient of shaping human life embodies economic nature of disadvantage, grounded in application of a static set of indicators such as lack of income. (Department of Social Security, 1999). Understanding the concept of social exclusion helps to analyze the dynamic process that causes the conditions of disadvantage in broader social and economic context (Commings, 2004). It emphasizes on the process of causing detachment of individuals or groups from the bulk and caters for a broader range of competences that people enjoy or fail to enjoy for a more productive life. Social exclusion is a condition, when a number of people suffer from a combination of linked problems like unemployment, low skills, low income, poor housing, high crime environment, poor health and family breakdown with other combined factors to trap individuals/areas in a spiral of disadvantage (SEU, 1997; and DSS, 1999). It is



associated to the process of shutting out from one of social, economic, political and cultural system, necessary for integrating individuals in a society, usually shaped after denial to social relations, customs, where majority participates or sometime with physical incapability to participate as individual's un-controlling inabilities or lacking the decision power and integration to participate (Walker and Walker, 1997; and Gordon et al., 2000).

The phenomena of social exclusion could easily be explained through two major facets i.e. denial to participate (as external) and inability to participate (as internal). The problem of exclusion could not be confined to old people; rather it further aggravates through disadvantage, especially in children. It is an outcome of dysfunctional institution whereby a person is forced to indecent situation, with the only solution left over is the abundance of resources along with provision of rights for properly addressing and functioning of human rights (Marsh et al., 1999).

SEU (1998) report made it evident that people in deep exclusion are forced to leave home or released from prison and are faced with severe mental and physical illnesses. The report found such people associated with addicts and habitual criminals. These people were addicted to drugs; they were more likely to have remained unemployed, absentee, with convicted family member(s) of criminal offences, teenage father and HIV positive.

Youth violence represents a significant troubling behavioral outcome of living in poverty in the United States. Youth ages 12-17 are more likely to be victims of violent crime than adults. For black youth in 1994 the victimization rate was 136 per 1000 as compared to 118 per 1000 for white youth (Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, 1997). Stressful events, individual beliefs, and economic disadvantage have been noted to increase the risk for aggression among urban children. In a study of almost 2,000 elementary school children over a two-year period (Guerra et al., 1995), life stress and neighborhood violence stress as well as beliefs of approving of aggression were related to low economic status. These factors predicted aggression in the total population as did low socio-economic status, cultural differences were noted among whites, African-Americans, and Hispanics.

Clear (2007) found that child socialization is function of supervision from parents, discipline and parent child relationship. Negligence in child care and inappropriate family environment are associated with crimes and social exclusion in children. Disadvantage of community in form of poverty and crimes, make the living area inappropriate to raise children. Such disadvantages amplify family's problems and support social exclusion.

Bradshaw et al. (2006) explained importance of fear of crimes and victimization in social exclusion of children. The two pronged approach, introduced by authors, focuses on securing child's rights during his childhood and then concentrating for their future life chances and developmental outcomes. It is stressed to involve children in common social activities and decision making processes to safeguard their future development. The author stressed on role of law and enforcing agencies to control crimes and remove the fear from people minds.

The Fabian Society (2006) found behavioral and emotional problems are linked to indicators of social exclusion like discrimination and stigma. These behavioral problems are high in low income and welfare based families and may extend to disappointments, isolation, anger, law breaking, quarrels and disrespect for others etc.

The state of Pakistan in context of deprivations amongst children is below average, touching almost the alarming level. The most visible reason of this underdevelopment, with particular reference to gender, is the non-provision of benefits of economic growth ought to be trickled down to the needy masses. This factor resultantly gives birth to high mortality rate of almost 27% and with child mortality 19% high than nations of similar economic position. Moreover, 67% higher death rate has been noticed in girls as compared to boys within age bracket of 1-4 years. Illiteracy has adopted formidable shape of 24% with 32% higher in female and 16% in males. The school enrolments also depict a gender based discriminatory environment with some visible barriers to female education. The sociological studies conducted with respect to social exclusion in Pakistan identifies the social class as a major line of fragmentation within the social structure due to the prevailing feudalistic milieu in most part of the country, with further dividing factors like religion, class, caste and ethnicity. Social capital with specific relation to youngsters are facing dire consequences in the situational aspects as reflected of community based division on ethnic grounds, where most of the benefits are only received by the upper class and the poor are forced to be at the back (SEU, 2002; and SPARC, 2011).

## **Material and Methods**

The present study was carried out in Peshawar District to determine the relationship between social exclusion and access to material/economic resources. A sample size of 500 children (12-18 years) was drawn from randomly selected seven schools and seven shopping streets through systematic sampling procedure (Cooper and Pamela, 2010).

The conceptual frame work was designed with an independent variable (Environment of crimes at community level, Table-1), a dependent variables (Social Exclusion in children) and four background variables (gender, subjective poverty and Family type).

Table 1: Questionnaire Reliability

Background Variables	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
Gender Subjective Poverty Family Type	Environment of crimes at community level	Social Exclusion in children

The interview schedule was constructed on dichotomous form of simple attitude scale, a sub category of rating scale. At uni-variate level frequencies and percentages were worked out, whereas, at bi-variate level dependent variable was indexed and cross tabbed with attitudinal statements of independent variable. At multi-variate level, both independent and dependent variables were indexed and cross tabbed, while controlling the background variables to test the spuriousness of their relationship for genders, religious affiliation, subjective poverty and family type. The variables qualified the reliability criteria for indexation i.e. Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of more than 0.7 (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992). Chi-square test was used to test the association between the two variables. Statistical procedure devised by Tai (1978) was adopted for calculation of chi-square value as below.

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^r \cdot \sum_{j=1}^c \cdot \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

Where

$\chi^2$  = Chi-Square

$O_{ij}$  = Observed frequencies in ith row and jth column

$E_{ij}$  = expect frequencies corresponding to ith row and jth column

$r$  = number of rows

$c$  = number of columns

$df$  =  $(r-1)(c-1)$  (Tai, 1978)

Wherever, the assumption for Chi-square was violated in the data, Fisher Exact Test was used instead of simple Chi-square. The relationship developed by the Fisher is given in equation below (Baily, 1982);

$$\text{Fisher Exact Test} = \frac{(a+b)! (c+d)! (a+c)! (b+d)!}{N! a! b! c! d!}$$

Where a, b, c and d were the observed numbers in four cells of contingency Table and "N" the total number of observations.

Where a, b, c and d were the observed numbers in four cells of contingency Table and “N” the total number of observations.

Kendall's Tau-b was used measure for calculating association for contingency tables. Kendall's tau-b is most appropriate measure of association for two levels response data, where marginal distribution is uneven in 2×2 tables with many ties.

Kendall's tau-b is expressed through formula below; (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1992).

$$T^b = \frac{Ns - Nd}{\sqrt{(Ns + Nd + Tx) (Ns + Nd + Tx)}}$$

Where;

$T^b$  = Kendall's Tau-b

Ns = same order pairs

Nd = different order pairs

Tx = pairs tied on X

## Results and Discussions

### 1. Uni-variate Analysis

#### 1.1 Environment of Crimes at Community Level

Questions regarding crimes aspect of exclusion were asked and reported with numerical representation.

Incidents of threats were common in the area, was negated by majority of respondents i.e. 54.6% (Table 2), people posing damage to each other was negated by 68.2%, however, the existence of crime rate was high as indicated by 64.2% with negation to increase in number of criminals (72%) respectively. The eminent outcomes based on the findings of the study indicated little magnitude of tussle among community members in form of violence; however, the crime rate in the area was disclosed as high, with the number of criminals on the high. These factors are attributable to the low economic stature of the families, lesser access to services structure like police etc. and the attitude of the locals such as sticking to their native environment and not accepting any change in them. Such grim scenario is the outcome of income deprivation with non-access to education and job market and poor coordination among masses and agencies for crime control. These findings could be augmented by the inferences of Mayer (1998) who concluded that income deprivation, low education, unemployment, poor neighboring conditions and state of relations with the criminals are some of the factors of social exclusion.

Likewise, fear of crime at residence and neighbors was negated by 52.6% with no sign of exposure to any criminal assault (91%), however, bullying and harassment was found with low existence (38.8%) respectively. The findings mentioned above could be reflective of the facts that the existence of the antisocial behavior with their committers around could lead to the occurrence of criminal acts with higher probability. This situation usually arises when collective welfare approach is missing. State of conflict between collective welfare and personal interests creates a social dilemma, which has shown a trend of noncooperation amongst the individuals involved. This situation usually leads to robbing the interest of the general masses for personal gains and a subsequent exposure of deprived group to social exclusion (kerr et al., 2009). Children involvement in crime and antisocial behaviors is only meant for meeting out their some of the basic needs (Roker, 1998).

Moreover, while exploring the facts related to religious association, law enforcing agencies role and drug use were asked and found that 65.2% negated the friends involvement in drug use, 86.8% rejected the attacks on the basis of religion, moreover, the law enforcing agencies role in controlling criminal behavior was found dismal (56%). The overall environment could easily be interpreted on the basis of data that drug use was around but group association could not be traced .Moreover, religion as a tool of exploitation on economic and political basis had no roots also. However, the law enforcing agencies role of containing the anti-social activities was not encouraging. The existence of this social harmony based on religion could be attributed to the proper socialization in an institutionalized way which is always helpful in predicting deeds and behaviors of social units. Macionis (2005) has also linked the role of socialization to good and evil deeds at the family level. Harmony, if prevalent, minimizes the chances of mental and physical illnesses. However, antisocial peer group activities in the shape of running out of classes and leaving homes etc. breed deviance (SEU, 1998; and Willow, 2002).

Table 2 Frequency distribution and proportion of respondents showing variable responses to environment of crimes at community level

Attribute	No	Yes	Total
Incidents of criminal threat are common in your area	273 (54.6)	227 (45.4)	500 (100)
People of your area pose damage to each other	341 (68.2)	159 (31.8)	500 (100)
There are high crime rates in your area	179 (35.8)	321 (64.2)	500 (100)
The number of criminals are increasing day by day in your living vicinity	360 (72.0)	140 (28.0)	500 (100)
You have a fear of crime at your residence and neighbor	263 (52.6)	237 (47.4)	500 (100)
Have you ever been exposed to any criminal assault ?	455 (91.0)	45 (9.0)	500 (100)
You are exposed to bullying and harassment in your area of residence	331 (66.2)	169 (33.8)	500 (100)
Your friend(s) use drugs	326 (65.2)	174 (34.8)	500 (100)
There are attacks on the basis of religion in your area	433 (86.6)	67 (13.4)	500 (100)
Law enforcing agency have no control on criminals around you	280 (56.0)	220 (44.0)	500 (100)

Values in table present frequency while values in parenthesis represent percentage proportion of respondents

## 1.2 Bivariate Analysis

Association between social exclusion and Environment of crimes at community level was worked out by using cross tabulation technique. Findings on the aforesaid variable along with suitable reasons are presented and discussed below;

### 1.2.1 Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children

Findings on experience of children regarding environment of crimes at community level and its association with social exclusion in them are given in Table 3 and discussed below.

Incidents of criminal threats are common in your area was found highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive ( $T_b=0.308$ ) with social exclusion. The obvious reasons for this result could be the neglected status of the excluded persons either on the basis of ethnic considerations or extreme poverty. Such situation usually restricts

people to participate in activities at community level. Ridge (2007) has also concluded on such lines that non-fulfillment of satisfaction of children while participating in social activities is the major outcome of frustration crime. Moreover, it also leads to the non-participation in the formal and informal social networks and negatively affects their academic outcomes. In addition, secluded persons had a behavioral tendency of leaving home, getting addicted to drugs or associated with habitual criminals (SEU, 1998). Similarly, a strongly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive ( $T_b=0.243$ ) association was discovered between people of living area pose damage to each other with social exclusion. People faced with restricted access to basic amenities of life would have high tendency of damaging each other and putting the community cohesion at stake. It could be due to the number of ethnic groups living in a slum like situation. Moreover, a non-consistent job market would be another obvious reason to this effect. Community safety is not intact whenever incidents of crimes, like burglary, theft, damages and violence, are practices of the day. Moreover, poverty and social exclusion are some of the other push factors for victimization amongst the excluded persons in a community with diverse ethnic background (Levitas, 2006). Unlike the above results attacks on the basis of religion was found non-significant but mild positive ( $T_b=0.030$ ) with social exclusion. Religion was found the main symbol of harmony in the study area. However, the division of community on ethnic consideration had potential basis for attacking each other. Moreover, squeezed economic activities with lesser level of participation could be the other reasons. Crimes are mostly taking place amongst the excluded persons at the community level on the basis of ethnicity, color etc. This opportunity breeds a situation alike for all types of crimes. Furthermore, the distant location from the job market and volatile job market with little assurance of consistency in its economic activities are some other associated factors (Levitas, 2006).

On the other side, high crime rates in the area was found highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive ( $T_b=0.183$ ) with social exclusion. Poor socialization of children at the family, either due to the negligence on part of the parents, social segregation on the basis of ethnicity and extreme poverty could be the probable reasons for committing crimes, despite a sound religious cover. Child socialization is the function of supervision from parents (Clear, 2007) with association to discipline based on child parent relationship. Negligence for child care at family level is the other associated factors with the social exclusion amongst children. Poor indicators of a quality life also threaten the social fabrics of a community (Levitas, 2006).

Table 3: Association Between Environment of Crimes at Community Level and Social Exclusion in Children.

Environment of Crimes at Community Level	Attitude	Socially Exclusion			Statistics $\chi^2$ (P-Value) $T^b$
		Socially Excluded	Socially Included	Total	
Incidents of criminal threat are common in your area	No	191 (38.2)	82 (16.4)	273 (54.6)	$\chi^2 = 47.58$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.308$
	Yes	89 (17.8)	138 (27.6)	227 (45.4)	
People of your area pose damage to each other	No	219 (43.8)	122 (24.4)	341 (68.2)	$\chi^2 = 29.42$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.243$
	Yes	61 (12.2)	98 (19.6)	159 (31.8)	
There are attacks on the basis of religion in your area	No	245 (49)	188 (37.6)	433 (86.6)	$\chi^2 = 0.444$ (0.505) $T^b = 0.030$
	Yes	35 (7)	32 (6.4)	67 (13.4)	
There are high crime rates in your area	No	122 (24.4)	57 (11.4)	179 (35.8)	$\chi^2 = 16.72$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.183$
	Yes	158 (31.6)	163 (32.6)	321 (64.2)	
You are exposed to bullying and harassment in your area of residence	No	216 (43.2)	115 (23)	331 (66.2)	$\chi^2 = 34.05$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.261$
	Yes	64 (12.8)	105 (21)	169 (33.8)	
Law enforcing agency have no control on criminals around you	No	211 (42.2)	69 (13.8)	280 (56.0)	$\chi^2 = 96.77$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.440$
	Yes	69 (13.8)	151 (30.2)	220 (44.0)	
You have a fear of crime at your residence and neighbor	No	216 (43.2)	47 (9.4)	263 (52.6)	$\chi^2 = 153.7$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.555$
	Yes	64 (12.8)	173 (34.6)	237 (47.4)	
Have you ever been exposed to any criminal assault?	No	251 (50.2)	204 (40.8)	455 (91.0)	$\chi^2 = 1.431$ (0.232) $T^b = -0.053$
	Yes	29 (5.8)	16 (3.2)	45 (9.0)	
The number of criminals are increasing day by day in your living vicinity	No	180 (36)	180 (36)	360 (72.0)	$\chi^2 = 18.78$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.194$
	Yes	100 (20)	40 (8)	140 (28.0)	

Values in table present frequency while values in parenthesis represent percentage proportion of respondents



Albeit bullying as harassment has a significant and positive ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $T_b=0.261$ ) association with social exclusion. Any community with extreme poverty or its division on ethnic grounds would have high propensity to commit any type of crime and other activities of deviance. A volatile situation would reflect beating, bullying and cheating as a common practices as indicated from the above inferences. Dissatisfaction from social participation in informal and formal social network is the major causes of social exclusion with high probability of decline in academic outcomes (Ridge, 2007). Association of law enforcing agencies have no control on criminals was highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive ( $T_b=0.440$ ) with social exclusion. Children well-being and rights, if not protected, may take them to extreme pole of social exclusion. The law enforcing agency's inefficiency in containing the crimes could be due to their poor performance, low agility as a force or deficiency in containment mechanisms. Therefore, aforementioned factors provide breeding grounds for criminals. A two pronged policy as devised by (Bradshaw et al., 2004) needs to be activated; where on one side it could work for protection towards safeguarding the child rights and well being, and on the other side giving them maximum opportunities for participation in the development activities at the community level.

Similarly fear for crime at the residence and neighbors have highly significant and positive ( $p=0.000$ ; and  $T_b=0.555$ ) association with social exclusion. The main attributable factors could be the unstable and rusting environment prevalent around, as an outcome of high unemployment and non-cohesion among themselves on ethnic grounds. These are some of the basic reasons for behavioral unpredictability. The Fabian Society, (2006) has also linked the behavioral and emotional disorder as strong indicator of social exclusion, which is associated with social stigma of anti-social acts. Unlike, ever exposure to any criminal assault was found non-significant and negative ( $T_b=-0.053$ ) with social exclusion. Perhaps all antisocial activities are not confronted in the physical presence of the others, but tried to be kept confidential. This is perhaps the influence of religion which always disowns such activities. Moreover, intimacy of the relationship also requires confidentiality. Religion is always regulating and influencing the human behavior. It has profound effects on criminals, deviants' and normal citizens of the society. It works as a model towards reformation instead of disintegration. It also includes teaching over smooth relations with neighbors and avoiding any criminality (Guerra et al., 1995). Contrary to the above, the number of criminals increasing day by day in the vicinity has a strong association ( $p=0.000$ ) and positive ( $T_b=0.194$ ) relationship with social exclusion. Criminals if spared unchecked could multiply in its number. The main reason for this criminality could be poor socialization of children, neglected status due to exclusion or non-availability of basic needs of life along with poor

performance of law enforcing agencies. Clear (2007) and Bradshaw et al., (2004) has also related the family environment with the rising criminals as the outcome of low income, unemployment and poor socialization of children with some negligible role of poor performance on part of law enforcing agencies.

### 1.3. Multi-variate analysis based on indexation of dependent and independent variables

This section carries results on multi variate analysis of the indexed variables (both independent and dependent) keeping gender, religion, family type and income of the respondents under control to determine the spuriousness in the relationship worked out at bi-variate level. These findings are discussed as follows.

#### 1.3.1 Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (controlling gender of the respondents)

In boys, the relationship between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children was positive ( $T_b=0.254$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ). The relationship between these variables was positive ( $T_b=0.385$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) as depicted in (Table 4) amongst female also. Therefore, the results of boys and girls were non-spurious for above mentioned variables, as indicated by their similar significance and Kendall's Tau-b coefficient value. Criminality at community and society level had common influencing factors with strong relationship to social exclusion irrespective of gender considerations. Levitas et al. (2007) has also related social exclusion matrix with the environment of crimes amongst children. Thenon-participatory behavior amongst the deprived classes is usually outfitting the peer group activities in unpredictable direction. It may include avoiding establishing liaison with friends. Moreover, criminal victimization in Pakistani society is the outcome of poor performance on part of law controlling agencies with high fear of victimization and crimes in the socially excluded children (Willow, 2002; SPARC, 2011; and Bradshaw et al., 2004).

Table 4 Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (controlling gender of the respondents)

Gender	Environment of Crimes at Community Level	Socially Exclusion			Statistics $\chi^2$ (P-Value) $T^b$ Female
		Socially Excluded	Socially Included	Total	
Male	Peaceful environment	206 (50.2)	95 (23.2)	301 (73.4)	$\chi^2 = 26.5$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.254$
	Violent environment	44 (10.7)	65 (15.9)	109 (26.6)	
	Total	250 (61)	160 (39)	410 (100)	
Male	Peaceful environment	26 (28.9)	28 (31.1)	53 (60)	$\chi^2 = 13.33$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.385$
	Violent environment	4 (4.4)	32 (35.6)	36 (40)	
	Total	30 (33.3)	60 (66.7)	90 (100)	

Values in table present frequency while values in parenthesis represent percentage proportion of respondents

Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (controlling family type of the respondents)

In children from joint family, the relationship between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children was low positive ( $T_b=0.237$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ), also, in children from nuclear family, the relationship between these variables was low positive ( $T_b=0.249$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ), however, for children from single parent family the relationship of said variables was moderate positive ( $T_b=0.568$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ), as depicted in Table 5. Therefore, the result of joint and nuclear family group was non-spurious for above mentioned variables, as indicated by almost similar Kendall's Tau-b coefficient value, however, for single parent family this relationship, with respect to other two groups, was spurious. It is conclusive from present findings that, environment of crimes at community level is instrumental in causing social exclusion among children; however, it is particularly unforgiving for single parent children than rest of family types. This probably is because of the absence of any particular parent that could participate and shoulder the responsibility of decision making for controlling the behavior of their offspring's. Moreover, the economic deprivation due to the absence of any particular parent had led to the mounting pressure for remaining single gender to strive hard for earning outside. Thus giving little time for it (parent) to focus on molding and remolding the behavioral pattern amongst their children and proved victim to social

exclusion with high chances of participation in criminal activities. Levitas et al.(2007)and Willow (2002)have proved from their research endeavors that domestic violence, bullying and stalking had direct relationship to the fear of non-participation, emergence of criminal tendencies and social exclusion. High rate of crime and criminal victimization in Pakistani society is the outcome of social exclusion and poor performance of law enforcing agencies (SPARC, 2011; and Bradshaw et al.,2004).

Table 5 Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (controlling family type of the respondents)

Family Type	Environment of Crimes at Community Level	Socially Exclusion			Statistics $\chi^2$ (P-Value) $T^b$
		Socially Excluded	Socially Included	Total	
Joint	Peaceful environment	110 (50.7))	53 (24.4)	163 (75.1)	$\chi^2 = 12.176$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.237$
	Criminal environment	22 (10.1)	32 (14.7)	54 (24.9)	
	Total	132 (60.8)	85 (39.2)	217 (100)	
Nuclear	Peaceful environment	112 (46.9)	59 (24.7)	171 (71.5)	$\chi^2 = 14.81$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.249$
	Criminal environment	26 (10.9)	42 (17.6)	68 (28.5)	
	Total	138 (57.7)	101 (42.3)	239 (100)	
Single Parent	Peaceful environment	10 (22.7)	11 (25)	21 (47.7)	$\chi^2 = 14.17$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.568$
	Criminal environment	0 (0)	23 (52.3)	23 (52.3)	
	Total	10 (22.7)	34 (77.3)	44 (100)	

Values in table present frequency while values in parenthesis represent percentage proportion of respondents

### 3.1.1 Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (Controlling income)

In children from families with insufficient income, the relationship between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children was positive ( $T^b=0.374$ ) and highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ), also, in children from families with insufficient family income, the relationship between these variables was positive ( $T^b=0.193$ ) and significant ( $p=0.002$ ), as depicted in Table 6. Therefore, the result of rich and poor family group was non-spurious for above mentioned variables, as indicated by almost similar Kendall's Tau-b coefficient value. It is conclusive from present findings that criminal environment at community level had direct ramifications of social exclusion for all categories of children irrespective of

their income financial background. These findings are in support to the Levitas et al. (2007) and Willow (2002) that criminal environment both at community and family level had strong negative effects on children like non-adjustment in peer activities and contacting friends.

Table 6: Association between environment of crimes at community level and social exclusion in children (controlling sufficiency of income)

Sufficiency of Income	Environment of crimes at community level	Social Exclusion			Statistics $\chi^2$ (P-Value) $T^b$
		Socially Excluded	Socially Included	Total	
Insufficient	Peaceful environment	82 (33.7)	82 (33.7)	164 (67.5)	$\chi^2 = 33.92$ (0.000) $T^b = 0.374$
	Violent environment	9 (3.7)	70 (28.8)	79 (32.5)	
	Total	91 (37.4)	152 (62.6)	243 (100)	
Sufficient	Peaceful environment	150 (58.4)	41 (16)	191 (74.3)	$\chi^2 = 9.53$ (0.002) $T^b = 0.193$
	Violent environment	39 (15.2)	27 (10.5)	66 (25.7)	
	Total	189 (73.5)	68 (26.5)	257 (100)	

Values in table present frequency while values in parenthesis represent percentage proportion of respondents

## Conclusions

The study showed that the existence of the crimes at the community level due to poverty had proven to be the major factor of failure in practical life and low participation along with non-conformity to social norm which were some of the obvious causes of social exclusion in children. The division of respondents on the basis of gender, religion, family type and income, while indexing both independent and dependent variables, indicated the social exclusion in children was positively associated with environment of crimes at community level. The data strongly supported the theory and upkeep the domains of resource, participation and quality of life, as outlined under B-SEM model, were decisive in determining and explaining social exclusion in children. However, it was established by this study that exclusionary effects due to environment of crimes were particularly visible in children from single parent families than on other family types.

## Recommendations

Strengthening law enforcement through enabling enforcing agencies, strict implementation of the rules through community participation while controlling criminal threats, criminal acts and fear of crimes at community and family level, could reduce the fear of crimes and enhance the participation at community and family level as well.

## References

- Baily, K. D. (1982) *Methods of Social Research*. 2nd Ed. New York. Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- Bradshaw, J., Hoelscher, P. and Richardson, D. (2006) *Comparing child well-being in OECD countries: concepts and methods*. Innocenti Working Paper No. 2006-03. UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence.
- Bradshaw, J., Kemp, P., Baldwin, S. and Rowe, A. (2004) *The drivers of social exclusion: A review of the literature for the Social Exclusion Unit in the Breaking the Cycle series*, London: SEU/ODPM.
- Clear, T. R. (2007) *Imprisoning communities: How mass incarceration makes disadvantaged neighborhoods worse*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Commins, P. (2004) *Poverty and social exclusion in rural areas: Characteristics, processes and research issues*. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 44, 60-75.
- Cooper, D. R. and Pamela. S. S. (2010) *Business Research Methods*. Islamabad. National Book Foundation.
- DSS (Department of Social Security). (1999) *Opportunity for All: Tackling poverty and social exclusion*, Cm 4445, London: The Stationery Office.
- Fahmy, E., Ruth, L., David, G. and Demi, P. (2009) *Understanding the risks of social exclusion across the life course: Working age adults without dependent children. A Research Report for the Social Exclusion Task Force*, Cabinet Office. University of Bristol.
- Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics. (1997) *America's Children: Key national indicators of well-being*, Washington, DC.
- Gordon, D., Adelman, L., Ashworth, K., Bradshaw, J., Levitas, R., Middleton, S., Pantazis, C., Patsios, D., Payne, S., Townsend, P. and Williams, J. (2000) *Poverty and social exclusion in Britain*, York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

- Guerra, N.G., Huesmann, L.R., Tolan, P.H., Van-Acker, R., and Eron, L.D. (1995) Stressful events and individual beliefs as correlates of economic disadvantage and aggression among urban children. *Journal of Consulting, and Clinical Psychology*. 63: 518-528.
- Kerr, N.L., Ann C. Rumble., Ernest S. Park., Jaap W. Ouwerkerk., Craig D. Parks., Marcello Gallucci., Paul A.M. and van Lange. (2009) How many bad apples does it take to spoil the whole barrel?: Social exclusion and toleration for bad apples. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*. 45: 603–613
- Levitas, R. (2006) The concept and measurement of social exclusion, in C. Pantazis., D. Gordon. and R. Levitas. (eds.) *Poverty and social exclusion in Britain: The Millennium Survey*, Bristol: The Policy Press: 123-60.
- Levitas, R., Christina, P., Eldin, F., David, G., Eva, L. and Demi, P. (2007) The multi-dimensional analysis of social exclusion. Bristol institute of Public Affairs, Bristol.
- Macionis. J. J. (2005) *Sociology (10th ed)*, New Jersey. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Marsh, A., Gordon, D., Pantazis, C. and Heslop, P. 1999. *Home Sweet Home? The impact of poor housing on health*, Bristol: The Policy Press.
- Mayer, S. E. (1998) *What Money Can't Buy: Family Income and Children's Life Chances*. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, UK.
- Nachmias. C. F. and David Nachmias. (1992) *Research Methods in Social Sciences*. 4th Ed. St Martin's Press Inco. New York. USA.
- Ridge, T. (2007) Negotiating child poverty: Children's subjective experiences of life on a low income. In H. Wintersberger, L. Alanen, T. Olk and J. Qvortrup (Eds.), *Childhood, Generational Order and the Welfare State: Exploring Children's Social and Economic Welfare*, Vol. 1 of COST A19: Children's Welfare, University Press of Southern Denmark: Denmark.
- Roker, D. (1998) *Worth more than this: Young people growing up in family poverty*, London: The Children's Society.
- Saunders, P. (2007) Towards New Indicators of Disadvantage Project: Bulletin No. 2: Deprivation in Australia. Social Policy Research Centre Newsletter No. 96, May 2007: 7-10.
- SEU (Social Exclusion Unit). (1997) *Social Exclusion Unit: Purpose, work priorities and working methods*, London: SEU.
- SEU. (1998) *Rough sleeping*, London: SEU.

- SPARC.(2011)The state of Pakistan's children. Retrieved on 24th October 2012, from [www.sparcpk.org](http://www.sparcpk.org).
- Sutton, L., Smith, N., Dearden, C. and Middleton, S. (2007)A child's-eye view of social difference. Joseph Rowntree Foundation: York, UK.
- Tai, S. W. (1978) Social Science Statistics, it Elements and Applications. California, Goodyear Publishing Company.
- The Fabian Society.(2006) Narrowing the gap: The Fabian Commission on Life Chances and Child Poverty, London: The Fabian Society.
- Van der Hoek, T. (2005)Through Children's Eyes: An Initial Study of Children's Personal Experiences and Coping Strategies Growing up Poor in an Affluent Netherlands. Innocenti Research Centre: Florence, Italy.
- Vinson, T. (2007)Dropping off the edge: the distribution of disadvantage in Australia. Richmond, Vic; Curtin, ACT: Jesuit Social Services, Catholic Social Services Australia.
- Walker, A., and Walker, C. (1997)Britain Divided: The Growth of Social Exclusion in the 1980s and 1990s. Child Poverty Action Group.
- Willow, C. (2002)Bread is free: Children and young people talk about poverty. Save the Children UK: London.

---

The author Mr. Asad Ullah is Assistant Professor at the Department of Rural Sociology, Agriculture University Peshawar. He can be reached at [asadpsh76@gmail.com](mailto:asadpsh76@gmail.com)

The author Prof. Dr. Mussawar Shah is the Chairman Department of Rural Sociology, Agriculture University Peshawar. He can be reached at [mussawar61@gmail.com](mailto:mussawar61@gmail.com)

The author Dr. Bushra Shafi is an Assistant Professor at the Department of Rural Sociology, Agriculture University Peshawar. She can be reached at [drbushrashafi@gmail.com](mailto:drbushrashafi@gmail.com)





## Structure of Violence in Pakistani Schools: A Gender Based Analysis

*Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali , Dr. Mussarat Anwar  
& Dr. Syeda Nabahat*

### Abstract

Violence in punishments by school teachers, class leaders or even peers causes delinquency and deviancy among students. This phenomenon is reported from all continents of the world both from formal schooling and informal education system. This paper investigates how schools as structures produce violence and what are the mechanisms through which violence is received by students. Two alternatives were assumed in construction of this variable: first, the School administration, which are structured in such a manner that promotes masculinity, and the second, the culture in neighborhoods that instigate students to reflect upon is schools where vulnerable students are the recipients. These vulnerabilities may include sub-variables such as ethnicity, age, gender, class or even physical disabilities. The third possibility is that youth in Schools sustain violence back home and project their reaction on others as replica in schools. The curriculum is not considered in this study as the syllabus in government schools uniform so it may not be a determining variable across schools under consideration. This paper is derived from the literature of my PhD dissertation in which a sample size of 522 students (54.6% boys and 45.4% girls) was randomly selected on proportional allocation basis all enrolled in Grade 10 in December 2013. The major findings of that study showed that almost all of the respondents (95.59%) agreed that violence at school is the major cause of dropout from school; as result shows in this study that majority of respondents (73.47%) agreed that harsh treatment of teacher is ineffective in making student to comply on homework assignments.

### Keywords

Gender Based Violence, School Structure, Class Monitors and Vulnerable Places

### Introduction

In Pakistan public school system is divided into three tiers. Primary schools enroll and retain students from grade 1 through grade 5, followed by enrolment in middle schools (grade 6th to grade 8th) through to high schools (grade 9th to grade 10th). In addition to this, there are higher secondary schools also, which offer enrolment from grade 9<sup>th</sup> to grade 12<sup>th</sup>. Pakistani schools, in terms of their internal environment and in terms of enrolment-related aspects exhibit multiple issues and problems. In addition to public schools, private schools also provide education, which until the beginning of 1990s were only few but since then have mushroomed quite well. The private primary schools have grown more than the middle or high schools. Despite efforts at improving public sector schools' performance<sup>1</sup> their

performance is quite low, rather degenerating, in comparison to private sector schools. Absenteeism of teachers, high dropout rates, low completion rates and high repetition rates, and inequalities of gender, power, class, geography have been identified as persistent problems (Shah, 2003). With teacher-to-student ratio of 40:1 in government primary schools (Witte, El-Bassel, Gilbert, Wu, & Chang, 2010) in a culture of authoritative teaching techniques it is not unsurprising to know that it is more damaging for children to be in schools than to be out of it; the luckier school students – against the unfortunate children herding animals or scavenging – sitting for hours in congested and crowded environment (Baer, 2012, p. 02) and being subject to punishment for minor actions such as moving or speaking in class-room stunt their mental, emotional and physical growth (DFID, 2000: 12-13). Around 20,000 public schools do not have adequate facilities such as toilets (Baer, 2012, p. 02).

According to Population Council report (Council, 2009, p. iv) In Pakistan children attending primary schools are only half of the total possible schooling-going children, while in secondary schools this drop further to only quarter of the cohort and further at higher education it remains just 5 % of the total youth in the age to be attending colleges or universities for the purpose. Moreover, wide gaps exist in enrolment rates in rural and urban areas. At primary level the enrolment gap between rural and urban areas is 20%, which more than doubles at middle level (41.4%), finally reaching 50% at Matric (high school) level. A more striking fact is that 14 % of the girls are enrolled in primary schools and just 8 % girls are enrolled at middle schools (EMIS, 2011: 22). In Pakistan, gender differences in school attendance exist in all provinces and in urban and rural areas (Sathar, Lloyd, Mete, & ul Haque, 2003). According to Sathar's (2003) findings, the percentage of respondents attending school increases with higher levels of socioeconomic status. There is relatively small difference in the gap between male and female school attendance in urban areas. Moreover, she found that poverty, especially in urban areas, is a major explanatory variable for differences in school attendance for females in urban areas: in comparison to 88 % of female adolescents from the highest income group only 23% of female adolescents from the lowest income group reported to have attended schools. Thus, in the context of urban areas, class rather than gender seems to explain differences in school attendance for girls. However, in rural areas the number of males completing middle school is more than twice the number of females, which means that gender differences are more clearly pronounced: '... only 13 percent% of young female respondents in rural areas complete middle level compared to more than four times that proportion in urban areas' (Sathar, 2003: 50). Although school attainment rates are higher for males in urban areas as well but the gender differences are not that striking as they are in rural areas. Overall, Sathar (2003) concludes that '... fewer than half of all young females aged 15-24 years have

ever enrolled in school. Of those who are fortunate enough to gain some education, more are likely to drop out of school at an earlier class than their male counterparts. This pattern of low enrollment for females is magnified at the lowest socioeconomic stratum' (Sathar, 2003:57-58).

In 2000 as part of Devolution of Power (DoP) program for transforming local government system, the government of Pakistan initiated Educational Sector Reforms (ESR) for the purpose of 'comprehensive literacy and poverty reduction, expansion of primary elementary education, introduction of technical stream at the secondary level, improving the quality of education through teachers training, forming public private partnership' (Shah, 2003: iv). The situation, however, is anything but better.

As of 2005, some 33 % of children were enrolled at private schools in Pakistan (Amjad & MacLeod, 2012). The mushrooming of private sector schools may generally be seen as a sign of overall improvement in living standard of the people and as ground for supposition that school environment there might be qualitatively more sophisticated. However, besides the fear that it is leading emergence of class divisions and rifts in terms of employability, creativity and civic engagement their internal dynamics are strongly linked to gender issues. For instance, the largest bulk of students in private schools are boys; only a handful of families would like to send their daughters to schools. This gender discrimination from family side emerges out of socially shared belief that sons are future/old age insurance while a girl's education in private schools is devalued because she would have to move to husband's house after marriage and hence won't be of that much help to parents (Aslam, 2006)<sup>2</sup>. According to UN (2005)<sup>3</sup>, 40% of government schools and 35 % of private schools use corporal punishment. One should not expect violence-free schools in a state that legalize corporal punishment and does not have legal safeguards against sexual harassment. According to Section 89, Pakistan Penal Code 1860 (XLV), parents, teachers and guardians of children are empowered to use moderate corporal punishment as a means to discipline children under the age of 12 years (Jones et al., 2009)<sup>4</sup>. And as stated above, because there are no laws safeguarding children against sexual abuse, Plan (2008: 27) reports to have documented 2500 complaints of sexual abuse against children between 2002 and 2003.

### **Cultural Impediments**

In Pakistani culture, mobility is more and severely constrained for females than it is for males. Although it is hard to see but in case if both the genders are equally (un)constrained, there are yet other important gender dimensions administered to young people by the adults. For instance, once permission is given for outside activities (play, sports, clubbing etc.), young males can move outside home

unaccompanied but for young females it is compulsory not to move unaccompanied. Reasons for gender differences in mobility could be many but in Pakistan, religion or more specifically, the cultural interpretation of religious values and beliefs seem to be a major reason. According to Khan (Khan, 2004: X), the imposition of uni-dimensional and monolithic version of Islam led to emergence of an ideology that has contribute towards severing mobility for females. Elaborating the argument, Khan (2004) contends further that the injunctions keep female body covered and hidden, are basically to restrict her social mobility in society and to impose culturally created needs of patriarchy of "protecting" her from the gaze of outsiders, the fear of its being violated by strangers. These are terms in which men perceive the female body and legislatures, dominated by men, make laws to protect themselves from the havoc that may be wrought upon society if the fitnaocated within the female body were to release' (Khan, 2004: 10). Such restrictions have serious implications for the attainment of education, accessing health services, opportunities for job/work, as well as for recreation and social networks for young females. In her survey about gender dimension of parenting, Sathar (2003) found that places that parents consider unsafe for young males and females vary. Similarly, parents' fears and reasons for justifying restrictions on the mobility of young males and females also vary. For example, with respect to young males, parental fear circles around the notion of personal safety that is whether they might get physical harm or not. However, with respect to females, the notion of fear is broader than the mere concern for their physical safety: the concern mainly centers on the notion of family reputation and family honor (Sathar, 2003: 40-41). The differences in conception of mobility have implications for school attendance, which, for example in 2001, remained 84 percent% for male and 54 percent% for female adolescents in 2001 (Sathar, 2003: 40-41).

### **Gender Biased Value System**

The social values of devaluing girls' education out of concern that they would shift to another house after marriage (Council, 2009) is perhaps the worst form of violence. Such ideational construct around the girls' education supposedly mean that no matter what happens to a handful of enrolled girls in and around school, parents or community at large would turn blind eye to their problems. This perhaps explains the reasons regarding lack of studies on girls' harassment in and around school. Inside schools the authoritarian teaching methods, punishment and humiliation of children are factors associated with non-attendance and high dropout rates of children from schools in Pakistan (Watkins, 1999: 75)<sup>5</sup>. It should also be noted that though no estimates exist as to how much girl students suffer from sexual harassment in and around schools but at least this much is known that most parents would not send their daughters to schools because safeguarding girls' virginity is socially considered as equivalent to safeguarding family honor (UNFPA, 1998)<sup>6</sup>.

The gender based violence in schools and outside, especially sexual harassment, has a religious and minority dimension to it as well. For instance, in many parts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province of Pakistan there was a myth which still prevails that to have sex with a sweeper girl (who usually are from religious minority-Christians) cures backache. Such mythical beliefs trigger risky behavior among boys who would not hesitate from sexual violence against girls in schools as well as outside schools. This phenomenon also relates to the issue of terrorists' development in Pakistan. The anecdotal evidence and media inspired theory suggests that it is madrasah-system and its curricula that prepare students for terrorist activities. However, Christine's (2007: 100) qualitative study on profiling of suicide-bombers suggests that out of total educated youth (males) some 70% are educated in public schools of Pakistan. According to Christine (2007) more than 60 % of suicide-bombers in Pakistan had some form of formal (public) schooling.

### **School Management of Violence and Students Adoption of Violence**

Management means proper arrangement of events/ things for smooth functioning. Taken this analogy by applying on the school management system depicts a system based on management activities right from bottom to top including all stakeholders perfectly performing their roles for the stability to their particular system. ~~More is~~ Higher the efficiency high would be the management scenario. School management is basically meant for internalization of basic values of the society, getting excel in the academics and provision of skills in such a manner that upon the completion of training in the stipulated time the participant (students) positively contribute to the development of the society in a positive manner. Relationship between lacks of school management policy on violence leads to student's adoption of violence was found non-significant with physical violence ( $p=0.552$ ), psychological violence ( $p=0.174$ ) and economic violence ( $p=0.314$ ) respectively. Policy which is a blueprint for running any affair of life is one of the basic document which brings conformity to the social system or otherwise. The inferences indicated here that physical, psychological violence and economic nature of violence were missing in the school policy of management that is the reason; the existence of these modes of punishments had little been focused over. In addition the non-significance could also signify their existence under the cultural prerogative within the prescribed norms of the society. These results are highly in line to Eisner (2009) who finds it difficult to place any single theory capable to explain the different modes of violence universally. Any act to be violent in one culture is taken as prerogative in the other. The sexual violence was found highly significant ( $p=0.002$ ) with lack in school management policy in violence leads to student adoption of violence. However, psychologically the depression, anxiety and stress are some of the outcomes associated to physical punishment (Linenthal, 2001). It

could be attributed to the cultural traits with strong social restrictions in the shape of considering it as cultural and social taboo with no any space for it to take place in the prevalent social system. Social structure is highly dynamic with functional mechanics for containment of these acts through strong system of social checks. Doers are not only punished in the shape of expelling from school but also the social stigma is associated to them for their anti-social behavior. These findings are in line to the Eisner (2009) that high level of institutionalization as a process with conspicuous inclination as indicators towards the reformation of the behavior under the cultural balance approach. The dichotomous phenomenon of nature and nurture is the main outcome of antisocial behavior (Yerin, 2006). Moreover cultural and social context has close meaning to the occurrence of events with reasonable justifications (Dubet, 2003)

*Table1: Correlation Between School Management of Violence and Students Adoption of Violent*

Violence Type	Lack of School Management Policy on Violence Leads to Students Adoption of Violence					Statistical Test
	Exposure	Statistics	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	
Physical	Never	# Cases Percent	25 4.79	184 35.25	47 9	Chi-Square 1.189 (0.552)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	33 6.32	181 34.67	52 9.96	
Psychological	Never	# Cases Percent	26 4.98	127 24.32	42 8.04	Chi-Square 3.494 (0.174)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	32 6.13	238 45.59	57 10.92	
Sexual	Never	# Cases Percent	30 5.75	230 44.06	77 14.75	Chi-Square 12.117 (0.002)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	28 5.36	135 25.86	22 4.21	
Economic	Never	# Cases Percent	19 3.64	122 23.37	41 7.85	Chi-Square 2.317 (0.314)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	39 7.47	243 46.55	58 11.11	

*Source: Field Data*

## **Government Policies**

Government regulate through executive to regulate peaceful environment at schools. Government policies play vital role both through School management system, district government and giving certain liberties to media to play the role of a watchdog and help state implement its various policies on different issues including but not limited to control of violence at schools.

### **1. School Management Response to Gender Based Violence**

School management system is also a complex whole where a number of stakeholders participate. Management in this capacity refers to the authority vested in school teachers, principal and management of the schools. Government regulates schools through Teachers appointed on executive positions to regulate peaceful environment at schools. Management in this capacity refers to the authority vested in school teachers, principal and management of the schools. The sole purpose behind the whole exercise is to maintain discipline and achieve maximum objectives in terms of academic excellence. This approach is not only limited to the provision of academics but also certain other skills and behavioral traits transmission in a socially acceptable manner to make them viable citizens. Results pertaining to the effects of school management system in gender based violence with relation to school policy and mechanism on violence was ascertained and it was found that there was significant relationship among physical violence ( $p=0.015$ ) of the school have clear policy and mechanism on violence. This inference vividly indicated towards existence of physical violence where students, irrespective of gender affiliation, age group, and even class and ethnicity affiliation were exposed to this type of violence. It is eminent here that the school management had managed to contain the students through infliction of physical violence with different modes and manifestations. It could include bullying, beating and even corporal punishments. This practice as assumed to be successful in predicting the human behavior towards the attainment of any particular goal. However, if kept unchecked, it is also responsible for a high dropout rate of students which could be attributed to a poor and lawful school management. This is purely the outcome of school violence (Ayers, 2000; and Plan, 2008). Bullying of school mates are attributable to the fact that punishment existed in the area, however, the school central position had a big role in role transformation which worked as a double edge weapon i.e. agent of violence and preventing agent of violence as well (Sulevan and Bash, 1967). As indicated by (Plan, 2008; De Wet, 2007) that in most Asian countries violence at school is practiced under the social value based on respecting the elders.



Table 2: School Management Response to Gender Based Violence

Violence Type	Our School has Clear Policy & Mechanism on Violence					Statistical Test
	Exposure	Statistics	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	
Physical	Never	# Cases Percent	228 43.68	13 2.49	15 2.87	Chi-Square 8.361 (0.015)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	253 48.47	3 0.57	10 1.91	
Psychological	Never	# Cases Percent	175 33.52	7 1.34	13 2.49	Chi-Square 2.765 (0.251)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	306 58.62	9 1.72	12 2.29	
Sexual	Never	# Cases Percent	310 59.39	7 1.34	20 3.83	Chi-Square 5.636 (0.060)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	171 32.76	9 1.72	5 0.96	
Economic	Never	# Cases Percent	167 31.99	6 1.15	9 1.72	Chi-Square 0.068 (0.967)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	314 60.15	10 1.91	16 3.06	

Source: Field Data

## 2. District Management (Government) Response to Gender Based Violence

Education is one of the institutions which are mostly embarked on delivering through subunits across a state. These units i.e. schools have a manifest role in personality formation and behavioral transformation under a policy reflective of relative culture, religion and state laws. To ensure the implementations of policies its regularity is a big question and being resolved through a management system from top to bottom. District management is a key to this process where government not only design policies based on inputs received from bottom at district level but also impose their policy while transmitting it to district management for its implementation at the bottom. Some of the relationships pertaining to different modes of violence were ascertained and it was found that government regulate through executive ensure peaceful environment at school was found non-significant with physical, psychological, sexual and economic mode of violence. It is strange to see the relationship that any government efforts regarding the regulation of the violence with the above

four manifestation were missing. It is pathetic on the part of government that any link of receiving inputs based on occurrence of such anti-social behaviors was missing between the state and the functionaries working both at the tale and the middle.

*Table 3: District Management (Government) Response to Gender Based Violence*

Violence Type	Government Regulate Through Executive to Ensure Peaceful Environment at School					Statistical Test
	Exposure	Statistics	Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	
Physical	Never	# Cases Percent	172 32.95	13 2.49	15 2.87	Chi-Square 8.361 (0.015)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	196 37.55	3 0.57	10 1.91	
Psychological	Never	# Cases Percent	128 24.52	7 1.34	13 2.49	Chi-Square 2.765 (0.251)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	240 45.98	9 1.72	12 2.29	
Sexual	Never	# Cases Percent	232 44.44	7 1.34	20 3.83	Chi-Square 5.636 (0.060)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	136 26.05	9 1.72	5 0.96	
Economic	Never	# Cases Percent	129 24.71	6 1.15	9 1.72	Chi-Square 0.068 (0.967)
	Exposed	# Cases Percent	239 45.78	10 1.91	16 3.06	

*Source: Field Data*

## Conclusion

Educational institutions serves as breeding hub for making young lot capable for performing their duties in the social and economic market. If any policy regarding their controlling behavior, directing and redirecting is lacking in our system, the fruit associated to the process initiated through schooling could not be mature. Government of Pakistan has initiated a policy for education in 2007 but this policy is met with failure due to non-incorporation of normative structure of the schooling (SPARC, 2007). Any professional stance is lacking to measure the violence with its different type in the perspective of normal traditional setup(Coslin, 1997; Dubet, 2003). The study concludes that our education system has yet to adopt a strategy to train its youth for their future roles in-line with millennium development goals. Our education system is a part of creating violence both through its structures and patriarchal mind sets that injects masculinities more than

reasoning to achieve ones objectives. The lack of any monitoring system at district and provincial level furthers the distortion of our school system. The parents are not fully engaged in training of adolescents at schools which leave them without any direction and at the mercy of self-conceived role of teachers. On the other hand, media, which is considered as watch dog on public services and performance of government in spending public money has also remained focused on cosmetic aspects of the government not realizing how the future nation is being built at our schools.

## End Notes

<sup>1</sup>Since the holding of 'All-education conference (1947) a number of Commission have been formed, e.g. The Commission on National Education (1959), National Education Policy (1970), National Education Policy (1979), and National Education Policy (1992), and Education Sector Reforms as part of Devolution of Power (DOP) various commissions such as 1959 Commission on National Education,

<sup>2</sup>Aslam, M. (2006). *The Quality of School Provision in Pakistan: Are Girls Worse off?* Retrieved on July 8, 2011, from <http://www.gprg.org/pubs/workingpapers/pdfs/gprg-wps-066.pdf>

<sup>3</sup>United Nations (2005) Violence against children: regional consultation in East Asia and the Pacific. Geneva: United Nations. In the Painful lessons report.

<sup>4</sup> Jones, N., Karen Moore, Eliana Villar-Marquez, and Emma Broadbent (2008), 'Painful Lessons: The Politics of preventing sexual violence and bullying at school', London: ODI.

<sup>5</sup> Watkins, K. (1999), *'Education Now: Break the Cycle of Poverty'*, Oxford: Oxfam

<sup>6</sup> UNFPA (2000), 'State of World Population Report, the Widespread violence against women in Africa documented, [http://www.afrol.com/Categories/Women/wom003\\_violence\\_unfpa.htm](http://www.afrol.com/Categories/Women/wom003_violence_unfpa.htm) accessed 23rd April, 2010

## References

- Allison, Baer., (2012). Combating Radicalism in Pakistan: Educational Reform and Information Technology, The Project on International Peace and Security and The College of William and Mary, (P.I.P.S Brief No. 4.1) Accessible accessed on (date) from [https://www.wm.edu/offices/itpir/pips/\\_documents/pips/baer\\_allison\\_brief.pdf](https://www.wm.edu/offices/itpir/pips/_documents/pips/baer_allison_brief.pdf)
- Amjad, R., & MacLeod, G. (2012). Effectiveness of Private, Public and Private-Public Partnership Schools in Pakistan.
- Ayers, W., Bracey, G., & Smith, G. (2000). The ultimate education reform? Make schools smaller. Education Policy Project CERAI-00-35)..
- Christine Fair, C. (2007). Who are Pakistan's militants and their families? Terrorism and Political Violence, 20(1), 49-65.
- Coslin, P. G. (1997). Adolescents' judgments of the seriousness of disruptive behavior at school and of the sanction appropriate for dealing with it. Journal of Adolescence, 20(6), 707-715.
- Council, B. (2009). Pakistan: the next generation: British Council.
- De Wet, C. (2007). Free State educators' perceptions and observations of learner-on-learner, learner-on-educator and educator-on-learner school violence. Education as Change, 11(1), 59-85.
- Dubet, F. (2003). Juvenile and Urban Violence. International handbook of violence research, Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 937-952.
- Eisner, M. (2009). The uses of violence: An examination of some cross-cutting issues. International Journal of Conflict and Violence, 3(1), 40-59.
- EMIS. (2011). Annual Statistical Report of Government Schools based on October 31, 2010. Peshawar: Education Management Information System. (EMIS o. Document Number)
- International, P. (2008). Learn Without Fear-Looking at Violence from the Gender Perspective (Report No. 12): Plan International. (Plan o. Document Number)
- Jones, N., Moore, K., Villar-Marquez, E., & Broadbent, E. (2009). Painful lessons: The politics of preventing sexual violence and bullying at school.
- Khan, S. (2008). Helpdesk Research Report: Under-development and Radicalization in Pakistan 11.01.08 [Electronic Version], 10. Retrieved March 01, 2013,

- Linenthal, E. T. (2001). *The unfinished bombing: Oklahoma City in American memory*. No.: ISBN 0-19-513672-1, 319.
- Sathar, Z. A., Lloyd, C. B., Mete, C., & ulHaque, M. (2003). *Schooling Opportunities for Girls as a Stimulus for Fertility Change in Rural Pakistan\**. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 51(3), 677-698.
- Shah, D. (2003). *Country report on decentralization in the education system of Pakistan: Policies and strategies*. Islamabad: Academy of Educational Planning and Management, (Islamabad), Ministry of Education.
- SPARC.(2007). *State of Children in Pakistan*. Islamabad, Pakistan: SPARC. (SPARC o. Document Number)
- Sullivan, C., & Bash, S. (1967). *Current programs for delinquency prevention*. *Delinquency Prevention: Theory and Practice*, 51-72.
- UNDP, U., & UNFPA, U. (1998). *WHO and WORLD BANK (1998).Implementing the 20/20 Initiative: Achieving universal access to basic social services*.
- Watkins, W. D., & Hooks, J. S. (1999). *Legal Aspects of School Violence: Balancing School Safety with Students' Rights*, *The. Miss. Lj*, 69, 641.
- Witte, S. S., El-Bassel, N., Gilbert, L., Wu, E., & Chang, M. (2010). *Lack of awareness of partner STD risk among heterosexual couples. Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health*, 42(1), 49-55.
- Yerin-Guneri, O., Erdur Baker, O., & AkbabaAltun, S. (2006). *School violence among urban Turkish students: A qualitative investigation*. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research.

---

The author Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali is Director/Associate Professor, Institute of Peace and Conflict Studies University of Peshawar, Pakistan. He can be reached at [jamilchitrali@upesh.edu.pk](mailto:jamilchitrali@upesh.edu.pk)

The author Dr. Mussarat Anwar is Lecturer of Human Development, College of Home Economics, University of Peshawar.

The author Dr. Syeda Nabahat Lecturer of Economics, College of Home Economics, University of Peshawar.

## **Gender Differences in Depression Among the Affectees of War on Terrorism and the Role of Psychological Interventions in the Rehabilitation**

*Summiya Ahmad, Hayat Mohammad, Shakeel Ahmed &  
Imran Ahmad Sajid*

### **Abstract**

The present study was carried out to investigate the psychological effects of war and terrorism and the role of psychological interventions in the rehabilitation of affectees. The sample included two hundred participants (N=200) from two districts of Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa i.e. Swat and Buner using convenient sampling technique. It was further divided into two subgroups, males (n=100) and females (n=100). Pre and post test design was used for the study because it was carried out in two phases. Demographic Information Sheet and Geriatric Depression Scale (GPS) (Yesavage 1983) were administered for the assessment. It was hypothesized that the Victims of war and terrorism will score high on Depression Scale, and the prevalence of depression will be high among females as compared to males. It was also assumed that males will show decrease in symptoms of depression faster, than females after receiving psychological interventions. The results supported the hypotheses. Results of the research explored ( $p < 0.05$ ) that people who are the direct victim and those who are eyewitness of the traumatic event suffered from serious psychological problem i.e. depression. In the second phase of study, results indicated that psychological interventions play a pivotal role in the rehabilitation of affectees.

### **Keywords**

Gender Difference, Depression, Terrorism, Psychological Intervention, Pakistan, Rehabilitation.

Since time immemorial, especially the twentieth century, the world has experienced terrorism in different forms and faces with different expressions. Therefore, we know that terrorism is not a modern trend. Undoubtedly, a terrorism disaster, (whether the attack as 9/11 in 2001 or a natural event such as Hurricane Katrina in 2005, earth quake of Pakistan in 2005) has caused tremendous damage to individuals (e.g., buildings, roads, factories) and humans (e.g., illness, death). Twentieth century, certainly the century of the most blood suffering in human history, manifests a persistent increase and changes in such activities which are malicious and destructive. Yet this was not the main challenge for the international community, until the hijack of airplanes and the attacks of 9/11 on the towers of World Trade Center and the Pentagon, the main symbols of American economic and military supremacy (Musarrat, 2009).

World Health Organization (WHO, 2005) defines traumatic event as, "any event that causes damage, ecological disruption, the loss of life, deteriorating health services and health on a scale sufficient to meet extraordinary war from outside the disaster area or community." A threatening event, or the probability of occurrence of a potentially damaging phenomenon within a given time period and area". Physical natural phenomena caused by sudden events, are called slow or natural hazards. Natural hazards may be earthquakes, landslides or geologic, tsunamis and volcanic activity (World Health Organization, 2005). Technological hazards are man-made (complex emergencies, conflict, war, terrorism, famine, displaced population, industrial accidents and transport accidents) events handled by humans and those occur in Environmental regulation of human degradation, pollution and accidents (World Health Organization, 2005).

Taking terrorism as a subject is very difficult to be discussed. Due to political and social prejudices assumption, the statement may become biased. Experts of the field and policy makers' often show disagreement in their theoretical perspectives. For study of terrorism, mainly at least three approaches are used i.e. psychological, macro and psychosocial context (De la Corte, 2006). Political violence e.g. riots and demonstrations, change movements, wars (civil) and conflicts both national/international (armed) are generally consider factors which are associated with terrorism. Authoritarian regimes, repressive, poverty, cultural and religious practices are some other possible root causes of terrorism. (Crenshaw, 1995; Laqueur, 2003; Reinares, 2003; Corte, 2006; Newman, 2006).

After exposure to trauma, people frequently experience a range of cognitive, emotional, behavioral and physical symptoms. Often these problems constellate discrete psychiatric disorders such as anxiety disorders, depression, PTSD and / or profound changes in personality. Similarly, traumatized individuals experience a range of issues that fall outside these categories delineated rather psychiatric. Emotions such as guilt, shame, rage, anger and disgust are often widespread and extreme. Behavioral problems such as anger outbursts sleep disturbances, social avoidance and control and obsessive cleaning are also common. Not everyone's reaction to trauma is very negative in this way, there are others for whom the traumatic events seem to be a little more minor disruptions in the way of life and these individuals remain remarkably unaffected by their experiences. Indeed, for some, there are often positive psychological reactions to trauma, such as increased capacity to appreciate the fragile nature of life and the problems that other people could be affected (Taylor et al., 2003). In a stress, it was also noted that people's reactions to stressors varies along these lines, with some responding positively and some negatively respond (Taylor et al., 2003).

Norris et al. (2002a) found that 68% of their observed subjects facing a disaster were found to be the victims of PTSD. The investigators found depression as the next important psychiatric problem observed in 36% of the research subjects. Another problem observed in 32% of samples was different forms of anxiety. It was further noted that 23% of the subjects were also complaining about general health problems, which could not be verified (North, 2002).

Terrorism, a subset of human caused disasters can have a devastating impact negatively on psychological functioning. Terrorism carries with itself a potentially high impact on the responses of distress than any other disaster with behavior change and psychiatric illness by virtue of the unique features of terrorism events. Terrorists intend to intrigue the collective fear and uncertainty. This fear is not only limited to those who have direct experience, but can also spread rapidly among others, as the rest of their family members, survivors and also those exposed through images large cast iron. Mental and psychological suffering is usually more common than physical injuries from a terrorist incident (Slovic, 1987).

As a number of suicide bombings has increased explosives in some of the major cities of Pakistan, also increased the country's security risks. Because of a negative fact that in recent years, many terrorist group has emerged with some new crop of activists who are more violent and destructive and less sensitive to political strategies. Many of the existing terrorist groups have rebuilt, that have strengthened their ties with the new groups. Instead, the main objective of these terrorist attacks is to spread terror and fear among society, which is the threat itself. Therefore, the impact of psychological terror depends largely on how the acts are announced, or interpreted, which means that there are ways we can defend ourselves and loved ones by putting the concerns of fear into consideration and protect our children so that can use obscene or psychological damage to their minds. Situation of war and terrorism in Pakistan is deteriorating every day and this situation prevailed became very serious problem because it affects people negatively, affect the psychological / mental health of people who are directly or indirectly exposed to war and terrorism, incurring depression among people (Maria et al, 2004).

Depression is a psychological reaction caused by an encounter with a traumatic event, especially in situations of war and terrorism. Depression is a type of mental disorder that affects a person's mood, thoughts, feelings, behavior and overall health. It's very natural to respond in sadness and grief over the losses in life. This prolonged sadness, which extends continuously to one or more times a week becomes a disorder that we commonly name as depression (D'Aquila, Brain, & Willner 1994).

There is no specification of the age or something for depression to occur. It can happen to anyone, it can be a teenager or an old. Depression, most of the time, is



assisted with treatment, and yet there are those who cannot be helped by treatment. Depression has two kinds: the first being sad kind, called major depression, dysthymia, known as mania and others. In a depressed state of mind, you start to act reckless, cry, feel extreme sadness or guilt, for no reason, and lose confidence. They lose hope and become restless (D'Aquila et al, 1994).

Gender differences may be partly explained by the differences that we often see when psychological distress is expressed. In general, women are more likely than men to recognize psychological symptoms and report them (Nolen-Hoeksema, 1990). After a disaster, males can suppress feelings of psychological distress because of the expectation that men should be strong and capable (Wolfe & Kimerling, 1997). As discussed in a previous section, the most commonly studied post-disaster responses are PTSD, depression, and other forms of anxiety. Substance abuse and other behaviors in the act, such as interpersonal violence, are rarely evaluated. Men are more likely to express psychological distress through these types of behaviors, rather than to report symptoms of neurotic-like depression and anxiety (Myers, Weissman, Tischler, et al., 1984).

Psychological interventions play important role in dealing with victims of terrorism (man-made disaster). Evaluation research is the core aspect of psychology with a long history in this aspect which makes it an unavoidable partner for managers who needed it for assessment of effectiveness of their planning and response (Mitchell & Everly, 2000).

Psychological efforts should be directed when helping people to develop active coping mechanisms against passive and fatalistic ones. Sometimes in some cases when disaster happened, however it is found that no active strategy is available to use. Fullerton, Ursano, Vance, and Wang (2000) found that in emergency situation, females as compared to males seek three times more debriefing. Our earlier discussion of gender differences in vulnerability suggests that women may be particularly need support services after a social disaster. Most psychologists, as far back as, assumes that individuals need to face the trauma of the disaster. It may allow people to avoid effectively are just as useful, especially when the trauma is severe and there is little that can be done to change the situation (Lindemann, 1944).

**Rationale of the study**

Psychological mental health is nowadays becoming a central issue for public health complex emergencies. Until recently, there has been a gap of conducting a kind of study that covers every corner of psychological reactions during war and terrorism situations. This research present a culturally valid mental health action plan based on scientific evidence that is capable of addressing the mental health effects of complex emergencies. It will help people know of their mental conditions of the affected region and motivate the government and non-governmental

organization (NGOs) to map out strategically plans or solutions like psychological interventions, for both short or long term psychological problems and rehabilitation of the victims in cultural context of Pakistan, especially when working in Pukhtoon areas like District Swat and District Buner. This comprehensive study will be one of its kind, covering the psychological reactions of “War and Terrorism”, rehabilitation and recovery of mental health of these affected victims and preparing people for pre-event situation will be role played by psychological intervention.

The purpose of the study is to examine the psychological consequences of war & terrorism among the subjects in affected areas (Swat and Bunir) of Pakistan and to analyze the role of psychological strategies in the rehabilitations of affectees.

### **Objectives**

1. To examine the prevalence of depression in the victims of war and terrorism after event.
2. To explore the intensity of depression among male and female.
3. To analyze the role of psychological interventions in the rehabilitation of affectees.

### **Hypotheses**

1. The intensity of depression will be high among female as compared to male.
2. Recovery rate of male will be high than female in the psychological rehabilitation.
3. Psychological interventions play a significant role in the rehabilitation of affectees.

### **Method**

#### **Participants**

The targeted population of the study was the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province. Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province is divided into 24 districts. The study included sample from District Buner and District Swat, of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Convenient sampling technique was used. The sample consisted of 200 individuals (N=200), with the representation of both male and female from all walks of life at the age of adulthood. Further, two hundred sample (N=200) was divided into two groups. One hundred (n=100) were males and one hundred (n=100) were females from Swat and Buner. Average age of respondents were adults 40 years old.

#### **Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria**

In the research process, people who were the victim and people who were the eye witness of the war affected areas were included.

The research focused and included elderly people both male and female because it was easy to access those participants who took part in the first phase of the study.

Research did not focus on children and adolescents because that group of the targeted area were under special consideration by security agencies due to their close exposure to suicide attack training.

Individuals who visited mental health clinics were included in study because approaching participants at community level was not possible due to security risks.

### **Instruments**

For this research one information sheet and one instrument was used namely Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS)

#### **1. Demographic Information Sheet (DIS)**

Demographic Information sheet was used to get information from the participants. Demographic Information sheet included Name, Gender, Area, Address and Date.

### **Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS)**

The Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) is widely used in screening depression among the elderly population. The original version (GDS-30) consisted of 30 questions in the form of yes / no and was designed for self-administration (Yesavage et al, 1983). Scoring criteria of Geriatric Depression Scale is normal 0-9, mild 10-19 and severe 20-30. The Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) was used for rating the level of depression (Jerry Yesavage 1983). In the assessment of depression in adulthood age, the Geriatric Depression Scale (GDS) (Brink et al., 1982; Yesavage et al., 1983) is currently one of the most used depression self-reports. The GDS was developed and validated in two studies (Brink et al., 1982; Yesavage et al., 1983). None of the final 30 items was somatic (although 12 of the 100 original items had been), thus avoiding one of the problems with self-reports assessing depression in the elderly, namely the confusion of somatic symptoms with physical disturbances that are common in adulthood age. Reliability of GDS was found  $r = .82$  being statistically significant ( $p < .0001$ ).

### **Procedure**

The sample of two hundred ( $N=200$ ) participants were conveniently selected from different areas of District Swat and District Buner. The sample was divided into two groups, hundred were males ( $n=100$ ) and hundred were females ( $n=100$ ).

Fifty male (n1=50) and fifty female (n2=50) participants from District Swat and fifty male (n3=50) and fifty females (n4=50) from District Buner were selected. Criteria for selection of sample was convenient sampling technique.

Participants were approached at different mental health team clinics run by different non-governmental organization. Rapport was developed with the subjects. Pre and post test design was used in the study because the study was carried out in two different phases i.e. Phase I and Phase II. In Phase I, data was collected to find out the psychological consequences (prevalence of depression in victims) of war and terrorism. After three months, in Phase II, there was recollection of data to analyze the role of psychological interventions in the rehabilitation of affectees from the same sample assessed in phase I. All the participants and Organizations (both National and International) were thanked for their cooperation in this study.

### **Intervention**

After the advent of war on terrorism, almost every one of the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa in general and District Swat and Buner in particular were facing different kinds of psychological problems. Different international non-governmental and national non-governmental organization started providing mental health services. For the data collection purpose different organizations mental health services were keenly observed and those who hired professional psychologist for providing psychological interventions were selected. They handled clients in a very professional way and most of the time applied counseling strategies (cognitive behavioral technique) depended on the problems clients facing at that time.

Data was collected from clients who were taking individual counseling. Duration for each individual session was 45 minutes according to international standard. Those who were taking individual counseling and therapy were surprised in initial session because before that, attitude of general public is developed that psychological problems can only be eradicated by using medicines. But after taking sessions, they were very much satisfied that there psychological healing is increased day by day by attending counseling and psychotherapy sessions.

### **Control of Extraneous Variables**

Controlling of extraneous variables is important to make it sure that depended variable is changed because of the effect of independent variable. Controlling of extraneous variables in field experiment is difficult from laboratory experiment. During the study, clients were asked not to take any other services during counseling and psychotherapy taking duration which they were receiving from those mental health clinics established by different international and national organizations.

After disaster it is a parameter that people are naturally healed upto 6 weeks. After 6 weeks if people still remain in the same stressful condition, then they were advised to take counseling and psychotherapy services.

Table 1: Alpha Reliability of GDS scale (N=200)

Scale	No. of Items	Alpha
Depression Scale (GDS)	30	.79

Table 1: shows the alpha reliability of GDS scale. Results shows that the scale is internally consistent and can be used for present sample.

Table 2: Means, standard deviations and t-value of the depression scores of the Male and Female Affectees phase I on depression scale (N=200)

Scale	Male (n=100)		Female (n=100)				95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	p	LL	UL	
<b>Depression</b>	14.39	3.57	15.72	4.112	.45	0.01	.26	2.40	0.345

$df=198$   $p<.01$

Table 2 shows a highly significant difference between the male and female affectees on depression scale ( $t=2.451$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The figures show that female respondents are more depressed ( $M=15.72$ ,  $SD=4.11$ ) as compared to male respondents ( $M=14.39$ ,  $SD=3.57$ ).

Table 3: Means, standard deviations and t-value of the depression scores in the pretest and post-test of affectees (phase II) on depression scale (N=200)

Scale	Depression Pretest (n=100)		Depression Post-test (n=100)				95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	p	LL	UL	
<b>Depression</b>	15.06	3.90	13.63	4.33	3.49	0.001	.62	2.23	0.347

$df=198$   $p<.001$

Table 3 shows highly significant difference between the pretest and post-test of affectees on Geriatric depression scale by depression scores ( $t=3.49, p<.001$ ). The figures show that the pretest have more depression ( $M=15.06, SD=3.90$ ) as compared to post-test ( $M=13.63, SD=4.33$ ).

Table 4: Means, standard deviations and t-value of the depression scores of the pretest and post-test of male affectees (phase II) on depression ( $N=100$ )

Scale	Depression Pretest (n=50)		Depression Post-test (n=50)				95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	p	LL	UL	
<b>Depression</b>	15.72	3.57	13.60	4.23	3.55	0.001	.93	3.30	0.541

$df=198$        $p<.001$

Table 4 reveals highly significant difference between the pretest and post-test of male affectees on depression scale by depression scores ( $t=3.550, p<.001$ ). The figures show that the pretest result(males) have more depression ( $M=15.72, SD=3.575$ ) as compared to post-test result(males) ( $M=13.60, SD=4.236$ ).

Table 5 Means, standard deviations and t-value of the depression scores of the pretest and post-test of female affectees (phase II) on depression ( $N=100$ )

Scale	Depression Pretest (n=50)		Depression Post-test (n=50)				95% CI		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	p	LL	UL	
<b>Depression</b>	14.39	4.11	13.66	4.45	3.32	0.001	-.36	1.82	0.170

$df=198$        $p<.001$

Table 5 reflects a highly significant difference between the pretest and post-test of female affectees on depression scale by depression scores ( $t=3.320, p<.001$ ). The figures show that the pretest result(females) have depression ( $M=14.39, SD=4.11$ ) as compared to post-test result(females) ( $M=13.66, SD=4.45$ ).

## Discussion

The objective of this study was to examine the psychological consequences of war and terrorism among the victims in affected areas (Swat & Buner) of Pakistan and to investigate the role of psychological intervention strategies in the

rehabilitation of affectees. Our findings indicate significant difference between phase I and phase II scores which shows tremendous role performed by psychological intervention in rehabilitation of affectees. In phase I, it was hypothesized that affectees of war and terrorism will have high score on depression and the intensity of depression will be low among males than females. These research findings are consistent with the earlier research findings (Delisi et al., 2003; Farooqi, & Tariq, 2010; Khan, Alam, Warris, & Mujtaba, 2007; Nasky, Hines, & Summer, 2009; Pat-Horenezyk et al., 2007; Pfefferbaum et al., 1999; Solomon, 2009; Solomon, Gelkopf, & Bleich, 2005; Summers & Winefield, 2009; Tolin & Foa, 2006 and Willenz, 2006) which suggest that the female victims are more prone to develop psychological stress, depression and PTSD as compared to the male victims of war and terrorism.

The psychological effects of terrorism on threatened civilians have not been extensively investigated in the literature. Descriptions of gender differences in response to terror attacks are even sparser. Gidron (2002) reported that the prevalence of PTSD after terrorist attacks worldwide is estimated to be approximately 28%. Consistent with these results, Galea and colleagues (2002), who interviewed 1008 adults in Manhattan after the September 11 terrorist attacks, showed a substantial burden of acute PTSD and depression in the population after the attacks. Experiences involving exposure to the attacks were predictors of current PTSD, and losses as a result of the events were predictors of current depression. Research findings regarding gender differences in response to traumatic events are equivocal. Several studies have not identified gender differences at all (Amirkhan, Risinger & Swickert, 1995; Aranda et al., 2001; Lomranz et al., 1994). Many researchers, however, report a female-to-male lifetime prevalence ratio of as high as 2:1 for PTSD symptoms, even when levels of exposure are lower in females as compared to males (Ai, Peterson, & Ubelhor, 2002; Ben Zur & Zeidner, 1991; Breslau, 2001; Fullerton et al., 2001; Karanci et al., 1999; Saxe & Wolfe, 1999; Seedat & Stein, 2000). These data appear to be consistent with a review of 180 articles and chapters on 130 distinct samples involving over 50,000 individuals in 80 different traumatic events (Norris, Friedman, Watson, Byrne, Diaz & Kaniasty, 2002). The reviewed data reveal that in the aftermath of disasters, women appear to be at greater risk than men for developing long-term psychological problems, especially PTSD. The effects of gender were found to be greatest in samples from traditional cultures and within the context of severe exposure.

Many research studies on disaster victims show that stress, PTSD and depression are the most prevalent psychological problems after the occurrence of a disaster (Brier & Elliott 2000, Wang et al., 2000, Chen et al. 2001, Livanou and others. 2002A).



Studies show that women are more vulnerable to depression and other psychological disorders (including PTSD) than men. However, studies conducted on gender differences with respect to psychological disorders in Vietnam and the Gulf War show inconsistent results. These studies do not fail to recognize the traditional role of women in Iraq and Afghanistan where many casualties occurred in combat operations (Rona and colleagues, 2007).

More evidence from the US substantiates the results of Rona and colleagues (2007). Referring the minimal differences between the sexes in psychological disorders, all U.S. military troops were given some mental health assessment for posttraumatic stress symptoms, depressive signs, and concern for their family when they returned from deployment. Out of the first 222/620 army and marine personnel, (10.6% of whom were women) reported psychological problems after returning from Iraq and 24% of women, developing some type of mental health problems compared with 19% of men.

Since long time, for victims and affectees of all kind of traumatic events (disaster and critical incidents) psychological intervention has been proved an effective, important, unavoidable and front-line intervention especially in result of severe psychological distress and trauma (Everly, Flannery, & Mitchell, 2000; Everly & Mitchell, 1999). According to the definition of psychological intervention given by Everly & Mitchell (1999), "it is the provision of emergency psychological services and care to victims as to help those victim's in returning to normal and an adaptive level of functioning and to prevent or mitigate the potential negative impact of psychological trauma."

Coping strategies reflect individual cognitive, emotional and behavioral efforts to manage internal and external demands of a stressful situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Two major categories of coping strategies have been consistently identified in the literature: problem-focused coping, designed to manage or solve the problem by "removing" the stressor; and emotion-focused coping, designed to reduce or eliminate the emotional stress associated with the situation. Theory and research suggest that problem-focused coping tends to predominate when people feel that something can be done to manage or control the situation, whereas emotion-focused coping predominates when people feel that nothing can be done about the situation (Carver & Scheier, 1989; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Zeidner, 1993).

Studies on gender differences in ways of coping with stress are inconclusive and complex. Some studies found that men employed more problem-focused coping strategies than women (Angst et al, 2002; Karanci et al, 1999). In a study on gender differences in the use of social support, problem solving and avoidance, and their effect on stress and depression, Felsten (1998) showed that women used social



support slightly more than men, but that there were no differences in the use of problem-solving and avoidance coping styles. Felsten also reported a slight positive correlation between stress and depression and stress and the predominance of problem-solving strategies.

In disaster whether man made or natural, different organizations raises fund and foster team work in their activities (Bolitho et al., 2006). Organizations shall remain harmonized, it is also important that they shall not duplicate each other when involve in relief and rehabilitation work which will save all the resources go in unnecessary drain (MacLachlan & Carr, 2005).

### **Limitations**

Researchers faces several unique challenges while conducting rigorous studies/researches and interventions based on evidence in the conflicted areas. Researchers always face the problem of security and their lives are always at risks and other people working in mental health team are also at high risk because of the installation of land mines and unexploded ordinances. There is also security measure taken by peace keeping military troops and restricted from general travel which creates hindrances while providing services in different sectors by organizations.

There is the lack of comparisons with no-intervention control group and the lack of comparisons between classified as victims versus eye witnesses because of the nature of study. It was aimed to explore gender differences in developing depression of war and terrorism affected areas and to examine the effectiveness of psychological intervention in the rehabilitation of affectees.

There is another challenge faced and inherent in emergency situations/settings with displace/mobile populations it the concerns that the difficulty for mental health workers and researchers expose to when do effort to obtain measures of potential mediating variables such as coping style, pre-morbid mental and physical health status and social support,.

In any emergency situation, conducting a research requires to evaluate and identify the needy people to receive emergency mental health services, and to sort out what type of services are needed. Promoting resilience, preventing from psychological disorders which are related to traumatic event are needed to be studied in future. Same situation was faced while conducting this research study because of the least bothering interest of organizations both governmental and non-governmental in providing help and support.

This study was limited to only two districts of Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa i.e. Swat and Buner just because of security risks. General local conditions of these districts aftermath of conflict were better as compared to other areas of Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa i.e. Waziristan Agency and Orakzai Agency etc.

Replication of such study is possible in other districts of Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa when complete control of the areas is ensured and minimizes the risks of security.

### **Recommendations**

It is the strength of the psychology that it always contributed clearly and meaningfully to people and societies in the context of one of the nation's specialized and learned profession. The basic crux of all the terrorism activities is fundamentally creating a psychological chaos and is by nature a psychological conflict.

Psychological evaluation and assessment of the people of the targeted areas, risks and needs after the advent of a conflict or disaster must be formulated and conducted with a focus on the types and strength/levels of symptoms experienced and formal diagnosis shall be avoided until two phases of emergency situations are elapsed. After the initial phases of the emergency situations that formal assessment and diagnosis will be made legitimately by the experts, then it will be helpful in providing treatment to illnesses, people will face. Population and individual's resilience assessment is the integral to assess risks.

Initial psychological interventions shall emphasize and provide supports to all those public and mental health activities which are helpful in eradicating and reducing mortality and morbidity. In any emergency situation psychological first aid will help in identifying and triaging those who are seriously psychologically ill and need specialized psychiatric and psychological treatment, care and using, mobilizing community-based resiliency and adaptation to the new circumstances.

To help and prevent people from the onset of psychological disorder/trauma related illness especially in vulnerable groups of women and children requires great investment in research to identify those risks.

If, want to know about the needs of the people when they are exposed to emergency situations like terrorism especially in country like Pakistan, new styles, ways and abrupt research planning should be formulated otherwise will not be able to know people's need . Along this we will never be able to discover ways and techniques to identify who is at high risk, and what kind of intervention will be needed to eradicate and prevent people from developing psychological disorders on long term basis.

Disaster planning and research findings should be incorporated more rapidly. Training in clinical and other schools and even in psychology departments, disaster preparedness programs and disaster/emergency response are not included in their syllabus which is an attention seeking situations. It is advised that such training program should be included in schools, colleges and universities syllabus for prior preparation for any sort of emergency situation.

## References

- Ai, A. L., Peterson, C., & Ubelhor, D. (2002). War related trauma and symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder among adult Kosovo refugees. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 5(2), 157-160.
- Amirkhan, J. H., Risinger, R. T., & Swickert, R. J. (1995). Extraversion: A hidden personality factor in coping? *Journal of Personality*, 63, 189-210.
- Angst, J. Gamma, A., Gastpar, M., Lepine, J. P., Mendlewicz, J., & Tylee, A. (2002). Gender differences in depression: Epidemiological findings from the European DEPRES I and II studies. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience*, 252(5), 201-209.
- Aranda, M., Castaneda, I., Lee, P., & Sobel, E. (2001). Stress, social support and coping as predictors of depressive symptoms: Gender differences among Mexican Americans. *Social Work Research*, 25(1), 37-48.
- Ben-Zur, H. & Zeidner, M. (1991). Anxiety and bodily symptoms under the threat of missile attacks: The Israeli scene. *Anxiety Research*, 4(2), 79-95.
- Bolitho, F. H., Carr, S. C., & Fletcher, R. B. (2006). Public thinking about poverty: Why it matters and how to measure it. *International Journal of Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 12(1), 13-22. doi: 10.1002/nvsm.220.
- Bolitho, F. H., Carr, S. C., & Fletcher, R. B. (2006). Public thinking about poverty: Why it matters and how to measure it. *International Journal of Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 12(1), 13-22. doi: 10.1002/nvsm.220.
- Breslau, N. (2001). The epidemiology of posttraumatic stress disorder: What is the extent of the problem? *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry*, 62(17), 16-22.
- Briere, J., & Elliot, D. (2000). Prevalence, characteristics and long-term sequelae of natural disaster exposure in general population. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 13, 661-679.
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(2), 267-283.
- Chen, C. C., Yeh, T. L., Yang, Y. K., Chen, S. J., Lee, I. H., & Fu, L. S. (2001). Psychiatric morbidity and post-traumatic symptoms among survivors in the early stage following the 1999 earthquake in Taiwan. *Psychiatry Research*, 105, 13-22.
- Crenshaw, M. (1995). *Terrorism in context*. Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State University.

- D'Aquila, P. S., Brain, P., & Willner, P. (1994). Effects of chronic mild stress on performance in behavioural tests relevant to anxiety and depression. *Physiology and Behavior*, 56(5), 861–867.
- De la Corte, L. (2006). *La lógicadelterrorismo*. Madrid: Alianza.
- Delisi, L. E., Maurizio, A., Yost, M., Papparozi, C.F., Fulchino, c., Katz, c.L., et al. (2003). A survey of New York after the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 160, 780-783.
- Everly, Jr., G. S. & Mitchell, J. T. (1999). *Critical Incident Stress Management (CISM): A new era and standard of care in crisis intervention* (2nd Ed.). Ellicott City, MD: Chevron.
- Everly, Jr., G. S., Flannery, Jr., R. B., & Mitchell, J. T. (2000). Critical Incident Stress Management: A review of literature. *Aggression and violent behavior: A review journal*, 5, 23-40.
- Farooqi, N. Y., & Tariq, S. (2010). Gender difference in anxiety among Pakistani survivors of bomb blast. *International Journal of Peace and Development Studies*, 1(I), 20-30.
- Felsten, G. (1998). *Gender and coping: Use of distinct strategies and association with stress and depression*. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 11(4), 289-309.
- Fullerton, C. S., Ursano, R. J., Epstein, R. S., Crowley, B., Vance, K., Kao, T., Dougall, A., & Baum, A. (2001). Gender differences in posttraumatic stress disorder after motor vehicle accidents. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 158(9), 1486-1491.
- Fullerton, C. S., Ursano, R. J., Vance, K., & Wang, L. (2000). Debriefing following trauma. *Psychiatric Quarterly*, 71(3), 259-276.
- Galea, S., Ahern, J., Resnick, H., Kilpatrick, D., Bucuvalas, M., Gold, J. & Vlahov, D. (2002). Psychological sequelae of the September 11 terrorist attacks in New York City. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 346(13), 982-987.
- Gidron, Y. (2002). Posttraumatic stress disorder after terrorist attacks: A review. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, 190(2), 118-121.
- Karanci, N., Alkan, N., Aksit, B., Sucuoglu, H., & Balta, E. (1999). Gender differences in psychological distress, coping, social support and related variables following the 1995 Dinal (Turkey) earthquake. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 1(2), 189-204.
- Karanci, N., Alkan, N., Aksit, B., Sucuoglu, H., & Balta, E. (1999). Gender differences in psychological distress, coping, social support and related variables following the 1995 Dinal (Turkey) earthquake. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 1(2), 189-204.

- Khan, N. S., Alam, S., Warris, S. H., & Mujtaba, M. (2007). Frequency of posttraumatic stress disorder and its association with types of physical injuries and depression in earthquake victims. *Professional Medical Publication*, 3(23), 386-389.
- Laqueur, W. (2003). *No End to War: Terrorism in the Twenty- First century*. Newyork, NY: Continuum.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer Publishing CO.
- Lindemann, E. (1944). Symptomatology and management of acute grief. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 101, 141-148.
- Livanou, M., Bas, og˘lu M, Marks IM, De SP, Noshirvani H, Lovell K & Thrasher S (2002a) Beliefs, sense of control and treatment outcome in post-traumatic stress disorder. *Psychological Medicine*, 32, 157–165.
- Lomranz, J., Hobfoll, S., Johnson, R., & Eyal, N. (1994). A nation's response to attack: Israelis' depressive reactions to the Gulf War. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 7(1), 59-73.
- MacLachlan, M., & Carr, S. C. (2005). The human dynamics of aid. *OECD Policy Insights*, 10, Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/dev/insights>
- MacLachlan, M., & Carr, S. C. (2005). The human dynamics of aid. *OECD Policy Insights*, 10, Retrieved from <http://www.oecd.org/dev/insights>.
- Maria, M. L., Fischer, C., & Fishen, M. (2004). *Pakistan Under Seige: Pakistan After September 11, 2001*. Maktaba Press, Lahore, P. 39.
- Mitchell, J. T. & Everly, Jr. G. S., (2000). CISM and CISD: Evolutions, effects and outcomes. In Raphael, B. & Wilson, J. P. (Eds.) *Psychological debriefing: Theory, practice and evidence*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Musarrat, R. (2009). *US war on terrorism and its impact on South Asia*. Retrieved from <http://www.pu.edu.pk/polsc/jops/currentissue.pdf/Razia.pdf>
- Myers, J. K., Weissman, M. M., Tischler, G. L., Holzer, C. E., Leaf, P. J., Orvaschel, H., Anthony, J. C., Boyd, J. H., Burke, J. D., Kramer, M. and others. (1984). Six-month prevalence of psychiatric disorders in three communities 1980-1982. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 41, 959-967.
- Nasky, K. M., Hines, N. N., & Summer, E. (2009). The USS Cole bombing: Analysis of pre-existing factors as predictors for development of post –traumatic stress or depressive disorders. *Military Medicine*, 174(7), 689-694.
- Newman, E. (2006). Exploring the "root causes" of terrorism. *Studies in Conflict and Terrorism*, 29, 49-772.

- Norris, F. H., Friedman, M. J., & Watson, P. J. (2002a). 60,000 disaster victims speak: Part II. Summary and implications of the disaster mental health research. *Psychiatry*, 65, 240-260.
- Norris, F. H., Friedman, M., Watson, P., Byrne C., Diaz E. & Kaniasty, K. (2002). 60.000 disaster victims speak: Part I. An empirical review of the empirical literature of 1981-2001. *Psychiatry*, 65, 207-223.
- North, C. S. (2002). Somatization in survivors of catastrophic trauma: A methodological review. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 110, 636-640.
- Pat-Horenczyk, R., Abramovitz, R., Peled, O., Brom, D., Daie, A., & Chemtob, C. M. (2007). Adolescent exposure to recurrent terrorism in Israel: Posttraumatic distress and functional impairment. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 77(1), 76-85.
- Pfefferbaum, B., Nixon, S. J., Krug, R. S., Tivis, R. D., Moore, V. T., Brown, J. M., et al. (1999). Clinical needs assessment of middle and high school students following the 1955 Oklahoma City bombing. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 156, 1069-1074.
- Reinares (2003). *Terrorismo global*. Madrid: Taurus.
- Rona, R. J., Fear, N. T., Hull, L., Wessely, S. (2007). Women in novel occupational roles: Mental health trends in UK Armed Forces. *International Journal of Epidemiol*, 36, 319-326.
- Saxe G. & Wolfe J. (1999). Gender and posttraumatic stress disorder. In Saugh, P. A. and Brenner, J. D. (Eds). *Posttraumatic stress disorder: A comprehensive text*. Needham Heights, MA, US: Allyn & Bacon, 160-179.
- Seedat, S. & Stein D. (2000). Trauma and post-traumatic stress disorder in women: A review. *International Clinical Psychopharmacology*, 15(3), 25-33.
- Slovic, P. (1987). Perception of risk. *Science*, 236(4799), 280-285.
- Solomon, Z. (2009). Gender differences in PTSD in Israeli youth exposed to terror attacks. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 24(6), 959-976.
- Solomon, Z., Gelkopf, M., & Bleich, A. (2005). Gender difference in reaction to terror events. *Journal of Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 40(12), 947-954.
- Summers, J., & Winefield, H. (2009). Anxiety about war and terrorism in Australian high school children. *Journal of Children and Media*, 3(2), 166-184.
- Taylor, S., Thordarson, D. S., Maxfield, L., Fedoroff, I. C., Lovell, K., & Ogrodniczuk, J. (2003). Comparative efficacy, speed, and adverse effects of three PTSD treatments: exposure therapy, EMDR, and relaxation training. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology* 71, 330-338.



- Tolin, D. F., & Foa, E. B. (2006). Sex difference in trauma and post-traumatic stress disorder. *Psychological Bulletin*, 6(132), 959-992.
- Wang X, Gao L, Shinfuku N, Zhang H, Zhao C & Shen Y (2000). Longitudinal study of earthquake-related PTSD in a randomly selected community sample in North China. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 157, 1260–1266.
- Willenz, P. (2006). *Women are diagnosed with PTSD more than men, even though they encounter fewer traumatic events says research*. Retrieved July 10, 2009, from <http://www.apa.org/release/ptsdrates.html>
- Wolfe, J., & Kimerling, R. (1997). Gender issues in the assessment of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder. In J. Wilson & T.M. Keane (Eds.), *Assessing psychological trauma and PTSD* New York: Guilford, 192-238
- World Health Organisation. (2005a). *Briefing notes on psychosocial/mental health assistance to the tsunami affected region*. Singapore: WHO South East Asia Office. Retrieved from [http://www.alnap.org/tec/pdf/who\\_briefing\\_note\\_mentalhealth\\_Feb\\_2005.pdf](http://www.alnap.org/tec/pdf/who_briefing_note_mentalhealth_Feb_2005.pdf)
- World Health Organisation. (2005b). *Gender considerations in disaster assessment*. Geneva: WHO. Retrieved from <http://www.reliefweb.int/library/documents/2005/who-gen-11jan.pdf>
- World Health Organisation. (2005c). *Mental health and psychosocial care of children affected by natural disasters*. Geneva: WHO. Retrieved from <http://www.reliefweb.int/library/documents/2005/who-gen-11jan.pdf>
- Yesavage, J. A., Brink, T.L., Rose, T. L., Lum, O., Huang, V., Adey, M., & Leirer V. O. (1983). Development and validation of a geriatric depression screening scale: a preliminary report. *Journal of Psychiatric Research*, 17(1), 37-49.
- Zeidner, M. (1993). Coping with disaster: The case of Israeli adolescents under threat of missile attack. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 22(1), 91- 108.

---

The author Summiya Ahmad is Lecturer at Department of Psychology, University of Peshawar.

Hayat Bangash is a PhD in Psychology. He is teaching at Swat University. He can be reached at [hayat\\_bangash@hotmail.com](mailto:hayat_bangash@hotmail.com).

The author Shakeel Ahmed is Assistant Professor at Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar. He can be reached at [shakeel.socialwork@gmail.com](mailto:shakeel.socialwork@gmail.com).

The author Imran Ahmad Sajid is Lecturer at Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar. He can be reached at [imranahmad131@upesh.edu.pk](mailto:imranahmad131@upesh.edu.pk)

## **Delaying Tactics used by Lawyers in Dispensation of Civil Justice in Lower Courts of Pakistan**

*RazaUllah Shah, ShadiUllah Khan, Sumera Farid, & AmanUllah Shah*

### **Abstract**

Justice is the foundation and object of any civilized society. It is basic principle of justice that it should be delivered without delay if it is to be effective. In Pakistan civil cases take immensely long period of time presumably due to exploitation of different loopholes in the system by lawyers to protract a case to indefinite periods. To find out the delaying tactics used by lawyers responsible for the prevalent problem of delay in justice in lower courts of Pakistan a questionnaire survey was conducted in six districts of KPK province. The questionnaire was distributed among the three groups of stakeholders of justice system i.e. Lawyers, Judges and Litigants. The findings of the study proved that the main causes of delay related to lawyers were; common practice of instituting false and frivolous litigations by lawyers, lawyers seek adjournments from courts on false grounds, lawyers come to court without preparation, Lawyers exploit the technicalities in the legal procedure. While other causes of minor importance were; lawyers strive for adjournments to manage their case load, lawyers use delaying tactics for the interest of their clients and they make frivolous applications for amendment of pleadings.

### **Keywords**

Civil Justice, Lawyers, Advocates, Delay, Pakistan.

### **Introduction**

A state may not be called a state in its true sense, if it has failed to discharge its functions concerning the administration of justice (Chaudhry, 2012). Justice is indispensable for upholding property rights, enforcing contracts between the parties, checking abuses of government power, or ensuring the rule of law (World Bank, 2002). A strong system of justice is necessary for economic development (Mora, 2000). Regardless of the importance of administration of justice in our lives it is confronted with many problems all over the world (Wallis, 2009). Clogged dockets, higher dispute resolution costs, and delay in case disposition are the problems of global dimension (Hazra & Micevska, 2004). Among all these problems the problem of delay in justice is the most horrifying and frequently complained about (Kumar, 2012). Delay in justice means delay in the remedy for breach of legal rules and congestion of the court docket (Nawaz, 2004). Delay deteriorates the evidence, because of fading of memory or death of witnesses or in any other way the loss of relevant evidence (Reiling, Hammergren, & Giovanni, 2007). Delay in justice is mainly responsible for the prevalent culture of intolerance, by compelling



people to resort to extrajudicial means for settling their scores outside the courts(Xavier, 2009). It facilitates the lawyers and litigants by giving them time to approach the judge and mold the court decision in their favor (Reiling et al., 2007).

Lawyers owe their clients a timely professional advice and representation (Nahaki, 2011). But presently they are unable to fulfill their duties because of their lust for money, and their contributions to the problem of delay in justice (Law Commission of India, 1988). Their behavior albeit often with the acquiescence of the judges, is to blame for most of the delay (Asian Foundation, 1999). Lawyers seek adjournments from courts on false grounds(Khan, 2000). Lawyers make frivolous applications for amendment of pleadings (Mohan, 2009). False and frivolous litigations by lawyers are a common practice (Adler, 1982). Lawyers exploit the technicalities in the legal procedure(Krishnan & Kumar, 2011). Lawyers come to court without preparation (Crook, 2004). Lawyers keep on strikes from courts on different reasons(Nahaki, 2011). Lawyers summon unnecessary witnesses (Vos, 2004). Lawyers institute unreal appeals(Rehn et al., 2010). Lawyers unreasonably prolong oral arguments(Khan, 2000). Sometimes lawyers try to seek adjournments to manage their case load (Lone, 2011). Sometimes lawyers use delaying tactics for the interest of their clients (Krishnan & Kumar, 2011).

The objective of the present study is to establish the role of lawyers as against the problem of delay in justice in lower courts of Pakistan. For this purpose a questionnaire survey was conducted in six districts, randomly chosen one from each division of Khyber Pakhtukhwa province of Pakistan (except the Malakand division). The questionnaire was distributed among the lawyers, judges and litigants in these districts. This study will pinpoint different delaying tactics used by lawyers and their level of responsibility for the problem of delay in justice in order of importance.

## **Methodology**

### **Population and Sampling Procedure**

According to the recommendations of Sekaran(2003) as the population is divided into three groups i.e. judges, lawyers and litigants, probability sampling design of stratified random sampling was applied in this study.

The number of judges in different districts was taken from the Peshawar High Court' web site on December, 2012, and the number of lawyers in different districts were taken from the KPK bar council' web site, while the number of litigants was infinite. Consequently, a total of 10022 elements were selected for the desired population of judges and lawyers. The population includes 9806 lawyers and 216 judges, while the litigants' population was infinite so there sample size was calculated separately. Sample size was determined by using

Cochran (1977) formula; after the calculations the population size was 461, of which 20 were judges, 327 were lawyers and 114 were litigants taken from different districts using disproportionate stratified random sampling procedure.

### Hypotheses of the Study

Hypothesis	Test to be Applied
(Ha1): Lawyers related causes are highly correlated with delay in civil justice in lower courts of Pakistan.	Correlation
Ha2: Delay in justice is predicted by the lawyers' related causes of delay.	Simple Regression
Ha3: There is statistically significant difference between the perception of lawyers, judges and litigants about the Lawyers related causes of delay in civil justice.	One way ANOVA

### Results and Discussion

For hypothesis one correlation was applied and the predictor i.e. Lawyers' related causes of delay were found strongly and significantly correlated with the criterion variable of delay in justice. Figure 1 about the predictor' lawyers related causes of delay ( $p = .000$ ) demonstrates a strong linear relationship based on the cluster of dots. This scatterplot shows that the cluster of dots between the lawyers' related causes of delay and delay in justice is very strong.

Secondly results for regression analysis indicate that in every district court the use of delaying tactics by lawyers has a positive impact on delay in justice. Which simply means that the more the lawyers used delaying tactics the greater the chances of delay in justice or we can say that in the courts where lawyers try to delay the case by using delaying tactics the decisions are more prone to be delayed.

Although the regression analysis revealed that as a whole the lawyers related causes of delay are mainly responsible for delay in justice in our lower courts. But to dig out the major factors making the lawyers mainly responsible for the delayed justice, mean response scores of the respondents to the specially designed questionnaire as shown in table 3 were evaluated and the following results were obtained.

All the respondents agreed with 'lawyers seeking adjournments from court on false grounds' as a cause of delay which was substantiated by Khan (2000). Judges, lawyer and litigants unanimously agreed with Mohan (2009) who said that frivolous applications for amendment of pleadings made by lawyers' play its role in the delay of justice. As far as false and frivolous litigations by lawyers are concerned judges, lawyers and litigants agreed with its being a cause of delay proving Hazra(2005) to be right. All the respondents confirmed the findings of Hossain and Hossain (2012) by being agreed with the lawyers' exploiting the technicalities in the legal procedure to delay cases. Regarding the issue of lawyers coming to court without preparation the respondents agreed with Crook (2004) who considered it as a cause of delay. Kumar (2012) said that lawyers always keep on strikes from courts on different pretexts due to which it becomes mandatory for judges to adjourn the case for the next hearing. In our study however the respondents were below slightly agree, belittling the significance of the issue as a cause. One of the protracting tactics used by lawyers is to summon unnecessary witnesses wasting court's time (Vos, 2004) but about this issue the respondents remained neutral in their opinion. As against Rehnet al., (2010) the respondents response about the problem of lawyers instituting unreal appeals in cases as a reason of delay was below slightly agree excluding it from the list of major causes responsible for delay in justice. About the question of "lawyers unreasonably prolong oral arguments" the response was below slightly agree which was not in conformity with Kumar (2012). Lawyers may resort to delaying tactics either to manage their own case load or to serve the interests of their clients (Krishnan & Kumar, 2011; Lone, 2011). Judges, lawyer and litigants all accepted these facts while responding to the questionnaire in our study.

To find out the perceptual difference between the lawyers, Judges and litigants regarding the causes of delay One-way ANOVA was applied which revealed that there were statistically non-significant differences between their perceptions.

## **Conclusions**

Overall lawyers related causes of delay were found mainly responsible for delay in justice. Regarding the individual lawyers related causes of delay all those causes which got a response score of more or equal than slightly agree are enlisted below in the order of priority with more important preceding lesser important in the list.

1. False and frivolous litigations by lawyers is a common practice
2. Lawyers seek adjournments from courts on false grounds
3. Lawyers come to court without preparation
4. Lawyers exploit the technicalities in the legal procedure

5. Lawyers try to seek adjournments to manage their case load
6. Lawyers use delaying tactics for the interest of their clients
7. Lawyers make frivolous applications for amendment of pleadings

### **Recommendations**

1. To ensure effective administration of justice, Bar Council should be reformed and institutionalized as watchdog machinery. Advocates should be reprimanded, suspended or removed from practice by the Bar Council if he is found guilty of professional misconduct.
2. Lawyers should be required via the code of conduct to take as many cases as they can handle and should come to court all prepared to defend their client.
3. An advocate should prepare and submit a monthly statement of his professional works to the Bar Council through the president of his Bar Association, which must include disposal of suits in the month conducted by him.
4. A time limit for disposing of every suit by an advocate should be specified by the Bar Council.
5. Lawyers should be trained in a way to make them accept that they are servant of the court instead of their clients and should try to dispose of cases on merit not for their clients.

### **Future Prospects**

Despite, this research offered a number of contributions to the on-going investigation with reference to the Major causes of delay in justice in the lower courts of Pakistan, yet a lot can be performed to expand the understanding in this field. Considering the limitations of this study, the following recommendations are made for the future research.

1. Although we suggest Bar Councils to proactively regulate case handling by lawyers, exact mechanism needs to be devised through further research to bring lawyers activities under a systematic control.
2. Study needs to be conducted for finding out measures to transform the role of the lawyers to a servant of the court; in which capacity instead of fighting for the interest of their clients they will try to dispose of cases on merit.
3. We need to find out a way in which to train both the lawyers and judges and thus to change their expectations about the period of time which an ordinary case needs to be disposed of.

Table 1: Model Summary (Lawyers related causes of delay in justice and delay in justice)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	F	Sig.
1	.683 <sup>a</sup>	.467	.466	402.362	.000 <sup>a</sup>

Table 2: Coefficients of Regression (Lawyers related causes of delay in justice and delay in justice)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.457	0.107		32.253	.000
	Lawyers Causes of Delay	0.392	0.020	0.683	20.059	.000

Table 3: Question wise descriptive statistics about the lawyers related causes of delay

Question	Mean Response	Std. Deviation
Lawyers seek adjournments from courts on false grounds	6.27	1.137
Lawyers make frivolous applications for amendment of pleadings	5.16	1.946
False and frivolous litigations by lawyers is a common practice	6.38	1.166
Lawyers exploit the technicalities in the legal procedure	6.16	1.054
Lawyers come to court without preparation	6.25	1.249
Lawyers keep on strikes from courts	4.75	1.713
Lawyers summon unnecessary witnesses	4.10	1.718
Lawyers institute unreal appeals	4.45	1.736
Lawyers unreasonably prolong oral arguments	4.85	1.642
Lawyers try to seek adjournments to manage their case load	5.93	1.230
Lawyers use delaying tactics for the interest of their clients	5.35	1.713

Table 4: ANOVA results of (respondents groups) and lawyer' related causes of delay

	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2	.351	.573	.564
Within Groups	458	.612		
Total	460			

Table 4.32: Independent samples t test results of lawyers and judges having experience of 'up to ten years' and 'above ten years' about lawyers' related causes of delay

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Lawyers causes of delay	Equal Variances Assumed	.250	.617	1.857	345	.064	.16179	.08715
	Equal Variances not Assumed			1.873	270.16	.062	.16179	.08638

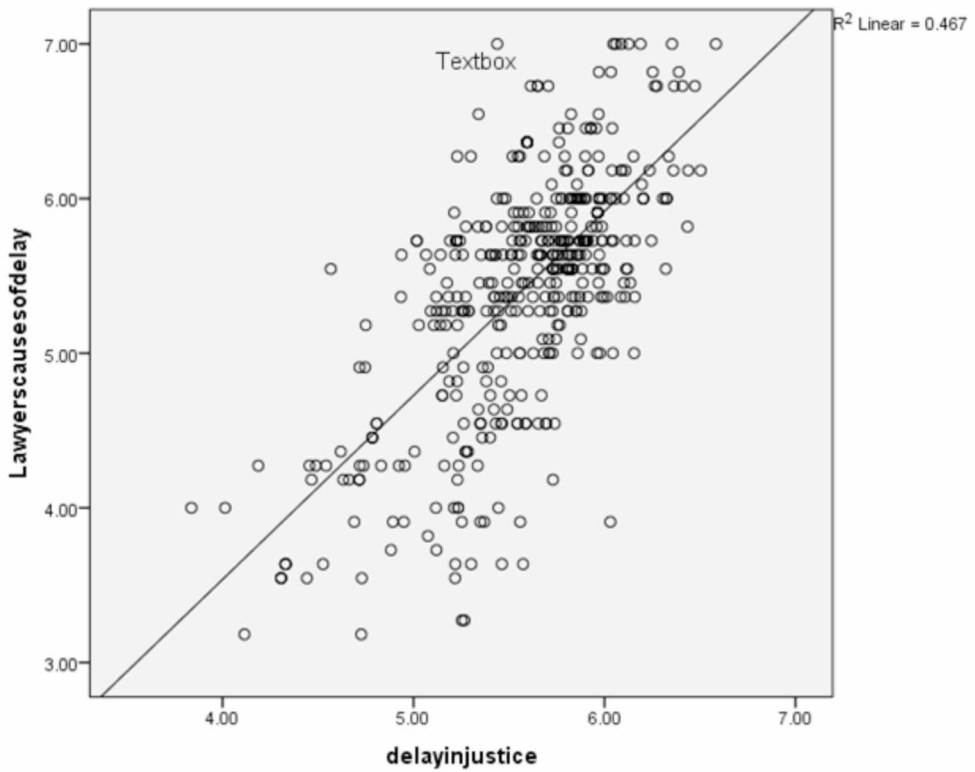


Figure 1: Regression Plot About Lawyers Related Causes of Delay in Justice

## References

- Adler, J. W., Felstiner, W. F., Hensler, D. R., & Peterson, M. A. (1982). *The pace of litigation*. Paper presented at the The pace of litigation, Santa Monica.
- Asian Foundation. (1999). Pakistan legal and judicial reform project: Integrated final report. Islamabad: The Asian foundation Pakistan.
- Boucher, D., & Kelly, P. J. (1994). *The Social Contract from Hobbes to Rawls*. Routledge.
- Chaudhry, I. M. (2012). *Keynote Address*. Paper presented at the International Judicial Conference, Islamabad.
- Cochran, W. G. (1977). *Sampling techniques*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Crook, R. C. (2004). Access to justice and land disputes in Ghana's state courts : the litigants' perspective. *Journal of legal pluralism and unofficial law Journal of Legal Pluralism and Unofficial Law*, 50(1), 1-28.
- Hazra, A. K. (2005). *The Need for Judicial Reforms: A Look at India*. Paper presented at the Law and policy reform at the Asian development bank: Challenges in implementing access to justice reforms, Michigan, United States.
- Hazra, A. K., & Micevska, M. B. (2004). *The Problem of court congestion: evidence from the indian lower courts*. Paper presented at the Royal Economic Society Annual Conference 2004. Swansea.
- Hossain, M. S., & Hossain, M. I. (2012). Causes of delay in the administration of justice: A look for way out in Bangladesh perspective. *ASA University Review*, 6(2), 103-116.
- Khan, A. U. (2000). Delays, costs and glorious uncertainty - how judicial procedure hurts the poor. In S. Gangopadhyay (Ed.), *Economic reforms for the poor* (pp. 298-343). New Delhi: Konark Publishers.
- Khan, I. H. (2000). *The Judicial System of Pakistan Measures for Maintaining Independence and Enforcing Accountability*. Paper presented at the Global Conference on Comprehensive Legal and Judicial Development, Washington, D.C.
- Krishnan, J. K., & Kumar, C. R. (2011). Delay in process, denial of justice: the jurisprudence and empirics of speedy trials in comparative perspective. *Georgetown Journal of International Law*, 42(4), 747-784.
- Kumar, V. A. (2012). Judicial delays in India: causes & remedies. *journal of law policy and globalization*, 4, 16-21.
- Law and Justice Commission of Pakistan. (2003). *Expediting trial proceedings Report no 60*. Islamabad.



- Law Commission of India. (1988). Resource allocation infrastructural services in judicial administration (a continuum of the report on manpower's planning in judiciary: a blueprint) 127. New Delhi: Law commission of India.
- Lone, A. A. (2011). *Responsibility of the bench and bar in dispensation of justice*. Paper presented at the National judicial conference, Islamabad.
- Mohan, A. (2009). *Justice, courts and delays*. New Delhi; India: Universal Law Publishing Co.
- Mora, L. P. (2000). *Making People the Focus a Risk worth Taking. Comprehensive Legal and Judicial Development*. Washington DC.
- Nahaki, A. A. K. (2011). *Responsibility of the Bench and Bar in Dispensation of Justice*. Paper presented at the national judicial conference Islamabad.
- Nawaz, C. H. (2004). delay reduction with effective court management. *PLD*.
- Rehn, N., Naik, A., Jain, D., Singh, A., Robinson, N., So, W. W., . . . Kanwar, V. (2010). Justice Without Delay: Recommendations for Legal and Institutional Reforms in the Indian Courts. *Jindal Global Law Review, Vol. 2(1)*.
- Reiling, D., Hammergren, L., & Giovanni, A. D. (2007). *Justice Sector Assessments a Handbook*: The world Bank.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach*. New York: Johan Wiley & Sons.
- Vos, W. D. (2004). Delay in South African civil procedure. In C. H. V. Rhee (Ed.), *The Law's Delay: Essays on undue delay in civil litigation* (pp. 335-342). Antwerp: Intersentia
- Wallis, J. D. (2009). A Critical Evaluation of Delay in an Ohio Criminal Trial Court *Court Executive Development Program 2008-2009 Phase III Project*. Illinois: Institute for Court Management.
- World Bank. (2002). World development Report: Building institutions for markets. New York: World bank.
- Xavier, A. (2009). A mission; a responsibility towards creating a loving and caring world. *The Indian Arbitrator, 1(1)*, 2-5.

---

The author Mr. Raza Ullah Shah Department of Public Administration, Gomal University D.I. Khan, Pakistan. He can be reached at phone +92 331 506 7529 or at email: razauallahphd@gmail.com  
Co-authors: ShadiUllah Khan, Department of Public Administration, Gomal University D.I. Khan, Pakistan. Phone: 0966750122, Email: profdrshadiullahkhan@gmail.com

The author Sumera Farid, Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar, Pakistan. She can be reached at +92 -91922 1043 or email: sumerafarid@upesh.edu.pk

Aman Ullah Shah, Gomal Law College, Gomal University D.I. Khan. Cell phone: +92 336 775 4484

## **Corporal Punishment as a Means of Discipline for Children**

### **(A Case Study of District Nowshera, Kpk - Pakistan)**

*Muhammad Ibrar & Raazia Hassan Naqvi*

#### **Abstract**

Corporal punishment means a physical contact designed to inflict pain or distress, usually referring to an adult inflicting pain on a child at home or at school. This paper examines the view that corporal punishment creates a sense of self-discipline in the child, through surveying teachers and students in District Nowshera in Pakistan. Proportionate random sampling technique was used for selection of schools and lottery for selection of 20 teachers and 80 students. Findings suggest that ninety percent of the teachers use punishment and almost half of these use corporal punishment. All of the students reported having experienced corporal punishment.

#### **Keywords**

Punishment, Discipline, Schools, Teachers, Students

#### **Introduction**

Corporal punishment can be defined as “any act of parents or caretaker which intended to cause physical pain or injury for the purposes of correction and control” (Cohen, 1978). Whipping children by means of rods or sticks or hitting with a slap or pulling ears or tying them up are all examples of corporal punishment (Ismail, 1998).

Most of the scientific studies reviewed support the argument that corporal punishment has harmful effects because it diminishes a child's confidence and can also lead to signs of gloominess and fretfulness. The other effect often cited is that the punishment may backfire by making the child seem to be a hero among his or her peers for improper activities (Erikson, 1999). According to the American Psychological Association Commission on Violence and Youth (1991): “Physical punishment may fabricate compliance for the small time, but if sustained for a longer time it can increase the possibility of hostile and aggressive behavior during childhood and adulthood” (Walt, 1991).

The Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Article 19, also states that children should be protected from the maltreatment of parents and other guardians, and that each member country should establish programs to prevent the children from sufferings. It further says in Article 28 that each member state should take measures to decrease school dropout rates, and school disciplinary measures should ensure each child's human dignity (Maurer, 1999).

As this study was done in Pakistan, it is worth noting, as Ismail has done (1998), that corporal punishment of children is also against the teachings of Islam, in which the adult is instructed to show kindness towards children and treat them with love and affection (Ismail, 1998). However, in a strange contradiction, Section 89 of Pakistan Penal Code (PPC) allows teachers, parents and other guardians to use physical punishment as a means to discipline a child less than 12 years of age. However, it also makes it clear that the punishment should not be so harsh as to seriously injure the child as defined in section 319 (hurt) and 320 (grievous) of the PPC, in which case the adults can be booked under section 323 and 325 of the PPC respectively and be penalized and imprisoned (Ismail, 1998).

Khan, Asad, Ahmed & Sajid(2014) found that corporal punishment fails to motivate students for studies. However, when administered after a mistake, corporal punishment also makes some students realize their mistakes. It creates hate amongst students against the teachers who use such violent methods of disciplining.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of the study are to identify the prevalence of the practice of corporal punishment in schools, the effects of punishment on the minds of students and to explore the relationship of corporal punishment to dropping out of school. These objectives are pursued through a survey with teachers and interviews with students.

### **Methodology**

The universe of the study was District Nowshera of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province of Pakistan. Proportionate random sampling technique was used to select the sample that was 100 respondents, including 80 students and 20 teachers. Keeping in view the nature of the study, a questionnaire was used with the teachers and an interview schedule was used with the students to collect the data. The exact location of the schools and respective teachers and students is kept confidential to ensure their personal and job security.

### **Findings: Teacher Respondents**

Findings show that of the teacher respondents, 90% were in favor of giving punishment and only 10% were not in favor of giving punishment (See Table 1). Furthermore, 44% of the respondents who favored some kind of punishment (8 of the 18) referred to corporal punishment; the remaining 10 of the 18 (approximately 55%) preferred to giving fines. When the two teachers who disapproved of corporal punishment were asked what the reason was, one said that it creates a negative impact on the students, and the other said, because it creates no positive encouragement of students. Among those who reported using corporal punishment, most preferred to hit the children with sticks, one preferred to slap and no other method was reported (See Table 1).

In response to a question about the teachers' experience of training regarding child personality development, 55% of the teachers had never attended any such training. The rest (45%) had attended training on this topic (See Table 2).

A large majority (65%) of the teachers were of the view that corporal punishment is a traditional way of behavioral modification. Twenty five percent said they thought corporal punishment forces the students to get more knowledge, and 10% were of the view that it is a method recommended in the training for behavioral modification. Thus, even the two respondents who did not use corporal punishment had some belief in its being acceptable or recommended (See Table 3). Despite high levels of use and belief that corporal punishment is "traditional" and "recommended" among the respondents, nearly 60% said that students showed negative effects of such punishment while 40% said that students showed positive effects. The study further found that 58.5% of the 12 who saw negative effects opined that punishment resulted in dropouts; while 5 respondents of this group said that it discouraged the students psychologically (See Table 3).

### **Findings: Student Respondents**

One hundred percent of the student respondents reported having been punished by teachers. The majority of the respondents (67.5%) had been punished "most of the time", whereas 28.7% were punished "often" and 3.8% were punished "very rarely" (See Table 4).

In terms of the students' feelings toward teachers, 51.2 % reported that they love those teachers who want to guide them affectionately; 32.5% loved those teachers who give punishment only "for our mistakes", whereas 16.3% were of the view that they love those teachers who guide them using harsh ways (See Table 5). The findings illustrated further in Table 5 show that the largest number of students, (37.5%) felt they had been punished for making a mistake, while 33.7% were punished for being weak in studies and 28.8% were punished for incomplete class work.

Regarding severity or type of punishment reported, the large majority of the students, 71.3% reported having been punished by sticks, and 15 of the students, (18.7%) were punished by slapping or kicking. Seven respondents or 8.7% were punished by having their ears pulled, while only one respondent was punished through shaming (See Table 6). The table further shows that 20 of the 57 students who had been punished with sticks (35.1%) had been punished this way up to three times, 42.1% of this group had been punished four or five times, and 23 % reported having been punished using sticks more than 5 times.

The majority of the respondents, i.e. 63.7%, said that their class fellows left the school due to corporal punishment, while 36.3% said that students don't leave the school due to corporal punishment (See Table 7). This disparity shows a widely held belief among students that corporal punishment leads to leaving school.

### **Discussions of Findings Regarding Teachers**

The study results showed that the majority (90 %) of the teachers favored the use of punishment to reprimand and discipline students, believing it to be essential or normal for the promotion of improved socially desirable behavior and educational effort. The majority of those favoring punishment preferred corporal punishment, specifically favoring hitting the student with a stick or slapping the student in the face; 56% of those favoring punishment overall, favored fines as the punishment of choice.

Among the twenty teachers who were surveyed for the study, only two of them said that they were not in favor of corporal punishment. The reasons they gave were that corporal punishment creates negative impact on the students and the students who were punished in this way indulged in more negative deeds; and that instead of encouraging students; corporal punishment kills students' enthusiasm. Although the views of these teachers reveal that they personally had a good understanding of the internationally recognized impact of corporal punishment and agreed with it and presumably attempted to follow those views, there is no indication that their views had any impact on how widely corporal punishment was practiced in the district.

Training in child development might have been effective to lead the teachers to abandon the practice of corporal punishment, (because child personality development experts recommend against it and recommend alternatives,) but less than half of the teachers surveyed had attended such training; the majority (55%) had never attended such training. In the absence of training programs for teachers on child personality development one can understand that many had no access to alternative methods in their own repertoire of skills for helping the children who needed guidance to improve their efforts and behavior.

In the views of the most of the surveyed teachers, corporal punishment is a traditional way used to modify the behavior of students. Further, it was the view of the majority of the teachers that corporal punishment helps in “forcing” a child towards success in education, and improved behavior. In fact, many reported that the corporal punishment was endorsed by the child personality development trainings that they had attended. Thus, even the two respondents discussed above who were not in favor of corporal punishment held the view that it is an acceptable and recommended norm in their profession. If these reports regarding the educational and personality development training they receive are accurate, these training practices may fall contrary to many international standards and treaties.

The effects of corporal punishment in the views of the majority of the respondents were negative and even resulted in students dropping out of school; some have also reported important negative impact in the form of psychologically discouraging the students from taking interest in their studies. Both results, i.e. dropping out and creation of lack of interest in studies, confirm, through this study, the international consensus that corporal punishment gravely undermines the goal of educating a child. While there were some teachers in whose views the use of corporal punishment led to positive effects (students became more disciplined and more attentive in studies), the improvements they saw may be attributed to the students' fear of future pain and thus, be short-lived gains.

### **Discussions of the Findings Regarding Students**

All students reported being punished by their teachers in schools “most of the time”, and that as a result they felt hatred against the teachers who punished them. But others were of the view that after being punished they realized their mistake and were not angry or offensive towards their teachers. So the students were confused about whether to hate the teacher who punishes them for their bad deeds or not to be angry with such teachers, to see the punishment as having helped to motivate them to improve their behavior. But most students did report that they liked those teachers who guide them affectionately.

The reasons the students reported for their being punished included making mistakes in classroom and carelessness in studies. The type of punishment they received for these misdeeds encompasses not only beating with stick, pulling ears, slapping and receiving kicks but also causing them shame in front of their class fellows. The frequency of being beaten with stick was reportedly more than any other form of punishment. The consequences reported by the students should give rise to concerns by all parents, educators and the educational establishment.

The students also reported that this type of corporal punishment resulted in students dropping out of schools. This is a very serious and undesirable repercussion, especially for a developing country. In Pakistan, where schools and the educational establishment work hard to overcome the tendency for many people to prefer for their children to be earning a living right from childhood, and not to get a school education, this finding should raise a widespread concern among those dedicated to the education of the children, and eventually, the population as a whole.

### **Implications for Practice and Policy**

It is clear that despite international recommendations, corporal punishment is widely used in the schools of Nowshera District. Although most teachers believe it is the recommended thing to do, many also wish there were alternatives. These

findings suggest that teachers should be provided with compulsory trainings (in-service and even before joining to prepare them for the job) on international standards and treaties related to children and human rights and on developing alternative skills for enhancing children's constructive involvement in classroom and studies. As most of the teachers had not attended teachers training regarding personality development of the students, thus such training programs for teachers with emphasis on psychological development of children without the use of physical punishment should be made available by the government.

As per the responses of the most of the teachers, the effects of corporal punishments on students were negative, so the government should make policies and laws to combat the practice of corporal punishment in schools. It might have a long term beneficial effect if the use of corporal punishment in the home were also to be banned, as it is in many countries. In this regard, both public and private sectors could join hands to promote such a dramatic change in widespread practices throughout society.

The students reported that they are mostly punished when they make a mistake, or show weak results in studies and do not complete their studies, such problems can also be overcome by engaging School Social Workers (SSWs) which is still a neglected field in Pakistan. SSWs can be appointed in every public and private schools, to work along with parents and teachers to solve the problems of students in their education, discipline and character building. The SSW can also be involved in trainings of teachers on international human rights laws and practice, and even in promoting child rearing practices at home that de-emphasize physical punishment. Thus the government should take serious steps to safeguard the children of the country in schools and at home both.

## References

- Cohen, C. P. (1978). Freedom From Corporal Punishment: One Of The Human Rights Of Children. *Law School Human Rights Annual*, II (I): 22. New York: USA.
- Erickson, E. (1999). *Childhood and Society*. New York, USA: W.W. Norton.
- Ismail, M. (1998). Corporal Punishment in Primary Schools of NWFP Pakistan. UNICEF: Peshawar, Pakistan.
- Khan, M., Asad, A.Z., Ahmed, S., and Sajid, I.A. (2014). Students' Perspective on Corporal Punishment: A Case Study of High Schools Students in Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. in *Pakistan Journal of Criminology*, 6(1)Jan-Jun2014, pp.97-121
- Maurer, A. (1999). *Corporal Punishment in Schools*. Toledo: University of Toledo.
- Walt, K. (1991). *Discipline for Character Development*. Alabama: R.E.P. Books.



## Annexure

Table 1: Teachers' Views Regarding Punishment and Types of Punishments they Usually Give to Students.

In favor of giving punishment	Freq. & %	If yes, then what type of punishment you will prefer most			Freq. & %	If not in favor of corporal punishment why?		Freq. & %	Types of Punishment Usually Given to Students	Freq. & %
		Fine	Corporal	Torture Mentally		Creates Negative Effect on Students	No positive Encouragement in Corporal Punishment			
Yes	18 (90%)	10	8	0	18 (100%)	1	1	2 (100%)	Slap	1 (10%)
No	02 (10%)	-	-	-		-	-	-	Beating with Sticks	9 (90%)
Total	20	10	8	0	10	50	50	2		10

Table 2: Teachers' Training Regarding Child Personality Development

Have you Attended the Training Regarding Child Personality Development	Frequency	%
Yes	9	45
No	11	55
Total	20	100



Table 3: Teachers' Views Regarding Corporal Punishment and its Longer Effects on Children

What do you Think about Corporal Punishment	Freq. & %	Effect of Corporal Punishment on Children	Freq. & %	If Negative Effects	
				Students are Discouraged Psychologically	It Results in Drop Outs
It's a method recommended in training	02 (10%)	Positive	08 (40%)	-	-
Its traditional way of modification	13 (65%)	Negative	12 (60%)	05 of 12	7 of 12
It forces students to get more knowledge	05 (25%)	Total	20	-	-
		%	100	41.5 of those who saw negative effects	58.5 of those who saw negative effects

Table 4: Students Respondents' Reports on Whether they are Punished and How Frequently

Whether Punished	Freq. & %	If Yes, Then When			Freq.
		Most of time	Often	Very rarely	
Yes	80 (100%)	54	23	03	80 (100%)
No	0	0	0	0	0
Total	80 (100%)	54	23	03	80 (100%)
%		67.5	28.7	3.8	-

Table 5: Type of teacher liked by students and students reported reasons of punishments

Type of teacher loved by the students	Freq. & %	For what reasons did your teacher punished you	Freq. & %
Who give punishment only on our mistake	26 (32.5%)	When you make mistake	30 (37.5%)
Who guide us affectionately	41 (51.2%)	Weak in studies	27 (33.7%)
Who guide us through harsh ways	13 (16.3%)	Incomplete class work	23 (28.8%)
Total	80 (100%)		80 (100%)

Table 6: Student Reports on Method of Punishment, and if by Sticks then How Often

How you are Punished by Teacher	Freq.	%	If by sticks, how many times		
			Up to 3 times	Up to 5 times	More than 5 times
By sticks	57	71.3	20	24	13
Slap / Kicking	15	18.7	0	0	0
Pulling ears	7	8.7	0	0	0
Shaming	1	1.3	-	-	-
Total	80	100.0	20	24	13
%		100.0	35.1	42.1	22.8

Table 7: Students' View that Class Fellow Ever left the School due to Corporal Punishment

Have Your Class Fellow Left the School	Freq.	%
Yes	51	63.7
No	29	36.3
Total	80	100

The author Mr. Muhammad Ibrar is Lecturer at Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. He can be reached as [ibrarsworker@yahoo.com](mailto:ibrarsworker@yahoo.com)

The Co-author Ms. Raazia Hassan Naqvi is Lecturer at Department of Social Work, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan.

---

The author Mr. Muhammad Ibrar is Lecturer at Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhaw, Pakistan. He can be reached as [ibrarsworker@yahoo.com](mailto:ibrarsworker@yahoo.com)

The Co-author Ms. Raazia Hassan Naqvi is Lecturer at Department of Social Work, University of the Punjab, Lahore, Pakistan.

## **Dynamics of Gender Based Violence: Investigating the Effects of Violence in Pakistani School on School Dropout and Loss of Creativity among Students**

*Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali, Dr. Mussarat Anwar & Dr. Syeda Nabahat*

### **Abstract**

Punishments and violence from teachers causes delinquency and deviancy among students. This paper investigated Students' perception of violence at school as how violence is received by students. Two alternatives were assumed in construction of this variable: students' preference to leave schools and result into dropouts or they learn violence to inflict on others at schools and loss of creativity, argumentation skills or otherwise. The third possibility is that they sustain violence and remain in school getting immune to the threat of violence and punishments. For data collection, a sample size of 522 respondents (54.6% boys and 45.4% girls) was randomly selected on proportional allocation basis from Grade 10 students. Frequency and percentage distribution along with Chi-square test was carried out at uni-variate and bi-variate levels. The findings of the study showed that almost all of the respondents (95.59%) agreed that violence at school is the major cause of dropout from school; only 4.41% did not perceive violence as a reason to high dropout having no significant relation established with ( $p=0.346$ ), majority of 73.47% respondents agreed that harsh treatment of teacher is ineffective in making student to complete homework, but it create poor performance and student lose creativity skills. 10.34% respondents disagreed to this view and 16.28% were uncertain in this respect again, no significant relation was established with gender ( $p=0.311$ ). The study concludes that school punishment is the main reason for school dropout, loss of creativity, delinquency and deviancy among students.

### **Keywords**

Gender Based Violence, School Violence, Dropout and Loss of Creativity

### **Introduction**

The effects of violence at school could be ascertained by unearthing students' perception, for example, through asking about whether they consider violence as normal or consider it inimical to their development and education. Research by Everett and Price (1995) suggests that if violence is observed or sustained for a longer period of time, students start perceiving violence as normal behavior. Moreover, from psychological perspective, more the occurrence of violence at school, more is the students vulnerability to start practicing various forms of violence (Nuwer, 1990). A number of studies have demonstrated that students exposed to violence are suffering from loss motivation and loss of engagement in academics. Negative self-image (Potgieter, 2000) and non-participation in school in classroom activities (Flannery and Singer, 1999) are commonly identified

problems. Similarly, the culture of violence operates as vicious cycle in that the more a child is engaged in violence the more he/she loses interest in academics thereby making him/her more vulnerable to be more violent.

Whether tolerated for his/her social status or relationships with teachers, students engaged in violence if prolong their violent practices consistently, they become immune to the threat of punishment or violence by others. Similarly, boys' violence tolerated under socially constructed myth that 'boys will always be boys' mean that they would not deter from committing violence. In circumstances such as these the practice of violence get deeper and deeper becoming part of actor's personality. Moreover, it has also been observed that the use of violence to prevent violence – for example, in the form of teachers administering corporal punishment to deter violent students – translates into behavioral sturdiness in violent students so that they become more frequently violent.

Teachers' use of corrective mechanisms, such as bullying, ridiculing, corporal punishment etc. though is forms of violence but they sometimes might affect students in observing and strengthening their academic behavior. This could be gauged by comparatively asking about students' hard work in school activities and their grades and juxtaposing it with their views on punishment as means for compelling them towards such activities.

## **Research Objective**

The current research is to investigate effects of violence in schools on students' attitude toward dropout and loss of creativity among students.

## **Literature Review**

Existence of gender-based violence in schools leads to low or poor educational output. For instance, in their research on the impacts of gender-based school experiences on enrolment-retention and achievement outcomes in Ghana and Botswana, Dunne(2006) found that sexual harassment, physical assault, verbal abuse etc. significantly contributed towards irregularity in attendance and lower grades among girls (Dunne, Humphreys & Leach, 2006). The experiences of violence at school could also introduce truancy thereby undermining learners' ability to learn with a consequent negative impact on their academic output (Pereznieto et al., 2010).

Coercive discipline strategies are associated with decreased confidence, assertiveness which enhance feelings of humiliation and helplessness (Baumrind & Black, 1967). Corporal punishment contributes to delinquent behaviors such as theft, running away, and truancy and as a factor in antisocial behaviors such as cheating and lying (Straus, Hamby, Finkelhor, Moore, & Runyan, 1998). When teachers and parents use corporal punishment as an attempt to reduce antisocial

behaviors in their child, the long-term effect tends to be a further increase in antisocial behaviors (Straus, Sugarman, & Giles-Sims, 1997). Usually excessive physical punishment and aggression leads to molding of students' behavior towards aggression and wrath (Naz, Khan, Daraz, Hussain, & Khan, 2011).

The culture of using corporal punishment for disciplining children in schools is a global problem. Despite the fact that corporal punishment is just one of the many ways of disciplining children (Sanderson, 2003) it is practiced at large as the only way for behavior correction. Two reasons are often cited as rationale for its practice. Firstly, it is legitimated on the grounds that all children of the same age are similar in their personality attributes and therefore they should be subjected to similar types of discipline strategies (Harber, 2002: 10). Secondly, it is considered necessary and perhaps essential for disciplining (Plan, 2008: 48; Dunne, Humphrey & Leach, 2006: 82) which besides tantamount to a legitimized form of authority (Harber, 2002: 10) also paves way for other forms of violence in schools. Perhaps, that is the reason that despite UNVAC's 2009 calls for ban on corporal punishment in schools; a huge number 90 out of 197 countries still allow its use (Plan, 2008: 12). Corporal punishment is legal in both rich and poor societies such as France, Korea, Australia, a number of states in US, Pakistan and Cambodia (Balaya and Debarbieux, 2008). Even where legal, strict guidelines exists for administering corporal punishment but they are seldom abided by and students are reportedly slapped, hit, or kicked (Youssef et al., 1998; Chianu, 2000; HRW, 1999). This shows the formal and informal institutional fabric of societies where in structure of violence is deeply entrenched. A more ironic fact is that in many countries despite its illegality, corporal punishment is practiced (Durrant, 2005). Part of the reason is that many countries; especially Asian, corporal punishment is practiced under the influence of social value of respecting elders. Children would have to keep silent even if a teacher is using it indiscriminately, which according to Plan (2008: 17) perpetuates an intergenerational cycle of violence and support for children's violent behavior. It is due to such social values that teachers would denounce media reports and would hardly inform authorities regarding such practice (Dubet, 2003). Its practice paves the way for children's socialization into violence by orienting towards the notion that violence should be used when one does not agree with others (De Wet, 2007; White, 2007; Plan, 2008; Gulbenkian Foundation, 1995). Research also demonstrates that the more it is practiced the more a child would exhibit only overt conformity but in reality he/she would be inculcated with feelings of aggression and tendency towards physical aggression against other children (Nazet al., 2011; Gulbenkian Foundation, 1995). And thus the socially created environment of violence triggers a general tendency towards authoritarian attitudes and violence (Harber and Mncube, 2011: 242). To investigate the above mentioned situation, this study was purposefully designed to investigate gender discrimination in punishments at schools in two districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan.

## Methodology

This study investigated the gender based discrimination in punishment at schools in KP Pakistan. Using a survey design, a sample size of 522 respondents (54.6% boys and 45.4% girls) was randomly selected on proportional allocation basis from Grade 10 students. Frequency and percentage distribution was carried out at uni-variate and bi-variate levels. Moreover, chi-square test was used to determine the level of association between variables (both independent and dependent). This study was confined to the gender based dynamics of violence in two selected districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Province, Pakistan namely, Peshawar and Mardan.

## Findings and Discussion

The detailed analysis of findings along with discussion on the results of this study is presented below.

Table 6: Punishment at School, Academics and Gender Based Violence

Violence Type	Exposure	Statistics	Punishment Never Serve Improvement in Academics			Statistical Test
			Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	
Physical	Exposure	# Cases	145	72	39	Chi-Square 20.234 (0.000)
		Percent	27.78	13.79	7.47	
	Never	# Cases	198	51	17	
		Percent	37.93	9.77	3.26	
Psychological	Exposure	# Cases	109	53	33	Chi-Square 17.424 (0.000)
		Percent	20.88	10.15	6.32	
	Never	# Cases	234	70	23	
		Percent	44.83	13.41	4.41	
Sexual	Exposure	# Cases	206	84	47	Chi-Square 12.969 (0.002)
		Percent	39.46	16.09	9	
	Never	# Cases	137	39	9	
		Percent	26.24	7.47	1.72	
Economic	Exposure	# Cases	102	50	30	Chi-Square 14.413 (0.001)
		Percent	19.54	9.58	5.75	
	Never	# Cases	241	73	26	
		Percent	46.17	13.98	4.98	

Source: Field Data

Most of the countries, including Pakistan have debarred punishments from the schooling system and perpetrator and committer have been declared punishable through constitutional amendments. In this capacity, some relationships of physical, psychological, sexual and economic violence were ascertained with relation to punishment never approves academics. A highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) was found between punishment never serves improvement in academics with physical violence. Similarly, psychological violence was also found highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) with punishment never serves improvement in academics, in addition psychological violence was also found highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) and economic violence ( $p=0.001$ ) with punishment never serve improvement in academics. The results amply indicated the negative effects of violence in all four manifestations and were found never helpful in improving the academics. It is further inferred that high dropout rate, social stigmatization and making students reactive to the situation and inflictor were some of the violent causes associated to punishment, moreover, corporal punishment, though understood to be reconstructive and reformative but in real sense creating hatred and bringing social alienation in the system.

### **Correlation between Gender Based Violence and School Dropouts**

Violence at school causes a number of complications for students and their relative families. Violence in either shape is kept restricted and being replaced through love and affection. However, exercising violence is understood to be an integral part of schooling system and mostly associated to reconstructive and reformative in nature with relation to behavior and personality.



Table 7: Correlation between Gender Based Violence and School Dropout

Violence Type	Exposure	Statistics	GBV Causes School Dropouts		Statistical Test
			Agree	Disagree	
Physical	Exposure	# Cases Percent	237 45.4	19 3.64	Chi-Square 10.848 (0.001)
	Never	# Cases Percent	262 50.19	4 0.77	
Psychological	Exposure	# Cases Percent	178 34.1	17 3.26	Chi-Square 13.740 (0.001)
	Never	# Cases Percent	321 61.49	6 1.15	
Sexual	Exposure	# Cases Percent	317 60.73	20 3.83	Chi-Square 5.275 (0.024)
	Never	# Cases Percent	182 34.86	3 0.57	
Economic	Exposure	# Cases Percent	169 32.37	13 2.49	Chi-Square 4.969 (0.041)
	Never	# Cases Percent	330 63.22	10 1.916	

Source: Field Data

Putting into consideration the effects of violence it was found that gender based violence causes school dropout significantly with physical violence ( $p=0.001$ ). Physical punishment indifferent types like beating through stich, bullying and standing the student up on the desk are some of the obvious examples found in the study area. A consistent use of physical violence has been found as contributing factor to an increase in the dropout from the schools as indicated by SPARC (2004). Moreover, a significant relationship was also detected between gender based violence causes school dropout with psychological violence ( $p=0.001$ ). The density of violence in schooling system is undeniable. In addition a significant relationship was also found between sexual violence ( $p=0.024$ ) and gender based violence causes school dropout. It is apparent that being culturally restricted and socially stigmatized, pupil cannot afford to go for establishing such immoral liaisons and thus prefer leaving a school for goods. Moreover irregularity in attendance and punishment were also found highly correlating in nature with special inclination to sexual harassment (Boss, 1966 and Dunne et al., 2005). Likewise a significant relationship was detected between gender based violence causes school dropout and economic violence ( $p=0.041$ ). It is indicative of the fact that violence could not be confined to physical, psychological and sexual aspects rather economic aspect has a greater role to play.

## Gender Based Violence (GBV) at Schools and Adaptation of Violence Behavior and Loss of Creativity

Academic institutions have been run through importing formal learning of both genders usually called academics. However, apart from these formal leanings, other dynamics for behavior control and getting it directed are also devised in different methodological strategies for getting maximum success. Punishment is one of the tools which are brought into utility, whenever it seems the system is heading towards a level. This punishment could be both a collective as well as an individual form. However, its philosophy is the reformation of the behavior, making it predictable and forces it to be in conformity to the social values. Structural mechanics and functional attributes amply cover this phenomenon.

Table 8: GBV at Schools and Adaptation of Violence Behavior and Loss of Creativity

Violence Type	Exposure	Statistics	GBV at Schools and Adaptation of Violence Behavior and Loss of Creativity			Statistical Test
			Agree	Disagree	Don't Know	
Physical	Exposure	# Cases	178	32	46	Chi-Square 4.142 (0.126)
		Percent	34.1	6.13	8.81	
	Never	# Cases	205	22	39	
		Percent	39.27	4.21	7.47	
Psychological	Exposure	# Cases	134	23	38	Chi-Square 3.514 (0.173)
		Percent	25.67	4.41	7.28	
	Never	# Cases	249	31	47	
		Percent	47.7	5.94	9	
Sexual	Exposure	# Cases	235	44	58	Chi-Square 8.976 (0.011)
		Percent	45.02	8.43	11.11	
	Never	# Cases	148	10	27	
		Percent	28.35	1.91	5.17	
Economic	Exposure	# Cases	126	23	33	Chi-Square 2.659 (0.265)
		Percent	24.14	4.41	6.32	
	Never	# Cases	257	31	52	
		Percent	49.23	5.94	9.96	

Source: Field Data

The adoption of violent behavior and loss of creativity was found significant with sexual violence ( $p=0.011$ ). The obvious reason responsible for this inference could be the occurrence of sexual attempts towards the students irrespective of their gender considerations from the teachers and from the mates amongst themselves as well. It could either be due to the cultural endorsement on strong restrictions from culture in the shape of taboo where pupil seldom find any courage to express the occurrence of such events and rather keep these into confidentiality due to the fear of enmity and social stigma. The existence of sexual violence in light of gender based violence at school and loss of creativity was due to heavy mental pressure upon the suppressed where they could not make it public because of social stigmatization associated to it.

## **Conclusion**

The study concluded that school dropout had a high level of association in light of gender based violence, psychological, sexual and economic mode of violence. Likewise, punishment at school had a contributing role in the manifestation of physical, psychological, sexual and economic mode of violence. For example, at uni-variate level, the findings of the study revealed (95.59%) agreement on the part of the respondents towards violence at school. This means that violence at school is the major cause of school dropout among students. Similar, in view of 73.47% respondent harsh treatment of teacher was ineffective in making student to complete homework, but it caused poor performance on the part of students and leads to loss of creative skills. School punishment was the main reason for school dropout, loss of creativity, delinquency and deviancy among students. Furthermore, on the basis of bi-variate analysis, the study concludes that gender based violence causes school dropout. It was shown highly significant for all physical violence ( $p=0.001$ ), psychological violence ( $p=0.001$ ), sexual violence ( $p=0.024$ ) and economic violence ( $p=0.041$ ). Further, the adoption of violent behavior and loss of creativity was found significant with sexual violence ( $p=0.011$ ), On the other hand the physical ( $p=0.126$ ), psychological ( $p=0.173$ ) and economic violence ( $p=0.265$ ) had little role in adopting violent behavior and loss of creativity.

## References

- Abbink, J. G. (1999). Violence, ritual, and reproduction: Culture and context in Surma dueling. *Ethnology*, 227-242.
- Adams, R. (1991). *Protests by Pupils: Empowerment, Schooling, and the State*: Falmer Press London.
- Altbach, P. G., & Kelly, G. P. (1978). *Education and colonialism*: Longman New York.
- Antonovsky, A. (1987). *Unrevealing the mystery of health*. San Francisco.
- Baumrind, D., & Black, A. E. (1967). Socialization practices associated with dimensions of competence in preschool boys and girls. *Child development*, 291-327.
- Bear, G. G. (2012). Both suspension and alternatives work, depending on one's aim. *Journal of School Violence*, 11(2), 174-186.
- Bogensneider, K., Wu, M. y., Raffaelli, M., & Tsay, J. C. (1998). Parent influences on adolescent peer orientation and substance use: The interface of parenting practices and values. *Child development*, 69(6), 1672-1688.
- Bowes, L., Arseneault, L., Maughan, B., Taylor, A., Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. (2009). School, neighborhood, and family factors are associated with children's bullying involvement: A nationally representative longitudinal study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 48(5), 545-553.
- Cohen, M. A. (1998). The monetary value of saving a high-risk youth. *Journal of quantitative criminology*, 14(1), 5-33.
- Collins, R. (2009). Micro and macro causes of violence. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 3(1), 9-22.
- Dashiff, C., DiMicco, W., Myers, B., & Sheppard, K. (2009). Poverty and adolescent mental health. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatric Nursing*, 22(1), 23-32.
- De Wet, C. (2007). Free State educators' perceptions and observations of learner-on-learner, learner-on-educator and educator-on-learner school violence. *Education as Change*, 11(1), 59-85.
- Dillon, N. (2012). *The Effect of School Community Setting on Children Living in Poverty: A Survey of School Social Workers*.
- Dubet, F. (2003). *Juvenile and Urban Violence*. International handbook of violence research, Dordrecht, Kluwer Academic Publishers, 937-952.

- Dunne, M. i. a., Humphreys, S., & Leach, F. (2006). Gender violence in schools in the developing world. *Gender and Education*, 18(1), 75-98.
- Eacut, J., & Esteve, M. (2000). The transformation of the teachers' role at the end of the twentieth century: New challenges for the future. *Educational Review*, 52(2), 197-207.
- Eisner, M. (2009). The uses of violence: An examination of some cross-cutting issues. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 3(1), 40-59.
- Flannery, D. J., & Singer, M. I. (1999). Exposure to violence and victimization at school. *Choices Briefs*, 4, 1-10.
- Foucault, M. (1977). *Discipline & punish*: Random House Digital, Inc.
- Fry, P. S., & Debats, D. L. (2010). Sources of human life-strengths, resilience, and health. *New frontiers in resilient aging: Life-strengths and well-being in late life*, 15-59.
- Grosvenor, I., Lawn, M., & Rousmaniere, K. (2000). Imaging past schooling: the necessity for montage. *The Review of Education/Pedagogy/Cultural studies*, 22(1), 71-85.
- Harber, C. (2002). Schooling as Violence: An exploratory overview. *Educational Review*, 54(1), 7-16.
- Harber, C., & Mncube, V. (2012). Democracy, Education and Development: Theory and Reality. *Other Education*, 1(1), pp. 104-120.
- Harris, A., Chapman, C., Muijs, D., Russ, J., & Stoll, L. (2006). Improving schools in challenging contexts: Exploring the possible. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 17(4), 409-424.
- Heise, L. L., Raikes, A., Watts, C. H., & Zwi, A. B. (1994). Violence against women: a neglected public health issue in less developed countries. *Social Science & Medicine*, 39(9), 1165-1179.
- Helbling, J. r. (1999). The dynamics of war and alliance among the Yanomami. *Sociologus*, 49, 103-118.
- Human Rights, W. (2001). *Unequal Protection: the state response to violent crime on South African farms*: Human Rights Watch.
- Karcher, M. J. (2002). The Cycle of Violence and Disconnection Among Rural Middle School Students. *Journal of School Violence*, 1(1), 35-51.
- Karstedt, S., & Eisner, M. (2009). Introduction: Is a General Theory of Violence Possible? *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 3(1), 4-8.

- Kim, C. Y., Losen, D. J., & Hewitt, D. T. (2010). *The school-to-prison pipeline: Structuring legal reform*: NYU Press.
- Kimmel, M. S., & Mahler, M. (2003). Adolescent Masculinity, Homophobia, and Violence Random School Shootings, 1982-2001. *American behavioral scientist*, 46(10), 1439-1458.
- Leach, F. F., Kadzamira, V., & Lemani, E. (2003). E. and Machakanja, P. (2003) *An Investigative Study of the Abuse of Girls in African schools. Education Series Research Report*(54).
- Lee, M.-H., & Tsai, C.-C. (2010). Exploring teachers' perceived self efficacy and technological pedagogical content knowledge with respect to educational use of the World Wide Web. *Instructional Science*, 38(1), 1-21.
- Linenthal, E. T. (2001). *The unfinished bombing: Oklahoma City in American memory*. No.: ISBN 0-19-513672-1, 319.
- Lovegrove, P. J., Henry, K. L., & Slater, M. D. (2012). Examination of the predictors of latent class typologies of bullying involvement among middle school students. *Journal of School Violence*, 11(1), 75-93.
- Marsick, V. J., & Watkins, K. E. (1999). Looking again at learning in the learning organization: a tool that can turn into a weapon! *Learning Organization*, The, 6(5), 207-211.
- Mirsky, J., & Radlett, M. (2000). *No paradise yet: The world's women face the new century*: Zed Books.
- Mynard, H., Joseph, S., & Alexander, J. (2000). Peer-victimisation and posttraumatic stress in adolescents. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29(5), 815-821.
- Naz, A., Khan, W., Daraz, U., Hussain, M., & Khan, Q. (2011). The Impacts of Corporal Punishment on Students Academic Performance/Career and Personality Development Up-To Secondary Level Education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(12).
- Ngakane, M. V., Muthukrishna, N., & Ngcobo, J. E. (2012). Experiencing Violence in Schools: Voices of Learners in the Lesotho Context. *Anthropologist*, 14(1), 39-48.
- Ngale, I. F. (2009). *FAMILY STRUCTURE AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY* [Electronic Version]. *Internet Journal of Criminology*, from [www.internetjournalofcriminology.com](http://www.internetjournalofcriminology.com)
- Nuwer, H. (1990). *Broken Pledges: The Deadly Rite of Hazing*: ERIC.

- Omaji, P. O. (1992). Schools and juvenile crime prevention.
- Parker, R. G., & Gagnon, J. H. (1995). *Conceiving sexuality: Approaches to sex research in a postmodern world*: Taylor & Frances/Routledge.
- Pereznieto, P., Harper, C., Clench, B., & Coarasa, J. (2009). The economic impact of school violence: A report for Plan International: London.
- Piotrowski, D., & Hoot, J. (2008). Bullying and violence in schools: What teachers should know and do. *Childhood Education*, 84(6), 357-363.
- Potgieter, C.-A., & Khan, G. (2005). Sexual self-esteem and body image of South African spinal cord injured adolescents. *Sexuality and disability*, 23(1), 1-20.
- Sanderson, B. (2003). Punishment alternatives. from [san.beck.org/Punishment-Alternatives.html](http://san.beck.org/Punishment-Alternatives.html)
- Sen, A. (1999). Critical Reflection. *Health and Development. Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 77(8).
- Skiba, R. J. (2008). Are zero tolerance policies effective in the schools?: An evidentiary review and recommendations. *American Psychologist*, 63(9), 852-862.
- Smardon, R. (2004). Streetwise science: Toward a theory of the code of the classroom. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 11(3), 201-223.
- Straus, M. A., Sugarman, D. B., & Giles-Sims, J. (1997). Spanking by parents and subsequent antisocial behavior of children. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, 151(8), 761.
- Stromquist, N. P. (2007). Internationalization as a response to globalization: Radical shifts in university environments. *Higher Education*, 53(1), 81-105.
- Sullivan, C., & Bash, S. (1967). Current programs for delinquency prevention. *Delinquency Prevention: Theory and Practice*, 51-72.
- Tamutiene, I. (2008). School violence: experiences of absentee students. *Journal of School Violence*, 7(1), 115-130.
- Tittle, C. (2009). Is a General Theory of Socially Disapproved Violence Possible (or Necessary)? *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, 3(1), 60-74.
- Tunley, R. (1962). *Kids, crime and chaos*: Harper & Row.
- Unnever, J. D. (2005). Bullies, aggressive victims, and victims: Are they distinct groups? *Aggressive Behavior*, 31(2), 153-171.

- Unterhalter, E. (2003). Crossing Disciplinary Boundaries: the potential of Sen's capability approach for sociologists of education. *British Journal of Sociology of Education*, 24(5), 665-669.
- Vayda, A. P. (1961). Expansion and Warfare among Swidden Agriculturalists. *American Anthropologist*, 63(2), 346-358.

---

The author Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali is Director/Associate Professor at Institute of Peace and Conflict Studies, University of Peshawar - Pakistan.

The author Dr. Mussarat Anwar is Lecturer in Human Development at College of Home Economics, University of Peshawar - Pakistan.

The author Dr. Syeda Nabahat is Lecturer of Economics at College of Home Economics, University of Peshawar - Pakistan.





## **Crime and Insurgency in FATA: A Public Perception Survey of Khyber Agency**

*Intikhab Alam, Niaz Muhammad, Shakeel Ahmed,  
Summiya Ahmad & Kifayat Ullah*

### **Abstract**

The present study was conducted to explore the public perception about the cause and effects of crime and insurgency in FATA which has badly affected socio-economic condition of people. Moreover, the prevalence of insurgency has weakened writ of the state in maintaining law and order in FATA. It was found that post 1979 and 9/11 incidents, fighting against invaders, poor socio- economic conditions of the local people, abundance of war arms, religious extremism emerged in view of external attacks and vested interest groups are the major causes of crime and insurgency in the area. Furthermore, warlords (insurgent leaders) set their own judicial and administration in FATA. Warlords' decision is binding from all respect in terms of implementation. The situation can be controlled by multidimensional strategy of dialogues with peace lovers and aggression against the miscreants.

### **Keywords**

Insurgency, Social Deprivation, Incapable Judicial System, Writ of the State, Challenges, Problems.

### **Introduction**

At this time Pakistan is the worst hit country by terrorism. No city or area is beyond the reach of the militant extremists in carrying out terrorist activities that include suicide attacks, bomb blasts, target killings and kidnappings. No place is safe from them. Even markets, mosques, shrines, educational institutions, hotels, government offices and offices of security agencies are not spared. Therefore, attempts devoid discriminations among civilians, children, and women with conspicuous focus on security forces. This has led to a fearful society with masses losing faith in government in controlling the menace of terrorism and in providing them adequate security.

Pakistan is in the grip of insurgency for the last several years in its different parts which has been responsible for scratching down the wheel of development, breaking down the sense of security among the masses and overturning the social structure of the affected zones. The writ of the government in Pakistan especially focusing on the tribal belt known as the Federally Administered Tribal Area (FATA) and Provincially Administered Tribal Area (PATA) is not properly being established. The poor writ of the state in FATA is a reflection of the socio-economic

underdevelopment and deprivation, invalid political structure, constitutional vacuum and Frontier Crimes Regulations (FCR) (Ziad, 2009). The unprotected borders which are prone to foreign infiltration has created such an atmosphere which has let the paths open for those who are disturbing the law and order situation and promote insurgency in the country. This insurgency is not only affecting Pakistan but also its neighboring countries and international community as FATA is being considered a safe haven for the insurgents.

The American attack on Afghanistan has further increased the vulnerability of tribal areas of Pakistan to unwanted elements, and even it has disturbed the tribal people. The insurgents demand of the local people to provide them man power to work with them and also to pay cash money. Consequently, military operation was launched by the government against the desperate forces but the insurgency still prevails in the affected zones. However, the local communities reluctantly left their respective areas and became IDPs (Internally Displaced Persons) in different parts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. The cultivated land of IDPs became barren, their businesses were ruined and their assets are put to risk and the whole social system of them was disturbed. This powerlessness of the state raised many questions in the minds of people regarding the ineffective role of security agencies and the logic behind the question of not integrating the tribal people into the fiber of socio-economic development. Rotberg (2004) observed the emergence of warlords as the result of breaching of the writ of the state which inwardly promoted their sectional and community loyalties. These warlords terrorized the local people and established their power-based position for generating different sources of income, including sale of narcotics and arms besides being involved in different kinds of criminal activities as well.

The resultant outcome was imminent i.e. the emergence of economy based on illegal activities like drug and human trafficking along with rise of militancy which took a shape of trade (Townshend, 2009; Haidar and Arther, 2008; and Aziz, 2009). The unique geographic location with little control of the state has led to the rise of Talibanisation and insurgency. This insurgency works as a breeding ground for the training of the insurgents involved in different sort of attacks not only in the given area but even beyond the region. The fall out of these processes in Pakistan is embarrassing.

Pakistan's geopolitical role is gaining eminence due to the involvement of different international stake holders in the area. However, Pakistan as a state is being a question mark for local and international analysts of the field as well. It has failed to have a comprehensive policy for the containment of these insurgents' violent

waves. In additions it suffers a lot from the back lash of these insurgents in the pretext of supporting American interests in the region. These feelings could be exacerbated by the low literacy (17%) prevalent in the areas with only 250\$ per capita income, indicating the prevalence of a big poverty chain which is almost 66% of the total households living below poverty line. This situation comprehensively is analyzed in the FATA informal system being run through political agents where the process of taxation, law enforcement, courts and administrative structure is dysfunctional. Such functions are only enjoyed and exercised through political administration ( Mehdi, 2012; Haidar, 2009; Amrit, 2011; Graham, 2012; Rashid, 2000; Behar, 2002 and Tahir et al. 2005).

### Objectives of the Study

1. To study the sociological causes of crime and insurgency/militancy in the target area.
2. To study the relationship of militancy with crime and writ of the state in sampled area.
3. To make recommendations on the basis of study findings for overcoming crime and insurgency in the area.

### Materials and Methods

The present study was carried out to look into the phenomena pertaining to the challenges in the establishment of writ of the state in FATA, Pakistan. The main focus of this study was centered on the Federally Administered Tribal Areas under the perspectives of insurgency is the outcome of social exclusion. The universe was confined to Khyber Agency out of the total seven agencies. A sample size of 380 respondents including the intellectuals, business communities, IDPs, students and persons from local political administration were randomly selected in light of the criteria devised by Sekaran (2003). A comprehensive interview schedule, based on Likert scale was constructed and served for collecting the relevant information. The data was presented in the percentages along with ascertaining the relationship between independent variable namely (insurgency) with the writ of the state (Dependent Variable) by indexing and cross tabulating to ascertain the relationship through the application  $\chi^2$ -test statistics as outlined by.....Tai (1978: 353).

$$(\chi^2) = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(f_{ij} - F_{ij})^2}{F_{ij}}$$

Where

$$(\chi^2) = \text{Chi-square for two categorical variables}$$

$f_{ij}$  = the observed frequencies in the cross -classified category at  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column

$F_{ij}$  = the expected frequency for the same category, assuming no association between variables under investigation

The formula simply directs one to take squared summation of the frequencies for each cell, divided by the expected frequency. The resulting frequency is distributed as chi-square with relevant degree of freedom. The degree of freedom is calculated as follows;

$Df = (r-1) (c-1)$  where

$Df$  = Degree of freedom

$r$  = the number of rows

$c$  = the number of columns

## **Results and Discussions:**

### **Perceived Causes of Insurgency:**

The main cause of crime and insurgency in the area was post 1979 invasion of Russian on Afghanistan and 9/11 attacks of US as indicated by 84.7 % respondents. Religious extremism took an alarming shape in the shades of Iranian revolution and Iraq invasion of Iran which lasted for almost 10 years, resulting in a million casualties on both ends. This led to the bi-furcating of Muslim world into two main groups on obvious grounds of their sect's i.e Sunni & Shia.

The second main reason was poor governance as poor and marginalized people are more prone to insurgency as discussed by 82.9%. These are in line with the findings of Khalid (2009) that marginalization and denial to access to education, law, health; making a future recruits available for militants. Many of those who are marginalized because of lack of access to law, education, and health employment or due to income deficit are the future recruits to the ranks of the militants.

The warlord's decisions are binding on all respects accounted for 82.4%. The trained ruminants of Russian war multiplied insurgency accounted for 78.7%. There is a consensus among scholars as well as practitioners that following the insurgency and terrorism of the last decade, the erstwhile governance system

has totally collapsed, leaving the areas at the disposal of militants that turned into warlords (Johson et al, 2008) as well as local and foreign militants. During the 1980s, around 35,000 Muslim radicals passed through the FATA area to wage jihad against the “Russian infidels (Rashid.A, 2000). The war left behind experienced fighters, training camps, and substantial amounts of military equipment, transnational networks of organizational relationships, and above all self-confidence and a belief in the possibility of a victory over a superpower (Huntington, 1996).

It is evident that government lack of interest to develop area and corrupt administration was responsible for the insurgency. In capable local based judiciary system is responsible for insurgency in local area expressed by 78.8% respondent. Strong conviction of win over superpower encouraged insurgency accounted for 78.4%. Unemployment pushed youths to join insurgent group view expressed by 78.4% sampled respondents. The other reasons i.e socio-economic conditions, vested interest groups and insurgency emerged as trade in the area was almost similar. It varied from 71% to 75%. The religion extremism and abundance of war arms was 65% and 63% respectively. The costly process of Jirga and decisions are usually influenced by political administration were unable to deliver justice. Fata is one of the poorest regions of the earth. There is no livelihood opportunity due to which youths of the area are more easily trapped towards insurgency. Because they do not have other source of income and they are easily employed by insurgent group. Those who were trained by CIA and other agencies against Russia were sheltered in Fata and waging war against U S A and Pakistani forces. These environments created warlords in the area who have set their own judicial system based on their own brand of Islam expressed by 74.4% respondents.

Table -1: Respondents views' on Causes of Insurgency in FATA

Statements	Agree	Disagree	Not Sure	Total
Post 1979 and 9/11 incidents promoted insurgency & Crime in area	322(84.7)	30(7.9)	28(7.4)	380
Fighting against these invaders was declared a holy war	222(58.4)	130(34.2)	28(7.4)	380
Socio- economic conditions created insurgents in area	279(73.4)	68(17.9)	33(8.7)	380
Abundance of war arms fuelled insurgency	242(63.7)	115(30.3)	23(6.1)	380
Religious extremism emerged in view of external attacks	250(65.8)	90(23.7)	40(10.5)	380
Vested interest groups are helping in sprouting insurgency & Crime	271(71.3)	77(20.3)	32(8.4)	380
Poor / ambiguous policies of government of Pakistan are helpful in insurgency	256(67.4)	83(21.8)	41(10.8)	380
Insurgency emerged as trade in local area Poor governance pushed local people for insurgency	288(75.8)	55(14.5)	37(9.7)	380
Incapable locally based judicial system is responsible for	315(82.9)	43(11.3)	22(5.7)	380
insurgency in local area	299(78.7)	56(14.7)	25(6.6)	380
Unemployment pushed youth's to join insurgent groups	298(78.4)	56(14.7)	26(6.8)	380
Trained remnants of Russian war multiplied insurgency	299(78.7)	56(14.7)	25(6.6)	380
Strong conviction of win over superpower encouraged insurgency	298(78.4)	56(14.7)	26(6.80)	380
Warlords(insurgent leaders) set their own judicial system	284(74.7)	74(19.5)	22(5.5)	380
Warlords are running their administration in FATA	280(73.3)	80(21.1)	20(5.0)	380
Warlords' decision is binding from all respect in terms of implementation	313(82.4)	48(12.6)	19(5.0)	380

Source: Field Survey, 2012. Note: (values in parenthesis indicate percentage)

## **Insurgency and its Association with the Writ of the State**

The Russian war and defeats of the Russian in subsequent manner drastically weakened the writ of the state in the bordering area known as FATA. The most influencing factors so far counted as significant are political vacuum, the weakened judicial system and ineffective administration contributed as catalyst to this effect. Warlords sprout around, established their own mechanism of judicial disposition of justice under the garb of religious tenets proved workable as of lack of any countering judicial, administrative and political substitute. After probing effects of insurgency as challenge to the writ of the state was found highly significant association ( $p=0.00$ ) between Post 1979 and 9/11 incidents as promoting/fuelling factor to writ of the state. These results clearly emanate the fallout of consequential effects of these two wars on the study area. These inferences are vividly in support to the Towns head (2009) that FCR though a tool designed for the containments of locals in administrative and legal terms without going into details of discovering its ramifications. These ramifications includes judicial and administrative vacuum with social marginalization of the locals devoid of health and employment opportunities. All these worked toward a booming economy based on illegal activities like drug and human trafficking with the rise of militancy, taking a trade shape (Haider and arthur2008; Aziz, 2009).

In light of these developments i.e. Russian invasion and subsequent fall of Taliban government in Afghanistan in 2001 by the USA; these two forces were declared invaders and crusade (jihad) declared against them was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with the writ of the state. It could probably be the non existence of administrative and political system in bordering area (FATA) which proved harbinger for escalating anti invader sentiments becoming upsurge for the holy warrior (Muslims) across the globe come and participate. FATA since 9/11 (Ali,2002; Datta and Sharma,2002;Achar,2004; Juergeusmeyer, 2008; Hussain, 2010). Pakistan is passing through a critical stage of its history in the shape of insurgency which has negatively affected the development process and breaking down of security chain (Ziad,2009). Furthermore, existing socio-economic conditions created by insurgents was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with the writ of the state. It means that deteriorated socio-economic conditions are always playing dreadfully when not in properly shaped. As this is because economic structure is usually resultant factor of powerlessness of the state. This situation is not only detrimental to the integrated social structure but also hampers the development initiative (Rotberg,2004;Niaz,2011).



Moreover, abundance of war arms fuelling insurgency was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. These results are attributable to the non existence of administrative set up of tribal area. This situation is comprehensively analyzed while terming informal system as operative mechanics responsible for running the state of art. This situation is usually coupled with nonpayment of taxation and ineffectiveness of law with no existence of court (Mehdi, 2012; Haider, 2009; Graham, 2012; Rashid, 2000 and Tahir et.al, 2005). Moreover, emergence of religious extremism in view of external attacks were found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. This is in close relationship to the findings of Amrit (2011; Ahmed, 2010; Volpi, 2011; Niaz, 2011) that religious extremism could arise in aftermath of American invasion of Afghanistan not withstanding vested Interest group helping in sprouting insurgency was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state.

An informal system run through political agent has always provided enough room for the vested interest to influence the decision taken on part of these political agents into their favors such as nonpayment of taxes etc. Behar, 2002; Tahir et.al, 2005) these findings are further strengthened when highly significant relationships ( $p=0.00$ ) were found between wrong policies of government of Pakistan with the writ of the state. Along with poor nature of governance was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with the writ of the state. These findings explicitly dictate in directional terms a decline of the control of government and its subsequent return like war as a trade and poor governance helping insurgents to sprout. These findings could easily be looked into the conclusion of Towns head (2009); Haider, 2009 that social marginalization and political administrative vacuum are the two major grounds for insurgency in FATA. When asked about incapability of local judicial system, it was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state as catalyst indicators towards up breeding of insurgency. Furthermore, unemployment amongst the youth for making them enjoining insurgent groups was found significant ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. As poor and marginalized people are more prone to insurgency with writ of the state was found significant ( $p=0.00$ ) relationship.

Looking into some further dimensions responsible for the insurgency, it was found that trained remnants of Russian war multiplied the insurgency as significant ( $p=0.00$ ) relationship was found with writ of the state. Moreover, highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) was also found with strong conviction of win over superpower encouraged insurgency with writ of the state. These findings of such nature were found in support to the Moor, (2010) Rakisits (2008) declaring holy war and creation of religious extremism as the rising of such factors is threat to government writ.

In addition, a strong and significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) was found between warlords set their own judicial system with writ of state. Warlords were also found running a parallel administrative set up in FATA was highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) between it and writ of the state. However, a non significant relationship was ascertained between warlords decision is binding from all respects in relationship to their implementation with writ of the state. It could be concluded that although warlords are dictating their administration, however, binding nature to this effects is ineffective provided a strong centralized backing with all political administrative and constitutional manifestation are provided by the federal government.

Table 2: Association between Insurgency and Challenges in the state Writ in FATA.

Statements		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure	Total	Chi-Square
Post 1979 and 9/11 incidents promoted insurgency & Crime in area	Agree	132(41.0)	175(54.3)	15(4.7)	322	25.458(0.000)
	Disagree	11(36.7)	19(63.3)	0	30	
	Not Sure	0	23(82.1)	5(17.9)	28	
Fighting against these invaders was declared a holy war	Agree	86(38.7)	128(57.7)	8(3.6)	222	33.497(0.000)
	Disagree	56(43.1)	69(53.1)	5(3.8)	130	
	Not Sure	1(3.6)	20(71.4)	7(25.1)	28	
Socio- economic conditions created insurgents & criminals in area	Agree	130(46.6)	138(49.5)	11(3.9)	279	60.726(0.000)
	Disagree	13(19.1)	54(79.4)	1(1.5)	68	
	Not Sure	0	25(75.8)	8(24.2)	33	
Abundance of war arms fueled insurgency	Agree	121(50.0)	113(46.7)	8(3.3)	242	55.415(0.000)
	Disagree	22(19.1)	86(74.5)	7(6.1)	115	
	Not Sure	0	18(78.3)	5(21.7)	23	
Religious extremism emerged in view of external attacks	Agree	87(22.8)	116(30.5)	6(2.4)	209	35.684(0.000)
	Disagree	35(38.9)	46(51.1)	6(2.4)	81	
	Not Sure	35(38.9)	46(51.1)	9(10.0)	90	
Vested interest groups are helping in sprouting insurgency	Agree	126(46.3)	136(50.0)	10(3.7)	275	39.613(0.000)
	Disagree	17(22.1)	55(71.4)	5(6.5)	77	
	Not Sure	0	26(83.9)	5(16.1)	31	
Wrong policies of govt: of Pakistan are helpful in promoting crime and insurgency	Agree	120(46.9)	126(49.2)	10(3.9)	256	40.652(0.000)
	Disagree	20(24.1)	60(72.3)	3(3.6)	83	
	Not Sure	3(7.3)	31(75.6)	7(17.1)	41	

Statements		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure	Total	Chi-Square
Insurgency emerged as trade in local area	Agree	127(44.1)	158(54.9)	3(1.0)	288	92.149(0.000)
	Disagree	16(29.1)	35(63.6)	4(7.3)	55	
	Not Sure	0	24(64.9)	13(35.1)	37	
Poor governance pushed local people for insurgency & crime	Agree	134(42.4)	171(54.1)	11(3.5)	316	27.919(0.000)
	Disagree	8(18.6)	30(69.8)	5(11.6)	43	
	Not Sure	1(4.8)	16(76.2)	4(19.0)	21	
Incapable locally based judicial system is responsible for insurgency in local area	Agree	125(41.8)	162(54.2)	12(4.0)	299	17.695(0.001)
	Disagree	16(28.6)	36(64.3)	4(7.1)	56	
	Not Sure	2(8.0)	19(76.0)	4(16.0)	25	
Unemployment pushed youth's to join insurgent groups	Agree	119(39.9)	129(33.9)	12(4.0)	260	14.925(0.005)
	Disagree	22(39.3)	30(53.6)	12(4.0)	64	
	Not Sure	22(39.3)	30(53.6)	4(7.1)	56	
Poor and marginalized people are more prone to insurgency	Agree	119(39.9)	170(57.0)	9(3.0)	298	18.975(0.001)
	Disagree	19(33.3)	32(56.1)	6(10.0)	57	
	Not Sure	5(20)	15(60.0)	5(20)	25	
Trained remnants of Russian war multiplied insurgency	Agree	101(40.9)	138(55.9)	8(3.2)	247	23.351(0.000)
	Disagree	37(37.0)	58(58.0)	5(5.0)	100	
	Not Sure	5(15.2)	21(63.6)	7(21.2)	33	
Strong conviction of win over superpower encouraged insurgency	Agree	118(43.3)	161(56.3)	7(2.4)	280	21.898(0.000)
	Disagree	19(27.9)	40(58.8)	9(2.4)	68	
	Not Sure	6(23.1)	16(61.5)	12(3.15)	32	
Warlords (insurgent leaders) set their own judicial system	Agree	126(44.4)	149(52.5)	9(3.2)	284	31.626(0.000)
	Disagree	11(14.9)	56(75.7)	7(9.5)	74	
	Not Sure	6(27.3)	12(54.5)	4(18.2)	22	
Warlords are running their administration in FATA	Agree	97(34.6)	174(62.10)	9(3.20)	280	28.091(0.000)
	Disagree	43(53.8)	30(37.5)	7(8.8)	80	
	Not Sure	3(15.0)	13(65.0)	4(20.0)	20	
Warlords' decision is binding from all respect in terms of implementation	Agree	123(39.3)	178(56.9)	12(3.8)	313	12.967(0.00)
	Disagree	14(29.2)	30(62.5)	4(8.3)	48	
	Not Sure	6(31.6)	9(47.40)	4(21.1)	19	

Source: Field Survey, 2012

## Conclusions and Recommendations

The study ascertained that effects of insurgency & crime as challenge to the writ of the state was found highly significant association ( $p=0.00$ ) between Post 1979 and 9/11 incidents as promoting/fuelling factor to writ of the state. Moreover, the Russian invasion of Afghanistan in 1979 and the fall of the Taliban government in Afghanistan in 2001 by the USA; these two forces were declared invaders and crusade (jihad) was declared against them was found highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) with the writ of the state. Furthermore, existing socio-economic conditions created insurgents & criminals was found highly significant association ( $p=0.00$ ) with the writ of the state. Moreover, abundance of war arms fueled insurgency was found highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. Moreover, emergence of religious extremism in view of external attacks were found highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. Vested interest group helping in sprouting insurgency was found highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. These findings are further strengthened when highly significant relationships ( $p=0.00$ ) were found between wrong policies of government of Pakistan with the writ of the state. Along with poor nature of governance was found highly significant ( $p=0.00$ ) when relationship discovered with the writ of the state. Incapability of local judicial system was found highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state as catalyst indicators towards up breeding of insurgency. Furthermore, unemployment amongst the youth for making them enjoining insurgent groups was found significant association ( $p=0.00$ ) with writ of the state. As poor and marginalized people are more prone to insurgency with writ of the state was found significant ( $p=0.00$ ) relationship. trained remnants of Russian war multiplied the insurgency as significant ( $p=0.00$ ) relationship was found with writ of the state. Moreover, highly significant relationship ( $p=0.00$ ) was also found with strong conviction of win over superpower encouraged insurgency with writ of the state.

To eradicate insurgency & crime from the FATA, multidimensional approach should be adopted encompassing socio-economic development package, mainstreaming of tribal people, and dialogue with warring groups, if all these fail than military operation should be launched against those who are not interested in the peace and stability are the recommendations on the basis of the study findings.

## References

- Ali, R. (2010). "Militancy and socioeconomic problems: a case study of Ali, F. (2007) "Risks and Rewards of a US-Pakistan Alliance".
- Arthur, 2008. *When States Fail: Causes and Consequences* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University And Information Center 1344 St NW Washington DC 20009 and Yugoslavia
- Aziz, K. (2008). "Agenda for Fata reform"  
[http://www.khalidaziz.com/art\\_detail.php?aid=91](http://www.khalidaziz.com/art_detail.php?aid=91)
- Behar and Richard (2002). "Kidnapped Nation. An Article." *Fortune*, Vol. 145 ( 9), April 2002.
- Graham Usher (2012). *The Afghan Triangle Kashmir, India, Pakistan Middle East* Research center.
- Gunaratna and Anders Nielson( 2008). *Al Qaeda in Tribal Areas of Pakistan and Beyond*.
- Haider Mehdi. 2012. *Let Political Moralism Steer Our Decision Making* by Dr. <http://wondersofpakistan.wordpress.com/2012/05/25/who-am-i-what-do-i-stand-for/6/6/2012>
- Haider, Ziad. January 2009. "Mainstreaming Pakistan's Tribal Belt: A human rights and security imperative." *Belfer Center Student Paper Series #09-01*, Belfer Center for Science and International Affairs, Harvard Kennedy School, Cambridge, MA.
- Hanan, F. 2012. *Causes and Effects of Drug Addiction with special reference to adoption of criminal behavior*. M. Sc (Hons) Thesis, Department of Rural Sociology KPK Agricultural University, Peshawar. 72p.  
<http://www.farhanaqazi.com/research.html> *Horizon*, Vol. 60, No. 3, July 2007, p. 132.
- Huntington, Samuel P (1996). *Clash of Civilizations Remaking of World Order Imperative*, Discussion paper #09-01 Belfer Center Student Paper Series Harvard Kennedy School. New York.
- Hussain, F. 2005. *Constitutional Status of FCR*; paper read in seminar on "A bad law nobody can defend" which was organized by Human Rights Commission of Pakistan. 2005: pp 10; Qasim Karim Printers, Lahore
- Johnson, Thomas H. and M. Chris Mason. (2008). "No Sign until the Burst of fire:
- Kalevi, J. H. (1996). *The State, War, and the State of the State*. Cambridge: Cambridge Pakistan" [www.issii.org.pk/publication\\_files/1299051742\\_14233891.pdf](http://www.issii.org.pk/publication_files/1299051742_14233891.pdf)

- Rakisits, C.2008. Pakistan's Tribal Areas: A Critical No-Man's Land; paper delivered at Webster University Forum, Geneva: Accessed on 3rd March 2010 at [http://www.geopoliticalassessments.com/Pakistan\\_s\\_Tribal\\_Areas.pdf](http://www.geopoliticalassessments.com/Pakistan_s_Tribal_Areas.pdf)
- Rashid, A (2000). Taliban. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press. Page 130.
- Rotberg, (2004). The Global-Local Politics of State Decay, in Robert I. , ed., When States State Success and Renewal. Paper presented at the conference Failed States and Survival.
- Rotberg, R. 2004. Let Them Fail: State Failure in Theory and Practice, in Robert I ed.,pp 1-45
- Sekaran, U.2003. Research Methods for Business. USA. Hermitage Publishing Services.
- Tahir .A et al. (2005). "Religious School Enrollment in Pakistan." Washington, DC; Article Sep 23 2011 - 6:19am.
- Townshend.A.2009. Anatomy of State Failure Case Studies in Zaïre, Afghanistan Studies in Conflict and Terrorism, 31: 7, 2008.Pages 775-80.
- Subcommittee on National Security and Foreign Affairs on March 4, 2009, 2–3.
- Ziad Haider and Arthur C. Helton Fellow (2008)., Pursuing Reforms in Pakistan's Tribal Belthttp://www.asil.org/haider-reflection.cfm 6/6/2012.
- Ziad Haider, (2009). Mainstreaming Pakistan's Tribal Belt: a Human Rights and Security

---

The author Intikhab Alam is Lecturer at Department of Rural Sociology, Agriculture University, Peshawar. He can be reached at [intikhabalamrs553@gmail.com](mailto:intikhabalamrs553@gmail.com)

The author, Prof. Niaz Muhammad is the Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Peshawar. He can be reached at [niazk30@hotmail.com](mailto:niazk30@hotmail.com)

The author Shakeel Ahmed is Assistant Professor at Department of Social Work, University of Peshawar. He can be reached at [shakeel.socialwork@gmail.com](mailto:shakeel.socialwork@gmail.com)

The author Summiya Ahmad is Lecturer at Department of Psychology, University of Peshawar.

The author Kifayat Ullah is Lecturer at Department of Rural Sociology, Agriculture University, Peshawar.



## **Testing the Vires of Protection of Pakistan Act (PPA), 2014 on the Touchstone of Constitution**

*Dr. Faqir Hussain*

### **Abstract**

This paper critically analyses The Protection of Pakistan Act (PPA) 2014. The paper takes into account the arguments in favour of and against PPA. It discusses the issue of democracy, human rights, terrorism with respect to PPA. The paper also analyses PPA under the framework of the Constitution of Pakistan.

### **Keywords**

Pakistan, Law, Constitution, Terrorism, Democracy

### **Introduction**

The Protection of Pakistan Act 2014 has been the subject of intense debate/criticism, often referred to as black law/draconian measure, which impinges the individual's most cherished fundamental rights/freedoms. Having said so, however, there are others who defend it on the plea that it addresses a critical situation, with terrorists/militants having launched insurgency/belligerency, and the country confronted with an existential threat. They argue that extraordinary situation warrant extraordinary measures to control the menace and restore normalcy. Notwithstanding the need/urgency of the law, in a democratic dispensation, with Constitution being the supreme law, the legal/constitutional safeguards for rights/liberties of citizens must be observed.

This is clearly established by successive judgments of the superior courts in Pakistan. In the words of Lord Aitkin, "amidst the clash of arms, the laws are not silent... they speak the same language in war as in peace". The law vests excessive/unbridled powers of arrest, detention and use of force, including order to shoot, in the law enforcement agencies. Certain provisions of the law far exceed the limits set by law/Constitution e.g. characterizing a citizen as an enemy alien, and depriving him of the right to presumption of innocence, exclusion of public from trial, keeping accused incommunicado in internment centers, and denial of legal safeguards like preventing courts from issuing habeas corpus writs, releasing accused on bail and exercising inherent powers to prevent the miscarriage of justice, etc. Quite obviously, such provisions militate against established legal/Constitutional norms and are violative of fundamental rights/freedoms. The law, therefore, needs to be reviewed to bring it in harmony with legal norms of civilized system of governance. The Government also needs to take administrative



measures to ensure the security of judges, prosecutors and witnesses to secure convictions and for capacity building of the justice sector professionals through training.

## **Criticism**

The Protection of Pakistan Act 2014 (PPA), has come into force. Earlier, the Protection of Pakistan Ordinance 2013, as amended by the Ordinance 1 of 2014, remained in operation for 8 months and subjected to intense debate/criticism by various segments of society e.g. parliamentarians, legal community, media and human rights activists. The Ordinance was referred to as “black law” and “draconian measure”, impinging on individual's most cherished legal/fundamental rights. The PPA is not much different, it is merely a rehash of the old law i.e. Ordinance, softening few harsh provisions thereof but still retaining some extremely controversial clauses. No wonder then, the criticism persists!

Having said so, however, there are others who defend the law on the plea that it addresses a critical situation prevailing in the country. There is a raging insurgency in parts of the country, with belligerents taken up arms against the State and fighting the armed forces. Local and foreign militants have successfully executed attacks on government institutions/military installations and are threatening to destabilise the State and dismantle the Government. Besides, there is a rising trend of religious/sectarian violence, incidents of damage to or destruction of vital installations like electric/gas supply lines and disruption of means of communication/transportation. There operate organized criminal gangs, who indulge in commission of heinous offences like armed robberies, bank heists, kidnapping for ransom, money grabbing (Bhatha collection), etc. In short, the country is confronted with multiple challenges, indeed, facing an existential threat. This state of affairs warrant more stringent measures to quell the insurgency, control the law and order situation, protect life/property and restore normalcy.

The PPA was approved following a compromise between the Government and opposition parties. As a result, some changes were made to the text of the law e.g. the life span of the new law fixed at 2 years, the maximum period of remand reduced from 90 to 60 days and judicial oversight provided to watch against the abuse/misuse of the law, etc.

## **Object**

The stated objects of the law are, “to provide for protection against waging of war or insurrection against Pakistan and the prevention of acts threatening the security of Pakistan”. Thus, several ordinary crimes listed in the Pakistan Penal Code (PPC) or Anti-terrorism Act, when committed with above-mentioned object, constitute offences under the PPA.

## Offences

The following offences are listed in the Schedule of the Act:

- i. Crime against ethnic, religious, political groups or minorities including offences based on discrimination, hatred, creed or race;
- ii. Use of arson, fire bombs, suicide bombs, biological/chemical weapons, nuclear arms, explosives to kill or cause hurt or destroy property anywhere including government buildings, historical places, business concerns, sites of worships;
- iii. Killing, kidnapping, extortion, assault on national institutions (parliament, judiciary, executive, media, armed forces, law enforcement agencies) or their personnel, social welfare workers, other important personalities, foreign officials/visitors, tourists or any other person;
- iv. Destruction of or attack on means of communication, energy facilities, dams, power generating units, grid stations, gas/oil installations, aircraft/ airport; educational institutions, police stations, security organizations;
- v. Wrecking, disrupting or attacking mass transport system including trains, buses, cars and their stations/ports;
- vi. Violence or attack against nuclear arms/sites, maritime navigation, shipping, post installations, nationals abroad;
- vii. Other PPC offences viz waging or attempting/abetting to wage war against Pakistan, condemning the creation of State, defiling or unauthorized removal of national flag, assault on President/Governor to restrain him from exercising lawful powers, sedition, waging war against any Power in alliance with Pakistan, public servant allowing prisoner of state/war to escape, abetting mutiny, attempting to seduce armed forces personnel, harbouring armed forces deserters, wearing garb or token used by armed forces personnel to impersonate (Section 121-140, PPC);
- viii. Illegally crossing national border in connection with scheduled offences;
- ix. Cyber crimes, internet offences and other offences related to information technology which facilitate any offence under this Act; and
- x. Preparation, abetment, attempt or conspiracy to commit any of the scheduled offences.

The Act authorises the Government to amend the Schedule by adding or modifying any entry therein or omitting any entry therefrom. The law is given overriding effect, vis-à-vis others. In case of conflict, the provisions of the Act prevail.

Police/armed forces may enter and search premises, without warrant, to make arrest, take possession of any fire arms, explosives or weapons likely to be used in the commission of a scheduled offence. Such raid be reported within 2 days to the Special Judicial Magistrate, mentioning the circumstances justifying it and items recovered.

For detention beyond 24 hours, remand must be obtained from Special Judicial Magistrate, who may, from time to time, extend the same for upto 15 days; the total period of remand however must not exceed 60 days.

### **Preventive Detention**

The law permits preventive detention. The Government may authorize the detention of a person for upto 3 months, if it has reasonable grounds to believe that he is acting in a manner prejudicial to national integrity, security, defence or external affairs or public order or maintenance of supplies/services. Detention shall be in accordance with provision of Art 10 of the Constitution meaning within 15 days of arrest, the grounds of detention be communicated to the detainee to make representation against the order. For detention exceeding 3 months, the case is referred to the Review Board and further detention is permissible only when the Review Board is satisfied that there is sufficient cause for extension.

An enemy alien (militant whose identity is unascertainable or deprived of citizenship, acquired by naturalization) may also be detained and such detention regulated by Act 10 of the Constitution. Government, in the interest of security of Pakistan, may not disclose the grounds for detention or divulge any information relating to a detainee, who is enemy alien or militant. Armed forces called in aid of civil power under Art 245 of the Constitution or otherwise under the Anti-Terrorism Act 1997 may detain an enemy alien or militant in designated internment camps. Such detention be regulated under Art 10 of the Constitution. Government shall frame regulations to regulate the internment orders/camps and approve mechanism for representation against such orders. The law states that past detainee shall be deemed to have been detained pursuant to this Act.

### **Denial of Safeguards**

The accused is deprived of legal safeguards available under Cr.P.C. e.g. confirmation of death sentence by High Court (S 374), suspension of sentence/release on bail pending appeal (S 426), power of High Court to call for records of inferior courts (S 435), High Court/Session Court powers of revision (S 439, 439-A), power of Session Court to issue direction of the nature of Habeas Corpus (S 491), bail in bailable/non-bailable offences (S 496-498) and power of High Court to exercise inherent powers (S 561-A).

The law provides for exclusion of public from proceedings of Special Court on application made by the Prosecutor General on the ground that the disclosure of evidence to be produced may prejudice public safety. Government may determine the place of custody, investigation, trial of offender and confinement of convict. The Government is required to take appropriate measures for security of witnesses, investigators, prosecutors, Special Judicial Magistrate and Judge of Special Court, and for this purpose may also establish security prison within courtrooms.

### **Burden of Proof**

An enemy alien or militant facing the charge of scheduled offence, on existence of reasonable evidence against him or a person arrested in preparation to commit or while attempting to commit such offence shall be presumed to be engaged in waging war or insurrection against Pakistan, unless he establishes his non-involvement in the offence.

### **Investigation and Trial**

The offence is required to be investigated by a Joint Investigation Team (JIT), headed by gazetted police officer and comprising 2 other officers of armed forces or civil armed forces. The report of JIT is placed through Prosecutor General before Special Court; the Judge, being a serving or retired Session Judge or an advocate of 10 year standing at High Court, appointment by Government after consultation with Chief Justice of High Court. Punishment prescribed for scheduled offences is 20 years imprisonment with fine and confiscation of property, unless higher punishment prescribed. The Court may also deprive the convict of citizenship acquired by naturalization. Appeal against its verdict lies in High Court.

### **Analysis**

Undoubtedly, the law is fairly harsh/stringent, even though it addresses a peculiar situation in our national history, when the State is confronted with multiple challenges to its very existence/survival and has to deal with the menace of rising militancy, extremism, violence, hate crime, killings, and extortion for money and destruction of property. However, it must be in accord with legal norms/principles and Fundamental Rights, guaranteed by the Constitution.

### **Fundamental Rights**

The human/fundamental rights are about recognizing the value and dignity of life. They are crucial for civilized existence, enabling individual to enjoy life and develop his faculties, so as to make advancement in life and become useful/productive member of society. In civilized societies, governed under constitutional/democratic system of governance, basic rights and fundamental freedoms are available to citizens. The PPA may offend certain provisions of our Constitution, in particular fundamental rights/freedoms, as under:

- i. Preamble/Art. 2-A provide for observance of principles of democracy, freedom, equality, social justice; guarantee of fundamental rights including equality of status, opportunity and before law; social, economic and political justice; freedom of thought, expression. The fundamental rights are to be enforced by independent/impartial judiciary.
- ii. Art 4 provides for rights of individual to be dealt with in accordance with law.
  - a. No action detrimental to life or liberty, save in accordance with law;
  - b. No person shall be prevented from doing that which the law does not prohibit him to do;
  - c. No person shall be compelled to do that which the law does not require him to do.
- iii. Art 9: No person shall be deprived of life or liberty save in accordance with law.
- iv. Art 10 provides safe grounds against arrest/ detention. No arrest except for breach of law, right to know grounds of detention, to engage a legal counsel of choice and be produced before Magistrate within 24 hours of arrest. No further detention except on remand granted by Magistrate.
- v. Art 10 A provides for right to fair trial and due process.
- vi. Art 14 provides for inviolability of dignity of man, privacy of home and prohibits torture for extracting evidence.
- vii. Art 15, 16, 19 provide for freedom of movement, assembly, speech.
- viii. Art 24 provides for protection of property.
- ix. Art 25 provides for equality before law and equal protection of law.

The constitution is basic document, it enjoys supremacy vis-à-vis ordinary enactments/legislation and customary laws/practices. Any law/custom in conflict with the constitution is a nullity. So is ordained by Art 8 of the Constitution. Chief Justice Munir wrote, constitution is the “supreme law from which all authorities derive their powers, all laws their validity and all subjects their rights”. Therefore, it should prevail at all times and in all circumstances. It must be respected and enforced. In the words of George Bidault: “The good or bad fortune of a nation depends on three factors: its constitution, the way the constitution is made to work and the respect it inspires”. In short, the law must be in accord with the basic document i.e. constitution, failing which, it could be challenged and Art 8 invoked to have it declared as null and void.

## Offensive Provisions

Tested on the touchstone of established legal/Constitutional norms/principles and fundamental rights, guaranteed by the Constitution as well as precedents set by the superior courts e.g. *Liaquat Hussain v Federation* (PLD 1999 SC 504) and *Mehram Ali v Federation* (PLD 1998 SC 1445), certain provisions of the Act may not qualify the test. It is so because they are vague, hence, capable of being abused/misused by the law enforcement agencies. Certain other provisions exceed the limit set by law/Constitution, and some are indeed too harsh, inconceivable in a civilised polity. Exception can be taken to the following:

- i. Loose/vague definitions of scheduled offences and authorizing the Government to make additions/deletions to entries in the Schedule (S 2 & 22): It is a serious flaw in the PPA. The acts/offences listed in the Schedule are not new, rather taken out of diverse other laws. The PPA provides for linkage/connection between the specific act/offence and object/purpose of its commission. Thus, both the act and object must be proved. The Prosecutor will be required to establish the mensrea / acstrea in the 'double action' or 'two-in-one offence'. It is no easy task though. Lacking in knowledge/expertise and having no professional training, the JIT will find it difficult to obtain convincing evidence, which the Prosecutor has to show to the court to prove the offence, beyond reasonable doubt. The JIT has a strange composition: a police officer and 2 members from armed forces. Members of armed forces have no qualification, training or experience of investigation. Therefore, it is hard to conceive that they will assist in the task of conducting competent investigation.
- ii. Power of police/armed forces to use force, also fire/order firing, and arrest, enter/search premises, without warrant, on mere suspicion (S 3): Entrusting a low grade police official of the rank of sub-inspector (BPS-15) or his equivalent in the armed forces with the authority to shoot to kill on suspicion/apprehension that a scheduled offence is likely to be committed, is a serious flaw in law. It is contrary to a ruling of the Supreme Court in case of *Mehram Ali* (supra), wherein power to order firing without check/guidance was declared to be violative of Art 9 of the Constitution.
- iii. Withholding information regarding the location of detainee, accused, interne or internment centre from court (S 9): Whereas the Government may be justified in withholding information pertaining to the location of a detainee, accused or interne, in view of security threats and recent incidents of jailbreak and attacks on police convoy to free militants/hard criminals, however, the measure is an after-thought, perhaps to justify the illegal detention of persons and their retention in secret location by the armed forces. When the Supreme

Court took up the cases of such persons, known as “missing persons”, after a few hearings, they were reported to be confined in internment centers, run by the armed forces. Anyhow, the matter of keeping persons in internment camps is a sub-judice matter in High Court/Supreme Court and such courts may perceive this measure as stratagem to validate the original illegal action of arrest/detention of internes. It is impermissible to frustrate or obstruct the course of judicial process.

- iv. Refusal to disclose the grounds of detention or divulge information relating to the detainee, accused or interne (S 9): With fundamental rights, in particular, right to personal liberty, freedom of movement, etc available to citizens, it would be hard for the courts to concede such a power to the executive. More so, because of Article 10 safeguards e.g. knowing grounds of arrest, so as to engage a defense counsel or making representation against detention order or filing writ of habeas corpus. Furthermore, the superior judiciary has given a string of judgments on this point; hence, the courts will find it hard to concede the ground.
- v. Simply because the identity of person is unascertainable or he has been deprived of citizenship, therefore, he shall be considered as enemy alien and presumed to have joined war/insurrection against Pakistan. Such person (together with other militants and persons accused of committing schedule offence), on existence of reasonable evidence, be presumed to be engaged in waging war/insurrection against Pakistan, unless he establishes his non-involvement in the offence (S 5(5) & 15): The courts will not take it lightly to let an accused be punished on suspicion, with conviction secured on mere presumption. Indeed, the presumption of innocence is a centuries-old principle, well established, locally as well as at the internationally plane; hence, its reversal will be hard to justify.
- vi. Person deprived of his right of citizenship (S 16): The right of citizenship is provided by law i.e. The Pakistan Citizenship Act 1951. The international law also lays stress on the point that individuals must not loose or be deprived of their nationality, as a stateless person is exposed to all sorts of indignities and the rigours of law, without support from the state.
- vii. Exclusion of public from trial (S 10): In-camera proceedings are generally discredited and deprecated by courts. This is so because it violates fundamental rights to fair trial and raises doubts about courts' independence/impartiality and their ability to disperse justice freely and fairly. Therefore, very strong/valid reasons will have to be advanced to convince the court to allow in-camera proceedings.



- viii. Appointment of Special Court/Special Judicial Magistrate from outside the judiciary (S 8): The Act authorizes the Government to appoint judge/magistrate from amongst lawyers meaning outside the regular judicial hierarchy. It is extremely controversial. This provision is contrary to the Supreme Court judgment in the case of Liaquat Hussain (*supra*), wherein the Court held that such an appointment is unrecognized by law and the forum cannot avail/execute judicial powers which is the prerogative of regular courts.
- ix. Non-applicability of legal safeguards available under the Cr. P.C. (S 18): This is a novel provision wherein centuries-old established legal safeguards, available under the Cr.P.C. have been denied to an accused/detainee under the PPA. Such safeguards also include the legal right to writ of habeas corpus (S 491 of Cr.P.C.) as well as fundamental right to similar remedy under Art 199 of the Constitution, and the inherent power of High Court to make orders to prevent the abuse of judicial process or secure the ends of justice, etc. It is difficult, to conceive as to how this may be achieved and how could the courts allow such blatant derogation from established legal norms/ fundamental rights.
- x. Arrested person kept in internment centers, past detainees deemed to have been arrested/detained pursuant to the provision of the Act (S 6): It is hard to conceive as to why internment centers need be established in the presence of prisons/police stations. Furthermore, in the case of missing persons in the Supreme Court, it was revealed that the armed forces are keeping some suspects in secret locations. Such suspects were picked up from houses/streets and/or taken out of prisons/police custody, without any charge or registration of FIR. The act was palpably illegal and brazen violation of the fundamental rights to personal liberty and freedom of movement, etc. Therefore, the Court insisted that citizens cannot be denied their fundamental rights; hence their prolonged detention in internment centers is illegal. The Government of KP then reported to the Supreme Court that the Ministry of Defense have decided to proceed against delinquent armed forces officers, responsible for unauthorized detention of such persons in the internment centers. The Court ruled that all missing persons must be accounted for, if there is any allegation against anyone, proper FIR be registered against him, otherwise released. The case is pending. The provision in the PPA to regularize the past detentions is tantamount to validating an illegal detention, an unwarranted interference in judicial process and an attempt to cause miscarriage of justice.

### **The Way Forward**

The above are only some of the glaring examples of excesses contained in law. The list goes on and on. The PPA may be the need of hour, and justified in the



prevalent disturbed conditions in the country, but many of its clauses far exceed the permissible limits, set by law/Constitution. The above-referred provisions, seemingly, are offensive to established legal norms/principles and militate against fundamental rights, hence, may be reviewed with a view to bringing it in harmony with norms of civilised system of governance and democratic dispensation. This would entail chipping off certain ends/objects, sought to be achieved by the Act and suitably amending other clauses for the sake of greater clarity and securing conformity with legal/constitutional safeguards.

An eminent and pressing need of the time is for the Government to take steps to improve the mechanism of implementation of laws in the country. If this is done, there would be no special need for enacting harsh/stringent laws. The penal laws, and in particular, provisions of the Anti-terrorism Act 1997 (ATA), are already fairly stringent. The ATA is a most comprehensive code and modern legislation on the subject. It has been frequently amended/reformed, but unable to achieve its objectives of curbing terrorism through improved mechanism of crime detection, arrest/detention of perpetrators of the crime, their prosecution and conviction. The conviction rate is alarmingly low and further dwindling. The fault lies in the failure to implement the law. In the present national scenario, when no one's life, honour or property is safe, no adequate security/protection has been provided to witnesses, investigators, prosecutors, judges, despite categorical assertion to the effect in law. In the circumstance, how may witnesses come forward to depose against hardened criminals and dreaded militants, and how can the investigators/prosecutors discharge their functions effectively and efficiently to produce strong/valid evidence in court and secure conviction. These professionals lack capacity and have no adequate training arrangements to update their knowledge and enhance their experience/expertise. And even though judicial training academies exist for the purpose, their services are not being fully utilized. Mere law reforms and introducing stringent penal provisions would not do until security is provided and resources allocated for the capacity building and training of professionals in the justice sector. Only then may the objects of law realized, conviction rate enhanced and deterrent effect given to the law.

## **The Nexus of Legal Institution with Child Trafficking From The Perspective of Experts and Policy Analysts of Peshawar**

*Syed Rashid Ali (PhD) & Niaz Muhammad*

### **Abstract**

This study focuses on “The nexus of legal institution with child trafficking: From the perspective of experts and policy analysts of Peshawar”. The main objective of the study is to analyze child trafficking with special emphasis on its legal aspects. Through this study it is attempted to find association between legal factors and child trafficking by using statistical techniques. For the study, data is collected from 392 respondents including 116 universities teachers, 103 journalists and 173 legal practitioners through a questionnaire. Statistical analysis is made through chi square and gamma tests to see the association between independent and dependent variable. The theory “Routine Activities” expounded by Cohen and Felson (1979) is utilized in the compilation of study design. It is observed that the law enforcement agencies are not performing their due role, and their lethargic attitude enhances the risk of trafficking. State law is perceived unimpressive and that is why victims' families do not look for any legal aid. It is also revealed that the menace can be decreased through increasing the risk of execution for the perpetrators. In nutshell, the study suggests for new legislation, conceptual and jurisdictional clarity of law enforcement agencies, their training, and policy of zero tolerance for corruption.

### **Keywords**

Child Trafficking, Legal Institution, Association, Experts and Policy Analysts, Peshawar.

### **Introduction**

Child trafficking is a modern day slavery which prevails in both developed and developing countries with variation in its magnitude and causes (ILO, 2002). The factors associated with and contributing towards this menace are numerous which has grounds in familial, economic, political, and legal institutions (Ali et al., 2014; Farr, 2005; Roby, 2005; and Scarpa, 2006). Human beings, as social animals, equipped with the sole ability of cognition, make them active to get their own needs satisfy. This nature of human beings mostly results in injustice and imbalance either deliberately or ignorantly in society. For maintaining justice, ensuring peace and balance, an institution emerged which is labeled as “Legal Institution”. This institution is formally entrusted with the responsibility implementation and interpretation of law. Besides other factors, the overall law and order situation of the society depends upon this institution. Failure or flaws in legal institution produce negative effects for citizens both in short and long term. In this context the present study is designed to analyze the relationship of child trafficking with legal institution with the following research questions in consideration;

Are the law enforcement agents able to effectively control the menace of child trafficking?

Whether the law of the land can effectively deal with the issue of child trafficking?

Whether increase in the risk of execution for the perpetrator can decrease the commission of the crime?

## **Literature Review**

The prevalence of child trafficking is associated with the involvement of corrupt law enforcement agents with the traffickers (Clawson, 2009; Tumlin, 2000; Carling, 2006; Van Impe, 2000; Zimmerman et al., 2008). Similarly, Bales (2007) derived from the application of multiple regression technique that a country which is engulfed by a civil unrest, war, or disaster could be the fertile region for the child trafficking. The reason of increase in the cases of child trafficking is reported by Salah (2004) and Noor Education Trust (NET, 2008) to be the corruption of officials that give rise to the involvement of criminals and intermediaries. Such situation further deteriorates with the ignorance and complicity of the parents. On the other hand, the profit of this illegal business is claimed to be high, accordingly, traffickers bribe and corrupt more government officials and local police (Ali and Muhammad, 2014; Kapstein, 2006).

The cases of child trafficking in Pakistan are rooted in legal flaws and officials' lack of interest (Mirza, 2010; Muhammad and Zafar, 2006). Anwar (2004) contended that the government official belonging to FIA, passport cell, immigration, and police officer are involved with the traffickers. It is their connivance and corruption that give rise to trafficking in Pakistan. He further, asserted that the law enforcement agents do not understand the issue in legal perspective. Limited knowledge along with frequent posting and ambiguities in role and responsibilities of different governmental departments and law enforcement agencies add fuel to the fire. It is reported while interviewing Zafrullah Khan (a lawyer in Peshawar) that the law enforcement agencies lack understanding of the crime of human trafficking. They treat the victims of trafficking as the perpetrators. The reasons for this misunderstanding are reported to be the lack of jurisdiction of police, definitional problems, and lack of training of the officials with respect to the laws and investigation procedures (Azam, 2009; Chung, 2006; Derks, 2000 and Klueber, 2003).

Similarly, Sajid (2010) reported that the usual rout of trafficking in Pakistan is Quetta, Tuftan (Iran), Turkey, and Greece. In the five stories narrated in the report of Human Rights Commission of Pakistan, *Human Trafficking through Quetta (2009)*, all the victims confirmed that they had no problem crossing Pak-Iran boarder at night.

Lack of rule of law is one of the causes of child trafficking. Due to one or other reasons the people are treated differently by the same law with in most of the countries. Mostly social status and power determines the application of laws. "The rule of law refers to a principle of governance in which all parties (persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself) are accountable to the same laws of the state, evenly obligatory and without interference adjudicated, and which should be consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires to ensure obedience to the doctrines of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, transparency and fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency" (United Nations, 2004). ILO and UNICEF (2009), Nelson et al. (2004), and Ali and Muhammad (2014) reported that the factors responsible for child trafficking include poor governance, weakened rule of law in transition and post-conflict countries, and economic disruption resulted from natural disasters.

However, to resolve the issue, Bales (2007) and Tumlin (2000) proposed some of the most evident strategies for dawdling trafficking that includes activities to reduce 'push' factors, such as measures to reduce governmental corruption in both origin and destination countries, population control measures, especially poverty reduction, and tackling international inequalities in wealth. International financial institutions should give incentives to programs for land reform, education and training, and health care, rather than promulgate 'austerity' requirements that undermine such programs.

## **Methodology**

### **Study Area**

The study is conducted in Peshawar, cradle of Pakhtun culture. The incidents of various issues related to child trafficking are likely to be high in the city as it houses a large population of Afghan refugees (Azam, 2009). Moreover, it has also provided shelter to thousands of the internally displaced peoples (IDPs) as a result of ongoing military operations in Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) of Pakistan in the wake of war against terrorism. Both of the mentioned groups are prone to child trafficking and other socio-cultural evils. The mentioned factors make District Peshawar a suitable place for carrying out this study.

Besides, the study area offers an opportunity to compile opinion of the people like social doctors, crime reporters, and lawyers whom have firsthand knowledge of the issue through direct dealing with victims. District Peshawar holds old, dynamic, and well established academic institutions like Islamia

College, Peshawar (ICP), University of Peshawar (UoP), University of Engineering and Technology (UET), University of Agriculture, Peshawar (UAP). Along with these established academic institutions, it hosts number of seats of diversified local, national, and international print and electronic media both public and private. Legal institution like Registry of Supreme Court of Pakistan, Peshawar High Court, Peshawar District Courts, and Special Courts are also established and functional in the study area. Due to these relevant and rich features, District Peshawar is selected to carry out the present investigation in it.

### **Sampling**

For data collection, sampling method is used by selecting proportionate stratified random sample from membership list of local bar council, Peshawar press club, and teachers' associations. This technique is appropriate for consistent and reliable data. Hence, the population is trifurcated into strata like social scientists, crime reporters, and lawyers in Peshawar.

The total population is 453 where as data is collected from 392 respondents including 116 universities teachers, 103 journalists and 173 legal practitioners through a questionnaire. Statistical analysis is made through chi square and gamma tests to see the association between independent and dependent variable. The theory "Routine Activities" expounded by Cohen and Felson (1979) is utilized in the compilation of study design. The sample size for the present study is determined by using the formula given below;

$$n = \frac{K^2 V^2}{d^2} \quad (1) \quad (\text{Casley and Kumar, 1989})$$

### **Analysis of the Nexus Between Legal Institution and Child Trafficking:**

This table tries to investigate the nexus between legal institution and child trafficking and its research questions. According to the table a positive ( $\gamma=0.284$ ) and significant ( $p<0.05$ ) relationship is found between the role of law enforcement agents and child trafficking. It could be interpreted as collusion between law enforcement agencies and trafficker. The findings of the study reflect the understanding of society regarding the collusion of police (capable guardian) with criminals. It could be deduced from the study findings that the criminals cannot run their business unless supported by law enforcement agencies. The findings suggest that corruption of the custodians of the law and child trafficking are associated phenomena. Of such a society where police and other agencies become corrupt and unable to deal effectively with crime, it may indicate the failure of its formal system

of social control. Hence the moral standard declines, the weak members of society turn into suitable targets and offender gets motivated. The corruption and involvement of officials along with silence from the state regarding the punishment of the offenders contributes to the criminalization of the world economy and resultantly, the world economic system erodes. Such a situation could be devastating for the whole society and people would fall in the dark dungeon of hopelessness and chaos. Result could be the commission and prevalence of crime. The findings are in line with Ali & Muhammad (2014); Van Impe (2000); Tumlin (2000); Carling (2006); Bales (2007); and Kapstein (2006).

Although, a non significant but positive ( $\gamma=0.237$ ) relationship is explored between lack of rule of law and child trafficking. This could be due to people believing in law as major tool of containment of trafficking, and if anything wrong happen, is not due to law rather custodian of the law. The findings suggest that the law enforcement agents do not follow the spirit of the law, hence treat citizens differently which turns good governance into poor and bad governance. This could be due to the inability, corruption, and/or lack of understanding of the law by the implementers. The lack of rule of law facilitates criminal activities and creates an environment where human trafficking can thrive. This is particularly apparent in a post-conflict environment, where law and order and the lack of rule of law pushes the already vulnerable populations, such as women, children, internally displaced people, and war refugees, into situations where they are even more at risk of becoming victims of human trafficking. The findings of the present study are in consonance with ILO & UNICEF (2009); Nelson et al., (2004); Ali & Muhammad (2014).

Contrary to the above findings, a significant ( $p<0.05$ ) and positive ( $\gamma=0.390$ ) association is observed between victims of trafficking are mostly misunderstood as criminals and child trafficking. This shows lack of precise and clear understanding of the laws (PACHTO 2002) pertaining to trafficking. This ambiguity results in arrest of trafficking victims where government agencies treat them as criminals and perpetrators. Such acts of misunderstanding mostly results in the re-victimization which further boost up trafficking business. This lack of understanding could be due to lack of training and education of the police along with definitional ambiguity. The findings of the present study are in accordance with Azam (2009). Thereby, the results suggest that the law enforcement agents are not able to effectively control the worst form of human slavery. The findings are in line with Anwar (2004).

Moreover, a positive ( $\gamma=0.208$ ) but not significant relationship is detected between cases of trafficking and its settlement outside legal framework through social influence. Similarly, a positive ( $\gamma=0.225$ ) but not significant relationship is observed between settlement through ransom and child trafficking. Likewise, a

positive ( $\gamma=0.283$ ) but not significant relationship is delineated between lacking of justice based disposition of cases and child trafficking. These inferences suggest that people had little faith in legal framework thus by owning to other ways and means for dealing with the issue, which are considered more suitable than law. It is probably due to poor enforcement and implementation of laws, little interest on part of executives to handle this issue, and cumbersome and lengthy legislative and judicial mode prevalent in the country. It is observed that most of the cases of kidnapping, bondage labour, trafficking etc. are settled through informal social networks than recourse to legal system. It may be that people consider informal social network safer than formal legal system. Other side of the picture could be that formal system is not effective to deal efficiently with the offence of child trafficking. The findings suggest that the judicial system of Pakistan may not be pro-human where once a citizen struck could not come out with dignity and hope. The reflection of this understanding and belief of the respondents could be due to the existence of corrupt elements in the system and lack of understanding and awareness of the law enforcement agents about the issue. Further, literature reveals that judicial system of Pakistan is expensive, unpredictable, and corrupt. The findings are in line with Ahmad (2012); and Klueber (2003).

Similarly, a positive ( $\gamma=0.203$ ) and significant ( $p<0.05$ ) relationship is found between trafficked victims often involved in criminal activities and child trafficking. Findings of the present study suggest that society perceive the involvement of victims in crimes which could be attributed to a long period of socialization of victims with traffickers and could also be due to non-acceptance of these victims by society. Similar inferences could also be associated to victims who remained for a longer period of time with traffickers develop adoptability and accordingly socialized in a criminal environment and become member to gangs or start its own business of the type where they get experienced. Studies also revealed that the most vulnerable places are the shelter homes or group homes, from where the psychologically conditioned minors and prostituted may help their traffickers acquire new recruits and thus the victims become criminals. These findings are in line with Clawson & Grace (2007); Farr (2005); and Sethi (2010).

In addition, a positive ( $\gamma=0.403$ ) and significant ( $p<0.05$ ) relationship is observed between absence of sound legal system and child trafficking. A positive ( $\gamma=0.295$ ) and non significant relationship is found between updating legal system can control the menace and child trafficking. However, a highly positive ( $\gamma=0.663$ ) and highly significant ( $p<0.05$ ) relationship is delineated between efficient law enforcement agents and child trafficking. The above results reflect the understanding of respondents about the issue of child trafficking. This reveals that there is lack of legal frameworks for curbing criminal activities like trafficking and if exists like PACHTO, (2002) however, still there is a room for making amendments



for curtailing trafficking in effective way. In addition, law enforcement agencies are also unable to implement the existing law due to lack of clear understanding, presence of pressure groups and gang mafias involved in this inhuman but lucrative business. It is revealed from literature and respondents view that law of the land on human trafficking does not declare forced marriage, child marriage, bride price marriage, and *swara* marriage as forms of human trafficking. Further, internal trafficking is not declared as offence. Child trafficking is not specifically focused and separately dealt with in the law. Police has also been not given jurisdiction to deal with the cases of child trafficking. These gaps show the weakness and limitations in the law of the land on child trafficking. The findings are in line with Salah (2004); Tumlin (2000); NET (2008); Mirza (2010); and Muhammad & Zafar (2006). Hence the results suggest that the law of the land is not effective to prevent nexus between law enforcement agencies and criminals and hence laws are not effective to curtail child trafficking. The results also support the assumption that the custodians of the law are not performing their due role to control the menace of child trafficking in the society.

Similarly, a positive ( $\gamma=0.398$ ) and significant ( $p<0.05$ ) relationship is detected between increase risk of execution and child trafficking. Studies reveal that increase risk of execution in child trafficking, as a matter of fact, lowers down the rate of the crime. From the statistical results it is evident that society agrees that formal mechanism of social control and child trafficking is significantly and positively contributing to each other. Findings of the present study suggest that improvement in the existing mechanism of social control by incorporating clear definition of child trafficking, expansion of police jurisdiction to the crime, training of law enforcement agents and judiciary on the issue, and provision of rigorous surveillance can increase the risks of execution. Alongside, the findings also suggest a wide publicity to these punishments could bring deterrence to others, who could opt for such activities. The findings of this analysis are in congruent with that of Kapstein (2006); Chung (2006); Klueber (2003); and Derks (2000); Mirza (2010); and NET (2008). The results suggest that increase in the risks of execution for the traffickers has positive and significant relationship. It means that increasing the risk of execution and punishment for the criminals could lower down the rate of the commission of crime. In other words the results confirm that more the deterrence for the perpetrator more would be the chances of control of the crime.



Table No.1 Relationship Between Legal Aspects and Child Trafficking

Factors	Attitude	Child Trafficking			Total	Statistics
		Agree	Disagree	Not Sure		
Law enforcement often agents collude with traffickers	Agree	215(54.8)	30(7.7)	1(0.3)	246(62.8)	=9.494 (.05) $\gamma = .284$
	Disagree	47(12.0)	6(1.5)	0(0.00)	53(13.5)	
	Not Sure	70(17.9)	23(5.90)	0(0.0)	93(23.7)	
Absence of sound legal system upon trafficking	Agree	261(66.6)	35(8.9)	1(0.3)	297(75.8)	=11.21 (.024) $\gamma = .403$
	Disagree	58(14.8)	18(4.6)	0(0.0)	76(19.4)	
	Not Sure	13(3.9)	6(10.2)	0(0.0)	19(4.8)	
Victims are misunderstood as criminals	Agree	188(48.0)	21(5.4)	0(0.0)	209(53.3)	=16.28 (.003) $\gamma = .390$
	Disagree	85(21.7)	16(4.1)	1(0.3)	102(26.0)	
	Not Sure	59(15.1)	22(5.6)	0(0.0)	81(20.7)	
Improvement in legal system	Agree	288(73.5)	46(11.7)	1(0.3)	335(85.5)	= 6.873 (.143) $\gamma = .295$
	Disagree	28(7.1)	5(1.3)	0(0.0)	35(8.4)	
	Not Sure	16(4.1)	8(2.0)	0(0.0)	24(6.1)	
Efficient law enforcement agencies	Agree	314(80.1)	45(11.5)	1(0.3)	360(91.8)	= 24.39 (.000) $\gamma = .663$
	Disagree	11(2.8)	8(2.0)	0(0.0)	19(4.8)	
	Not Sure	7(1.9)	6(1.5)	0(0.0)	13(3.4)	
Lack of Rule of law Efficient	Agree	292(74.5)	48(12.2)	1(0.3)	341(87.0)	=2.493 (.646) $\gamma = .237$
	Disagree	22(5.6)	5(1.3)	0(0.0)	27(6.9)	
	Not Sure	18(4.6)	6(1.5)	0(0.0)	24(6.1)	
Trafficked victims	Agree	232(59.2)	36(9.2)	0(0.0)	268(68.4)	=9.919 (.042) $\gamma = .203$
	Disagree	38(9.7)	7(1.8)	1(0.3)	46(11.7)	
	Not Sure	62(15.8)	16(4.1)	0(0.0)	78(19.9)	
Settlement of cases through social influence	Agree	201(51.3)	26(6.6)	1(0.3)	228(58.2)	=8.243 (.221) $\gamma = .208$
	Disagree	49(12.5)	16(4.1)	0(0.0)	65(16.6)	
	Not Sure	81(20.7)	18(4.5)	0(0.0)	99(25.2)	
Trafficking cases are mostly settled through ransom	Agree	214(54.6)	31(7.9)	1(0.3)	246(62.8)	=5.029 (.284) $\gamma = .225$
	Disagree	51(13.0)	9(2.3)	0(0.0)	60(15.3)	
	Not Sure	67(17.1)	19(4.8)	0(0.0)	86(21.9)	
Lacking of justice-based disposition of cases	Agree	235(59.9)	32(8.2)	1(0.3)	268(68.4)	=6.860 (.143) $\gamma = .283$
	Disagree	59(15.1)	17(4.3)	0(0.0)	76(19.4)	
	Not Sure	38(9.7)	10(2.6)	0(0.0)	48(12.2)	
Increased risk of execution for traffickers	Agree	213(54.3)	24(6.1)	1(0.3)	238(60.7)	=14.54 (.006) $\gamma = .398$
	Disagree	52(13.3)	11(2.8)	0(0.0)	63(16.1)	
	Not Sure	67(17.1)	24(6.1)	0(0.0)	91(23.2)	

Source: Field Survey, 2012

Note\* Values presented in the above table indicate frequency while values in the parenthesis represent percentage

## Conclusion

It is concluded that there is a relationship of child trafficking and legal institution as derived from the result. It is found that law enforcement agents are supporting the criminal syndicates of traffickers and do not play their role to ensure the rule of law. Instead, victims of trafficking are considered criminals as perceived by the respondents. Absence of people-friendly legal system and lack of trust in the legal framework compel victims' family to settle the issue without asking for legal aid. The problem can be encountered by improving legal system, equipping the law enforcement agents with training and resources along with increased risk of execution for lowering down the rate of trafficking, for discouraging offenders, and for making guardians capable to protect their children.

## Recommendations

- For conceptual and jurisdictional clarity regarding child trafficking, amendments in existing laws and some new legislation is inevitable to cope with the issue.
- Apart from FIA other agencies may be involved in curtailing child trafficking. A very focused and state of the art training along with equipments need to be provided to the law enforcement agents dealing with the issue.
- In addition, exemplary punishment to child traffickers deems inevitable.
- The government should increase the salaries of the immigration, human trafficking unit and police officials who are particularly working on human trafficking cases, however, along with this government should issue a policy of zero-tolerance for corruption. If any official is convicted severe punishment is needed to be inflicted.
- Another strategy to adopt is the naming and shaming policy. Government should publish and public the names of all the involved people in the trafficking chain whether government officials, private citizens, politicians, or other powerful people. Media should give proper time and place for publishing and disseminating the name and cases. After all reputation matters!

## References

- Ahmad, A. (2012). Judicial System of Pakistan: A historical perspective. Unpublished work in personal library, Mardan.
- Ali, S. R., Muahammad, N., & Abdullah. (2014). Child Trafficking: Analysis of the Leading Familial Determinants. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 8(1), 36-45.
- Ali, S. R., and Muahammad, N. (2014). The Economic Position of Family and its relationship with Child Trafficking: A study from the Perspective of Policy Analysts and Experts. *Pakistan Journal of Criminology*, Vol.6(1), 81-96.
- Anwar, M. (2004). Child trafficking for camel races: A perspective from Pakistan. Karachi: Centre for Research and Social Development.
- Azam, F. (2009). *Report on human trafficking, human smuggling and illegal migration to and from Pakistan: Review of government policies and programmes*. Study conducted for BEFARe, Peshawar in Collaboration with ActionAid Pakistan with the support of European Union.
- Bales, K. (2007): What predicts human trafficking? *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice*, 31(2), 269-279.
- Carling, J. (2006). Migration, human smuggling and trafficking from Nigeria to Europe. Oslo, prepared for International Organization for Migration (IOM) by International Peace Research Institute (PRIO).
- Casley, D., & Kumar, K. D. (1989). *The collection, analysis and uses of monitoring and evaluation data*. A World Bank Publication. Baltimore: Jhon Hopkins University Press.
- Chung, R. C. Y. (2006). Cultural perspective on child trafficking, human rights and social justice: A model for psychologists. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly*, 22(1), 85-96.
- Clawson, H. J. (2009). *Human trafficking into and within the United States: A review of the literature*. Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Human and Heath Services. Retrieved December 25, 2009, from <http://aspe.hhs.gov/hsp/07/HumanTrafficking>
- Clawson, H. J., & Grace, L. G. (2007). *Finding a path to recovery: Residential facilities for minor victims of domestic sex trafficking*. Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Human and Heath Services. Retrieved December 25, 2009, from <http://aspe.hhs.gov/hsp/07/HumanTrafficking>

- Cohen, L. E. and Felson, M. (1979). Social change and crime rate trends: A routine activity approach. *American Sociological Review*, (44), 588-608.
- Derks, A. (2000). Combating trafficking in south-east Asia: A review of policy and programme responses. International Organization of Migration, No. 2.
- Farr, K. (2005). *Sex trafficking: The global market in women and children*. Worth Publishing: New York.
- Human Rights Commission of Pakistan (HRCP). (2012). State of human rights in 2011. Lahore: HRCP, U.B. Printer Mission Road. ISBN-978-969-8324-51-3.
- ILO and the United Nations Children's Fund (2009). *Training Manual to Fight Trafficking in Children for Labour, Sexual and Other Forms of Exploitation*. Geneva: ILO. [http://www.ilo.org/ipecc/areas/Traffickingofchildren/lang-en/WCMS\\_111537/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/ipecc/areas/Traffickingofchildren/lang-en/WCMS_111537/index.htm)
- International Labour Organization (ILO). (2002). *Unbearable to the human heart: Child trafficking and action to eliminate it*. International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour. International Labour Office, Geneva.
- Kapstein, E. B. (2006). The New Global Slave Trade. *Foreign Affairs*, 85 (6), 103-115 Council on Foreign Relations. Retrieved on August 15, 2011 from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20032146>
- Klueber, S. A. (2003). Trafficking in human beings: Law enforcement response. M.S. dissertation, University of Louisville, United States -- Kentucky. Retrieved July 5, 2005, from ProQuest Digital Dissertations database. (Publication No. AAT 1415195).
- Mirza, M. A. (2010). The Menace of Human Trafficking - Pakistan's Response to the Problem? *Pakistan Journal of Criminology* 2 (4), 151 – 164.
- Muhammad. T. and Zafar. N. (2006). Situational analysis report on prostitution of boys in Pakistan (Lahore & Peshawar). ECPAT International & Pakistan Paediatrics Association Bankok & Peshawar.
- Nelson, Sue, Guthrie, J., and Coffey, P. S. (2004). *Literature Review and Analysis Related to Human Trafficking in Post-Conflict Situations*. Washington, DC. United States Agency for International Development. [http://www.usaid.gov/our\\_work/cross-cutting\\_programs/wid/pubs/trafficking\\_dai\\_lit\\_review.pdf](http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/pubs/trafficking_dai_lit_review.pdf)
- Noor Education Trust (NET). (2008). *Brides for sale: Internal trafficking nexus at a glance*. Peshawar. Retrieved on January 15, 2012, from <http://netpak.org/publication.php>

- Roby, J. L. (2005). Women and children in the global sex trade: Toward more effective policy. *International Social Work*, 48(2), 136.
- Sajid, I. A. (2010). Trafficking in persons, migrants smuggling, illegal migration and problems of deportees in Pakistan. *Pakistan Journal of Criminology* 2(4), 97-110.
- Salah, R. (2004). Child trafficking: a challenge to child protection in Africa., paper presented at the Fourth African Regional Conference on Child Abuse and Neglect, Enugu, March.
- Scarpa, S. (2006). Child trafficking: International instruments to protect the most vulnerable victims. *Family Court Review*, 44(3), 429.
- Sethi, A. (2010). Domestic sex trafficking of aboriginal girls in Canada: Issues and implications. In L. Territo, & G. Kirkman (Eds.), *International sex trafficking of women & children: Understanding the global epidemic* (pp. 27-50). Flushing, NY: Looseleaf Law Publications.
- Tumlin, K. C. (2000). *Trafficking in children and women: A regional overview*. ILO-IPEC paper. Thailand: Institute of Asian Studies.
- United Nations, (2004). The rule of law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies. Report of the Secretary-General. Retrieved on August 15, 2012 from <http://daccessddsny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N04/395/29/PDF/N0439529.pdf?OpenElement>
- Van Impe, K. (2000). People for sale: The need for a multi disciplinary approach towards human trafficking. *International Migration*, 38(3), 113-130.
- Zimmerman, C., Hossain, M., Yun, K., Gajdadziev, V., Guzun, N., Tchomarova, M., Ciarrocchi, R. A., Johansson, A., Kefurtova, A., Scodanibbio, S., Motus, M. N., Roche, B., Morison, L., and Watts, C. (2008). The health of trafficked women: a survey of women entering post trafficking services in Europe. *Am J Public Health*. 98(1), 55-9.

---

The author Syed Rashid Ali is a Lecturer of Sociology and Deputy Registrar Establishment at Kohat University of Science & Technology (KUST), Kohat - Pakistan. He can be reached at [bukharasani@gmail.com](mailto:bukharasani@gmail.com) and/or [rashid\\_ali@kust.edu.pk](mailto:rashid_ali@kust.edu.pk)

The author Prof. Niaz Muhammad (PhD) is the Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Peshawar. He can be reached at [niaz@upesh.edu.pk](mailto:niaz@upesh.edu.pk)

# Pakistan Journal of Criminology

Volume 6/Number 2/Jul - Dec, 2014

**ABC Certified**

## Contents

- Editorial (The Case of Crime Rise in City of Peshawar)  
'Situation and Scope' of Existing Labour Laws to Address the Issues of .....  
Dr. Syeda Mahnaz Hassan
- Impact of TV Crime Shows on Rob Criminals of District Camp Jail, Lahore .....  
Sumera Batool & Sidra Ishaq
- Sociological Analysis of Mass Media Role in Promotion of Mob Violence .....  
Nizar Ahamd, Farhatullah, Shagufta Shah & Farman Ullah
- Child Victimization: Case Study of Child Scavengers in Twin Cities of Pakistan.  
Jalal Shehzad
- Crime and Institutional Response: A Study of Mobile Snatching and Street .....  
Asad Salahuddin
- Theoretical Analysis of Socio-Economic and Political Causes of Terrorism in Pakistan.  
Sajjad Hussain, Dr. Basharat Hussain, Dr. Amir Zada Asad Waseem Khan
- Environment of Crimes and Violence at Community Level and its Exclusionary .....  
Asad Ullah, Mussawar Shah & Bushra Shafi
- Structure of violence in Pakistani Schools: A Gender Based Analysis.  
Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali, Dr. Mussarat Anwar & Dr. Syeda Nabahat
- Gender Differences in Depression Among the Affectees of War on Terrorism .....  
Summiya Ahmad, Hayat Mohammad, Shakeel Ahmed & Imran Ahmad Sajid
- Delaying Tactics used by Lawyers in Dispensation of Civil Justice in Lower .....  
RazaUllah Shah, ShadiUllah Khan, Sumera Farid, & AmanUllah Shah
- Corporal Punishment as a Means of Discipline for Children.  
Muhammad Ibrar & Raazia Hassan Naqvi
- Dynamics of Gender Based Violence: Investigating the Effects of Violence .....  
Dr. Jamil Ahmad Chitrali, Dr. Mussarat Anwar & Dr. Syeda Nabahat
- Public Perception About the Causes of Crime and Insurgency in Federally .....  
Intikhab Alam, Niaz Muhammad, Shakeel Ahmed, Summiya Ahmad & Kifayat Ullah
- Testing the Vires of Protection of Pakistan Act (PPA), 2014 on the .....  
Dr. Faqir Hussain
- The Nexus of Legal Institution with Child Trafficking: From the Perspective of .....  
Syed Rashid Ali & Niaz Muhammad

ISSN 2074 - 2738 (Print)

ISSN 2222 - 6648 (Online)

UNI - GRAPHICS