CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Juvenile delinquency is one of the problems that has been faced by all countries in one form or other. The care of children primarily by the family, schools, peer group and the community as far as their emotional intelligence and general health are concerned is well emphasized not only by academicians but also by researchers. An unhealthy family environment in any fashion is always a fertile situation for the genesis of any problem that can paralyze the growth of a juvenile. In this chapter studies undertaken by different researchers on different aspects of childhood and adolescence period, delinquency, general health, emotional intelligence, etc, have been highlighted. In addition to this the comments made by experts in field have also been highlighted.

Part I: THEORETICAL CONCEPTS

A) Childhood and adolescence period

B) Delinquency

C) General health

D) Emotional Intelligence
2.2: Childhood and Adolescence Period

According to the UNICEF worldwide accepted well-known definition, all people under 18 are considered to be children. A majority of Psychologists and training experts believe that the basis of person personality figures out at 6 and after this age we should regard on flourishing and until 12 years old, children’s behaviour and observable performances imitate 12-18 year olds and in this period we have touched many transition standpoints physically and mentally, immediate organ growth causes various dreams, feelings and lusts to awaken.

Early mature period is unclear and new senses and have been found all these inward senses and desires effect an outward performance, and is unknown. Such these pressures cause of creative sadness and excitement that don’t’ have any experience one of the emotional changes in youth period is being introvert and fluctuating in emotion manner emotional manner of young have same features such as lacking if controlling inconstancy, despair, depression, different manners and behaviour, patriotism, respecting to others and curiosity of God. In this period, we have touch inconstant emotional manner that with slightest stimuli youth becomes rate or indignant reinforcement and punishment can create grave danger of irate and hate that he makes same action that later be repentant. One of young feature is hesitation and doubt if young in their belief have same hesitation and doubt and they release concrete reflection gradually and go through abstract reflection and logical items and can analyze and get youth definition result from those event and consequences (Razavi, 2006 citing Sotoudeh, Mirzaei & Pazand, 2008).
2.2.1 The Definition of Adolescence:

Adolescence (from Latin: adolescere meaning "to grow up") is a transitional stage of physical and psychological human development generally occurring during the period from puberty to legal adulthood (age of majority). The period of adolescence is most closely associated with the teenage years, though its physical, psychological and cultural expressions can begin earlier and end later. For example, although puberty has been historically associated with the onset of adolescent development, it now typically begins prior to the teenage years and there has been a normative shift of it occurring in preadolescence, particularly in females (see early and precocious puberty). Physical growth, as distinct from puberty (particularly in males), and cognitive development generally seen in adolescence, can also extend into the early twenties. Thus chronological age provides only a rough marker of adolescence, and scholars have found it difficult to agree upon a precise definition of adolescence (Cooney, 2010).

Some psychologists divide Juvenile period into 3 stages:

1. Pre-Juvenile stage that starts in 10 and ends at 12 years old.
2. Primary Juvenile stage from 13 to 16 years old.
3. Secondary Juvenile stage from 17 to 20 or 21 years.

Aristotle divides growth and evolution in three stages first 7 years of life is called childhood, from 7 to maturity juvenile and from mature to 21 years is called youth or growth and evolution (Shoarinezhad, 2000).
2.2.2: Period of Puberty in the Juvenile:

Puberty is the first signal in adolescence span. Some believe this span alters when the child grows from asexual to sexual situation. Juvenile period is a great transition and the Juvenile feels enormous excitement. Puberty is a typical period that is accompanied with growth and evolution changes and it is one of the essential stages in the adolescence period. This period starts at one and it lasts 2 to 4 years. There is no appropriate behaviour this family expects. The Juvenile shows unsocial behaviour. Acceptance of child’s natural positions by family and environments decreases, psychological agitation and make children self confident and self-secure. Here we have some changes in the puberty period:

- **Feeling:** irritation, anger and willing to yell are the factors of period; there is sorrow, anxiety and sensitivity.

- **Exclusiveness:** in the time of growth changes a child, avoids his / her friends and family activities and fight with his / her friends and family members.

- **Social conflict and aggression:** A juvenile in the puberty period is disagreeable, un co-operative and aggressive. Clear enmity is common in this age as each other criticize and insult each other.

- **Lack of self confidence:** in this age a juvenile loses prior self confidence and is unreliable on his / her own and scary of failure. The main reason for this state is the weakness of body strength and constant adults’ and friends’ criticism.

- **Independence:** entering of young people from childhood stage to puberty stage causes independence and getting rid of family domination it results, a
youth likes to have a private room and come home late and choosing friends from outside the family circle (Razavi, 2006 citing Sotoudeh, Mirzaii & Pazand, 2008).

2.2.3: Different Emotions during Adolescence Period:

1) Anger:

Stimuli, reactions and anger responses in the time of juveniles affect their quality changeable atmosphere, understanding level and several manners during the growth and evolution any stages.

The juveniles lose their temper when intrusive factors impede his desire to or postpone his activities from being fulfilled.

2.2.4: Major Stimuli Which Can Make the Juveniles Angry

- Postpone: adolescents blow up when they cannot succeed in some activities and if we interrupt their speaking or wake them up from their sleep which is not complete. Sometimes, at the exam time they get angry easily.

- Feeling of oppression and deprivations: when the young feel injustice from family, friends, teacher or when he or she faces same oppression from the family they become angry if we deprive them from some justice or the members of family particularly his brother and sister interfere or take his personal belongings he becomes angry.
Actions and Responses of Anger in Juvenile Period

As already mentioned, the adolescents show same childhood responses and they react like their parents when they become angry. In the adolescence period anger responses usually emerge as the following forms:

- **Movement signals:** sometimes the young want to show his anger with disagreement. For example, he fetches with depression and agitation ways or he goes out from home. He has the manner of a confused person or he gets involved with some great activities until he contracts some parts of his oppression and anger.

- **Verbal signals:** In the young period, the amount of movement signals is decreased and the young show his oppression with verbal behaviours it means with insults and health arguments.

- **Facial expression:** Some times, the young fall down his anger he retains from punishment and insult and anger in indignation appears in his face.

- **Blaming:** sometimes, the young think he is oppressor and blames himself and in a way he starts to cry.

- **Failure:** one of the Juvenile period features is having various dreams and wishes when he becomes a failure it makes some effect in her excitement and emotion.

Hostility and Aggression

While young, we touch so many hostile and quarrelsome and general reasons of failure and disagreement when one can’t achieve his wants or of his choices be
conflicting he shows anger or hostility. This hostility is specified special body. Low juveniles show their anger comfortably. But in medium level he causes his oppression and don’t like is show. The gives are more conservative than boys in sharing their oppression. Aggression in boys are a signal of manliness, but faulty for girls (Ahmadi, 1989).

**The growth of aggression**

Aggression is an unpleasant and common event while friendship is a behaviour which parents, teachers and all people of the same age see it with a positive perspective. For several decades, psychologists were confused about aggression.

The state of aggression is changing during the growth period. Older kids are doing probably more speech aggression by shoving language and communication skills than physical aggression.

Although some parents are training aggression in their children for self-defence or being older most the parents deny aggression training to their children therefore, the parents, controlled strategies probably help their children’s aggression.

About criminal younger people, those parents who use physical punishment especially in an unsocial way. Probably will have violent and aggressive children. Punishment has a very different effect on aggression and violence of children. When the parents are involved in violence, it has unexpected supporting effect for children, the parent’s punishment of aggression on children isn’t going well for their unfavorable and useless behaviour but it helps the children to improve their useless
and unfavourable behaviour. Family is not only growing in aggression directly by several control strategies but also it can help to control behaviours of children indirectly. Parents control on children’s activities and social touches is another important work about aggression (Hetrington and Roosdi, 1994).

**Anxiety**

It is an emotional and physiological response to danger psychologically that isn’t discarded easily. There are several causes for anxiety in children, sometimes anxiety for parents is wrong behaviour for children Severe failures for parents reproach on children or for wrong concept and interpretation about them and sometimes it is due to some decisions about education, job etc.

2.2.5: *The social growth of juveniles*

Improving and increasing social relationships are such factors during teenage period. A juvenile is continuously trying to improve his / her social relationships to get rid of family, other people and also people of his or her age.

This improvement is going to the point that the juvenile is cutting of his / her family or when it is necessary he is trying to make contact with his /her family members Juveniles are spending most of their time out of home with their friends. These groups (friend) shape and affect their appearance speeches, behaviours and style of walking. For example: most of the juveniles are trying to match and shape themselves with the exact style of these groups (Ahmadi, 1989).
These groups (friends) are juveniles’ real world and they are making a period for Juveniles to see themselves. In this group, juveniles are shaping the concept of self concept as they are evaluated by others.

Juveniles’ relationships are reducing with family members in teenage period and this is because of both sides. This means that parents avoid their children’s abilities and they don’t want to accept their getting older or growth. Juveniles need essential adjustments for improving new inter values and tendencies in teenage period. This is a period of transferring from one step to another in improvement and it is a time of seeking for identity and emotional changes in this period, juveniles don’t easily all special social style and customers and they are interested to cut special customs. Stanley Hall asserted that excitement and emotions are changing in this period of time and see hateful to some issues such as upper power and glory. Juveniles’ happiness and laughter are changing to depression. On the other hand, juvenile keeps childhood selfish. Juveniles with trusted friends are sometimes interested to be alone and friends affect on their mentalities. Sometimes sensitive emotions and sometimes violent emotions happen to them and it terribly simulates juveniles’ curiosity and they are very interested to solve problems although sometimes they are hateful to these issues and with any upper power persons. They know these factors from the importance of juvenile period. In this step of improvement, juveniles rarely follow their parents and they are angrier for interruption by their parents for their values and for their private life. Juveniles need to determine their identity from their parents’ identity at this time. Therefore, juveniles should belong to their society and know themselves as a member of that society (Ahmadi, 1989).
2.2.6: A Review on Juveniles’ Delinquency and Misbehaviour

Delinquency is really a bio-psycho-social phenomenon and is involved in making criminal activities with these three components and sometimes one more component. In some cases, more biological factors are involved and one suffers internal harmonic glance or physical organ activities that are socially illegal. The clear example is with those who have problems in their sexual glance or in sexual hormones which leaks out irregularly. These people with sick tendencies are under internal pressure and disobey social rules (Ahmadi, 2005).

Juvenile delinquency refers to antisocial or illegal behaviour by children or adolescents (Macmillan Dictionary for Students, 2010). Most legal systems prescribe specific procedures for dealing with juveniles, such as juvenile detention centers. Juvenile delinquents sometimes have associated mental disorders and/or behavioural issues such as post traumatic stress disorder or bipolar disorder, and are sometimes diagnosed with conduct disorder partially as both the cause and resulting effects of their behaviours. In new theories about causes of delinquency, Emotional Intelligence has attracted more attention. Emotional Intelligence (EI) is self-awareness of one’s own feelings and needs, the ability to label them accurately, and to merge them with personal long-term goals as well as the needs and feelings of others in the current social situation (Jerabek, 1998).

Psychological disorders such as low self-esteem and insufficiency are important in kids and juveniles misbehaviour and criminality and this is because the growth of “I” is in maturity period is more sensitive than the growth of physical
factors. In many of the mental problems in the teenage period, juveniles are going to be violent and feel dependent and they want to take to destruction, suicide, robbery, beating and murder.

However, social factors make the most important causes for juvenile delinquency and misbehaviour, destroying family systems, financial poverty, lack of investigation on juveniles behaviour, parent’s violence, their behaviours intolerance by juveniles wrong economical and political structures such as irregular distribution of income and wealth, are some factors which make boys and girls break away from their families, and join in criminal groups, robbery, addiction and obscene act (Ahmadi, 2005).

Education experts, psychologist’s and sociologist’s, studies of juveniles criminality when many of the abnormal behaviours such as using narcotic drugs destroying public and private properties and abnormal activities after football games, using more alcohol drinking, illegal sexual behaviour, run away from home school have been common among juveniles.

These social deviations are not only important because they are new shapes of deviation in a society but also make an introduction for doing severe crimes such as; murder, robbery by gun and changes today’s criminals to tomorrows criminals. Juveniles’ motivation of criminal behaviour is different from adult’s motivation for doing crimes and it is logical for some educational, psychological and sociological theories which have studied young people’s criminality and present some perspectives.
• The history of social reaction on kinds of juvenile delinquents

The concept of juveniles criminality was presented in England in the 19th century about, (1815) for the first time was an increase in juvenile crimes and the concept of kid’s criminality was common in all countries. In the United States, the bill to found a kids court was presented to the law house in Chicago in 1891. The law bill was passed in 1899 and became.

By passing this law, kid’s court was founded and the court started its work formally. The foundation for a kid’s court was made in all states quickly. There are kids’ courts in all parts of the United States. In the mean time, in 1909, an important organization called Juvenile Psychopathic Institute was founded in Chicago Its fundamental work was about investigation and research on juveniles behaviour and had a close relationship with kid’s court in Chicago. It seems historically some steps were done late against social deviations and specially kids and juveniles criminality and this subject comes back to one or two centuries ago.

In classic sociology, social deviations have been considered as a behavioural method which is against society rules and it has been defined against normal behaviour and collection of normal behaviours that are acceptable for all members of a society (Ahmadi, 2005). Social deviation is social phenomenon where there are no worldwide methods to define it because social deviation is relative to time and place, People’s social position, cultures, ideologies and different social groups. In addition the definition of social deviation is mixed with the subject of power which his acceptable through the owners of power and everything that is unacceptable force to others (Sheikhavandi, 2005). According to this definition each behavioural idea or circumstances which deny social normal behaviour is called social deviation.
2.3: Misbehaviour or Delinquency

Criminality is a kind of action of behaviour which is aggressive against penal rules in fact, criminality is a kind of deviation which deviates to more common than punishment. Determining of juvenile’s exact criminality reasons isn’t not only easy and simple but also difficult and impossible criminality isn’t just of the present and human’s history is full of punishment criminality and crime. It was discussed about juveniles’ criminality even in the past. Therefore may be it is in today’s world which is common scientific study about juvenile delinquency and many of humanities scientists and common people have focused on it.

Criminality is not a natural and genetic phenomenon and no criminal kids or juveniles are born but there are several environment factors which make kids and juveniles go the criminal way. There is the atmosphere of family that is very important to consider it (Shambayati, 1993).

2.3.1: Factors Affecting Delinquency

Although delinquency includes mutual biological, psychological and sociological performance with regards to biology – psychology and social elements in the extensive dimensions, primarily sociability executors spend to social and cultural factors to delinquency and between these factors they have more attention to the family and school and the same age groups.
Family and juvenile delinquency

Family is the oldest and first social connecting place with the adolescent and mutual action and emotional relationships between juvenile and parents are the cause of creation, expectation and juvenile’s actions in social relationships during adulthood. Hence some of the disorders and problems that juveniles encounter are rooted from the family (Ahmadi, 2005). Family’s factors that have been referred to sociability and emotional relationship between families, controlling of family, assimilation of children with parents rupture of the family and the family traits have effective function in the creation of felonious behaviour between juveniles.

Juveniles’ social and family disorder sources are searching as like physical and material discord in the biological and mental changes during puberty. It is obvious that mental – sexual phenomenon’s have remarkable effect in the manners juveniles behave. But as we know they aren’t only applied stimulus, rather in the hierarchy reasons enumerate one of the important of them. Juveniles gain remarkable high power of their body in the early days of puberty and understand the meaning of freedom hence they are combating with some moral constraints that their family forced them during the infancy (Ahmadi, 2005).

According to Agnew (1992) one of the most powerful elements that lead juveniles to delinquency is some pressure from the family such as physical and verbal punishment, distant emotional relationship, battle and conflict, divorce and death of parents. These are some pressures that juveniles choose them as a reaction and go ahead to delinquency.
2.3.2: Peers and juvenile delinquency

The same age are the groups that their members have the similar age and are in the mutual action with the other members of the group and gain the support of the group with the performance of their own function (Ahmadi, 2005). After the family, the same age juveniles are as a second element of sociability children usually gain some equal condition and situation and good relationship and allocate more time to them relevant to their growing.

Also with the increasing of influence of the same age group, it decreases the influence of parents and it reaches the summit during puberty. The same age group apply great influence in their social behaviour and personality through endowing donation or criticism and sanction (Boycott) for conformity of inconformity members (Sotoudeh, 2008). It is so important for juvenile’s to be friendly and amity and enjoys living with them. Juvenile’s communities supply the environment that has depth effect in the personality of each of them. They have great power that can affect the members of groups. These groups enumerate pivot for members and even they rise against their family and irritate the temper of the family (Ahmadi, 1989).

According to Cohen, juveniles are attracted and decedent on their same age group because of the need to establishing specific social relationship with others and need to be the center of attention and interest of others and to be praised and respected by the others. This dependence cause some pressure in the same age net for each of the participants to oblige others to the accomplishment of their own duty. Although this pressure doesn’t distribute equally among the members of the group, one of the group (members) benefit from this. This pressure enumerates as an
element for normal behaviour and an element for felonious behaviour pressures such as sulk, rupture, pattern, humility and blame from them (as cited in Agnew, 1992).

2.3.3: School and juvenile delinquency

None of the scholars could ignore on the area of corrupt juveniles, sensitive era of the school that has great function during the life and destination of the young people. School era not only enumerate as a prevention era of corruptions but also is a remedial era for going astray. Although this era has the great function on the guidance of stray it, can create corruption.

Institutions have some effective subject for monitoring society. It is one of the important institution for the pedagogy of the member of society, because of teaching, analysis of duties and rights of people, transfer of normal and social value and cultural. School is similar to the factory with regards to all of their law and perception that raw material such as children learn behaviour and action under certain circumstances and specific model that is equal for public and every category of society. As if school is like model that try to compose the human and avoid differences due to cultural and national tribe and standard and correspondents the behaviour of juvenile’s base on national and state criterion and evidence (Sheikhavandi, 2005).

School is one of the main social institutes that render cultural values and behaviour that prepares people for accomplishing functions in society and learns necessary skills for living in the society and independence to juveniles but it can cause some social evils in juveniles (Ahmadi, 2005).
Pedagogical institutes can promote violence in society through incidents or obvious propaganda, violent ideologies or support of casual for example a few ages in Iran, punishment mentioned as necessary factors for politeness that is one of the elements of violence and promoting of it at (Mohseni, 2007) in school of different levels can create negative emotions such as anxiety, stress, anger.

There for some existence pressure in schools such as physical punishment, blame, ridicule of juveniles among the classmates, prejudice, lack of justice are some of the elements that cause delinquency in people (Agnew& White, 1992).

2.3.4: An overview on delinquency viewpoints

- Environmental perspective

Environmental perspective is subject to the first analysis on approach, nature, and characteristics of deviants. Deviancy is a damaging phenomenon which considered individual pathology which in fact has a natural essence. Based on environmental view, deviation occurs as a result of kinds of life’s problems which have external reasons. For instance, the life pattern by Lombroso, both at the initial and final point emphasizes on measureable physical differences among delinquents and non-delinquents and aims to approve the link between crime and these natural and individual characteristics. All the studies by Lombroso and Frad on facial characteristics on 20 women indicated that some individuals are ‘innate guiltling’ i.e. these people in the physical characteristics are similar to monkeys and therefore they can be seen as a kind of ‘return’ to the previous
evolution stage (Sedighi Sarvestani, 2005). Other studies on the relationship between chromosomal disorders and criminal behaviour also approve the hypothesis by biologists regarding the relationship between environmental view and deviation (Ahmadi, 2005). Perhaps the first problem with this approach is that this study by biologists was performed on jailed official criminals and delinquents while lots of deviants are not arrested by the police.

- **Individualism perspective**

  One of the presuppositions of the first scientific studies on deviant behaviour approach was that deviant behaviour was seen as an individual matter than a social one. Based on this, in their studies scientists attempted to seek the root and reason of deviant bahaviour in genetic conditions and also personality characteristics of the individuals. They believed that there is a relation between physical and hereditary characteristics, even chromosomal composition and other biological characteristics of people committed deviant behaviour.

- **Biological perspective**

  In this view, crime and kinds of social deviations are thought to be resulted from heritage, physiognomy, genetic and chromosomal analysis of crime, born criminals, etc. and in general in this view, they think that the body structure is subject to be analyzed to study crimes. In other words, most
criminologists and biologists believe that people’s crime is recognizable through mentioned variables.

- **Psychological perspective**

  The psychological perspective, in addition to environmental factors, it emphasizes also on psychological harm and the role of ‘internal mental variables’. In psychological perspective, for instance, a group of psychoanalysts believe that deviation is resulted by the malfunctioning of ‘ego’ or ‘super ego’ and others on the other hand, suppose that there is a sort of anti-social or fundamental psychic affliction in the deviants’ personality and deviation is nothing but the influence of these personality problems on the individuals’ behaviour.

  This perspective considers each person as a unique personality in whom individual characteristics such as personality disorders, anger, anxiety, depression, delight, retardation, and attachment to others, have to be studied in order to determine the reason of deviant behaviour.

  Psychologists listed different reasons for delinquency. Sometimes they know delinquency as a result of failures and severe conflicts from which a growing child is severely suffering from and sometimes they also consider juveniles’ delinquency as a manifestation of a rebellion. According to, Korasos, nobody, even the people who sympathize with them, cannot ignore this fact that the juvenile delinquents’ actions are often harmful and usually an outburst against people and local social life. Freud believed that,
fiascos and failures and children’s need conflicts bring tension, anxiety and psychological disorders and also disturb his mental balance (Shambayati, 1993).

Although investigators support the relationship between psychological phenomena and delinquency, they also attribute these behaviours to environmental factors. For example, evidence proves that the recognition of the individual’s socio-economic status determines his excitation threshold and control level although aggressive arousal is performed through nervous system.

- **Sociological perspective**

  The common aspect of sociological definitions is in the interpretation of deviant behaviours based on the social and cultural forces of individuals and because it is originated from social and structures and levels, it influences a large group of people. Social and trans-individualism aspect is the major characteristic of this perspective dealing with deviation. This means that, the variables in the definition of deviation are related to the concept of community and pervasive social structures and organizations.

  Social scholars also have different views on reasons of delinquency. For example, Lombroso (1876) citing Koarakios (1987) studied particular human physical characteristics namely head width, jaw form, etc. to explain the reasons of deviation. Later in the 19th century many social scholars made an attempt to find relationship between deviation and social, economical, regional … indexes. The same as the Chicago school of thought whose
studies showed the relation between delinquency and social and economical condition of a region, other group of sociologists such as Sutherland explained the process of getting criminal and justified that the delinquency behaviour follows the very same process as other social behaviours. According to Durkheim, if social disciplinary and supervision forces are not able to control the instinctive tendencies, delinquency will be inevitable. However, because his opinion is not based on official crime statistics, most often his ideas are not in accord with the actual statistics in the community and they also do not explain the delinquency in middle and high levels of society. At present, it cannot be claimed that juvenile delinquency is only devoted to particular social and economical levels. A great deal of evidence support that juveniles from the rich level are instantly joining the rank of delinquents.

Morton (1967) generalized his strain theory based on Durkheim’s anomie theory. His theory considers deviation as the source of structural strains which puts individuals under pressure. Therefore, the theories following Morton’s leading theory are identified as “strain theory”. Later, Cohen used the term ‘strain’ by combining the sociological and psychological fields. However, except these perspectives, other sociologists such as Parsons, and Durkheim, contrast theory, the Chicago school, investigated on the issue of delinquency.
• **Functionalism School**

  *Durkheim*

  In the discussion of deviation and delinquency, Durkheim doesn’t employ the totally usual method. Unlike most criminologists that consider crime as a pathological phenomenon, according to Durkheim occurring crimes is an ordinary phenomenon and even he believed that there are positive social functions in their outcomes. Crimes happen because there is no society that can impose absolute compatibility with all the social instructions for all its members. If it is successful to do so, it will be so oppressed that nobody has the freedom for social collaborations. For a society to remain flexible and its doors open to new transformations and compatibilities, the presence of deviation from social norms is inevitable. Where there are crimes, there is flexibility in the emotions of a group of people to the extent that they get a new form. Crimes sometimes help the determination of the form that emotions are going to get in future. When a crime occurs repeatedly in society, in fact it reflects the future moral form and already determines the future form of morality. But apart from the recognition of such direct outcomes of crimes, Durkheim also found other important indirect functions regarding crimes. Durkheim argued that a delinquent action determines the social issues by arousing the emotions of a group of people against encroaching upon social norms. Therefore, crime in an unpredictable method, strengthens the norm leading agreement on public interest. Crimes make the honest sentiments get together and be centralized (Koser, 2000 citing Ahmadi, 2005).
Anomie

Durkheim was the first who incorporated the concept of anomalousness in sociology. Anomie can be viewed by the situations in which there exists no particular manner (norm) for an individual to follow; as a result holistic grows rootless. They occur when cultural expectations are incompatible and discordant with social facts (Cohen, 1974 as cited in Sotoudeh, Mirzaii & Pazand, 2008).

Tard’s psychological exchange school

Gabriel Tard believes that an individual’s behaviour in society and community evolves out of it has its roots in imitation people establish their social relationship, imitating other’s habits. Memory intelligence and custom, play decisive role in imitation, further more all social changes such as powers, religious juridical, ethical, artistic changes as well as language and finally lifestyle grow out of (are caused by) imitation(Cohen,1974 as cited in Sotoudeh,Mirzaii&Pazand,2008).

Cultural Milieu School

Delinquency is viewed as a social microbe on firming Durkheim views concerning the fact that crime must be sought in social milieu, he believes that the origin of device traced in cultural and social impacts and criminal in the victim milieu. In his point of view each society has felons which deserve me society since social milieu affects the individual as a result of and drives him toward committing the crimes. Criminal behaviour is a social microbe and each develops in the
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conditions which provides the ground for each society, due to its own special conditions has special criminal crime is cause at by social milieu in which an individual lives and develops and is dependent on that milieu. He attributes crimes committed in the urban and rural areas to the condition, nutrition, living state, education and training characteristics, religious beliefs and finally customs of each society believes that felons and criminals of victims are social system than responsible for their delinquency misdeed and crime committing has a strayed him due to the negligence and nonchalance (Danesh, 2007).

Contrast theory

Over this theory, a major turning point is the fact that the poor and rich strata of society have common economical and political interests and most power elites take advantage of or in fact misuse their power to define and implement the norms which support their benefits. Cohen (1974) cited in Sotoudeh, (2001) states that the western capitalists are the source of this imbalance. His interpretation of the “opposition theory” is based on the crime in the U.S.A; He furthermore mentions four points for determining high crime rate there.

1. Power elite through thinking of the behaviour of those who threaten their lives as criminals.
2. Power elite and the rich take advantage of the crime definition for supporting their benefits.
3. Since life opportunity is limited for the underdog in society, they have to deal with behaviours which are considered as criminal.
4. And finally the power elite are editors of ideologies which defines the criminals in order to humiliate the underdog which include the majority (Sotoudeh, 2001).

Social Control Theory

According to Hirschi, delinquency as a social problem, should be studied in the same way as it takes place in society, that is in family neighbourhood, school, people of the same age and other social organizations and institutions of which juveniles are member.

Hirschi believes that delinquency takes place when individual’s limitations weaken or disappear with regard to society. Hirschi has forward and examined the theory of social control in his book “social norm”. First he had defined the terms delinquency or misbehaviour as a person who is free of social norms and in fact crime of delinquency takes place when the individual is in different or heedless of social norms. These norms can be summarized in four comprehensive concepts.

Dependence: dependence is a sensitiveness which a person shows to other’s opinions. Dependence is in fact, kind of norm which obliges him / her to follow social norms. This dependence, he argues, is equivalent to conscience or superior self, such as dependence of children on parents, close relatives, friends, and teachers.

Commitment: commitment is the extent to which a person deviates from (in fringes) the social conventional behaviours. That is a person who is committed to social norms eschews from these dangers. If we take dependence as equivalent to
Conscience, commitment is coequal to the common sense or self-like commitment to following the religious orders or preserving the family and national dignity, etc.

**Involvement**: Involvement is the extent to which a person is involved in different activities which give rise to lack of time for deviations like involvement in school and homes, pursuits, involvement in extracurricular program, special hobbies, membership in sports club etc.

**Beliefs**: The extent to which a person credits the conventional norm while he can break them willingly, stay observant to them like belief in benevolence, belief in good reputation in family and people of the same age and belief in taboos hatred (hating) to tyranny. From the sociology point of view, this theory focuses on the factors contributing in committing misbehaviour and delinquency (Hirschi, 1969).

**Structure Theories, Sub-cultural Misbehaviour and Delinquency**

Structural deviation theory and Morton theory are like these theories that seek deviation roots based on groups in social structure. Cultural theories know the deviation for existing cultures in a social group. These theories try to make values, groups and clear normal behaviour which are off the course in the culture of a society.
Cohen

In the discussion Cohen said that deviation refers to lack of culture and abnormal cultural delinquency used these theories in analyzing something in criminality.

He continued that low-class labour family’s children suffer their social position because the ways of success have been blocked for them and they go to the culture of criminality and misbehaviour. So they receive their normal behaviour from the culture of society. But they change them in an opposite direction. Because of this, they put importance on actions such as larceny, destruction, vagrancy, and other actions which are considered as absurd. Cohen introduced secondary criminal culture as culture has an ugly face or picturing them enjoys worrying other people and they seek their enjoyment in doing acceptable and unacceptable works. But secondary criminal culture goes beyond to in attention to these actions which are negative reaction to a society. Culture gives criminal people positive rewards. Those who are doing successful actions according to criminal values and misbehaviour, they try to get celebrity to their criminal friends. Hence, according to Cohen, robbery isn’t a tool to get success to access for values in a society but it is a kind of valuable action that is along with honour, bravery and satisfaction (Cohen, 1974 as cited Sotoudeh, 2001).

Low-class labour family’s children solve their privation of social position. They deny acceptable values in a society which do not give them success chances and they replace successful deviation values instead of those values. Cohen doesn’t regard the criminal actions motivation in the world of rewards. Cohen pays attention to the structure of society and believes that all the members of a society don’t have
enough chances to get success. In the structure of a society, there is more force for deviation on clear groups in hence, he with Morton’s theory is disagreeable which states criminality is a public reaction and it leads to secondary values. Cultural privation has been transferring from one generation to another generation. But it doesn’t happen for criminal culture it seems that secondary criminal culture is made new by every generation of boys who show reactions to the social structure against their position (Cohen (1974) as cited Sotoudeh, (2001).

Walter Miller

In analyzing for criminality, criminality is a kind of exaggerated showing off which is related to the cultures of low-class labour and this issue is related to the needs of a society to sub-skill full forces. Miller pointed out two factors in relation to juveniles’ social low-class tendency.

1. Their interest to have the same age friends that it is essential to adjust themselves with them.
2. Those juveniles who could get celebrity by normal behaviour of the same age groups, so the celebrity of juveniles in a low-class labor in a society can depend on their friend’s view about celebrity, stubborn and smartness.

Something that Miller has drawn about the members of a low-class in a society is the members of this class of a society live in a world which is totally different with other members of society and they usually follow their own culture in the society without any attention to the main culture in society (Miller, 1958).
The Chance of Differential Theory

Glowered & Ohlin (1960) citing Ahmadi (2005) presented a concept in the book Criminality and Chance. In this book, their fundamental hypothesis is that those who belong to labor class or economical and social cultures. They are usually interested to get success in legal ways. But society is going to get them these chances for getting the goal. The results of this restriction are a serious disappointment for people to get legal actions in this situation. There is more and more criminality and misbehaviour. Cloward and Ohlin, like Morton, believed that low-class people are more interested than other people to deviation and misbehaviour because they experience the split between successes and unsuccessful by legal ways more than other groups. According to these two theories, kids and juveniles don’t clearly decide to be criminal. But their behaviour is going to respond to chances. They are looking for their own understanding of their position in doing criminal action against different forms of strength. Therefore, in doing illegal behaviour, police teachers and courts, behaviour is important as legal forms of power. They believed that criminal behaviour will happen in open illegal places or illegal structures. Because they believed that illegal behaviour among low-class kids and juveniles are clear for getting better social and economical situations by illegal chances.

Theory of Learning with Frequency of Contacts

Southerland, in his theory, tries to demonstrate that crime and deviance goes into social constructs through cultural give-and-take. Southerland and Kersey consider these as the root of deviance and its continuation.
1. Deviance is learnt, i.e. it is not congenital.

2. Deviance is learnt in through the communication process while in contact with others.

3. The main part of crime and deviant behaviour is done through intimacy within the group.

4. Frequency of contacts may be different in terms of time of happening, priority and intensity, i.e. how much a person is in contact with deviant is important.

5. When the deviant behaviour is learnt;
   - This learning includes the techniques of committing crime which is sometimes easy and sometimes hard.
   - This learning includes acquiring particular tendencies, motivations, and justification of behaviour.

6. Process of learning deviant behaviour through communication includes all learning mechanisms which are necessary for any other behaviour.

Southerland and Kersey believe that society has different organizations which influence on people’s behaviour. In this theory, the main supposition is that the source of crime is an organizational one.

Southerland is opposed to concept of deviance and believes that crimes aren’t unconscious processes or hidden biological motivations. Here, frequency of contact is important, not just contacts (Momtaz, 2002).
Theory of labelling

Theoreticians of labelling believe that crimes and deviant behaviours aren’t for people’s characteristics, but a process of mutual action among deviant people. According to them, to realize the essence of crime, we should consider this question: why some people are labeled as deviant and criminal? Those who are agents of order and rule in the society and are able to enforce some definitions on others are the main source of labelling. These definitions are set by the rich for the poor, men for women, old for young, and majority for minority. The main aim of this theory is expressing the reasons of these definitions in society and the ways by which they may produce deviance. Accepting a special person’s deviance in behaviour causes other people to have an inappropriate behaviour with them. So, the person not only stops his/ her deviant behaviour, but also shows more tendencies toward doing such things (Gidnza. 1994, Stark et al. 1997, citing Ahmadi. 2005).

Lemert

Lemert, as one of the theoreticians of labelling, divide deviances into two groups. The first deviances lead to people’s reaction. The secondary deviance considers people’s reaction as a reason for the person’s deviant behaviour. The point is that the first deviances have a weak influence on the person, but the secondary ones may have more consequences. Exaggerating about the first deviances could be a sign for beginning of the secondary ones which may have bad effects on people. According to Lemert, secondary deviances could even lead to permanence of deviant behaviours (Hang, 1994).
Beccar

Beccar, as one of the theoreticians of labelling, believes that deviance is a product of society, i.e. we should look for the reasons of societal deviances in the conditions of society and its provoker elements (Beccar, 1973). According to him, some groups in society create special rules which, ignoring them is considered as deviance. These groups, by applying their rules in society and calling some people deviant, create deviance. He also defines deviance and deviant behaviour as this: the deviant person is called deviant by society, and deviant behaviour is a behaviour labelled by people living in society. (Ibid)

He consider two main elements in his theory of labelling

1. Self labeling
2. Consequences of labeling

Self-labelling means the person’s evaluation of his / her deviant behaviours. Deviant people may call themselves as deviant. Beccar also emphasizes on the ways a person is labeled as deviant by others. So, in this case, we can evaluate the deviant behaviour based on the definitions of those who label (Becker, 1973 citing Ahmadi, 2005).

Symbol interaction actions

According the theoretician, Hagan (1994) deviant people are those who are blamed by other people of society. This view pays attention to the deviant person, and his contacts with those who call him/ her deviant. Theoreticians consider why
some people are known as deviant or criminal. Theories of symbolic mutual actions examine all the aspects meticulously and shift the emphasis from values to definitions in order to express the deviant behaviours. The main focus of this theory is to consider the roles of those in control of society in evaluating the symbolic definitions of deviant behaviour.

**Theory of ecology**

In 1920, some sociologists invented theory of ecology for studying the living in society. Ecology emphasizes on the relationship between organisms and environment. According to these sociologists, people’s behaviour can be expressed through their environment. They believe that as cities develop, some special towns are created which each of them has got their own way of lie.

One of their presuppositions is that the cities which are not organized create deviant values in society.

According to the theory of Bergs, a city is divided into five residential areas;

1. Commercial area
2. Transitional area
3. Area of workers
4. Area of middle-class
5. Areas with the least amount of crime

Based on their theory, many crimes and deviant behaviours happen in transitional areas or where migrants and poor people live. Park and Bergs believe
that when migrants exit their own country they put behind their culture and acquire the culture of the new country. This process along with living in slum dog in industrial societies may lead to crimes and deviant behaviours (Ahmadi, 1998)

Shov and Mackey observed that matters such as escaping from school, nervous breakdowns, and crimes usually happen in areas which are near the center of the city. According to them, these happenings are for the sake of towns, not the people who live there. Shov and Mackey believed that this disorganized form and incongruity brings about societal controls, and consequently forms a disorganized society which leads to deviant behaviour. Using this theory, Hirushi (1969) concluded the control theory which notices the behaviours of the young people, families and schools (Hagan, 1994)

**Theory of Places with Crime Potentiality**

The terms of places with crime potentiality express one place with high degree of offence confined area / limit in this place can be part of the city, a small parish. District and or several adjacent streets and even it’s possible a home or residential assemblage.

At first this viewpoint, was suggested by Sherman, Gartin and Berger in 1989 and it is based on offence place. According to this theory some limits confidence or special parts / locations from city high numbers of offences by reason of / because of existence of some skeletal, social and economical elements that include civic nodes and some passes and municipality outskirts (Terminals, transformation stations and etc.(Kalantari, 2001 citting Ahmadi, 2005).
Classifying Residential Unit Theory

Current view point substantiated very good that general take cares decreased offender and deviance very much. On the others hand, immorality and environmental tumble like to rubbish, ruin, doing some impolite and crusty / rude manners vagrancy / tramp, inebriety / drunk, etc. lead to increase of the offenders (Shokouhi, 1990).

The broken windows theory

It is well-proved that general supervision to a great extent impedes and decreases the amount of delinquency and miss-behaviour. On the other hand, lack of supervision and environmental disorderliness such as trash, ruins, impolite and coarse actions, tramps, inebriation, and beggary results in an increase in the rate of delinquency in these places.

Based on this viewpoint, broken windows was not a sign of structure of the individual and group controlling over there and when there are no social monitors then it is green-light for aberrant that they are waiting / anticipating to save time (to make the most of / to avail oneself of time) and they commit the offence in these places. Industrial and commercial departments / building without population, broken doors and windows and desolate walls, dirty general precinct and full of rubbish in some civic situation can be increase and commit the offence in these places and it is indicated some special environments are attractive for / catchy potential offer or Guitties to commit crime (Perkins, 1993 citing Ahmadi, 2005).
2.3.5: Theoretical Basis (Pioneers of Strain theory)

**Merton (Robert Merton)**

In as much as since Durkheim discussed about social change / alteration, Merton the centre of discussion was very far from social alteration and instead of he / she gave the logic that there are social conditions into partly special and constant pervasive values have relationship to senior crimes value in low social classes. Merton describing social conditions used social structural strain term. His logic that high quality number of personal desires in social culture (Weld and Bernard, 2001).

Based on Merton’s viewpoint, cultures are confirmative norms or cultures determine characteristics tools and they are expected from all persons for achieving cultural goals. These tools (are prediction) or are based on inner-cultural values and most of the time, they avoid ample variety number of ways or methods to bring the goal base on efficientive technique. For example American culture encouraged all people to seek more wealth. This culture claimed that, all people who have more have equal opportunity and they are waiting to more (Weld and Bernard, 2001)

Characteristic tools for take or to earn wealth to consist or Heavy working honesty, educations, and because all people cannot have this culture so it’s important that culture has focus on characteristic tools. These tools should be that all people have a role in culture they provide some inner – desirable like to sport situation that sport should be provide pleasure attention / pleasure remembrance even person did not winner. Probably, for people to be winners it is considered to be crucial in sports (Ahmadi, 2005).
Merton has reason. In some cultures, goals are important and characteristic tools are little alone for gratuity. Person used in this may like heavy work, honesty, education, we bring little social gratuity instead of activity. But a person taking wealth even he / she bring wealth by increasing tools. Again he / she bring social gratuity, prestige and social base for herself / him-self. This situation makes intense stress on characteristic tools particular on persons who cannot use. This stress is more observed in low class labor groups.

This group is not able to take wealth by personal try and capabilities, so social structure make limit for them (weld and Bernard, 2001). Thus, it makes tough stress on cultural values in special groups because on the one hand, culture has focus or brings the goal (like increase in wealth). This goal is not available / access to all and, on the other hand it’s possible that social structure makes limited situation for these groups. This contradiction and social structure was introduced by Merton with the like ‘Abnormal’ (Merton, 1968) because a person can answer to abnormal problems base on her / his viewpoint about cultural goals and characteristics tools. These elections were described with names conformity, innovation, ritualism, retreatism and rebellion.

A. **Conformity:** A majority of people, conformity necessitate / require acceptance cultural goals and characteristic tools and they will select it these persons try by upholding ways, take wealth and they continue it, whether they are successful or not (weld and Bernard,2001).

B. **Innovation:** Usually innovation will happen that persons try to reach rightful / legal goals. But ways for valid / drastic / effective use or apply from
agentive- tools barred for them (like to bank – bandit will going to bring the goals are about goals related to other persons in society, but bank – bandit instead of heavy work and save money live alone and in seclusion (Sotoudeh, 1997)

C. **Ritualism:** State that persons deny cultural goals and logic ways and tools to reach the goals but they try to make a better states and new goals for regulation / adjustment social formation / structures. According to Merton manner of revolutionists and strikers in a company or factory are kinds of these detotrative / invertive manners. However, Merton expanded the Anomy theory from Durkheim and he / she paid attention / considered to insufficient in social culture and structure and he / she was expressed social stress structure with pioneer in stress theory, but he / she scrutiny / over viewing offender and criminal manner in poor and divested groups in society that are stuffy characteristics in functionally constructive explaining. It is possible to state that successful groups, wealthy in society, did or commit crime or offence like white – collar crimes and it’s kind of social departures by these groups (Ahmadi, 2005).

D. **Retreatism:** When because of limited conditions or incapability an individual is not successful to attain his/her determined cultural goals, tools to achieve them, chooses to be away from other people such a person is addicted to alcohol that abandons his family, friends, and children and prefers to live in isolation (Sotoudeh, 1997).
E. Rebellion: A condition in which individuals deny both cultural goals and legal methods or means to achieve the goals, but endeavour to create better conditions and new goals to balance the social structures. According to Merton, the behaviour of revolutionaries and factory strikers are kinds of these deviant behaviours.

Although Merton developed Durkheim’s Anomy theory to some extent and focused on the existing deficiencies in culture and social construction and by suggesting social strain construction made himself pioneer in strain theory, he mainly studied the criminal behaviour in the poor groups which is part of the characteristics of conservative approach applied in constructive-applied determination. But, this is also the case who the rich community also commits crimes and delinquencies which are termed “white collar crimes” as social deviations in these groups (Ahmadi, 2005).

Also, these agreements, did not describe personality brigades, so selection manner in person describing by her / his reaction to stress by abnormal nor example. Its possible one professional offender innovation at this time propaganda revolution and conflict philosophy (believed to evolution / solistice). It’s impossible, can make adaptation of these manners together, unless, it understands that all of them had reactions to abnormal state of that person involved in it to become necessary to notice that social structure stress by Merton didn’t focus on specification of impolite person thus he /she pay attention to social situation that person exposes it to (Sotoudeh, 2008).
Finally the goals of Merton’s overview are attention / considered to a special unique problem. It means intensive stress by unaccommodated between cultural goals and social structural opportunities and did not try for all of variety manner in one time or other time that forbidden by penalty rules (Weld and Bernard, 2001).

**Albert Cohen**

Whatever Merton’s theory focused on, special stress on parts of society, two general theories by Cohen and Richard Cloward discusses the civic offender, offender, in low-class and offender in men.

When by overview and work to children and juvenile was founded the majority of offender manner happen in group not into personal and minority of are non-utilitarian manners and negativistic (Weld and Bernard, 2001). he combined psychology and sociology votes for study and offender and impolite manners in children and Juvenile, he believed that, the main factors in impolite manner for Juvenile exist in low level in society for enhancing social level but he didn’t speak about offender in Juvenile with high or low level class in society (Sekhavat, 1995).

Cohen used of term stress in two entirely different ways. First: this term indicated to one in society. Situation can’t provide conformity or logic tools to bring cultural values, second, stress can be an experience of sensations and thrill / dither by person, it means, it indicated to change / heat, stress, failing or tension – psyche sense.
To appear / seem that in juvenile’s delinquency against crime in adults are not material goals children and juvenile group robbing something that they won’t or they didn’t need and they focus on this problem to achieve a status. Youngsters did revolt; collected together, make a group to make reliability for selection of new values. Offender groups did work like to break telephone and scratch the chairs in buses etc… and the abnormal manner know a group altitude younger’s in low-class family have not ascribed status from their family because their father and mother, usually had undesirable jobs. However, they bring the achieved status rivalry in schools. Thus, the members of offender groups are included in low-class children and they are jobber manners. Cohen explained the properties in offender younger as below:

1. Non-Utilitarianism: such as stealing things just to destroy them
2. Malice, malicious, vandalism, and wanton
3. Negativism
4. Short-run hedonism in the delinquent gangs
5. Versatility in selecting

Cohen believes that the juveniles’ behaviour is integrated with malice and anger. They enjoy destroying others’ joy and ignoring the taboos in society. Their behaviour is always along with denying the social norms. Juveniles sub-culture is not a set of rules, but is a kind of life and its norms are not only different but is also in contrast with norms in society (Sekhavat, 1995).

Like Merton’s theory, Cohen’s theory is concerned about low level people. The problem with this theory is that it is not testable because the historical data
regarding the psychological characteristics of the people should be available. This theory states that as the juveniles in the low level have little facilities to compete with the juveniles with in the middle level, they adhere to delinquency sub-culture in order to compensate their shortcomings by their own method.

**Richard Cloward and Lloyd Ohlin**

*Richard Cloward and Lloyd Ohlin’s (1960) theory of Opportunity Differential* is formed by the theory of Anomie by Durkheim and Merton and Sutherland’s theory of Differential Association and emphasizes on juveniles’ inclination on delinquency based on legitimate and illegitimate opportunity structure. They believe that the relationship between cultural values on the one hand and legitimate and illegitimate opportunities on the other hand determine the types and frequency of delinquency. They also believe that delinquency is socially manifested through in the form of sub-culture delinquency and as there are legitimate opportunities in sub-culture norms, there are also illegitimate opportunities in sub-culture delinquencies to attain the cultural goals. The sub-culture delinquency provides opportunities to learn and act delinquently for the people (Ahmadi, 2005).

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) believed that social norms have two aspects: one aspect is ‘what should be done’ and another aspect is ‘what should not be done’. Whatever is considered as proper is against what is considered as improper. Norms determine the borderline between appropriate and inappropriate actions. Therefore, when a criminal commits a crime such as deceiving or thievery, he is not actually
discovering a new method, but he does what is forbidden by the norms. To them the possibility to act all the delinquent roles is not simply provided for all. Only in places where crime has got a deep root, the condition is provided for learning the delinquent roles. In these places, the juveniles from different ages are one different delinquent action. This condition makes training, acquiring skills and transfer of skills accessible for juveniles (Sekhavat, 1995).

In the framework of their theory entitled ‘Anomie and Relation’ Richard Cloward and Ohlin (1960) studied the delinquent juvenile gangs and concluded that these gangs are formed in sub-culture societies in which there is little chance to attain success through legitimate ways. From their findings, we can conclude that the lack of opportunity and success are the main reason for social abnormal behaviours in society. Therefore, it can be claimed that when there is a great gap between desires and opportunities, there will be pressure oriented towards criminal activities and maybe other deviations mentioned by Merton.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) intermingle led the two theories by Cohen and Merton and state that the low level juveniles are both, attempting to achieve success and at the same time are seeking status. Therefore they divided the juveniles into four categories as:

1. Juveniles looking for promoting their status.
2. Juveniles attempting to enter the middle level position.
3. Juveniles looking for an improvement in their economical condition.
4. Juveniles not seeking to alter their status.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) citing (Weld&Bernardo, 2001) agreed on this issue that pressures on the juveniles orient them towards delinquency, and perhaps this is
the very same pressure described by Cohen. That is they (juveniles of the second type) do not believe in their values existing at the middle level, but because of social and structural pressures, they cannot adapt themselves with them. They reason that these juveniles are not of great majority because their values are in accordance with the average reference values. Needed to mention that, the most dangerous delinquents belong to the third group (those who are looking for an improvement in their economical situation). These juveniles experience the greatest contradiction with the middle level values because they are humiliated both for middle level lifestyle and for their wealth will. They also reason that the juveniles in the fourth group (those reluctant to any changes in their relations) are although criticized by the references from the middle level; they are away from sadness as they tend not to socialize with people and institutions at the middle level and are somehow in accordance with Merton’s retreatism. One of their most important innovative ideas is that how juveniles coordinate themselves through an isolative orientation. They believe that juveniles need culturally certified methods to achieve their social goals. Moreover, an individual needs to have an amount of opportunity, special physical strength, or organizational capability to be successful in crime and delinquency. They called the juveniles’ deficiency in both legitimate and illegitimate methods to attain social esteem and financial achievement as ‘dual failures’. These dual failures are most probable to lead to anomic fiasco and an inclination towards secluded or dissocial group.

Regarding the unbalanced distribution of opportunities, Cloward and Ohlin (1960) believed that in industrial and capitalist societies, there is lot of qualified applicants with special capabilities for job opportunities, but individuals’ choice to get opportunities depends on factors other than their capabilities. Factors such as
ethnicity, religion, and social status can be crucial in appointing individual indifferent jobs. There are people that see themselves unable to get job opportunities while they are qualified for that very job. These people are more willing to commit delinquent behaviours. Therefore, it can be claimed that depriving the juveniles to use the opportunities will cause the low level juveniles to show delinquent behaviors. The juveniles from the low level community judge that the social system or unfair and discriminatory (Ahmadi, 2005).

One of the problems of the theory by Cloward and Ohlin (1960) is the lack of measurable definitions for concepts in their theory. The empirical value of this theory is also under question. Despite all these criticisms, this theory emphasizes that, theories such as differences in understanding of perverse juveniles about the accessibility of illegitimate opportunities compared with legitimate opportunities and also believing in more chance for success by using illegitimate sources are effective in the development of deviant behaviour (Ahmadi, 2005).

**Edwin, H. Sutherland**

According to Sutherland, a crime occurs when the required condition is prepared for the crime doer. This theory is mainly theoretical and due to some problems it hasn’t been empirically tested. The differential association theory by Sutherland is a typical sample of learning concepts. Differential association is established based on this presupposition that the deviant behaviour is not inheritable and innate and is learned in the same way as other behaviours. In the learning process, an individual’s companions define legal rules as appropriate or
inappropriate affairs and through this, he/she learns these definitions. An individual becomes delinquent or criminal because he/she exposes definitions that through which an offence or breaking laws are preferred. For example, a juvenile may be companion with few delinquents but these relations may be in ways that make him/her exposed with a great deal of patterns on delinquency. In the network of these relations, some kinds of delinquency may be admired and some other kinds may be ignored and may over be considered as indecent. As an example, professional thieves may see rape, murder and addiction to drugs; hate the same amount as ordinary people (Ahmadi, 2005).

Sutherland believes that, people who are apt to be deviant learn definitions in their life from their companions in society who agree or disagree on deviant behaviours. In his view, if definitions confirm and certify delinquent behaviours, if these definitions are supported by stronger definitions than definitions rejecting deviant behaviours, and if the individuals are repeatedly exposed to this definition, the possibility of committing deviation will increase. He emphasizes that a child gets definitions confirming deviation by observing his father earning through illegal and inappropriate ways or listening to his mother talking elaborately about driving over speed. However, he admits that majority of this leaning is usually the outcome of socialization of sub-culture deviations through companionship and relationship with people with these deviating norms. He is determined to learn the deviations in the initial groups and especially in his peer groups. In this way he knows these as normal activities which are in accordance with the needs and values of those sub-culture issues (Salimi, 2001 citing Ahmadi, 2005).
Criminal behaviour is learned through exposition with significant others. Actually it is a process through which juveniles see them as their leaders and they learn the behavioural patterns to the same amount that we learn the normal behaviours. In Sutherland’s view, in a heterogeneous society some groups are formed based on norms and values in accord once with law and some others are formed based on definitions in contrast with breaking law (Sheikhavandi, 2005)

Some hypotheses from the Sutherland theories are as follows:

1. A deviant behaviour is acquirable, not inheritable.
2. A deviant behaviour is learned in the relationship process.
3. Major part of deviant behaviour is formed within the intimate groups.
4. The learning process encompasses things like methods of committing delinquency, crime, etc.
5. The orientation of motivation is acquired through the definitions of legal affairs on appropriateness or inappropriateness of an action.
6. When a person commits a delinquent behaviour, his interaction and association with those who agree with breaking rules is more than with people who disagree with breaking rules. This is as a matter of fact, the basis of Sutherland’s theory which discusses the individual’s relationship with delinquents and non-delinquents. A person faces both forces. A crime occurs actually when individuals make relations with definitions and people who recommend activities in accord once with delinquent behaviours and are away from those valuing honesty and normal values. In other words, Sutherland’s theory states that when an individual’s relation is not related to
crime, his relation is part of his needs that has no effect on creating criminal behaviour.

7. The different relationships a person makes with others are not the same in frequency, continuity, age priority, and intensity.

8. Learning the delinquent behaviour is not merely limited to the imitation process (Sekhavat, 1995).

Although Sutherland’s theory was widely welcomed in the past decades, a few critics seems reasonable to it. This theory cannot explain all types of delinquencies because in many cases, there is no relationship between delinquency and companionship, and a person can deviate without any companionship with deviants. In his theory, the role of social systems in creating the potentialities for delinquency and crime has been ignored (Ahmadi, 2005).

**Robert Agnew (Strain general theory)**

Agnew’s Strain general theory (1992) is one of the significant theories in the realm of criminology in the decade. Agnew (1992) attempted to develop the classic strain theory which itself caused the expansion of key concepts and the increase in the accuracy related to determination of social deviations. He believes that misbehaviour and delinquency should not be referred to social level or cultural variables but it has to be focused on individual norms. For instance, this theory instead of concerning a special level in the society encompasses all the levels of social community (Harl, 2007 citing Ahmadi, 2005). He asserts that individual failures to achieve positive goals, removing all the positive stimuli, and showing negative stimuli are all as a result of strain. Strain always appears when there is a
negative relationship with others. Moreover, Agnew differentiated his theory from other previous theories by entering emotional variables (negative variables) in his theory.

Agnew’s theory approached itself to the social psychology with the redefinition of the concept of Strain, negative emotions as factors of the source of stimulating for deviation, and intervening variables to determine the individual differences in accord with strain. In this way, it resulted in the development of traditional models of Strain such as Cloward and Ohlin (1960), Cohen (1995), Merton (1938) (John and Johnson, 2003).

Previous theories of Strain by Merton, Cohen, Cloward and Ohlin attributed the reason of misbehaviour and delinquency or deviation to the individuals’ inability in the achievement of the economic goals while Cohen furthermore concentrated on other goals at middle level. From Merton’s viewpoint, individuals’ inability to achieve certain goals may directly result in deviant behaviour so much that juveniles and teenagers may seek other substitutes to attain those goals. According to Cohen, Cloward and Ohlin there is a small possibility that blocks other methods of achieving the goal which will lead to deviation and delinquency or people will either form or join a sub-culture delinquency. Agnew believes that criminal actions are the direct result of negative influential manners as anger and unpleasant emotions which appear following destructive social relations. He concludes that the negative influential manners are created due to different sources of Strain (Harl, 2007 citing Ahmadi, 2005).

Agnew believes that there are three general sources of Strain that each of them introduces a different kind of negative relation with others.
1. Impeding other to attain their valuable goals such as discrimination at school, parents injustice etc.

2. Omission or elimination of positive stimuli in an individual like losing important people, parents divorce, firing from job or school, etc.

3. Imposing negative stimuli to an individual such as children’s sexual abuse, to be victim of a criminal event, verbal and physical punishments by parents, etc.

As a matter of fact Agnew expresses that not all people experiencing strain are drawn towards crime. Some of them can equip their mental, emotional, and behavioural sources to stand against anger and deprivation. In some people, their reactions are negative and they look for other behavioural solutions. They escape from the situations (such as escaping from school, home, or isolation from family) or are seeking revenge from those who created strain. They are looking to get balanced through techniques namely physical or even using drugs.

Some are able to make the deprivation bearing conditions rational and tend to be intellectual when facing the problems. They may be poor, but do not go toward unlawful activities. As a matter of fact, for a crime to occur or not to occur depends on the conditions that an individual can make in disastrous situations and stand against the different forms of his miss-behavioural anger (Agnew, 1992).

Because of this Agnew (1992) added two more concepts to his theory:

- Adaptations to strain
- Intervening factors

To adapt himself/herself to the created strain by negative emotions one can have five general reactions. These reactions are as follows:
Reaction One:

Ignoring or minimizing strain: this requires that an individual ignore or minimize the goals or important values influenced by strain.

Reaction Two:

Maximizing the achieved positive results and minimizing the negative results: for example, a juvenile may seek refuge and pay attention to participating in different sports to escape from the nuisances in the home.

Reaction Three:

Convincing oneself and finding an explanation for the created strain: for example, a woman beaten by her husband may justify that her behaviour was not good and she deserved being punished.

Reaction Four:

Revenge behaviour: to terminate the started strain the victim may think of revenge. For example, a girl may kill her father to prevent him from incest.

Reaction Five:

Criminal and delinquency behaviour: such as annoying and hurting others, contention, thievery, etc. in fact Agnew believes that an individual can do these along with other reactions (Harl, 2007 citing Ahmadi, 2005).
2.3.6: THEORIES OF DELINQUENCY

During the past fifty years, many hundreds of investigations and much conjecture by criminologists, psychologists, sociologists, and others have posed, in one form or the other, three interrelated questions: What causes delinquency? Which interventions effectively reduce it? How may it successfully be prevented? The results of this research and theorizing have been abundant and wide-ranging. Physiological, psychological, sociological, and conceivably, I believe most consistent with the realities of juvenile delinquency - multidimensional perspectives have been advanced.

In this section, I will present a discussion of the various schools and theories of delinquency, including biological theories, sociological theories, psychological theories, and interdisciplinary schools of delinquency, intelligence and theories of delinquency, and the criminological schools of delinquency.

2.3.6.1: Biological Theories

The first theories in the United States were oriented toward sin and “illness” and reflected the dominant religious teachings of the period. Those who committed crimes were thought to have failed to achieve proper religious values and morality (Jensen & Rojek, 1980).

Biological theories were among the earliest of scientific explanations for deviant and delinquent behaviour. A physiognomist of the 16th century, J. Baptiste della Porte, related characteristics of the body to criminality. However, the study of
biological characteristics more properly can be traced to the mid-19th century science of phrenology and its relationship to crime. Franz Gall, the father of phrenology, believed that criminals could be identified by bumps on their skulls.

During the 18th and 19th centuries, a group of philosophers, referred to collectively as the Classical School, argued that criminal behaviour could be understood and controlled as a product of a “human nature” common to human beings. Human beings were believed to be pleasure-seeking and self-gratifying, acting in terms of their own self-interest. A well-ordered state, therefore, would construct laws and punishments through strategies of punishment based on deterrence so that people would understand peaceful and non-criminal actions to be in their self-interest (McShane & Williams, 2003).

During the early part of the 20th century, a new criminological school known as the “positivist” school arose in response to the general popularity of science and its advances in the biological and physical sciences. Positivist criminology was characterized by scientific studies of criminals. Scientists variously looked at the relationships between crime and the geographical environment, the biological and genetic features of the offenders, and the psychological characteristics of the offenders. While this work had its zenith until about 1920, geographical, psychological, and biological studies and theories remain today but do not draw the attention and support from the scientific community that they once did.

Modern biologically oriented theorists tend to mix the environment with biological factors in more complex versions of delinquency theory. Biological
factors tend to focus on the neurochemical and enzyme level rather than the gross body. Criminologist C. Ray Jeffery, for instance, talks about a mixture of physical and social environments interacting with the body’s neurochemistry. His position is that behaviour is a product of the brain. When certain hormones or enzymes (or lack thereof) affect the brain, misinterpretation of the environment may occur and lead to deviance. Similarly, a toxic or harmful physical environment may produce certain neurochemicals, leading to abnormal brain-produced behaviours.

The major draw of biological research is that a simple test could supposedly determine who will become delinquent. Biological theories have always promised to identify pre-delinquents, but without acknowledging the contribution of social factors it has not been able to live up to its promise.

2.3.6.2: Sociological Theories

By the 1920s, a new scientific approach, the sociological one, emerged and quickly became dominant. The new theorists believed that delinquency could best be explained by social structures and interactions. For instance, some of these theorists explained delinquency as the product of following subcultural rules (which defined delinquent acts) that were in opposition to the dominant culture. Others explained delinquency as the result of interaction with people who endorsed delinquent values. Still others theorized that inability to reach important social goals creates strain, which leads to deviance. In whatever form, these sociological theories ruled explanations of delinquency until the present day (McShane & Williams, 2003).
Sociological theories of delinquency are characterized by an assumption that the most important factors in explaining behaviour are social in nature. Thus, such factors as social interaction, stress caused by an inability to reach one’s goals, low socioeconomic status, a lack of proper socialization, poor education, and bad parenting are frequently implicated in these theories.

The stress caused by inability to achieve one’s goals or the discrepancy between one’s economic aspirations and the opportunities available to achieve lies at the heart of strain theory, as do such discrepancy-induced reactions as frustration, deprivation, and discontent. Strain theoretical notions first appeared in Merton’s (1938) article “Social Structure and Anomie,” in which he observed:

> It is only when a system of cultural values extols, virtually above all else, certain common symbols of success for the population at large, while its social structure rigorously restricts or completely eliminates access to approved modes of acquiring these symbols for a considerable part of the same population, that antisocial behaviour ensues on a considerable scale. (p. 673)

Cohen’s (1955) Reactance theory and Cloward and Ohlin’s (1960) Differential Opportunity theory are both elaborations of Strain theory. Each seeks to enhance that theory’s explanatory power, especially with regard to delinquent behaviour among low-income youths. Yet such an association between social class and delinquency is inconsistent (Linden, 1978; Rutte & Giller, 1983). Furthermore, though their economic status often remains unchanged, most low-income delinquent youths eventually become law-abiding adults. Hirschi (1969) also provided evidence indicating that many delinquent youths do not experience the sense of deprivation-induced motivation central to strain theory, and R. E. Johnson (1979) suggested that
Strain theory holds little explanatory relevance for delinquent acts committed by middle-class youths. These and related examples notwithstanding, Strain theory appropriately survives to this day, its more contemporary versions seeking to be responsive to both changed socioeconomic forces (Simon & Gagnon, 1976) and evidence indicating that middle-class youths are just as likely as those from low-income environments to aspire beyond their means (Elliott & Voss, 1974). The theory survives not as an all-encompassing explanation of juvenile delinquency but as one component of integrative theoretical views on delinquency that consider it to be complex behaviour derived from a complex of causes (Goldstein, 1990).

Another sociological theory receiving attention in the early twentieth century is Labeling theory. Labeling theory posits that formal and informal societal reactions to delinquency can influence the subsequent attitudes and behaviour of delinquents. Fredrick Thrasher's (1927) work on juvenile gangs in Chicago was one of the first instances in which the consequences of official labels of delinquency were recognized as potentially negative. A few years later, Frank Tannenbaum (1938) introduced the term “dramatization of evil,” in which he argued that officially labeling someone as a delinquent can result in the person becoming the very thing he is described as being. Edwin Lemert (1967) followed up on Tannenbaum’s thinking and developed the concepts of primary and secondary deviance, which became the central elements of the first systematic development of what has come to be known as Labeling theory.

One of the basic assumptions of Labeling theory is that initial acts of delinquency are caused by a wide variety of factors. These factors, however, are relatively unimportant in the scheme of things, which leads to a second assumption,
that is, the primary factor in the repetition of delinquency is the fact of having been formally labeled as a delinquent. This assertion is accompanied by another idea, which may be presented as a third assumption. Repeated acts of delinquency are influenced by formal labels because such labels eventually alter a person’s self-image to the point where the person begins to identify himself or herself as a delinquent and act accordingly. A fourth assumption of the labeling approach is that the official application of the label of delinquent is dependent on a host of criteria in addition to, or other than, the behaviour itself, such as the offender’s age, sex, race, and social class, as well as the organizational norms of official agencies and departments. Of course, one does not have to be officially labelled criminal or ‘delinquent’ in order to label him or herself as such. Moreover, an official label that calls one delinquent can be applied irrespective of any nonconformist act. For the most part, however, the advocates of the labelling approach to delinquency have maintained that usually some type of nonconformity precedes an official label and that most self-labelling occurs after official labelling (Shoemaker, 2000).

2.3.6.3: Psychological Theories

Freud (1961) spoke of criminal behaviour as rising from a compulsive need for punishment and connected to unconscious, incestuous oedipal wishes. Crimes were committed, in his view, in an effort by the perpetrator to be caught, punished, and therefore cleansed of guilt. Alexander and Healy (1935) have stressed the criminal’s inability to postpone gratification. Bowlby (1949) points to the role of maternal separation and parental rejection. Johnson and Szurek (1952) have sought to explain criminal behaviour as a substitute means of obtaining love, nurturance, and
attention, or as a result of permissive parents’ seeking vicarious gratification of their own id impulses via their offspring’s’ illegal transgressions.

A number of other psychoanalytic theorists have sought to distinguish delinquent subtypes as a function of their hypothesized aetiology—for example, latent versus behaviour delinquency (Glover, 1960), neurotic versus milieu delinquency (Levy, 1932), sociological delinquency (Johnson, 1949), and Redl’s (1945) fourfold categorization of: (a) essentially healthy youths who commit delinquent acts in response to environmental stresses, (b) youths who commit delinquent acts in response to acute adolescent growth crises, (c) the neurotic delinquent, and (d) the “genius” delinquent who suffers from disturbances of impulse control/superego functioning. More generally, Binder (1987) suggested that: the delinquent operates, like the infant, under the pleasure principle and can neither endure frustration nor postpone gratification. A poorly formed and ineffective superego, stemming from inadequate handling in infancy, cannot overcome the pleasure seeking forces of the moment, and the result is truancy, sexual offenses, theft, and other delinquent acts. (p. 20)

A. M. Johnson’s (1949) subsequent explorations of a superego lacuna in delinquent adolescents provide a similar etiological focus. Cohen (1955), Nietzel (1979), and others point critically to the tautological circularity inherent in this psychoanalytic position: “Aggressive or acquisitive acts are often explained by underlying aggressive or acquisitive impulses. The evidence for these impulses turns out to be the aggressive or acquisitive act to be explained” (Nietzel, 1979, p. 78). Nevertheless, the explicit and implicit evidence in each of these several
psychoanalytic positions on the major role of early childhood and familial contributors to subsequent delinquency has proved quite accurate (Goldstein, 1990).

The psychological approach to delinquency is the most introspective. This approach uses the knowledge of psychological theorists to analyze the minds and thought processes of individuals who engage in delinquent acts. Theories range from psychoanalysis and behaviourism to social learning and intelligence. From the notions of rewards and punishments, learned expectations, and assimilation and accommodation, a psychological presence in delinquent behaviour is quite evident. But to what extent can one truly attribute crime to psychological developments, and exactly what do they mean? Psychological theories share two common and somewhat obvious ideas: (1) delinquency is a result of some type of thought process by the individual engaging in the act, (2) no individual is predisposed to delinquency (Bailey, as cited in McShane & Williams, 2003).

These ideas point to the notion that delinquent behaviour is a choice. It is not an inherent trait of an individual. Like all behaviours, a delinquent act starts in one’s mind. Although one’s past conditioning may be a significant factor in one’s thought processes, it does not necessarily predestine one to a life of crime according to these theorists.

The best known interpersonal theory of delinquency is the theory of differential association, developed by Edwin H. Sutherland. Interpersonal theories of delinquency are based on the belief that human behaviour, including delinquent behaviour, is flexible and not fixed. Behavioural inclinations change according to circumstances or situations. A second assumption of interpersonal theory is that neither the delinquent nor the society in which the delinquent lives is deviant or
“bad.” Delinquency arises from the same general social conditions as does non-delinquent behaviour, and the same person may be committing both kinds of acts at different times. A third assumption of these theories is that most delinquent behaviour is committed in a group or gang context. While the particular situation in which delinquent behaviour appears may fluctuate, the general setting will most typically include group norms and behavioural patterns (Shoemaker, 2000).

Radical theory, sometimes termed the “new criminology” by its proponents, is a sociopolitical perspective on crime and delinquency. Its focus is on the political meaning and motivations underlying society’s definitions of crime and its control. In this view, crime is a phenomenon largely created by those who possess wealth and power in the United States. America’s laws, it is held, are the laws of the ruling elite, used to subjugate the poor, minorities, and the powerless (Goldstein, 1990).

Radical theory goes beyond simple matters of social labeling, differential opportunity, or like concerns. Its target is the social and economic structure of American society. Although its favoured solutions appear to have little likelihood of becoming reality, radical theory has rendered a not unimportant conscious-raising service resulting in increased awareness within the criminal justice system -and perhaps society at large- of the degree to which social conflict, racism, exploitation, and related social ills are relevant to the etiology and remediation of criminal behaviour (Goldstein, 2000).
2.3.6.4: Interdisciplinary Theories of Delinquency

Today’s theories tend to involve more complex approaches to human behaviour. It is not uncommon to see theories that integrate, either in whole or part, several other theories to create new and more complex versions. Juvenile delinquency consists of various behaviours, diversely motivated and expressed, evidently reflective of a broad collection of physiological, hormonal, personality, socioeconomic, familial, societal, and other roots. Any monocausal theory is destined to be incomplete.

Feldman’s (1977) integrated learning theory is one example of an interdisciplinary approach to delinquency. It is both multicomponent and multilevel in arrangement. Feldman asserts that criminal behaviour grows from individual predisposition, social learning, and social labeling. Borrowing from Eysenck’s (1977) views on inherited aspects of personality—especially temperament, conditionability, and the potential for conscience development—Feldman notes that both extroverted neurotics and persons high on psychoticism measures may have high crime potential. Eysenck believes that extroverted neurotics have poor potential for adequate socialization and persons high on psychoticism may be insufficiently responsive to the distress of others. As Nietzel (1979) observes, “The potential criminal is someone whose genetically influenced personality predispositions make it difficult to acquire the classically conditioned avoidance responses which Eysenck held were the elemental components of human conscience and the ability to resist temptations to antisocial conduct” (p. 88).

These individual predisposing factors set the stage for the acquisition of delinquent behaviours. Learning processes further the acquisition—as well as the
likelihood of both subsequent performance and maintenance—of the behaviours and include, in Feldman’s view, both learning to offend and learning not to offend (Goldstein, 1990).

Intelligence and Theories of Delinquency

Many scholars have argued that there are individual differences in intelligence, personality, and other factors that not only separate delinquents from all other youths but that are, directly or indirectly, the causes of their delinquency. These can be summarized through psychological theories, and while it is possible that some of these factors are hereditary or inborn, and hence can be thought of as biological, this is not always the case.

Perhaps the earliest attempt to isolate the psychological or mental aspects of criminal behaviour was the development of the concept of insanity, particularly moral insanity (Fink, 1938, as cited in Shoemaker, 2000). It was typically suggested that criminals and delinquents were deficient in basic moral sentiments and that, furthermore, this condition was inherited. The assumption that the lack of basic moral sentiments was an inherited trait contributed to the fusion of biological and psychological properties in the explanation of criminality.

With the introduction of intelligence tests around the turn of the twentieth century, students of crime and delinquency began to concentrate on the specific mental aspects of aberrant behaviour, although, again, earlier analyses of the intellectual capacities of criminals and delinquents assumed that intelligence was inherited and thus, essentially a biological component of behaviour (Shoemaker, 2000).
Throughout the twentieth century, the psychological approach to delinquency developed and, at times, flourished. Some of the more prominent variations of this overall approach included concepts of mental deficiency, psychiatric disturbances, and general personality configurations. Generally they shared some basic assumptions. First, the basic cause of delinquency lies within the individual’s patterns and developments. Delinquent behaviour is a manifestation of internal, underlying individual disturbances. Secondly, whatever the specific psychological disturbance which might exist in any particular delinquent behaviour pattern, it most probably began to develop not later than early childhood and has become a fairly characteristic feature of the individual. Third, while allowance is given for the potential modifying effects of external, environmental factors, it is the individual who has the problem and it is thus on the individual that one must focus if the problem is to be resolved and the consequent delinquent behaviour is to be changed.

The causation chain that links psychological theories to delinquency consists of diverse factors such as biological and environmental factors bringing about psychological abnormalities such as subconscious conflicts, maladaptive personality traits, and deficiencies in mental ability. Therefore, the immediate cause of delinquency, and the proper focus of concern, is the psychological abnormality, not the factors that produced it. The psychological abnormalities may be considered as responses to biological and environmental conditions. Delinquency, in turn, may be seen as a response to psychological problems. It is recognized that both the psychological conditions and the delinquent behaviour may affect the antecedent biological and environmental factors, thus generating new psychological and behavioural adjustments. From this perspective, however, the focus remains on the psychological conditions and their effect on delinquency (Shoemaker, 2000).
2.3.6.5: Criminological Theories of Delinquency

The most important criminological theorist of the 1800s in Europe and the United States, Cesare Lombroso (1835-1909), was heavily influenced by the work of Gall. While performing an autopsy on a violent criminal, Lombroso noticed that the skull was more suited to an animal (such as an ape) than a human. He then developed the theory that criminals were not as far along the evolutionary ladder as normal people. Lombroso referred to these born criminals as atavists, or biological throwbacks to an earlier stage of development. Atavistic people share a number of characteristics, such as chimpanzee-like ears, shifty eyes, and large jaws (McShane & Williams, 2003).

As a result of Lombroso’s work, many subsequent studies attempted to link biological traits to criminality. Some of these studies included the investigation of eugenics (which concentrated on population control), genetics (which concentrated on the evolution of the human species), and studies of body types (McShane & Williams, 2003).

The ultimate goal of those who studied eugenics was to prove that poor, undereducated families produced an overabundance of criminals and otherwise were liabilities and menaces to society. Eugenicists believed they could identify these “degenerates,” who usually represented entire branches of family trees. Once identified, degenerate families would not be allowed to reproduce, and soon society would be cured of its ills. This kind of thinking helped support and justify the ideology of power-based biology (Andrus, as cited in McShane & Williams, 2003).
In the 1950s, William Sheldon identified varieties of delinquent youth with different body types. His “somatic typology” listed three major somatotypes.

Endomorphs were characterized as obese, soft, and rounded people and were thought to be fun loving and sociable. Mesomorphs were considered muscular and athletic, assertive, vigorous, and bold. Ectomorphs were characterized as tall and thin with well-developed brains and were thought to be introverted, sensitive, and nervous. Sheldon theorized that mesomorphs were most likely to become delinquents.

Feldman (1977) believed that delinquency is not caused by one particular condition or factor, but rather is the result of many factors. He put forth a multicomponent theory of delinquency, asserting that criminal behaviour grows jointly from individual predispositions, social learning, and social labelling. Borrowing from Eysenck’s (1977) views on inherited aspects of personality—especially temperament, conditionability, and the potential for conscience development—Feldman notes that both extroverted neurotics and persons high on psychoticism measures may have high crime potential. The former, Eysenck holds, have poor potential for adequate socialization; the latter may be insufficiently responsive to the distress of others. As Nietzel (1979) observes, “The potential criminal is someone whose genetically influenced personality predispositions make it difficult to acquire the classically conditioned avoidance responses which Eysenck held were the elemental components of human conscience and the ability to resist temptations to antisocial conduct” (p. 88).

Such individual predisposing factors set the stage, in effect, for the
acquisition of delinquent behaviours. Learning processes further the acquisition—as well as the likelihood of both subsequent performance and maintenance—of the behaviours and includes, in Feldman’s view, both learning to offend and learning not to offend. Although diverse approaches to learning and behaviour changes are drawn upon in operationalizing the mechanisms at the heart of this perspective, social learning theory is its primary feature. Criminal behaviours (especially in genetically predisposed persons) are acquired, performed, and maintained largely as a function of social learning processes. Of additional consequence to the actual performance of criminal behaviours are such situational determinants as risk of detection, level of punishment if detection occurs, level of incentives, presence or absence of transgressive models, low self-esteem, nature of the victim, and alternative legitimate means to obtain gains (Goldstein, 1990).

A number of other researchers have sought to describe the etiology of juvenile delinquency in a way more completely reflecting the noticeable complexity of its roots. These efforts include Cohen and Land’s (1987) Criminal Opportunity theory, which synthesizes Control and Differential Opportunity theories; Kornhauser’s (1978) Social Disorganization theory, which blends control and Strain propositions; Aultman and Wellford’s (1978) combined model of control, strain, and labeling theories; Wilson and Hernnstein’s (1985) incorporation of genetic predispositional and social learning influences; Elliott, Huizenga, and Ageton’s (1985) “fully integrated model,” consisting of Control, Strain, and Social Learning perspectives; and the diversely composed, Partial theory construction of Bahr (1979), Corning and Corning (1972), W. Glaser (1969), R. E. Johnson (1979), Rutter and Giller (1983), and West (1967).
concur with this multicomponent perspective, for what I believe to be its superior explicatory power as well as for its constructive serviceable implications for the design and implementation of effective delinquency interventions (Goldstein, 1990).

In summary, much of the early etiological thinking was constitutional-physiological in nature and emphasized purported anatomical differentiations of criminal and non-criminal individuals. Such offerings have since been relegated for the most part to the status of historical curiosities with little contemporary acceptance. Much of the same seems to be the destiny of psychoanalytic theories of delinquency. The sociological approach has been, and is, valued in contemporary academia for its heavy investment in diverse efforts to identify the core sources of delinquency. These several theory formulations seemed to have moved the study of delinquent behaviour away from individual concerns and characteristics to the study of collective social forces where they have been concretized in a creative and diverse array of theoretical positions. Their central concepts include such notions as strain or frustration growing from discrepancy experienced by youths’ aspirations and opportunity, assimilation into subcultures promoting deviance, control deficiencies issuing from a failure of familial and social bonding, the effects of the delinquency labelling process, and the consequences of living poorly in a capitalist society. As helpful as these theories are they too seem to offer only a partial picture of the puzzle of delinquency. It appears that the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency is multifaceted; it does not seem to have any one cause but rather comes about as a result of a mix of constitutional, psychological, sociological, biogenetic and neurohormonal factors.
2.3.7: PREDICTING JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Through extant research, a framework for predicting juvenile delinquency has been developed and includes four categories of predictor variables: early antisocial behaviour, individual-level attributes of the child, family attributes, and social characteristics of both the child and the family (Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). Focus on these predictor domains has greatly added to the literature, especially as they help to identify the developmental trajectories of youths. However, these four domains are limited to identifying the contribution of intervention to delinquency prediction.

Findings from the current study attempt to apply the structure of the existing prediction model and expand its scope to include both early intervention experiences and the early and later educational experiences that influence the social and behavioural development of youths. The inclusion of an intervention component in a large-scale longitudinal study is a unique contribution to the literature on the causes and correlates of juvenile delinquency. Evidence presented in this article uses an evaluation of a large-scale early educational intervention to examine the relation between program participation and lower rates of juvenile delinquency through age 18 in a high-risk low-income urban sample. This study also examined the contribution of child-developed abilities and social competence; family factors, including child maltreatment and parental involvement; and school-level risk and protective factors above and beyond Pre-school participation. Measures were compiled from multiple sources including teachers, parents, students, and administrative records. The exploration of an ecologically derived set of delinquency predictors that includes early educational intervention can highlight factors that are
amenable to the efforts of both carefully planned intervention programs and other educational and social policies.

*Pre-school Education*

Initiation of early intervention during the 1960s was sparked by the mandates of the war on poverty that called for the equalization of educational resources so that every child would enter school ready to learn (National Education Goals Panel, 1991, as cited in Meisels & Shonkoff, 2000). Pre-school programs for disadvantaged children, such as Head Start, were initiated primarily to bolster school readiness for impoverished children (Zigler & Muenchow, 1992). This component of school adjustment and academic performance remains the focus of many intervention programs aimed at Pre-school children and their families.

Several model Pre-school intervention programs have highlighted long-term effects on scholastic and behavioural outcomes. The most widely cited study that linked participation in early childhood intervention to reductions in delinquency is the High/Scope Perry Pre-school study (Schweinhart, Barnes, & Weikart, 1993). Intervention consisted of at least one year of high-quality Pre-school focused on cognitive advancement as well as weekly home visits. Other services included parent meetings designed to inform parents of their children's activities and inspire participation both at school and at home. The focus of the intervention was twofold, with both children and their parents receiving intervention services (Barnett, Young, & Schweinhart, 1998). Participation in the Perry Pre-school program was associated with both academic and behavioural outcomes by age 27. Perry graduates had higher
rates of high school completion, lower rates of grade retention and special education placement, and higher employment into young adulthood. Participants in treatment and control conditions displayed significant differences on behaviour measures (including school infractions, criminal reports, and self-reports). Compared with the comparison group, Perry graduates had fewer overall arrests (31% versus 51%) and fewer costs associated with their involvement in the criminal justice system (Schweinhart, Barnes, & Weikart, 1993). The Perry study, as well as several other studies of model early intervention programs, have been reviewed more extensively elsewhere (see Yoshikowa, 1994; Zigler, Taussig, & Black, 1992) and provide a foundation on which to view the unique contributions of largescale Pre-school interventions.

Developed Abilities

Research on juvenile delinquency in adolescence clearly connects early educational experiences with later delinquency (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). The influences of academic functioning and IQ on later delinquency have been explored longitudinally (see Manguin & Loeber, 1996) and offer some support to the cognitive advantage hypothesis, which posits that the development of the outcome (delinquency, for example) is fostered through the positive or negative development of cognitive abilities, including reading abilities, early in the life span (Bennett, Brown, Boyle, Racine, & Offord, 2003; Reynolds, Chang, & Temple, 1998; Reynolds, Ou, & Topitzes, 2004). In fact, in a study predicting the occurrence of delinquency, educational measures including low achievement, low vocabulary, and low verbal reasoning increased delinquency predictions by 27% (Loeber & Dishion,
1983). Results of a meta-analysis indicated that the odds of delinquency were more than two times as high for children who had low overall school performance (Manguin & Loeber, 1996).

**Social Competence**

Although the primary goal of early educational interventions is often school readiness, early interventions have also been cited for their capacity to promote higher levels of social functioning (Lally, Mangione, & Honig, 1988). Youths with social, problem-solving, and communication skills are often more likely to motivate their own successes and avoid negative outcomes, such as drug use or delinquency (Garmezy & Masten, 1986). Social competence also extends to the dynamic relationships in the family, school, and community. Youths with high levels of social competence are thought to seek out and maintain social relationships and therefore have access to better social supports than youths who lack social competence (Werner & Smith, 1992). Positive peer relationships can also be considered as protective mechanisms associated with social competence. Some studies have identified a peer effect on delinquency, where the peer group influences individual participation in delinquent behaviour, which influences the later onset of delinquency (Dishion, Eddy, Haas, Li, & Spracklen, 1997; Moffitt, 1993). Other research has found little support for a peer effect above and beyond prior individual involvement in delinquent acts (Tremblay, Masse, Viatro, & Dobkin, 1995).
Family Factors

The broader environment of the child, which includes the family, has been a key focus of early intervention and is also considered an independent predictor of juvenile delinquency. The importance of the family context was highlighted by Sameroff (1975), who, acknowledging the role of biology, also highlighted the interactional effect between child characteristics and the immediate caregiving environment. Intervention, therefore, that looks beyond the child in isolation to the child's proximal environment, offers a family support dynamic (Reynolds, 2000).

Family factors have been shown to have an independent function as predictors of child outcomes. Family characteristics, such as parental involvement in criminal activities, have been identified as predictors of delinquency by age 10; the earliest predictors (by age six) tend to reflect general family functioning and parenting (Loeber & Dishion, 1983). Family risk factors, such as domestic violence, drug and alcohol abuse, and involvement in the criminal justice system, have been identified as behaviours that influence disruptive parent-child relationships and contribute to negative developmental outcomes for youths (McLoyd, 1990). The most significant family risk factors for the later onset of delinquency include poor parental supervision, family members with criminal involvement, low socioeconomic status, large family size, poor housing, and low educational attainment (Zigler et al., 1992).
**Child Maltreatment**

Parenting characterized by low levels of participation or, at the extreme, child abuse and neglect has also been related to delinquency (Malmgren & Meisel, 2004; Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992; Smith & Thornberry, 1995). A series of studies has explored the relation between child maltreatment and juvenile delinquency (Smith & Thornberry, 1995; Widom, 1991). Studies have found significant differences between maltreated youths and matched samples of siblings or children in the community. One study found that maltreated youths had an official delinquency record of 16.0% as compared with 7.8% of controls (Bolton, Reich, & Gutierrez, 1977); another study found that 26% of maltreated youths had official court reports of delinquency, while the comparison group had a delinquency rate of 17% (Widom, 1991).

**School-Level Factors**

School and community factors are often considered distant influences on child outcomes and are often beyond the scope of individual interventions. Although early educational programs do not often target changes in the broader educational or community structure, the role of these two domains has been linked to youth outcomes and therefore should be discussed in the context of other factors that are associated with resilient outcomes.

School-level contributors, such as positive school experiences, have been highlighted in longitudinal studies of resilience (Werner & Smith, 1989). These successes that are a result of either the child's natural academic abilities (for
example, IQ) or the product of caring and capable teachers and support staff, provide youth with an initial success that can develop into additional successes. Schools, especially for high-risk youths, can serve as sources of protection from risk and a source for bolstering the individual-level social skills and self-esteem vital to the development of positive adaptation (Winfield, 1995). The role of positive school experiences as protection in and of themselves warrants their attention, but the role of the school as a moderator of other proximal risk factors, such as family disruption, highlights the considerable importance the school has on both academic and social outcomes (Masten, Best & Garmezy, 1990; Rutter, 1990; Werner & Smith, 1992).

Although positive school experiences may serve to jump-start success, several school-based factors can also lead to a disruption in learning or academic failure. Variables such as the child's reading ability, early behavioural problems in school, ineffective monitoring and management of students by teachers and school staff, grade retention, and special education placement all serve as potential indicators of school dropout and are related risk factors for delinquent behaviour (Malmgren & Meisel, 2004; Reynolds, 1994).

The construction of a model that predicts juvenile crime requires the identification of protective factors that benefit the positive development of youths and diminish the risk factors that threaten positive youth outcomes (Fraser, Richman, & Galinsky, 1999). Consistent with the risk and resilience framework (Garmezy, 1991; Rutter, 1987), the prediction model presented in this study attempts to identify several risk factors in childhood and the protective mechanisms that alter the escalation of negative developmental trajectories. The focus on delinquency
prediction broadens the debate over how to continue to lower the crime rate and provide beneficial educational opportunities for positive development at the same time.

Although the relation between Pre-school participation and lower rates of delinquency has been previously examined (see Reynolds, Temple, Robertson, & Mann, 2001), the contribution of Pre-school participation on delinquency above and beyond other child, family, peer, and school predictors has yet to be investigated in this sample. This study included several factors proximal to the child's experience, along with Pre-school participation, as a means to better understand the role of early intervention in context.

Type I prevention: creating a safe environment

In the primary prevention, the root and hazardous factors are emphasized. In this kind of prevention the focus is on providing an environment in which the possibility of contention is eliminated. To this end, the strategies in developing programs are selected in a way that they decrease the hazardous factors such as putting laws to create limitations. For example, in some communities carrying the gun is allowed, therefore, this freedom can be potentially a hazardous factor for initiating conflicts. Consequently, making carrying gun forbidden can be one of the strategies which will be beneficial (Moffi, 1993, cited in Borjali, 2011).

Although there are some contradictions in research findings on controlling delinquency, a great deal of findings indicate that the prevention programs didn’t have direct effect to decrease delinquent behaviours. On the contrary, there are some
other studies that the primary intervention family and society have some effect to control delinquency. The majority of the programs for interventions are based on the findings that show factors such as divorce, parents’ death, outnumbered children, lack of psychological support, ignoring children’s emotional needs, lack of discipline in the family, the presence of delinquent socially inconsistent persons, wife betrayal of husband, family disagreement, family rejection, lack of appropriate educative backgrounds, physically improper living place, and poverty play roles in strengthening or controlling delinquency. Social factors such as illiteracy, excessive population increase, industrializing, level of differences, imposed rules, social injustice, unemployment, war, inappropriate social environment (living with delinquents), lack of useful entertainment facilities accessible to all levels of community, living as a slummer, political oppression, are all also effective in controlling and development of delinquency. Because of this the family and society oriented strategies are of great importance in the type one strategy. In brief, we can claim that in the first level of prevention, the family is the major responsibility. Lots of psychological views indicate that the appropriate age for type I prevention is before eight (Kellerman, 1999, cited in Borjali, 2011).

**Type II prevention: reducing the hazardous factors**

In the secondary prevention the general aim is to keep the individual away from the activities which may increase the potentialities to be delinquent such as anger and violence, family control on anti-social behaviours, being away from delinquent friends. Similar to type I prevention, Type II prevention design its strategies based on the research findings and greatly emphasizes on individual or
individual’s relations. Due to this fact, the strategies in type II prevention are fulfilled through learning social life skills on the one hand, and social environment and individual relationships on the other hand. The importance of this level is as a preventing factor to help endangered people (Atash poor, 2008, cited in Borjali, 2011).

**Type III prevention: controlling**

The third level control attempts to make modifications and corrections in the condition and endeavours to intervene in order to prevent the repetition of the activities which are labelled as crime. This kind of prevention needs the employment of issues such as punishment, fine, and rehabilitation through legal disciplines. Type III prevention develops its intervening planning and also managing dangerous situations based on the activities which may cause delinquency (Londman, 1993, cited in Borjali, 2011).

**2.4: Mental health**

Health in humans is the general condition of a person's mind, body and spirit, usually meaning to be free from illness, injury ordain - as in "good health" or "healthy" (Merriam-Webster, 2011.). Generally, the context in which an individual lives is of great importance for his health, status and quality of life. It is increasingly recognized that health is maintained and improved not only through the advancement and application of health science, but also through the efforts and intelligent lifestyle choices of the individual and society.
Mental health is an expression of emotions and signifies a successful adaptation to a range of demands. The World Health Organization defines mental health as "a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community (World Health Organization, 2006). The importance of maintaining a good mental health is crucial to living a long and healthy life. Mental health can enhance or even prevent someone from living a normal life. According to Richards, Campania, & Muse-Burke (2010) “There is growing evidence that is showing emotional abilities are associated with pro-social behaviours such as stress management and physical health”.

The key factors that have been found to influence whether people are healthy or unhealthy include (World Health Organization, 2011). Income and social status, Personal health practices and coping skills, Social support networks, Healthy child development, Education and literacy, Employment /working conditions, Gender, Culture etc.

Youth may experience conduct, mood, anxiety and substance abuse disorders. Often they have more than one disorder; the most common “cooccurrence” is substance abuse with another mental illness. Frequently, these disorders put children at risk for troublesome behaviour and delinquent acts. Substance abuse and dependency also are considered behavioural disorders and often are linked to acts of crime and delinquency (Hammond, 2007).

In the first decade of the twenty century the theory of the relationship between the poor moral activities and poor mind was developed (Delgar, 1991, cited in Borjali and Abdolmaleki, 2011). Research showed that mental retardation or low
intelligence, and schizophrenia has been shown to be related to delinquency in adolescents (Ghazaei, 2000, cited in Borjali and abdolmaleki, 2011). Winfri (1999) suggested that high percentage of prisoners that committed crime were low on intelligence quotient.

Doby and colleagues (1996) have presented the role of health as a relative concept instead of absolute concept in new model of health. They suggest that regard to the domain of positive health, concept of “real well being “must be replaced with “mental well being”, because in the second concept, it is delusive and it also is harmful for society, For example, relations with friends, satisfaction of material needs, ability or control of one’s life, be able to make decision to do wanted things and to be able to do based on their own talent and to be independent or autonomous for expanding of comments. All of them are show good qualities or reality.

Davani and his colleagues, 1969, cited in sanatinia, (1991) believed that a positive health indicates maternal health. This concept focused the physical concepts and to summarize in four concepts, power, ability, flexibility, and skill. These concepts permit us to do our daily routine easily. The word health here is the meaning of aim in our life not the meaning of real aim or purpose.

In short, the new idea of health as defined by the WHO (1946) refers to unharmonious, between positive and negative health. It causes improvement in positive health and also causes availability for increasing harmony for positive physical, mental, society, along with prevention of physical, psychological and social illness (Sanatinia, 1991).
2.4.1: Determinants of health

Generally, the context in which an individual lives is of great importance for his health status and quality of life. It is increasingly recognized that health is maintained and improved not only through the advancement and application of health science, but also through the efforts and intelligent lifestyle choices of the individual and society. According to the World Health Organization, the main determinants of health include the social and economic environment, the physical environment, and the person's individual characteristics and behaviours (Public Health Agency of Canada, 2011.) More specifically, key factors that have been found to influence whether people are healthy or unhealthy include World Health Organization, (2011).

- Income and social status
- Social support networks
- Education and literacy
- Employment/working conditions
- Social environments
- Physical environments
- Personal health practices and coping skills
- Healthy child development
- Biology and genetics
- Health care services
- Gender
- Culture
An increasing number of studies and reports from different organizations and contexts examine the linkages between health and different factors, including lifestyles, environments, health care organization, and health policy - such as the 1974 Lalonde report from Canada; the Alameda County Study in California; (Housman and Dorman, 2011) and the series of World Health Reports of the World Health Organization, which focuses on global health issues including access to health care and improving public health outcomes, especially in developing countries.

The concept of the "health field", as distinct from medical care, emerged from the Lalonde report from Canada. The report identified three interdependent fields as key determinants of an individual's health. These are:

- Lifestyle: the aggregation of personal decisions (i.e., over which the individual has control) that can be said to contribute to, or cause, illness or death;

- Environmental: all matters related to health external to the human body and over which the individual has little or no control;

- Biomedical: all aspects of health, physical and mental, developed within the human body as influenced by genetic make-up.

Focusing more on lifestyle issues and their relationships with functional health, data from the Alameda County Study suggested that people can improve their health via exercise, enough sleep, maintaining a healthy body weight, limiting alcohol use, and avoiding smoking. The ability to adapt and to self manage has been suggested as core components of human health (Huber et al., 2011).
The environment is often cited as an important factor influencing the health status of individuals. This includes characteristics of the natural environment, the built in environment, and the social environment. Factors such as clean water and air, adequate housing, and safe communities and roads all have been found to contribute to good health, especially to the health of infants and children. (UNESCO, 2011) Some studies have shown that a lack of neighbourhood recreational spaces including natural environment leads to lower levels of personal satisfaction and higher levels of obesity, linked to lower overall health and well being (Bjork J et al. 2008). This suggests that the positive health benefits of natural space in urban neighborhoods should be taken into account in public policy and land use.

Genetics, or inherited traits from parents, also play a role in determining the health status of individuals and populations. This can encompass both the predisposition to certain diseases and health conditions, as well as the habits and behaviours individuals develop through the lifestyle of their families. For example, genetics may play a role in the manner in which people cope with stress, mental, emotional or physical. (One difficulty is the issue raised by the debate over the relative strengths of genetics and other factors; interactions between genetics and environment may be of particular importance.)
2.4.2: APPROACHES TO GENERAL HEALTH

**Biological approach**

The biological approach emphasizes on human body tissues and organs in the studying of human behaviour. To the viewpoint of this approach general health means having no diseases and focuses on the importance of inherit in transferring the primary preparation against a number of psychic trauma. As a matter of fact, the psychiatric view has a biologic basis. This approach holds that an individual is a balanced creature within its physical and mental features. Based on this viewpoint mental health is ‘a balanced system which functions well’. In simple words, if this balance is agitated, mental illness will emerge. Therefore behaviour can be resembled as a pendulum swinging between two positions. A pendulum motion may stop which causes the adaptability problems manifest themselves (Gangi, 1997).

**Psychoanalysis Approach on General Health**

There are similarities between psychoanalysis and biological approaches. Similar to psychoanalysis, biological approach is based on the concept of the balance between structure, diagnosis, and treatment. According to some psychoanalysts mental health is guaranteed when the ego is in harmony with reality and the instant impulses are under control and an individual can bring balance among the three balances of id, ego, and super ego. Therefore, if there is a conflict between one’s id and superego, mental illness will appear (Shamlo, 1995). From the viewpoint of psychoanalysis, a psychoanalyst defines mental health as the lack of repression. Fear of effusion from the unconscious to the conscious state makes an individual to emit different defensive strategies (signs) such as scruples, phobias,
and even a feeling of escape from reality which is the characteristic of people with mental disorder (Ahadi, 1994). The focus in psychoanalysis is on stress bearing conditions which are considered as threats to the people and cause anxiety. Anxiety is seen as an alarm that appears in unpleasant situations which has to be lessened as soon as possible. In this case an individual inevitably employs defensive mechanisms such as denial or reasoning. This self-defensive process leads to a kind of unbalanced condition between reality and personal experiences which may finally result in mental disorder (Goleman, 1998).

**Behaviourism Approach on General Health**

In behaviorism and all the psycho-social theories the main reason of mental damages is defective learning. Behaviorists deny all the emotional and mental states pertained to the unconscious level because they are invisible. Behaviorists only study the visible behaviors (responses) and to them mental illnesses are seen as learning problems. Therefore, they define and interpret mental health as learning or re-learning of effective responses to the surrounding problems (Ahadi, 1994). Consequently, what is seen as mental illness in other approaches, from the viewpoint of behaviorists, they are considered as a behaviour the same other acquired behaviours (Gangi, 1997).

**Humanistic Approach on General Health**

Humanistic and existentialism believe that the primary reasons for mental damages are the impediment and personal deviation. The pioneers of this theory believe in survival against incitement and regard it as a major factor in constructing
individuals’ personality. If a person denies the opportunities available for him or her to get self-fulfillment or is unable to use the freedom and improve his or her aptitudes to reach to a meaningful life, the absolute result will be anxiety, inanity, and hopelessness. Basically humanists and existentialists believe in the human’s positive character, but on the other hand, they discuss that this positive behaviour can result in aggression, cruelness, and other mental disorders by unpleasant environment (Goleman, 1998).

Humanistic approach believes that mental health is the same as sane personality. For example Mozloo (as cited in Gangi, 1997) believed that mental health is defined as an individual’s state that is fundamentally so satisfied that has motivation to improve himself. In his theory, mental health means a condition in which a person endeavors to improve his or her life (Gangi, 1997). The psychologists in humanism approach believe that the symbols of mental health is the complete development of potential talents as a unique person (Ahadi, 1994).

**Psychological approach on General Health**

From the psychological approach, general health means ‘lack of mental and individual disorders in which an individual not only shows no abnormal manners but he or she makes an attempt to establish adaptability and compatibility with the surrounding environments. Although all the psychological approaches are not in agreement with the definition of a normal person, in the majority of cases we can say that a normal person is and individual that has made adjustments in his or her surrounding environment.

In the psychological approach, the majority of behaviours regarding the general health are related to the individuals’ capabilities. In other words, in the
adaptability the main focus is on the individual’s capabilities in confronting problems because adaptability is regarded to be dynamic. The degree of adaptability depends on two factors namely personal characteristics (e.g., skills, attitudes, etc.), physical features, etc.) and the nature of conditions to which individual confront (family conflicts, forces of nature, etc.). The modern world changes influences human’s adaptability. Moreover, a successful adaptability in a certain situation doesn’t necessarily mean a successful adaptability in any other situations. Adaptability patterns reflect an individual’s mental health (Kamkary, Goodarzi & Malayeri, 2000). Adaptability is in close relation with general health therefore when talking about the ways of achieving adaptability, the conditions in which the adaptability is going to occur should also be considered. An individual may act well in a terrifying condition but may not reflect an organized and ideal adaptability in other situations. Therefore, the abovementioned concepts indicate that factors such as educational stress, conflicts, and vulnerability are crucial in psychological approaches as well. It is noteworthy to mention that educational stress adaptability and confronting educational demands can be the features of general health.

Educational stress refers to the reactions that a student emits against educational demands, while confronting refers to the ways to face difficulties and educational endeavors. On the other hand, vulnerability indicates the possible degree of a non-adaptable behaviour in certain educational conditions. These elements are closely interrelated with each other, for example, under an acute educational stress, despite one’s low vulnerability; an individual may show a non-adaptable behaviour in certain educational conditions. When vulnerability is high in an individual, he or she is eminent to show a non-adaptable behaviour even under minor educational
stress. Furthermore, if students’ capability in confronting educational stress is reinforced, they will probably show less adaptability.

Today, a new approach in psychology regarding adaptability and general health has been introduced. This approach, which is introduced as mental adaptability approach, four adaptability sources namely mental pressure, anxiety, depression, and frustration are discussed. In this approach, the four above-mentioned factors play important roles in individuals’ adaptability. While people are experiencing an increasing amount of adaptability sources in their daily life and educational settings, their adaptability is disturbed and their general health is threatened. Therefore, in this approach these adaptability sources have to be experienced moderately and in harmony with social norms. Consequently, little or intense experiencing of these adaptability sources such as anxiety, depression, mental pressure, and frustration can threaten individual’s general health.

It can then be concluded that, to present definitions for mental health and adaptability process is of great importance. Therefore, from the psychological approach, if a person is able to adapt oneself to his or her environment (family members, colleagues, and generally society) is regarded as a normal person. This kind of person with ideal mental balance can perform well at the university and can settle the conflicts inside or outside his or her own world and will be resistant against inevitable frustrations in life. If an individual is disable to stand against daily problems, that person will behave inappropriately with his or her surrounding environment. From the psychological approach, this kind of person lacks general health and is always probable to emit his or her unresolved conflicts in a neurotic manner. Majority of psychologists agree on this fact that abnormality, lack of social
admissibility, inappropriate personal interpretation of a fact, unpleasant emotional states are all determining criteria in general health. This means that if an individual doesn’t show these cases is regarded as a person enjoying general health. In the subsequent sections, the determining criteria in disorder and general health will be discussed (Gangi, 1997).

2.5: Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups. Various models and definitions have been proposed of which the ability and trait of EI models are the most widely accepted in scientific literature. Ability of EI is usually measured using maximum performance tests and has stronger relationships with traditional intelligence, whereas trait EI is usually measured using self-reporting questionnaires and has stronger relationships with the personality. Criticisms have centered on whether the construct is a real intelligence and whether it has incremental validity over IQ and the big five personality dimensions (Harms, 2010).

Given the consistent view within the field of Emotional Intelligence (EI) that affective phenomena represent a unique source of information and that Emotional Intelligence (EI) represents one’s level of skill in the use of this information to inform thoughts, actions, and subsequent feelings, it is not surprising that various instruments have been developed in an attempt to measure this construct (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer, 2008). This shared assumption of Emotional Intelligence would appear to suggest that individual differences in Emotional
Intelligence (EI) may account for individual differences in the use of coping skills, as well as individual differences in anxiety, self-esteem, and delinquent behaviour. If such relationships are identified, Emotional Intelligence (EI) may further provide direction for interventions targeting such factors.

The concept of Emotional Intelligence has captured considerable public interest due to its popularization in several recent books (e.g., Goleman, 1995) and articles that have appeared in the lay press. In scientific literature however, the basic components of this construct were elaborated over a decade ago, with precursors that extend back to the beginning of the twentieth century (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The general concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) has distant roots that can be traced back to Thorndike’s (1920) concept of “social intelligence” which he used to refer to an ability to understand and manage people, and to act wisely in human relations. The more recent roots of this concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI) can be found in Gardner’s (1983) theory of multiple intelligences, and more specifically, in his concepts of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Petrides et al., 2000). Research of emotions and the concept of Emotional Intelligence have proliferated over the past few decades. Currently within the community of researchers interested in furthering the study of this domain, there seems to be a consistent view that affective phenomena constitute a unique source of information for individuals about their surrounding environment and prospects, and this information informs their thoughts, actions, and subsequent feelings (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, & Mayer, 2008). The essential assumption of Salovey and Mayer, as well as that many of others who are pioneers in this field of study, is that individuals differ in how skilled they are at perceiving, understanding, regulating, and utilizing this emotional information, and that a person’s level of “Emotional Intelligence” contributes
substantially to his or her intellectual and emotional well-being and growth (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer, 2008). Emotional Intelligence was popularized by Daniel Goleman’s 1995 best-selling book, Emotional Intelligence. The book described Emotional Intelligence as a mix of skills, such as awareness of emotions; traits, such as persistence and zeal; and good behaviour (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). The introduction to this book led to many mass-market books, articles, and television programs that made grand suggestions of the influences of such intelligence. Emotional Intelligence, according to Time magazine, “may be the best predictor of success in life.” According to the book Emotional Intelligence, evidence suggests that it is “as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ,” and provides “an advantage in any domain of life” (Mayer, 1999). This type of popularization of Emotional Intelligence has led to the concept becoming a product of two worlds. One is the popular culture world of such best-selling books, and magazine articles previously described. The other is the world of scientific journals, book chapters, and peer reviews (Mayer, 1999).

This review will maintain a scientific focus in the exploration of the Emotional Intelligence concept, and will attempt to describe the different models that have been used to describe the concept, as well as the assessments that are used to measure the concept in accordance with such models.

While the author Daniel Goleman seems to have enthusiastically endorsed the potential predictive value of emotion intelligence, the primary authors of the “ability model” have made no such claims. Rather, the ability version emphasizes that Emotional Intelligence exists. Two models of Emotional Intelligence were thus developed. The first, the “ability model”, defines Emotional Intelligence as a set of
abilities and makes claims about the importance of emotional information and the actual uses of reasoning well with that information. The second will be referred to as the “mixed model”. It mixes Emotional Intelligence as ability; with social competencies, traits, and behaviours, and makes claims about the success that this intelligence leads to (Cobb & Mayer, 2000).

Emotional Intelligence is not a single capability; rather it is a collection of capabilities that include understanding, evaluation and perceiving of ours and others' emotions. Relatively Emotional Intelligence is considered as a collection of capabilities in all definitions. It is a necessary and a relative new and growing research subject for several fields such as business and management. Salovey and Mayer have represented primary theories about Emotional Intelligence in 1990. Theoreticians have offered many definitions about this concept during the succeeding decades.

Goleman (1995) believes that Emotional Intelligence includes both internal and external elements. Internal elements are amount of self-awareness, self-image, and feeling of independence, self-realization capacity and decisiveness. External elements include inter individual relations, easiness in sympathy and feeling of responsibility. Also Emotional Intelligence contains individual's capacity for accepting facts, flexibility, ability to solve emotional problems, ability to solve and confront with stress and impulses. Goleman has separated Emotional Intelligence from IQ and he believes that Emotional Intelligence forms a better method for using IQ through self-control, enthusiasm, perseverance and self-motivation. He places concept of Emotional Intelligence in five stepes. In 1998 Goleman represented another definition for Emotional Intelligence. According to
this definition, Emotional Intelligence is the ability of emotional skills of the individual, perceiving the most private feelings of others and deliberate behaviour in human relations (Ekrami, 2004).

The following definitions have been mentioned about Emotional Intelligence:

I. Being informed of feelings and what to do about them.

II. Being aware of good and bad emotions and the manner of obtaining them,

III. Being aware of emotions and controlling them towards increasing durability and happiness.

IV. Realistic understanding of our emotions as they occur.

V. Identifying of thoughts and feelings and stating them in a clear and direct way.

VI. Ability of sympathy and feeling of condolence in order to pacify them,

VII. Ability of wise decision making and creating of balance between thoughts and emotions and finding out that neither mind nor emotion is suitable. Rather establishing of equilibrium between mind and feelings is the best state,

VIII. Ability to control emotions and be responsible against them (Steven, 1997; quoted by Ekrami, 2004).

Based on a literature analysis Ziedner et al (2004) state there are two models for Emotional Intelligence: mental capability models and synthetic models. Mental capability models focus on inherent talent and tendency for emotional information processing as a collection related to understanding of capabilities of
emotional information processing and regulating of feelings in an adaptative manner. In this respect, Emotional Intelligence is defined as the ability to control one's ability and others’ ability, differentiation among them and applying of information in order to guide thinking and action of the individuals. Those who view Emotional Intelligence as a collection of skills for processing of feelings (Mayer et al, 1990) try to evaluate Emotional Intelligence with objective performance tests such as solving of problems and difficulties through recognition of feelings from pictures.

Synthetic models consider Emotional Intelligence as a various structure including aspects of personality like ability of perception, simulation, adaptation, understanding and managing of feelings. These models contain motivational factors and emotional states. Bar-On (1997) describes Emotional Intelligence as a spectrum of unintellectual capabilities, competencies and skills which affect the individual's abilities in order to succeed in comparison with environmental demands and pressures. By these descriptions we can say that Emotional Intelligence is specified with four components: self-awareness from one's emotions and feelings, social awareness or awareness from others’ feelings, management of feelings in ourselves and management of feelings in others.

Emotional Intelligence is a characteristic that is diverse in different persons. It has been observed in this regard that individuals with high Emotional Intelligence establish relations with better quality. So it is possible to consider Emotional Intelligence weakness in individuals as a reason for not establishing of effective relations and take action to improve it. The existing
weakness in this field results in feeling of dissatisfaction from one's current job and position.

According to Richards, Campania, & Muse-Burke (2010) “There is growing evidence that is showing emotional abilities are associated with prosocial behaviours such as stress management and physical health”. It was also concluded in their research that people who lack emotional expression lead to misfit behaviours. These behaviours are a direct reflection of their mental health. Self-destructive acts may take place in order of suppressing the emotion. Some of these acts include drug and alcohol abuse, physical fights or vandalism (Richards, Campania, & Muse-Burke, 2010). Also without emotional support, mental health is at risk. According to a study done by Strine, Chapman, Balluz and Mokdad (2010) inadequate social and emotional support is a major barrier to health relevant to the practice of psychiatry and medicine, because it is associated with adverse health behaviours, dissatisfaction with life, and disability. By receiving emotional support your health can increase and prevent mental health disorders. Support systems are a valuable asset and those who do not have social and emotional support are more likely to lead to disorders. This support can lead to “an increased personal competence, perceived control, sense of stability, and recognition of self-worth and can have a positive effect on quality of life (Strine, Chapman, Balluz & Mokdad, 2010).

EI predicts academic success in traditional classrooms and serves as a transitional tool to the corporate world (Barchard, 2003; Goldsworthy, 2000; Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, & Majeski, 2004). In the corporate world, the EI that characterizes successful leaders is reflected in their self-awareness, self-management, and relationship building for everyday problem-solving and
communication (Goleman, 1995). Moreover Emotional Intelligence, mental health has important impact on tendency to abnormal behavior, especially to delinquency.

**Viewpoints on Emotional Intelligence**

Darwin's (1872/1965) early work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation was cultivated in the Age of Enlightenment. The Age of Enlightenment, or the Age of Reason, that swept the Western world by the 18th century brought greater concern for independent rationality, the examination of beliefs, and the repudiation of super natural explanations of phenomena (Hoff, 1994). Emphasizing scientific inquiry, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Froebel attempted to discover natural laws, the orderly processes by which the universe functioned. These thinkers also devised theories for social reform, For example, the ideologies underlying the American Revolution sought to reconstruct political order according to reason. Enlightenment ideologies implied that schools should cultivate students' ability to reason and thereby free themselves from superstition. Overall, schools must be progressive institutions that encourage students to develop an open-minded, questioning attitude and an eagerness to use science's empirical method (Ornstein & Levine, 2006).

However, it wasn't until the 19th century that Charles Darwin became one of the first to recognize the nature and value of our emotions. One may surmise that Darwin (1872/1965) considered our gut reactions—those raw feelings which give us sweaty palms, a churning stomach, and tense muscles—to be important for human survival. According to Mayer and Salovey (1993), pioneers in the field of Emotional
Intelligence, this aforementioned concept is still accepted today—an emotional system energizes behaviours needed to stay alive. It is an adaptive, intelligent, and functional system. Emotional Intelligence involves the accurate appraisal and expressions of emotions in oneself and others and the regulation of emotion in a way that enhances living (Mayer et al 1990). In education, Emotional Intelligence is seen as contributing to improving classroom relationships, decreasing risk behaviours and increasing creativity and problem solving. Child analysts signify the importance of school as a source structure and guidance where pupil can develop emotional skills. Greenhalgh (1994) argued that our capacity to learn depends on our ability to manage our inner and outer worlds. Psychoanalysis stresses the importance of how we build up from birth an “inner psychic self” that has an influence on how we see and interact with people and the world. The importance of psychological boundaries and such processes as splitting, projection and transference are inseparable from all aspects of learning.

Transference is a particular form of projection, which takes place when feelings from the past one has, are unconsciously transferred to another person. Pupils can transfer feelings about the parents onto the teacher, and the other teacher get the flack. This provides pupil with the sense of security rather than having to confront difficulty. This enables the teacher to know what is happening emotionally within the child. Pupils need to be in social interaction with other pupils and teachers within a safe environment so that they can learn to name, handle and respect feelings in order to accomplish in their academic and social life. As early as 1920, something called "social intelligence was identified in an article titled Intelligence and Its Uses. E. L. Thorndike (1920a) defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relation" and saw it as part of a
person's IQ. The "educated man," E. L. Thorndike proclaimed, "should know when not to think and where to buy the thinking he needs" (Thorndike, 1920b).

This notion is based on the rational thought that came out of 19th century Enlightenment and helped to shape the behaviourist movement in psychology and the study of human behaviour based on scientific inquiry (Spring, 2005). Enlightenment ideas took root in the United States, where they developed into an optimistic faith in political democracy and universal education. Convinced of the ability to direct their own future, Americans saw education as the key to progress (Feller, 1995). Many of these early research studies focused on describing, defining, and assessing socially competent behaviour (Chaplain 1942; Doll, 1935; Thorndike, 1920a). Thus, Doll (1935) published the first instrument designed to measure socially intelligent behaviour in young children. Possibly influenced by Thorndike (1920a) and Doll (1935), Wechsler (1940) included two subscale [e.g., Comprehension and Picture Arrangement] in his well-known test of cognitive intelligence the Wechsler Intelligence Scales—that appear to have been designed to measure aspects of social intelligence. A year after the first publication of this test in 1939, Wechsler (1940) described the influence of non-intellective factor on intelligent behaviour which was yet another reference to this construct. Moreover, in the first of a number of publications following this early description, Wechsler (1943) argued that models of intelligence would not be complete until we could adequately describe these factors. This line of research helped to define human effectiveness from the social perspective as well as strengthened on very important aspects of Wechsler's (1958) definition of general intelligence: "the capacity of the individual act purposefully" (in Zirkel, 2000).
In the mid-twentieth century, intellectuals also began to shift their attention from describing an assessing social intelligence to understanding the purpose of Interpersonal behaviour and the role it plays in effective adaptability. This notion helped position Social Intelligence as part of General Intelligence; however, scholars continued throughout history to grapple with this notion. Cronbach in 1960 reached his well known conclusion that despite "years of intermittent investigation social intelligence remains undefined and unmeasured". This led him in ‘Essentials of Psychological Testing’ to portray social intelligence as a "useless concept". Most researchers subsequently accepted Cronbach's conclusion that "enough attempts were made to indicate that this line of approach is fruitless". The sole basis for Cronbach's statements and those of others was a 1937 article by R. L. Thorndike and Stein (1937) entitled, "An Evaluation of the Attempts to Measure Social Intelligence". Yet, a fresh and careful reading of Cronbach's article may also leave one optimistic that social intelligence might be a viable construct. R. L. Thorndike and Stein (1937) had concluded that "whether there is a unitary trait corresponding to social intelligence, remains to be demonstrated, but the article did not say that this demonstration would be impossible. Thorndike and Stein (1937) suggested that with further investigations (e.g., relying on scales with less verbal content than their own and taking a multidimensional view of social intelligence), "the construct might ultimately be measurable. The literature reveals various attempts to combine the emotional and social components of this construct. In 1983 Howard Gardner asserted that understanding oneself and others, and the ability to use that understanding, was termed personal intelligence. Personal intelligences include knowledge about the self (Intrapersonal Intelligence) and about others (Interpersonal Intelligence). Intrapersonal Intelligence relates to feeling and is quite close to what
we call Emotional Intelligence: The core capacity at work here is access to personal feeling about life—one's range of affects or emotions: the capacity instantly to feel discriminations among these feelings and eventually, to label them, to enmesh them in symbolic codes, to draw upon them as means of understanding and guiding one's behaviour. At its most highest level, Intrapersonal knowledge allows one to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings to attain a deep knowledge of feeling of her life.

Sternberg (1985) in Beyond IQ concluded that "social IQ is both distinct from academic abilities and a key part of what makes people do well in the practicalities of life". He suggested that social IQ involves three main factors: practical problem solving ability, verbal ability, and social competence. Mayer and Salovey (1990) proposed a model of Emotional Intelligence that they called "EI." Their model addresses individual differences in processing styles and abilities as they noted the existence of a century-long tradition among clinicians recognizing that people differ in the capacity to understand and express emotions and that such difference may be rooted in underlying skills that can be learned. The learning and development of these skills, then, can contribute to people's mental health. Mayer and Salovey (1990) also originally viewed Emotional Intelligence as part of social intelligence, which suggests that both concepts are related and may, in all likelihood, represent interrelated components of the same construct. From Mayer and Salovey's (1990) work arose efforts to determine ways of measuring an individual's Emotional Intelligence or "EI" just as "IQ" is the gauge of our analytical intelligence. At about the same time that researchers began exploring various ways to describe, define and assess social intelligence, scientific inquiry in this area began to center around "Alexithymia" (MacLean, 1949; Ruesch, 1948), which is the essence of emotional-
social intelligence in that it focuses on the ability (or rather inability) to recognize, understand and describe emotions. Two new directions that paralleled and possibly evolved from "Alexithymia" were "psychological mindedness" (Applebaum, 1973) and "emotional awareness" (Bar-On, 2003; Lane & Schwartz, 1987). Psychological mindedness was defined as an umbrella concept which referred to an individual's capacity for Self-Examination, Self-Observation, Introspection and Ultimately Insight. It also includes an ability to recognize and see the links between current problems within self and within others, and the ability to gain insight into one's past, particularly for its impact on present attitudes and functioning (Applebaum, 1973). Emotional awareness was defined as the awareness of body sensations, the body in action, individual feelings, blends of feelings, and blends of blends (Lane & Schwartz, 1987). In keeping with Bar-On (2003) research exploring the neural circuitry that governs emotional awareness (Lane, 2000), as well as additional emotional and social aspects of this concept (Bar-On, 2003; Bechara & Bar-On, 2004; Bechara et al., 2000; Damasio, 1994; Lane & McRae, 2004) has begun to provide tangible evidence of the anatomical foundations of this wider construct which some have questioned as an intangible myth (Mathews et al, 2003; Zeidener et al, 2001). If we are unable to manage our emotions, we are likely to lose our capacity for imagination and we become „frozen emotionally stuck, as if unavailable for „cognitive learning. This emphasis integrates „Emotional Intelligence” and hence sees that in order for learning to take place emotional growth is essential (Mathews, 2006).
Emotional Intelligence and Personality

Personality, one’s characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting (Myers, 1998), has been explored using a variety of theories including psychoanalytic, humanistic, social-cognitive, and trait theory. One of the most predominant and well accepted personality theories, trait theory attempts to explain personality in terms of the dynamics that underlie behaviour. Traits are characteristic patterns of behaviour or dispositions to feel and act in a certain way which distinguish one person from the next. They are hypothesized to be consistent and stable across a lifetime, acting as a type of template for an individual’s behaviour (Myers, 1998). Research by McCrea and Costa (among others) has supported this hypothesis. In a longitudinal study of American adults, McCrea and Costa (1982) found that for the majority of people, personality at age 30 was predictive of personality at age 80.

Several trait theorists have proposed models of personality based on the factor analyses of traits expressed through personality inventories. For example, Hans and Sybil Eysenck’s model of personality outlined two genetically influenced dimensions of personality: introversion-extroversion and stability-instability (Mayer, 1998). A more recent and more widely accepted trait model is the “Big Five” Personality Factor Model.

The Big Five Personality Factor Model, often called the “Big Five” or the “Five Factor Model”, is an empirically derived model of personality based on the early work on traits by Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattell, Hans and Sybil Eysenck. It proposes that personality can be factored into five dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Further, it proposes
that each individual falls between the two extremes of each dimension. Neuroticism contrasts elements of emotional stability with those of negative emotionality. Extraversion implies an energetic approach to the world as opposed to a passive approach, while openness examines an individual's openness to experiences versus their level of close-mindedness. Agreeableness seeks to measure whether one has a prosocial, co-operative orientation towards others or if they act with antagonism. Lastly, conscientiousness includes the control of impulses which facilitates tasks and other goal-directed behaviour (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1999).

2.6: PART II: REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Despite a great deal of popular interest and the development of numerous training programs in Emotional Intelligence (EI), some researchers have argued that there is little evidence that EI is both useful and different from other, well established constructs. Ciarrochi, Deane, and Anderson, (2002) hypothesized that EI would make a unique contribution to understanding the relationship between stress and three important mental health variables, depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation. University students (n=302) participated in a cross-sectional study that involved measuring life stress, objective and self-reported Emotional Intelligence, and mental health. Regression analyses revealed that stress was associated with: (1) greater reported depression, hopelessness, and suicidal ideation among people high in emotional perception (EP) compared to others; and (2) greater suicidal ideation among those low in managing others' emotions (MOE). Both EP and MOE were shown to be statistically different from other relevant measures,
suggested that EI is a distinctive construct as well as being important in understanding the link between stress and mental health.

Petrides, Frederickson, Furnham (2004) examined the role of trait Emotional Intelligence (‘trait EI’) in academic performance and in deviant behaviour at school on a sample of 650 pupils in British secondary education (mean age ≈16.5 years). Trait EI moderated the relationship between cognitive ability and academic performance. In addition, pupils with high trait EI scores were less likely to have had unauthorized absences and less likely to have been excluded from school. Most trait EI effects persisted even after controlling for personality variance. It is concluded that the constellation of emotion-related self-perceived abilities and dispositions that the construct of trait EI encompasses is implicated in academic performance and deviant behaviour, with effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged adolescents.

There has been a recent renaissance in civics and moral education in the Asia-Pacific region. The need to incorporate the notion of emotional literacy into such programmes is discussed and results from the analysis of the influence that emotional literacy has no problem behaviour in Malaysian secondary school students. Results indicated that emotional literacy, measured in terms of Emotional Intelligence, was linked to internalising and externalising problem behaviours. Emotional literacy also served as a moderating factor between parental monitoring and externalising problem behaviours. The need for developing emotional literacy programmes utilising the pedagogy of multiliteracies is discussed (Liau a, Liau b, Teoh&Liau c, 2003).
Siu (2009) examined how trait Emotional Intelligence is related to internalizing and externalizing problem behaviour in 325 adolescents in Hong Kong. An item factor analysis yields four dimensions of Emotional Intelligence. The female adolescents scored significantly higher in *self-management of emotions* and *social skills*, whereas no significant differences between genders were identified in *awareness of others’ emotions* and *positive use of emotions*. There was an inverse relationship between Emotional Intelligence and problem behaviour. The *self-management of emotions* was negatively associated with all types of problem behaviour, whereas *social skills* were related to aggression and delinquency. Regression analysis suggests that poor use of emotions may lead to higher levels of problem behaviour, such as depression, aggression and delinquency, whereas a higher degree of self-management may lead to less anxiety.

Mavroveli, Petrides, Shove, Whitehead (2008) studied construct of trait Emotional Intelligence (trait EI or trait emotional self-efficacy) with emphasis on measurement in children. It is shown in two independent studies that the TEIQ-CF has satisfactory levels of internal consistency (\(\alpha = 0.76\) and \(\alpha = 0.73\), respectively) and temporal stability \([r = 0.79\) and \(r \text{ (corrected)} = 1.00]\). Trait EI scores were generally unrelated to proxies of cognitive ability, and Emotional Intelligence. They also differentiated between pupils with unauthorized absences or exclusions from school and controls. Trait EI correlated positively with teacher-rated positive behaviour and negatively with negative behaviour (emotional symptoms, conduct problems, peer problems, and hyperactivity).

Cook, Greenberg, & Kusche (1994) examined individual differences in children's emotional understanding and behavioural adjustment. Participants
included 220 first- and second grade children (75% regular education, 25% special education). Dependent measures of emotional understanding and experience included the ability to provide personal examples of 10 different emotions and the cues used for recognition of five emotions in oneself and other persons. Children were also administered the WISC-R Vocabulary, Block Design, and Coding subtests. Results indicated that children who were rated as higher in behaviour problems showed deficits in emotional understanding. Intellectual functioning was negatively associated with behaviour problems and attenuated the effects of behaviour problems on emotional understanding.

Research has consistently shown that children with severe conduct problems often exhibit intellectual deficits, especially in their verbal abilities. Loney, Frick, Ellis & McCoy (1998) investigated whether or not this finding only applies to certain subgroups of children with severe conduct problems. In a sample of 117 clinic-referred children between the ages of 6 and 13, they assessed for Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD) and Conduct Disorder (CD) symptoms using a structured diagnostic interview with each child's parent and teacher, callous and unemotional traits using parent and teacher ratings, and intellectual functioning using a standard individually administered intelligence test. Children with an ODD or CD diagnosis who did not show callous and unemotional traits showed a deficit on subtests measuring verbal reasoning ability relative to a clinic control group. Children with an ODD or CD diagnosis who also showed callous and unemotional traits did not show a verbal deficit and, in fact, showed a trend toward having weaker nonverbal abilities. These results highlight the importance of recognizing distinct subgroups of children with severe conduct problems when studying potential intellectual deficits in these children.
Ahmadi, Sorosh, and Afrasiabi (2009) investigated fear of crime in the case of personal and neighbourhood related variables. A questionnaire survey conducted in two high crime areas (Ahnmadino and Dehpialeh) in Shiraz-Iran, among 300 residents. Results showed that among personal variables, gender had significant relationship with fear and surprisingly males were more fearful than females. Other personal variables didn't have significant relationship with fear of crime (age, education, ethnicity, income, home ownership). But neighbourhood related variables (uncivilized, neighbourhood attachment, neighbourhood quality and crime perception in neighbourhood) significantly related to fear of crime. In regression multivariate analysis only uncivilized entered and explained 19 percent of variance of dependent variable.

Hussein Abady (1998) studied delinquent juvenile’s characteristics in west of Tehran. 60 subjects between 14 to 16 years old were selected with multistage sampling technique. Results indicated that there is a significant difference between normal and delinquent juveniles in characteristics such as emotive behaviours, aggressiveness, restlessness and antisocial.

Ahadi and Mohseni (1993) did research about delinquent students 13-20 ages. Almost 26.7 percent of students encounter with exciting disorder. But it was 2.6 percent. This problem also was in 35.3 percent delinquent students. Meanwhile this percent was 15 percent. B: According to seclusion background 33.51 percent of teenage to commit more than average that mentioned. G, According to new information about anti-social tendency 39.8 percent of students is doing in middle, 27.3 percent did more, and 4.9 percent did extremely. The result was that the
Statistic taste has shown the meaning of difference of two groups. So we can say, delinquent student in comparison to normal student have different characters.

Farington (1973) compared personality characteristics of normal and delinquent juveniles and concluded that delinquent juveniles lack more attention to social problems and they also are more jealous of their superiority and their motivations are less, more angry, suspicious, and they are less skilled (Tamasbi, 2000).

Glueck and Gluck (1990) studied 500 children (14-15 years old age) that were in institutions, he distinguished them in to four groups: 1) cultural social factor 2) physical factors 3) mental factors 4) pertaining to one’s health

Results showed that delinquent juveniles distinguished from non-delinquent, means:

1) Physically they are huge and strong

2) Temperamentally they are active and uncontrollable, introverted

3) Behaviourally they are unkind, suspicious, dubious, and strict and they also break law and obedience the law.

4) In psychological features, they are frank, it means that their speech is not secret and do not think deeply.

5) In cultural and social features, they do not show any affection and feeling.

The announcement of health schools (1983) point out those students who have psychological problems, have more delinquent problems in society. More
studied students have problems such as, upset (n=6218) gambler (n=2621) aggressive, quarrelsome (n=5218) escape from school (n=302) depressed (n=8222) (Ahmadi, 1996)

Research indicates that normal teenagers are not satisfied with their families but the relation with their brothers are more satisfying. First group feel more sin, depuratives, jealous and suffer lack of affection in their families. Result showed that UN victory of these juveniles has directl connection with delinquent behaviours (Navabinejad, 2001).

Jonz (1980) found that delinquency is a training behaviour. The delinquents are depuratives from affection, feeling and did not have any situation in this world; in society. They also have no dignity and benefit. When children are not successful in school and they are dubious the outside, with no facility for working and could not do anything at home, only one way remain for them to do some criminal work and they do something against the law (Ahmadi, 1998).

Haddadikoohsara and Ghobarybonab (2011) examined the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and behavioural symptoms in delinquent adolescents. In this study 88 adolescents from Remdial and Training Institute of delinquent adolescents voluntarily were selected. Multiple regression analysis revealed that behavioural symptoms of delinquent adolescents can be predicted from their Emotional Intelligence. Moreover, data revealed that delinquent adolescents with higher Emotional Intelligence were lower in behavioural symptoms.

Therefore low EI individuals tend to be aggressive in various settings in life. They tend to be aggressive due to a variety of reasons such as inability to express their feelings effectively, lack of empathy, poor impulse control, and poor ability to relate to others.

Song, Graham, Susman, and Sohn (2012) examined the role of emotion regulation (ER) strategies and emotional disposition in problem drinking of adolescent offenders (n = 303) and non-offending peers (n = 287) from South Korea. The participants completed a questionnaire assessing problem drinking, positive and negative emotion, emotional intensity, and use of problem solving, support seeking, and avoidant ER strategies. Problem drinking was positively associated with negative emotion, emotional intensity, and support-seeking ER in both groups, and avoidant ER among offenders only. Support-seeking ER accounted for the association between positive emotions and drinking in both groups and avoidant ER further accounted for the association between positive emotion and drinking among offenders. Only among female offenders was the association between emotional intensity and drinking explained by support-seeking ER. The results imply that intervention to improve ER effectiveness, taking into account emotional disposition, delinquency differences, and gender, may help lessen problem drinking among adolescents.

Emotional Intelligence has been related to the outcome variables such as substance use and delinquency. Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer (1993) stated that individuals who are low in Emotional Intelligence (and therefore have more difficulty perceiving 33 emotions in themselves and others, less knowledge of when to express their feelings, and an inability to regulate moods) may be less likely to
effectively handle stressful situations in general and this could be related to increased rates of substance use and aggression. As stated previously, Spooner (1999) proposed that it is not the mere presence of a stressful event, but rather the individual’s method of handling that stressful event which can lead to negative outcomes. Problem-solving, a component of handling stressful events has a well-established relationship with substance use, suggesting that individuals who engage in impulsive/careless and avoidant problem-solving styles tend to experience more problems with drugs and alcohol (Jaffee & D'Zurilla, 2009).

The proposed relationship between Emotional Intelligence and substance use is supported by several studies. Riley and Schutte (2003) found that individuals lower in Emotional Intelligence tended to report more alcohol-related and drug-related problems. Similarly, individuals diagnosed with alexithymia (which is strongly correlated with low levels of Emotional Intelligence) have been found to engage in greater alcohol use (Kauhanen, Julkunen, & Salonen, 1992) and greater drug use (Helmers & Mente, 1999).

Tomczak (2010) investigated the impact of two prominent models of Emotional Intelligence (ability model and trait models) on substance abuse and reactive/immature delinquency in a college population, 193 students from the University of Alabama participated in the study. Results indicated that both Emotional Intelligences were negatively correlated with substance abuse and delinquency.

Salguero, Palomera, and Fernandez-Berrocal, (2012) analyzed the predictive validity of perceived Emotional Intelligence (attention to feelings, emotional clarity, and emotional repair) over psychological adjustment in an adolescent sample at two
temporal stages with a 1-year interval. At Time 1, the results indicated that adolescents with high scores in attention to feelings and low scores in emotional clarity and repair, display poorer psychological adjustments, concretely, higher levels of anxiety, depression, and social stress and lower levels of general mental health. At Time 2, attention to feelings and emotional repair significantly predicted adolescents’ psychological well-being, even when the effects of previous psychological adjustment were controlled. The findings suggest that perceived Emotional Intelligence is a stable predictor of adolescent adjustment and may serve as a useful resource for preventive interventions.

Theoretically, trait and ability Emotional Intelligence (EI) should mobilize coping processes to promote adaptation, plausibly operating as personal resources determining choice and/or implementation of coping style. However, there is a dearth of research deconstructing if/how EI impacts mental health via multiple coping strategies in adolescence. Using path analysis Davis & Humphrey (2012) specified a series of multiple-mediation and conditional effects models to systematically explore interrelations between coping, EI, depression and disruptive behaviour in 748 adolescents (mean age = 13.52 years; SD = 1.22). Results indicated that whilst ability EI influences mental health via flexible "selection" of coping strategies, trait EI modifies coping "effectiveness;" specifically, high levels of trait EI amplify the beneficial effects of active coping and minimize the effects of avoidant coping to reduce symptomatology.

Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2006) examined the association between Emotional Intelligence (EI), anxiety, depression, and mental, social, and physical health in university students. The sample was made up of 184 university students (38 men and 146 women). Results showed that high Emotional Attention was
positively and significantly related to high anxiety, depression, and to low levels of 
Role Emotional, Social Functioning, and Mental Health. However, high levels of 
emotional Clarity and Mood Repair were related to low levels of anxiety and 
depression, high Role Physical, Social Functioning, Mental Health, Vitality, and 
General Health.

Bostani and Saiiari (2011) compared Emotional Intelligence and mental 
health between athletic and non-athletic students. In details, 100 athlete students and 
100 non athlete students were selected by random cluster sampling technique. 
Results showed that there are significant differences between athletes and Non-
athletes in some of Emotional Intelligence components such as: happiness, Stress 
Tolerance and Self-assertiveness (P < 0.05). Also there are significant differences 
between athletes and Non-athletes in mental health (P < 0.05).

Liau, A. Liau, AW. Teoh, & Liau, M. (2003) showed that Emotional 
Intelligence negatively correlated with aggression and delinquency and was also 
identified as a moderator between parental monitoring and both aggression and 
delinquency in an investigation of 203 secondary school students’ emotional literacy 
(Liau et al., 2003). It also positively correlated with academic achievement in 
children (Schute Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, & Dornheim, 1998) and 
with emotional reactivity in adults (Engelberg & Sjoberg, 2004). Another research 
indicated significant differences between two groups in components of Emotional 
Intelligence. Nonaddicted people had more scores in appraisal of emotion, 
utilization of emotion and general score of Emotional Intelligence. But there was no 
significant difference in regulation of emotion in two groups.
Andi (2012) studied the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and the personality traits using Malaysian Youth Emotional Intelligence Test (MYEIT) and Big Five Inventory (BFI). MYEIT is a newly developed measure to meet the need of a reliable instrument to measure EI among Malaysian samples. The dimensions of this newly developed MYEIT are similar to the well-known SSEIT and TEIQue however the items have been designed to suit the Malaysian socio-politics and cultures. Although MYEIT is a new instrument, it has the capacity to be linked to mainstream scientific models in differential psychology such as Big Five. Results showed that there are strong relationships between EI and Big Five such as Conscientiousness and Agreeableness followed by Extraversion, Openness and Neuroticism.

Sasanpour, Khodabakhshi and Nooryan (2012) studied the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Happiness and Mental Health in 120 Medical Sciences Students. Results show that there is a positive and meaningful relation between Emotional Intelligence, happiness and mental health. Besides, students with high Emotional Intelligence have more happiness and mental health. They concluded that the overall EI-I score was high, indicating a group that has good Emotional Intelligence. There are fairly large differences in the scores for the 15 content scales indicating areas of relative strengths and areas of improvement and relation with mental health in students.

Bindu & Thomas (2006) investigated the nature and extent of the relationships that exist among two cognitive variables, viz., intelligence and creativity, and two non-cognitive variables, viz., Emotional Intelligence and maladjustment among a sample of young adults (n = 90). The results revealed that the two gender groups differed significantly in the mean scores on the variables and
also in their intercorrelations. Maladjustment was identified as the most important predictor of all the other variables, in the case the male sample. Emotional Intelligence played a significant role in determining overall creativity and maladjustment in the female sample. The relationship between intelligence and creativity was found to be stronger in the female group than in the male group. The findings have been discussed in the light of available theoretical and empirical literature.

In a study conducted among a sample of 432 college level educated (Keralites & Sushama, 2003; cited in Bindu & Thomas, 2006) found that creativity, general maladjustment, education, and age were significant predictors of EI. Her findings have added credence to the view that a multifactorial approach is needed to understand the general level of functioning and success in the life of an individual.

Springer and Deutsch (1998) commenting on the sex differences in certain human abilities like verbal and spatial skills, point out that males tend to be more lateralized for verbal and spatial functions, whereas females show greater bilateral representation for both types of functions. Extending the relationship of lateralization and ability, they postulate that in men only the left hemisphere is involved in language, leaving visuo-spatial functions intact on the right, whereas in women, language is established in both the hemispheres, crowding visuo-spatial ability. This is believed to explain the superiority of females in language functions (Halpern, 1992) and males in visuo-spatial functions (Schaie, 1994). However, it may also be possible to explain the gender differences observed in terms of differences in education and socialization. As noted by Lezak (2004), the nature-nurture issue remains unsettled in questions of sex differences in cognitive abilities.
In view of these considerations, the present study explored the gender differences in EI and its correlates.

Brackett, Mayer, and Warner (2004) assessed the discriminant, criterion and incremental validity of an ability measure of Emotional Intelligence (EI). College students ($N=330$) took an ability test of EI, a measure of the Big Five personality traits, and provided information on Life Space scales that assessed an array of self-care behaviours, leisure pursuits, academic activities, and interpersonal relations. Women scored significantly higher in EI than men. EI, however, was more predictive of the Life Space criteria for men than for women. Lower EI in males, principally the inability to perceive emotions and to use emotions to facilitate thought, was associated with negative outcomes, including illegal drug and alcohol use, deviant behaviour, and poor relations with friends. The findings remained significant even after statistically controlling for scores on the Big Five and academic achievement. In this sample, EI was significantly associated with maladjustment and negative behaviours for college-aged males, but not for females.

Williams and McGee (2006) in a longitudinal study of child development ($N=698$) to examine relationships between early reading attainment and antisocial behaviour at ages 7 and 9 years and subsequent reading and delinquent behaviour in adolescence used Structural equation modelling. While reading, analysed as a continuous variable, did not directly influence later delinquency, antisocial behaviour during the early school years was strongly predictive of delinquency at age 15 years particularly for boys, and had a detrimental effect on reading. These findings were independent of social disadvantage, and were unchanged by adjusting reading scores for IQ. Reading disability at 9 years old, however, predicted conduct disorder at age 15 in boys.
In Snowling’s (2006) study regarding the levels of literacy among 91 15- to 17-year-old male juvenile offenders, literacy skills on non-verbal ability yielded an estimated prevalence of 57% while a more conservative estimate of 43% followed from the regression of literacy skill on verbal ability, and 38% of the sample had specific phonological deficits. Many of the offenders had experienced social and family adversity and reported poor school attendance.