

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILY FUNCTIONS AND JUVENILE
DELINQUENCY: A CASE OF NAKURU MUNICIPALITY, KENYA.**

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By

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial
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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION


DECLARATION

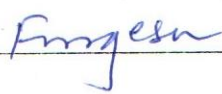
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RECOMMENDATION

This thesis has been submitted to Graduate School with our approval as University supervisors.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all the parents who no doubt wish to see their children grow up to become upright and responsible citizens of this nation.

To my dear sons, Josphat and Henry, for being understanding and patient with me throughout this work.

To my dear parents, Henry and Rahab who sacrificed their own happiness so that I may be happy.

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ABSTRACT

The incidences of juvenile anti-social behaviour have tremendously increased in intensity and magnitude in recent years in Kenya. For this reason, juvenile delinquency is one of the most urgent problems in the society. In the West, this problem has mainly been attributed to poor family functions. A number of studies on juvenile delinquency have been done in Kenya. However, most of these studies have paid little or no attention to the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. The purpose of the study was to determine this relationship. The study was carried out in Nakuru Municipality. It targeted former street children under rehabilitation in three homes in the municipality and their parents. The managers of these homes were also included. A sample of 148 children was selected from a population of 241, using stratified random sampling technique for boys. All the girls were included because they were few. Six parents were selected purposively and all the managers of the children's homes were included. Two interview schedules and a questionnaire were used to collect data from the children, the parents and the managers. The major instrument was the children's interview schedule. This instrument was pretested and reliability calculated using Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient and was found to be 0.74. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 9.00 was used to analyse data. Means and standard deviations were used to determine the level of delinquent acts. Pearson's moment correlation was used to test hypotheses one to five, while t-test was used to test hypothesis six. The findings of the study revealed that majority of children in the rehabilitation centres came from single-parent homes, large families and low social-economic status families. Many children reported presence of violence among their family members. Their parents mostly use physical punishment to correct their mistakes. There were more boys than girls in the correction facilities, and their delinquency level was significantly higher than that of girls. There was a significant relationship between juvenile delinquency and marital stability, marital adjustment, and parental mode of discipline. Almost all the children came from very poor families, but there was a weak relationship between juvenile delinquency and family social-economic status. Based on these findings, it was concluded that there is a significant relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. The study recommended that counseling efforts be strengthened among single parents and those of low social-economic status. Parents should also be involved in juvenile delinquency correction efforts.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children
Cap	Chapter
COD	Chairman of Department
CYPA	Children and Young People's Act
FPE	Free Primary Education
GOK	Government of Kenya
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune-Deficiency Virus/Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome
KAACR	Kenya Alliance for Advancement of Children
LOK	Laws of Kenya
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NYS	National Youth Service
SAPs	Structural Adjustment Programs
SCANN	Street Children Assistance Network of Nakuru
SCS	Consortium for Street Children
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TAS	Traditional African Society
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
UK	United Kingdom
UNCRC	United Nations Charter on the Rights of the Child
UNHCR	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child
USA	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Juvenile delinquency has greatly increased in the Kenyan Society in recent years. There are frequent anti-social activities by the youth in Kenya. In schools, managers are often confronted by students' misconduct. Sometimes the magnitude of student unrest is fatal, as shown in Table 1. In many homes, parents have to deal with indisciplined children. The situation is not any better in the streets of our major towns. These juvenile activities include violence, theft, drug-related offences, and vagrancy. Many of these activities are not reported, thus it is impossible to arrive at an accurate assessment of the number of adolescents who engage in delinquency. In the 1960s in the United States of America, Gotrieb and Ramsey, (1964) observed that only about one third of the adolescents apprehended by the police for offences considered delinquent were ever taken to the police station or the juvenile court. The published figures greatly underestimated the real incidences (Snooks, 1980).

The situation is not much different in Kenya. According to a survey carried out in Kenya by the Family Support Institute (1998), the number of children in especially difficult circumstances, who include juvenile delinquents, has not been established, thus the magnitude and intensity of the problem. The figures that are available are only estimates.

The family is the main focus of research on juvenile delinquency in America. Today, the rising divorce rate, increase in teenage pregnancy and prevalence of single-parent households has caused the definition of family to take on several new meanings. Findings support the hypothesis that families lacking structure, communication, support and cohesiveness foster delinquency (Hammen, 1996).

The family makes the immediate unit in which a child is cared for. Kenya, like in many other traditional African communities, had a traditional system which provided for the upbringing and care of the children by the family, community and the wider public in general. There was an organised system in which roles were divided among the various sexes and age-groups in the community. Through this system, the children's survival, protection and development rights were almost fully taken care of (Family Support Institute 1998).

Mbiti (1969), concurs with this situation. He reports that the traditional culture through the kinship system fostered a closely-knit way of life for the people. The extended family system was very strong and one lived as part of the extended family. Thus, an individual could only say; "I am, because we are; and since we are, therefore I am" (Mbiti, 1969, pp108-109). These closely-knit ties ensured that the society existed in harmony.

However, this situation changed in the twentieth century. Many changes took place in the Kenyan society, leading to the break-up of the traditional society. The breakdown in the values and practices that enhanced the cohesion of the traditional institution, that is, home, family and community, left many children in want. This has significantly contributed to the existence of street children, who have to feed for themselves, hence juvenile delinquency. Many families are now unable to provide the ideal type of care as was the case in traditional African communities (Family Support Institute 1998).

This breakdown of traditional African society may be traced from the introduction of colonialism, western culture, and urbanization in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. During this period many changes began to be experienced in the Kenyan social set up. The close relationships, which were part of the kinship system, began to loosen as individualism took root. The nuclear family system replaced the extended family system. (Levi, 2002).

More recently, there are other global forces that have threatened the welfare of most families, and in particular, the children in them. Key among these are:

- i. Economic recession, beginning in the 1970
- ii. External debt
- iii. Declining terms of trade
- iv. Structural Adjustment (SAPs).

Further, these changes have precipitated social-cultural and economic transformations in Kenya which have contributed to further household poverty. These are:

- i. Population pressure
- ii. Rapid urbanisation
- iii. Growing unemployment
- iv. Landlessness
- v. Single parenthood
- vi. AIDS pandemic
- vii. Erosion of family and community system (Family Support Institute 1998 pg 1).

The Consortium for Street Children (2002) reports that Africa has the fastest rate of urbanisation in the world. As a result of these challenges, more Kenyan families are poor, unable to afford basic commodities, including food. Children from such families have ended up in the streets, thus the problem of juvenile delinquency (Family Support Institute 1998).

The trend of juvenile delinquency in the Kenyan society has reached an endemic high with such press reports as the Kyanguli incidence where 67 students died in an inferno started by some of the students in the year 2000. Table 1 shows the proportion of secondary schools that have experienced students' unrest by province in Kenya. The data show the magnitude and gravity of juvenile delinquency.

Table 1: Juvenile delinquency levels in Kenya's secondary schools by province, during the period 2000/2001

Province	Number of schools	Number of schools that experienced unrest	Percentage	Gravity
Central	630	85	13.50	Violent and destructive
Coast	151	4	2.60	Destruction of school property
Nyanza	680	7	1.00	Destruction of school property
Eastern	626	76	12.40	Destruction of property; loss of life
Rift valley	625	50	8.00	Violent and destructive
Western	408	19	4.70	Minor destruction of property
Nairobi	93	2	2.00	Minor destruction of property
N. Eastern	21	7	33.30	Destruction of property

Source: GOK/MOEST (2001, p 7).

In its efforts to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents, the Kenya Government has set up Children's Remand Homes and Approved Schools. Besides the Government's efforts, a number of non-governmental organisations have come up with rehabilitation centres. There are 34 such centres in Kenya that are rehabilitating former street children. Table 2 shows the distribution of these centres throughout the country, by province.

Table 2: Distribution of street children rehabilitation homes in Kenya by province

Province	Number of homes
Nairobi	19
Nyanza	3
North Eastern	0
Central	2
Coast	1
Eastern	2
Rift Valley	6
Western	1
Total	34

Source: African Network for Prevention and Protection against Child Abuse and Neglect (2002).

Many factors are associated with juvenile delinquency. According to Meyer and Dusek (1979), the best predictor of adolescent delinquency is the relationship with the parents. Being the primary socialising group in the society, the family plays an important role in determining whether a child develops delinquent behaviours.

It has further been said that the family is the foundation of human society. Children who are rejected by their parents, who grow up in homes where there is considerable conflict, or who are inadequately supervised, are at the greatest risk of becoming

delinquent. Thus, justice can be better served, and young people steered on the right path, by involving families in juvenile crime cases. If anything would play a big part in juvenile delinquency, it is the family. Understanding how the family, and the juvenile within the family works, gets to the core of the problem (Doggett,2004).

Families are one of the strongest socialising forces in life. They teach children to control unacceptable behaviour, to delay gratification, and to respect the rights of others. Conversely, families can teach children aggressive, anti-social, and violent behaviour. Positive parenting practices during early years and later in adolescence appear to act as buffers preventing delinquent behaviour and assisting the adolescents involved in such behaviour to desist from delinquency (Doggett, 2004).

There are many factors within the home that are closely related to delinquency. Key among these are broken homes, poverty, homes characterised by domestic violence, and large family sizes. According to Hammen (1996), children in single parent households are at a greater risk of aggressive behaviour and academic difficulties than those from two-parent families. This is due to limited financial resources coupled with the stress of poverty that causes less adult supervision and monitoring. Family poverty inhibits informal social controls thus increasing the likelihood of juvenile delinquency. Moreover, limited financial resources could be as a result of large family size and vice versa. Thornton and Voigt (1992) report that more delinquency is found in large families than in smaller ones. This is because smaller families can more effectively control and fulfill the emotional needs of their children.

A lack of monitoring is reflected in the parent often not knowing where the child is, whom the child is with, what the child is doing or when the child will be back home. Monitoring becomes increasingly important as children move into adolescence and spend less time under the direct supervision of parents or other adults, and more time with peers (Doggett, 2004).

Financial and emotional stress further leads to domestic violence between parents, and sometimes on children. Such children are socialised into accepting violence as a way of life (Meyer & Dusek, 1979). At the same time, if parents are constantly quarrelling, they may not provide effective supervision or socialisation of their children. Thus, unhappy homes are more apt to produce delinquent children than happy homes (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). It is against this background that the study was planned and carried out.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The incidences of juvenile anti-social behaviour have tremendously increased in intensity and magnitude in recent years in Kenya, thus the concern of the whole society. The high occurrence of delinquent acts by the youth has become the concern of parents, teachers, social workers, government and the society at large. This is because juvenile anti-social behaviour leads to social insecurity now and in the future. When these youths mature, they could form the core of criminal syndicates (Mushanga, 1985).

Poor family functions are some of the major factors related to juvenile delinquency that have been identified in the western world (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994), but little, if any, literature on the same exists in Kenya. Since these kinds of studies have been done in the U.S.A, which has a different environment, there has been need to carry out a similar study in Kenya. This research was, therefore, carried out because little, if any attention, had been given to the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Data were collected from children undergoing rehabilitation in children's homes Nakuru Municipality.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency with reference to selected family functions.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study attempted to achieve the following objectives:

- i. To determine the relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency
- ii. To determine the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency
- iii. To determine the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency
- iv. To determine the relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency
- v. To determine the relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency
- vi. To establish whether there is a difference in juvenile delinquency levels between boys and girls.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses were tested at .05 and .01 significance levels:

- Ho₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency
- Ho₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency
- Ho₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency
- Ho₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency
- Ho₅: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency
- Ho₆: There is no statistically significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study is significant on the ground that addressing juvenile delinquency at its grassroots may help in reducing adult crime. This is because the single most important factor that identifies a career of criminals in adults is juvenile criminal activity. Besides, studies on families and juvenile delinquency have been carried out in other parts of the world. But little, if any, similar study has been done in Kenya. The study was therefore intended to fill this gap. The study has also made contribution in theory in that it has attempted to explain the causes of juvenile delinquency.

Juvenile delinquency is a symptom of deep-seated problems within the family. Rehabilitation of these youths only deals with the symptom without addressing the causes. If treatment of this vice is to succeed it must start at the family level. The study has also made some contribution to the existing knowledge on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Schools, churches, Ministry of Education and Ministry of Home Affairs are expected to benefit from the findings of the study in that they are expected to be more effective in dealing with juvenile delinquents and discipline cases in schools, churches, approved schools and juvenile remand homes. At the same time, parents are expected gain an understanding into the roles they play in perpetuating juvenile delinquency. This knowledge is expected to help them to more effectively deal

with the vice where it already exists, as well as prevent its occurrence. This is both reactive and proactive roles.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

- i. It was assumed that the sample of respondents selected would be willing to readily give the information as stipulated in the questionnaire and interview schedules.
- ii. It was also assumed that the respondents' views would be true reflections of the actual situations at hand.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The study was carried out in Nakuru Municipality, Kenya. Data were collected from former street children undergoing rehabilitation in three street children rehabilitation centres. A total population of 241 children was targeted, from whom a sample of 148 children was selected. The three managers of the homes were included. Six parents of the children were also included in the sample.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

The following factors posed as limitations to the study:

- i Collecting data and filling the interviews schedules for 148 children was not a mean task because some of the respondents were hesitant to disclose about themselves. It called for a lot of patience on the side of the researcher to accomplish this task. Travelling to the rehabilitation centres was equally expensive and time consuming.
- ii- Getting parents to respond to the questions was not an easy task. However it was finally possible to get the right sample of respondents. But still the number of parents was limited.

1.10 Definition of Terms

The following terms are core to the study. As such they have been specially defined in accordance with the purpose of the study.

Counselling: According to Biswalo (1996), counselling is the process of helping an individual to accept and use the information and advice so that he can either solve his present problem, or cope with it successfully. Sometimes this process helps the individual to accept an unchangeable situation. In this study the term was used to refer to the process of helping parents or guardians, both single and married, to be able to solve their marital and other problems without causing harm, either physical or psychological, to their children.

Delinquency: According to Siegel and Senna, (1988), delinquency refers to a vast array of illegal activities, including violence, theft and drug-related offences. In the study it was used to refer to illegal activities committed by children seven to seventeen years of age. These activities include truancy, running away from home, drug-related offences, stealing, loitering in the streets and sexual offences.

Family: According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2002), a family is a group of people consisting of one or two parents and their children. In the study the term referred to monogamous, polygamous and single parent families and their children.

Family Functions: These are the activities and workings within the institution of the family. In the study the term was used to refer to the performance of the family with respect to interpersonal relationships, social-economic activities, marital adjustment, family size, discipline and stability.

Family Socio-Economic Status: Family socio-economic status refers to a family's relative position in a community, defined by a combination of adult income, occupation, level of education, family stability, number of siblings per family and material possessions at home (Githua, 2002). In the study

the term was operationalised to refer to family's well being in terms of parents' level of education, professional training, occupation, type and size of house the family lives in and the parents' or guardians' income.

Guidance: Biswalo (1996) defines guidance as a term used to denote the process of helping an individual to gain self-understanding, self direction or self decision-making, so that he can adjust maximumlly to his home, school or community environment. This process, however, depends on counselling. In this study, the term was used to refer to the process of helping school children have a focus and direction for their future by setting short-term and long-term goals and working hard towards the realisation of these goals.

Induction: According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2002), the term induction refers to the process of introducing somebody to a new job. In the study, the term was used to refer to a form of disciplinary technique in which the parent explains why the child should not engage in some behaviour. The parent tries to train the child to understand the consequences of his actions within the context of a punishment situation.

Juvenile Delinquent: A juvenile delinquent is variously identified as a child who commits a criminal act or a status offence, who is apprehended by the police for commission of a criminal act or a status offence, or who is referred to the juvenile court and adjudicated "delinquent" (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). In the study the term was used to refer to children between seven to seventeen years of age who run away from home and school and engage in anti-social activities. Key among these activities are loitering aimlessly in the streets, stealing, violence, and drug abuse.

Marital Adjustment: This term was used to refer to how well parents get along, such as absence of tension, domestic violence and other forms of quarrelling in the home.

Marital Stability: This refers to the quality or state of a marriage's steadfastness. It is the absence of disturbance in a marriage, which may take the form of divorce, separation, or death of one spouse or birth of children outside wedlock.

Physical Punishment: This refers to punishment inflicted on the body such as flogging (Macdonald, 1972). In this study the term was used to refer to the act of inflicting pain on children's body through beating, caning or flogging, so as to make them suffer for their offences.

Punishment: Macdonald (1972) defines punishment as an act of causing someone to suffer for an offence. In this study the term was used to refer to ways in which parents cause their children to suffer for the offences that the children commit.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The primary purpose of this chapter was to review and summarise the literature related to the area of study. Specifically, the section has literature on the concept of juvenile delinquency, types and causes of juvenile delinquency and the efforts the government is making to prevent the vice as well as rehabilitate juvenile delinquents. The section has also reviewed literature on sociological, classical, positivists' and psychological theories of delinquency. The section also presents literature on selected family functions, that is, marital stability, family social-economic status, family size, marital adjustment and parental mode of discipline, and how they relate to juvenile delinquency. Finally, the theoretical framework of the study, and a model showing the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency, were presented.

2.2 Concept of Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile delinquency is defined legally as behaviour of a child between seven and seventeen years, which violates existing law. Socially, it is defined as aggressive behaviour unapproved of by the community (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). It occurs almost everywhere in the world. It affects some children of all cultural and religious background, and every social-economic class. There is no area or group that is immune. Though its legal concept is new, children's inability to live by the standards set by adults is age-old (Cavan & Ferdinand, 1975). Therefore, regardless of definition of juvenile delinquency, whether legally or socially, the problem it poses is a complex one (Thornton & Voigt, 1992).

According to Thornton and Voigt, (1992), juvenile delinquency was created as a special category for child offenders. This was done in relation to the discovery of childhood as a separate stage of life. It was also as a result of social currents in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. These writers also report that, during the eighteenth century, childhood came to be thought of as a unique phase of life. Children were seen as special creatures who needed both protection and education

In the African society, juvenile delinquency in its legalistic terms can be traced back from the mid-nineteenth and twentieth centuries. During this time African kinship ties got eroded as a result of colonization and introduction of western culture, education and

urbanisation. Africa then experienced rapid and radical changes. The family was the most severely affected part of African life. Individually, the change came too suddenly, plunging the individual into darkness for which he had not been traditionally prepared. It alienated him both from the traditions of his society, and from his roots (Mbiti, 1969).

There are other recent global forces that have threatened the welfare of most families, and in particular, the children in them. Key among these are:

- i. Economic recession, beginning in the 1970
- ii. External debt
- iii. Declining terms of trade
- iv. Structural Adjustment (SAPs).

Further, these changes have precipitated social-cultural and economic transformations in Kenya which have contributed to further household poverty. These are:

- i. Population pressure
- ii. Rapid urbanisation
- iii. Growing unemployment
- iv. Landlessness
- v. Single parenthood
- vi. AIDS pandemic
- vii. Erosion of family and community system (Family Support Institute 1998 pg 1).

There is a great deal of interest in juvenile delinquency. The present concern is but a continuation of parental and public anxiety beginning before written records. Cavan and Ferdinand (1975) report that many of the actual kinds of delinquency are the same now as thousands of years ago. Juvenile delinquents:

- i. are more immoderate in their smoking, drinking, gambling and sexual habits.
- ii. more often become violent after drinking.
- iii. show little interest in reading or in further education.
- iv. mix more freely with other groups of the kind that gets into trouble.
- v. spend more of their leisure time away from home and indulge more often in seemingly aimless hanging about or loitering.
- vi. more often take prohibited drugs.
- vii. tend to be more aggressive.
- viii. are very often alienated from their parents and home.
- ix. easily adopt new and exotic dress-styles, ornaments and hairstyles

x. are generally less conforming and less socially restrained than non- delinquents.

This difference shows up in all aspects of their lives (Mushanga, 1985).

The boys that fit this description are commonly seen in major cities and towns. In Nairobi they are known as parking boys. They spend their times on the streets guiding motorists to parking spaces. Very often they are found drunk from inhaling gasoline taken from parked vehicles. These children, when mature, could form the core of criminal syndicates (Mushanga, 1985). They are also said to be delinquents because they have ran away from home or school. They engage in other anti-social behaviours, key among them are stealing, aggression, sex offences, assaults, damage to property, and indecent exposure. Unfortunately, no society has fully mastered the technique of successfully initiating children into the expectations and demands of their society. Today, every society still struggles with the twin problems of how best to socialise its children and establish appropriate rehabilitation of the deviants (Cavan & Ferdinand, 1975).

2.3 Types of Delinquent Acts

According to Lundman (1993), there are two types of delinquent acts. These are status offences and criminal acts. Status offences are offences that apply only to juveniles and are not considered criminal if committed by adults. Young people seventeen years of age and under are subject to legal intervention for acts that would be criminal if committed by adults. Such juveniles risk arrest by the police, detention in a facility reserved exclusively for youthful offenders, adjudication as a delinquent by a juvenile court or commitment to a conventional facility accepting only adolescent offenders. In such cases, delinquent juveniles are subject to the same laws and some of the same law enforcement responses as criminal adults.

Secondly, juveniles are also subject to legal intervention if they commit acts called status offences. These offences apply only to juveniles and are not considered criminal if committed by adults. Adolescents who run away and skip school, defy their parents and stay out too late are subject to arrest and formal juvenile justice system processing (Lundman, 1993). The study aims at investigating both criminal and status offences and how both relate to family functions.

2.4 Causes of Juvenile Delinquency

Conceiving the causes of juvenile delinquency as the basis for juvenile correction has many advantages. For one thing, correcting delinquency must either eliminate its

causes or substitute their influences. Understanding the causes of delinquency improves the chances that corrections can succeed. The problem is that little is known about what really causes one child to become delinquent while another in apparently the same circumstances does not become delinquent (Coffey, 1975). No single causes lead the adolescent to commit crime. For any causal factor identified, there are some adolescents who have that characteristic and are delinquents and some who have it but are not delinquents. Hence there is need to examine a broad spectrum of potential causes of adolescent delinquency. According to Meyer and Dusek, (1979), there are many factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency. Key among these are:

- i. Influences from the mass media
- ii. Drug abuse
- iii. Poor performance in school
- iv. Poverty or low social- economic status
- v. Parental divorce or separation
- vi. Hostile home environment
- vii. Peer influences

Helms and Turner (1981) also reported factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency. Key among these factors, according to these writers, are broken homes, the degree of affection exhibited by the parents, and the ineffective patterns of parental discipline. Many of these delinquents foster feelings of rejection and have poor self concept.

2.5 Kenya Government's Efforts in Rehabilitation and Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency

The Kenyan Government has taken some steps aimed at rehabilitating delinquent children as well as curbing further spread of juvenile delinquency.

2.5.1. Government's efforts at rehabilitating juvenile delinquents

According to the survey report by the Family Support Institute (1998), in her efforts to rehabilitate the delinquents, the Government has set up the following institutions:

- i. Juvenile Remand Homes. The Children and Young People's Act (CYPA) provides for the establishment of juvenile remand homes. These homes provide safety for children below 16 years whose matters are pending

before court while investigations are going on, until such a time when the court makes a decision. These services are offered to both boys and girls.

- ii. Approved schools. Approved schools were also established under the CYPA section 37 and 38 Cap 141 of the Laws of Kenya (LOK), 1963. These schools cater for the rehabilitation of children in especially difficult circumstances, discipline or care.
- iii. Children's homes. These are institutions which cater for children who are abandoned, orphaned or neglected.
- iv. Borstal Institutions. These are institutions established under the Borstal Institution's Act section 3 Cap 20 of the Laws of Kenya. They are rehabilitation institutions for the children found guilty of criminal offences by the court. They cater for both boys and girls.

2.5.2. Steps the Kenya Government has taken to curb the spread of juvenile delinquency

Besides the rehabilitation efforts, the Government is also making efforts to prevent the problem of street children, which, to a great extent, leads to juvenile delinquency. Key among these are:

- i. The Government has implemented the Free Primary Education (FPE) Policy. This is a welcome move because education is one of the most basic rights that every child has. It is also a compelling alternative to juvenile delinquency. At the same time, Kenya is a signatory of the Dakar and Jiomtien declarations which aim to achieve education for all by the year 2015 (Kenya Children's Parliament, 2004). Compulsory education means less idle time for children to engage in delinquency. Good education may also serve as a ticket to better future, thus less anti-social activities by the youths.
- ii. The Government has encouraged Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and churches to set up centres and programs which are working with the disadvantaged members of the community so as to try and uplift their social status as well as take care of the education of the disadvantaged children. Key among these are Save the Children UK, Rescue "Dada" Centre by the Catholic Archdiocese of Nairobi, "Pendekezo Letu", that is

Our Choice, also in Nairobi, and Pandipieri Street children's Program in Kisumu (Consortium for Street Children 2002).

- iii. The Kenya Parliament enacted the Children's Act Cap 586 LOK (2001). This act guarantees the rights of the child and makes provision for parental responsibility, fostering, adoption, custody, maintenance, guardianship, care, and protection of children. If these provisions are adhered to, the problem of neglected children will reduce, thus less street children. This will finally translate to reduced juvenile delinquency (The Children's Act Cap 586 LOK 2001).
- iv. In 2001, Kenya ratified the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC, 2004).
- v. According to Child Labour Monitoring System in Commercial Agriculture (2004), Kenya is one of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa implementing a program on prevention, withdrawal and rehabilitation of children engaged in hazardous work in commercial agriculture.

2.6 Theories of Delinquency

Over the decades, scholars have laboured to explain the causes of delinquency and deviance. Numerous theories have been advanced to this end. Some of the early thinkers began to seek explanation of delinquent behaviour in personality traits of the individual delinquent. Others sought it in group dynamics (Mushanga, 1985). The search for the answer to the cause of juvenile delinquency is a complex one, since, more often than not, you find that some youths misbehave, while others in the same environment do not. To address this issue, social scientists have organized observed facts about delinquent behaviour into complex theoretical models.

A theory is a statement that explains the relationship between social facts and concepts in a meaningful way (Siegel & Senna, 1988). It is also an answer to the question "why" (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985). Theories reflect the beliefs of people at a particular time, and are based on their real life experiences. As a society changes, so do the experiences of its members. New experiences produce new ideas, which generate new theories. Thus a theory only makes sense when it is examined in its social context (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). In this section four theories of delinquency were discussed. These are sociological, classical, positivists' and psychological theories, and how they relate to the area under study.

2.6.1 Sociological theories of delinquency

These theories suggest that crime, like other social behaviour, is a social product, a consequence of faulty cultural and social arrangements. The first group of theorists to articulate this view was members of the Chicago School of Sociology. These theorists blame delinquency on factors external to the individual. They see delinquency as a consequence of rapid social change, which weakens community and neighbourhood controls on children. Delinquency stems from a child's contact with, and socialisation into a set of values supportive of problem behaviour (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994).

These theorists also view delinquency to be related to the subculture of poverty. Slums are the homes for the urban poor who suffer from inadequate housing and healthcare, disrupted family lives, unemployment and despair. Besides these conditions, more than half of the families are fatherless, headed by a female who is the sole breadwinner. The problems of providing adequate care and discipline under these circumstances can be immense.

Lower class slum areas are also the scenes of the highest crime and victimization rates. The picture that emerges is that of destructive social forces operating within slum areas. These forces propel many youths into delinquency and later into adult criminal careers. Thus, according to this theory, a person's social-economic class determines how likely he or she will be to engage in conventional or deviant behaviour (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994).

Another branch within the social structure theory is the strain theory. This theory views crime and delinquency as a result of frustration and anger people experience over their inability to achieve legitimate social and financial success. In lower class areas strain occurs because legitimate avenues for success are all but closed to young people. They, therefore, use deviant methods to achieve their goals, or reject socially accepted goals and substitute others for them (Siegel & Senna, 1988).

Social control theory is another branch of sociological theories. This theory blames delinquency on sociological factors such as education, peers or the family. Delinquency is blamed on school failure. Students who perform poorly in schools do not develop a stake in conformity and have therefore no reason to behave. Poor performance results from lack of parental encouragement. Poor students are likely to see schools as an unpleasant experience. In turn they annoy teachers, disrupt classroom lessons, bully other students and play truant. Children who behave similarly are likely to group together. Because they

lack a stake to conformity, they are more likely to act on deviant impulses. Many times this will involve committing delinquency (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994).

According to Regoli and Hewitt, (1994), young people have no concept of right or wrong and break rules quite often. These writers think that delinquency is natural and parenting techniques are better at teaching these differences. What prevents delinquency and fosters conformity is internal, direct and indirect social control. Taken together these determine which outcome will be more likely, delinquency or conformity.

Another branch of sociological theories is labelling theory. This theory is not limited to crime and delinquency. Instead it is often applied to other forms of deviance such as mental disorders, alcoholism, drug abuse and suicide. One of the first expressions of labelling theory is "crime and community" (Lotz, Poole and Regoli, 1985, p. 208). The expression rejects the assumption that delinquents and non-delinquents are two fundamentally different kinds of people. Over the years, criminologists have imputed undesirable qualities to delinquents and criminals.

According to labelling theory, such accusations are untrue. Delinquent activities begin at random play, or adventure. Children certainly do not think of their play as delinquent behaviour. But despite its innocent beginnings, a playgroup may later turn into a delinquent gang because conflicts break out between the group and the community. These conflicts lead to name-calling by both sides. The adults call the youths' activity delinquency or evil. Calling a child a delinquent makes it more likely that he or she will accept the description and live up to it (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985).

2.6.2 Classical theory of delinquency

This theory is grounded in the idea of free will. People are assumed to be rational and intelligent beings who weigh the costs and benefits of their behaviour before they act. Thus, participating in crime is voluntary. People commit crime because they imagine greater gains coming from crime than from conformity. Offenders are therefore responsible for their actions and punishment is justified because offenders purposely harm others (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). In order to deter crime, therefore, the pain of punishment must outweigh the benefits of illegal gains. Classical theory can be summed up as follows:

- i. People have free will. This means that they can choose their course of life and make individual decisions about their behaviour.
- ii. Crimes are behaviours that have been outlawed by society because they violate operations of society, for example, tax evasion. People who commit delinquent or

criminal acts deprive others of their fair share of social benefits while taking unfair benefits for themselves.

- iii. Those who hold power in society have the obligation and duty to control criminal behaviour. They can achieve this goal by punishing delinquents and criminals, thereby exerting social control over those who would otherwise destroy the social fabric.
- iv. People violate the law because the gains they experience from criminal behaviour are greater than any they could achieve through conventional behaviour. For example, it is easier to steal a car than to earn the money to buy one. Similarly, it may be more emotionally satisfying to hurt an opponent physically than to seek a non-violent solution to a problem.
- v. Causing people to fear its consequences can control crime. Legal punishment administered through the criminal law is the best method of provoking fear and deterring potential criminals.
- vi. The more severe, certain and swift the punishment, the greater its deterrent effects will be (Levi, 2002).

In general, classical theory views delinquents as people who break the rules of society because of greed or lack of moral character. The deterrent effects of punishment can be to control their behaviour or incapacitate those who are not deterred by legal punishment (Levi, 2002).

2.6.3 Positivists' theories of delinquency

Positivist approach to criminology is less philosophical and more scientific. It relies on empirical methods to learn about the world (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985). Positivists believe that behaviour is caused by factors over which individuals have no control. Whatever these factors are, they precede criminal event, and are the causes of crime. The task of the criminologist is to discover what these causes are. Positivists reject the idea that people exercise free will and weigh the costs and benefits of their behaviour before they act. They believe that free will has virtually nothing to do with why someone commits crime (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994).

The first attempt by positivists to discover the root causes of crime and delinquency focused on the relationship between criminal tendencies and the physical make-up of offenders. Biological traits present at birth are believed to predetermine whether people would live a life of crime. This theory suggests that delinquents and criminals manifest

physical anomalies similar to our primitive ancestors-savage throwbacks to an earlier stage of human evolution (Siegel & Senna, 1988).

The medical model is another branch of the positivists' theory of delinquency. This theory suggests that when an individual displays symptoms of anti-social behaviour, the root cause will be found in a physical examination of the individual, be it a hormonal imbalance, a chemical deficiency or brain damage (Feldman, 1996). This model may help explain why drug addicts engage in anti-social behaviour. This is because abuse of some drugs may lead to brain damage, making a person engage in delinquent behaviours.

2.6.4 Psychological theories of delinquency

Psychological theories of delinquency view causes of delinquency as essentially a psychological phenomenon. After all, most behaviours labelled delinquent, for example violence, theft, and drug use seem to be symptomatic of some underlying psychological problems. According to Regoli and Hewitt (1994), many delinquent youths have poor home lives, destructive relationships with neighbours, friends, and teachers, and conflicts with personality structure.

One of the Psychological theories of delinquency is Albert Bandura's social learning theory (Gross, 1999). According to this theory, the development of self-control is heavily influenced by the models children observe. For most children, it is the parents and siblings who are the most important and frequently imitated models. Thus, if children observe violence, drug abuse, and sexual indulgence from these models, they are more likely to engage in the same behaviours. This theory is also referred to as modelling.

Cognitive model is another branch of psychological theories of delinquency. The model was developed as a reaction against behaviourism and medical models of delinquency. This approach assumes that cognitions (people's thoughts and beliefs) are central to a person's abnormal behaviour. A primary goal of treatment using cognitive model is to explicitly teach new, more adaptive ways of thinking (Feldman 1996).

Another psychological theory of delinquency is the behavioural theory. This theory contends that environment shapes behaviour. People learn the aspects of their environment they find pleasing, painful and threatening. Behaviour is blamed on forces outside the individual. In other words, people are like machines in that they react to external stimuli. Hence, one of the goals of behaviourism is to specify those environmental factors that make people behave in particular ways (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). Further, individuals learn by observing how people react to their behaviour. Behaviour is triggered initially by a

stimulus or change in the environment. If a particular behaviour is reinforced by some positive reaction, reward or event, that behaviour will be continued and eventually learned (Siegel & Senna, 1988).

Feldman (1996) concurs with the above idea of behaviourism. He reports that behavioural theorists see delinquency as responses to a set of stimuli, responses that have been learnt through past experiences and that are guided in the present by the stimuli one finds in one's environment. To explain why delinquency occurs, one must analyse how a delinquent behaviour has been learnt and observe the circumstances in which it is displayed. If behaviour is rewarded, or positively reinforced, it is most likely to be repeated in future.

Psychoanalytic model is another psychological theory of delinquency. The psychoanalytic theory of delinquency holds that abnormal behaviour stems from childhood conflicts over opposing wishes regarding sex and aggression. If these childhood conflicts are not dealt with successfully, they remain unresolved in the unconscious and eventually bring about delinquent behaviour in later years. To understand the roots of a person's anti-social behaviour, the psychoanalytic model scrutinises his or her early life history. The theory paints a picture of people as having little control over their behaviour since it is guided by unconscious impulses (Feldman, 1996)

2.7 Family Functions and Juvenile Delinquency

Without doubt the most single important influence in the socialisation of the child is the family. During pre-school years the child spends more time with the parents than anybody else. Thus the likes, dislikes, values and attitudes of the parents have a tremendous influence on the child's development and adjustment. Even in later childhood and adolescence, current parental demands and past child rearing practices exert considerable control on the developing individual behaviour (Meyer & Dusek, 1975). Parents therefore play a very important role in determining whether or not a child becomes a delinquent. There are various factors within the family that can be related to juvenile delinquency. Following is the literature review on selected family functions and how they relate to juvenile delinquency.

2.7.1 Marital stability and juvenile delinquency

First there is need to look at what happens when homes breakdown due to separation or divorce, and its effects on delinquency. Lotz, Poole and Regoli, (1985) compared families of divorced parents with families that had remained intact. Their findings show that after the first year of divorce, children in single parent families are more likely to be disturbed psychologically. But in the long run they cope more successfully than children who are in intact families where the parents do not get along well. There are three major effects of divorce on children. These are:

- i. Single parents, especially mothers face the problem of task overload. They have two full time jobs, working in the labour force and rearing children.
- ii. Single parents usually find themselves in financial strains. Female-headed households earn less than half the income of male-headed families.
- iii. Social isolation is common. The single parent has fewer people to provide social and emotional support. The children are available, but they often produce more frustration than joy. For example, boys in particular make mothers feel anxious, incompetent and depressed. This makes them to become less effective parents and thus prompting their sons to become even more difficult to manage (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985).

Closely related to separation and divorce is prolonged separation from parents, parental deprivation or absence of normal parent-child relationship. These factors are also related to anti-social behaviour. Snooks, (1980) observes that majority of children found in juvenile correctional facilities reported absence of at least one of the parents in the home. This has led many people to view broken homes as the cause of delinquency. This is in agreement with the findings of the MOEST Task force on student discipline and unrest (2001). The Task force attributes causes of students' indiscipline to absentee parents.

According to Doggett, (2004) the composition of families is one of the aspects of family life that is consistently associated with delinquency. Children who live in homes with only one parent, or in which marital relationships have been disrupted by divorce or separation, are more likely to display a range of behaviour problems, including delinquency, than children who are in two-parent families. Thus, there is a very real connection between delinquency and single-parent families. Single-parent families, and in particular, mother-only families, produce more delinquent children than two-parent families. The absence of intact families makes gang membership more appealing to the children

2.7.2 Family social-economic class and juvenile delinquency

According to Lotz, Poole and Regoli, (1985), family social-economic class is the single aspect of families that delinquency specialists have studied most. For many years, delinquency and crime were assumed to be heavily concentrated in the lower class. Indeed, people used to call this class the “dangerous class” or the “criminal class” (Lotz, Poole and Regoli, 1985, p 72). A majority of the Kenyan population belong to the low class. As reported in Kenya’s Children’s Parliament (2004 pg 3), over 60.00% of the Kenyan population live below the poverty level, surviving with less than one dollar per day. The situation has been made worse by the HIV-AIDS pandemic, which has robbed many families of their means of livelihood. According to this report, poverty is the main cause of child labour, as practiced by street children.

There are many global forces that have threatened the economic welfare of most of the Kenyan families, and in particular, the children in them. Key among these are economic recession beginning in the 1970, external debt, declining terms of trade and Structural Adjustment Programs [SAPs] (Family Support Institute, 1998). Parents who belong to very low social-economic status end up in slums. This is because they cannot afford decent housing for their families. According to the Consortium for Street Children (2002), 37.00% of Africa’s population lives in urban areas. This has led to a high slum growth rate, estimated at 8.00%. This figure is more than double the population growth rate in most African countries (Consortium for Street Children, 2002 pg 10).

Slums house the urban poor. These areas suffer from inadequate housing and healthcare, disrupted family lives, unemployment and despair. The problems of providing adequate care and discipline under these circumstances can be immense. Lower-class slum areas are also the scenes of the highest crime and victimization rates. The picture that emerges therefore is one of destructive social forces operating within a slum area, which propel many youth into delinquency and later into adult criminal careers. Thus, the view here is that a person’s social-economic class determines how likely he or she will be to engage in conventional or deviant behaviour (Siegel & Senna, 1988). Children from very poor families are given little or no pocket money for their basic needs in schools. Thus they are often tempted to steal from others. This contributes to students’ unrest in schools (MOEST Report of the Task-force on students’ discipline and unrest in secondary schools in Kenya, 2001).

Helms and Turner (1981) have similarly observed that there are higher rates of delinquency among lower class youths. These writers site the following reasons for this situation:

- i. A discrepancy frequently exists between the disadvantaged youths' social and economic aspirations and the opportunities that exist to achieve these aspirations legitimately.
- ii. The emphasis on upward mobility frequently produces discontent and dissatisfaction with one's present position.

2.7.3 Family size and juvenile delinquency

According to Thornton and Voigt, (1992) another aspect within the family functions related to juvenile delinquency is family size. Smaller families can more effectively control and fulfill the emotional needs of their children. This supports the hypothesis that more delinquency is found in large families than in smaller ones. However, questions have been raised about the effects of large families on delinquency, because large families are more often found in the lower social economic strata (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). The child from a large poor family may be delinquent, not because the size of the family is large, but because poor children are more often adjudicated delinquents. Yet, self-report findings usually indicate that children from large families are more likely to commit delinquent acts than children from small families (Thornton & Voigt, 1992).

2.7.4 Marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency

The realisation that family factors other than the structurally broken home might be important in explaining delinquency is not a recent one. Many sociologists have cautioned that the concept of a broken home grossly oversimplifies the myriad conditions possibly affecting a child's behaviour. According to Thornton and Voigt (1992), the evidence mounting from a number of studies suggests that psychologically broken homes, (that is, homes in which there is a great deal of conflict and tension), are especially likely to produce delinquent behaviour. Even in broken homes, the circumstances surrounding the break may be more important than the break itself. Quarrelling in the home is reported to be more significantly related to delinquency than the absence of a parent. Children from violent homes display behavioural and emotional disorders. Their socialisation into accepting and committing violence start at home when they witness their father beating

their mother, and sometimes abusing them as well (Turshen & Holcomb, 1993). Children also run away from violent and stressing conditions.

To a large degree, tension in any particular family depends on the parent's marital adjustment - that is, how well the parents get along. If parents are constantly quarrelling, they may not provide effective supervision or socialisation of their children. A mother and father can be too concerned with each other's shortcomings and misdeeds to notice their children's misconduct. Children too do not like it when they hear their parents call each other names. This tends to confirm the notion that unhappy homes are more apt to produce delinquent children than happy homes (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Conflicts in the home may take many forms. Parents may fight with each other because they are unhappy with their relationship. Parents may argue over their children. Conflicts among children may also contribute to hostilities (Thornton & Voigt, 1992).

Violence in the home can include physical, emotional and sexual abuse of children. Even when domestic violence does not result in direct physical injury to the child, it can interfere with the mother's and father's parenting abilities to such a degree that the children may be neglected or abused. A perpetrator cannot provide good parenting when he or she physically attacks the child's mother or father. The physical demands can overwhelm the mother, or father, who is injured or has been kept up all night by beatings. The emotional demands of parenting can similarly be daunting to an abused man or woman suffering from trauma, damaged self-confidence, and other scars caused by years of abuse (Kenya Alliance for Advancement of Children, [KAACR], 2003)

Doggett, (2004) reports that various exposures to violence are important sources of early adolescent role exits, which means that not only can a juvenile witness violence in the family, but on the outside as well. Accordingly, if violence encompasses all emotional and environmental aspects of the juvenile's life, he or she is more likely to engage in delinquent activities. Thus, parental conflict and parental aggressiveness predict violent offending. Children are more likely to resort to violence if there is violence within the relationships that they share with their families. This is because aggressive behaviour is learned. As parents display aggressive behaviour, children learn to imitate it as acceptable means of achieving goals (Doggett 2004)

2.7.5 Parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency

The single best predictor of adolescent delinquency is the relationship to the parents. The better the relationship, the less likely the children to commit a crime. The more

strained, hostile and rejecting the relationship, the more likely he or she will become delinquent. This conclusion is based on considerable research on patterns of child rearing and family relations in the homes with delinquent and non-delinquent adolescents. Meyer and Dusek, (1979) report that the discipline techniques used by parents of future delinquents are erratic, overly strict, and based on physical punishment.

Punishment is relevant to instrumental learning. In punishment, a response is followed by an aversive stimulus which tends to suppress the response on subsequent occasions (Gleitman, 1992). The usual outcome of the procedure is that the specified response becomes suppressed. However, punishment does not always suppress behaviour. In certain situations, people seem to seek out punishment. Punishment seeking can result from a situation in which positive reinforcement is available only when the instrumental response is also punished (Domjan, 1993). In most cases, use of corporal punishment and other forms of punishment that inflict physical or emotional harm as a way of instilling discipline in children reduce their confidence and dignity (Forum for Actors in Street Children Work, 2001).

Delinquent children report high degree of hostility from their parents. There is no use of induction. At the same time, delinquents often come from homes with a high degree of parental rejection and a low degree of family cohesiveness compared with the home atmosphere of non- delinquents (Meyer & Dusek, 1979).

According to these writers, early research on child rearing and its importance for personality development received most of its impetus from Freud, who emphasized the importance of parental discipline on the development of stable, long-term personality traits. Early research on parent-child relationship aimed to discover the psychological dimension of child-rearing practices. Grouping parents along these dimensions and then studying the behaviour of their children made it possible to relate child-rearing practices to children's behaviour. Another possible strategy is to study the child rearing practices of parents of children who share some common characteristics, for example, aggressiveness, or emotional disturbance. The purpose of these studies was to determine which patterns of child rearing would be predictive of childhood difficulties (Meyer & Dusek, 1979). The relationship between parent and child aggression is due to three factors:

- i. Parental use of physical punishment may be frustrating to the child. In turn, this may produce anger, which is expressed through aggressive behaviour.
- ii. Parents who use physical punishment in attempting to control their children's behaviour are models for the use of aggression.

- iii. Punitive, hostile parents may directly reinforce aggressive behaviour in their children (Meyer & Dusek, 1979).

2.7.6 Children's gender and juvenile delinquency

Another important aspect within the family related to juvenile delinquency is the child's gender and how their parents handle them. According to Meyer and Dusek (1979) the single best predictor of adolescent delinquency for boys, in particular, is the relationship with the parents. The better the relationship, the less likely the boy to commit crime. The more strained, hostile and rejecting the relationship, the more likely the boy will become delinquent.

It is important to consider differences in patterns of youth delinquency and problem behaviour between boys and girls so as to establish whether there is need for a different theory to explain delinquency between boys and girls. Social control explains part of the gap between boys and girls, simply because social controls for girls tend to be stronger and tighter (Junger-Tas, Ribeaud & Cruyff, 2004).

Gross (1999), explains the differences in delinquency levels between boys and girls. He reports that in the Western culture, aggressive male models are more likely to be imitated, by male children, than aggressive female models. One possible reason for this has to do with sex roles. It is more acceptable in the Western culture for men to be aggressive as compared with women. By the age of three or four years, children are learning the stereotypes that relate to sex role differences.

Boys and girls also react differently to disruptions within the family structure, such as parental divorce, separation or death of a parent. The differences in reactions lead to differences in their involvement in delinquency. After divorce, for example, boys make mothers feel anxious, incompetent and depressed. This makes mothers less effective parents, thus prompting their sons to become even more difficult to manage. This results in increased delinquency in boys (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985).

Parental monitoring is equally important, particularly for boys. According to Doggett, (2004), lack of parental monitoring contributes not only directly to boys' anti-social behaviour, but also indirectly, as seen in the contribution in their increased opportunity to associate with deviant peers which is predictive of higher levels of delinquent activities.

2.8 Theoretical Framework

The study was grounded in the sociological and psychological theories of delinquency. These theories lay more emphasis on social and psychological conditions which contribute to the occurrence of anti-social behaviour in young men and women. An example of psychological approach is the social learning theory, proposed by Albert Bandura (Gross, 1999). According to this theory, the development of self-control is heavily influenced by the models children observe. For most children, it is the parents and siblings who are the most important and frequently imitated models. Thus, if children observe violence from these models, they are more likely to engage in the same violent behaviour. Sociological and psychological theories further explain the effects of economic strain. Accordingly, serious economic stress leads to breakdown of power in the family whereby cultural norms have no inhibition on the needs and desires of the individuals. Economic pressure can be as a result of broken homes or large family size. This stress further leads to domestic violence and excessive use of physical punishment on children. The independent variables of the study, which are selected family functions, fall under psychological and sociological theories of delinquency. These variables, that explain the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency, are conceptualized in figure 1.

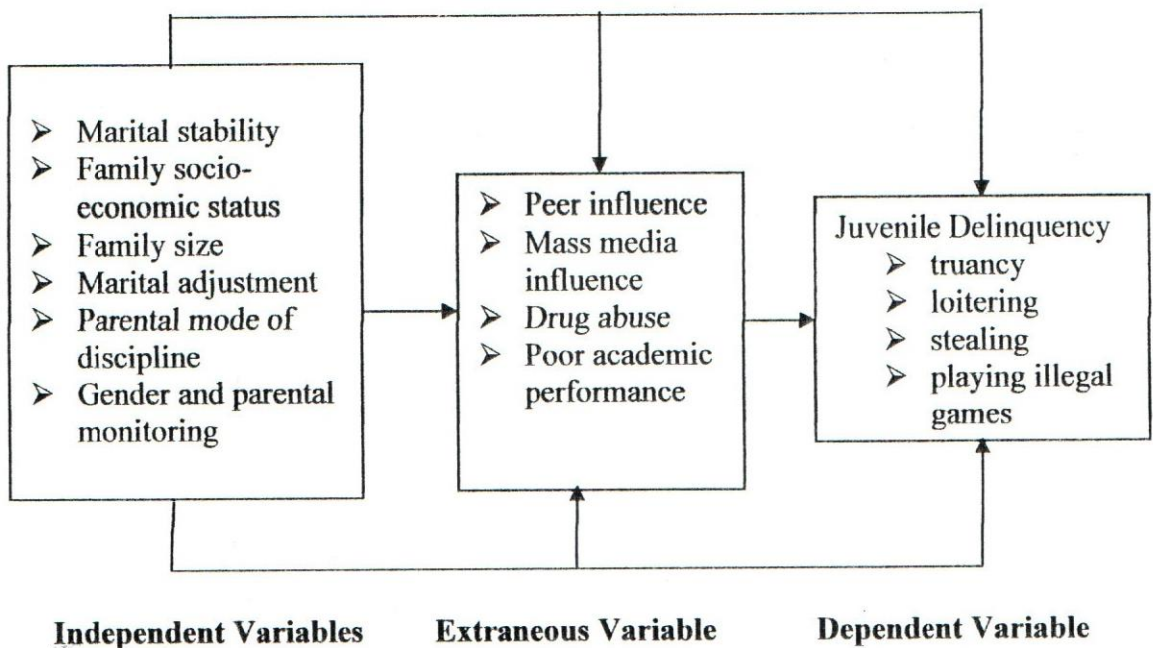


Figure 1: The relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a framework of the methodology that was used in the study. The section presents the research design, location and population of study. The chapter has also discussed the sampling procedure used and the selected sample size, as well as the instruments used, data collection procedures and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The study employed a descriptive survey, which adopted an ex-post facto design. This is because no treatment was given to the respondents during the study. This design was selected because it appropriately allowed the investigation of the relationships between variables, that is, selected family functions as the independent variables, and juvenile delinquency as the dependent variable.

3.3 Location

The study was conducted in Nakuru Municipality, Rift Valley Province, Kenya. This location was chosen because it is urban and cosmopolitan, thus representative of almost the whole of the population of the country in terms of social, economic and cultural backgrounds found in Kenya. It is also the Provincial Headquarters, of the province. There are people of high, medium and low social-economic status. People from almost all ethnic groups and religious backgrounds are also found in the town.

3.4 Population of the Study

The study targeted juvenile delinquents, former street children in Nakuru town, who were undergoing rehabilitation in children's homes in the municipality. According to the District Children's Officer, there were four homes, namely, Scann, Mwangaza, St. Francis and Golden Bridge, which were rehabilitating former street children from the municipality. Golden Bridge Rehabilitation Centre was operational during sample selection, but during data collection it had been closed down. Thus, children from the other three homes comprised the population. Six parents and the three managers of the centres were included in the sample. The breakdown of the population of the study is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Population of study.

Institution	Boys	Girls	Total
Scann	130	-	130
Mwangaza	45	17	62
St. Francis	36	13	49
Total	211	30	241

Source: District Children Officer's Office, Nakuru Municipality (2003)

3.5 Sampling Procedure and Sample Size

To obtain a representative sample, stratified random sampling was used for the boys. All the girls were included since they were few. The researcher requested for, and got the list of boys in each of the homes from the respective manager. The total sample of children comprised 61.41% of the population in the rehabilitation centres. This percentage was used so as to arrive at a sample that was proportional to the number of children in each of the homes. Thus, 61.41% of 130 boys at SCANN was calculated and found to be 79.83. This was rounded up to 80 boys. The same procedure was followed at Mwangaza and St. Francis rehabilitation homes. Thus, a total sample of 148 children was selected and used in the study. A table of random numbers was used along with the lists of the boys so as to arrive at a random sample. All the managers were included. Six parents were purposively selected to include the first available two from each home. Three managers of the rehabilitation centres and six parents were included. The parents were purposively selected to include the first available six. Table 4 displays the composition of the study sample.

Table 4: Sample size

Institution	Boys	Girls	Total	Sample Size		Total Sample
				Boys	Girls	
SCANN	130	-	130	80	-	80
Mwangaza	45	17	62	21	17	38
St. Francis	36	13	49	17	13	30
Total	211	30	241	118	30	148

The table prepared by Kathuri and Pals, for determining required sample size was used and is attached in appendix E (Kathuri and Pals, 1993 p.54).

3.6 Instrumentation

Three instruments were used. The first instrument was an interview schedule for the juveniles (Appendix A). The second instrument was a self-administered questionnaire for the managers (Appendix B). Another interview schedule was for the parents (Appendix C). Interview schedules were preferred for children and the parents as most of them were of low level of education. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) recommend the use of interviews for subjects of low educational status. The questionnaires were used to obtain identifying information about the children. Data about the children's families' background, size, economic status, parents' marital status and mode of discipline used by the parents were also sought. The juveniles and the parents were also required to list what they considered to be the causes of juvenile delinquency.

The managers were required to provide general information about the average background of the children. This information included marital stability of the children's biological homes, the children's families' average social-economic status, the average size of families the children came from and whether the children had reported presence of any domestic violence in their homes. The managers were also asked to respond to the question as to the mode of discipline reported by the children to be commonly used in their homes by their parents or guardians. Finally, information about the children's

engagement in delinquent acts and the reasons why they engaged in these acts was sought from the managers.

The instruments were reviewed by the study's supervisors and other research experts so as to establish their validity. The reliability of the main instrument, that is, the children's interview schedule, was established through a pilot study, which was carried out in Nakuru Juvenile Remand Home. The instrument was pre-tested using 18 children. Its reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha reliability procedure and was found to be reliable at 0.74. According to Selltitz, Wrightsman, and Cook (1996), reliability above 0.70 is acceptable for such a study.

3.7 Data Collection

The research proposal was examined and approved by the Board of Post-Graduate examiners. After the proposal approval, the Director of Graduate School (Egerton University) wrote to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology requesting for the issue of a research permit. This application is attached as Appendix E. In response to the request, the Ministry issued the permit (Appendix F) that in effect legalised the study. Based on the research permit, the District Children's Officer, Nakuru Municipality, authorised data collection in the children's homes (Appendix G). The District Commissioner endorsed a copy of the research permit to authorise the study. Data were collected by travelling to the three children's homes and administering the interview schedules to the children and the parents. This was done by reading out the items and writing down the responses. The parents were requested in advance to come to the homes. The managers were given the questionnaires to respond to the items on their own, after which the instruments were collected.

3.8 Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 9.0 was used in the analysis. The data were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequencies and percentages were used to describe and summarise the raw data from the children, parents and managers. Means and standard deviations were used to determine the level of delinquent acts. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test hypotheses one to five, while independent samples t-test was used to test hypothesis six. Tests of significance were set at 0.01 and 0.05 alpha level. Table 5 has a summary of

the hypotheses, independent and dependent variables and the statistical procedures used in testing the hypotheses.

Table 5: Independent and dependent variables of the study:

Hypothesis	independent variable	dependent variable	statistics
Ho 1: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency	marital stability	level of juvenile delinquency	Pearson's-product moment correlation
Ho 2: There is no statistically significant relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency	family social-economic status	level of juvenile delinquency	Pearson's-product moment correlation
Ho 3: There is no statistically significant relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency	family size	level of juvenile delinquency	Pearson's-product moment correlation
Ho 4: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency	marital adjustment	level of juvenile delinquency	Pearson's-product moment correlation
Ho 5: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency	parental mode of discipline	level of juvenile delinquency	Pearson's-product moment correlation
Ho 6: There is no statistically significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls.	gender i. boys ii. girls	delinquency levels	Means and independent samples t-test

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results and discussions on the relationship between selected family functions and juvenile delinquency. It is based on data collected from street children, their parents and the managers of the street children rehabilitation centres in Nakuru Municipality.

The data obtained from the respondents was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 9.0. Descriptive statistics, that is means, frequencies and percentages, were used to describe and summarise the raw data, while Pearson's product moment correlation of coefficient and independent samples t-test were used to test hypotheses. The following six hypotheses were tested:

HO₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency.

HO₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency.

HO₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency.

HO₄: There is no statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency.

HO₅: There is no statistically significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency.

HO₆: There is no statistically significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Delinquent Children

Section one of the children's interview schedule sought information on the children's gender, age, and level of education. This information was important as it assisted in qualifying the definition of Juvenile delinquents. According to Thornton and Voigt, (1992), a juvenile delinquent is a child between seven and seventeen years old who commits a criminal act, or status offence.

4.2.1 Delinquent children's age

The first question in the children's interview schedule sought information on the children's age. Juvenile delinquents are classified as children between the ages seven (7) and seventeen (17) years old. From the information gathered, almost all the children interviewed fell in this age bracket. This is because only 1.40% of the children were reported to be over 17 years. But since they were in school, they were classified within juveniles. Table 6 has a summary of information on the ages of the children.

Table 6: Delinquent children's age

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
7-10	33	22.30
11-14	79	53.40
15-17	34	23.00
17+	2	1.40
Total	148	100.00

4.2.2: Delinquent children's level of education

The study further sought information on the highest level of education which the children had attained. The information gathered showed that 88.50% of the children had not gone beyond standard six in their education. This confirms what is in the literature review that juvenile delinquents are of low levels of education. According to Mushanga (1985), juvenile delinquents show little interest in reading or further education. Further literature has shown that street children are unable to cope with the discipline of formal education system (Consortium for Street Children, 2002). This information is summarised in table 7.

Table 7 Delinquent children's level of education.

Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
Pry. 1-4	96	64.20
Pry. 5-6	35	23.60
Pry. 7-8	07	4.70
Secondary. 1-4	10	6.80
Total	148	100.00

4.3 Marital Stability and Juvenile Delinquency

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency. From the information gathered, 68.20% of the children came from either single or no parent families. Only 31.80% came from two-parent families. Another important observation was that even among the children who had both parents, not all had lived with both parents. This further confirmed what was reported in the literature review, that majority of children in correctional facilities reported absence of one or both parents (Snooks, 1980). Table 8 gives a summary of parents' marital status as reported by the children.

Table 8 Delinquent children's parents' marital status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Orphan	28	18.90
Single	73	49.30
Married	47	31.80
Total	148	100.00

To supplement the data collected from the children on their parents' marital status, managers were asked to respond to a question on marital stability of the children's families. The managers' information agreed with the children's data on marital status of the homes the children came from. A high percentage of the managers, that is, 66.60%, reported that the children came from either always or mostly broken homes. Only 33.30% of the managers reported that the children's homes were rarely broken. Table 9 has a summary of the managers' responses on marital stability of the children's families.

Table 9: Delinquent children's home background

Home stability	Frequency	Percent
Always broken	1	33.30
Mostly broken	1	33.30
Rarely broken	1	33.30
Total	3	100.00

The null hypothesis corresponding to this objective stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson's product moment correlation of coefficient test was run. The correlation was found to be $-.16$. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected, since, based on these results, it was evident that there is a significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency ($r = -.16$; $P < 0.05$). These results showed that juvenile delinquency increased as marital stability decreased. Thus, there was more delinquency among children from unstable families than among those from stable families. These findings were found to be in agreement with the literature that was reviewed in this area. According to Lotz, Poole and Regoli, (1985), many single parents, especially mothers, face the problem of task overload. They also find themselves in financial strains. Another problem is social isolation, which is common. Many single parents have fewer people to provide social and emotional support. This makes them less effective parents, thus prompting their children to become more difficult to manage (Lotz, Poole & Regoli, 1985). Table 10 shows the results of the correlation.

Table 10: Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation between marital stability and juvenile delinquency

Coefficient of correlation (r)	-0.16*
Sig. (2-tailed)	.05
N	148

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level**

4.4 Family Social-Economic Status and Juvenile Delinquency

The second objective of the study was to determine the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. Family social-economic status was said to be the single aspect of families that delinquency specialists had studied most. Family social-economic status was measured in terms of parents' level of education, employment, type and size of house that the family lived in. From the summarised information on parents' level of education, only 0.70 % of the fathers and 2.00% of the mothers had attained post-secondary education. The information further showed that 22.30% of fathers and 18.90% mothers had obtained secondary education. The rest, 77.00% of the fathers and 79.10% of the mothers, had either primary or no education at all. Education level is one of the factors that account for one's social-economic status (Githua, 2002). These results therefore confirmed previous studies carried out in this area which showed that poverty in parents leads to increased juvenile delinquency among the offsprings. According to Siegel and Senna (1988), a person's social-economic class determines how likely he or she will be to engage in conventional or deviant behaviour. Tables 11 and 12 have summaries on the parents' level of education.

Table 11: Delinquent children's fathers' level of education

Father's Level of education	Frequency	Percent
None	88	59.50
Primary	26	17.60
Secondary	33	22.30
Post-secondary	1	0.70
Total	148	100.00

Table 12: Delinquent children's mothers' level of education

Mother's Level of Education	Frequency	Percent
None	74	50.00
Primary	43	29.10
Secondary	28	18.90
Post-secondary	3	2.00
Total	148	100.00

Family social economic status was also measured in terms of type and size of house the family lived in. The children's responses on the type and size of the house showed that most of the children came from very poor backgrounds. Only 20.30% of the children came from families living in permanent houses, while the rest lived in semi-permanent, temporary shelters or shanties. There were high chances that even those who lived in permanent houses were rented single rooms. Another important observation was that, 63.50% of the children lived in zero-bed- roomed houses, that is, single rooms. This situation perpetuates delinquency in that it offers privacy for neither children nor parents. Tables 13 and 14 summarise the information from the children on the type and size of house occupied by their families.

Table 13: Type of house occupied by the delinquent children's families

House type	Frequency	Percent
Shanty	11	7.40
Temporary	45	30.40
Semi-permanent	62	41.90
Permanent	30	20.30
Total	148	100.00

Table 14: Number of bedrooms in the delinquent children's families' houses

Bedrooms	Frequency	Percent
None	94	63.50
1-2	46	31.10
Three+	8	5.40
Total	148	100.00

The study further investigated the employment or occupation the parents to the children were engaged in. The responses from the children showed that most of their parents were not employed, were casuals or self-employed. Siegel and Senna, (1988) report that unemployed poor parents suffer from inadequate housing and healthcare, disrupted family lives and despair. The problems of providing adequate care and discipline under these circumstances can be immense, thus their children end up in delinquency.

Qualitative data were collected from the parents, managers and the children themselves on the reasons as to why the children engaged in delinquent activities. They all mentioned poverty as one of the major reasons. These findings confirmed the findings in a number of studies which concluded that social economic status plays a big role in enhancing juvenile delinquency. Lotz, Poole and Regoli (1985) reported that delinquency

and crime are heavily concentrated in the lower class. Tables 15 and 16 present summaries on the parents' employment status.

Table 15: Delinquent children's fathers' occupation

Father's occupation	Frequency	Percent
None	73	49.30
Casual/self	67	45.30
Formal	8	5.40
Total	148	100.00

Table 16: Delinquent children's mothers' occupation

Mother's occupation	Frequency	Percent
None	82	55.40
Casual/self	58	39.20
Formal	8	5.40
Total	148	100.00

To strengthen the children's information on their families' social-economic status, data were collected from the managers. Just like the children, the information from the managers showed that the children came from either poor or very poor families. As a result the children ran away from their homes, into the streets, which provided very conducive environment for them to involve in delinquent activities. Table 26 summarises the managers' responses.

Table 17: Delinquent children's families' social-economic status

Families' economic status	Frequency	Percent
Very poor	2	66.70
Poor	1	33.30
Total	3	100.00

Further information on families' social-economic status was collected from the parents to compliment the information from the children and the managers. From the information obtained, it was evident that the parents agreed with both the managers and the children as far as their economic status was concerned. This is because 83.40% of the parents reported that their families were either very poor or poor. Poor families cannot provide for the social, economic, material and psychological needs of their family members. This leads children into delinquency as a way of survival. This was in agreement with available literature in this area. Helms and Turner (1981) observed that there are higher rates of delinquency among lower class youths. According to these writers, this is because a discrepancy frequently exists between the disadvantaged youths' social and economic aspirations and the opportunities that exist to achieve these aspirations legitimately. Secondly, the emphasis on upward mobility frequently produces discontent and dissatisfaction with one's present position. Table 18 has a summary of the parents' responses on their families' economic status.

Table 18: Economic status of the delinquent children's families'

Families' social economic status	Frequency	Percent
Very poor	1	16.70
Poor	4	66.70
Medium	1	16.70
Total	6	100.00

More information was sought from the parents themselves on their monthly income and that of their spouses. This information was important as it further strengthened information on families' social-economic status. From the parents who were interviewed, 16.70% had no income at all while 66.70% had an income of below Ksh. 5000 per month. Only 16.7% of the parents were earning between Ksh. 5000 and 10,000. Considering the cost of living today, such income is low. Going by international standards such families can only be said to be living under very poor conditions. Worse still, 50.00% of the parents' spouses had no income, while the other 50.00% had an income of below Ksh 5000. Tables 19 and 20 contain a summary of information on parents and their spouses' monthly income.

Table 19: Delinquent children's parents' monthly income

Monthly income	Frequency	Percent
None	1	16.70
Below 5000	4	66.70
5000-10,000	1	16.70
Total	6	100.00

Table 20: Delinquent children's parents' spouses' monthly income

Monthly income	Frequency	Percent
None	3	50.00
Below 5000	3	50.00
Total	6	100.00

The null hypothesis corresponding to this objective stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson's- product moment correlation test was run. The results showed a very weak negative correlation between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency ($r = -0.04$), thus there was no enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The results showed that, as family social-economic status decreases, juvenile delinquency increases, but the correlation is very weak. Although the study does not indicate an existence of enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis, the descriptive statistics show that a family's social economic class creates an environment conducive for the children to engage in delinquent activities. This is because a very big percentage of the children came from very poor families. It is possible that the children were rescued and placed under the rehabilitation centres before they had engaged in a lot of delinquent activities. If children are provided with their material and other needs, there are fewer chances that they will engage in delinquent activities compared to children from very poor families. The results of the Pearson's product-moment correlation are presented in Table 21.

Table 21: Pearson's correlation of coefficient between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency

Coefficient of correlation (r)	-0.04
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.60
N	148

The correlation is not significant

4.5 Family Size and Juvenile Delinquency

One of the purposes of the study was to determine the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency. Family size was measured in terms of people staying at home, number of brothers, sisters, stepbrothers and stepsisters.

The results obtained from the children's responses showed that 74.40 % of the children came from families of eight and more members. Only 25.60% came from families of less than seven. This was in agreement with what studies in this area had found out, that more delinquency is found in large families than in smaller ones. This is because smaller families can more effectively control and fulfill the emotional needs of their children. The evidence from research on family size supports the hypothesis that more delinquency is found in large families than in smaller ones (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Table 22 has the information on number of people staying at the delinquent children's homes.

Table 22: Number of people staying in the delinquent children's homes

Number of people	Frequency	Percent
1-3	3	2.00
4-7	35	23.60
8-11	80	54.10
12 plus	30	20.30
Total	148	100.0

Further information was sought from the parents so as to supplement the information from the children on the size of families the children came from. The results obtained showed that 50.00% of the parents had seven (7) children and above, while the other half of the parents reported having between six and four children. These were fairly large family sizes. As already noted, more delinquency is found in large families than in smaller ones (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Table 23 gives a summary of information from the parents on the number of children they have.

Table 23: Number of children at the delinquent children's homes

Number of children	Frequency	Percent
10+	1	16.70
7-9	2	33.30
6-4	3	50.00
Total	6	100.00

To test the hypothesis on the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency, a Pearson's-product moment correlation test was run. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency ($r = -.22$; $P < 0.01$). However, these results do not agree with the existing literature, that, more delinquency is found in large families than in small ones. But there are some studies that have explained the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency. One of the explanations is that the child from a large poor family may be delinquent, not because the size of the family is large, but because children from poor families are more often adjudicated delinquents (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). Thus, it is not the family size per se that leads to juvenile delinquency, but factors within the family, such as provision of effective control and fulfillment of emotional needs of the children. These may equally be lacking in small (even one-child) single parent families. A single, very poor mother may have very little time to effectively control or offer emotional support to her child, leading him or her to delinquent behaviour. However, it is important to note that almost all the interviewed children came from fairly large families. Table 24 shows a summary of the results obtained.

Table 24: Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation between family size and juvenile delinquency

Coefficient of correlation (r)	-0.22**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01
N	148

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level**

4.6 Marital Adjustment and Juvenile Delinquency

The fourth objective of the study was to establish whether there is a significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. Marital adjustment refers to absence of violence and psychological torture among family members. Studies suggest that psychologically broken homes, that is, homes where there is a great deal of violence, conflict and tension are more likely to produce delinquent behaviour in children (Thornton & Voigt, 1992). The information gathered from the children showed that 38.50% experienced violence between their parents or guardians. Table 25 has a summary of the findings on the children's experience of violence between their parents or guardians.

Table 25: Violence between parents or guardians of the delinquent children

Violence	Frequency	Percent
No	91	61.50
Yes	57	38.50
Total	148	100.00

Further information was sought from the children on whether they had experienced any violence between their parents or guardians and the children themselves, or their

siblings. From the results obtained, 35.80 % of the children reported violence between their parents or guardians and siblings, while 64.20% reported absence of this kind of violence. Table 26 has the summary of the results.

Table 26: Violence between parents or guardians and siblings of the delinquent children

Violence	Frequency	Percent
No	95	64.20
Yes	53	35.80
Total	148	100.00

To come up with a conclusion on this objective, more information was collected from the managers on how often the children reported presence of violence in their homes. This was aimed at supplementing the information collected from the children on their experience of violence in their homes. From the results obtained, 66.60% of the managers reported that the children had experienced domestic violence in their homes either always or often. Only 33.30% of the managers reported that the children had rarely experienced violence. Table 27 has the managers' responses on the children's experience of domestic violence in their homes.

Table 27: Delinquent children's experience of domestic violence

Domestic violence	Frequency	Percent
Always	1	33.30
Often	1	33.30
Rarely	1	33.30
Total	3	100.00

To supplement the information collected from the managers and the children on the children's experience of domestic violence, parents were asked to respond to the question as to whether they had ever experienced domestic violence in their homes. From the information collected from the parents, 50.00% reported that they had experienced domestic violence. These findings are in agreement with what was found in the literature review. According to Thornton and Voigt (1992), psychologically broken homes, that is, homes in which there is a great deal of conflict and tension are more likely to produce delinquent behaviour. Even in broken homes, the circumstances surrounding the break may be more important than the break itself. Quarrelling in the home is reported to be more significantly related to delinquency than the absence of a parent. Table 28 has the parents' responses.

Table 28: Delinquent children's parents' experience of domestic violence.

Domestic violence	Frequency	Percent
No	3	50.00
Yes	3	50.00
Total	6	100.00

The null hypothesis corresponding to this objective stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. Marital adjustment was measured in terms of experience of domestic violence among family members. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson's product-moment correlation was run. Based on the results obtained, it is evident that there is a significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency ($r = .23$; $P < 0.01$). Presence of domestic violence leads to juvenile delinquency. This confirms what was found out in the literature review. According to Thornton and Voigt (1992), children from violent homes display behavioural and emotional disorders. Their socialisation into accepting and committing violence starts at home when they witness their father beating their mother, or their mother beating their father, and sometimes their parents abusing them as well (Turshen & Holcomb, 1993). Table 29 has the results of the correlation between juvenile delinquency and marital adjustment.

Table 29: Pearson's product-moment coefficient of correlation between juvenile delinquency and marital adjustment

Coefficient of correlation (r)	0.23**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.01
N	148

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level**

4.7 Parental Mode of Discipline and Juvenile Delinquency

Another objective of the study was to establish the relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. The children were asked to give the mode of discipline commonly used in their homes. A high percentage of the children, 80.40%, said their parents or guardians mostly used physical punishment to correct them whenever they went wrong. Only 19.60% reported induction as the most commonly used mode of discipline in their homes.

These findings are in agreement with existing literature on the relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. According to Meyer and Dusek (1979) the discipline techniques used by parents of delinquents are erratic, overly strict, based on physical punishment with a high degree of hostility toward the child and no use of induction. Use of physical punishment frustrates a child and may produce anger, which is expressed through aggressive behaviour. At the same time parents who use physical punishment are models for the use of aggression. The responses from the children on the mode of discipline commonly used in their homes is summarised in Table 30.

Table 30: Mode of discipline commonly used by the parents or guardians of the delinquent children in Nakuru Municipality

Mode of discipline	Frequency	Percent
Physical	119	80.40
Induction	29	19.60
Total	148	100.00

The study further sought information from the parents on the mode of discipline they commonly used on their children. From the information obtained, 66.70% of the parents reported that they mostly used physical punishment on their children, while 33.60% said they used induction. This is in agreement with the information collected from the children, and the literature on previous studies carried out in this area. Meyer and Dusek (1979) report that parents who use physical punishment end up having more aggressive children. It is therefore expected that more hostile parents will rear more aggressive children, thus leading to increased juvenile delinquency. This information is summarised in Table 31.

Table 31: Delinquent children's parents' mode of discipline on children

Mode of Discipline	Frequency	Percent
Physical	4	66.70
Induction	2	33.30
Total	6	100.00

Information on the mode of discipline used in the children's biological homes was further collected from the managers so as to supplement data from the children and the parents. From the information gathered, 66.70% of the managers reported that the children experienced physical punishment, while 33.30% indicated that the children experienced induction as the form of punishment mostly used in their homes. This information is in

agreement with information from the children as well as the parents. Besides the children becoming aggressive, they also run away from hostile homes, into the streets from where they engage in all manner of delinquent activities. The managers' responses on the mode of discipline used by the children's parents is summarised in Table 32.

Table 32: Mode of parental discipline on the delinquent children by their parents

Mode of Discipline	Frequency	Percent
Induction	1	33.30
Physical	2	66.70
Total	3	100.00

The null hypothesis corresponding to this objective stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. To test this hypothesis, a Pearson's- product-moment correlation test was run. Based on the results obtained from this test, it is evident that there is a significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency ($r = .38$; $P < 0.01$). This confirms what is in the literature, that too much use of physical punishment encourages violence, and thus, delinquency among children. According to Meyer and Dusek (1979), juvenile delinquents often come from homes with a high degree of parental rejection characterised by use of physical punishment. These children not only model aggression, but they also run away from hostile homes. The results of the Pearson's product-moment correlation are presented in Table 33.

Table 33: Pearson's product moment coefficient of correlation between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency

Coefficient of correlation (r)	.38**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.00
N	148

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.**

4.8 Level of Delinquent Acts

Finally, the study set out to establish the level of delinquency of the children and determine if there were differences in delinquency levels between boys and girls. The information collected from the children on the number of times they had engaged in delinquent activities was rated as follows:

- 1 Never
- 2 1-2 times
- 3 3-4 times
- 4 5 times and more

The results showed that the most frequently engaged in activity by the children was truancy. Truancy had a mean of 3.27, while the maximum is 4.00. This meant that these children had run away from school and home. The second mostly engaged in activity was loitering aimlessly, whose mean was 3.26. There was a very small difference in the level of the children's engagement in truancy and loitering. This meant that, after the children ran away from school, they engaged in a lot of aimless loitering in the streets of Nakuru. It was therefore no wonder that the children were picked from the streets by the directors of the rehabilitation centres. Many factors could have led the children to commit truancy and engage in aimlessly loitering. Key among these could be poverty at home and hostile home environments as a result of step-parenting. In the year 2002, it was estimated that there were 250,000 street children in Kenya, some of whom were second or third generation street children (Consortium for Street Children, 2002).

The children also engaged in stealing. This was as a result of the urge to meet their daily needs, especially to satisfy their hunger. According to the UNICEF (2000), poverty especially among street children is a world of darkness, where every day is a struggle to survive. These children endure lives of hunger, malnutrition and illness, and are denied their rights to protection and care. Since these children were mostly idle on the streets, they kept themselves busy by playing cards and other illegal games.

The least engaged in delinquent activities were smoking bhang, with a mean of 1.50, followed by sexual activity with a mean of 1.62, smoking cigarettes, 1.72, and taking alcohol, which had a mean of 1.76. This may be due to unavailability of bhang, cigarettes and alcohol, which may be a bit expensive for the children to afford. Table 34 has a summary of the information on means of delinquent activities the children engaged in.

Table 34: Levels of delinquent acts

Delinquent act	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Truancy	148	3.27	1.09
Loitering	148	3.26	1.11
Stealing	148	3.18	1.15
Playing cards and other illegal games	148	2.31	1.05
Physical fights	148	2.28	1.19
Carrying weapons	148	2.24	1.15
Sniffing glue	148	2.22	1.20
Taking alcohol	148	1.76	1.01
Smoking cigarettes	148	1.72	1.09
Sexual activity	148	1.62	1.03
Smoking bhang	148	1.50	.95

To establish whether there was a difference in delinquency means among the various delinquent activities between boys and girls, descriptive statistics were run. The results showed that loitering, stealing and truancy were among the delinquent activities that both

boys and girls engaged in, but the boys' delinquency levels were higher compared to those of girls. Besides these activities, boys also engaged in physical fights and carried dangerous weapons. Boys also engaged a lot more in playing cards and other illegal games than girls did. Kenty (2004) reports that male juveniles engage in greater use of alcohol and illicit drugs than girls. This agreed with the findings of the study, since delinquency levels for taking alcohol, smoking bhang, taking cigarettes, and sniffing glue were found to be higher for boys than for girls.

The findings of the study also showed that boys engaged more in physical fights, with a mean of 2.41, than girls, whose mean was 1.77. Boys also carried weapons more often than girls. This implied that boys were more violent than girls. This was in agreement with available literature in this area. According to Gross (1999), aggressive male models are more likely to be imitated, by male children, than aggressive female models. One possible reason for this has to do with sex roles. It is more acceptable in Western culture for men to be aggressive as compared with women. By the age of three or four years, children are learning the stereotypes that relate to sex role differences.

However, there were some delinquent acts with little variation in frequency of engagement by both boys and girls. These were smoking cigarettes, smoking bhang and taking alcohol. These acts were also among the least frequently engaged in acts by both boys and girls. The explanation for this may be because these drugs could be unaffordable, or unavailable to boys, who are more likely than girls, to indulge in them. Table 35 has a summary of the information on comparison of means of delinquent activities between boys and girls.

Table 35: Levels of delinquent acts for boys and girls

Delinquent act	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Stealing	Male	118	3.33	1.11
	Female	30	2.60	1.16
Truancy	Male	118	3.47	.97
	Female	30	2.50	1.225
Loitering	Male	118	3.47	.98
	Female	30	2.43	1.25
Sniffing glue	Male	118	2.37	1.23
	Female	30	1.60	.86
Taking alcohol	Male	118	1.83	1.06
	Female	30	1.50	.82
Smoking cigarettes	Male	118	1.79	1.13
	Female	30	1.47	.90
Smoking bhang	Male	118	1.58	1.03
	Female	30	1.17	.38
Sexual activity	Male	118	1.75	1.10
	Female	30	1.10	.31
Physical fights	Male	118	2.41	1.24
	Female	30	1.77	.82
Carrying weapons	Male	118	2.38	1.16
	Female	30	1.67	.92
Playing cards and other illegal games	Male	118	2.45	1.07
	Female	30	1.77	.73

To establish the overall delinquency mean difference between boys and girls, a group's statistics test was run. The results obtained showed that boys engaged more in delinquent acts than girls did. The overall delinquency means for boys was found to be 26.83 out of a possible maximum of 44.00. Girls' total delinquency mean was found to be 19.57 out of a possible maximum of 44.00. The standard deviations were not very high. This meant that the difference between the boys' and girls' means was significant.

Existing literature in this area indicates that boys and girls respond differently to family functions such as hostility and family stability. For example, Hyatt (2004) reports some critical gender differences in the ways divorce and parental reaction can affect adolescents. Boys remain at risk for depression even under most optimal post-divorce conditions. Further, according to Lotz, Poole and Regoli (1985), boys make mothers feel anxious, incompetent and depressed after divorce. This makes mothers less effective parents, thus prompting their sons to become even more difficult to manage. This results in increased delinquency in boys. Table 36 has a summary of the results obtained.

Table 36: Cumulative delinquency levels for boys and girls

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Male	118	26.83	7.40
Female	30	19.57	6.60

To find out whether the difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls was significant, an independent samples t-test was run. This was done so as to test the null hypothesis, which stated that there is no statistically significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls. The computed t-value was greater than the tabulated t-value (calc t = 5.27; tab t = 1.96). This meant that the probability of t-value assuming the truth of the null hypothesis at two decimal places is 0.00. Since this is less than the significance level, which is 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected. The conclusion therefore was that there is a significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls at significant level of 0.05. Boys are more prone to juvenile delinquency than girls. This is in agreement with existing literature, that, boys are more likely to show conduct problems. For example,

according to Hyatt (2004), divorce can contribute to adverse behaviour among boys, since it is more emotionally disturbing to boys than to girls. According to Kenty (2004), gender explanations of juvenile delinquency perceive delinquency to be a learned behaviour related to the socialisation of one's gender role. Thus, the way parents socialise their children contributes a lot in determining whether a child develops delinquent tendencies. Table 37 has the results of the independent samples t-test.

Table 37: Independent samples t-test on delinquency means between boys and girls

Gender	N	df	Mean	Std Dev	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Male	118		26.83	7.40		
Female	30		19.57	6.60		
	148	146			5.25**	0.00

**** denotes significant level at 0.05**

4.9 Qualitative Data from Children, Parents and Managers on Causes of Juvenile Delinquency among the Children

To compliment the quantitative data, qualitative data were sought from children, parents and managers of the children's homes as to why the children engaged in delinquent activities. The following information was collected.

4.9.1 Children's reasons for engaging in delinquent activities:

- i. Orphanage
- ii. Lack of food, clothing and other basic necessities in their homes
- iii. Rejection by guardians or relatives
- iv. Threats and violence from stepfathers or stepmothers
- v. Dropping out of school for lack of school fees
- vi. Parents' separation
- vii. Harsh parents

- viii. Incapacitated parents due to sickness, especially AIDS
- ix. Infighting between parents
- x. Child labour
- xi. Peer influence
- xii. Fear of beating after stealing money from parents
- xiii. Violence in school
- xiv. Child labour and exploitation
- xv. Had started as child play

From the above findings, it was evident that there were many causes of anti-social behaviour in the children interviewed. The most commonly given reasons were poverty, parental break-up, and a generally harsh environment at home. Idleness, peer influence and child play were the least mentioned reasons for the delinquent behaviour.

4.9.2 Parents' reasons for their children's involvement in delinquency.

Further information was sought from the parents as to why the children engaged in delinquent activities. The parents gave the following reasons:

- i. Peer influence
- ii. Poverty at home
- iii. Violence at home
- iv. Parental divorce or separation

These reasons agreed with those commonly given by the children as having contributed to their engaging in anti-social activities. Poverty and hostile home environment came out as factors that had greatly contributed to delinquent behaviour among the children.

4.9.3 Managers' reasons as to why the children engaged in delinquency.

The managers were asked to give reasons, which they thought, in their opinions, led the children into delinquent activities. They gave the following factors:

- i. Poverty at home
- ii. Parental negligence
- iii. Peer influence
- iv. Violence in the homes
- v. Home break-up

- vi. Orphanage
- vii. Fear of punishment from parents and teachers

This information agreed with both the existing literature as well as the findings of the study on the causes of juvenile delinquency. According to Meyer and Dusek (1979), the key causes of juvenile delinquency are poverty at home, parental divorce or separation, and hostile home environment. These were also found in the study to be contributing factors to juvenile delinquency. Helms and Turner (1981) also reported factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency. Key among these factors, according to these writers, are broken homes, the degree of affection exhibited by the parents, and the ineffective patterns of parental discipline. Many of these delinquents foster feelings of rejection and have poor self concept.

4.10 Summary of the Findings

This chapter has used the results of the study to achieve the study objectives by either accepting or rejecting the research hypotheses on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency as well as delinquency levels between boys and girls.

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency. This objective was achieved in that the relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency was determined. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency. Following the findings of the study, there was enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis since a significant relationship was found between marital stability and juvenile delinquency.

The second objective of the study was to determine the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. The objective was achieved in that the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency was determined. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. The findings of the study showed that there was no enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. The null hypothesis was, therefore upheld, because a weak relationship was found between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. This was an indication that, other factors, such as marital stability and parental mode of discipline are more significant in explaining juvenile delinquency, than family social-economic status. Children from low class areas may be adjudicated delinquents, not because they are more delinquent than

those from higher social-economic classes, but because lower-class slum areas are the scenes of the highest victimization rates (Siegel & Senna, 1988).

The third objective of the study was to establish the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency. Family size was measured so as to help achieve this objective. This objective was achieved. The relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency was determined. Descriptive statistics showed that many children came from large families. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency. The inferential statistics showed that family size may not have a strong influence on juvenile delinquency. It is possible to find higher delinquency levels even in smaller families. This was an indication that other factors such as marital stability, marital adjustment and parental mode of discipline seemed to have a greater influence on juvenile delinquency than family size.

The study also aimed at determining the relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. Marital adjustment was measured in terms of domestic violence experienced in the children's homes. This objective was achieved. The relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency was determined. The hypothesis corresponding to this objective stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. The findings of the study showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. Thus the null hypothesis was rejected.

The fifth objective of the study was to establish the relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. This objective was achieved. It was established that a significant relationship existed between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. Following the findings of the study, this hypothesis was rejected. This is because a statistically significant relationship was found between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency.

Finally, the study set out to establish whether there is a difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls. This objective was achieved. Gender differences in delinquency levels were established. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls. This hypothesis was rejected because the difference in delinquency levels between boys and girls was found to be significant. Boys were found to be more delinquent than girls.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of chapters one, two, three and four. The chapter therefore has a summary on introduction, which includes background information, the literature that was reviewed and the methodology that was used. The chapter also has a summary of findings of the study. Finally, the conclusions reached are presented, and recommendations for policy as well as recommendations for further research.

5.2 Summary

Juvenile delinquency has become one of the most urgent problems in the Kenyan society today, with tremendous increase in intensity and magnitude in recent years. This has led to the concern of the whole society. The Kenya Government made efforts to address the problem by placing the delinquents in correctional facilities, such as National Youth Service (NYS). But, unfortunately, some of the street children went back to the streets.

Family functions have been cited as one of the major factors that determine whether or not a child develops delinquent tendencies. This conclusion has been reached following research in the developed world, particularly, in the United States of America (USA), which could have a different environment (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994). However, researchers on juvenile delinquency in Kenya have paid little or no attention to the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. It is against this background that the study was set and carried out. The relationship between selected family functions and juvenile delinquency was examined. The following were the specific objectives of the study:

- i. To determine the relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency.
- ii. To determine the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency.
- iii. To determine the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency.
- iv. To determine the relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency.

- v. To determine the relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency.
- vi. To establish whether there is a difference in juvenile delinquency levels between boys and girls.

Most of the literature reviewed in this area was from the developed world. The literature showed that the Traditional African Society (TAS), and in particular Kenya, had closely-knit ties which ensured that the society existed in harmony (Mbiti 1969).

However, this situation changed in the twentieth century. Many changes took place in the Kenyan society, leading to the break-up of the traditional social set-up. The breakdown in the values and practices that enhanced the cohesion of the traditional institution, that is, home, family and community, left many children in want. This has significantly contributed to the existence of street children, who have to feed for themselves, hence juvenile delinquency. Many families are now unable to provide the ideal type of care as was the case in traditional African communities (Family Support Institute 1998).

More recently, there are some global forces that have threatened the welfare of most African families, and in particular, the children in them. Key among these are, economic recession beginning in the 1970, external debt, declining terms of trade and Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs).

Further, these changes have precipitated social-cultural and economic transformations in Kenya which have contributed to further household poverty. These are:

- i. Population pressure
- ii. Rapid urbanisation
- iii. Growing unemployment
- iv. Landlessness
- v. Single parenthood
- vi. AIDS pandemic
- vii. Erosion of family and community system (Family Support Institute 1998 pg 1).

The literature showed that single-parent families, and especially, mother-only families, produce more delinquent children than two-parent families (Dogett, 2004). Further literature showed that parents who use physical punishment in their attempt to control the behaviour of their children are models for the use of aggression (Meyer & Dusek, 1979). However, according to Domjan, (1993), use of punishment is not a very effective method of controlling behaviour, since, besides children modelling the

aggression involved in physical punishment, punishment has temporary effects, at best. Domestic violence was also found to be closely associated with juvenile delinquency. According to Turshen and Holcomb (1993), children's socialisation into accepting and committing violence starts at home when they witness one of their parents beating the other, or sometimes abusing them as well. The literature reviewed also showed that large families were more prone to delinquency than smaller families. Thornton and Voigt (1992) have argued that smaller families can more effectively control and fulfill the emotional needs of their children.

The literature reviewed also included theories of delinquency. Four major theories of delinquency were discussed, and how they relate to the area of study. These are sociological, classical, positivists' and psychological theories of delinquency. The theoretical framework was based on sociological and psychological theories of delinquency, which were found to be more relevant to the study, for example, according to the sociological theories, delinquency is viewed to be related to the subculture of poverty. (Regoli & Hewitt, 1994).

One of the psychological theories is Albert Bandura's social learning or modelling theory. According to this theory, the development of self-control is heavily influenced by the models children observe. For most children, it is the parents and siblings who are the most important and frequently imitated models. Thus, if children observe violence, drug abuse, and sexual indulgence from these models, they are more likely to engage in the same behaviours (Gross, 1999). It is from this literature that the conceptual framework of the study was developed.

The study was conducted in Nakuru Municipality, Kenya. An ex-post facto design was employed. The study was targeted to be conducted in four rehabilitation centres in Nakuru Municipality which were operational during the development of the research proposal. These were Scann, Mwangaza, St. Francis and Golden Bridge. A sample of 180 children was targeted. However, by the time of data collection, Golden Bridge had been closed down. Thus, a sample of 148 children was selected. Six parents and three managers were also included in the study. The data collected were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS) version 9.0.

The results of the study showed that 68.00% of juvenile delinquents came from either single or no parent families. The findings of the study showed a significant relationship between marital stability and juvenile delinquency. It was evident that there was a significant relationship between marital adjustment and juvenile delinquency. The

study revealed that 74.00% of juvenile delinquents came from large families, with members being eight or more. Although most of the children came from large families, the inferential statistics showed that family size may not have a big influence on juvenile delinquency.

The findings of the study further revealed that the majority of the juveniles came from families whose parents had little or no education. Moreover, such parents were of low social-economic status, mainly not employed or employed as casual workers. However, there was a weak relationship between family social economic status and juvenile delinquency. This probably indicated that social economic status might not be a major factor in explaining juvenile delinquency. There was significant relationship between parental mode of discipline and juvenile delinquency. On the mode of discipline commonly used by the delinquent children's parents, 80.00% cited physical punishment. Only 20.00% of the juvenile delinquents cited induction as the most commonly used mode of discipline by their parents or guardians. It was evident that physical punishment encouraged violence and consequently juvenile delinquency.

5.3 Conclusions

The study set out to examine the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Specifically, the relationship between selected family functions and juvenile delinquency was investigated. The following are the major conclusions reached from the study:

- 5.3.1 Street children engage in delinquent activities because of the hardships that they are exposed to in the streets.
- 5.3.2 Divorce, separation, death of one parent or birth out of wedlock lead children into delinquent behaviour. From the findings of the study, 68.20% of the children came from either single or no parent families.
- 5.3.3 Low social-economic status leads children into anti-social behaviour due to lack of basic necessities. The findings of the study showed that 63.50% of the children lived in zero-bed- roomed houses, that is, single rooms. Poverty makes children move into the streets to look for survival means.
- 5.3.4 Large families also contribute to juvenile delinquency. The results obtained from the study showed that 74.40 % of the children came from families of between eight and more members.

- 5.3.5 Domestic violence encourages aggressive behaviour among children. This is supported by the fact that, 66.60% of the managers reported that the children had experienced domestic violence in their homes. Children run away from violent homes and end up engaging in delinquent activities in the streets.
- 5.3.6 Use of physical punishment as a mode of discipline encourages delinquent behaviour among children. From the findings of the study, 80.40% of the children said their parents or guardians mostly used physical punishment to correct them whenever they went wrong.
- 5.3.7 Boys engage in more delinquent acts than girls. The cumulative delinquency means for girls was 19.57 while that of the boys was 26.83 out of a possible maximum of 44.00. The difference was found to be statistically significant. The calculated t-value was 5.27 while the tabulated t-value was found to be 1.96.

5.4 Recommendations

The study has attempted to establish the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. The findings of the study form the basis for recommendations both for policy as well as for further research.

5.4.1 Recommendations for policy

It is evident that there exists a significant relationship between the selected family functions (except family social-economic status and family size) and juvenile delinquency. For this reason, if treatment of juvenile delinquency is to be successful, concerted efforts must start at the family level as this could deal with the root causes of the vice. Therefore, the study came up with the following recommendations for policy:

- 5.4.1.1 The Government of Kenya should enforce the provisions of the Children's Act, Cap 586 LOK Part 3 section 23 subsection 2 a. This subsection gives parents the duty to maintain their children, and in particular provide them with adequate diet, shelter, clothing, medical care, and education and guidance. Once this subsection is enforced, it will interpret in parents playing their roles, thus no children will be neglected, nor end up in the streets.
- 5.4.1.2 The government, churches and non-governmental organisations should pull resources together in the attempt to rehabilitate juvenile delinquents. This may work better if the children are supported from their homes rather than putting them

in rehabilitation centres. This is because the government has made efforts to rehabilitate the children away from their homes, but some of the children went back to the streets, the places they had come from. If the delinquent children are corrected from their homes, it is easier to make some follow-up with the parents or guardians.

5.4.1.3 The government, churches and non-governmental organisations should strengthen family counselling services, especially among the poor and single parents. This is necessary so as to try to reduce the rate of separation and divorce. The need for stable families should be emphasised. Parents should try their best to ensure that marital differences are settled amicably, without involving their children. At the same time, social workers should be trained to assist parents on parenting skills that will help reduce juvenile delinquency.

5.4.1.4 The government should ensure that primary health care is provided, especially to the poor families. Basic necessities, such as access to clean water and sanitation should also be made affordable to the poor so as to reduce the rate of infections and death among them. This will also ensure that HIV positive poor parents can live longer to take care of their children. This is because many children reported having lost their parents through HIV/AIDS.

5.4.1.5 The Government should strengthen its efforts to reduce poverty levels in the country through economic interventions among the poor. Decent housing should also be made affordable among the poor, especially those living in the urban centres. This may be done by initiating development projects aimed at creation of job opportunities so as to provide as many parents and guardians as possible with the means to cater for the material needs of their family members, especially children.

5.4.1.6 Private family health service providers and the Ministry of Health should strengthen family planning services, and make them affordable to the poor, so as to assist parents to only get those children that they can effectively take care of. This will ensure that emotional, social, material and other needs of the children are taken care of, thus less delinquency.

5.4.1.7 The Kenya Government, and the society at large, should make every possible effort to discourage, and if possible, end, domestic violence and all other forms of violence amongst its members. This is because violence has devastating effects on both the victims involved as well as the children. This may be done by making the

punishment on the perpetrators of this vice harsh enough to deter those planning to perpetrate the same violence.

5.4.1.8 The mode of discipline on children by their parents or guardians should be more of induction than physical punishment. Children should be made to understand the reasons as to why engaging in certain activities is wrong, rather than just resorting to physical punishment whenever the children do something wrong.

5.4.1.9 Parents and the whole society should learn to treat, and socialise both boys and girls as equals. Anti-social behaviours should not be tolerated simply because the child who is misbehaving is a boy. Parental monitoring should also be strengthened for both boys and girls. This is because the study found out that boys are more delinquent than girls, which was attributed to their socialisation. This can be done through strengthening guidance and counselling among the parents so as to equip them with the best parenting skills for both boys and girls.

5.4.2 Recommendations for further research

One of the most crucial areas in any profession is research. As was noted earlier, little research has been carried out in juvenile delinquency in Kenya. The study, therefore, recommends further research in the following areas:

5.4.2.1 Relationship between juvenile delinquency and HIV/AIDS. This is because we are loosing many members of the society through HIV-related complications. Many children are left orphans, and with no one to provide for their daily needs.

5.4.2.2 Influence of academic performance on juvenile delinquency. This is because there has been a tremendous increase in students' unrest in secondary schools in recent years.

5.4.2.3 Causes and effects of domestic violence. This is because many children, managers and parents reported domestic violence in the children's biological homes.

5.4.2.4 Rates, causes and effects of separation and divorce in Kenya. This may be necessary because many children were reported to have come from single parent families.

5.4.2.5 An in-depth investigation of the relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency. This is because this study has shown a weak relationship between family social-economic status and juvenile delinquency.

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APPENDIX A:
REQUEST FOR RESEARCH PERMIT

Telephone: Nakuru 61620, 61031, 61032
Telegrams: UNIVERSITY, Njoro
Telex: 33075



EGERTON
UNIVERSITY

P.O. Box 536
Njoro, Kenya.

EM16/0565/02
In reply quote Ref:

2nd July, 2004
Date:

The Permanent Secretary,
Ministry of Education, Science and Technology,
P. O. Box 30040,
NAIROBI

Dear Sir,

**RE: RESEARCH PERMIT – MRS. MARY NYAMBURA NDUNGU -
REG. NO. EM16/0565/02**

I wish to introduce to you the above named student in the Department of Educational Psychology and Counselling, in the Faculty of Education and Human Resources, Egerton University.

She is a bonafide registered med., student in this University. Her research topic is entitled "The Relationship between Family Functions and Juvenile Delinquency in Nakuru Municipality, Kenya".

She is at the stage of collecting field data. Please issue her with a research permit to enable her undertake the studies.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. Dankit Nassiuma
DIRECTOR, BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

APPENDIX B:
**RESEARCH AUTHORISATION BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION,
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "EDUCATION", Nairobi
Telephone: Nairobi 334411
When replying please quote

Ref. No.
and date

MOEST 13/001/34C 204/2



JOGOO HOUSE "B"
HARAMBEE AVENUE
P.O. Box 30040-00100
NAIROBI

..... 20.....

15th July, 2004

MARY NYAMBURA NDUNGU
EGERTON UNIVERSITY
P O BOX 536
NJORO

Dear Sir

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORISATION

Please refer to your application for authority to conduct research on "The relationship between family functions and Juvenile Delinquency in Nakuru Municipality", this is to inform you that you have been authorized to conduct research in Nakuru District for a period ending 30th November 2004.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner, the District Education Officer Nakuru and the Education Officer Nakuru and the Municipal Education Officer Nakuru, Municipality before embarking on your study.

Upon completion of your research project you are expected to deposit two copies of your research report to this office.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'B. O. ADEWA', with a long horizontal stroke extending to the right.

B. O. ADEWA
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY

CC

The District Commissioner
Nakuru District

The District Education Officer
Nakuru District

The Municipal Education Officer
Nakuru Municipal Council

APPENDIX C:
RESEARCH AUTHORISATION BY THE CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT,
NAKURU MUNICIPALITY

MINISTRY OF HOME AFFAIRS

Telegrams: "CHILDREN'S", Nakuru
Telephone: 41305 or 210203
When replying please quote
Ref. No. NKU/DCC/6/6/VOL I (163)
and date



DISTRICT CHILDREN'S OFFICE
P.O. Box 14107-20100
NAKURU
15th August, 20... 04


TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: MARY NYAMBURA NDUNGU

This is to request you to allow the bearer whose name is above, who is doing her research on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency in Nakuru Municipality.

Currently she is a master's student at Egerton university.

Any assistance given to her will be highly appreciated.


J.O. OKOMO
CHILDREN'S CHILDREN'S
NAKURU



To correct details in children's homes

APPENDIX D:
CHILDREN'S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

My name is Mary Nyambura. I am a student at Egerton University. I am carrying out research on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Please provide me with the most appropriate answers to the following questions. This information will be treated confidentially, and will be used only for the purpose of the study.

PART ONE: PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Age

7-10 yrs

11-14 yrs

15-18 yrs

Others Specify _____

2. Gender

Female

Male

3. Level of education

Standard 1-4

Standard 5-6

Standard 7-8

Form 1-4

4. Duration of stay at the centre

1-6 months

6-12 months

1-2 yrs

3 yrs +

PART TWO: HOME STABILITY

5. Is your mother alive?

Yes

No

6. Is your father alive?

Yes

No

7. What is your parents' marital status?

Married

Divorced

Unmarried

Others specify _____

8. Whom did you stay with before you went to the streets?

Mother

Father

Others specify _____

PART THREE: MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

9. How do you rate your relationship with your parents?

Very hostile

Hostile

Average

Good

Very good

10. How is your parents' relationship with each other?

Very hostile

Hostile

Average

Good

Very good

11. Does any or both of your parents take drugs such as alcohol?

Yes

No

12. If yes, how often?

Always

Often

Rarely

Very rarely

13. Did you ever experience physical violence in your home?

Yes

No

14. Was there violence between your parents?

Yes

No

15. Was there violence between siblings?

Yes

No

16. Was there violence between parents or guardians and siblings?

Yes

No

17. If yes, often was it?

Always

Often

Rarely

Very Rarely

PART FOUR: FAMILY SIZE

18. How many people stayed with you at your home before you went to the streets?

1-3

4-7

8-11

12 plus

19. How many sisters do you have?

- None
- 1-3
- 4-5
- 6-7
- 8+

20. How many brothers do you have?

- None
- 1-3
- 4-5
- 6-7
- 8+

21. How many stepbrothers do you have?

- None
- 1-3
- 4-5
- 6-7
- 8+

22. How many stepsisters do you have?

- None
- 1-3
- 4-5
- 6-7
- 8+

PART FIVE: FAMILY SOCIAL-ECONOMIC STATUS

23. What is your father's level of education?

- None
- Primary
- Secondary
- Post- Secondary

24. What is your mother's level of education?

- None
- Primary
- Secondary
- Post- Secondary

25. What is your father's occupation?

- None
- Self
- Formal

26. What is your mother's occupation?

- None
- Self
- Formal

27. What type of house did your family live in before you went to the streets?

- Shanty
- Temporary
- Semi-permanent
- Permanent

28. What was the condition of tenure of the house?

- Accommodated
- Rented
- Self

29. How many bedrooms did the house have?

- 0
- 1
- 3+

PART SIX: PARENTAL MODE OF DISCIPLINE

30. What mode of discipline was commonly used at your home?

Physical

Induction

31. How often was physical punishment used at your home?

Always

Often

Rarely

Never

32. How did you feel about your parents' mode of discipline?

Very bad

Bad

Good

Very good

PART SEVEN: DELINQUENCY LEVEL

33. Indicate the number of times you have engaged in the following activities

ACTIVITY	NEVER	1-2 TIMES	3-4 TIMES	5+ TIMES
Stealing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Truancy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loitering aimlessly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sniffing glue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taking alcohol	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking cigarettes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking bhang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical fights	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Carrying weapons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Playing cards and other illegal games	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

34. Give reasons why you engaged in delinquent activities.

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

PART EIGHT: EXTRANEOUS VARIABLES

35. State whether the following factors contributed to your engagement in delinquent activities?

	Yes	No
Mass media influence	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Weakened community controls	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drug abuse	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poor academic performance	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX E:
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR CHILDREN'S HOMES' MANAGERS

My name is Mary Nyambura. I am a student at Egerton University. I am carrying out a research on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Please provide me with the most appropriate answers to the following questions by either filling in the blanks or put a tick (√) in the most appropriate answer from the choices provided. This information will be treated confidentially, and will be used only for the purpose of the study.

1. No. of boys in your institution

2. No. of girls

3. How do you rate the children's home stability?

- Mostly broken
- Often broken
- Rarely broken
- Always broken

5. What is the children's social-economic backgrounds?

- Very poor
- Poor
- Rich
- Very rich

6. What is the average size of families the children come from?

- 10+
- 7-9
- 6-4
- 3-1

7. Do the children report presence of violence in their homes?

- Always
- Often
- Rarely
- Never

8. What mode of discipline did the children report as most commonly used by their parents or guardians?

- Always physical
- Often physical
- Often induction
- Always induction

9. State whether the children engaged in the following delinquent activities

Activity	Yes	No
Stealing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Truancy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loitering	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sniffing glue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taking alcohol	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking cigarettes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking bhang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Carrying weapons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical fights	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Others: Specify.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

10. In your opinion what factors led the children to engage in the delinquent activities?

.....
.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX F:
PARENTS' INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

My name is Mary Nyambura. I am a student at Egerton University. I am carrying out research on the relationship between family functions and juvenile delinquency. Please provide me with the most appropriate answers to the following questions. This information will be treated confidentially, and will be used only for the purpose of the study.

1. Gender

Female

Male

2. What is your level of education?

None

Primary

Secondary

Post- Secondary

3. What is your occupation?

Not employed

Casual/self employed

Formally employed

4. What is your monthly income in Ksh?

Below 5000.00/=

5000.00-10,000.00

10,001.00-15000.00

15,001.00+

5. What is your spouse's level of education?

None

Primary

Secondary

Post- Secondary

6. What is your spouse's occupation?

None

Casual/Self

Formal

7. What is your spouse's monthly income?

- Below 5000
- 5,000-10,000
- 10,001-15,000
- 15,001+

8. How do you rate your family's social-economic status?

- Very poor
- Poor
- Medium
- Rich
- Very rich

9. What is your marital status?

- Married
- Single
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Others specify.....

10. If married, how stable is your marriage and family?

- Very unstable
- Unstable
- Stable
- Very stable

11. How many children do you have?

- 10+
- 7-9
- 6-4
- 1-3
- None

12. If married, do you experience domestic violence in your home?

- Yes
- No

13. If yes, how often?

- Always
- Often
- Rarely
- Very rarely

14. If separated / divorced, did you experience violence in your marriage before breaking ?

- Yes
- No

15. If yes, how often did it happen?

- Always
- Very often
- Often
- Rarely
- Very rarely

16. How do you (and your spouse) discipline your children when they go wrong?

- Always physically
- Often physically
- Often induction
- Always induction

17. State whether or not your child ever engaged in the following delinquent activities:

Activity	Yes	No
Stealing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Truancy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loitering	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sniffing glue	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taking alcohol	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking cigarettes	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smoking bhang	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sexual activity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Carrying weapons	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical fights	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Others specify		

.....
.....

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.....

.....

18. Give reasons why your child engaged in the delinquent activities.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX G:

TABLE FOR DETERMINING REQUIRED SAMPLE SIZE

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	120	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	28000	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	241	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	577

(Kathuri and Pals, 1993 p.55)

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