CHAPTER II
Review of Literature

Introduction:-

Juvenile delinquency is not caused by one single factor. This issue is a global phenomenon, it happens in developed, developing and underdeveloped countries. Most
countries in the world have put in some procedure and programs to address the issue. There are multiple ways for prevention and rehabilitation of the young offenders. They offenders are often labeled individuals which becomes an obstacle in their growth in the later years of their lives. The government often looks at partners to overcome social problems, which is where the NGO’s play an important role during the recovery, rehabilitation and implementation of legislations which are bought about form time to time to benefit and help the delinquents come back into the main stream of the society. For the present study the literature that is review is broadly based on the objectives of the study to understand the issues from various perspectives, other related studies are also mentioned to get a holistic view.

The research work is based on empirical studies which carried by the experts in the related area and the inferences of such studies determined to follow courses of the research. Accordingly a critical review of related literature in the first milestone which lays the foundation for further study; In the present chapter the researcher has made an attempt to review the literature already available and research work already carried out with pertaining to the psycho-social problems of delinquent children in Karnataka State, India as well as in other foreign countries. The inference drawn and findings founded in the received literature would be an insight into the knowledge of researcher and which will also help him in bringing the gaps between precious studies and the present study.

Here is an attempt made as follows the review of findings found in the existing literature and research works that were conducted in eight areas relevant for the research study.

2.1 Socioeconomic conditions of juvenile delinquents studies related are mentioned below:-

Children are vulnerable to abusive practices is recognized in the Indian constitution most research to date has focused on children’s survival needs and social abuses, such as malnutrition child labor, child begging, child marriage and child prostitution (Banerjee 1979). A few early clinical studies of child injuries suggested that some mistreatment of children may be the result of harsh discipline from family members (Bhattacharyya 1983). At around the same time, Poffemberger (1981) offered one of the first to offer candid of explanation of parental discipline practices in his report of child rearing in rural India.
Suman (1985) in her noting has mentioned the paucity of systematic and quantitative data related to child physical and emotional abuse in India, called for research to document to prevalence of these phenomena and to identify the interacting factors that support of discourage child maltreatment within the family environment in response, several investigators have conducted small studies investigating the extent to which harsh and abusive practices occur within the context of child rearing and socialization (Segal 1992). Because there are no universal standards related to optimal child rearing or what might be considered child maltreatment, these early studies confronted the balance cultural norms against the well-being of children was observed.

Segal’s progression of empirical studies has shed considerable light on the extent of harsh child discipline practices and the perceptions of the public and professional regarding what constitutes abusive behavior (Segal1992) investigating cultural definitions of child abuse in India, Segalhas found very little difference in the perceptions of severity for different forms of child abuse among social works.

At the community level, it was found that social isolation, lack of social support and social change, such as migration away from family of origin have been identified in the United States as risk factors for child abuse (EgelandBrunguell 1979). In studies outside the U.S. Levision (1989) found that child abuse is less likely in extended family households where child care responsibilities can be shared. Increasing mobility of Indian families and movement away from extended family structure may increase the parenting stresses once absorbed within the joint family (Sinha 1984) other types of stresses that occur at the family level (example alcohol abuse, marital conflict or violence, large family size, and parent psychological problems) have been shown to increase the probability of child abuse (Whipple and Richey 1997). During 1985 survey of American families, it was found that Mothers who were victims of partner’s violence were at least twice as likely to physically abuse their children as mothers who were not.

Harsh discipline and child abuse have also been linked with family or parent socio economic characteristics, especially low income (Straus 1980) low material education (Brown 1998) closely spaced children and a high household crowding index (Attia&Kamel 1998) was found out in the study.
Characteristics of the child may increase the likelihood of severe discipline or abuse, especially when other risk factors are present. Wolfe has reported that the average age of abuse victims in the U.S. tends to be younger than the average age of all children (Wolfe 1987). Other have found age related to discipline practices, with parents more likely to physically discipline younger children and more likely to use nonphysical discipline techniques including verbal abuse older children (Jackson 1999). Children perceived as being difficult to parent or manage have been identified as being at higher risk (Tarter Mezzich 1996) especially when the mother is depressed and has few available supports. Poor health and handicapping conditions have also been found to be associated with child abuse (Bithony and New Berger 1987) possibly because the child is perceived as different or as the source of increased stress (Kotelchuck 1982) and are subjected to abuse.

The goal of this study is to determine the type and severity of discipline practices used in this area of central India and to analyze how characteristics of the social ecology are associated with these practices. Based on ecological theory and previous studies, we expected that high levels of family stress that is household crowding high members of children in the house, low members of adults in the house, domestic violence, and him/her having lived the community for less than 5 years and by material perception of poor support from neighbors would be associated with more severe discipline practices. At the individual level, low parent education child gender (male) younger child age, child disobedience and child health problems were also expected to be risk factor for more severe discipline practices.

Some parents, like those in Poffenberger’s study (1981) may resort to practices that they feel are in appropriate and potentially harmful. Identification of risk and protective factors related to different levels of severity in discipline practices used in India; and might help address the question of whether severe practices are normative or whether they at same point cross a line to become unacceptable or abusive. In this study risk and protective factors have been conceptualized using an ecological model that attributes family interactions (including child abuse and other family violence) to characteristics of the nested social ecology including the larger social the local community the family itself and finally the characteristics of the involved individual (Belsky 1980). As in all societies the treatment of children in India is likely a function of deep seated cultural
norms. Few would deny that there is societal tolerance for the use of corporal punishment, a cultural factor theorized as a risk factor for physical abuse (Zigler stall 1989) in addition, India is a patriarchal society in which the spiritual economic and social norms of everyday life reflect and extreme preference for male offspring and a corresponding denigrations of female children. As a result of female children have been at higher risk for selective feticide, infanticide poorer nutrition, poorer health care, poorer educational opportunities, kidnapping and forced prostitution (Poffenberger 1981) however no data indicate that females are more likely to experience harsh parental discipline than their male counter parts.

Singh and Kaur (1981) found that rural Indian mothers felt that girls need more instruction and discipline than boys they did not analyze the harshness or severity of actual child rearing practices by gender. In china another country where sons are venerated because they are seen as insurance against old age and poverty, boys are more strictly disciplined, perhaps because the stakes connected to their behavior and success are much high (Ho 1996, Tang 1998). It is reasonable to expect that the same family dynamics might contribute to hashes punishment of sons in India, gender bias could be seen.

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Culture and family, many scholars have speculated an indirect effect of ICD in which ICD disrupts family processes and complicates the typical generation gap during adolescent years by increasing misunderstanding and miss communications the later may eventually result in arguments and disagreement between parents and adolescent children (Macqueen 2003) however studies are limited that explicitly investigate this mechanism, using findings from Mexican American samples. Macqueen (2003) suggested that a high
level of acculturation among youth increased deviant behaviors, mediated by high levels of conflict and lack of secure bonding between parent and child; However their study did not test cultural conflict. Their underlying assumption was that the high level of acculturation among youth would likely produce cultural conflict between parents and children. The difficulty with this assumption is that without specifically testing the discrepancy in cultural values, it is impossible to identify parents level of acculturation parents may in fact be as acculturated as their children and hence the high level of acculturation of youth will not necessarily lead to dissonance, using the level of ICD reported by youth, we test the indirect and predictive role of ICD on problem behaviors by first hypothesizing that ICD lead to parent – child conflict, leads them to become truant and end up becoming delinquents.

Several sociologists have suggested that there is a connection between ICD and variety negative consequences for families and children, including troubled parent- child relationship psychological difficulties among family members and school problems among youth (Chung2001). However only a few studies have specifically examined the relationship between such dissonance and problematic behaviors, or the mechanisms through which ICD contributions to Youth problem behavior, it is possible that this dissonance leads to problems behaviors. August Aichhorm either directly or indirectly for example disrupting family processes that is increasing family conflict and weakening bonding between parent and child (Mc Queen 2003). A more specific understanding of ICD and its connection to problem behavior can lead to more effective interventions to prevent problem behaviors.

2.2 Studies done on emotional issues on social aggression, stressful events of life, substance abuse, sexual orientation, alcohol consumption leading to behavioral problems:-

Adolescent involvement with alcohol, drugs, tobacco, sexual relationships, and gang violence begins at increasingly younger ages.
According to Froeschle and Riney (2008), social aggression is a nonphysical form of bullying leading to consequences for both perpetrators and victims. Adlerian techniques are invaluable tools when confronting adolescents' feelings of inferiority and objectives of superiority and belonging (Thompson, Rudolph, & Henderson, 2004). Such feelings may lead to social aggression and consequently, social, psychological, and academic problems for involved students (Crick & Nelson, 2002). School counselors are in a position to help students substitute realistic for mistaken goals, thus improving a school's social climate, safety, and cohesion. This article offers details to help school mental health professionals recognize social aggression, discusses gender and age considerations along with costs associated with the behavior, and outlines a specific counseling program (Adlerian Art Therapy) based on Adlerian techniques to improve the school climate.

The central variables of stress, coping, and gambling severity were examined along three lines of inquiry by Bergevin, Gupta, Derevensky and Kaufman (2006). The first line addressed whether adolescents with gambling problems reported a greater number of minor or major stressful (i.e., negative) life events relative to others. The second examined whether more with gambling problems employed less-effective coping styles, such as those characterized as less task- or solution-focused, and more emotion- or avoidance-focused coping. Finally, the third question explored whether adolescents' coping styles mediated the association between stress and gambling severity. Ranging from 11 to 20 years of age, 2,156 high-school students completed instruments assessing gambling involvement, gambling severity, stressful life events, and coping styles. Results indicated that, overall, adolescents with gambling-related problems reported more negative life events relative to social gamblers and non-gamblers. When negative life events were further separated into major and minor events, results revealed that problem gamblers reported more major negative life events but not more minor negative life events relative to others. Results indicated that adolescents with gambling-related problems used less task-focused coping, and more avoidance-focused coping. Males, but not females, who experience gambling-related problems reported using more emotion-focused coping strategies. Finally, emotion-oriented coping was found to mediate the relationship between negative life events and gambling severity. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.
Rotheram and Stein (1999) when examined substance use, acts of sexual risk, conduct problems, and internalizing, externalizing, and somaticizing mental health symptoms among 239 adolescents (aged 11-19 yrs) and their parents living with AIDS in New York City. The assessment measures administered were constructs emerging from the creation of latent variables using a structural equational modeling approach. Other factors assessed were parental illicit drug use, health status, and internalizing of emotional distress, as well as adolescent alcohol and marijuana use. Consistent with theories regarding imitative behavior, stress, and anticipatory loss, adolescents' externalizing behavior problems and somatic symptoms were related to their parents' status.

Merrell and Caldarella, (1999) have examined the validity of the Home and Community Social Behavior Scales (HCSBS) for differentiating at-risk and non-at-risk students in grades 6 through 9, and evaluated psychometric characteristics of this instrument. Parent ratings of social competence and antisocial behavior on the HCSBS for a group of 160 students who were part of an at-risk prevention project were compared with those of 107 age-matched non-at-risk students. The at-risk group was rated as having significantly lower social competence and significantly higher rates of antisocial behavior than the non-at-risk group. Power analyses indicated that these group differences ranged from approximately 11/2 to 13/4 standard deviations. Item level HCSBS scores were also shown to correctly classify the students into their respective groups with a great deal of accuracy (92.37% overall). Internal consistency coefficients of the two HCSBS scales were uniformly high (in the mid .90 range). These results provide new and useful evidence regarding the significant social behavior problems exhibited by at-risk students, as well as preliminary evidence of the validity and usefulness of the HCSBS. Implications for further research and psycho-educational assessment practice are discussed.

Goff and Goddard (1999) have investigated the relationship of terminal core values to delinquency, substance use, and sexual behavior in a sample of 544 high school students. Students were classified according to their dominant value, and comparisons were made in regard to thirty-one indicators of delinquency, substance use, and sexual activity. As predicted by social control and strain theories, groups valuing fun/enjoyment and security were strongly identified with delinquency and substance use. Groups valuing self-respect, being well-respected, sense of accomplishment, warm relationships with
others, and sense of belonging exhibited low frequency of delinquent behavior and substance use. Sense of belonging tended to be related to lower sexual activity, while warm relationships with others and being well-respected were associated with the most sexual activity. Gender differences in problem behaviors were also explored. The implications for theory and intervention are discussed, and values self-confrontation is proposed as a method for reducing problem behaviors.

Using a daily diary approach for the study, Aldridge-Gerry, Roesch, Villodas, McCabe, Leung and Da costa (2011), evaluated the relationship between coping and alcohol consumption using a large, multiethnic sample. The primary goals of this study were to (a) identify coping strategies that are either protective or risk factors for alcohol consumption and (b) model between-ethnic and within-ethnic group variation for these relations. Method: College students (N = 365, 69.0% female) were recruited via flyers, course/club presentations, and university seminars. Participants completed Internet-based daily diaries over the course of 5 days and reported specifically on a target stressful event, how they coped with the stressful event, and the amount of alcohol consumed on a daily level. Results: Use of more avoidance-oriented coping strategies (minimization of stressor, emotional rumination) and social support were significantly associated with more alcohol consumption. Ethnicity, however, did moderate some coping–alcohol associations. Use of religious coping was associated with less alcohol consumption and minimization of the stressor was associated with more alcohol consumption in African Americans; use of social support was associated with more alcohol consumption in Asian Americans; and use of problem-focused coping was associated with less alcohol consumption in Whites. Conclusions: Three maladaptive or risky coping strategies with respect to alcohol consumption were identified using an ecologically valid methodology. However, ethnic-specific variation of these risky (and protective) coping factors was identified. The findings highlight the importance of considering both between-ethnic and within-ethnic group variation with respect to the stress/coping and alcohol consumption.

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Stanger, Higgins, Bickel, Elk, Grabowski, Schmitz, Amass and Kirby (1999) conducted a research on Cocaine- and opiate-dependent parents in treatment completed the Child Behavior Checklist for 218 boys and 192 girls (aged 2-18 years). The 330 children of drug abusers (CDAs) were demographically matched to a group of 330 children referred for mental health problems (RCs) and to a comparison group of 330 non-referred children (NRCs). Results show that RCs scored lower than CDAs and NRCs on most competence scales, and higher than CDAs and NRCs on all problem scales. CDAs scored lower than NRCs on most competence scales, and higher than NRCs on Withdrawn, Thought Problems, Delinquent Behavior, Aggressive Behavior, Internalizing, Externalizing, and Total Problems. Group status also predicted clinical range scores on most competence and all problem scales. CDAs showed more internalizing and externalizing psychopathology relative to matched NRCs, but they showed significantly less psychopathology than shown by matched RCs.

Dishion, Capaldi and Yoerger (1999) puts forward that initiations to substance use before ages of 15-16 years is a distinct risk factor for a variety of mental health problems and eventual drug abuse. Using multi-method, multi-agent measures of child, family, and peer antecedents at ages 9-10 yrs, the authors studied the longitudinal effects in an at-risk sample of 206 boys. Event history analysis was used to examine the antecedents to patterned alcohol and tobacco use as well as experimentation with marijuana. This between age group of 11-16 yrs. Univariate the models revealed that at Grade 4, most constructs were prognostic of boys‘ early substance use. Multivariate event history models clarified the risk and protective structure associated with tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana use. The level of inter correlation among the predictor variables however,
suggested that family, peer, and child characteristics were inextricably connected within an ecology of development. A structural equation prediction model suggested a higher order construct, which the authors call the childhood risk structure.

Sujatha Finnegan, Schmid, Perry and Wolfson, (1999) have assessed community leaders’ perceptions of adolescent alcohol use as a public health issue in 28 small communities in northern Minnesota, as part of formative evaluation for a community-based intervention to reduce adolescent alcohol access and consumption. One hundred and eighteen leaders (mayors, police chiefs, school representatives, business representatives, and newspaper editors) from 5 key community sectors were interviewed about their perceptions of social, health and alcohol-related problems in their communities. Analyses indicated that school representatives and police chiefs perceived adolescent alcohol use and related problems to be serious; newspaper editors mentioned other social problems more often; and mayors and business representatives did not perceive adolescent alcohol problems to be as serious. In relation to efforts to affect local policy, the study suggested government and business sectors in these communities may need to be educated about the problem to build its importance on the community agenda of health issues. Thus community leaders in some sectors may comprise a key target audience for intervention.

Using a risk and protective factor framework, Rodgers and Fleming (2003) examined personal, family and community level factors associated with alcohol use and abuse in a sample of 341 6th-12th grade Native American students residing on a reservation. Bivariate and multivariate analyses revealed that early initiation of alcohol use was related to use of alcohol but was not related to excessive alcohol use. Adolescents with higher stress scores were less likely to use or abuse alcohol than their peers with lower stress scores. High levels of parental monitoring and parental support were protective factors against alcohol use and abuse. Although 92% of the students believed their parents disapproved of teen alcohol use, parental values were not related to use or abuse of alcohol. The presence of a non-parental adult who was willing to monitor youth behaviors was a significant protective factor against alcohol use and abuse. Among teens who used alcohol, those who believed an adult in their community would monitor their behavior were three times less likely to report drunkenness in the past month than those who believed community members would not monitor them. In contrast, the
absence of non-parental monitoring within the community significantly increased the likelihood that an adolescent would use or abuse alcohol.

Nash, McQueen and Bray (2005) they have examined the relationships among family environment, peer influence, stress, self-efficacy, and adolescent alcohol use and to test for the potential moderating effects of parental expectations regarding adolescent alcohol use. Data were obtained from questionnaires completed by high school students (n = 2573) participating in a longitudinal study of substance use and other problem behaviors. Variables were lagged across three time points to reflect a causal sequence relating family environment to adolescent alcohol use through self-efficacy, peer influence, and stress. A latent measure of family environment included adolescents’ perceptions of parental acceptance, parental monitoring, and communication with parents. The latent measure of peer influence included use of alcohol by same-age peers and friends and friends’ approval of alcohol use. Observed scale scores were used for self-efficacy and stress measures, and the latent measure of alcohol behaviors included quantity, frequency, and associated problems. Structural equation modeling indicated good model fit, \( \chi^2 (144) = 831.69, p < .001 \), comparative fit index \((CFI) = .992\), root mean square error of approximation \((RMSEA) = .043 (.040, .046)\). Family environment exerted significant indirect effects on adolescent alcohol use through peer influence, self-efficacy, and stress, and parental expectations significantly moderated all structural paths. Parental expectations of adolescent alcohol use significantly moderated all structural relationships, and greater parental disapproval was associated with less involvement with friends and peers who use alcohol, less peer influence to use alcohol, greater self-efficacy for avoiding alcohol use, and lower subsequent alcohol use and related problems.

2.3. Studies done on impact of various government and NGO programs to prevent juvenile delinquency and strategies:

India has a glorious tradition of voluntary organizations. In the pre-Independence days, Rabindranath Tagore in his Santiniketan experiments showed how rural development could be brought about by integration of education and culture. Gandhiji in his Wardha
experiment showed how village industries could bring about the development of the poorest sections of the people in this country. (Malik-1995).

India became a welfare state and relevant provisions were included in the Constitution of India. Social welfare was included as part of the Five Year Plans. The major responsibility of organizing social welfare services continued with the voluntary organizations. Hence, even today it is the voluntary organizations that are taking care of welfare activities (Basant Kumar - 1995). The VII plan documents had anticipated that voluntary efforts would be forthcoming in a massive way for better implementation of anti-poverty and minimum needs programs (Malik - 1995).

The widespread belief that NGOs are more successful in reaching the poor in poverty reduction also resulted in rapid growth of funding for NGOs by government and external donors. As far as the government funding is concerned, there are over 200 government schemes initiated by the central and state governments through which NGOs can have direct access to resources for rural development (Reddy and Rajasekhar 1996).

The VII plan (1992-97), of government of India had a greater emphasis has been laid on the role of voluntary organizations in rural development. The plan document states: “A nation-wide network of NGOs will be created, in order to facilitate the working of this network, three schemes relating to the creation/replication/multiplication and consultancy development have been worked out by the planning commission (Malik - 1995).

The NGO as a social force facilitates collective action and people mobilization for the purpose of achieving the desired objectives partnering with the government. The NGOs are deploying various people-oriented as well as people-centered strategies, and these organizations build rapport with the people and mobilize them. The NGOs play in making the people environmentally aware and sensitive to take part in the development process (Biswa nbhar Panda et.al -2003).

The empowerment of poor, particularly approach and social mobilization are the possible process for eradicating poverty. Poverty can be effectively eradicated only when the poor start contributing to the growth process through their active involvement. Voluntary organization, community based self-help groups and local governmental organizations
have a substantial role to play says Sivasubramanian (1999). NGO plays a huge role in mobilizing the poor.

Karnataka, Maharashtra the girls from SC and BC are set apart under the name of wives of the godsjogins, who are actually harassed and exploited by the rich and powerful of the villages. (Kumar 2002) and prevented men from taking alcohol. Thus the illiterate SC women could gradually change the social scenario thanks to social mobilization process and initiatives, with the help of NGO’s and government.

Sundari and Geeta (2000) are of the opinion that the gender disparity in access to institutional credit is gradually narrowing down over time. Women should be encouraged to undertake micro enterprises with the available credit facilities by banks and other financial bodies. Poverty is often the consequence of unemployment, which being gender related, leads to feminization of poverty as poverty particularly affects women. However, authors suggest that factors such as training and skill formation, technology upgrading, credit women’s bank, supply of raw material and market, promotion of small savings and publicity could contribute to empowering women.

2.4. Models presented by panel of experts / NGO’s / state governments suggesting solutions:-

Recently, the revival and strengthening of Panchayati Raj Institutions-consequent upon the Constitution (73rd Amendment) Act, 1992- the NGO’s role has become more significant. In order to promote holistic and integrated development with the range of development schemes and programmes, the role of NGOs services and their involvement in the development process will be all the more in demand (Malik - 1995).

Various Role and Functions of NGOs

Voluntary action stimulated and promoted by voluntary agencies engaged in development play a significant role at the grass roots level in the Indian social milieu; the success of rural development depends upon the active participation of the people through Self Help Organizations. The various roles of NGOs are described below for better understanding.

a. Catalyze Rural Population
b. Build Models and Experiment

c. Supplement Government Efforts

d. Organizing Rural Poor

e. Educate the Rural People

f. Provide Training

g. Disseminate Information

h. Mobilize of Resources

i. Promote Rural Leadership

j. Represent the Rural People

k. Act as Innovators

l. Ensure People’s Participation

m. Promote Appropriate Technology

n. Activate the Rural Delivery System

In recent times, many Non-Governmental organizations have been concentrating social mobilization on contemporary issues of importance such as women empowerment, human rights, and implementation of various central and state government development programs. The NGOs in India have contributed significantly towards social mobilization and social activism through their intensive campaigns, people’s mobilization programs and effective networks.

Alleviation of poverty has persistently been on the agenda of the government. Various programs with contrasting methodologies have been tried, whopping funds expanded, yet the poverty seems indomitable. The Yojana (SGSY) is the latest poverty alleviation program integrating six erstwhile rural development programs, and it has been in operation since 1st April 1999.

The very sticking feature of this scheme is that it is quite different from earlier programs in terms of objective, strategy, methodology and sustainability. Obviating the loose ends
of the earlier programs, the Yojana intends to overcome poverty through generation of self-employment opportunities with a debatable participation, contribution and initiative of the poor themselves. Doing away with the targeted individual-centric beneficiary approach, the group approach is adopted, which is by itself a radical departure. The Yojana attempts to address poverty in all its dimensions through multi-pronged strategy.

Thus, this SGSY scheme focuses on Group approach by organizing the poor into self-help groups (SHG) through social mobilization process. Against this backdrop of this program, the SGSY’s guidelines emphasis on the role of NGOs and their significant participation in mobilizing people and in creating awareness among the people for the successful implementation of the SGSY schemes.

Voluntary organization is not a new phenomenon in our country recorded throughout history. Voluntary effort has always been an important part of our culture and social tradition. The need for organizing people into accredited associations and their involvement and participation in rural development have now been fully recognized. In recent years, they have increased in considerable number, acquired greater importance and significance and put up many new experiments in the field of rural development.

Voluntary organization can play a crucial role in rural development by supplementing government efforts as they are close to the minds and hearts of the rural people. They have their roots in the people and can respond to the needs and aspirations of the community very effectively. They can experiment new approaches to rural development. (Dhillon&Hansra - 1995)

2.5 Studies done on social mobilization to help change attitude and behavior

Social Mobilization is a complex process and it requires meticulous and continuous efforts for any purpose. The social mobilization process is of a particular quality and character. Social Mobilization involves people and their behavior. These behaviors are not static and keep on changing. It is impossible to control over the behavior of the people and subject to changing, progressing and reversing. Hence, Social Mobilization is
also a continuous process according to the change of minds, attitudes and behaviors of the people for making them to involve in any development process.

The NGOs and Government Departments are also struggling hard to organize the people through social mobilization process for eliciting their participation in the successful implementation of the development programs. Some have succeeded in the process and some are still struggling in progressive direction.

The concept of mobilization was first used to refer to the shifting of the control of resources from private-civilian to public-military process. More recently, it has been applied to a society’s deliberate increase in the control of a variety of assets, such as new nation’s mobilization of economic resources for development (Prasad 2003).

According to Jenkins (1983) “Mobilization is the process by which a group secures collective control over the resources needed for collective action. The major issues, therefore, are the resources controlled by the group prior to mobilization efforts, the processes by which the group pools Social Mobilization as means for Empowerment process.

Of late, great success has been achieved around the world in programs like immunization, eradicating illiteracy; empowerment of the weak and the underprivileged, creating self-managed institutions of the poor etc. One of the key elements responsible for this success has been the concept of social mobilization, the process of bringing together all feasible and practical inter-sectoral social allies to raise people’s awareness of and demand for a particular development program, to assist in the delivery of resources and services and to strengthen community participation for sustainable and self-reliance (Prasad 2003).

Social mobilization is about empowering the poor based on three vital parameters of power namely (Prasad 2003), a) their own capital, b) their own knowledge, c) their own organizations,

Its idea of empowerment is based on the assumption that there are three fundamental sources of power that is:

♣ Capital is power and for self-reliance, the habit of saving must be included
Knowledge is power; no development can be sustained without the process being grounded in one’s own knowledge base, culture and skills.

Organization is power for participation to be effective and dynamic; the groups must respect the principle of social, economic and cultural homogeneity Social Mobilization as means for Empowerment process

Social Mobilization, argues Reddy (2001) means the process in which major clusters of old social, economic and psychological commitments are eroded or broken and people become available for new patterns of socialization and behavior’.

Social mobilization is methodologies for making the poor contribute to economic growth. Rana (2001) is of the opinion that “social mobilization provides a non-violent way of the morass of deprivation, alienation, insecurity, political graft, and corruption experienced relentlessly over the past fifty years of development and democracy”.

Deutsch (1961) states that social mobilization is a name given to an overall process of change that happens to sustainable parts of human population in countries that are moving from traditional to modern ways of life. This specific process of change, he says, affects residence, occupation, social setting, associates, institutions, roles and ways of acting, demands and capabilities. Later, Deutsch gave a rather short hand definition of his concept of social mobilization as “the process in which major clusters of old social, economic, and psychological commitments are eroded or broken and people become available for new patterns of socializations and behavior”.

JarryGana (1987) argues, “Social Mobilization is the process of pooling together, harnessing, actualizing and utilizing potential human resources for the purpose of development. It is process whereby human beings are made aware of the resources at their disposal, and are also motivated and energized to collectively utilize such resources for the improvement of their spiritual and material conditions of living”.

Social Mobilization, according to Rana (1995a:5), may be defined as “the process of enabling the poor, marginalized and disenfranchised segments of society to build and manage their own organizations and thereby participate in decisions affecting their day-to-day lives through the use of their own creativity”.

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Social Mobilization, argues Cohen (1996), can also be defined as “a process of engaging a large number of people in joint action for achieving societal goals through self-reliant efforts. Its immediate expected outcomes are the mobilization of all possible resources and the sustained adoption/utilization of appropriate policies, technologies or services through the modification of attitudes and behavior of various social actors”.

Social Mobilization, according to Amarsinghe (2001), “is a process of organizing the target groups to take initiatives and assert themselves”. It seeks to make people more aware of the resources available to them, to raise their consciousness and to give them the motivation to undertake development activities for their own betterment in the long run social mobilization aims at empowering people to demand and generate the satisfaction of their needs.

Social mobilization is an approach and tool that enables people to organize for collective action, by pooling resources and building solidarity required to resolved common problems and work towards community advancement (UNDP, 2002). It is a process that empowers women and men to organize their own democratically self-governing groups or community organizations which enable them to initiate and control their own personal and communal development, as opposed to mere participation in an initiative designed by the government or an external organization (ibid, 2002).

Social mobilization is commonly considered to be an important dimension of capacity, organization and institution building, particularly, when relating to disadvantaged people. Social mobilization may occur at all levels. Most often, however, the term is used for activities in local communities, although not necessarily confined to such communities. When thus confined, the process is commonly referred to as community mobilization. This may involve whole communities or be limited to sections of communities (for instance, land-less people or groups of particularly poor women).

The interrelationship between community mobilization/participation and social mobilization needs to be clarified. For some, social mobilization seems to cover mostly social movements initiated from the top in which persuasion and/or ‘manipulation’ techniques are used to reach objectives on a massive and rapid scale. Conversely, community mobilization for participation is often viewed as spontaneous movements
initiated from the grassroots, which take the form of self-help and small-scale projects (Prasad 2003).

Avoiding this simplistic and counterproductive dichotomy, Cohen (1996) argues that community mobilization and social mobilization can be made unified parts of the same process of social change so that, ultimately, community mobilization is viewed as the community component of the national development process.

The forces of community awareness and social mobilization for development unleashed by the UNDP sponsored project motivated the rural community of Garhwal to move ahead on the already created path of development. And the all-women Self Help Groups took upon themselves the task of giving a fresh thrust to developmental acidities and community empowerment. Rightly and appropriately, RLEK christened this programme a “Prakriya”, meaning a process of change for the rural community. As pointed out by Kaushal, with a people-centered approach, Prakriya continues to focus on community mobilization and capacity rather than on the direct service delivery (Radhakrishna Rao-2005).

2.6 Studies on juvenile problems in school going children:-

Vietnamese and Cambodian youth have, adapted differently to life in the U.S. Vietnamese youth in general are faring well academically and behaviorally while Cambodian youth are doing less well (Kim 2002) Cambodian youth demonstrate greater academic difficulties on average (example high school dropout and truancy)and show signs of other maladjustment (Goldberg 1999), Chung (2001) report, that cultural conflicts are greatest among the Foreign-born parents and U.S. born children, a category into which a large proportion of Vietnamese and Cambodians Families now falls these two refugee / immigrant groups received some attention during their early year of settlement in the 1980s, particularly on the effects of war and refugee status and subsequent high rates of psychopathology and other adjustment problems among adults (Mollica 1987) yet little research has examined the adjustment of children whose parents may remain affected by their war-conflict experience. Thus despite the potential high vulnerability and Cambodian immigrant and refugee families remain particularly limited (Dinh 1994) comparative studies can provide valuable insights into ethnic-specific and common factors that predict youth behaviors including ICD and family dynamics and
conflict and any mediating effects across Vietnamese and Cambodian families can disparities between these two group and suggest appropriate interventions.

The "hopelessness" theory is a recent cognitive model of depression, according to which maladaptive attribution patterns in interaction with stress lead to the development and aggravation of depressive symptoms. It also suggests that attribution patterns and their interaction with stress are closely related to the specific constellation of symptoms, called "hopelessness depression", than to general depressive symptoms. The purpose of the study done by Kurtovis (2007), was to test the etiological predictions of the "hopelessness depression" theory on a sample of early to middle adolescents. The sample consisted of 419 students attending 7 and 8 grade of primary school, and 1, 2, 3 grade of high school. The results showed that attribution dimensions for negative events are related to symptoms of both depression and "hopelessness depression", but after the effect of self-esteem was partial, stability, internality and globalist of causes for negative events predicted only symptoms of "hopelessness depression", while having no effect on general depressive symptoms. Also, interaction of stability, internality and global of causes with negative events predicted only symptoms of "hopelessness depression", and not general depressive symptoms. The results did not support the assumption that "hopelessness" is a mediator in the association between negative attributions -- stress interaction and "hopelessness depression" symptoms (Kurtovik, 2007).

Using a sample of 615 middle school and high school students from both rural and urban areas of the People's Republic of China, study by Bao, Has and Pi (2004) tested the central hypotheses concerning the mediating model in Agnew's general strain theory. The analyses focus on the intervening mechanisms of negative emotions such as anger, resentment, anxiety, and depression that connect exposure to interpersonal strain with delinquent outcomes, including both serious delinquency and minor offenses. The results show that anger mediates the effect of interpersonal strain on violence, resentment mediates the effect of interpersonal strain on nonviolent delinquency, and anxiety and depression have a mediating effect on the relationships between interpersonal strain and minor offenses. The findings are generally consistent with the results of earlier studies in the United States.
With 235 problem students and 143 normal students from grade 7 to grade 9, Fuyi, Fujuan, and Qindi (2004) studied problem students' self-esteem and its related factors. The results indicated that (1) Problem students' level of self-esteem was generally lower than that of normal students in grade 7 and grade 8, with grade 9 as an exception. That was related to normal students' significant descending of self-esteem in grade 9; (2) No significant grade or age difference existed in problem students' development of self-esteem. Nevertheless, with age increasing, normal students' self-esteem had a significant descending trend; (3) there exists a significant correlation between problem students' self-esteem development and their parents' parenting styles. There also existed a very significant correlation between problem students' self-esteem development and their stress level caused by life events. Problem students' stress level caused by negative life events was significantly higher than that of normal students; (4) There was a very significant correlation between problem students' self-esteem and their level of mental health, which implied that the development of self-esteem was one of the important factors that influenced problem students' mental health.

Esposito and Clum (2003) examined the relative importance of diagnostic and psychosocial factors in the prediction of adolescent suicidal ideation. Seventy-three High school students exhibiting emotional disturbance in the school setting completed a diagnostic interview and self-report measures assessing social support, family environment, negative life events, and problem solving. Using hierarchical regression analyses, only the presence of a pure internalizing disorder predicted suicidal ideation in addition to psychosocial variables. Interactions were found between psychiatric disorders and psychosocial variables. These results underscore the importance of including both diagnostic and psychosocial variables in research examining risk factors for adolescent suicidal behavior. Further, they suggest that adolescents presenting with psychiatric disorders, high levels of stress, and poor social support networks should be monitored for suicidal tendencies.

Prior, Smart, Sanson, and Oberklaid (1999) explain using data from the Australian Temperament Project; the authors examined associations between DSM-diagnosed disorders and types of learning difficulties. Clinical (N = 183) and comparison (N = 96) groups of 11-12-yr-old children were assessed on behavioral and learning indices and also completed a structured diagnostic interview. Longitudinal data were available from
earlier surveys of the development of these children. Results show that the clinical group were disadvantaged on all learning and behavioral indices, and their problems in many cases had been evident from 7-8 yrs of age. There were specific associations between types of learning difficulties and both internalizing and externalizing disorders. Numeracy difficulties were strongly associated with DSM diagnoses for both boys and girls, and externalizing problems tended to co-occur with a combination of learning problems. It is concluded that behavioral maladjustment in many domains is strongly associated with learning difficulties even after intelligence and socioeconomic factors are controlled.

Waddell and Margot (1999) describe in the Adolescent Department of the Tavistock Clinic, what is called assessment follows an initial "intake" decision to accept the referral of an adolescent as someone who, in principle, might benefit from the services that the department can offer. The assessment sessions, usually up to four, offer the troubled young person an opportunity to engage in a thinking process; to explore the degree of motivation in seeking help; to deal with the impact of beginning to look at private or hidden things; and to develop the capacity to sustain the scrutiny, to bear the possible discovery and to risk change. This can be described as a process, one that may dispense almost entirely with case history-type procedure and focus, rather, on a "thinking together," which takes the facts into account but which also introduces an unusual way of working that may bring with it further disturbance, as well as relief. The contrasting assessments of two young women, Sarah aged 19 and Anne aged 16, may lend some specificity to the "process" under discussion.

Berzonsky, Nurmi, Kinney and Tammi (1999) studied Identity processing style refers to the manner in which individuals approach or manage to avoid identity-relevant problems and decisions. Two studies were designed to investigate the relationship between identity style and the specific cognitive and attribution strategies youth deploy in achievement and affiliate contexts. In Study 1, 198 American late-adolescent undergraduates completed the revised Identity Style Inventory and a Strategy and Attribution Questionnaire. In Study 2, 109 Finnish, in late adolescence completed the same measures. Study 1 revealed that diffuse/avoidant-oriented American youth relied on maladaptive strategies in both contexts. Information-oriented youth engaged in more strategic planning than did their normative and diffuse/avoidant counterparts. Study 2
indicated an identical pattern of associations among the identity processing styles and cognitive and attribution strategies for Finnish youth in achievement but not in interpersonal settings.

Children today are dealing with adolescent problems which they are ill-equipped for. Oddly enough, some parents and teachers choose to avoid these topics. Treating this adolescent problem as if they do not exist led to the alienation of many problems.

Study by Estévez, Musitu, and Herrero (2005) examined the role of adolescents' interactions with both parents and teachers in the relationship between violent behavior/victimization at school and adolescent psychological distress (depression and stress). Participants were 983 Spanish adolescents (mean age 13.7 years) from four public schools in the Valencian Community. Statistical analyses were carried out using structural equation modeling. Results showed victimization to be directly and positively related to psychological distress. Moreover, victimization was associated with negative father-adolescent communication, which mediated a part of the influence of victimization on distress. Regarding school-based violent behavior, no direct effect on psychological adjustment was found. Results showed, however, an indirect effect: violent behavior negatively influenced communication with parents and interaction with teachers which, in turn, was related to poor psychological adjustment. This model accounted for 47.7% of the variance in psychological distress. Findings are discussed in relation to previous research on adolescent psychosocial adjustment, and directions for future research are suggested.

In order to better understand the relationship between stress and coping, it is important to understand and explain how and why, as well as when, and under what conditions the effects of various antecedent variables exert their effects on adaptation outcomes. Hudek-Knežević, Kardum and Barbara examined the mediating and moderating effects of various sources of stressful events and coping styles between dimensions of the five-factor model of personality and perceived frequency of physical symptoms. These problems were examined in a representative sample of 948 students from the fifth to the eight grade of elementary school. The results of hierarchical regression analyses show that stressful events connected to relationships with teachers and parents/family significantly moderate the effects of neuroticism on physical symptoms.
The frequency of physical symptoms increases more as a function of stress intensity connected to relationships with teachers in adolescents high in neuroticism than in emotionally stable adolescents, while an increase in stress intensity connected to relationships with parents/family increases the frequency of physical symptoms more in emotionally stable adolescents. When considering coping styles, only problem-focused coping moderates the effect of neuroticism on physical symptoms, so that in emotionally stable individuals an increase in problem-focused coping is related to a decrease in physical symptoms, while in individuals high in neuroticism it is related to an increase of the frequency of physical symptoms. The results of two path analyses show that stressful events partly mediate the effects of neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion and openness/intellect on the frequency of physical symptoms. Regarding coping styles, emotion-focused coping partly mediates the effect of extraversion, and avoidance to cope with the effect of neuroticism on physical symptoms.

Natvig, Albrektsen and Qvarnstrøm (2003) examined associations between psychosocial factors and happiness among adolescents. 887 7th-9th grade students (average age 13-15 years) residing in Norway and participating in a World Health Organization project on health-promoting schools completed questionnaires concerning personal and psychosocial factors and associations between happiness and experiences of stress at school. Results show that an increasing degree of stress experience reduced the feeling of happiness significantly. Increasing levels of general self-efficacy increased the odds of feeling happy, whereas the more specific measure of school self-efficacy showed no independent effect. Social support from teachers also enhanced happiness significantly. A less consistent pattern was found for support from peers, but the happiest adolescents experienced significantly more support than did adolescents who reported being unhappy. No significant trend was found concerning decision control feeling unhappy reported a particular symptom more often and they also had the highest mean number of reported symptoms.

The three-wave prospective study by Torsheim, Aaroe and Wold (2003) investigated the reciprocal relationships among school-related stress, school-related social support, and distress in a cohort of 767 secondary school students (mean age 13.9 years). Stress, support, and distress were measured at three occasions with six-month lags between. Reciprocal relationships were analyzed with multivariate multilevel modeling.
Each of the three factors at baseline predicted change in one or two of the other factors at subsequent measurements, indicating a complex pattern of reciprocal relationships among stress, support, and distress across time. A high level of distress at baseline predicted a lower level of support and a higher level of stress six months later. High levels of stress at baseline predicted a higher level of distress and a lower level of support 12 months later. The results are consistent with a transactional and dynamic model of stress, support, and distress, and indicate the need to view school-related stress, support, and distress as mutually dependent factors.

Liu (2003) studied the relationship of students’ self-efficacy, locus of control, and stress. 489 students, including 138 college students (mean age: 20.83 years), 222 high school students (mean age: 16.0 years), and another 129 high school students (mean age: 19.06 years) who were facing a national examination were selected. The Self-Judgment Inventory, the Adolescent Life Event Scale, the Self-Efficacy Scale for Middle School Students, the Text Anxiety Scale, and the Inner Control Potential Scale were applied to these student groups. The results show that only in male students, there was a significant negative correlation between stress and self-efficacy. The level of stress of female students was higher than that of male students. There were significant negative correlations between stress and self-efficacy in learning mathematics and between stress and internality. The positive correlations existed between stress and powerful others and between stress and chance. Multi variance regression analysis shows that the main factors associated with stress were gender, self-efficacy, and chance. The study concludes that it is necessary to train students to raise their self-efficacy and improve their attribution pattern in order to reduce the negative impact of stress.

Kaplan, Liu and Kaplan (2005) tested the hypothesis that educational expectations of junior high school students in interaction with school-related stress during early adolescence would adversely affect grades during high school. Multiple regression analyses of data from home interviews of 1034 students during junior high school and 3 years later during high school supported the hypothesis that early adolescent school-related stress both independently and in interaction with high academic expectations negatively affected academic performance three years later. These results suggest that for students in high stress school environments, an increase in academic expectations
may serve to increase their school-related stress and impede their academic performance.

Several studies emphasized the key role of the cognitive appraisal processes on the way stress is experienced by adolescents. Surprisingly, few studies applied this concept to the academic stress. Govaerts and Grégoire (2004) did their study on adolescents’ cognitive appraisal processes and their relationships with academic stress. A sample of adolescents (N = 100, mean age = 16.9 years) reported 145 academic stressful situations. Sex and age differences were analyzed. Girls granted greater importance to the stressful situation, while boys perceived themselves as having more resources for coping with it. Student's age was negatively correlated with the perception that the stressful situation will be resolved on its own. Five appraisal patterns were identified using cluster analysis. Subsequent analysis showed that the five groups differ in their perceived degree of stress. One group was labeled at-risk appraisal group, demonstrating a high level of perceived stress, and two groups showed a favorable appraisal pattern associated with low level of perceived stress. Implications for future research and applications in school psychological treatments are suggested.

Shi-jie, and Guo-an (2004) explored the relationship of stressful life events, coping styles and emotional disorder. Methods: 345 junior middle school students were collected as sample. They were tested with Stressful Life Event Questionnaire, Coping Style Questionnaire. Results: The coping style played an important role on the anxiety and depression; and stressful life events influenced the anxiety and depression indirectly through the coping styles. Anxiety and depression were determined by the emotional-focused coping styles.

Prior research examining children's ratings of stressful life events indicated that, by the time children are in sixth grade, they fear only going blind and losing a parent more than academic retention. Study by Anderson, Jimerson and Whipple (2005) provides a contemporary analysis of elementary grade students' perceptions of stressful life events at home and school. First-, third-, and sixth-grade students in five different schools rated the stressfulness of twenty life events. Across grade levels, those events rated as most stressful by children were: losing a parent, academic retention, going blind, getting caught in theft, wetting in class, a poor report card, having an operation,
parental fighting, and being sent to the principal. Overall, the student ratings in the current study were consistent with previous research findings. One difference was that grade retention was rated as the most stressful life event by the sixth-grade students in the current study, whereas it was ranked the third highest in previous research. The results are framed within a developmental perspective, with a discussion of the psychosocial implications of the child's view of retention and other stressful life events.

Ary, Duncan, Duncan and Hops (1999) Presents evidence that the G. R. Patterson et al (1992) model of development of antisocial behavior in children generalizes to the development of a wide array of problem behaviors during later adolescence and that youth antisocial behavior, high-risk sexual behavior, academic failure and substance use form a single problem behavior construct. Structural equation modeling methods were applied to 24-month longitudinal data from 204 adolescents (mean age 15.98 years at 1st assessment) and parents. The model fit the data well, accounting for 52% of the variance in adolescent problem behavior. Specifically, families experiencing high levels of conflict were more likely to have low levels of parent-child involvement. These family conditions were related to poor parental monitoring and association with deviant peers one year later. Poor parental monitoring and associations with deviant peers were strong proximal predictors of engagement in an array of problem behaviors at two-year follow-up.

Belle and Deborah (2004) describes that millions of school-age children in the US get out of school each day before their parents get home from work. Some participate in after-school programs and some are supervised by older teenagers or other adults, but many are on their own, either at home or somewhere else. Are these latchkey kids at risk for behavioral, emotional, or educational problems? Or do they benefit from the challenge of structuring their own time and taking care of themselves? In this volume, psychologist Deborah Belle discusses the societal, familial, and individual factors involved and reports on a 4-yr study that examined the after-school lives of a wide variety of children. Her research--described in both scientific and human terms--illuminates the complexity of the problem and encourages us to consider the broad array of answers that defy simple classification into positive and negative outcomes. The perspective offered here will be of value to all those concerned with the welfare of
children and their families, whether they be scholars, educators, policymakers, or parents and community leaders.

Simons, Crump, Haynie and Saylor,(2004) examined the relationship between middle school problem behavior student-school bonding in the 7 middle schools in one US school district. Surveys were completed by 4263 6th-8th graders. Student-school bonding was positively correlated with school adjustment and perceived school climate, but inversely correlated with problem behavior. Problem behavior was significantly higher among males than females and among students in high grades. Conversely, school bonding, climate and adjustment were significantly higher among females than males, but declined significantly from one grade to the next. The data support the conclusion that school bonding is associated with problem behavior. The development of a multiple-component intervention in middle schools to increase student-school bonding and prevent problem behavior is also described.

Lemos, Fidalgo, Calvo and Menendez,(1992) studied the self-reported behavioral and emotional problems and psychosocial competencies of 11-18 yr olds from the general population of the Spanish region of Asturias. Human subjects: 706 normal male and 858 normal female Spanish school-age children, adolescents, and adults (aged 11-18 yrs) (6th-8th graders, high school students, and technical and vocational school students). An ANOVA and an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were performed. Mean total problem scores on the Youth Self Report and Profile were compared with results obtained for European and American age-matched samples. Tests used: The Youth Self Report and Profile, the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Junior) and the Multidimensional Health Locus of Control Scale. (English abstract)

Dill, Anderson, Joiner, Thomas Coyne and James ((1999) explain loneliness as an important interpersonal mediator between causal factors and depressive outcomes. Many of the interpersonal risk factors, such as self-silencing, involuntary subordination, shyness, and the lack-of-connection schema, could contribute to loneliness, which, in turn, heightens depression vulnerability (i.e., loneliness may mediate the relations between all of these risk factors and depressive symptoms). (from the chapter) Topics include: the role of modern society; everyday problems in living (definitions, interrelationships, treatments, prevention); a note on attribution style; shyness
(antecedents of shyness, consequences of shyness); loneliness (antecedents of loneliness, consequences of loneliness); depression (antecedents of depression, consequences of depression); and treatment of shyness, loneliness, and depression.

2.7 Studies done on curative rehabilitative work on juvenile delinquents:-

Juvenile delinquents are coming into the juvenile justice system with an array of problems that have caused them to commit delinquent acts (Mincey, Maldonado, Lacey, &Thompson, 2008). Once juvenile delinquents finish their sentience, they must re-enter society. Correctional facilities that oversee the rehabilitation process for juvenile delinquents have to address problems that include:

a. Receiving adequate treatment that rehabilitates the juvenile offender so they are less likely to recidivate.

b. Making sure the juvenile delinquent has realistic and obtainable resources and means to make it in society

c. Making sure the juvenile delinquent is fully aware and ready for the transition back into society

Many juvenile delinquents, male and female are faced with issues such as poverty, substance abuse, and being victims of child abuse and rape (Mincey et al., 2008). Any of these issues can trigger the juvenile to lash out and commit delinquent acts. The question is what happens next? The juvenile delinquent commits the delinquent act, is found guilty, and they serve time in a correctional facility. They go through the juvenile justice system and they get the opportunity to have a second chance. Juvenile criminal offenses are a significant societal problem with great financial and social costs (Bradshaw &Roseborough, 2005). What is the next step for these juvenile delinquents once they get out of the system and try to reintegrate back into society?

2.8. Studies done on parent-child conflict, aggressive behavior of children that have led to delinquent problems:-
At the same time, studies have shown that parent-child conflict and bonding significantly and independently influence youth behaviors specifically they both influence substance use and decant behaviors among Mexican American youth (MCQueen 2003) and depression and conduct problems, among an ethnically diverse sample of youth. Further showed that parent-child conflict bonding partially and significantly mediating the effect of perceived conflicts. A clearer understanding of these relationships can help develop specific and effective interventions.

Information on the amount of Violence in Families shows that it is not rare phenomenon. Violence of course, represents a rather extreme example of the Failure of supportiveness. It is found in every kind of family and it can reach extreme levels. For example family fights are one of the most frequent reasons for police calls. In fact domestic violence is one of the leading causes of death among woman and is the most common cause of nonfatal injury (Lower and Laver 2000)

Family Violence may take the form of spouse abuse, child abuse or abuse of parents. (Including the abuse of elderly parents by adult children) Abuse of parents is probably less common than the others. For instance, in a survey of 469 university students, Browne and Hamitton (1998) found that 14.5 % acknowledged using violent tactics with a mother or father and 3.8% admitted that they were severely violent students also reported being maltreated by their parents in earlier years.

Jaffe (1990) and Edelson (1999) observed that conflict between parents frequently affects their young children; children who witness marital violence face increased risk for such emotional and behavioral problems as anxiety, depression, poor school performance, low self-esteem disobedience, nightmares and physical health complaints. However MCCOSKSY (1995) stressed the point that, such children also are more likely to act aggressively during childhood and adolescence. In the same vein Spacceralli (1995), further observed that, children who witness violence between their parents often developed many of the same behavioral and psychological problems as children who are themselves abused.

Bullying in generally viewed as a specific from of aggression most authors describe bullying as repeated and lasting negative actions of or more children directed to a specific child (the Victim ) are typically not able to defend themselves Farrington (1993)
some authors make a distinction between direct (overt) bullying and indirect (covert, relational) bullying. Direct bullying includes all sorts of physical and verbal aggression such as kicking, hitting, treating, name calling and insulting. Indirect bullying includes aspects of social isolation such as ignoring, excluding and backbiting. Direct bullying more frequent in boys, indirect bullying more frequent in girls (Whitney 1993). The prevalence of being bullied among children decreases with age and varies according to ethnic origin (Lagerpets & Kaukiainen 1992).

Bullying has a negative impact on psychological health. Being repeatedly bullied has been associated with an increased risk of depression, suicidal ideation and loneliness (Salmon 1998). Being a bully is also associated with poorer health outcomes. For example, delinquency and depression has been linked to being a bully (Nansal 2001). It is possible that the impact of bullying differs for girls and boys and for direct and indirect bullying. However, bullying research has mainly been focused on boys and on physical and verbal forms of bullying. Only recently has the focus also shifted to girls and indirect forms of bullying.

The study investigated the association between direct and indirect bulling and 3 indicators of psychological health (depression), suicidal ideations and delinquency) among children aged 9 to 13 years in Amsterdam.

Maudsley (1835-1918): Believed that insanity and delinquency behavior were strongly linked together and he said “crime is sort of outlet in which their unsound tendencies are discharged; they would go mad if they were not animals and they do not go mad because they are criminals.”

Healy and Bronner (1926) focused their research on the individual, his conflicts and his early family relationship and the way such factors influenced criminal behavior.

Reckless Murray (1960) in their theory of self-concept assumed that a negative self-image or self-concepts is conducive to the development of delinquent behavior.

Thrasher 1920-25: studied delinquent boys in Chicago and concluded that these gangs are congregations of those who have purposively withdrawn from society to rebuild themselves in order to show and demonstrate their strength in the society in order to achieve various ends.
Miller (1958) views delinquency as a product of the values and attitudes that the ingrained in all elements of the lower class culture. Ingram (1974) found family structure to have important bearing on delinquent behavior of child Dornbusch’s (1985) study revealed that both decision-making contribute distinctly to adolescent’s deviant behavior Rankin 1983 found that broken homes were highly associated with family offences such as running away from home and school truancy rather than with other types of Juvenile delinquent activities.

2.9. Studies done on role of media showing violence that has led to delinquency:-

The role of media violence in affecting psychological variables such as thoughts, feelings, and aggressive behaviors is well-established (Anderson & Bushman, 2002b; Bushman & Anderson, 2009), its relation to the psychopathology of serious juvenile offenders is only beginning to be understood. The present data show that playing violent video games and/or having a preference for violent video games is correlated with delinquency and violence even when considering the effects of a battery of correlates of delinquency including psychopathic—a construct whose relation to crime is so robust it has been likened to a unified theory of crime (DeLisi, 2009). It is important to acknowledge that the current data are limited by their cross-sectional nature.

A prospective, longitudinal design where delinquents are followed over time to examine ways that their violent video game playing (and other behaviors) impacts their subsequent behavior was not possible, and such a design is an important avenue for future research. Nevertheless, although such cross-sectional data do not, by themselves, demonstrate a causal relation between violent video game exposure and violent criminal behavior, they rule out the alternative explanation that the association is merely the result of a confound with some other indicator of antisocialist (in the current models, psychopaths and other important correlates of delinquency and youth violence). At a minimum, the present results—in combination with other robust findings on video games and aggression (Anderson et al., 2010)—suggest that violent video game exposure may be one risk factor for delinquency and violent criminal behavior among juvenile justice-involved youth in addition to being a risk factor for lower level aggressive behaviors. Although the study of serious, violent, and chronic juvenile delinquency is a central research area in criminology and criminal justice, it has developed in almost complete
isolation from the psychological study of violent video games and aggression. In this sense, the current study serves as a bridge to connect these literatures.

On one hand, the use of clinical samples of juvenile delinquents allows researchers to control for the relative effects of media variables and delinquency history, personality, and other risk factors. This benefits psychology. On the other hand, the addition of violent video game playing and attitudes toward violent video games provides two additional risk factors that are associated with violence and delinquency. Indeed, only psychopathy and the violent video game measures in the current models were significantly associated with the outcome measures. This benefits criminology and criminal justice. What are the implications of the current study for juvenile justice practice? We are reluctant to be too bold with policy recommendations given the newness of the research area vis-à-vis serious juvenile delinquents; however, there are considerations to be heeded. It is estimated that children in the general population consume on an average roughly 3 hr of electronic media, such as video games every day (Weiss, Baer, Allan, Saran, & Schibuk, 2011). This is a population average that encompasses the majority of youth who are mostly pro-social and engage in relatively few maladaptive behaviors. The estimate of daily electronic media consumption among youth in the psychiatric population is 6 hr per day (Weiss et al., 2011). The average amount of screen time among youth in the current sample was nearly 10 hr of screen time per week, with the most frequent users reaching 40 hr of electronic media per week.

A substantial part of this screen time is devoted to violent video games which were shown to be associated with serious delinquency and serious violence. Juvenile justice practitioners who supervise youth in any context should be aware of this important risk factor. One reason for the popularity of video games is that their consuming nature provides quiet babysitting for adults whether the adults are parents at home, school resource officers monitoring students at school, juvenile probation officers checking the daily activities of their clients, or clinical social workers monitoring youth in residential treatment. The consumption of violent media is far from innocuous, and when violent media consumption in the form of video games is viewed by adults as a “reward” for youth to spend their free time, it can be problematic. Youth with pre-existing psychopathology are particularly at risk for the deleterious effects of violent video games, and much more research is needed on correctional samples of youth to ascertain
the severity of violent video games and related media factors as risk factors for their behavioral problems.

**Conclusion:-**

After collating studies on various aspects of delinquent behavior there has not been much study done on the role of NGO’s in rehabilitating the delinquents in a metropolitan city like Bangalore, where there is huge gap between the haves and the have-nots. The city becomes a fertile ground for juvenile delinquents, it’s only with the help of government and NGO partnership can there be some intervention for city with a heterogenous population. The present study would help to find the clusters where delinquency is rampant and rehabilitation programs can be planned. So this study is important in the present day context and would act as platform to the bridge the gap in the future.