Chapter – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research activities have resulted in considerable output of scientific literature and the number of periodicals has grown. The review of literature is very important not only to understand the nature and scope of the problem but also the lacuna exist if any in the work already done by several earlier workers. An overview of review of literature pertinent to the present problem has been made. The literature has been collected from books, journals, published and unpublished material, local, national and international dailies, websites etc.

2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW
2.2.1 Violent Behaviour

According to the U.S Bureau of Justice Statistics [1992] when just serious crimes are considered 28 per cent of these were committed by persons under age 18. This included: 14 per cent of all murders, 15 per cent of all rape cases, 24 per cent of all robberies and 43 per cent of car thefts in addition to theft, vandalism, teasing and bullying which are extremely rampant.

French S.A. and Story, M. (1995) opined that juvenile delinquency refers to the predisposition to and indulgence in criminal or unlawful activities by children under the age of 18.

Resnick, P.J. (1998) presented a detailed examination of the control and behavioural beliefs underlying the two constructs, perceived control to desist from offending and attitudes towards offending, can guide to the specific needs that are perceived as criminogenic by the young offenders and potentially inform the content and the direction of any intervention programmes within the correctional settings of young offenders aiming at reducing levels of recidivism. Two dimensions of child-rearing practices, parental care and protection, were examined in relation to normative data, background characteristics and cognitive representations of future offending, and it was found that the relation between perceptions of parenting and intentions of re-offending was mediated by attitudes towards offending in the future. In addition, the associations of moral disengagement, as a failure of self-regulation of morality with past recidivism rates and age of initiation of offending were examined, and were found, contrary to
expectations, mainly unrelated. However, the overall score of Moral Disengagement of the young offenders was significantly higher in comparison to normative data. The results suggest that Moral Disengagement could be a factor differentiating young people involved in criminal activity and processed by the legal system from young people who are not involved in criminal activity and/or are unaffected by official monitoring. Moral Disengagement, however, might not be related with frequency of offending within groups of young people in the correctional institutions. Moral Disengagement was also found mainly unrelated with background characteristics of the young offenders, suggesting that self-regulation of morality is relatively independent from influences from the social environment. Finally, the relations of Moral Disengagement and cognitive representations of offending in the future were discussed in terms of self-regulation of hierarchically organized feedback loops.

Juvenile delinquency is distributed through all socio-economic status levels. Tygart C.E [1998] for example found that youths of high socio-economic status [SES] were more likely to be involved in school vandalism than youth of low SES. Community and neighbourhood influences are also prime concern. Most of the larger communities have areas in which delinquency rates are higher than in other neighbourhoods, e.g. shanty towns. Shanty towns are typified by antisocial behaviours as gambling, prostitution, theft and robberies, alcoholism and drug abuse. In Malawi such communities include Ndirande in Blantyre; Chinsapo and Mchesi in Lilongwe and Masasa in Mzuzu.

Stuck et al. (2000) appraised that the level of school performance is also correlated with delinquency. Inability in getting along with teachers and administrators, difficulty in adjusting to the school programme, classroom misconduct, poor grades and a lack of school success are associated with delinquency.

Kiriakidis and Stavros Pavlou (2001) presented a detailed and an in-depth examination of the reasons of re-offending, perceived by young offenders in custody, drawn from the largest Young Offenders' Institution in Scotland. Mainly materialistic and affective reasons were provided, in line with previous research, yet the issue of drugs abuse emerged as salient. The thesis focused on the immediate
and more proximally related factors of re-offending, predicting young offenders' decisions to re-offend in the future. One hundred and fifty two young offenders were randomly selected and participated in a structured interview. The interview assessed several background characteristics, their perceptions of the costs and benefits of their future offending, their perceived normative influences in their future offending and their perceptions of desisting from future offending by controlling several criminogenic factors in the future. Moreover, the participants completed two self-reported measures: the Parental Bonding Instrument (PBI) - and the Moral Disengagement Scale (MDS). Intentions of re-offending in the future were predicted by perceived control and attitudes towards future offending. Background factors, related and predictive of recidivism and chronic offending failed to contribute to the prediction of variation of intentions, over and above the contribution of perceptions of control and attitudes of re-offending. The results suggested that attitudes towards offending and perceptions of control over offending provide a parsimonious framework of assessing and predicting young offenders' intentions of reoffending in the future.

Marisen Mwale (2010) says that adolescents due to the developmental crisis that they are prone face myriad of psychosocial challenges. Among them major challenges are Juvenile delinquency, Drug and alcohol abuse, early pregnancy and Sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS.

Barzman et al. (2011) observed that juvenile antisocial behaviours were common (55%) for adolescents with newly diagnosed BD. Discriminant function analysis revealed that older age at first treatment (p < 0.01), sexual activity over the previous month (p < 0.05), therapeutic use of stimulants (p < 0.05) and anxiety disorders were the most significant factors to differentiate between bipolar adolescents who offended and those who did not (Wilks' lambda = 0.80, p < 0.005). Their findings indicated that there are identifiable psychosocial correlates associated with antisocial behaviours in adolescents with newly diagnosed BD that may improve our understanding of juvenile antisocial behaviours.
2.2.2 Studies related to health and J.D.F

Neumark-Sztainer, D. (1999) conducted a study with an objective to examine psychosocial correlates of diverse health-compromising behaviours among adolescents of different ages. The study population included 1,23,132 adolescents in sixth, ninth and 12th grades. Psychosocial correlates of substance abuse, delinquency, suicide risk, sexual activity and unhealthy weight loss behaviours were examined. Risk-taking disposition was significantly associated with well-nigh every behaviour across age and gender groups. Other consistent correlates included sexual abuse and family connectedness. Correlates of health-compromising behaviours tended to be consistent across age groups. However, stronger associations were noted between sexual abuse and substance use for younger adolescents, and risk-taking disposition and school achievement were stronger correlates for older youth. The results suggested the presence of both common and unique etiological factors for different health-compromising behaviours among youth. The results emphasized the importance of focusing on positive 'risk-taking' experiences for youth in prevention programs; being sensitive to possible sexual abuse experiences among both female and male adolescents in health-care consultations; integrating strategies for improved family connectedness into health promotion efforts; and making school relevant for all adolescents.

Farrington D.P. (2002) calls this recent movement towards the public health model, the “risk factor paradigm”, the basic idea of which is to “identify the key risk factors for offending and tool prevention methods designed to counteract them”. Although much of the research on risk factors that youth face has focused on predicting serious and violent offenses, risk factors are relevant to all the levels of delinquency. This article defines risk factors, explains why they are important and briefly discusses some of the major risk factors linked to delinquency and violence.

2.2.3 Studies related to Family

Leflore (1988) opined that family environment is immensely important in delinquency than family structure. The study demonstrated that parental controls are significant inhibitors of delinquency.
Ashfort et. al (1990) made some concrete efforts to determine whether certain personality factors predispose the adolescent to delinquency. Generally speaking, no one personality type is associated with delinquency, but those who become delinquent are more likely to be impulsive, destructive, suspicious, hostile, resentful, ambivalent to authority, defiant, socially assertive and lack self control. Aggressive conduct is associated with delinquent behaviour. Delinquency is sometimes a manifestation of hostilities, anxieties and fears or deeper neurosis. In some cases, delinquency is the result of poor socialization that results in adolescents not developing proper impulse control [Sagi, A., 1992]. Healthy adolescents may also be misleading by others into delinquency.

Moore (1994) opined that the medical community’s efforts to prevent cancer and heart disease have successfully targeted risk factors (Farrington, 2000). To evaluate a patient’s risk of suffering a heart attack, a doctor commonly asks for the patient’s medical history, family history, diet, weight and exercise level because each of these variables has an effect on the patient’s cardiac health. After this risk assessment, the doctor may suggest ways for the patient to reduce his or her risk factors. Similarly, if a youth possesses certain risk factors, research indicates that these factors will increase his or her chance of becoming a delinquent. A risk assessment may aid in determining the type of intervention that will best suit the youth’s needs and decrease his or her risk of offending behaviours (Fergusson, Horwood, and Lynskey, 1993; Wakschlag et al., 1997). Although the results are inconsistent, the available data illustrate the need to study further the relationship between prenatal care, delivery complications and the resulting health problems and juvenile delinquency (Hawkins J.D et al., 1998).

According to Wright K.N. and Wright K.E. (1995), the family is the foundation of human society. Children who are rejected by their parents, who grow up in homes with considerable conflict or who are inadequately supervised are at the greatest risk of becoming delinquent.

Immarigeon (1996) says it best when he states that justice can be better served and young people steered on the right path by involving families in juvenile crime cases. If anything would play a large part in delinquency it would be a
family. Understanding how the family and how the juvenile within the family works get to the core of delinquency.

Clark Richard D. and Glenn Shields (1997) stated that the importance of positive communication for optimal family functioning has major implications for delinquent behaviour. They also discovered that communication is indeed related to the commission of delinquent behaviour and differences are shown within categories of age, sex and marital status of the members of the family.

Another set of studies follows a group of already identified offenders who have been released from prison or have completed their probation or parole term. In any set of already identified offenders, some will become recidivist and others will not. Again, it provides ample opportunity to analyze the factors that are most persuasive in these already identified offenders becoming recidivist or not (Gottfredson and Tonry, 1997).

Gorman-Smith and Tolan (1998) found that parental conflict and parental aggressiveness predicted violent offending whereas lack of maternal affection and paternal criminality predicted involvement in property crimes. Familial characteristics suggesting familial antisocial behaviour or values such as family history of criminal behaviour, harsh parental discipline and family conflict have been among the most consistently linked.

In another study conducted by Gorman-Smith and her colleagues, data show that children are more likely to resort to violence if there is violence within relationships that they may share with their family (Gorman-Smith et al. 1998).

Kroupa (1998) examined that family factors such as strained family relationships and lack of family cohesion are important sources of delinquency. Broken and dysfunctional homes have been associated with delinquency, but are no worse than, and sometimes not as detrimental as, intact but unhappy or disturbed family relationships.

Children who live in homes with only one parent or in which marital relationships have been disrupted by divorce or separation are more likely to
display a range of behavioural problems including delinquency, than children who are from two parent families’ goals (Thornberry et al. 1999).

Anika Doggett (1999) shows that large family size is related to greater delinquency. The relationship remains when a number of variables, i.e. income, socioeconomic status, parental criminality and family composition have been controlled. The higher birth rate for lower classes does not appear to be an adequate explanation for this relationship nor does less close parent-child affectionalties or less parental supervision although all of these may have some influence. The presence of an "infectious example" may partly account for the relationship, as does overcrowding. Large family size is typically associated with the constellation of undesirable family conditions involving poor role models (poor parental behaviour, parental criminality, sibling delinquency), poor child-rearing practices (inadequate parental supervision and discipline) and competition for physical (overcrowding, low income) and psychological (lack of attention, affection and family interaction) resources.

Referring back to the issue of monitoring, a lack of monitoring is reflected in the parent often not knowing where the child is, whom the child is with, what the child is doing or when the child will be home. Monitoring becomes increasingly important as children move into adolescence and spend less time under the direct supervision of parents or other adults and more time with peers. Previous research found that coercive parenting and lack of parental monitoring contribute not only directly to boys’ antisocial behaviours, but also indirectly as seen in the contribution to their increased opportunity to associate with deviant peers, which is predictive of higher levels of delinquent acts (Kim et al., 1999).

A negative family characteristic such as poor parental supervision of children is often studied as a risk factor for future delinquency or crime and children who come from such homes are believed to be at greater risk or are more likely to commit offenses than children who do not. When the reverse occurs—such as a child growing up in a loving and supportive home—researchers often refer to these variables as “protective” factors, as they promote a child’s resiliency or provide protective barriers against the onset of criminal involvement—even in the light of adverse conditions. It is also likely that family factors interact with other
Previous research has demonstrated associations between exposure to parental divorce and marital discord while growing up and children’s psychological distress in adulthood. Children who witness marital discord are at greater risk of becoming delinquents (Amato and Sobolewski, 2001).

Research indicates that various exposures to violence are important sources of early adolescent role exits, which means that not only can a juvenile witness violence within the family but on the outside as well (Hagan J Foster, 2001).

Michael Shader (2005) opined that the juvenile justice field has spent much time and energy attempting to understand the causes of delinquency. Different theoretical models describe the relationship between variables and outcomes. Researchers have concluded that there is no single path to delinquency and noted that the presence of several risk factors often increases a youth’s chance of offending. Studies also point to the interaction of risk factors, the multiplicative effect when several risk factors are present, and how certain protective factors may work to offset risk factors. In recent years, the juvenile justice field has adopted an approach from the public health arena in an attempt to understand the causes of delinquency and work toward its prevention.

A substantial number of children engage in delinquency. Antisocial and/or aggressive behaviors may tee off as early as preschool or in the first few grades of elementary school. Such childhood misconduct tends to be resistant to change, for example, the parents disciplining more harshly, often predicts continuing problems during adolescence, as well as adult criminality (Prochnow and DeFronzo, 2007).

Holcomb et al. (2007) dealt with several strategies that can be used to mitigate delinquency among adolescents, viz. 1. One way to prevent delinquency is to identify children [such as hyperactive ones] who may be predisposed to getting into trouble during adolescence and then plan intervention programs to help, 2. Another preventive measure is to focus on dysfunctional family relationships and assist parents in learning more effective parenting skills, 3. Anti-social youth may
be placed in groups of pro-social peers, such as at day camps where their behaviour is influenced positively. 4. Young children may be placed in pre-school settings before problems arise and 5. Social skills training may be helpful with some offenders.

2.2.4 Psychological, behavioural and mental characteristics

Low verbal IQ and delayed language development have both been linked to delinquency and these links remain even after controlling for race and class (Moffitt, T.E, Lynam and Silva, 1994; Seguin et al., 1995).

2.2.5 Social Factors
2.2.5.1 Family Structure

Family characteristics such as poor parenting skills, family size, home discord, child maltreatment and antisocial parents are risk factors linked to juvenile delinquency (Derzon, J.H. and Lipsey, M.W, 2000; Wasserman, G.A. and Seracini, A.M., 2001).

2.2.5.2 Community Factors

Farrington, D.P.(2002) noted that “only in the 1990s have the longitudinal researchers begun to pay sufficient attention to neighborhood and community factors, and there is still a dire need for them to investigate immediate situational influences on offending.” As described below, the environment in which youth are reared can influence the likelihood of delinquency.

2.2.5.3 Neighbourhood

Sociological theories of deviance hypothesize that “disorganized neighborhoods have weak social control networks; that weak social control, resulting from isolation among residents and high residential turnover, allows criminal activity to go unmonitored”. Although researchers debate the interaction between environmental and personal factors, most agree that “living in a neighborhood where there are high levels of poverty and crime increases the risk of involvement in serious crime for all children growing up there” (Mccord, J., Widom, C.S. and Crowell, N.A., 2001).
2.2.5.4 Juvenile Delinquency and Sex

The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention indicate that 15 per cent of juvenile arrests occurred for forcible rape in 2006 and 12 per cent were clearance (resolved by an arrest). The total number of juvenile arrests in 2006 for forcible rape was 3,610 with 2 per cent being female and 36 per cent being under the age of 15 years old. This trend has declined throughout the years with forcible rape from 1997-2006 being -30 per cent and from 2005-2006 being -10 per cent. The OJJDP reports that the juvenile arrest rate for forcible rape increased from the early 1980s through the 1990s and at that time it fell again. The OJJDP also reported that the total number of juvenile arrests in 2006 for sex offenses (other than forcible rape) was 15,900 with 10 per cent being female and 47 per cent being under the age of 15. There was again a decrease with the trend throughout the years with sex offenses from 1997-2006 being -16 per cent and from 2005-2006 being -9 per cent.

According to a study done by Department of Justice (2011), the largest group of juvenile delinquents is the 12-20 age males. There are roughly about 75 million juveniles in the United States and one out of every four juveniles will become a delinquent. Every year, an estimated 250,000 youth younger than age 18 are tried, sentenced or incarcerated in the adult criminal justice system. The latest label applied to delinquency is group crime. This applies to those crimes committed by juveniles within a gang setting. In large urban settings, this is the number one juvenile crime. Interestingly, there is a male phenomenon demonstrated by the fact that boys are five times more likely to commit crimes than are girls. This statistic may find its origin in the natural tendency of males toward aggression, from the slower maturity rate of boys, and again, more than likely, the family dynamic.

2.2.6 Males who commit sexual crimes

Mental health problems such as depression, developmental lags, apathy, withdrawal and other psychosocial dysfunctions frequently are linked to substance abuse among adolescents. Substance-abusing youth are at higher risk than non-users for mental health problems, including depression, conduct problems, personality disorders, suicidal thoughts, attempted suicide and suicide. Marijuana use, which is prevalent among youth, has been shown to interfere with short-term
memory, learning and psycho motor skills. Motivation and psychosexual / emotional development also may be influenced (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1992).

Research over the past few decades on normal child development and on development of delinquent behaviour has shown that individual, social and community conditions as well as their interactions influence behaviour. There is general agreement that behaviour, including antisocial and delinquent behaviour, is the result of a complex interplay of individual biological and genetic factors and environmental factors, starting during fetal development and continuing throughout life (Bock, G.R. and J.A.Goode, 1996). Clearly, genes affect biological development, but there is no biological development without environmental input. Thus, both biology and environment influence behaviour.

Although alcohol-related traffic fatalities for youth have declined, young people are still overrepresented in this area. In 1995 alone, more than 2,000 youth (ages 15 to 20) were killed in alcohol-related car crashes (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, 1997).

A Finnish population-based study is focused on psychosocial correlates of youth crime in a sample of 2330 Finnish boys born in 1981. Two kinds of data were combined: questionnaires completed by the boys at call-up in 1999 and crime registered in the Finnish National Police Register between 1998 and 2001. One-fifth of the boys were registered to offending during the 4-year period in late adolescence; 14 per cent were registered for one or two offences, 4 per cent for three to five offences and 3 per cent for more than five offences. Crime accumulated heavily in those with more than five offences, as they accounted for 68 per cent of all crime. Independent correlates of crime were living in a small community, parents' low educational level and divorce, having a regular relationship, self-reported delinquency, daily smoking, and weekly drunkenness, whereas anxious-depressiveness was reversely associated with crime. Most psychosocial problems covaried linearly with offending frequency, being particularly manifested by multiple recidivists. However, recidivists had very rarely used mental health services. The results indicate that offending and various psychosocial problems accumulate in a small minority of boys not reached by mental health services.
Barbaree, H.E. and Marshall, W.L. (2008) indicate that juvenile males contribute to the majority of sex crimes, with 2-4 per cent of adolescent males having reported committing sexually assaultive behaviour and 20% of all rapes and 30-50 per cent of all child molestation is perpetrated by adolescent males. It is crystal clear that males are over-represented in this population. This is consistent with Ryan and Lane’s research indicating that males account for 91-93 per cent of the reported juvenile sex offenses. Righthand and Welch reported that females account for an estimated 2-11 per cent of incidents of sexual offending. In addition, it reported by The Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention that in the juvenile arrests during 2006, African American male youth were disproportionately arrested (34%) for forcible rape. Although while African American male youth are being disproportionately arrested, the most common ethnic group comprising juvenile sex offenders is Caucasian males.

In addition to personal adversities, the abuse of alcohol and other drugs by youth may result in family crises and jeopardize many aspects of family life, sometimes resulting in family dysfunction. Both siblings and parents are profoundly affected by alcohol- and drug-involved youth (Nowinski, 1990). Substance abuse can drain a family's financial and emotional resources (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1992).

According to Mollerstrom, Patchner and Milner (1992), child abuse perpetrators report more family conflict and less family cohesion and expressiveness. These studies also indicated that parents with a childhood history of abuse reported more family conflict and less family cohesion, expressiveness, intellectual and recreational activities and moral-religious emphasis.

Matlack et al. (1994) have been involved in numerous studies examining how family factors foster antisocial behaviour through malformation of normal and emotional bonds within the family. In their research, Matlack et al. cite a scale, FACES III, devised to define emotional bonding of family members on a four level continuum - disengaged to separate, connect and enmesh. Family cohesion was defined from two viewpoints. High family cohesion seemed to produce an over-identification with the family resulting in extreme bonding. At the opposite end of the scale was disengagement characterized by low bonding. There were four levels
of adaptability in this research that looked at the ability of a family unit to change its authority hierarchy, role identification and relationship in response to situation and developmental stress which ranged from rigid to structured and flexible to chaotic. A balance of structure and flexibility was found to produce optimal marital and family functioning while the extremes of rigidity and chaos showed a decline in family functioning.

Related literature found that a balance between cohesion and adaptability created more positive communication (Matlack, et al., 1994). Positive communication was characterized as: empathetic, supportive and requiring reflective listening and sharing among family members. These skills were deemed necessary for the members of family to share openly and honestly with one another.

Belitz and Valdez (1994) discussed delinquent achievement motivation and involvement in gang activity among Latino gang members via street gang socialization and the functioning of the street gang in the lives of these gang members as a "surrogate family" to satisfy their psychological and emotional needs. After performing a review of extant research and perspectives on the dynamics of gang participation and delinquent achievement orientation among gang members, including issues of familial dysfunction, adolescent identity, emotional disturbances, mastery of emotions, and competence in the gang membership context.

Belitz and Valdez presented a case study of a 17-year-old Latino gang member who sought out the street gang as a form of surrogate family and the attendant street gang socialization that accompanied his transition to the street gang. The gang member had been routinely beaten by his adoptive father, a factor that would characterize this study for inclusion in the foregoing section of extrinsic influences. But the street gang socialization in this case became a significant factor, as the participant in the study noted that he viewed the street gang he was involved in as "mi familia" (my family) (Belitz and Valdez, 1994), a family that, as he was socialized to believe by the street gang, would never betray or mistreat him, as his father had. This street gang socialization led this study participant to expect the satisfaction of his psychological and emotional needs by way of socialized support from the street gang and his engagement in delinquent achievement behaviour. In
essence, the expectancies placed upon the street gang by the Latino gang member took precedence over the expectancies placed upon the parents, particularly when the parents (especially the father) appeared to be incapable of fulfilling the gang member’s needs.

Bringing into perspective the preponderance of juvenile delinquency, Edelman, M.W. (1995) discovered that about 1,234 youths run away from home and 2,255 teenagers drop-out of school each day. Every five minutes, a juvenile is arrested for some kind of violent crime and every two hours a child is harmed with a weapon.

Cashwell, C.S. and Vacc, N.A. (1996) investigated the role of family cohesion and found that a cohesive family environment reduces the chances of delinquent behaviours.

The 1996-97 National Parents' Resource Institute for Drug Education (PRIDE) study (1997) found a significant association between crimes committed by adolescents and their use of alcohol and other drugs. The percentage of youth who were involved in these activities and had not used alcohol or other drugs was substantially lower.

Interestingly, Rousseau et al. (1999) found that a family's trauma history, including their departure from their homeland, had a protective role at various times for adolescents specifically regarding risk behavior and academic achievement in boys, and positive social adjustment in girls. They theorized that these positive behaviors may be understood as over compensation by the children who had internalized an implicit duty to succeed. The dual nature of trauma as both an inhibitor and a source of strength will need to be examined more closely.

According to the Juvenile Offenders and Victims Report (1999) looking at murders "juvenile offenders were involved in an estimated 1,300 murders in the U.S. in 2002-- 8% of all murders" (Snyder and Sickmund, 2006). Looking at a more aggressive year for murders, these are with firearms alone. "The year of 1994 3,000 murders were committed by males. Females within that same year committed a lot
less than five hundred murders. The rate for men has gone up and down but has almost always been above 1,000 murders per year.

The lack of attention directed toward the timing of offenses other than violent crimes is consistent with research on juvenile crime in general, which has tended to focus on violent crime. This may be an oversight, however, because property crime is the most frequent type of criminal victimization and because the rate of property crimes against juveniles is approximately 40 per cent higher than the rate for adults (Finkelhor, D. and R. Ormrod, 2000). Research on the nature of crimes other than violent crimes is needed.

Gottfredson, D.C., G.D. Gottfredson and S.A. Weisman (2001) noted that the observed peak in juvenile crime during the after school hours was more modest than that observed in the NIBRS data. By calculating rates of delinquency in each period that controlled for the number of ours in each period (and hence the opportunity to engage in crime), the study also revealed that high rates of delinquency (per opportunity hour) also occur in the relatively short period before school. Finally, this report also explored the common perception that after-school crime occurs because of a lack of direct adult supervision during this time. The study revealed that unsupervised children are more delinquent at all times rather than only during the unsupervised time period, suggesting that other factors besides the absence of direct parental supervision and association with delinquent peers that is likely to occur during these periods of low supervision probably account for some of the elevated delinquency found during the after-school hours for these youths. Some implications for after-school programming were offered.

In most cases, delinquents have been viewed as individuals who come from less-intact families often referred to as “broken homes”. Typically, the term “broken home” has been operationally defined to mean children residing in single-parent households or any type of household other than a household in which both biological parents are present. In contrast, an “intact family” usually refers to a nuclear family arrangement in which both biological parents reside in the household with their biological children. “Intact family arrangements” differ from other modern day family arrangements including single-parent arrangements, two-
parent arrangements involving a step-parent, extended family arrangements, and the adoptive or foster family arrangement (Kierkus, C. and Bauer, D. 2002).

A recent study that examined the timing of juvenile offenses separately by crime type demonstrates the utility of this approach. Jacob, B.A. and L. Lefgren (2003) analyzed 1995 to 1999 NIBRS data from 29 jurisdictions and found differences between the types of crimes occurring when school was and was not in session. They found that the level of property crime committed by juveniles decreased by roughly 14 per cent on days when school was in session, whereas the level of violent criminal offense among juveniles increased by approximately 28 per cent on school days. The authors concluded that when juveniles are not provided with a supervised environment (e.g. when out of school), they are likely to engage in antisocial behaviour that manifests itself in increased property crime. However, when juveniles are in school, the authors argue that the geographic concentration of youth increases the number of potentially volatile interactions, which in turn explains the observed increase of in-school violent crime (Jacob and Lefgren, 2003).

Demuth S. and Brown S. (2004) demonstrates that broken homes are associated with juvenile delinquency but also that family arrangements are not just a broken home issue. Specifically, the researchers found that levels of juvenile delinquency were much higher in teenagers residing with single fathers and lowest among teenagers who were part of a two-parent household. The researchers suggest that higher levels of delinquency among children residing with their fathers were due mainly to inadequate parental involvement in a teenager's life. Demuth and Brown drew the inference that overall, the lack of supervision and the absence of close relationships between the teenager and his parents are factors that influence delinquency.

In dealing with the delinquent youth, consideration must be given to the programmes designed to prevent delinquency at the societal level. Due to the increase in drug sales and distribution in the inner city, impoverished youths are provided illegitimate sources of income that do not compare to regular employment opportunities found in the community (Kruttschnitt, 2004). This attitude teaches the youth that it is more economically viable to break the law because the youth cannot
survive on income earned legitimately. These youth are faced with a choice, starve and work at a law-abiding lifestyle or live in luxury and break the law. If everyone got caught, the obvious choice would be the law-abiding way, but everyone does not get caught. Unfortunately, there are places in America where crime does pay.

"Based on Agnew's General Strain Theory assumption that strain and negative affect are major sources of delinquent motivation. Individual measures of strain may both directly and indirectly lead to individual delinquency. Indirectly, the likelihood that strain will lead delinquency is mediated by feelings of negative effect, specifically anger, among individuals." (Cochran, Dembo, Sellers and Wareham, 2005).

Austin, Johnson and Weitzer (2005) opined that the critical task (and challenge) is to target only those youth who need intervention services, match them to the most appropriate type and level of treatment they need, and avoid allocating unnecessary resources on youth who are unlikely to commit another crime.

The NIJ study found the highest association between positive drug tests of male juvenile arrestees and their commission of drug-related crimes (sales, possession). However, a substantial rate of drug use also was found among youth who committed violent, property and other crimes (National Institute of Justice, 2006).

Other data support the concern for drug-involved youth in the juvenile justice system. The Survey of Youth in Custody, 2007 (Beck, Kline and Greenfeld, 2008) found that more than 39 per cent of youth under age 18 were under the influence of drugs at the time of their current offense. More than 57 per cent reported using a drug in the previous month. In another study of 113 delinquent youth in a State detention facility, 82 per cent reported being heavy (daily) users of alcohol and other drugs just prior to admission to the facility, 14 per cent were regular users (more than two times weekly) and 4 per cent reported occasional use (DeFrancesco, 2006).

According to the Juvenile Offenders and Victims report of 1999 looking at murders "juvenile offenders were involved in an estimated 1,300 murders in the
U.S. in 2002-- 8% of all murders" (Snyder H. and Sickmund, M., 2006). Looking at a more aggressive year for murders, these are with firearms alone. "The year of 1994 3,000 murders were committed by males. Females within that same year committed a lot less than five hundred murders. The rate for men has gone up and down but has almost always been above 1,000 murders per year. While there has never been even close to five hundred committed by female offenders." (Snyder and Sickmund, 2006) This shows that there is a substantial difference between the violence of males and females. This study also shows juvenile males have a larger chance of using a firearm and committing murder than females.

According to Jang and Sung (2007), women are, on average, more distressed than men." Female's youth tend to deal differently than male youths. Also according to Jang, he find that Broidy and Agnew state that men and women are different not only in the rate but also in the forms of crime they commit, because they differ in the types of strain they tend to experience, emotional responses to the strain, and factors conditioning the use of criminal versus noncriminal adaptations of strain and distress". So overall, males and females react differently to strain, leading to different behaviours and crimes committed. Females youths tend to have more stress within their lives but they deal with it better then male youths.

U.S. research has found that males often experience anger and contempt when their performance is being evaluated. More often than girls, boys report that anger is a result of moral outrage at being challenged or treated unjustly. Moral outrage can stimulate violent reactions intended to reassert one and to affirm one's sense of what is right. The gender differences in response to negative evaluation maybe particularly important in educational setting in South Korea, where there is extreme pressure on students to succeed academically and where teachers harshly evaluate youth who are not excelling in academic pursuits and in the presence of peers." (Morash and Moon, 2007).

Matlack et al. (2008) found that over a 10 year period, there was a high correlation between maladaptively aggressive children and single-mother family structures regardless of family income, number of children, and the sex of the child. Also reported was a higher tendency for delinquency in males when there was a
step-father in the home. This research reported higher rates of delinquency among youths from broken homes than those from intact homes.

*Thomas Carroll (2009)* speaks of Statistics surrounding girls in the juvenile justice system reveal the urgency of their needs. For example, Alameda County saw a 44.5 per cent increase in the number of females entering its juvenile justice system between 1998 and 2007. In the same period, the district also found a 49 per cent increase in the number of girls who were in the system for non-violent offenses, such as theft and truancy. Another issue unique to females in the system is the rise of runaway girls. According to Gene Howard, Executive Director and CEO of the Orangewood Children's Foundation, Orange County's new Girls Court will specifically address truants and runaways. Julie Posadas Guzman, a consultant hired to develop curriculum for the diversion program in Alameda County, said that girls run away at a much higher rate than boys, particularly from group and foster homes.

According to the FBI Report (2009), crimes committed by juvenile delinquents include Breaking Curfew; Underage drinking; Running away; Vandalism; Motor vehicle theft; Larceny / theft; Burglary; Robbery; Arson etc. Respite care can help status offenders (such as runaway or ungovernable youth) and their parents by diverting youth from out-of-home placements. Respite programs can function as voluntary walk-in or police drop-off centers for runaways, court diversion for status offender programs, or as an alternative to non-secure detention for status offenders already involved in family court. Few comprehensive evaluations have been done to assess the effectiveness of respite programs. The Vera Institute of Justice reviewed the short-term effectiveness of four respite care centers and found respite care a promising model for quickly reunifying parents and children and connecting them to additional support services; results showed the centers successfully reunified 60 to 80 per cent of families, typically within a 5- to 14-day respite period. Vera evaluators concluded respite care is a viable response to adolescents at risk of detention and placement; they also assert that it promotes better educational outcomes and better interactions among family members in a more cost-effective way than other court-ordered placements (Quraishi et al., 2002).

*Kudirat B. Sunni (2010)* focused on identifying the influence of family types on juvenile delinquency among secondary school students in Nigeria. Based
on empirical findings, three research questions were raised along with three hypotheses to guide the study. Using the multistage random sampling technique, 200 students were selected for the study from five public secondary schools in Uyo metropolis. The self-report Family Delinquency Questionnaire (FADEQ) was used for data collection. Frequencies and simple percentages were used to answer the research questions while the hypotheses were tested statistically using the chi square statistic. The results indicate that three family variables namely: family stability, family cohesiveness, and family adaptability impact strongly on juvenile delinquency among secondary school students in Uyo metropolis. Based on these findings, the counseling implications were proffered. The aim of this research was to find out how family types influence juvenile delinquency among secondary school students. Based on empirical findings, three variables namely family stability, family cohesion, and family adaptability were drawn on and from the results obtained, there was a cumulative effect such that the presence of more than one of these negative family attributes compounded the likelihood of delinquency.

Since children who are inadequately supervised by parents, whose parents fail to teach them the difference between right and wrong, whose parents do not monitor their whereabouts and activities, whose parents discipline them erratically and harshly, and those who experience some measure of violence in the home are more likely to become delinquent. It has therefore become apparent that a healthy home environment is the single most important factor necessary to keep children from becoming delinquent.

Denise C. Gottfredson and David A. Soulé (2010) examined the timing of juvenile delinquent behaviour by crime type. A study of 513 youths participating in after-school programs indicates that crimes against persons are elevated during the after-school hours but not as much as during school. Property crime and drug use are not particularly elevated during the after-school hours. Earlier studies either examined a single crime type or aggregated different types of crime together and therefore were misleading because the timing of crime varies considerably by crime type. This study finding suggests that one undesirable side effect of grouping youths together for schooling and after-school programming is an increase in crimes against persons. Implications for theory, policy, and practice are discussed.
A study conducted in 2008 in Washington, D.C. found youth who sold and used drugs were more likely to commit crimes than those who only sold drugs or only used drugs. Heavy drug users were more likely to commit property crimes than nonusers, and youth who trafficked in drugs reported higher rates of crimes against persons. Youth in this sample were most likely to commit burglary or sell drugs while using or seeking to obtain drugs. About one-fourth of the youth also reported attacking another youth to obtain drugs. However, among the youth in this sample, the majority who committed crimes did not do so in connection with drugs (Altschuler and Brounstein, 2011).

Josine Junger-Tas, Denis Ribeaud and Maarten J. L. F. Cruyff (2012) in their article on ”Juvenile Delinquency and Gender” consider differences in patterns of youth delinquency and problem behavior between boys and girls. It uses cross-sectional surveys of self-reported youth offending in 11 European countries, and a similar survey covering various ethnic groups in Rotterdam, both were carried out in 1992. These surveys show that there remains a substantial gap in the level of delinquency between girls and boys across all countries and ethnic groups. The findings confirm that weak social controls by family and school are an important correlate of delinquency for males and females in all country clusters and across all ethnic groups. On the whole, the correlates of delinquency are found to be similar in males and females, which suggest that there is no need for a different theory to explain delinquency in boys and girls. Social control explains part of the gap in delinquency between boys and girls, simply because social controls of girls tend to be stronger and tighter. Culturally determined differences in the strength of family-based social controls can also explain some of the variations in delinquency between ethnic groups.

Joongyeup Lee, Hyunseok Jang and Leana A. Bouffard (2013) in their paper on Maternal Employment and Juvenile Delinquency: A Longitudinal Study of Korean Adolescents suggested that women’s participation in the labour force has contributed to higher juvenile delinquency rates due to the extensive amount of time and attention that working mothers must spend outside the home and away from their children. Although some researchers have examined this hypothesis, findings are mixed and inconclusive. Using longitudinal data provided by the Korean Youth
Panel Survey project, the effects of maternal employment on a child’s propensity to commit general delinquency are examined. Results from hierarchical linear modeling analysis indicated that children of working mothers display a higher likelihood of becoming involved in delinquency. In addition, working mothers with higher educational backgrounds were more apt to have a child who commits delinquency.

Adam Boessen and Elizabeth Cauffman (2013) in their paper on Moving From the Neighborhood to the Cellblock: The Impact of Youth’s Neighborhoods on Prison Misconduct examined how prior neighborhood characteristics affect youth’s offending when youths move into an incarceration context. Neighborhood ethnic heterogeneity, residential stability, and disadvantage are often predictive of neighborhood crime, but it is unclear how these neighborhood constructs continue to affect youth’s behavior inside a secure facility. In a sample of recently incarcerated juvenile offenders (N = 320), this study examined how prior neighborhood characteristics affect institutional offending over the first 8 weeks of incarceration. Although disadvantage did not relate to institutional offending, results indicate that youths from racially/ethnically homogenous communities are more likely to offend during the initial weeks of incarceration, whereas youths from residentially stable communities are more likely to offend in the latter weeks.

Frank M. Weerman, Wim Bernasco, Gerben J. N. Bruinsma and Lieven J. R. Pauwels (2013) in their paper on “When Is Spending Time With Peers Related to Delinquency? The Importance of Where, What, and With Whom” shown that time spent with peers is related to delinquency, but little is known about the conditions under which spending time with peers is most related to delinquent behaviour. In this study, they contrasted different categories of time spent with peers, using detailed information about the activities and whereabouts of 843 adolescents in The Hague, the Netherlands. Their findings reveal substantial differences. Time spent with peers appears to be independently related with delinquency only when it combines at least two of the following risk-inducing conditions: just socializing, being in public and being unsupervised.

Wing Hong Chui and Heng Choon (Oliver) Chan (2013) in their paper on “The Gendered Analysis of Self-Control on Theft and Violent Delinquency: An
Examination of Hong Kong Adolescent Population” opined that despite previous gender-based studies of Gottfredson and Hirschi’s self-control theory, limited empirical attempts have been made outside of the Western hemisphere. This study examined the cross-cultural and/or national boundaries generalizability of the self-control concepts in predicting gender differences on theft and violent delinquency in a rarely examined Hong Kong adolescent population. In addition, this study is among the first to investigate the age-effect gender differences on delinquency in the East. Using a cross-sectional design, 1,377 randomly selected native-Chinese secondary school–aged male and female adolescents of nine stratified randomly selected schools were surveyed. Multivariate analyses were used to examine gender differences, with and without controlling for the adolescent age, aside from the general offending propensity among Hong Kong adolescents with respect to their self-control level. Overall findings suggest that the relationship between low self-control indicators and types of delinquency differs across gender. Hence, findings of previous gender-based self-control studies conducted in the West are generally supported in this study. Implications, limitations, and future research directions are outlined.