

CORRELATION BETWEEN UNEMPLOYMENT AND HIGH CRIME RATE AMONG THE YOUTH: A CASE STUDY OF KAUNDA SQUARE STAGE ONE TOWNSHIP (LUSAKA)

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Abstract

While official crime statistics from many countries show that the unemployed and impoverished people are the majority involved in crime and that communities with a lot of unemployment and poverty experience a lot of crime, this cross-sectional relationship is very often not found in studies of unemployment and crime in Zambia. In Zambia, there have been no individual-level or cross-sectional studies of correlation between unemployment and crime which have found a positive relationship, and no studies which have supported this positive relationship. This study examines the causal relationship between unemployment and crime in Zambia among the youth specifically Kaunda Square Stage One township. Using the field survey as a research design the variables were measured and tested through statistical methods. Economic analysis of crime addresses the question of individual welfare (utility) maximization through optimal allocation of resources and time in accordance to their relative returns. In this paper, the theoretical evidence was summarized on the nexus between crime and two socio economic indicators, unemployment and poverty by using the general deterrence theory. After which the hypothesis was tested that people who are vulnerable to fall under the poverty line indulge in criminal activities as a consumption smoothing strategy. The role unemployment plays in crime related issues was also inspected. The study concludes that unemployment and poverty in Zambia (Kaunda Square) cause high crime rate. Therefore, when, unemployment and poverty rates increase the opportunities for earning income decreases which instigate the individuals to commit crime. Zambia was chosen as the case study because it should carefully channel its funds and resources towards economic growth, creation of employment, poverty alleviation and crime deterrence concomitantly.

Keywords

Unemployment, Poverty, Crime, Deterrence Theory, Casual Relationship, Field Survey.

1.0 Introduction and Background

This study investigates the Correlation between Unemployment and High Crime Rate among the Youth in Kaunda square stage I. Kaunda square stage I has a population of 22,217 (CSO 2010) and is a township located in Munali constituency.

Zambia's population is one of the youngest in the world, with a median age of 16.6 years (compared to

a global average of 29.2), and is projected to be one of the three youngest countries in the world (United Nations 2013). Estimates vary depending on how unemployment is measured and the age cohort used, but youth unemployment is significantly high—ranging from two to five times higher than for adults. According to the 2008 Labor Force Survey, 15 to 34-year-olds make up 65 percent of the working population, and youth unemployment was estimated at 28 percent. The (2012) African Economic Outlook

found that unemployment was much higher among urban youth than rural youth and higher among young women than men. A (2010) *Central Statistics Office Survey* supported this finding, observing five percent unemployment for rural youth (ages 20 to 24, and six percent of men/ four percent of women) compared to 45 percent unemployment for urban youth (42 percent of men and 47 percent of women). Additionally, most young people with jobs are in informal employment, with 90 percent of the overall labor force in the informal sector, 71 percent of which is in agriculture. Most of the population is enmeshed in the net of abject poverty due to faulty economic policies and unsustainable poverty alleviation programs of successive governments. The essence of development is to achieve satisfactory standard of living of the people within the existing or improved structural framework.

Zambia is a wealthy country with majority of its population living below the poverty line. The rural dwellers and the urban ghetto inhabitants, gripped firmly by the clutches of poverty in an affluent nation, are the major victims of Zambia's backwardness and apparent underdevelopment. These areas lack basic infrastructures like accessible roads, pipe borne water, functional educational system, cottage industries, functional healthcare delivery services, poor communication, absence of transportation, electricity, decent and affordable homes, etc. These features reflect a country's gross domestic product (GDP) and other aggregate economic indicators which serve as the yardstick upon which the economic status of a sovereign nation is being measured.

The concentration of the disadvantaged in inner-city ghettos and the isolation of these areas from more affluent communities compound the problems of the poor. This social isolation leads to economic isolation and impoverishment. Simply being poor does not make an individual a part of the "underclass". Indeed, the underclass constitutes a minority of the poor. The underclass is a core of inner-city poor, those individuals and families who are trapped in an unending cycle of joblessness and dependence on welfare or criminal earnings. Their communities are often plagued by drug abuse, lawlessness, crime, violence, filthy environment with dotted shanty

structures and poor schools (Okeke, 2001; Zanden, 1996).

The objective of this study therefore is to investigate the relationship between unemployment, poverty and high crime rate. The primary thrust of the article is to ascertain whether the increased wave of crime in Kaunda Square Stage 1 is because of youth unemployment and poverty.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Despite weakness in the global economy, growth in Sub-Saharan Africa remains robust, supported by resilient domestic demand and commodity prices that, while declining, are still historically high. In 2012 the region's growth was estimated at 4.4 percent. Excluding South Africa, its largest economy, the region's economies grew a robust 5.4 percent—more than the developing country average of 5.0 percent. About a quarter of Sub-Saharan countries (including Zambia) grew at least 7 percent, and several are among the world's fastest growing. Medium-term growth prospects remain strong and should be supported by a pickup in the global economy, high commodity prices (expected to stay above average), and investment in the productive capacity of the region's economies. Overall, Sub-Saharan Africa is forecast to grow an average of more than 5 percent a year over 2013–15: 4.9 percent in 2013 and gradually strengthening to 5.4 percent by 2015 (World Bank 2013b).

However, this impressive economic growth trend has not translated into significant gains in job creation, equality and poverty reduction that underpins achievement of the millennium development goals (MDGs). Although the proportion of Zambians living in extreme poverty has gradually declined in the past decade, albeit at a very slow pace, the proportion of rural Zambians in extreme poverty has steadily increased (MDG Progress Report 2013). It took 19 years for Zambia to reduce the proportion of people living in extreme poverty from 58 % in 1991 to 42.3 % in 2010. Extreme poverty in rural areas (57.7 %) is four times higher than in urban areas (13.1 %). The country will have to reduce extreme poverty by 13.3 percentage points in the 5 years from 2010 and 2015 to attain the MDG target. Zambia's income Gini coefficient is 0.60 (Global Human Development

Report, 2013), places it in the category of countries with highest income inequality. To put this in the context of Southern Africa, it is a higher level of income inequality when compared with other middle-income economies in the sub region: Botswana (0.5 in 2008), Namibia (0.59 in 2009), Swaziland (0.515 in 2010) and South Africa (0.531 in 2009).

The study therefore attempted to ascertain the extent of crime among the youth because of unemployment and poverty in Kaunda Squares Stage 1. The study further provided strategic solutions to help in the formulation of policies that support and mitigate poverty and unemployment levels to reduce crime among the youths in Kaunda Squares Stage 1.

1.2 Literature Review

Rapid demographic changes in the youth population, modernization, emigration, urbanization and changing social policies have all been linked with an increase in youth violence (Ortega 1992). In places that have suffered economic crises and ensuing structural adjustment policies – such as in Africa and parts of Latin America – real wages have often declined sharply, laws intended to protect labour have been weakened or discarded, and a substantial decline in basic infrastructure and social services has occurred (Schneidman 1996). Poverty has become heavily concentrated in cities experiencing high population growth rates among young people (WHO 1995).

In their demographic analysis of young people in Africa, Lauras-Loch & Lopez-Escartin (1992) suggest that the tension between a rapidly swelling population of young people and a deteriorating infrastructure has resulted in school-based and student revolts. Diallo Co-Trung (1992) found a similar situation of student strikes and rebellions in Senegal, where the population under 20 years of age doubled between 1970 and 1988, during a period of economic recession and the implementation of structural adjustment policies. In a survey of youths in Algeria, Rarrbo (1995) found that rapid demographic growth and accelerating urbanization together created conditions, including unemployment and grossly inadequate housing that in turn led to extreme frustration, anger and pent-up

tensions among youths. Young people, as a result, were more likely to turn to petty crime and violence, particularly under the influence of peers.

In Papua New Guinea, Dinnen (1998) describes the evolution of “raskolism” (criminal gangs) in the broader context of decolonization and the ensuing social and political change, including rapid population growth unmatched by economic growth. Such a phenomenon has also been cited as a concern in some of the former communist economies, where – as unemployment has soared and the social welfare system been severely cut – young people have lacked legitimate incomes and occupations, as well as the necessary social support between leaving school and finding work. In the absence of such support, some have turned to crime and violence.

If poverty were a direct cause of crime, we would expect unprecedented levels of crime in Africa. Luckily, the impact of poverty on crime seems to be subtler than that. There have been many attempts to correlate income levels and crime statistics, although results have been mixed (Fajnzylber 2001). While a small share of global crime is committed to satisfy basic human needs, the effects of material deprivation generally are usually mediated through other social factors. As South African President Thabo Mbeki (2001) has argued, citing the 2000 UNDP Human Development report, “poverty is not only expressed in shortage of food, shelter and clothing. It is also expressed ... in high levels of crime, including violence among the poor themselves, especially against women and children, in many instances accompanied by substance abuse.”

Income inequality, on the other hand, has been argued to be one of the most robust quantitative correlates of police-recorded crime rates (Fajnzylber 2001). The World Bank argues that relative deprivation “breeds social tensions as the less well-off feel dispossessed when compared to wealthier people,” and thus, “the poor seek compensation and satisfaction, including committing crimes against both poor and rich (Fajnzylber 2001:23).” Those who feel to be the victims of social injustice may not feel compelled to obey the laws of the system that marginalizes them. In fact, since compliance with the law may be enabling exploitation, defiance of the law

may be seen as courageous in marginalized communities. The line between 'civil disobedience' and profit-seeking criminality may become blurred in the minds of some.

It has also been argued that inequality may also breed violent crime, as expressive "frustration violence" is vented against vulnerable targets (Neumayer 2005). As President Mbeki argues; these are often women and children. Inability to provide for dependants can be a tremendous source of frustration, especially when others appear to be more successful. The rage that this engenders can have tragic consequences.

Zambia's population is one of the youngest in the world, with a median age of 16.6 years (compared to a global average of 29.2), and is projected to be one of the three youngest countries in the world (United Nations 2012). Estimates vary depending on how unemployment is measured and the age cohort used, but youth unemployment is significantly high—ranging from two to five times higher than for adults. According to the *2008 Labor Force Survey*, 15- to 34-year-olds make up 65 percent of the working population, and youth unemployment was estimated at 28 percent.

Today in Zambia, the youths are faced with socio-economic hardships which include HIV and AIDS, high levels of unemployment, drug and alcohol abuse, sexual violence, early marriages, forced labour, human trafficking, and gender-based violence, among others. Due to these problems, most youths lack a sense of self-worth (self-esteem) which is supposed to help them to be active citizens, rather than passive observers, in the development of the country. To fight this terrible situation, it is important to integrate youth right campaigns aimed at developing a sense of self-worth among the youths into youth development programmes. Communication strategies for gaining youth rights in programmes and organizations that promote youth activism, youth participation, youth empowerment, youth voice, youth/adult partnerships and intergenerational equity between young people and adults will go a long way towards ending this crisis in society.

Zambian youths, like other youths in most developing countries, are faced with increasing socio-economic hardships including those mentioned above. This age group includes the vulnerable, those in rural areas, students, those out of school, youths on the streets, school dropouts, orphans, the disabled and those in prisons and reformatories.

The Zambian government has created an enabling environment for various youth organizations, including non-governmental ones, to empower youths with life skills to harness and develop them into productive citizens and future leaders. However, what is lacking in the various programmes of these organizations is an awareness of human rights among the youths which should enable them to develop a sense of self-worth even as they participate in national development.

The country's 2006 National Youth Policy (NYP) was formulated in order to guide implementation of youth programmes and mitigate the worsening and prevailing socio-economic conditions (Namaiko 2010). According to the policy, the Ministry of Youth and Sport shall promote equity of access to socio-economic opportunities. It places emphasis on the driving force for the equitable provision of services to the youths which should be the promotion of appropriate and modern technology.

The policy seeks to promote a gender-inclusive approach to the development of youths in the public and private sectors and the civil society. The NYP is driven by the need to attain the goals of the country's development plans, namely the Sixth National Development Plan (2011-2015), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Vision 2030, which is intended to make Zambia a middle-income nation by the year 2030.

Other measures put in place by the Zambian government, with the aim of empowering youths, include skills training in organizations such as the Zambia National Service (ZNS), and providing them with capital, land and equipment. Though special funds like the Citizens Economic Empowerment (CEE) Fund have been established, very few youths have had access to them.

Government's efforts to enhance the well-being of youths are supplemented by various youth organizations mostly aimed at providing life skills to the youths. For instance, Dzithandzeni Trades School in Garden Township offers carpentry skills to youths in the area. In addition, basic and secondary schools throughout the country strive in their resolve to prepare the youths for the development agenda of the country in terms of academic performance. "However, despite the availability of institutions that deal with the problems of youth development, none of them has scored any meaningful success as they all suffer from institutional weakness leading to their lack of operational capacity" (National Youth Policy 1994: 9).

Besides this institutional problem, youth development has been hampered by problems including lack of proper guidance and counseling among the youths, as well as their involvement in substance abuse, crime, prostitution and other vices. In most cases the youths engage in illicit practices because of lack of recreational facilities and the disintegration of the family, which is the nucleus of socio-economic development. But suffice it to say also that a lack of emphasis on human rights has greatly contributed to a loss of self-esteem, self-belief and determination among the youths in fighting for their own good and the well-being of communities where they live.

Belton M. Fleisher led the way in 1960s by analyzing effects of income and unemployment on juvenile delinquency (Fleisher, 1963, 1966). According to him, crime rates are positively associated with unemployment and low-income levels. The argument that lower income levels lead to higher crime rates was supported by a study conducted in 1973 by Isaac Ehrlich. However, it was Gary Becker's path breaking work that viewed criminals not as poverty stricken oppressed groups but rational economic agents. Like any other person, the potential criminal weighs costs/risks and benefits when deciding whether to commit a crime. Becker, however, states that, "some individuals become criminals because of the financial and other rewards from crime compared to legal work, taking account of the likelihood of apprehension and conviction, and the severity of punishment" (Becker 1968:176). Work

by Ehrlich and Becker in late 1960s and in 1970s gave birth to the theory of deterrence which argues that potential criminals weigh both the possibility of detection (and conviction) and the resulting sanction, monetary and non-monetary (Becker, 1968, Ehrlich, 1973, 1975, 1996).

Anderson (1990, 1999) and Massey (1995) discuss, on sociological grounds, the factors that affect poor residents living in isolated areas who must adapt themselves to such social surroundings. This, according to these studies, is done by giving extra weight to reputational aspects in their neighborhoods to reduce the risk of their own criminal victimization where this reputation is maintained through use of force. Fajnzylber, Lederman and Loayza (2000) have conducted cross country comparisons and found that across countries crime rate differentials are linked to growth and poverty and, to some extent, by demographic factors. Separate studies on South Africa and Madagascar, using cross sectional data, conclude that local inequality is significantly correlated with both property and violent crimes and burglaries and crop theft are expected to increase with poverty as people turn to crime to mitigate the effect of the shock on their lives (Demombynes and Ozler, 2002; Fafchamps and Minten, 2002). Lott (1990) postulates that the poor are more likely to engage in criminal activity due to their relatively limited access to capital markets; therefore, property crime is the poor person's method of borrowing against future human capital. Deutsch, Spiegel and Templeman (1992), however, argue that the poor are more likely to commit a crime because cost of punishment is less for them compared to the relatively high-income individual who has more accumulated wealth to lose.

The lacuna lies in the fact that a substantial body of evidence for possible determinants of crime and the empirical literature has originated in developed countries while any focus on an under developed country is a rarity. Fafchamps & Minten (2002) write, "At this stage in the law and economics literature empirical studies seem to convey that poverty does not have a substantial effect on crime." This has been confirmed of late by Dreze and Reetika (2000); Krueger and Pischke (1997); Doyle, Ahmed and Horn (1999); Morgan (2000) and Freeman (1996). As

pointed above, these evidences are largely based on data from rich countries, predominantly the U.S. There is an urgent need to verify whether the theories of crime originating in developed countries are relevant in developing countries. Fajnzylber, Lederman and Loayza (1998) have shown that crime rates in under developed countries tend to be equal to or higher than that of developed countries.

In one of the very recent contributions to this field of law and economics, Spamann (2008) shows, in a global cross-section of up to 213 countries that only level of economic development, income inequality and legal origin are robustly correlated with crime and punishment. His econometric results based on the broadest possible cross-section of countries suggest that countries with common law (English legal origin) are associated with half a standard deviation more inmates per capita than civil law origin and they also appear to have higher crime rates. He finds a positive association of crime with per capita GDP and income inequality but a negative one with unemployment.

2.0 Research Methodology

This was a mixed method study design. The design was chosen with a view of combining the collecting and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data to better understand the research problem in a single study (Creswell, 2012). Therefore, the research adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches that suited well a descriptive study. A mixed method approach was considered so that the researcher could have a holistic picture of the issue under investigation in this study as well as to overcome the weaknesses of each one of them and take advantage of their strengths (Creswell, 2009).

Although, quantitative aspects were to be used through the administration of questionnaires to collect data on correlation between unemployment, poverty and high crime rate among the youth with focus on Kaunda Square Stage One Township (Lusaka), quantitative data was only used to broaden the scope of data collected. The strengths of a qualitative approach as noted by Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) are that it allows the researcher to learn at hand, about the social world being

investigated by means of involvement and participation of individual actors.

2.1 Target Population

The intended population was residents of Kaunda Square Stage I in Lusaka district. The residents consisted of individuals of diverse socioeconomic backgrounds and races. Participants were asked if they were aged between 15 and 35 years to participate in the survey. Individuals under the age of 15 or older than 35 years did not participate because they did not fall under the definition of a youth. The study was solely an examination of a correlation between unemployment and poverty to high crime rate in Kaunda Square Stage I. The sample size for this study was calculated based on the population of 22, 217 people of Kaunda Square Stage I (CSO 2010). Using the sample size calculator for prevalence studies (Daniel 1999), the sample size was 100 participants with, a 95% *confidence interval*, and a 30% *expected prevalence and 9% precision*. Individuals were recruited using random sampling. Participants were recruited at various public places, including but not limited to, bus stations, grocery store/shops, restaurant, markets and clinics/health centers.

2.2 Sampling Technique

The cluster sampling method was used. The community areas in Kaunda Square Stage I were divided into five organization units and these included bus stations, restaurants, grocery store/shops, markets and clinics/health centers. Thereafter a random sampling technique was applied to the elements from each of the selected clusters to give equal chance to all the people in Kaunda Square Stage I community on the sampling frame to be part of the study.

2.3 Instruments for Data Collection

Regarding the primary sources, information was generated from the questionnaires that were administered. In this research, the questionnaire was used. It can also be pointed out that a questionnaire is by far the most frequently used instrument in educational research as an instrument for data collection (Nworgu, 2006). According to Fife-Schaw

(2001), the questionnaire is probably the single most common research tool that is relatively well understood and has the advantages of simplicity, versatility and low cost. Secondary Information came from the journals and other sources of reliable published literature.

Questionnaires were administered to 100 participants who came from different areas within Kaunda Square Stage I. Brehob (2001) in Kuter and Tilmaz (2001, p.66) defines a questionnaire as “a form that people fill out used to obtain demographic information and views and interests of those questioned”. Kirakowski (1998) in (Kuter and Tilmaz (2001, p.66) defines it as: “method for the elicitation and recording and collecting information”.

The advantages of questionnaires include the fact that information is collected from a large sample and diverse regions. Confidentiality is also upheld using questionnaires. A questionnaire also saves on time as opposed to an interview. In this study, on average a questionnaire took 30 minutes. In this study, the questionnaire was designed to cater for both quantitative and qualitative questions. Generally, the research adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods so that both situations of qualitative and quantitative are catered for in data acquisition.

2.4 Data Analysis Technique

All collected data by the result of questionnaires was entered into the Microsoft Excel program for analysis. The qualitative part was analyzed using content analysis were responses were grouped in similar thematic areas for easy aggregation and understanding of the trend of the data. Matrices were created to help identify patterns in the data. The matrices were for the open-ended questions for all respondents. Each row in each matrix represented one respondent. The matrices were useful in grouping the different responses within each theme, discerning differences and similarities between groups within themes, and making connections broadly between themes.

Triangulation is a powerful technique that facilitates validation of data through cross verification from two or more sources. The purpose of triangulation in qualitative research is to increase the credibility and

validity of the results. According to O'Donogue and Punch (2003), triangulation is a “method of cross-checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in research data.” For triangulation purposes, the research examined the consistency of different data sources from within the same method. For example, at different points in time, in public versus private settings, compared people with different viewpoints and examined the consistency between qualitative and quantitative responses by a respondent.

3.0 Research Question

Based on the aim of the study, the research questions are:

- a) What types of qualifications and skills are prevalent among the youths?
- b) What kind of jobs and wages are sustaining these youths?
- c) What are the causes of crimes that most youths are involved in?
- d) What kind of program has the government put in place to discourage these youths from involving themselves in criminal activities?

4.0 Findings and Discussion

The study sample was composed of slightly more females (51%) than males (41%) out of which 67% of the respondents were single, 27% married, 4% divorced while 2% were widowed. The average age of the respondents was 22.5 years. Education levels were low among the study sample as only 8 % of the respondents had attained tertiary education, with the remainder of the respondents having senior secondary education (56%), junior secondary 27%, primary education (6%) and no education (3%). The study showed that most of the respondents were self-employed 31%, 26% of the respondents were still in school, 16% were in formal employment, and 27% were unemployed. Although the study did not reveal what kind of accommodation the respondents had, the study showed that 50% of the respondents

owned the accommodation they lived in outright, 48% rented from private landlords, 1% lived in accommodation that was being bought on mortgage while 1% did not specify the kind of arrangement on accommodation they had.

Table 1: Background characteristics of the respondents

Characteristics	Count (n = 100)	%
Sex		
Female	51	51
Male	49	49
Age		
15-19	33	33
20-24	21	21
24-29	20	20
30-34	6	6
35-39	20	20
Marital Status		
Single	67	67
Married	27	27
Divorced	4	4
Widow/widower	2	2
Education Attained		
Nil	3	3
Primary	6	6
Junior Secondary	27	27
Senior Secondary	56	56
Tertiary	8	8

Occupation		
In School	26	26
Employed	16	16
Self Employed	31	31
Unemployed	27	27
Accommodation		
Owned outright	50	50
Being bought on mortgage	1	1
Rent from local authority	0	0
Rent from housing authority	48	48
Rent from private landlords	1	1
other		

4.1 Income and Benefits

Generally, this study has shown in most of the households that only one person received an income or other benefits as indicated by 47% of the respondents, 42% revealed that two persons in a household received income or other benefits while 8% of the households had three or more people receiving something while 3% of the households did not have any one receiving an income or benefit. Of the income and benefits received 84% were earnings from formal employment or self-employment, 1% from regular allowances outside the household, another 1% from other sources of income such as rent while 14% did not indicate the source of income and benefits.

The study further reviewed that most of the respondents have never been employed putting the number at 56%, 38% have been unemployed for 12 months or longer, 5% have been unemployed for 6 to 11 months while 1% have been unemployed for 3 to 5 months. According to the *2008 Labor Force Survey*, 15 to 34-year-olds make up 65 percent of the working

population, and youth unemployment was estimated at 28 percent. However, this study shows that 56% of youths have never been employed indicating a higher value from the 2008 Labour Force Survey of 28% due to school going respondents that participated in the survey. The study also shows that looking back over the last ten years 13% of the respondents had never been unemployed, 3% had been unemployed for 2 to 6 months in total, 6% had been unemployed for 7 to 12 months, 41% had been unemployed for over 12 months in total and 30% said that it was not relevant while 7% did not know. The effects of unemployment are in line with Ehrlich (1973) who considers that unemployment has its effects on crime rate. He says that unemployment rate can be viewed as a complementary indicator of income opportunities available in the legal labor market. Therefore, when unemployment rate increases, the opportunities in the legal sector decrease leading individuals to involve themselves in criminal activities.

4.2 Poverty

The study revealed that the average amount of money required per week to support a household of an average of 4 members was K471.60 which translates K16.80 per day per person. This value is less than \$2 per day per person. This is in line with what the World Bank estimated in 2013 that 74.3 per cent of the Zambian population lives on or below US\$ 1.25 a day. Poverty incidence in rural Zambia stands at around 80 per cent, compared with 34 per cent in urban areas. The study also found when respondents were asked to state how far above or below that level (K16.80 per day) their households were, the study revealed that 2% were a lot above that level of income, 26% were a little above that level, 16% said above the same level, 28% said a little below that level of income and 21% said a lot below that level of income while 7% did not know.

Lack of education and gender inequalities in tertiary education also limit the extent to which measures meant to accelerate improved nutrition, and infant and maternal outcomes can effectively deliver benefits. Limited access to primary, secondary and tertiary education is one of the major factors responsible for low economic opportunities in the rural areas. This further explains the high incidence

of poverty and low levels of human development in the rural communities (UNDP 1995).

4.3 Crime

Generally, this study has shown that over the last 10 years crime in Kaunda Squares Stage I was on the increase, as 73% of the respondents indicated although 13% said crime was decreasing and 5% said crime had stayed about the same level for the last 10 years while another 5% did not know. The study also revealed that crime was going to continue increasing over the next years as 46% of the respondents claimed so, 19% indicted that crime was expected to decrease over the next years to come and 9% said that crime would stay at the same level over the next years while 26% said that they did not know. The study further revealed that 56% of the respondents were they or other relatives in their households had something stolen off or damaged by vandals while 44% said that they or other household members did not experience any crime. In line with the above findings Fleisher (1966) studied the role of income on the decision to commit criminal acts by individuals. The author stated that the principal theoretical reason for believing that low income increases the tendency to commit crime is that the probable cost of getting caught is relatively low. It is because of the reason that low income individuals view their legitimate lifetime earnings prospects dimly they may expect to lose relatively little earning potential by acquiring criminal records. They feel that not only legitimate earnings are 'low' but also the opportunity cost of time spent in delinquent activity, or in jail, is low.

Respondents were further asked to give an opinion as to why people committed these crimes and in response 1% stated that most of the people that committed those crimes were unlucky, 16% said that it was due to laziness and lack of will power to work hard, and 67% said that it was a challenge to earn a living due to lack of jobs and business opportunity while another 16% did not know. In supporting the above argument, Coomer Nicole (2003) undertook a study to examine the influence of macroeconomic factors on crime. He applied Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression to find out the results. In his analysis, he first included unemployment, poverty,

prison population, and high school and college education level and income disparities as independent variables and run the regression to get the relationship. He then dropped the insignificant variables and rerun the regression and found that unemployment, inflation and poverty influence crime positively.

4.4 Mitigating Programs by Government

Over people that lacked things or necessities for a living in Kaunda Squares Stage I the study wanted to know how much the government was doing to help these people and in response 23% said the government was doing too much, 55% indicated that the government was doing too little, 7% said the government was doing about the right amount while 15% did not know. The study further revealed that there were a number of programs in place to reduce poverty out of which 3% thought that improvement in transportation would work best for them, 58% improving education or literacy and training of people in various fields would work best to improve their own livelihood, 1% said that access to affordable housing would work well, 23% said income and employment support could work best for them, 1% indicated awareness and collaboration of various programs would work best for them, and 3% preferred access to improvement and affordable health care would work best for them while 11% did not know the programs that would work best for them.

Unless the Government of Zambia undertakes initiatives to reduce unemployment and poverty in Kaunda Squares Stage I, crime will continue to increase. The Ministry of Finance and National Planning (MOFNP) is the lead government ministry responsible for creating a conducive and enabling environment for international cooperation to take place particularly between the private sector, donor community, multilateral and bilateral partners. MOFNP also ensures that line ministries are working in cooperation with international development partners (UN CP 2002). Many researches have been done in the area of poverty such as Living Conditions Monitoring Survey I and II, Priority Survey II and Poverty Participatory Assessment. To promote policy-related research, some programs such as

Public Welfare Assistance Scheme (PWAS), Health Care Cost Scheme (HCCS) as well as Literacy, Micro Bankers Trust (MBT), the National Trust for the Disabled (NTD) and hammer mill projects have been evaluated with assistance of the study fund (Zambia Social Investment Fund) UNESCO and other Agencies. In the case of PWAS, one major finding was that it was not reaching out to the poorest due to lack of publicity and those who knew and accessed the program were not necessarily the poorest. For literacy, the evaluation results indicated that the program provided only literacy and numeracy, which the participants could not easily translate into gainful activities.

5.0 Conclusion

The objective which this paper sought to achieve was stated in the introduction as the correlation between unemployment, poverty and high crime rate among the youth in Kaunda Squares Stage I. What emerged from this survey is a clear picture that shows a pattern of relationship between variables that are considered important for any constructive understanding of the linkage between unemployment, poverty and crime. The variables that were examined were education, unemployment poverty and crime in Zambia with emphasis in Kaunda Squares Stage I. The failure of leadership which led to bad governance in the country despite democracy confounded the problems of economic development and social fragmentation among the vast number of Zambians. The resultant effects of this poor economy, and social fragmentation were systemic poverty, unemployment, institutionalized social inequality. These factors are responsible for the current wave of crime in all its manifestations in Zambia specifically Kaunda Squares Stage I.

The challenge therefore is not so much in allocating resources towards effective policing in peri-urban areas, but in designing and evolving people-centered policies and strategies that would revive the economy, ensure equitable distribution of social wealth, and institutionalization of good governance, political accountability, and probity at all levels of governance in Zambia. Anything short of these steps would have counterproductive impact on the level of crime in Zambia's peri-urban areas like Kaunda

Squares Stage I. For in failing to address the problems associated with unemployment, poverty, authorities at all levels of government merely create the environment on which crimes are fostered and flourished. In the final analysis, tackling crime level in peri-urban areas boils down to addressing unemployment, poverty, bad governance, and inequality among the people.

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