CHAPTER-II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter the rationale along with objectives and hypotheses has been reported. The present chapter is devoted to the Review of Related Literature of various studies conducted by Indian and Foreign researchers which are related to the delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents, temperament, creativity, intelligence, family background and other related variables. 98 researches have been reviewed and mentioned in this chapter. These have been classified and presented under given captions:

- Studies Related to Delinquency and Temperament
- Studies Related to Delinquency and Creativity
- Studies Related to Intelligence and Delinquency
- Delinquency and Family Background
- Delinquency and Other Related Variables
- Studies Related to Adolescents and Creativity & Personality

2.1.0 Studies Related to Delinquency and Personality & Temperament

Sahney (1984), conducted a study on the relationship between delinquents and non-delinquents in personality adjustment. The major objectives of the study were:-(1) To find out difference between delinquent and non-delinquent boys in relation to psychoticism, extroversion and introversion.(2) To find out the extent to which the delinquents differed from non-delinquents in respect of personality characteristics.

Giordano (1986), examined characteristics of the friendships of male and female adolescents, both black and white who varied in the extent of their
involvement in delinquent behaviour. Delinquents were more inclined to self-disclosure and reported higher levels of conflicts with friends.

**Emler and Richer (1987)**, examined the degree of group involvement in delinquency among 189 male and 141 female 13-16 years old. Among boys although there was wide variation in the degree to which particular type of offences were committed alone or in the company of others, there was no general category of offences that was predominantly solitary. No individuals always offended alone. A comparison of boys and girls were more even likely than boys to commit offences in the company of others.

**Furnham and Barratt (1988)**, studied three groups of adolescents – delinquent, problem children, control group and the results indicate that there were no difference between the three groups on moral reasoning, but the delinquents had significantly higher neuroticism and psychoticism scores and significantly lower lie score.

**Kothari & Joshi (1992)**, studied that the personality differences of delinquents and non-delinquents, for the analysis researchers have taken the data of 80 respondents with 40 delinquents and 40 non-delinquents' students of 10th grade. For this study Cattell's 16 P.F. test form _A_ and form _E_ by Indian adaption Kapoor were applied. Result prepared by ANOVA which given the feedback of students' personality which proved that there was significant difference at certain level between delinquents and non-delinquent.

**Vohra and Ahmed (1993)**, Compared to 30 Juvenile Delinquents with Non–delinquents (aged 14-16 years) in terms of their personality and value patterns. The differences were not significant when the 2 groups were compared with respect to their total personality scores using a profile similarly coefficient. However, the groups, showed significant difference on 3 personality factors, namely Intelligences, superego strength, and self sentiment, and 4 value patterns namely, theoretical, social, economic and religious.
Coolidge and others (1994), studied the parents of 60 juvenile offenders completed a 200 items inventory designed to assess personality disorders, anxiety, depression and neuropsychological dysfunction. First time offenders and recidivistic offenders were compared to a matched group of normal adolescents. A multivariate analysis of variance revealed that both groups of offenders manifested significantly more psychopathology and more neurological dysfunction. There were no significant differences between the two groups of offenders.

Cavin (2001), made a study to identify and explore personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents, to compare those characteristics with those of the general population, and determine if there are significant differences, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), between the personality characteristics of juvenile delinquents and the general population. Procedures Juvenile delinquents who were adjudicated into a Texas Youth Commission facility in North Texas were subjects for this study. Participants included 186 males who ranged in age from 14 years to 20 years. Statistical analyses were performed for each of the research findings. When comparing MBTI scores of juvenile delinquents to the general population, significant differences were found on the dichotomous scales, temperaments, function pairs, and types. Conclusions based upon the findings of this study, the following conclusions were made. All type preferences are represented within the juvenile delinquent population. The MBTI can be useful in responding to the education and rehabilitation needs of juvenile delinquents. Knowledge of personality type can help caregivers meet the needs of juvenile delinquents. Understanding personality type preference can serve to provide a deeper understanding of the behaviours that lead to adjudication of juvenile delinquents. A discovery of the types of adolescents who are adjudicated could lead to preventive measures, early detection, and early intervention for students at risk of becoming juvenile delinquents.
Devi and Mayuri (2001), studied the personality profile of adolescent delinquents who were residing in observation homes. A sample of 46 adolescent delinquents (22 boys and 24 girls, age 13 to 18 years) was administered the multi-dimensional assessment of personality series. Information on the subjects’ family background was collected. Results revealed lower mean scores than the standard mean score both for boys as well as girls on most of the personality dimensions. Boys and girls differed significantly on the dimensions of guilt proneness, sensitivity, social warmth and maturity. Parental education and occupation were significantly correlated with achievement, Creativity, guilt proneness, leadership, maturity, mental health, self control and sensitivity. Most of the personality dimensions were related to each other.

Shek (2002), examined the association between family functioning and adolescent adjustment in 1,519 Chinese adolescents. The results showed that family functioning was significantly related to measures of adolescent psychological well-being (existential well-being, life satisfaction, self-esteem, sense of mastery, general psychiatric morbidity), school adjustment (perceived academic performance, satisfaction with academic performance, and school conduct), and problem behaviour (delinquent and substance abuse behaviour). Family functioning was generally more strongly related to measures of adjustment for adolescents with economic disadvantage than for adolescents without economic disadvantage.

Craig (2004), studied on personality characteristics associated with reconviction in sexual and violent offenders. The purpose of this study was to examine personality characteristics associated with reconviction and to explore the accuracy of the special hospitals assessment of personality and socialization (SHAPS) in predicting reconviction. The SHAPS was administered to a group of sexual and violent offenders (n=121) who were followed up over 2,5 and 10 year periods. Reconviction data were analysed using the Receiver Operating
Characteristic (ROC) of the 10 SHAPS scales, the impulsivity scale produced the most promising results and consistently obtained the highest accuracy in predicting violent and general reconviction. The predictive accuracy of the SHAPS scales was compared against three actuarial risk measures. Static-99, Risk Matrix-2000 Sexual and Violent Scales. The strength of correlations and accuracy of the SHAPS Impulsivity Scale in predicting violent and general reconviction is comparable to that of the Risk Matrix 2000/violent actuarial risk measure. However the SHAPS scales added little to the actuarial measures in a regression equation. The actuarial scales were better at predicting sexual reconviction compared with the SHAPS scales.

Kimberly and Saudino (2005), studied on behavioural genetics and child temperament. In this study the researchers describe some findings from behavioural genetics research in temperament that go well beyond the basic nature-nurture question. These findings include the importance of non-shared environmental influences on temperament, genetic continuity and environmental change during development, links between temperament and behaviour problems, and harnessing the power of molecular genetics to identify specific genes responsible for genetic influence on early temperament.

Junmie (2005), conducted a research to identify the differences of personality traits by Cattell's Sixteen Personality Factor test. The results indicated that eight personality traits (C, F, G, H, L, Q1, Q2, Q3) i.e. Ego strength, sobriety, superego, shyness, trust, conservatism, group adherence and self concept had significant differences between young criminals and young students. It also showed that young criminals’ personality traits were different from young students, which is of great value in the prevention and correction of young people's crime.

Chang et al. (2006), examined the usability of the theory in predicting juvenile delinquency and substance abuse. Sixty consecutive and newly
incarcerated male delinquents with history of substance abuse were recruited from a juvenile correctional facility in north western Taiwan from January 2002 through December 2003. All subjects were assessed of their temperament, behavioural problems, and psychiatric disorders on an individual base. Researchers found that the juvenile delinquent subjects with childhood history of attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) were significantly younger, consumed less betel nut, and had more siblings with history of drug abuse.

Nigg (2006), discussed distinct temperamental pathways to antisocial behaviour. One pathway involves the temperamental traits of low fear and low affiliation. Low fear in early childhood may limit the development of guilt, conscience, and sensitivity to punishment or socialization. The low levels of affiliations that result from this lead to behaviour that amplify the pathway to antisocial behaviour. Another pathway Nigg describes involves high approach, negative affect and low effortful control. A child with high approach is very reward-seeking and sensation seeking, and could engage in antisocial behaviour because it disregards social rules and the rights of others. When a child scores high on negative affect and low on effortful control, it experiences a lot of negative emotions and has difficulty regulating these emotions. All this can lead to defiance and aggression, which, in turn, will elicit negative parent-child interactions and result in antisocial behaviour.

Veenstra et al. (2006), studied the relationship between temperament and antisocial behaviour can mainly be explained by the temperamental trait of high Frustration combined with so called goal-blocking. They state that when highly-frustrated children fail at reaching a goal (i.e. their goal is blocked), they easily experience irritation and anger. As a result, these children are prone to externalizing their frustration and, ultimately, engaging in antisocial behaviour. Although temperament clearly has an influence on the development of antisocial behaviour, temperament alone does not account for the full
emergence of it. Research has shown that extreme temperament leads to psychopathology only in a minority of cases.

Lansford et al. (2009), In this prospective longitudinal study of 574 children followed from age 5 to age 21, the authors examine the links between early physical abuse and violent delinquency and other socially relevant outcomes during late adolescence or early adulthood and the extent to which the child's race and gender moderate these links. Analyses of covariance indicated that individuals who had been physically abused in the first 5 years of life were at greater risk for being arrested as juveniles for violent, nonviolent, and status offenses. Moreover, physically abused youth were less likely to have graduated from high school and more likely to have been fired in the past year, to have been a teen parent, and to have been pregnant or impregnated someone in the past year while not married. These effects were more pronounced for African American than for European American youth and somewhat more pronounced for females than for males.

Kausar et al. (2012), studied on Personality Traits and Juvenile Delinquency in Punjab, Pakistan. The results interestingly indicated that overall delinquents scored high on Psychopathic Deviant Scale, Depression, Hypocardiasis, and Schizophrenia as compared to non-delinquents.

Khurram and Salim (2012), studied and focused to investigate the relationship between personality traits and juvenile delinquency among delinquents and non-delinquent juveniles, taking Pakistan as a model country. The study was descriptive in nature. The sample comprised of 240 participants (among them half were delinquents) and the purposive sampling technique was applied. Four subscales of Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory were used for measuring the personality traits. Demographic variables of the present study were age, gender, education, family size, and family setup. The data was quantitatively analyzed statistically on SPSS by using t-test. Results
interestingly indicated that overall delinquents scored high on Psychopathic Deviant Scale, Depression, Hypocardiasis, and Schizophrenia as compared to non-delinquents.

2.2.0 Studies Related to Delinquency and Creativity

Agnew (1998), critically reviewed the literature on delinquency and creativity, focusing on (1) the definition of creativity and its relation to the concepts of —constraint‖ and —free-will‖, (2) the relationship between creativity and delinquency, and (3) the factors that determine whether creativity is exercised in a positive or negative way. While this literature contained many gaps, it is important because it challenges the positivist explanations of delinquency that currently dominate the field. Such explanations argued that adolescents are constrained to engage in delinquency by biological, psychological, and—most commonly—social forces. The creativity literature, however, suggested that the emphasis on constraint might be overstated and that delinquency might best be viewed as a creative enterprise for many adolescents.

Khan and Gash (2012), executed the study with the objective to work on the title, —A Comparative Study of Extreme Groups of Delinquency Proneness, on the Verbal Dimensions of Creativity – in Kashmir Region‖. Firstly the objective of the study was to identify high and low delinquency prone adolescents, to compare these delinquency prone adolescent groups on the various dimensions of verbal creativity i.e, Fluency, Flexibility and originality accordingly. The 100 adolescent subjects were drawn randomly, Lidhoo’s delinquency proneness scale and Baqer Mehdi’s verbal tool of creativity were administered. The extreme group technique was used, to categorize high and low delinquency prone groups. These groups were compared on the various dimensions of verbal creativity by using recognized statistical technique viz, Mean, S.D, and‘t’ value respectively, to pool out the
required results of the study. The study revealed that the high and low delinquency prone adolescents show no significant difference on the originality dimension of verbal creativity, but on fluency and flexibility dimensions of verbal creativity showed significant difference tantamount.

**Sharma and Rai (2012)**, studied the creativity among delinquent children. Researchers have taken special issues which are related to juvenile delinquent children in society. This study aimed to find out difference among juvenile delinquent children in relation to creativity. The sample of the study was 80 juvenile delinquent children of Merrut and out of 80, 40 were boys and 40 were girls for the study. The result showed that both boys and girls of juvenile delinquent children having difference in the respect of creativity, fluency and flexibly but author respect of originality dimension, they don’t have difference within groups. It means girl juvenile delinquent children have more creative level than boy juvenile delinquent children.

### 2.3.0 Studies Related TO Intelligence and Delinquency

**Slawson (1926)**, relates delinquency with intelligence, Delinquency and intelligence have positive correlation up to certain intensity level than after words does not shows any interactions i.e., some works show that delinquency is negatively related with intelligence, but certain survey reports shows as the intelligence rate exceeds so the delinquency.

**Springer (1941)**, studied on 80 white and 50 Negro delinquents, found that social maturity level tended to be correlated with IQ, so that bright delinquents tended to be socially mature as measured by the scale. The social maturity of first offenders and recidivists was related to their mental levels. Thus, from this study, it would appear that any tendency toward social immaturity among juvenile delinquents would be a function of their tendency to vary from the normal for general intelligence.
West and Farrington (1973), conducted a longitudinal study on 411 English boys and concluded (using the Raven, 1960 approach) that those who later become criminals were characterized by lower I.Q. than those who did not. They concluded that intelligence is a meaningful predictive factor of future delinquency.

Kabur (1987), concluded that juvenile delinquents and non-delinquents did not differ significantly in emotional adjustment, and total adjustment. But juvenile delinquents and non-delinquent differed significantly in personality factors. Juvenile delinquents were less intelligent and had less ability to handle abstract problems. They were less controlled, tender minded, sensitive, dependent and overprotected.

Lynam et al. (1993), examined empirically the differing explanatory accounts of the relation. Thirteen year-old boys involved in a high-risk longitudinal study. Accounts that interpreted the relation as spurious or that posited that delinquency-related factors lead to low IQ scores received no support; findings were most consistent with the hypothesis that the direction of effect runs from low IQ to delinquency. The IQ-delinquency relation was robust after race, class, and observed test motivation were controlled statistically. Additionally, the effect of IQ was mediated by school performance for black youth but not for white youth.

Bano et al. (2009), examined the level of intelligence among juvenile prisoners and non-delinquent boys of the same age group with rural and urban background respectively. The main purpose of the study was to look into the factors like family size and number of children does affect the socialization process with the same rate at both life patterns, mentioned above. A total sample of N= 30 subjects was randomly selected i.e., fifteen (n=15) juvenile delinquents of Central Prison Haripur and fifteen (n=15) non-delinquent boys from different schools of Peshawar. The subjects were contacted through
proper channels for juvenile delinquents in jail. Permission was taken from the jail administration authority and non-delinquents were contacted through permission from the heads of their schools. Standard Progressive Matrices was applied on both groups and results were formulated according. It was hypothesized that the level of intelligence will be higher in non-delinquent boys as compared to convicted juvenile delinquents. It was further assumed that number of siblings more specifically male siblings will have a contributory role in developing delinquent behaviour. Which were supported by the results i.e., significant difference was found in the intelligence level of delinquents and non-delinquent boys (p < .0001) It was also found that greater the number of siblings greater will be the chances for delinquency (p < .01). It was concluded that intelligence is one of the important factor of personality and healthy social life of an individual along with the family as the integral part of socialization providing stability and consistency to the social system. Thus emphasis is needed to look into functioning of the social system in terms of socialization and personality with reference to Pakhtoon society.

Kim and Clutter (2011), examined the roles of parental and peer influences on adolescent delinquency in a multiethnic sample of European American, Asian American, and Latino youth. The study utilized survey data on parental monitoring, peer delinquency, and delinquency on 187 high school students (10-12th grade). Overall, they found that when controlling for ethnicity and other demographic variables, both parental monitoring and peer delinquency independently predicted participants' delinquency. In addition, peer delinquency functioned as a mediator between parental monitoring and delinquency. Findings from our study also show that correlates of delinquency differ among European American, Asian American, and Latino adolescents. Their findings suggest that prevention and intervention programs should acknowledge ethnic differences and should gauge whether steps can be taken to tailor programming to specific ethnic groups.
Freeman (2012), reviewed a vulnerable group on the topic relationship between lower intelligence crime and custodial outcomes. The relationship between intellectual functioning and criminal offending has received considerable focus within the literature. While there remains debate regarding the existence of this relationship, there is a wider consensus that individuals with below average functioning are disproportionately represented within the prison population. This paper focuses on research that has implications for the effective management of lower functioning individuals within correctional environments as well as the successful rehabilitation and release of such individuals back into the community. This includes a review of the literature regarding the link between lower intelligence and offending and the identification of possible factors that either facilitate (or confound) this relationship. The main themes to emerge from this review are that individuals with lower intellectual functioning continue to be disproportionately represented in custodial settings and that there is a need to increase the provision of specialised programs to cater for their needs. Further research is also needed into a range of areas including: (1) the reason for this over-representation in custodial settings, (2) the existence and effectiveness of rehabilitation and release programs that cater for lower IQ offenders, (3) the effectiveness of custodial alternatives for this group (e.g. intensive corrections orders) and (4) what post-custodial release services are needed to reduce the risk of recidivism.

2.4.0 Studies Related to Delinquency and Family Background/ Environment

Spearly and Lauderdale (1983), also reported a significant relationship between family income and rates of reported neglect across counties in the State of Texas, America. The greater the percentage of families with annual incomes over $15,000, the lower the county neglect rate. This effect was significant after a number of factors were taken into account, namely labour
force participation of married women with children less than six years of age, residential mobility, the availability of income support, and the percentage of female-headed households with children. In their analysis, Spearly and Lauderdale also included a variable concerning the percentage of families who had an income of less than $8,000. It was not found to be significantly related to the rate of neglect, prompting the authors to suggest that poverty per se may not be the important factor for neglect in a community; rather, it is the stress and the inability of families to lend material aid to others due to insufficient resources which is important.

**Young, Baker and Monnone (1989)**, examined the relationship between reports of child neglect (confirmed by child protection agencies) and family income. Family income was measured in terms of the percentage of families in a postcode area whose annual gross income was less than $15,000. They found a significant relationship between family income and the number of confirmed cases of neglect, even after taking into account the number of children living in the postcode areas. Furthermore, when they compared the rate of child neglect in the 23 postcode areas with the highest and lowest percentages of families with income less than $15,000, they found that the rate of neglect was almost 11 times greater in the ‘lowest’ income areas than the ‘highest’ income areas.

**Vinson, Berreen and McArthur (1989)**, using data concerning 3,851 cases of physical abuse notified to the NSW Department of Family and Community Services. They compared the rate of physical abuse notifications for the most socioeconomically disadvantaged four per cent of the population of cases with the rate for the six per cent of the population of cases ranked immediately above. The rate for the most disadvantaged group of cases was found to be two times higher than the rate for the next most disadvantaged group. While this study concerns abuse rather than neglect, there is little reason to believe that the situation would be dissimilar for neglect. Indeed, findings
from an American study by Giovannoni and Billingsley (1970) lend support to this belief. They compared the characteristics of poor families who were neglectful (58 families), potentially neglectful (55 families) and adequate (73 families) in their child rearing. Even though all of the families in the study were poor, there was a greater incidence of extreme poverty among the neglectful families.

Lempers, Clark-Lempers and Simons (1989), examined the relationship between adolescent perceptions of family economic hardship, their perceptions of parenting style, and experiences of loneliness, depression, delinquency and drug use. For both boys and girls, economic hardship increased depression and loneliness in adolescents by decreasing parental nurturance and increasing inconsistent and rejecting parenting. Similarly, economic hardship influenced the frequency of delinquent and drug-using behaviours among adolescents by affecting the extent to which parents were inconsistent and rejecting.

Silbereisen, Walper and Albrecht (1990), looked at the effects of income loss on family relations and adolescents’ proneness to problem behaviour. Based on a sample of 134 families, they found that income loss affected the well-being of mothers and fathers which, in turn, influenced the degree of friction or harmony (i.e. integration) in a family. Furthermore, it was reported that the degree of integration in a family influenced the willingness of adolescents in the family to break norms and rules of conduct.

McLoyd and Wilson (1990), examined the effects of economic conditions on parenting among a group of 154 single mothers living in a mid western city in America. From questions about the mothers’ ability to pay bills and their purchasing patterns, the authors derived a measure of economic hardship. A significant link was found between degree of economic hardship experienced and psychological wellbeing. Mothers who experienced greater
economic hardship reported greater levels of distress than those who had fewer economic difficulties. Furthermore, mothers who experienced more negative emotional states perceived their parenting roles as more difficult and were less nurturing of their children than mothers who were less distressed.

Larzelere and Patterson (1990), studied whether a relationship exists between juvenile delinquency and a family’s socioeconomic status, after the level of parent management skill in that family has been taken into account. To test this hypothesis they used longitudinal data from the Oregon Youth Study. The study sample comprised 206 boys from elementary schools located in high crime rate areas. The boys predominantly came from lower- and working-class families. Data for the sample were collected at three different times: a measure of their parents’ socioeconomic status was collected when the boys were in fourth grade, a measure of parental management skill (including both parental supervision and discipline) was collected when the boys were in sixth grade, and two measures of delinquency (charges by police and self-reported offending) were obtained during the boys’ seventh grade at school when they were about 13 years of age. Statistical techniques were used to analyse causal relationships between these measures, and the results obtained supported the hypothesis. The effects of socioeconomic status on delinquency did appear to be mediated through parental management practices. Interpreting this finding, Larzelere and Patterson suggested that parents with lower socioeconomic status may experience greater stress levels and fewer resources, which may hinder the adequacy of their parenting skills. This issue has been considered by several other researchers.

Conger et al. (1992), investigated the role of family processes in linking economic problems to adjustment in 12 to 14 year old American school boys. From interviews with 205 families, they collected information on objective economic conditions, such as unstable work and family per capita income, as well as parents’ experiences of financial difficulty and emotional distress.
Measures of parenting practices (including the extent to which parents were involved and nurturing in their parenting style) and adolescent behaviour (including school performance, peer relations, self-confidence, antisocial behaviour, depression and hostility) were also obtained. Using path analysis statistical techniques, they found that difficult economic conditions lead to emotional distress in parents through the financial pressures they create. This negative emotional state directly affects the parents’ capacity to be nurturing and involved with their sons. In turn, sons experience adjustment problems including antisocial behaviour, depression and hostility.

**Sampson and Laub (1994),** looked at the link between family poverty and parenting styles using a sample comprising 500 school boys and 500 institutionalised delinquent boys aged 10 to 17 years who were raised in low-income neighbourhoods in Boston, America, during the Great Depression era. The parenting factors examined were maternal supervision, parental rejection and parent-child attachment. They found that family poverty (derived from the family’s average weekly income and its reliance on outside aid) was significantly related to the degree of attachment between a parent and child, even after taking into account a range of factors. The factors they controlled for were family size, family disruption, residential mobility, parental mental health, parental deviance (a composite measure of alcoholism and criminality), and maternal employment and childhood behavioural problems. When controls were instituted in the analysis, they did not observe a significant relationship between family poverty and the level of supervision by the mother.

**Sampson and Laub (1994),** subsequently examined the relationship between family poverty, parenting styles and delinquency. In their analysis they employed a measure of parenting called ‘informal social control’ which reflected the level of parent-child attachment, the level of maternal supervision, and the degree to which parents used erratic or harsh discipline. Results indicated that informal social control by parents was related to delinquency,
and it was through this relationship that family poverty influenced delinquency. Poverty, Sampson and Laub (1994) suggested, somehow inhibited the capacity of families to achieve informal social control, and this, in turn; increased the likelihood of a child being delinquent.

Daley (1995), reveals that the juvenile offenders share a number of characteristics such as single-parent households headed by the mother, siblings or parents who have been involved in the legal system, the use of cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana at an early age; a friend who sells drugs; high rates of suspension and expulsion, no aspiration for higher education, early sexual activity, and weapons ownership.

Jarveline (1995), found that 6% males acquired a criminal record between 15 and 22 years. A higher than average delinquency rate was found among those with lower socio-economic status especially when combined with low intelligence. Family social problems had a greater predisposing effect for delinquent behaviour than mental disability.

Harris and Marmer (1996), reported on a study which investigated the extent to which parental emotional involvement (i.e. the extent to which parents are close to their children and show their children affection) and behavioural involvement (i.e. the extent to which parents do things with their children and are supportive of their children) vary across family income levels. They used data concerning 748 children from the American National Survey of Children, a panel study of a nationally representative sample of children. Information collected from two-parent families in 1976 and 1981 was used to categorise families into three groups according to their poverty status: those who had never been poor, those who had experienced temporary poverty, and those who experienced persistent poverty. Families were also classified according to whether they had received welfare. Harris and Marmer found that family poverty status and parental involvement were related. Fathers in poor
families were less emotionally and behaviourally involved with their children than other fathers and the greater the persistence of poverty, the less they were involved. Similarly, fathers who received welfare were less involved than those who did not. Levels of maternal behavioural or emotional involvement did not vary with family poverty status, nor were there any significant differences between mothers who received welfare and those who did not in terms of the level of emotional involvement displayed. However, mothers who received welfare were less behaviourally involved with their children than those who did not receive welfare.

**Zuravin and DiBlasio (1996),** examined correlates of neglect in their study of low-income adolescent mothers from Baltimore. They compared 22 single mothers who had been reported to child protection services for their neglectful parenting and 119 single mothers who had never been reported for neglect but were receiving financial aid from the government. Zuravin and DiBlasio considered numerous variables in their analysis, namely: the background of the adolescent mother (including her own maltreatment, the quality of attachment to her primary caregiver, level of poverty, intactness of her family, emotional problems of her mother, whether she’d run away from home, trouble with the law), her preference for being alone, her level of education, the number of live births she had experienced, her age at first live birth, whether she had had an abortion or miscarriage prior to her first live birth, whether the first live birth had been planned, whether she had experienced postnatal depression, and whether her first child was premature or of low birth weight. The number of children the mother had given birth to emerged as a significant predictor of neglect and was the most powerful predictor of all the factors examined.

**Dhila and Yagnik (1998),** assessed the level of ego and superego strength among 32 male juvenile delinquents in the age groups of 11 to 15 years. A 2 x 2 factorial design was used with 2 levels of socio economic status.
and 2 types of literacy. Results revealed that in the lower socio-economic status as well as middle SES groups, there were significant differences between literates and illiterates in both ego strength and super ego strength. However, there were no significant differences between the lower and middle socio-economic groups on both the factors.

Jalaja (1999), found that there is significant relation between family background and delinquent behaviour. Most of the delinquents belong to low socio-economic strata and the inmate shows a high aspiration about life and they possess an average level of intelligence.

Bhumireddi and Banu (2001), studied the emerging phenomenon of juvenile delinquency from an ecological perspective. Common factors were found to be poverty, illiteracy of parents, back of recreation facility, lack of discipline at home and forced labour. Subjects had lower I.Q. scores than the normal population.

Dietrich et al (2001), examined relationships between prenatal and postnatal exposure to Pb (serial blood Pb determinations) and antisocial and delinquent behaviours (self- and parental reports) in a prospective longitudinal birth cohort of 195 urban, inner-city adolescents (aged 15-17 years). Prenatal exposure to Pb was significantly associated with a covariate-adjusted increase in the frequency of parent-reported delinquent and antisocial behaviour, while prenatal and postnatal exposure to Pb was significantly associated with a covariate-adjusted increase in frequency of self-reported delinquent and antisocial behaviour, including marijuana use. Use of marijuana itself was strongly associated with all measures of delinquent and antisocial behaviour. This prospective longitudinal study confirmed earlier clinical observations and retrospective studies that have linked Pb exposure with antisocial behaviour in children and adolescents. Both prenatal and postnatal exposure to Pb were associated with reported antisocial acts and may play a measurable role in the
epigenesist of behavioural problems independent of the other social and biomedical cofactors assessed in this study.

**Gill and Sokhey (2001),** studied the delinquency proneness behaviour of adolescents from broken and intact homes. A sample of 200 subjects, 100 from broken homes and 100 from intact homes aged 14-18 years, comprised the sample. Results revealed significant differences for the main effect of home at 0.01 level on all dimensions of delinquency proneness. The main effect of gender was also found to be significant at 0.01 levels for social maladjustment, value orientation, autism, alienation manifest aggression, withdrawal, repression and denial. A two way interaction indicated significant differences between males and females on social maladjustment, value orientation, immaturity, manifest aggression, withdrawal and repression. The results further revealed that as the number of years increased after divorce, there was significant decline of social maladjustment, repression, denial and a social index.

**Wong et al. (2001),** examined the interactive effects of criminogenic factors on delinquency among youth in China and Hong Kong. Subjects in the retrospective study comprised 63 male youth (aged 12-18 years) residing in Hong Kong and Guangzhou, China, 32 of whom were convicted delinquents. Subjects completed interviews concerning parental closeness and supervision, reaction to 43 parental supervision, academic performance, and relationships with classmates and teachers, reactions to teaching practices, and time spent in sports activities, youth clubs, and religious activities. Results show that 65% of Hong Kong delinquent subjects, and 40% of Guangzhou delinquent Subjects came from broken homes. Nearly all-delinquent subjects reported that they were ignored by their parents and seldom felt understood. Delinquent subjects exhibited higher school dropout rates, which they attributed to their own behavioural problems, academic difficulties, or poor teacher-student relationships. Non-delinquent subjects associated with friends from school; in
contrast, delinquent Subjects met their peers in video arcades, street corners, or playgrounds and had close ties to neighbourhood gangs.

**Maniyar (2002)**, reviewed the findings of various sociological as well as psychological studies on the influence of family environment on the development of juvenile delinquency. A number of familial factors have been identified that contribute to delinquent behaviour among children and adolescents. These factors include broken homes, family tension, parental rejection, faulty parental control, family economics and discordant parental relationships.

**Mullens (2004)**, carried out study on the topic ‘influence of family structure on juvenile delinquency’. Researcher studied in Kenya and found that delinquent behaviours such as truancy and fighting were related to single-family structure. Other findings from the same study were that juveniles from single or broken homes were 2.7 times more likely to run away from home than children living in two parent home structures. The study also showed that juveniles who were charged with more serious acts of delinquency are from broken homes than juveniles charged with lesser acts of misconduct. Proportionately, more juveniles who were referred to police agencies and the juvenile courts for delinquency charges, like assault, drug handling and other acts, in Kenya live in single-parent family structure when compared to the general population. The study concluded that there was a link between juvenile deviance and single-parent family structure.

**Cradles (2004)**, reported on street children and juvenile justice, stated that the disintegration of the African family kinship meant most family roles are not inculcated in children and as a result they may have an inclination towards delinquent behaviour. Researcher further stated that family separation was a great contributor to children’s delinquent behaviour like running to streets from their family homes.
Ang et al. (2006), conducted research on the relationship between levels of control in different parenting styles and students' academic achievement and school behaviour in Asia. The finding of the study was that those who came from little or no control styles had more negative effects on academic achievements as they engaged in deviant behaviours like bullying other pupils, damaging school property and disrespectful to school authority. Study also revealed that adolescents who receive little or no control like laissez-faire parenting are more prone to delinquent behaviours and health problems than those from the other forms of parenting.

Hoeve et al. (2009), conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship between parenting and delinquency. This meta-analysis of 161 published and unpublished manuscripts was conducted to determine whether the association between parenting and delinquency exists and what the magnitude of this linkage is. The strongest links were found for parental monitoring, psychological control, and negative aspects of support such as rejection and hostility, accounting for up to 11% of the variance in delinquency. Several effect sizes were moderated by parent and child gender, child age, informant on parenting, and delinquency type, indicating that some parenting behaviour are more important for particular contexts or subsamples. Although both dimensions of warmth and support seem to be important, surprisingly very few studies focused on parenting styles. Furthermore, fewer than 20% of the studies focused on parenting behaviour of fathers, despite the fact that the effect of poor support by fathers was larger than poor maternal support, particularly for sons. Implications for theory and parenting are discussed.

Nagle (2009), examined the relationship between family structure and juvenile delinquency was explored in a purposive probability sample of 120 adolescents of the Betamba children’s correctional centre using a questionnaire. The use of quantitative statistical analysis revealed the following significant relationships: (1) Juvenile delinquents mostly come from homes in which the
parents are married; (2) The moral education of juvenile delinquents is undertaken more by others than their biological parents; (3) Most delinquent children come from the lowest socio-economic stratum of society; (4) About two-thirds of the juvenile delinquents come from homes where 7 persons and above live under the same roof; (5) Most parents of our respondents have low paid jobs which keep them for long periods away from their children. A growing number of parents need additional socioeconomic support, development of vital skills of responsible parenting, in order to adequately manage periods of rapid social change and simultaneous multidimensional challenges.

**Moitra and Mukherjee (2010),** examined the relationship between mothers’ and fathers’ parenting behaviour and the development of delinquency in male adolescents located in Kolkata, India. The data were collected from 200 adolescents (100 delinquents and 100 non-delinquents) aged 11-18 years. A significant difference exists in the parenting dimensions of the two groups of adolescents. Further analysis revealed that parenting styles of mothers and fathers were linked to delinquency, of which authoritative style appeared to be the best style of parenting. On the other hand, neglectful and authoritarian parenting was positively related to delinquency. Furthermore, the impact of age and religion upon delinquency was also studied. Age of the delinquent was related to delinquency and it was noted that early adolescence was a richer breeding ground of delinquency. No impact was found between religion and delinquency. The findings have implications for parenting and its effort in reducing delinquency in India.

**Okorodudu (2010),** investigated the influence of parenting styles on adolescents’ delinquency. 404 sample sizes were used for the study. 6 research questions and 6 research hypotheses were designed and formulated for the purpose of the study. Regression statistic was used for the analyses of the study. Irrespective of gender, location and age, the results of the analyses show
that lassair-faire parenting style effectively predicts adolescents‘ delinquency while authoritarian and authoritative did not. Parents who are positively oriented in their styles (demanding and responsiveness) will make their adolescents socially competent and goal – directed. Parents who exerted control and monitored adolescent activities and promoted self-autonomy were found to have the most positive effects on adolescents‘ behaviour. Uninvolving parents and also non responsive to adolescents needs had negative impacts on their behaviour.

Koolaece (2012), compared the family power structure and parent-child relationship quality between delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents in Tehran. The sample consisted of two groups: 80 adolescents aged between 15 and 18 residing in the Tehran Juvenile Correction and Rehabilitation Centres (JCRC) and a control group composed of 80 adolescents aged between 15 and 18; the control group was selected with cluster sampling method from secondary schools of Tehran. The delinquent group were selected through the convenience sampling method from the Tehran Juvenile Correction and Rehabilitation Centres. The inclusion criteria were as follow: Age ranged between 15 and 18 years, any levels of reading and writing ability were considered, without any severe mental and physical illnesses, living with both birth parents. A socio-demographic data sheet was used to record personal information of the delinquent adolescents including age, education, birth order and the personal information of the mother and father of the adolescent including age, education and job type. The basic form of this questionnaire was designed by Fine et al. with the aim of evaluating the quality of children-parent relationship. This inventory is a 24 item self-report measure that focuses on the adolescents and their relationships with their parents. The parent-child relationship test included two forms: the first one evaluates mother-child relationship and the second one evaluates the father-child relationship. The results of this survey indicated that there was significant difference between
father-child relationship quality in delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents. Contrary to these results, some previous studies have shown that poor paternal support is much more detrimental than poor maternal support, especially for sons.

Nanyangwe (2013), investigated familial correlates of delinquent behaviour among school going adolescents in Chingola, Zambia. The study employed a quantitative cross sectional approach and targeted 186 pupils, 106 boys and 80 girls from Luano Basic School, Chamakubi Basic School, Chingola Basic School, Sekela and Chingola secondary schools of Chingola District. An adapted standard questionnaire used by Zenzile (2008) in the Self Report Survey of Juvenile delinquency among secondary school pupils in Mthatha District, South Africa was used in this study. Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Univariate and bivariate analyses were performed to generate descriptive data. Chi Square tests of independence and phi coefficient correlation were performed. The results show that single-parent family structure is significantly associated with delinquent behaviour as indicated by chi square and the phi coefficient tests. A global analysis of parental control and delinquency was also done and an examination of the chi square and phi coefficient values show that there was an association between the two variables. The study has also established that low levels of parental control in Chingola are highly associated with adolescents’ delinquent behaviour. The study indicates that the level of delinquency in Chingola is high as 51.1 percent respondents were insignificant deviants while 48.9 percent were absolute deviants.

2.5.0 Studies Related to Adolescents Creativity, Intelligence & Personality

Passi (1972), explored the relationship among imagination on one hand and the measures of verbal and nonverbal intelligence on the other hand. The
sample consisted of 600 higher secondary school boys and girls of rural and urban areas of the Punjab, Haryana and Union Territory of Chandigarh. The tools used to measure the variables were, Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices. Jalota's Group test of General Mental Ability and Passi's test Creativity. Product moment coefficients were worked out. The attendance of curvilinear relationship between creativity and intelligence optional the possibility of a threshold beyond which any increment in intelligence score would not supply to corresponding increment in creativity scores.

Gakhar (1975), analyze the relationship between intelligence and creativity. Further it was also investigated whether creativity and intelligence were the two apparent modes of thinking or they were overlapping modes of same intellectual functioning. The sample comprised of 730 girls of classes IX, X and XI of higher secondary schools of Punjab. The Torrance test of creative Thinking- Verbal from and Group Test of General Mental Ability by Jalota and Singh were used to calculate the variables. On analysis it was found that both creativity and intelligence were two distinguishable modes of the same intellectual functioning. Yet at the same time they were not distinctly independent of each other.

Dhaliwal and Saini (1976), investigated into the relationship between creativity and intelligence. The sample comprised of 118 male students of urban high schools. Tools apply to collect the date were General Mental Ability test by Jalota and Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking. The product second correlation was computed. Positive and significant relationship between creativity and intelligence was found.

Rawat and Agrawal (1977), studied creativity with reference to intelligence. The sample of the study comprised of 300 students of classes VIII and IX studying in different schools of Agra city. The data were collected with the help of a creativity test urbanized by the investigators and Group test of General Mental Ability by Jalota. On analysis, a significant relationship between creativity and intelligence was found.
Dutt, Bountra and Sabarwal (1977), studied creativity in relation to intelligence. 200 students of class X from Delhi schools constituted the sample. The Jenkin’s Non verbal Non Verbal Group test of intelligence standardized by GIE was used to calculate intelligence. A verbal test on a Verbal incentive to measure creativity was used. On analysis it was found that the positive and somewhat considerable. To a certain extent creativity and intelligence go together, but thereafter they take different directions.

Badrinath and Satyanarayanan (1979), studied the relationship between creativity and intelligence. The sample consisted of 114 students were studying in class IX of central school of Bangalore city. The instruments applied for data collection were: the Verbal and Non Verbal Creative Thinking Test by Mehdi and the Nair’s Nonverbal test of Intelligence. The high intelligent students were found to be significantly higher than the students of low intelligence group in vocal creative thinking and total creative thinking.

Muddu (1980), investigated the relationship between creativity and intelligence. The sample consisted of 474 boys of high schools of Hyderabad and Secunderabad cities. The tools used were the Passi’s test of creativity and A Group test of General Mental Ability. High creative group was found to be negatively connected with intelligence.

Jyotsana (1980), compared the intelligence of high and low creative students of both males and females. The sample comprised to 800 students of XIIth class drawn from the cosmos of Intermediate colleges of the three districts of Meerut commissioner. The findings open that high creative students tended to be more intelligent than their less creative counterparts.

Chadha and Sen (1979), studied creativity in relation to intelligence. 116 students of the XIIth grade of 10+2+3 system from a reputed Delhi supervision school constituted the sample. The Torrance tests of creative thinking and Ravens sophisticated progressive matrices were used to measure creativity and intelligence. The data were analyzed by employing product
group correlation. The results showed that there was a positive correlation between creativity and intelligence.

**Shrivastav (1981)**, studied self esteem during Adolescence as a function of creativity, components, personality adjustment and values. The research attempt to study adolescent’s self esteem with reference to four components of creativity, seven types of values and personality adjustment. It tried – (1). To find how far personality adjustment values and creativity components determine the self esteem during the adolescence. (2). To find out the role of creativity, personality adjustment and value patterns on adolescent's personality perceived self and socially perceived self separately as well as simultaneously. (3). To study the first order interaction and the second order interactions of the three aforesaid variables while they influenced adolescents self esteem. The universe of the study consisted of boys and girls studying in intermediate and degree colleges (age group is 15 to 20) of Kanpur city. The sample comprised 800 students equally divided between intermediate and degree classes (400 each) and between to sexes (400 boys and 400 girls) for the middle socio economic status. The tools of measurement inventory and value test. The findings related to personality perceived self and socially perceived self were – (1) Originality played an important role in personality perceived self of adolescence in comparison to other components of creativity were as creativity production did so in society perceived self adolescents. The assessments of outer world in original manner promoted personally perceived self where as power of creative production promoted socially perceived self.

(2) Out of 7 values high theoretical and religious values promoted personality perceived self where as high political, social values demoted personally perceived self. High theoretical and moral value promoted socially perceived self where as high economic social and religious values demoted socially perceived self. Adolescents having positive self esteem tended to have more theoretical and aesthetic values, where as high self esteem were found to be
associated with high theoretical, aesthetic and moral values. (3) Most of the experiments on adjustment indicated that increase in the levels of adjustment of adolescents led to positive self esteem. (4) A clear cut roll of values and components of creativity in the developments of self esteem was noticeable

**Khan (1983),** studied about the personality characteristics of educationally backward pupils of higher secondary schools of Lucknow district. The objectives of the study were- (1) To discover the significant variables of personality responsible for low achievement. (2) To find out the relationship between these variables. The samples and the study considered of 600 pupils and (150 boys 150 girls of age range 10 to 12 years and an equal number of boys and girls of age range 13 to 16 years) with an I.Q. ranging 100-120 studying in VII to X, having poor marks in school exam, and in Schhonellis Achievement Test. The sample was selected from 1500 pupil studying in class VII to X in higher secondary schools of Lucknow dist. The tools used in the study were Jalota’s Group Test of Mental Ability, Schhonelli’s Test of Achievement and Cattle’s C.P.Q. and H.S.P.Q. personality tests prepared in Hindi by Kapoor and Rao and Kapoor and Mehrotra. Examination marks were also used by the investigator. The collected data were tabulated and analysed using the suitable statistical techniques. Major Findings of the study were- (1) Educationally backward pupils were more reserved, detached and aloof, less intelligent, more emotionally unstable, more excitable, and impatient, more assertive and aggressive, more happy-go-lucky, shy, timid and throat sensitive, tender minded and sensitive, more internality reflective, more insecure, worrying and guilt prone, socially group dependent uncontrolled and careless of social rules and tense, overwrought and frustrated.

(2) On second order factor the educationally backward pupils was more introverts tender minded and subdued, and had more anxiety and poor adjustment. 3. In the whole the girls were found to be a little warmer, more
participating, more emotional, having stronger super-ego, more sensitive, tender minded and guilt prone.

Ghosh (1991), studied the relationship between creativity, motor ability and motor creativity. Objectives of study were: (i) To find the relationship between creativity, motor ability and motor creativity, and (ii) To study whether motor creativity was dependent upon creativity or on motor ability or on both. The sample comprised 600 students aged between 13 to 16 years. The tools used were Passi Tests of Creativity (Bengali version by M.C. Ghosh). Motor Ability measured through five Standardized Tests and Motor Creativity measured by a newly constructed Motor Creativity Test consisting of five test items. Descriptive statistic, ANOVA Product moment correlation and regression analysis were used for the analysis of data. The findings of students were: (1) Creativity, motor ability and motor creativity were positively related with each other. (2) The scores of all four groups in motor creativity, creativity and had a significantly relationship. (3) Motor creativity score were directly related with score in motor ability and creativity, and were also dependent upon them. (4) Motor creativity score could be predicated from the multiple regression equation with the help of motor creativity and creativity scores.

Siddiqui (2011), studied on The purpose of this study was to investigate differences for boys and girls of class VII in terms of the relation between different aspects of creativity. A sample of 50 boys and 50 girls studying in two secondary schools of Aligarh city was randomly selected. The investigator had personally met the participants and administered the tool. Torrance Test of Creative thinking (Verbal Form A) designed by E. P. Torrance (1968) was used. Mean S.D.S and T-test were calculated to analyse the data. The findings reveal that boys do not differ significantly in all the variables of verbal creativity, except the measures of originality from the girls.
2.6.0 Studies Related to Delinquency and Other Related Variables

Gattling (1950), compared delinquents and normal in a given situation by using Rozenweig’s classification system (extra punitive – intra punitive) which consisted of jig saw type of puzzles. The results reveal that the delinquents are characterized by a tendency to evaluate the source of frustration on their way to attainment of goals as external and to direct hostility outward (extra punitive), whereas normal are blaming themselves for the non-attainment of solution for their failure.

Vedder and Somerville (1970), compared female delinquency with male delinquency. Male delinquency is largely dealt with stealing, assault and robbery. Female delinquency is largely sexual delinquency and running away. The juvenile male delinquent tends to hurt others, while the female delinquent tends to hurt herself. Further the dependency needs of the girls are much greater than boys and the process of adjudication is often more traumatic.

Jurkovic (1980), reviewed the literature on the relationship between moral reasoning and delinquent behaviour. In one set of studies the moral reasoning of delinquents and non-delinquents was compared. It was found that delinquent has a less mature level of moral reasoning than non-delinquents. Also it was found that the moral development of delinquents evidenced a developmental lag compared to the moral development of non-delinquents, that is the older delinquents had higher levels of moral reasoning than the younger delinquents but those levels were comparable to non-delinquents who were chronologically younger.

Petronio (1980), investigated the possibility that repeater delinquents of 13 to 17 years of age might have lower levels of moral reasoning than non-repeaters. This possibility was based on the notion that repeat offenders may have an arrested moral development making them more prone to engaging in delinquents act. It was found that repeater delinquents had a higher level of moral reasoning than the non-repeaters.
Veneziano (1988), examine correlates of moral judgements among juvenile delinquents on a sample of 411 adolescent offenders and the result indicate that juvenile delinquents have lower developmental stages of moral reasoning than their non-delinquent counterparts.

Hind (1995), investigated the pleasure reported by juvenile offenders next the playing of 2 interactive processor games requiring equal skills but involving differing levels of apparent aggression and planning for victorious completion. Questionnaires and actions of self-esteem were administered to 72 incarcerated little offenders aged 15-18 years. 40 of these Subjects had a record of violent offending. Subjects' responses were compared to a control group of 30 young, male non-offenders. Subjects were asked to play 2 short processor games, and to rate their approval with both. The results designate to facilitate the computer game which involved pattern planning to achieve success was reported as being less pleasing than that which simply necessary the "destruction" of objects. Further, between group differences were obtained on game satisfaction and self esteem scores.

Hoshino (1995), studied students' and juvenile delinquents' attitudes towards community movement programs calculated to avert delinquency. Human Subjects: 933 normal male and female Japanese adolescents (junior and senior high school students in 6 prefectures). 854 male and female Japanese adolescents (juvenile delinquents apprehended by the police in 21 prefectures) 1,024 normal Japanese adults (teachers, volunteers, government officials, and police officers sponsors of society activity programs in the prefectures where the students and delinquents lived). A survey was conducted 1.5 years after the 5-day school system was introduced. The questions concerned the partiality for, incentive to participate in, and evaluation of organized recreational programs, regular sports practice, enlightening programs, job-training programs, city beautification activities, and social service behaviour.
Wu et al. (1998), studied on factors affecting adolescent delinquency in Singapore and Nigeria which indicated that adolescents who were exposed to higher level of warmth, induction, control and monitoring would less likely be delinquents than those who were little or no controlled at all.

Mistry et al. (1999), studied the relationship between moral judgement and psychopathic traits in a healthy population. The results indicate that in this healthy control population moral judgement scores do not show a significant relationship with psychopathy scores.

Tavecchio et al. (1999), studied the impact of the individual’s life condition on the relation between moral judgement and delinquent behaviour was investigated on a sample of 162 adolescents and young adults. The sample consisted of two groups: homeless youth and institutional youth. Results indicate that institutional youth have conventional level of moral reasoning associated with lower levels of delinquency in four domains of deviant behaviour, including violence and vandalism, no such association was found for homeless youth.

Rapadas (2001), observed that juvenile delinquency has been the topic of numerous researches within the United States and Europe. There have been relatively few investigations into juvenile delinquency in the Pacific Islands. The present investigation studied juvenile delinquency in Guam, a Pacific Island undergoing significant social, economic, and cultural changes. A sample of archival juvenile delinquent records over the last 10 to 13 years from the island’s Youth Correctional Facility were used to reveal patterns, changes, similarities and differences among demographic, clinical, and offense variables. In addition, a small sample of delinquent and non-delinquent youth was interviewed to gain a deeper understanding of their life experiences. The results of the study reveal that among the juvenile delinquent population, young Chamoru males and females, when compared to its population at large, are over
represented in all areas of concern in the study. They experience the highest rates of alcohol and drug use, are more actively suicidal, commit more overall offenses, make up the majority of criminal recidivists, and more frequently report belonging to gangs. Chukese male delinquents on Guam are also over represented in the DYA population when compared to their current population numbers on Guam. Overall admissions have dropped over the last five years due in large part to rigorous follow-up, aftercare, and an early out program. Recidivism rate has stayed consistent at around 50 to 60% despite the drop in admissions. The majority of delinquents are between the ages of 12 through 17. More than half was aged 15 through 17. For Guam's delinquent population, gang behaviour is limited. Assault and property crimes were the most frequent criminal offenses committed by juvenile delinquents, but the majority of all offenses were status offenses. An analysis on clinical diagnoses given to juvenile delinquents reveals that 'oppositional defiant disorder', 'conduct disorder', and 'substance abuse disorders' were the three most frequently given diagnoses. Other less frequent diagnoses included 'child abuse victim', 'borderline IQ', 'adjustment disorder', 'dysthymia', 'learning disorders' and 'PTSD'. Interviews of delinquent and non-delinquents revealed that many delinquent teenagers have a long history of unstable nuclear family situations and often live with relatives. Delinquents have spent a large part of their lives living with people other than their natural parents. Delinquent teenagers interviewed in this study have a history of school failures and are usually in grades that do not fit their age group. Many delinquents report not having many close friends in contrast to the non-delinquents who report having many close friends. Non-delinquents appeared to have more involvement in school clubs, athletics, and community activities.

Hammel (2001), established the MMPI-A's validity with female delinquents. Base rates, response patterns, and configurations for 225 incarcerated female delinquents, ranging in age from 13 to 17 years of age
(mean age = 16 years; SD = 10.6 months), were compared with non-delinquent females from the MMPI-A standardization sample. Results suggest that the MMPI-A scales and subscales differentiate female delinquents from non-delinquents. Differences were consistent with predictions based on previous MMPI research and research findings on the characteristics of female delinquents, lending support to the construct validity of the MMPI-A with this specialized population. To examine whether the MMPI-A is useful in identifying subgroups of incarcerated female delinquents, a post-hoc k-means cluster analysis was conducted on the MMPI-A Basic Scales. Five subgroups were identified. External correlates, such as delinquent history, psychological diagnoses, level of substance abuse, family characteristics, history of abuse, educational achievement, history and/or current psychiatric treatment, suicidal ideation and behaviour, and behaviour while incarcerated were tested for differences among the five subgroups. Further support for the construct and concurrent validity of the MMPI-A with female delinquents was demonstrated, since significant differences in external correlates among the subgroups corresponded with MMPI-A interpretive guidelines. This study was a first step towards establishing the construct validity of the MMPI-A with female delinquents.

Maki et al. (2001), explanation that delinquents and offenders exercise games as resistance mechanisms to evade concern, as well as to avoid liability and accountability for their behaviour. The author presents 20 examples of these games as an impetus for discussion of negative attitudes and behaviour seen among delinquents, and to make some suggestions about what can be finished to redirect and facilitate them to take accountability for their actions.

Olubajo (2001), enumerated a wide range of delinquent acts among Nigerian youths. These include boys fighting with weapons, teenage girls who sneak out of homes and out of schools to sleep with elderly men for money, boys who steal their parent’s jewelleries to sell for money and those who beat
up their parents. In Nigeria, government continues to build remand homes and similar schools where not only teaching and learning take place but the delinquents are educated emotionally, socially and cognitively. More often than not these juvenile delinquents leave these places unchanged. Delinquency affects; their self concept, academic performance, opportunities and sometimes prevent them from becoming useful adults. Students who have low self concept tend to encounter difficulties in almost every area. Low self concept learners have a high level of anxiety, encounter difficulty in making friends, adjust less easily to school and tend to be hampered in school achievement.

Gulati and Dutta (2004), studied the mental health profile of 245 rural adolescents (12 to 16 years) drawn from persistent poor but intact families of Ludhiana district. The results indicated that despite economic diversity and the presence of other risk conditions, majority of the adolescents were found to be performing within normal status of mental health without any manifest conduct disorders and also the effect of gender was found to be non-significant. The results revealed that the dominant problem in males was delinquency and females were anxiety and depression.

Hunter & John (2004), examined childhood exposure to violence against females and male–modelled anti social behaviour as risk factors for sexual aggression and non sexual aggression and delinquency, in a sample of 182 adolescent male sex offenders used structural equation modelling. Both risk factors produced direct and indirect effects on non sexual aggression and delinquency with psychosocial deficits and egotistical-antagonistic Masculinity playing important mediating role. Exposure to violence against females helped explain sexual aggression through the mediating role of Psycho-Social Deficits. As hypnotised, youth who sexually offended against prepubescent children manifested greater deficits in psycho-social functioning, committed fewer offenses against strangers and demonstrated less violence in their sexual offending than offences against pubescent females. Findings are discussed
within the context of major evolutionary psychological concepts for explaining human sexual behaviour, intrasexual selection and intersexual selection.

Kim, Hun-Soo & Kim Hyun-Sil (2005), examined gender difference in the rate, type and relevant variables underlined delinquent behaviour among South Korean Adolescents. Although female delinquency is increasing and becoming more violent in south Korea, the rate of delinquent behaviour was found to be much lower among female than among male adolescents and female adolescents were much less involved in anti social, aggressive and psychopathic delinquent behaviour compare to male adolescents. Moreover, compare to female delinquent adolescents, male delinquent adolescents were found to have greater tendencies towards anti social personality, sociability, being sexually abused, alcohol and drug used. In contrast female delinquent adolescents had a greater tendency toward depression then male delinquent adolescents. No gender differences were found in the association between family dynamics and delinquents' behaviour. As an antisocial personality has the most significant total effects on male delinquent behaviour. In contrast alcohol and drug abuse was strongest contributing factors in female delinquent behaviour, although the level of alcohol and drug abuse was much higher among male adolescents than female adolescents.

Jan et al. (2006), conducted a study to investigate whether juvenile delinquents use lower levels of moral judgement than their non-delinquent age-mates and results show a lower stage of moral judgement for juvenile delinquent. Moral judgement is strongly associated with juvenile delinquency even after controlling for socio economic status, gender, age and intelligence.

Mapson (2006), examined how social control factors might contribute to delinquent behaviour (status and criminal offenses) among African American and Caucasian females using Hirschi's model (1969) of social control. Secondary data was used from the Project on Human Development in
Chicago Neighbourhoods (PHDCN). Data were used for African American and Caucasian girls from Wave I, resulting in a sample of 837. The results indicated that the social control variables did not decrease status offenses with the exception of involvement, which had a negative statistically significant relationship. There were no differences among the races. When looking at criminal offenses, results indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship for attachment and commitment, but not in the predicted direction. Involvement and belief were the only statistically significant variables and they were in the predicted negative direction. An interaction was detected between race-by-belief, race-by-involvement, and race-by-commitment, but only race-by-involvement was in the predicted direction. Further research is needed testing this model.

Stein et al. (2006), analysis the moral value scale based on responses of delinquent and non-delinquent boys of high school. The result indicates that the delinquents do not necessarily ignored moral values but rather become committed to or adopt the value of deviant subculture.

Hasking (2007), examined the relationship between reinforcement sensitivity and delinquent behaviour in a sample of 259 adolescents, and examined the role that coping strategies play in this relationship. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that use of problem solving mediated the relationship between reward sensitivity and delinquent behaviour while use of non-productive coping strategies moderated the relation between BAS drive and delinquency.

Hammond and Emler (2007), studied the attitudes to institutional authority, strength of support for moral values and maturity of socio-moral reasoning have all been identified as potential predictors of adolescent delinquency on a sample of 12–15-year-old boys (N = 789), after checking for
effects of age, IQ, social background and ethnicity. The results indicate that lack of an association between moral reasoning level and delinquent conduct.

**Cauffman et al. (2007)**, studied the mental health symptoms on directly comparable groups of delinquent and community youths. The result indicates that the relative magnitude of gender differences was greater in detained youths than in community youths, with detained girls exhibiting greater levels of symptomatology than would be predicted on the basis of gender.

**Mason et al. (2010)**, examined adolescent delinquency and alcohol use in relation to young adult crime, alcohol use disorders (AUDs), and risky sex. They examined the influences of late childhood involvement in these problem behaviour outcomes, with mediation through teen delinquency and alcohol use, and examined differences in the pathways for youth from low- compared to middle-income backgrounds. Multiple-group latent growth curve modelling was conducted using data collected from a sample of 808 youth followed from age 10 to age 24. Self-report assessments included delinquent involvement, alcohol use, and sexual activity in late childhood; delinquency and alcohol use in adolescence; and crime, AUDs, and risky sex in early adulthood. Researchers found that late childhood delinquent involvement was associated with young adult crime, AUDs, and risky sex indirectly through adolescent delinquency, and had a persistent direct effect on crime. Adolescent delinquency also mediated the relation between early sex onset and crime. Early alcohol use predicted a higher level of, and a faster rate of increase in, adolescent drinking, which predicted, in turn, young adult AUDs and risky sex. Significant group differences indicated stronger associations between adolescent delinquency and each young adult outcome for youth from low-compared to those from middle-income backgrounds.

**Azubike (2010)**, investigated self concept and academic achievement of delinquent and non-delinquent students. A total of 120 subjects comprising of
60 non-delinquent students randomly selected from two secondary schools and 60 delinquent boys were used for study. The 120 students (60 delinquents and 60 non-delinquents) responded to two research instruments namely Adolescent Personal Data Inventory (APDI) for self concept and Achievement Test Battery (ATB) for academic achievement. Three hypotheses were formulated and statistically tested. Result of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Scheffe’s multiple comparison testing indicate that there is a significant difference between self concept of delinquent and non-delinquent students and their academic achievement. There is also significant difference between delinquent and non-delinquent students academic achievement and furthermore result indicate a significant difference between the self concept of delinquent and non-delinquent students. Based on the findings, the study recommended among others that government should provide professional psychologists and counselors to schools, and that such should be concerned with the development of self concept of their students for better academic achievement.

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