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“
REHABILITATION OF
JUVENILE DELINQUENTS:
A SURVEY OF APPROVED
SCHOOLS IN KENYA”

BY

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A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment
of the degree of Master of Arts (in Sociology)
in the University of Nairobi.

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Declaration

This is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

Wakanyua. Samuel Ndiritu.

Wakanyua.

This Thesis has been submitted for examination with our approval as university supervisors.

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Dedication:

This thesis is dedicated to my benevolent father, Mzee Wakanyua and my gentle mother, Muthoni. ——— I hold them to my heart.

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In writing this thesis I incurred many debts that I wish to acknowledge.

I owe a debt of gratitude to the University of Nairobi for awarding me a scholarship which covered research and writing of this thesis.

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Needless to say, I alone remain responsible for any errors thereon.

ABSTRACT.

The major focus of this study was an investigation of the major factors that trigger off juvenile delinquency and the delinquents' subsequent committal to approved schools and whether the said juveniles were rehabilitated after committal or not. The effects of institutionalization on the juvenile delinquents were also studied.

The study was guided by three hypotheses. These were, one, that low socio-economic status at home triggered delinquency and subsequent institutionalization, Second, that rehabilitation success depended on sex, each juvenile's attitude towards the rehabilitation programmes and institutionalization and third, that effects of institutionalization depended on the juvenile delinquents' overall environment prior to institutionalization.

The subjects of the study were inmates and ex-inmates of the approved schools and uninstitutionalized non-delinquents who were used as control group. The approved schools' inmates were drawn from four approved schools while the ex-inmates were former inmates. The uninstitutionalized non-delinquents were drawn from two primary schools. Twenty two officials from the four approved schools were also interviewed.

The key instrument of data collection was the interview schedule. However, unstructured interviews were also administered to the key informants.

The study found that the majority of the committed juvenile delinquents' hailed from low socio-economic backgrounds which could

have predisposed them to delinquency.

The study found out that the major delinquent acts committed by the studied juveniles were: theft, being idle and disorderly, burglary, vandalism, among others.

Female approved schools' inmates and ex-inmates were found to register higher rehabilitation success vis-a-vis their male counterparts as a result of social and economic factors. Another factor found to influence rehabilitation success was inmates and ex-inmates attitude towards rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools.

Juvenile delinquents' overall environment prior to committal was found to have some significant influence on their attitude and integration into the approved schools.

It was concluded that no juvenile delinquent should ever be committed to an approved school unless reform seems unobtainable by other means. It was also recommended that community based rehabilitation services should be initiated as an alternative to institutionalization.

Finally, it was felt that constant evaluation of rehabilitation programmes was necessary so as to streamline their effectiveness.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION.

1.1 Problem statement.

The penal system is one of the many forms of controlling crime. Its main aim is to "cure" and "prevent" crime. The offenders are expected to be law abiding after the treatment has been given (Keith 1968: 132¹, Odegi 1978:53²). This treatment administered to reform the offender is referred to as rehabilitation. Rehabilitation theory holds that delinquents who have been put into a state of social dysfunction by the crime they committed can be put back into the road of socially accepted modes of conduct. The treatment administered is meant to remove a known offender's disposition towards crime (Carlos 1976:32)³.

The subject of rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents who are in conflict with the law and the type of treatment given to them continues to be of major interest to all those who seek to find solutions to deviant behaviour. This is because society has defined delinquency as a major area of concern and has created many agencies to deal with it.

Rehabilitation of juvenile offenders is regarded by both humanitarians and scientifically minded penologists as more constructive than punishment (Bean 1976:128⁴, Kercher 1981:40⁵, Tutt 1974:112⁶). Indeed rehabilitation is the most important factor to be borne in mind when considering what to do with a juvenile delinquent who is about to enter or has just entered his or her formative years. This view is supported by studies done by

western scholars on the correctional treatment of juvenile delinquents, e.g. Allen (1981:43⁷), Mains (1974:84⁸), West (1968:92⁹), among others.

In Kenya, the work of rehabilitating juvenile delinquents is undertaken by the Approved schools (Cap 141, 1963)¹⁰. They are modelled with appropriate modifications on the English ones which are an offshoot of reformatories established in England in the mid 19th century (Murage 1986:57)¹¹.

The idea of juvenile incarceration is an alien one in Africa (Kayongo Male and Onyango 1984:59,60)¹². The practice is not seen as one in consonance with traditional beliefs and practices that formed part of African culture. In the past, child rearing and discipline was a communal responsibility. In the present day, rapid social change has brought about new social and economic values which have led to the disintegration of the traditional cultural values and the extended family. It is within this scenario that the problem of juvenile delinquency as a social problem and the mechanisms to cope with it seem to emerge.

In view of the foregoing, incarceration of juveniles emerges as a practice inconsistent with African practices. Approved schools have been established as places of accommodating and taking care of juveniles who for one reason or another are in conflict with the law, with a primary objective of providing training, readjustment and social re-education in preparation for return to the community (Act no. 22 of 1934)¹³. The fact that these approved schools exist is an indication of some abnormalities within African

societies or families, which had always provided care and discipline for the children (UNICEF 1989:51)¹⁴.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the appropriateness of these approved schools in their rehabilitation pursuits and see how well they provide for juvenile delinquents' social, physical and intellectual growth and how their services can be improved.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The major concern of this study was to find out the effectiveness and relevance of the rehabilitation programmes offered in selected approved schools in Kenya. The value of looking into these programmes is to find out whether they are well designed as well as implemented.

The study will look at the goals set in the schools and compare them to the background and present life of juveniles as a measure of their improved future. An attempt will be made to determine whether these schools are designed to protect society against those juvenile delinquents who are considered to be dangerous by helping them develop normal behaviour patterns or just locking them up and throwing away the keys. In other words, does conflict arise between a custodial emphasis and a rehabilitation approach? In order to do this, the study will specifically attempt:

1. To investigate the overriding factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to the care of approved schools.

2. To find out how suited these approved schools are in rehabilitating juvenile delinquents.
3. To find out whether institutional confinement has any effects on juvenile delinquents.

1.3 Justification of the study.

Studies have been done to determine the effectiveness of institutional rehabilitation in general. Most of these studies have been done by western scholars, among them Rawlin (1972)¹⁵, Bean (1976)¹⁶, Robinson and Smith (1971)¹⁷, Cooper (1973)¹⁸. Findings based on these studies cannot be generalized and used to apply to Kenya. There is need therefore to carry out such a study to determine whether what has been observed in western societies is present in Kenya and if so, to show the pattern through which it is manifested.

It is also hoped that policy makers in the children's department would use the results to reassess the objectives of rehabilitation programmes in Kenya's approved schools. The approved schools administrators too could utilize the results in choosing a possible course of action in achieving effective rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents.

1.4 Scope and Limitations of the study.

This study will be carried out in selected approved schools which are scattered in different parts of Kenya. These schools cater for juvenile delinquents who are also referred to as inmates

in this study. The term inmate is used in reference to a young person under 18 years of age who has been committed to an approved school through a juvenile court so as to be rehabilitated. The respondents will be the approved schools' officials, inmates and ex-inmates. Non-delinquents will also be interviewed for comparison purposes.

There are two limitations in this study. In trying to assess the effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes, the study will use inmates in approved schools and those ex-inmates released some years back as the unit of analysis. The aim will be to try to establish the short term and long term effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes. This could have been more adequately achieved if the institutionalized respondents interviewed were the same to be followed after discharge so as to give evidence of later behaviour. However this was not possible because this study was done in a limited period of time.

In assessing the positive and negative effects of institutional committal on juvenile delinquents, there would have been a need for a study where possibly juvenile delinquents' life prior to institutional committal could be studied. This would be followed by other studies immediately after committal and one year after. However due to the constraint mentioned above, and others like personnel and finance, this will not be possible.

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CHAPTER TWO.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Historical Background.

From the earliest years of the British rule in Kenya, the need to separate the juvenile justice system from the adult system was apparent. Towards this end a reformatory school was established at Kabete in 1909 (Circular to magistrates No. 1 of 1909)¹ based on the philosophy and practice of the British Borstal System.

Although 59 boys were admitted there in its first four years, little was done to make it a constructive educational and training institution charged with the hard task of reforming the inmates so that they may not commit any more crimes on being released. Therefore in 1934, a committee on juvenile crime and Kabete reformatory was appointed with two terms of reference:-

- (1) "to consider what measures should be adopted to deal with the problem of juvenile crime, and
- (2) "to make recommendations as to the future of Kabete Reformatory" (committee on juvenile crime and Kabete Reformatory, 1934).²

Having reported on the "Unsatisfactory atmosphere", at the institution, the committee recommended the establishment of approved schools and the converting of Kabete Reformatory into a training school run on the lines of Borstal Institutions in England; and catering for boys between the age of fourteen and nineteen years convicted by special courts which were to be set up, dealing specifically with juvenile offenders. The result of the

report was the juvenile ordinance, 1934. Kabete Reformatory was changed into an approved school in 1934 and three years later, in 1937 a second approved school was established at Dagoretti to ease congestion problem at Kabete. These approved schools were established with the idea that they should be carried on, on much the same lines as Borstal institutions in England.

In spite of the establishment of these institutions, juvenile delinquency continued to increase at a very high rate. In 1946, the report of habitual offenders suggested that at least 35 % of all the hardened criminals committed their first offence before attaining the age of twenty years and that some 10 % of all the persons committed to prison were below that age (Read 1969:155)³. This might have been due to the fact that at this time, there was no after-care service to look after those inmates of approved schools who were discharged after expiry of their committal period.

Another committee was appointed in 1954 to consider and review the whole system of juvenile justice and recommend the desirability of introducing a more modern and comprehensive legislation. In its report, the committee recommended, inter alia, the complete separation of juvenile justice system from the adult system, and that a separate and comprehensive ordinance dealing with the care, protection and treatment of juveniles, including juvenile delinquents should be enacted. The Ordinance was to provide for the setting up of separate courts with their own constitution and procedure for dealing with juvenile delinquents as well as children in need of care and protection. On the whole it was the view of

the committee that the "cure for juvenile delinquency called for the treatment of juvenile delinquents as persons in need of care and protection rather than as criminals" (Committee on Children and Young Persons 1954:85-88)⁴.

Although during the "Mau Mau" uprising and the ensuing state of emergency, the strict enforcement of vagrancy and pass law increased the number of juvenile offenders appearing before Nairobi Central juvenile court to over 3,000 per year, no steps were taken towards the implementation of these recommendations. It was not until 1963 that the Children and Young Persons Act- which is the source of Current provisions governing juvenile courts, remand homes and approved schools- was enacted. It incorporated the recommendations of the committee in 'toto'.

Realising that the approved schools and the Youth Corrective Centres to be established under the Act were incapable of dealing with young delinquents under the age of 18, whose character demanded a more rigorous discipline and training, the Borstal institutions Act was passed in the same year (No. 23/63 CAP 92, Laws of Kenya).

The objects of the act was stated to be "the keeping of the young delinquents under the apparent age of 18 who committed an offence out of prison" and "to ensure the protection of society by providing that such offenders can be given the amount and the type of training best suited to their needs and from which they are likely to derive the most benefit" (House of Representatives Report (Debate) Col.818. Vol.of 1963:134)⁵

These two Acts- the Children and Young Persons and Borstal Institutions- form the basis on which the juvenile system in Kenya is based. It is within the contexts of their provisions that the views in this paper will be considered.

In summary therefore, it can be said that it was the policy of the British Colonial Authorities that a separate juvenile justice system be introduced into the legal system of Kenya. Obviously the English legal system provided the germ from which this new one could grow with the result that we inherited a system based on an English legislation which has been amended so many times and was finally thrown overboard by the 1969 Children and Young Persons Act. In its provisions, the 1969 Act suggested the enlisting of the co-operation of law, social work and science towards the early identification, prevention and treatment of delinquency and other juvenile problems. The Approved School order was to be replaced by a general order of committal to local authorities to dispose of the case according to the diagnosed needs of the child. Thus, a new approach was to be introduced consonant with the Scandinavian system, seeking a greater involvement of the community in child care and prevention of juvenile delinquency.

In view of these changes, it is obvious that the Kenyan system needs reviewing and that radical changes be introduced. More so, when it is realised that juvenile delinquency is increasing at a very high rate indicating that at least something is wrong somewhere with our treatment measures.

2.12 Juvenile delinquency in modern society.

The Gluecks (1962:4)⁶ define juvenile delinquents as "children between 7 and 17 years of age who commit repeated acts of a kind which when carried out by persons beyond the statutory juvenile court age of 16 are punishable as crimes". This definition is quite alright when the reference is to the culture in which the authors base themselves. Consequently, (Muga 1975:99)⁷ when referring to our own cultural context states that " a juvenile delinquent is a child between the statutory juvenile court age of seven and sixteen years who commits an act which when committed by persons beyond this statutory juvenile court age, would be punishable as a crime, or as an act injurious to other individuals or to the public, that is, the state or the government". Basically, the above two definitions amount to the same thing with a difference only in the wording.

Juvenile delinquency is an old problem which has increased in extent and intensity during the recent years. Various scholars have pointed out that this is closely related with fundamental changes in modern society (Elliot 1952:211⁸, Sutherland 1975:156⁹ Mushanga 1976:38¹⁰). Freeman and Jones (1970:331)¹¹ have categorically stated that juvenile delinquency poses a serious threat to community members and social control agents alike as "the extent of unlawful acts by adolescents cannot be fully gauged by what is represented in official reports".

For some unexplained reason, the subject of juvenile delinquency in the past had not been subjected to much public

debate. However, of late, it is receiving the attention of both international and national fora. At a meeting sponsored by the UN Economic and Social Council held in November, 1983 in the Japanese city of Funchu, international experts discussed ways of developing UN Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile justice. This meeting was significant in that although for many years the UN has had standard minimum rules for the treatment of offenders in general, nothing had actually been laid down specifically for juvenile offenders.

In May 1984, at a colloquium held in Bellagio, Italy and jointly sponsored by the International Association of Penal law, The International Society of Social Defence, The International Society of Criminology and the International Penal and Penitentiary Foundation, the topic Youth, crime and justice was discussed. Also at the 7th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Control held in Milan, Italy in August 1985 one of the five substantive items of the agenda was Youth, Crime and Justice. World attention is therefore gradually being drawn to the problem of juvenile delinquency.

Perhaps to help us gain some insight into juvenile delinquency, it would be helpful to mention briefly some of the many causes that have been attributed to its origins. Much of it is borrowed from existing theories on the causes of crime.

It is important to note that juvenile delinquency was virtually unknown in traditional African societies (Milner 1974:103)¹². (This is mainly due to the fact that there was a

stable and integrated way of living with social, moral and legal laws supporting each other.

The economic theory, which is basically Marxist in outlook, suggests that juvenile delinquency is the result of inequities of social and economic order in which an acquisitive society encourages aggression and discourages altruism (Bonger 1974:211¹³, Giallombardo 1972:103¹⁴, Neumeyer 1961:260¹⁵). The Genetic Endowment theory on the other hand explains the same problem not from a socio-economic standpoint but rather that inherited characteristics direct children into criminal behaviour or make them potentially susceptible to criminal tendencies, while those looking at the problem from a psychological standpoint indicate that limited intellectual or educational capabilities is the most important correlate of crime (Kvaraceus 1964:92¹⁶, Gluecks 1950:303¹⁷, Caldwell 1950:84¹⁸).

We concede that all the causes given above contain elements of truth and can account for some of the causes of delinquency, but it should be noted that the causes of crime in our society are to a certain extent subject to debate and controversy. Saikwa (1966:15)¹⁹ says that the roots of criminal behaviour is a complex, interweaving of psychological, sociological and economic factors. Nevertheless, our position at least for the purpose of this study is that the primary causes of delinquency are to be found in a child's immediate socio-economic environment influences.

Such socio-economic factors as to be found in the family environment play a great and important role in determining whether

one will become a delinquent or not (Sutherland and Cressey 1970:213; Hirschi 1969:86²⁰, Wootton 1959:136²¹). Studies done in most parts of the world associate the family with most problems related to children. The vitality of the home in the upbringing of children cannot be overemphasized and hence it will be the interest of this study to unravel these socio-economic problems within the family that trigger delinquent tendencies on juveniles and their subsequent committal to approved schools. This will in a way help us to determine if these institutionalized juvenile delinquents need care, protection and discipline.

Child care and discipline traditionally rested upon the family. An understanding of why the family can no longer carry out this function effectively will also illuminate the reasons as to why the children have to be committed to institutions.

There is a feeling among scholars on studies related to the family that although the extended family traditionally played the role of caring for the children, there has been a decline in performance of this role (Onyango 1984:36)²². This has been attributed to the disintegration of the family which has in turn been seen as caused by social change.

There is ample evidence that urbanisation has disintegrated the family. Most abandoned, neglected and abused children are found in urban areas. Migration has led to single parenthood, unemployment and all this has led to suffering of children who cannot be offered food, shelter and even clothing. Such circumstances over which the children have no control are more

likely to drive them to delinquent activities. Muga (1975:142)²³ found that there was a higher preponderance of juvenile delinquents in urban areas as compared to the rural areas. Ndunda (1978:34)²⁴ found out that younger delinquents sent to approved schools are a result of domestic neglect and minor offences (petty theft, running away from home and general truancy) or because there was nowhere better for them to go. One may note that in such cases there is little criminality in the sense of any serious or largely irredeemable condition.

However, we would contend that disintegration of the family alone is not a reason adequate enough to explain delinquency or justify institutionalization. So, we can hypothesise that family support only becomes crucial when the children are not able to get adequate means of subsistence. So, we can assert that juveniles who lack family support are more likely to drift to delinquency if they came from poor backgrounds.

As a result, we can hypothesise that family disintegration will lead to delinquency and subsequent institutional committal for the juveniles who come from low income households.

2.3. Institutional Treatment and Rehabilitation

Correctional techniques are many and varied, but by virtue of the way their goals are defined, it is clear that most of them tend towards the rehabilitative ideal (West 1968:48)²⁵. However there is not always agreement regarding which of the various programmes and process to which an inmate maybe subjected should be labelled

'treatment'.

It has been suggested that correctional agencies should develop techniques relevant to different types of offenders, not only to cure delinquency but also to aid the offender in the process of maturation (Giallombardo 1972:488)²⁶. However it is questionable whether every delinquent will respond favourably to the type of treatment prescribed for him or her. As Shain and Rawlin (1972:16)²⁷ suggest, some delinquents will not respond, either because they are incapable of understanding themselves or simply because they lack the potential.

Thus in view of the fact that there are different types of delinquents, the main problem hence becomes how best to organize an institution to cater for varying needs of each child (Milner 1969:34)²⁸. Various methods of treatment have been found necessary and have been utilized with varying degree of success. How successful efforts at changing offenders are or have been is currently a major issue. While some evaluative studies report success, a number of writers who have attempted to evaluate treatment efforts in general have concluded that there is little evidence to support the contention that rehabilitation programmes are successful (Lipton et al. 1975:231)²⁹. This poses some questions, such as: Who are the most likely offenders to respond to rehabilitation programmes? Is there a difference in terms of sex?

The issue of sex, especially for juvenile delinquents as shown by western scholars seems to be correlated with institutional treatment and rehabilitation success. However these scholars seem

to arrive at opposite conclusions when analyzing success of institutional treatment for male offenders on one hand and female offenders on the other. Kahn (1962:103)³⁰, Leger (1977:98)³¹ among others conclude that institutional treatment leads to some degree of improvement for juvenile male offenders. Pleune (1959:26)³², Kercher (1981:113)³³ seem to concur in their studies of institutionalized juvenile delinquents that females registered higher rehabilitation progress both in the institutional and post-institutional behaviour than their male counterparts. This study will test whether the case in Kenya is similar to that of western countries. We will therefore test whom among committed male or female juvenile offenders respond positively to rehabilitation programmes.

The old fashioned way of treating criminals and delinquents was by a strict reformatory discipline, but psychoanalytic theories suggest that an opposite approach might be effective (Polsky 1962:101)³⁴. Psychoanalysts assert that the "problem" is within a person and that he should be encouraged to think aloud upon his deepest feelings and motives while the therapists prompt him to ensure that he does not stop or wander into trivial things. The delinquents must be encouraged to play a much more active and decisive role in the solutions to their problems. This needs considerable skill and patience. Delinquents must be shown that conformity need not be stifling and that other achievements are more satisfying than delinquent acts and that they themselves are capable of choosing and reaching socially acceptable goals.

However, the above views have been questioned by scholars who point out that the delinquents' conflict is with the society and not within himself (Norval 1964:175³⁶, Allen 1965:47³⁶). Experiments have shown that treatment hence can better be applied in daily life of a small community which has been arranged on therapeutic ground. In such a community, the delinquent has a chance of learning and benefiting from their mistakes (West 1968:44³⁷, Michael 1967:110³⁸). It is further pointed out that since a delinquent must learn through experience with other people, especially of greater maturity than himself or herself, contact with the staff is expected to be relaxed and homelike. Carlos (1976:40)³⁹ and Polsky's (1972)⁴⁰ study of Hollymade (Cottage Six) showed how important it is to the proper functioning of a therapeutic community for the staff not be divided against themselves, and that everyone should have a role in the treatment effort. Miller (1964:21)⁴¹ says that the applicability of the treatment is limited to small communities so that where an institution is a large one it would be impossible to give the enormous amount of time and attention to each case as the treatment requires.

Treatment of delinquents does not stop at correcting their behaviour but also enables them to learn skills which might enable them find jobs when they go back to the society (Carlos 1976:56)⁴². This means that attention should be given to creation of responsible and sound attitudes and interest to work and to learn specific occupations if such a long term goal is to be achieved.

As Milner (1969:56)⁴³ points out, programmes should not be primarily designed to develop skills but should also be provocational and exploratory.

Although the treatment programmes are meant to help the delinquents, it is often difficult to get all delinquents concerned conform to programme requirements. Studies done by western scholars seem to concur that the success of any type of treatment will to a large extent depend on how far the treatment programme have been complied with. West (1968:68)⁴⁴, Giallombardo (1972:38)⁴⁵, Carlos (1976:56)⁴⁶ point out that discipline and punishment becomes of crucial importance to the institutions' programme. Robinson and Gerald Smith (1971:68)⁴⁷ however note that discipline should be regarded as a means of exercising control over the individuals for the best interest of the group.

It has also been observed by Miller (1964:76)⁴⁸ that each delinquent is different and each has individual problems. Therefore forcing them to live together seems to create a group situation which must be handled in the most skillful, sensitive and imaginative way if it is to help towards better readjustment.

The above observation embodies two impositions on the institution: Firstly, the administrator is expected by the community to restrain the delinquents from committing further disorderly acts affecting the community, especially while still institutionalized and after, secondly, that disciplinary measures will be applied on the basis of an understanding as to why the individual delinquent did not conform at a particular time.

Further, it has been observed that in the long run, only the delinquent can solve the delinquency problem. The institution can only offer support and new directions to counteract the pressures that have made him or her a delinquent (Shields 1962:138)⁴⁹. This is in contrast with some institutions especially in developing countries in which delinquents are encouraged to be passive (Ndunda 1978:33)⁵⁰.

2.4 Application of rehabilitation and correctional treatment in approved schools

The schools strive to:

- 1) Provide social rehabilitation and training of children by way of discipline and counselling so as to improve them.
- 2) Provide spiritual direction for the children by introducing religious instructions by different denominations through chaplaincy work.
- 3) Ensure continuous good health of the children through balanced diet and hygienic living conditions and also regular physical exercise.
- 4) Equip the children with useful skills which will help them be economically independent and self-reliant on their return to society. For example, training in carpentry, blacksmithing, tailoring, agriculture and animal husbandry, tractor driving etc.
- 5) Provide academic training to the children and to ensure that their committal to approved schools does not affect their

schooling. There are academic classes from standard one upto standard eight at all schools, and a secondary school at Kabete.

- 6) Assist the children who pass well in K.C.P.E. obtain admission to normal secondary schools, or employment after obtaining the necessary trade test certificates upon attaining the age of 18 years (Muturi 1986:10)⁵¹.

These are positive objectives and generally acceptable, but the question still remains as to how far Approved schools in Kenya has adopted those methods in correcting and reforming juvenile delinquents.

Through annual reports, administrators in these institutions regard the work of approved schools as successful and in fact have put up recommendations for their increase (Saikwa 1975:40)⁵². They view these institutions as rehabilitating or reforming the inmates into law abiding citizens (Singanyi 1986:103⁵³, Mbevi 1979:78⁵⁴). This is in contrast with the studies done by western scholars who view these institutions as inefficient and advocate for community based treatment centres (Gill 1966:26⁵⁵, Liverpool 1974:231⁵⁶, Allan 1974:58⁵⁷), among others. Under such a system the inmate does not get institutionalized but is treated while staying at his/her home. They reckon that mere exposure to work routine or to the discipline of a school programme is not certain to be helpful. Tutt(1974:211)⁵⁸ reported that the type of person received in approved schools in Britain showed a disquieting

change, rejecting opportunity for free education and living almost completely, and are only anxious to escape and enjoy complete freedom of action. Such schools play a crucial role in deviancy amplification and deviant identities: a view that corroborates studies done in Kenya by Onyango (1983:20⁵⁹, Sitati 1979:9⁶⁰ and Mushanga 1976:6⁶¹). This study seeks to establish the predominant view as far as short term and long term effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes offered in approved schools in Kenya are concerned.

The institutional training of the delinquent offers him an environment which combines control, protection and a totality of treatment aimed at the total eradication of his delinquency (Buluma 1974:62⁶², Murage 1978:32⁶³). This is supposed to be reflected in the training programmes and objectives pursued in each of the institutions. Social Research Studies argue that the intended targets of the programmes are the juvenile delinquents themselves. Liverpool (1974:33)⁶⁴ reasons that the anticipations, beliefs and opinions of the inmates will have some effect on the success or failure of these programmes. Norval (1964:175)⁶⁵ advocates for voluntary rehabilitation which he labels "facilitative". So it will be the interest of the study to find out how approved schools' inmates view these rehabilitation programmes, and how they define their placement.

Normally, the approved schools receive boys and girls who fail in other measures or are considered to require long education because of persistent delinquency. The court has to see that the

approved school where the juvenile is to be committed is proper for his maintenance, education and training (Children and Young Persons Act, 1963:Cap 141)⁶⁶. During committal, Robinson and Gerald Smith (1971:301)⁶⁷ remark that effort should be made to understand the personality, history, knowledge of family backgrounds and attitudes of each child and the type of training offered should be according to the diagnosed characteristics of each particular individual. This noble objective requires qualified personnel to deal with individual case work.

Studies done in developed countries highlight the need of having qualified and quality staff in correctional institutions (Milner 1969:98⁶⁸, Tutt 1974:68⁶⁹, Kvaraceus 1964:218⁷⁰), as this determines the success or failure of correctional training. So it will be important to compare and see how far the issue of qualification and quality among the staff members who are the programme implementers is put into account in Kenya. As Cressey (1955:116)⁷¹ points out, in some instances rehabilitation of delinquents is left by default to people who are relatively unaware of sociological theory and implications of treatment. So it is useful to find out, whether according to importance of sociological contributions to the understanding of delinquent behavior, some of these contributions have been systematically utilized for purpose of rehabilitation in Kenya.

In view of the foregoing, it should be pointed out that rehabilitation should be viewed as a delinquent boy's/girl's objective (inmate goal) and not staff goal. It is not the behaviour

of the delinquent child in the institution that really matters, but his/her behaviour when he/she goes out into the world again. This is because ex-offenders are liable to be affected by the kind of environment they live in after they leave the institutions. This view is supported by western scholars who acknowledge that even if best is done by way of treatment of offenders during committal period, something must be done on the follow-up basis after an offender is discharged from an institution (Carlos 1976:149⁷², West 1968:737⁷³, Tutt 1974:156⁷⁴). They emphasize that the youngsters have to be re-established in the community and point out that this is the most crucial phase of rehabilitation.

In Kenya, approved schools together with the childrens' department are supposed to settle ex-inmates of approved schools and keep in touch with them for a period of two years. This is keeping in line with the aim of treatment programmes which is to teach the child skills which will enable him earn a living when he/she leaves approved schools (Cap 141 part iv)⁷⁵. However, unlike in the western countries, in Kenya statistics are not available to show the success achieved by the approved schools' ex-inmates in resettling back in the society. This study seeks to establish the long term effectiveness of rehabilitation programmes in approved schools' ex-inmates by testing whether under unaided self control and free environment they do revert to crime. In other words how many recidivate ?

In concluding this discussion, we can say in summary and by way of hypothesizing that:

Rehabilitation success will depend on

- (a) Gender
- (b) Attitudes towards rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools.

2.5 Positive and negative effects of institutional confinement on juvenile delinquents.

Effects of institutionalization on juveniles seem to emerge in a dual pattern of both positive and negative effects as bequeathed to us by the previous studies. Some scholars, among them Clifford (1974:56)⁷⁶, Ndunda (1978:18)⁷⁷, Khan (1963:120)⁷⁸, view juvenile institutional confinement effects rather positively and as a remedy to the problems that beset juvenile delinquents in society. On the other hand, there are scholars like Mushanga (1976)⁷⁹, Onyango (1983:20)⁸⁰, Lubeck and Emphey (1969:104)⁸¹, Goldfarb (1952:62)⁸² among others, who view institutional confinement effects as having deleterious effects on committed juveniles' development.

Those who view institutional confinement positively seem to suggest that committed juveniles' well being is enhanced and that their confinement provides them with what their original environment could not have rendered (Pleune 1959:34)⁸³. One can appreciate the implied positive effect of institutionalization particularly if it is viewed in line with major socio-economic factors pointed out earlier which might have a bearing on delinquency and institutional committal. If juveniles can get from

the institutions certain basic requirements which lacked in their places of origin and might have contributed to delinquent behaviour. then institutionalization would seem to provide a better alternative. but this view needs to be treated with caution. This is because there are other scholars who view institutional confinement effects rather negatively.

Brahman (1980:62)⁸⁴ confirmed that confining offenders in institutions for long periods of time leads to escapism. Mushanga (1976:6)⁸⁵ and Onyango (1983:20)⁸⁶ point out that such institutions can provide fertile grounds for young offenders to sink deeper into criminality. Goldfarb (1952:36)⁸⁷ found out that institutionalized children present a history of aggressiveness, destructible and uncontrolled behaviour. Normal patterns of anxiety and self inhibition are not developed. Human relationships and identifications are limited and relations are weak and easily broken. A study done on street children in Nairobi found out that 105 of them had been once or twice in institutions (ANNPCAN 1984:78)⁸⁸.

Another negative effect of institutional confinement that has been suggested is lack of family intimate relationship. Goldfarb 1952:201⁸⁹ concluded that the institutionalized children seem to be abandoned by members of their family. Tibbits (1954:113)⁹⁰ see institutionalization as a process of depersonalization especially given that children in such institutions are subject to patterned ways of living where everyone does the same thing to an extent that there is no room for one to assert one's individuality or

discretion. The institutionalized children are further portrayed as isolated from the rest of society, suffering from maternal deprivation, damage of one's dignity and loss of emotional attachment (Bolwby 1954:113)⁹¹. It may be true that family relationships either improve or decline with institutionalization. However no study in Kenya has been done to verify this and the major question still remains as to whether these institutions are shaping or harming the juvenile delinquents.

Given these differing views, one may not be able to assert categorically that institutional confinement invariably has either negative or positive effects on juveniles. It can be concluded that it would be a little presumptuous for one to point at one view as definitely true, to the exclusion of others.

In order to strike a balance between these two views, we can propose that a truly objective assessment of positive or negative effects of institutional confinement must take into consideration the juvenile delinquents overall environment prior to institutionalization in an attempt to see how they adjust.

2.6 Theoretical framework

Rehabilitation theory ideally is based on the assumption that those forces that triggered the crime are destroyed and the criminal can return to society with socially desirable behaviour patterns (Barnes 1963:23)⁹². A simplification of this concept is "hate the crime but love the criminal", which is a phrase coined from the Christian view of God hating the sin but loving the sinner.

Those who advocate punishment as rehabilitation suggest that the causes of crime can be ascertained and removed and that punishment should be related to the needs of the individuals rather than to the enormity of the crime (Leinward 1972:493, Muchura 1986:7704)

The most popular theory of punishment is based on the hedonistic psychology. This theory holds that man commits crime in pursuit of pleasure as opposed to pain, hence it is justified to make him suffer for his crime. It is as if to say "the only purpose for which power can rightly be exercised over any member of a civilised community against his will is to prevent harm to others. His own good, either physical or moral is not a warrant" (Denitz 1967:21)95

The punishment may take any of the four forms: Removal from the group by death, exile or imprisonment, physical torture, social degradation and financial loss. These are all punitive reactions to crime (Sutherland 1970:303)96

Punishment is meant to serve two functions, first, by inflicting pain on the criminal it is believed that he will reform and not take part in such behaviour in future. It is to teach him not to misuse his free will and to learn that crime does not pay. Secondly, punishment is believed to scare away potential criminals and make them abstain from criminal behaviour. So at first level, it is to cure criminals and in the second, it is to prevent crime.

This hedonistic theory is still very popular in the administration of justice particularly in the developing countries.

It is however bitterly opposed by psychologists and sociologists. They offer alternative theories of treatment for criminals. They argue that inflicting pain or suffering on the criminal does not reform him . It may only make him worse. It is on this understanding that treatment programmes for juvenile delinquents are based. Two theories are then developed; the clinical and group relations theories. It is upon these two theories that our study is based.

Psychologists who believe that crime commission is a product and function of certain psychiatric defects in the personality favour a clinical approach in dealing with criminals. Each criminal case is to be given a "diagnosis" and the underlying psychological causes analyzed and treated (Vold 1958:143)⁹⁷. This is to be given on individual basis without bothering about social aspect of crime. It is done the same way a doctor treats a patient with for example malaria or any other disease. Once the causes are known by diagnosis the "medicine" is administered to the criminal (Odegi 1978:15)⁹⁸. This is referred to as individualistic psychiatric theory of criminality (Neumeyer 1961:313)⁹⁹. It is believed that it is the personality traits of an individual that causes crime and it is the personality that is to be dealt with. The essence of such treatment is that the internal emotional maladjustment in the personality of the criminal must first be eliminated by individual psychiatric treatment before the criminality in the "patient" can disappear.

More recent discoveries in the field of criminology and

penology reveal that personality is determined by the social environment. It is "situation determined" rather than "trait determined" (Vold 1958:266)¹⁰⁰. This is a paradigm developed out of a Sutherland's "Differential association" theory of crime (Cressey 1972:488)¹⁰¹. The criminal behaviour is a product and a function of his group relationships. To reform the criminal there is need to reform the group as a whole. His relationship with the law abiding elements must be promoted and that with pro-criminal elements discouraged. Treatment is to aim at the group and not at the individual in isolation. This group relations theory is quite reminiscent of the positive criminology.

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CHAPTER THREE.

METHODOLOGY.

3.1 Study Sites or Locations.

The study was conducted within selected approved schools scattered in different parts of Kenya viz: Kabete, Likoni, Othaya and Kirigiti:

(1) Kabete approved school.

Kabete approved school is located 15 kms west of Nairobi city. It is one of the oldest approved schools in the country mainly catering for senior male children who are over 13 years. The school provides both academic and vocational training for these children. At the time of the interview, this school had a population of 137 boys, although the school experienced abscondment of many children. The children claimed that the conditions at the school was too bad for their learning. From simple observation, it was evident that the institution lacked most amenities and those available were dilapidated. Most vocational training activities were at a standstill due to lack of resources. Both the staff and students reported lack of motivation due to unsupportive attitude from the parent ministry.

(2) Likoni approved school.

This school is situated at Likoni which is within Mombasa Municipality. It also caters for senior male children and provides them with both academic and vocational training. At the time of

the study the school had a population of 94 boys. The physical facilities especially buildings were relatively better, though not fairly well maintained. Some vocational training programmes were found to be inoperational due to lack of technical instructors.

(3) Othaya approved School

Othaya approved school is in Nyeri District and located about a kilometre from Othaya town. It caters for the junior male children who are under 14 years, and provides them with only academic training. At the time of the study it had a population of 112 boys. From observation, it was evident that the school had very limited facilities which needed repairs very badly. Most of the boys at the school did not like the school and reported mistreatment by the teachers.

(4) Kirigiti approved school

This is the only approved school that caters for female children in the country. It is 30 kms off Kiambu road. At the time of study it had 157 girls at the school taking both academic and vocational courses. As other approved schools cited above, it was overcrowded and had very limited facilities, most of which needed repairs.

3.2 Sampling procedure.

This was mainly a survey. Units of study and analysis were the inmates and ex-inmates of approved schools in Kenya. Approved

the study the school had a population of 94 boys. The physical facilities especially buildings were relatively better, though not fairly well maintained. Some vocational training programmes were found to be inoperational due to lack of technical instructors.

(3) Othaya approved School.

Othaya approved school is in Nyeri District and located about a kilometre from Othaya town. It caters for the junior male children who are under 14 years, and provides them with only academic training. At the time of the study it had a population of 112 boys. From observation, it was evident that the school had very limited facilities which needed repairs very badly. Most of the boys at the school did not like the school and reported mistreatment by the teachers.

(4) Kirigiti approved school

This is the only approved school that caters for female children in the country. It is 30 kms off Kiambu road. At the time of study it had 157 girls at the school taking both academic and vocational courses. As other approved schools cited above, it was overcrowded and had very limited facilities, most of which needed repairs.

3.2 Sampling procedure

This was mainly a survey. Units of study and analysis were the inmates and ex-inmates of approved schools in Kenya. Approved

schools are for delinquent children who are committed there so as to be rehabilitated.

The inmates are those delinquent children who had been committed to approved schools. Only delinquent children who had spent more than one year were included in the sample. This was considered to be a reasonable period of time in assessing rehabilitation trends made by the inmates while in these schools and the institutionalization impact.

In Kenya there are 10 approved schools which are registered with children's department (Ministry of Home Affairs). They are scattered in different parts of Kenya. All approved schools were included in the sample. Sampling was done at two levels. Because it was hard to visit all the schools, a sample of 4 was selected and further sampling was done to get the respondents in the chosen schools.

To get the 4 schools, the only girls' approved school was purposively selected so as to be included in the sample. The rationale for including the only girls' school in our sample was based on our second hypothesis that rehabilitation success depended on gender. Stratified random sampling was used to get the boys schools. We first divided the boys' schools into two strata, one for junior boys schools and the other for seniors and then simple random sampling was done to select 2 schools for senior boys and one for junior boys from each stratum.

To get the respondents in the schools simple random sampling was done. In every school a sample of $\frac{2}{3}$ of all delinquent

children who had spent more than one year in the schools was taken. A sampling frame was prepared using their registers where K was determined and every Kth item was included in the sample. Administrators in these schools were the key informants.

The selected ex-inmates were individual former juvenile offenders who had been discharged from approved schools between January 1987 to December 1988 having completed their committal periods satisfactorily. The rationale for the choice of the periods were:

- 1) To allow for at least 5 years time lapse between the time of completion and the time of the survey. It would enable one to test the long term effectiveness of rehabilitation so many years after the ex-inmates were discharged from the approved schools.
- 2) To make it possible to conduct a follow-up as records indicating home particulars were still traceable at Getathuru reception and discharge centre.

The records obtained at Getathuru reception and discharge centre showed 47 such dischargees for the selected period. A sample of 16 cases were selected using convenient sampling procedure. The original sample was 25, however due to field problems outlined below, only 16 out 47 (34 %) cases were actually traced, found and interviewed.

In addition, it was imperative to select a sample of non-delinquents as a control group. The rationale for having a control group was to make it possible for us to make comparisons with the

experimental group and see the actual differences between the socio-economic backgrounds of the delinquent and non-delinquent children in testing our first hypothesis. In selecting the control group 2 schools for normal children were purposively selected, viz Mathare IVA primary school and Ngecha primary school from Nairobi and Kiambu respectively. The decision was based on the fact that majority of the committed juvenile delinquents came from the slums and Eastlands part of Nairobi and Kiambu district. The choice was based on the premise that children in these two schools shared almost typically similar home environments with majority of those in approved schools prior to their committal. A simple random sampling was used to select 120 respondents as was the case with the experimental group.

3.3 Problems encountered in the field

A number of problems were encountered in the course of this study.

At the beginning, general problems arose due to the fact that some of the administrators and children in approved schools were suspicious of the interview as well as the motive behind the interview. After explaining and having personal discussions with them, this matter was completely solved and we received every cooperation. A lot of suspicion was especially more noticeable when approved schools' ex-inmates were being interviewed. This was more so with the recidivists. One was especially dealing with criminals and in any case many of them were suspicious as to their fate after

the interview. Interviews therefore took the form of discussion and interview schedule was used with a lot of care. Supplementary questions were also used.

Of a different nature was language problem. Majority of the children in approved schools could not understand English properly. So questions had to be translated in a language a respondent could understand properly. This was in most cases Kiswahili. So we found ourselves spending a lot of time with a respondent.

The task of follow-up for the approved schools' ex-inmates was a task of no mean proportions. Locating the respondents was sometimes difficult. Home particulars were available but these were not precise enough. This meant a lot of travelling before one could locate a respondent and sometimes respondents were missed altogether. This was a time consuming exercise and extra time had to be given for trace-ups.

3.4 Methods of data collection

Different methods of data collection were used in this study, notably interviews and observations, while some secondary data was examined. The primary source of data was the respondents themselves.

(i) Interview schedule

The interview schedule was the major tool for data collection. This method was selected because most of the respondents were not competent enough to respond to written questions. This method was

found advantageous because it gave room for checking any misunderstanding of a question, probing and also provided an opportunity for making observations. The interview schedule had both open and closed ended questions to counter the weakness of using one type. The questions mainly revolved on areas considered as cardinal to the research. These questions provided the basis for testing of the research hypotheses. There were four sections: for members of staff, approved schools' inmates, control group and for approved schools' ex-inmates. (See Appendix).

(ii) Observation-

In this study observations were simultaneously carried out with other methods. The choice of this method was based on the fact that given the exploratory nature of this study, the method would facilitate observation of significant features of approved schools which were little known. It would allow for first hand perception of what actually takes place in the schools rather than relying entirely on questions.

There were several things that did not need any questioning such as the physical set-up of the schools, daily activities, type of clothes worn and the state of the physical structures in schools, among others.

(iii) Secondary data

Secondary data refers to the documented information available about the subject of the research. In the institutions, personal files for the interviewed children were reviewed to countercheck on

the information given earlier. The personal files contained personal information i.e age, sex, place of birth, court proceedings and committal warrants, progress reports and monthly reports among, others (case history). This supplemented the information they gave.

(iv) Key informant interviews

Interviews were conducted with certain key informants. These included officials from the childrens' department within the ministry of Home Affairs and officials working in the approved schools. These interviews were both structured and unstructured. The aim of the key informant interviews was to obtain information about the management of the schools, performance and effectiveness of the schools and any other relevant information on the topic.

In cases where interviews were not structured, field notebooks were used. They were used to record any observation or information that was not covered in the questionnaire. Notebooks thus supplemented interview schedule.

3.5 Hypothesis Operationalisation.

There were three main hypotheses in this study. The operational definitions of the key variables of the hypotheses form the subject of this section.

H:1 Low socio-economic status at home leads to a high frequency of juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to approved schools.

Independent variable in H₁ is low socio-economic status. This was used to represent the social and economic positions that the juveniles held prior to institutionalization. Indicators for socio-economic status included family background in terms of size, occupation of parents, residence, level of formal education of parents and income generating property owned by parents.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in H₁ is 'high frequency of juvenile delinquency' and committal to approved schools. High frequency was used to refer to the rate of cases noted/recorded for juvenile delinquency. Juvenile delinquency referred to crimes committed by children who are below the age of 18 years. Only those adjudicated as juvenile delinquents by the juvenile court were considered in this study. Committal to approved schools meant the act of referring juvenile delinquents to approved schools by juvenile court.

H:2 Rehabilitation Success depends on gender, attitude toward rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools

Independent variables in H₂ are gender, attitude towards rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools.

Gender referred to the classification of inmates as either males or females.

Attitude towards rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools referred to whether inmates viewed both rehabilitation programmes and their institutional placement as

either favourable or unfavourable. This was measured by asking questions as to whether approved schools inmates:

- (i) Considered rehabilitation programmes offered as either useful not useful or useless.
- (ii) Considered their institutional placement as either fair or unfair.

Dependent variable in H₂ is rehabilitation success. This referred to the degree of help that institutional or correctional treatment achieved in restoring juvenile delinquents into socially desirable behaviour patterns. Indicators of rehabilitation success were:

- (a) How much the inmates and ex-inmates thought that the schools had helped them in becoming good people in the community through delinquency eradication.
- (b) Whether committal had brought any positive change in terms of discipline and training (vocational and academic) - for both inmates and ex-inmates.
- (c) Rate of serious disciplinary cases for example abscondment, theft, sodomy et cetera for inmates and recidivism rate for ex-inmates.
- (d) Inmates and ex-inmates aspiration level.
- (e) Observations were made on the way inmates participated in rehabilitation programmes.

H:3 Positive or negative effects of institutional confinement depends on the juvenile delinquents overall home environment prior to committal

In H₃ the independent variable is the juvenile delinquents overall home environment prior to committal. This was used to represent the general condition in the home which the children hailed from before institutionalization. This variable was represented by the following indicators: residence (where the children were staying), parental background (whether one had parents or not), Socio-economic backgrounds of the parents (i.e ownership of property and family size.

The dependent variable in H₃ is effects of institutional confinement. Variable indicators for this variable were:

- (a) Childrens' attitudes towards the school (whether life was better before or after institutionalisation); children integration in the schools as indicated by whether they would have liked to leave.

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

In analyzing the data, the following statistical tools were employed:

- (a) Descriptive statistics
- (b) Inductive or inferential statistics.

In this study, both the descriptive and inferential statistics were calculated by means of a computer. Specifically the study used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programme in computing all the statistics.

- (a) Descriptive Statistics.

These statistical tools perform the first function of

statistics - that is to say, they afford condensed and summarized description of units with regard to enumerable or measurable characteristics (Hagood, 1969:146)¹. They are thus summarising measures which are used to condense raw data into forms which supply useful information efficiently. Descriptive statistics that were used in the study include mean, mode and range.

(b) Inferential Statistics

In contrast to descriptive statistics, inferential statistics deal with methods of drawing conclusions or making decision about population on the basis of samples. The basic ideas of descriptive statistics prepare the way for inference, hence have been outlined first.

The inferential statistical tools that were used by this study

- were:
- (i) Cross tabulation ✓
 - (ii) Measures of association ✓
 - (iii) Chi-square ✓
 - (iv) Regression analysis ✓

(i) Crosstabulations

Is a joint frequency distribution of cases according to two or more classifactory variables (Nie et al. 1970 : 218)². Such tables simultaneously tabulate the sample on two or more separate dimensions in such a way that the reader can see the interrelationships between respondents' score on one variable (dimension) and his score on a second (and/or third variables) (Prewitt, 1975:203)³.

These joints frequency distributions can be summarised by a number of measures of association such as contingency co-efficient (c) and Phi, and can be analyzed by certain tests of significance, such as Chi-square test. In this study, the above mentioned measures of association and the Chi-square test of significance were used to analyse and to summarise these tables which were employed in chapter four and five.

(ii) Measures of Association.

A measure of association indicates how strongly two variables are related to each other. Such a statistic indicates to what extent characteristics of one variable and characteristics of another variable occur together. The following is a brief summary of the measures of association that were used in this study:

(a) Contingency Coefficient (c).

This is a measure of association which is based upon Chi-square. It is denoted by C. it can be used with a table of any size, has a minimum value of zero but the maximum value it can take depends on the size of the table (Nie et al 1970: 225)⁴. The contingency coefficient is used when both variables in the table are measured at nominal level.

(b) PHI (ϕ)

This measure of association is also based on Chi-square and hence is appropriate for variables measured at nominal level scale.

PHI (ϕ) takes on the value of 0 when no relationship exists, and the value of 9 when the variables are perfectly related i.e all cases fall just on the main or the minor diagonal (Nie et al, 1970: 224)⁶. It is most appropriate for a 2 x 2 table.

(iii) Chi - Square (χ^2)

This is a test of statistical significance which helps us to determine whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables. It measures whether something observed differs significantly from something expected (chance).

The formula for χ^2 is

$$\sum \chi^2 = \frac{(\text{Observed} - \text{Expected frequency})^2}{\text{Expected frequency}}$$

Chi-square test of significance assures that both variables in the table are measured at nominal level. This condition was ensured throughout the study. Moreover, the risk of getting a chance finding was maintained at 0.05 (5%) level. Consequently, any hypothesis was accepted as a true finding at or beyond the 95% level of confidence or certainty.

(iv) Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is used to predict the exact value of one variable from knowledge of another variable (~~Predictor~~ ^(Independent) ✓). It helps to answer the question of how much an increment in one variable produces an increment in another (dependent) variable (Prewitt 1974:36)⁶

The study applied two closely related techniques of regression analysis, namely multiple regression and stepwise regression.

Multiple regression is an extension of the bivariate correlation coefficient to multivariate analysis. It is a general statistical technique through which one analyses the relationship between a dependent variable and a set of independent variables. It allows the researcher to study the linear relationships between a set of independent variables and a dependent variable while taking into account the interrelationships among the independent variables (Nie et al, 1970:8)⁷

Stepwise regression is very similar to multiple regression. It allows a researcher to determine from among the set of independent variables (predictors) that explains the dependent variable. Through the application of stepwise regression, the study was able to determine the individual contribution of each predictor (in explaining the dependent variable) while taking into account interrelationships among the predictors.

The two techniques are only appropriate when the variables have been measured at or above the interval scale. For this reason, the study made use of dummy variables where appropriate, in order to make use of regression analysis even where variables were measured at nominal level scale. More details on transformation of nominal scale variables into dummy variables have been given in the relevant section of this thesis in chapter five.

Chapter 3 references

1. Hagood, J.M. 1969. Statistics Of Sociologists. New York: Columbia University Press. P.146
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3. Prewitt, K. 1974. "Introduction To Research Methodology; East African Applications" (Occasional paper No. 10) U.O.N. (I.D.S), P.203.
4. Nie et al. Op. Cit. P.225.
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7. Nie et al. Op. Cit. P.8.

CHAPTER FOUR.

DATA PRESENTATION AND DESCRIPTION

This chapter is devoted to the presentation and discussion of the findings of the study, using descriptive statistics, such as measures of central tendency which include mean, mode and median. Simple tables and percentages are also used to make the discussion more elaborate. Rigorous analysis of data and testing of hypothesis will be the subject of the next chapter.

4.1.1 MEMBERS OF STAFF

There were 22 staff members who were interviewed in total. Seven (7) from Kabete, 4 from Othaya, 6 from Likoni and 5 from Kirigiti approved schools.

4.1.2 Personal background

Out of the 22 respondents interviewed, 13 were males while 9 were females. Their ethnic background was, 12 Kikuyus, 5 Luos, 3 Merus, 1 Kisii and 1 Luhya. Eighteen (18) respondents were married while only 4 were single.

Five (5) were teachers, 6 housemasters, 6 housemistresses, 4 managers and 1 catechist.

Their education background is as shown in table 1 below.

Table 1: Members of staff's education level.

Education level

Designation	K.J.S.E.	K.C.E./E.A.C.E.	K.A.C.E.	Diploma	Degree
Teachers		3	2		
Housemasters	3	3			
Housemistresses	4	1		1	
Managers		2			2
Catechists	1				
Total	8	9	2	1	2

Table 1 shows that most of the staff members had "0" level education and below. The study found out that out of the 22 respondents, only 2 managers and 1 housemistress had professional training in social work; a field related to their work. All the 5 teachers had undergone training. Surprisingly, out of the 12 housemasters and housemistresses who in most cases act as surrogate parents in approved schools, only one respondent had a diploma in social work. This negates what was pointed out in the literature to the effect that quality and qualified staff is a critical prerequisite to the success of correctional training (Kvaraceus 1964:132¹, Milner 1969:98²). And if we are to look at rehabilitation from that point of view, then we must admit that in Kenya we are still along way to go. Most of the staff members are of doubtful educational and professional backgrounds.

The 11 untrained housemasters and housemistresses had only attended a 3 months' course in basic social development. This

shows that such respondents are only barely equipped to handle the challenging task of rehabilitating juvenile delinquents. They are basically dealing with a situation they neither understand well nor can tackle well. The study also found out that there has never been any refresher courses or seminars organized and attended by the staff members to enable them learn current rehabilitation methods. No wonder it was observed that professionalism in terms of care was extremely lacking while incidences of insensitivity and hostility to children were observed.

4.1.3 Staff attitude towards inmate and perception of the schools.

When the staff members were asked to state their attitude towards inmates, 18 out of 22 stated that they liked them very much. This was contrary to our observation made above on their hostility and insensitivity towards them. Only 4 respondents were neutral, while none said that he/she disliked them.

When further asked whether approved schools were beneficial or harmful to delinquent children, 12 maintained that they were beneficial since they train delinquents to be law abiding and offer academic and vocational training. This is contrary to our observation that some of the delinquent children were apathetic to learning while some of the vocational training activities were at a standstill. Six respondents who considered these schools to be harmful gave reasons such as, they amplify deviancy (2 out of 6) and tend to harden these delinquents (4 out 6). Four respondents took a neutral stand.

4.1.4 Evaluation of rehabilitation programmes

The study sought to know members of staff views concerning rehabilitation programmes implemented in approved schools. When asked whether rehabilitation programmes were useful or not, 9 respondents stated that they were very useful, 4 said that they were useful, while 9 felt that they were not useful. Those who said that the programmes were useful felt that approved schools help inmates change their bad behaviour while at the same time impart skills to enable them be self-reliant once they are discharged. Those who thought that the programmes were not useful cited reasons to do with the inadequacy of facilities and capital which hampered proper implementation of the programmes. Those who thought that the programmes were useful in most cases said that the attitude of inmates towards these programmes was positive and thought that they were of much benefit. Those who thought that these programmes were not useful felt that the inmates had a negative attitude towards the programmes and derived very little benefit.

When further asked whether there were enough facilities/resources to implement these programmes, all the 22 respondents felt that they were not enough or were inadequate. They cited factors such as the inadequacy of personnel, low motivation among staff members due to lack of cooperation from the parent ministry which was manifested through, poor salaries and terms of service plus lack of promotion, and dilapidated vocational training facilities due to inadequate capital. Fifteen respondents

also complained that lack of classification of schools according to different cases committed to each one, compounded their rehabilitation efforts as mixing of inmates made it very possible to learn delinquent tendencies from one another.

Such problems cited above made 16 out of 22 respondents state that the system of rehabilitation of delinquents in approved schools is not effective as it is. When further asked to recommend some changes which they felt were necessary if the system is to meet its goal better, several recommendations were suggested as shown in table 2 below.

Table 2: Suggested recommendations by the staff.

Changes	Respondents No
Increase staff salaries to motivate them	8
More capital to revitalize facilities	5
Increase the personnel number	3
Classify schools according to delinquent cases	4
Further training for the personnel	2
Total	22

Table 2 shows that most (8) of the respondents felt that staff members have to be properly remunerated if the system of rehabilitation is to achieve its desired goal. Five respondents felt that lack of capital was a major handicap and that more capital would mean more facilities in academic, vocational and recreational fields. Three respondents suggested the increase of personnel. 4 suggested the classification of the existing schools

in accordance with delinquent cases to avoid contamination and it suggested that personnel should be given further training so as to effectively handle the task of rehabilitation.

4.2.0 INDIVIDUAL ATTRIBUTES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS IN APPROVED SCHOOLS

As stated before, the 120 respondents interviewed were from four approved schools in Kenya.

This section seeks to shed some light on the individual attributes of the interviewed juvenile delinquents, some of the major attributes as sex, age, religion, place of birth and residential area are discussed here.

Of the total sample of 120 cases, 50 % were males while the rest 50 % were females. Age ranged from 11 to 18 years with a mean of 15.5 years. However the modal age was 16 years.

4.2.1 Place of birth of the respondents

Among the interviewed juvenile delinquents, 32.6 % were born in Nairobi, 20.7 % in Kiambu and 10.7 % in Murang'a. The other districts had only 26 %, with each being represented by only 5 or less delinquent children. 10 % of the delinquent children could not tell about their place of birth. The findings support the casual observation made in the field that the majority of delinquent children were born in Nairobi and areas neighbouring Nairobi. The findings supports Onyango's (1991:14)³ contention that Nairobi leads in the list of towns with many delinquent

children.

4.2.2 Religion

The majority (92.5 %) of delinquent children were of Christian faith and only 7.5 % were muslims.

4.2.3 Ethnic background

From the study's findings 46.7 % of the respondents were Kikuyus, 15 % were Kambas, 11.7 % were Luos and 9.2 % were Merus. The rest of the ethnic groups were represented by less than 10 delinquent children as shown in the table below.

Table 3. Ethnic background of the interviewed juvenile delinquents

Ethnic background	N	%
Kikuyus	56	46.7
Kambas	18	15.0
Luos	14	11.7
Merus	11	9.2
Kisiis	6	5.0
Luhyas	8	6.7
Somalis	3	2.5
Taitas	2	1.7
Maasai	1	0.8
Turkana	1	0.8
Total	120	100

4.2.4 Residential areas in terms of rural or urban locations.

The study attempted to find out whether a delinquent child came from rural area or from an urban area. Sixty four per cent (64 %) claimed that they came from urban areas, with 59.2 % of them coming from Nairobi. Only 34 % came from the rural areas, with 15.4 % from Kiambu, (9.7 % from Murang'a, while the rest of the districts had 8.9 %. The findings support Muga's (1975:142)⁴ contention that children in urban areas are more prone to delinquency as compared to their counterparts in the rural areas.

An attempt was made to find out which parts or estates of Nairobi the 59.2 % juvenile delinquents came from. In Nairobi there are estates for the low, middle and high income earners and the slums for the lowest or zero income earners. The study found out that 62 % of the respondents came from the slums such as Mathare (36.4 %), Kibera (19.2 %), Kawangware (0.7 %) and Korogocho (5.7 %). The rest came from low income estates such as Githurai, Eastleigh, Huruma, Dandora, Shauri Moyo, Maringo and Kayole. Their residential areas suggests that their parents were low income earners or they never had any source of income. The findings thus confirms that in low income estates or slums, children are more likely to be delinquents.

4.2.5 Parental Background

Under this section aspects such as marital status, whether parents are alive or deceased, family size, socio-economic status of parents in terms of occupation, ownership of property and level

of education attained by parents are examined.

Table 4

Distribution of children with living or deceased parents

Parents alive or dead

Parents alive	N	%
Both	76	63.3
Mother only	33	27.5
Father only	8	6.7
Neither	3	2.5
Total	120	100

From Table 4 it is clear that a large proportion of the respondents had both parents (63.3 %), while only 2.5 % were orphans. Another 27.5 % reported to be having mother only and a distinct minority (6.7 %) had father only.

4.2.6 Parental Marital Status

The majority of the respondents reported to have come from broken families (50 %). Their parents were either divorced (12.5 %), separated (10 %), never married (24.2 %) or widowed (3.3 %). A significant number reported to have come from intact families where the parents were married and living together (42.5 %) as shown in table 5.

Table 5: Distribution of marital status of parents

Marital status:	N	%
Married	51	42.5
Divorced	15	12.5
Separated	12	10
Never married	29	24.2
Widowed	4	3.3
Don't know	9	7.5
Total	120	100

This corroborates Muga's (1975:121)⁵ findings which showed that out of 1,171 delinquent children, there were 691 children whose parents did not live together as man and wife with their children. The majority of them were divorced, with the rest being single parents or with one parent dead. The findings seem to confirm our own as concerning reasons for the absence of parents. A complete family that consists of a father, mother and their children is vital for development of a socially adjusted individual. This means that children from broken homes are more prone to delinquency as their families are not stable.

4.2.7 Socio-economic status of the parents of the respondents.

This section deals with the socio economic backgrounds of the parents of the children in the approved schools.

In the literature, it was hypothesized that most of the delinquent children are sons and daughters of poor people. To

verify this. data was collected on socio-economic status of parents. To measure the socio-economic status the study investigated on:-

- (a) Occupation of parents
- (b) Ownership of property
- (c) Level of education
- (d) Family size

(a) Occupation of parents

An attempt was made to determine employment status of parents as shown in table 6 below.

Table 6: Employment status of parents

Employment status	Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%
Permanent employment	27	32.1	23	21.1
Self employment	38	45.2	48	44.0
Unemployed	19	22.7	38	34.9
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had only one parent or had no parents).

While 32.1 % of the fathers were found to be in permanent employment, only 21.1 % of the mothers were in the same. Majority (78.9 %) of the mothers were either in self employment or were

unemployed. The study further tried to shed light on the respondents' parents' major occupations.

Table 7: Major occupations of parents

Occupation	Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%
Teacher	4	4.8	3	2.8
Clerical Officer	2	2.4	2	1.8
Secretary	-	-	6	5.5
Businessman/businesswoman	8	9.5	12	11.0
Farmer (Peasant)	15	17.8	27	24.8
Hawker	12	14.3	17	15.6
Casual worker	20	23.8	16	14.7
Housewife	-	-	13	11.9
Carpenter	4	4.8	-	-
Cleaner	2	2.4	3	2.8
Driver	8	9.5	-	-
Barmaid	-	-	7	6.4
Cook	3	3.6	1	0.9
Watchman	2	2.4	-	-
Messenger	1	1.2	-	-
Beggar	3	3.6	2	1.8
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had only one parent or had no parents).

Table 7 shows that peasant farming (17.8 %), hawking (14.3 %), Casual worker (23.8 %) and driver (9.5 %) were the major occupations of fathers as reported by the respondents. Only 4.8 % were teachers.

As for mothers the major occupations were peasant farming (24.8 %), hawking (15.6 %), casual workers (14.7 %) and housewives (11.9 %). Only 2.8 % were teachers, 1.8% clerical officers and 5.5 % secretaries.

An attempt to categorize parents' occupations as either wage employment or self employment showed that the self employment activities in both cases (mother and father) were dominated by peasant farming and hawking. For those whose mothers were on wage employment, the dominant occupations were barmaid (64 %) and casual workers (14.7 %). For the fathers the dominant occupation was casual workers (23.8 %) and driver (9.5 %). This supports Muga's (1975:123)⁶ findings that most of the parents of the juvenile delinquents were peasants (42 %), 33.3 % were employed, 10.7 % were prostitutes while 14 % had no occupation at all.

From the data above, based on respondents' parents' occupation, it can be logically inferred that most of the parents are low-income earners. This clearly explains the precarious socio-economic status of the families of these delinquent children.

(b) Ownership of property by parents of the respondents.

The respondents were asked about the property their parents owned. Property here includes local resources like land,

livestock. investments such as rental houses and any other resources that can enable somebody to generate some income. The responses are seen in table 8 below

Table 8: Property status of parents

Property status	N	%
Owned property	48	44.4
Did not own	60	55.6
N/A	12	N/A
Valid cases	120	100

Note: N/A (children who did not have parents or did not know whether their parents owned property)

Only 44.4 % of the respondents claimed that their parents owned property. Of those who reported that their parents owned property, most (46.3 %) only owned small pieces of land below 3 acres and 13 % owned livestock only. Only 35.2 % and 5.6 % claimed that their parents owned over 3 acres of land and rental houses respectively.

Since most parents did not own property or assets, a very high percentage were reported to rely on cheap activities like hawking and being employed as casual workers. For those who had land, they were practicing peasant farming.

Bearing in mind that a significant number of these respondents were from female headed households, this could be the reason why majority of them never owned anything. For those who had fathers,

they at least owned a small piece of land at home.

The impression that one gets from the findings in tables 6. 7 and 8 is that majority of the parents were not employed, they depended on hawking and peasant farming for subsistence and had very little property.

(c) Education background of the parents

In this study, the level of education attained was considered as a measure of socio-economic status of parents. It was found out that 28.4 % mothers and 19 % fathers were completely illiterate (had no formal schooling). Only 32.2 % mothers and 34.5 % fathers had secondary school education and above. This may explain why most of parents were unemployed. The table below shows the levels of education attained by parents of delinquent children.

Table 9: The level of formal education attained by parents

Educational level	Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%
No formal schooling	16	19.0	31	28.4
Primary	39	46.4	43	39.4
Secondary	21	25.0	34	31.3
College	6	7.1	1	0.9
University	2	2.4	-	-
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had one or no parent or did not know whether their parents had any formal education)

(d) Family size of the respondents' parents

The size of a family influences the quality of care a child gets from parents. The maximum range was 9.00 and the minimum was 1.00, giving a range of 8.00. Most of the families were found to be large, as 67 % of the families considered had 4 - 6 children. The modal size was 5 (29.6 %), as shown in the table 10 below.

Table 10: Family size of respondents' parents

Size	N	%
1	3	2.6
2	4	3.5
3	16	13.9
4	29	25.2
5	34	29.6
6	14	12.2
7	12	10.4
8	2	1.7
9	1	0.9
N/A	5	N/A
Valid cases	120	100

NB: N/A (Had no other siblings)

Goldfarb (1957:123)⁷ asserts that most of the children in childrens' homes and correctional institutions are from big families. The findings of this study seem to support Goldfarb's observation.

The study also enquired on the occupation of brothers and sisters in the family in order to assess the dependency burden per family. Thirty three point nine per cent (33.9 %) of the brothers and sisters were found to be in school, while 22.1 % were under school going age children. The study enquired about the number of employed and unemployed brothers and sisters as a way of assessing the socio-economic status of the respondent's family. The study found that 77.1 % of the sample had no employed brothers and sisters, 4.2 % had brothers who were employed as touts, 8.5 % had sisters who were employed as housemaids, 2.5 % were hawkers while 0.8 % were barmaids. The findings show that more than half of the sample could not benefit from the usual assistance that is given by one's employed brother(s) and sister(s).

4.2.8 Respondents life before committal to approved schools.

In order to have an objective assessment of the impact of the institutional confinement on juvenile delinquents, the study took into consideration the kind of life that the respondents led prior to committal.

To attain this, the study tried to find out where the respondents were staying before committal, who they were staying with, whether they were going to school before committal, reasons for not attending or dropping out of school and the major problems experienced prior to committal.

4.2.9 Where the respondents were staying

The study found that a large proportion of the respondents were staying at their places of origin (65 %), 27.5 % were staying in the streets where they ate and slept because their parents could not afford shelter for them or they had no parents. Only 7.5 % were staying elsewhere.

A large number of the respondents reported that they were staying with their mothers (51.7 %), 24.2 % stayed with both parents, while 13.3 % were staying with their fathers. Another 10.8 % reported to have been staying alone and 4.2 % with relatives. Some had step-mothers (2.5 %), others step fathers (1.7 %). This suggests consanguinal and polygynous relationships.

4.2.10 Education of respondents before committal

The study found that 39.6 % of the respondents were attending school before they were committed to approved schools. Most of the children claimed that they were attending school (60.4 %) but had dropped out. 72.8 % cited reasons for dropping out school to be lack of fees, 14.4 mentioned lack of uniforms, 1.6 % teacher beating, while 11.2 % cited other reasons such as age, sickness and bad company. The study sought to know what the respondents were doing after dropping out of school or immediately before committal. According to the findings of the study, 60.5 % were staying at home helping their mothers, 18.5 % had escaped from their homes and 21 % were loitering in the streets of Nairobi as parking boys and girls. Such children, not subjected to strict daily routine could

have easily drifted to delinquent acts.

When the respondents were asked to identify the problems they were facing prior to committal, lack of money (20 %), lack of food (20 %) and lack of clothing (19.2 %) emerged as the major problem as shown in the table below.

Table 11: Problems faced by the respondents.

Problems	N	%
Lack of money	24	20.0
Lack of food	24	20.0
Lack of clothing	23	19.2
Lack of schooling	19	15.8
Lack of shelter	13	10.8
None	17	14.2
Total	120	100

Bearing in mind the above mentioned problems, one would expect such respondents to take institutional committal as a relief to some of their problems.

Table 12: Offences committed by the respondents.

Offences	N	%
Theft of all kinds	43	35.8
Being idle and disorderly	27	22.5
Burglary	22	18.3
Vandalism	11	9.2
Arson	5	4.2
Assault	5	4.2
Others	7	5.8
Total	120	100

The table above shows that a large proportion of the respondents had been committed as a result of theft of all kinds (35.8 %), being idle and disorderly (22.5 %), burglary (18.3 %), vandalism (9.2 %), arson (4.2 %), assault (4.2 %) while 5.8 % had been committed for other offences.

When further asked to state the circumstances that surrounded the commission of the offences (42.5 %) cited "want" especially in theft related offences. This means that those respondents who resorted to such delinquent acts as theft which accounted for 43 % of the offences did so as a result of adverse socio-economic conditions. Those who cited bad company accounted for 27.5 %, rage contributed 12.5 % while 9.2 % cited other reasons. Only 8.3 % did not cite any reason that influenced them.

4.2.11 Respondents' perception and assessment of their committal to approved schools.

It was pointed out in the literature review that rehabilitation success depends on the inmate's attitude towards institutionalization, which this study sought to verify. When the respondents were asked whether they considered it fair to be committed to an approved school, a large proportion considered it unfair (63.3 %), while 30 % saw it as fair. Only 6.7 % were uncertain.

When they were further asked to state what they considered the purpose of the approved schools to be, the majority pointed out that they were meant for educational purposes for delinquent children (43.3 %). Twenty nine point two percent (29.2 %) said that they were training centres for delinquent children, while 22.5 % viewed them as punitive institutions. See the table below.

Table 13: Purpose of approved schools

Purpose	N	%
Education	52	43.3
Training centres	35	29.2
Punishment	27	22.5
Keep me out of home	2	1.7
Others	4	3.3
Total	120	100

When further asked to describe the school experiences, 68.3 % of the respondents talked of bad experiences, 25 % felt that they had good experiences while 6.7 % were unable to describe their experience.

4.2.12 Attitude towards rehabilitation programmes

It was also pointed out in the literature review that rehabilitation success depends on the inmates attitude towards rehabilitation programmes. This study sought to verify this view.

When the respondents were asked to state whether the rehabilitation programmes they were undergoing in approved schools were useful or not, 20 % said that they were very useful, while 24.2 % said they were useful. The majority (55.8 %) felt that the rehabilitation programmes they were undergoing were not useful. The majority (61.3 %) said that they were forced to undertake these rehabilitation programmes as opposed to 38.7 % who felt that they did so willingly.

Coercion can lead to inmates' alienation from rehabilitation programmes. Etzioni (1961:17)⁸ points out rightly that highly coercive institutions have little control over inmates' norms. This suggests that inmates' involvement in these rehabilitation programmes might have been as a result of conformity or adherence to the laid out school stipulations. This is essentially conditioning which is not long lasting. As earlier stated rehabilitation programmes yield good results if they are "provocational and exploratory" (Milner 1969:131)⁹. This desired

end can only be nurtured and flourish in a free atmosphere since effective performance requires some degree of voluntary cooperation, which is almost unattainable under coercion.

4.2.13 Respondents' progress in approved schools.

As pointed out in chapter 1, rehabilitation theory holds that delinquents who have been put into a state of social dysfunction by the crime they committed can be put back into the road of socially accepted modes of conduct. The study sought to know how much the respondents felt the approved schools had helped them in becoming people of good conduct in the community through delinquency eradication or through counteracting delinquency tendencies .

Table 14: Respondents' perception of the help received.

Help received in becoming people of good conduct	N	%
Very much	29	24.2
A little	22	18.3
Not at all	69	57.5
Total	120	100

Table 14 above shows that a large proportion of inmates (57.5 %) had not received any help from the schools in becoming people of good conduct in the community through counteracting delinquency tendencies. Only 24.2 % said that they had received very much help, while 18.3 % received a little help. This shows that the held belief that these schools are moulding the inmates conduct so

as to be socially acceptable is rather doubtful.

When asked whether committal to approved schools had brought any other positive changes in their own lives in terms of discipline and acquisition of training (vocational and academic), only 30.8 % answered in the affirmative. The majority (69.2 %) said that they did not receive any positive changes in their own lives, which further reinforces our above skeptical argument of approved schools role in reforming inmates.

4.2.14 Respondents' discipline in the schools

A large number of respondents reported as having been punished for more than 4 times for the last 30 days. Although the majority (38.6 %) reported to have been punished for minor school rules' infractions, some engaged in very serious offences like absconding (19.5 %), theft (12.7 %), Smoking (11.9 %), sodomy (6.8 %), Lesbianism (5.9 %) while 5.1 % engaged in other offences like fighting. The fact that some delinquent children engaged in such serious offences while in approved schools can be taken to mean that they are not responsive to rehabilitation measures.

The most common form of punishment was corporal as reported by 68.2 % respondents. This was confirmed by the researcher who witnessed incidences of unnecessary use of the cane and excessive beating of the children by subordinate staff. This is done in sheer disregard of children and Young Persons' Act (cap 141:48)¹⁰, which governs punishment procedures. Other forms of punishment were: being given extra duties (29.9 %) and deprivation of

privileges (1.9 %). The majority of the respondents considered these punishments as being severe (78.3 %), 11.7 % mild while only 10 % considered it as being fair. Perception of punishment as being severe can reduce the inmate into a state of discomfort and can further lead to alienation and hatred towards the staff.

4.2.15 Respondents' feelings towards staff members

It was pointed out in chapter two that delinquent children's contact with the staff is expected to be relaxed and homelike (Carlos 1976:40)¹¹. When asked to state their feelings towards staff members, most of the respondents were found to have unfavourable (37.5 %) and indifferent (32.5) feelings. This is not in line with Carlos observation. Only 30 % had favourable feelings towards members of staff. Owing to the fact that the children were hostile towards the staff who are socializing agents and programme implementers, their capacity to learn norms is affected negatively. This has a negative implications on rehabilitation efforts, since the work requires patience and skill in understanding the welfare and conditions conducive to the well being of the offenders.

When further asked to explain the answers, those who had indifferent and unfavourable feelings said it was because some staff members were good while others were bad (18.3 %). Some 47.5 % felt that members of staff were rigid and disliked them. Those who had favourable feelings considered their staff members to be good and helpful (31.7 %). Only 2.5 % were unable to explain.

4.2.16 What the respondents liked most in the schools

When the respondents were asked to state what they liked most in the schools, a large proportion cited education (47.5 %), 18.3 % liked vocational training, 4.2 % and 2.5 % liked friends and staff respectively. A proportion of 5 % liked everything, while a significant number never liked anything (22.5 %) as shown below.

Table 15: Distribution of what respondents liked most

What is liked most	N	%
Education	57	47.5
Vocational training	22	18.3
Friends	5	4.2
Staff	3	2.5
Everything	6	5
None	27	22.5
Total	120	100

The fact that a significant number of respondents never liked anything may serve to show the degree of apathy among inmates, which confirms our observations.

When respondents were asked to cite what they disliked most in these schools, 36.7 % cited punishment, 25 % institutional confinement, 12 % food and uniform and 10.8 % disliked staff. Only 4.2 % disliked nothing. This presents a picture of juvenile delinquents who in one way or another were dissatisfied.

4.2.17 Life in the schools

In order to know the impact of institutionalization, the study tried to compare life prior to institutionalization and life in the institutions. When asked to compare life before and life after institutionalization, 70.8 % indicated life was better before as compared to life in the schools. Only 29.2 % said life was better in the schools. The fact that 66.8 % had even thought of running away at one time or another further shows that these juvenile delinquents were not comfortable at their present state. The reasons why the 66.8 % had thought of absconding include missing parents (53 %), missing home (7.9 %), mistreatment (28.3 %) and boredom (10.8 %). This explains why a big proportion (60.8 %) would have liked to leave the schools, and 82.5 % would not recommend their delinquent siblings to join approved schools.

4.2.18 Whether approved schools are open institutions

In determining whether approved schools are open institutions, questions were asked related to the inmates interaction network with other children outside the schools and family members.

The study found out that the respondents rarely interacted with other children outside the schools (92.3 %); only when there were events like interprimary schools sports competitions and scouting movements. This limited interaction only enhances depersonalization and the stigma attached to these delinquent children by other members of the community as pointed out by Khan (1967:301)¹². This is particularly true given that 59.2 %

respondents never received visitors, despite the fact that the majority had reported as having other family members, parents and relatives. The 40.8 % who received such visitations said it was only occasionally which accounted for 61.9 %. This confirms Goldfarb's (1952:67)¹³ findings that family relationships declined with institutionalization. A significant (44 %) number never used to go home for holidays mainly due to parents non remittance of bus fare. This means fracturing of family ties so desirable for positive social and psychological development.

Benefits derived from approved schools

Table 16: Ways in which respondents benefited

Benefits	N	%
Academic training	43	35.8
Vocational training	32	26.7
Getting free provisions	15	12.5
Training in good behaviour	12	10.0
None	18	15.0
Total	120	100

The table above shows that more respondents felt that they benefited more in both academic (35.8 %) and vocational training (26.7 %) programmes. However this should be taken with caution since it was observed that some delinquent children in approved schools were indifferent to academic training especially in

classroom situations. Also, most of the vocational training programmes were at a standstill and students were sharing tools in the workshops hence impeding individual assessment. Resources to offer any meaningful training were lacking. It is shocking to find that only 10 % of the respondents felt that they benefitted through training in good behaviour, while some 15 % never benefitted in any way. This has a negative implication for their rehabilitation. The 12.5 % who benefitted through getting guaranteed provisions like food, clothing, shelter, education etc, are in most cases those who experienced extreme deprivation prior to institutionalization as pointed out earlier. For them institutionalization was a relief to some of these problems.

When respondents were asked to state the ways in which institutionalization had adversely affected them, problems of psychological nature were found to be preponderant. This is because 30.8 % were affected through isolation and loss of family ties while 16.7 % were emotionally disturbed. This might be explained by the fact that these children were institutionalized at a very tender age when they most needed familial love. This confirms Bowlby's (1954:144)¹⁴ findings that institutionalized children suffer from loss of emotional attachment. The fact that 12.5 % cited deterioration in health confirms our observation on incidences of scabies, which was rampant in the schools. 17.5 % had not been adversely affected as shown below.

Table 17: Adverse effects of institutionalization.

Adverse effects	N	%
Emotional disturbance	20	16.7
Isolation and loss of family ties	37	30.8
Health deterioration	14	12.5
None	21	17.5
Total	120	100

Table 18: Respondents recommendations as to the ways the schools can be improved.

Ways in which the schools can be improved.

Recommended ways	N	%
Improve management and administration	23	19.2
Staff to be substituted	17	14.2
Limit severe punishment	18	15.0
Improve on dietary needs	26	21.7
Improve academic and vocational training	16	13.3
Others	12	10.0
None	8	6.7
Total	120	100

The above table shows that 19.2 % of the respondents felt that the management and administration of the schools needed to be improved. 14.2 % wanted the staff to be substituted, 15 % wanted

severe punishment to be limited while 13.3 % wanted academic and vocational training to be improved.

A significant number (21.7 %) recommended for an improvement in the dietary needs while 10 % made other recommendations like frequent school outings and improvement in recreational facilities. Only 6.7 % did not give any recommendation.

4.2.19 Respondents' aspirations

Respondents' aspirations was considered to have a bearing on rehabilitation success. The study found out that with regard to their future, 15 % respondents seemed interested in continuing with their education beyond primary and secondary level. Some (10.8 %) expressed interest in entering certain professions such as medicine, teaching and farming while 24.2 % wanted to finish school and get a job. A significant number (50 %) seemed to have no knowledge of the future. This shows that these children were not in an enabling environment. The type of role models to be emulated was restricted. Thus their aspirations were quite modest. This suggests that in most cases their frame of reference was defined in terms of their own world according to the way they saw and interpreted it. The level of education of the parents and the type of work most of their parents were supposed to be engaged in as shown in the tables 7 and 9 served against the expectations of childrens' lives. It is like how Berger and Luckmann have explained the duplicity of people's socially constructed reality. This means that society is actually constructed by activity that

expresses meaning since reality is interpreted by people in their everyday activities (Abraham 1982:245)¹⁵¹

4.3.0 CONTROL GROUP

This section concentrates on the 120 respondents who formed the control group of the study. The findings of this section will be compared with those of the experimental group in testing our first hypothesis.

4.3.1 Individual attributes

Of the total sample 65 (54.2 %) were males while 55 (45.8 %) were females. Age ranged between 12 and 17 years. There were 72 Kikuyus, 13 Kambas, 15 Luos, 11 Luhyas, 4 Somalis, 3 Merus and 2 Kisiis.

4.3.2 Parental background

A large proportion of the respondents had both parents 89 (74.2 %), 28 (23.3 %) had mothers only while only 3 (2.5 %) had fathers only.

When the respondents were asked to state their parents' marital status, 80 (66.7 %) reported that their parents were married and living together, 6 (5 %) were divorced, 7 (5.8 %) were separated while 25 (20.8 %) were never married. Only 2 (1.7 %) were widowed.

4.3.3 Socio-economic status of the respondents' parents.

As with the experimental group the indicators of socio-economic background of the parents were occupation, ownership of property, level of education attained and family size.

(a) Occupation of parents

The study found that 63 (53.4 %) of the fathers were in permanent employment, 39 (33 %) were self employed and 16 (13.6 %) were unemployed. For the mothers 57 (47.9 %) were in permanent employment, 36 (30.3 %) were self employed and 26 (21.8 %) were unemployed.

Table 19: Occupation of parents.

Occupation	Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%
Accountant	3	2.5	1	0.8
Manager	2	1.7	-	-
Doctor	1	0.8	-	-
Teacher	13	11.0	9	7.6
Clerical Officer	9	7.6	14	11.8
Secretary	-	-	6	5.0
Businessman/woman	33	28.0	28	23.5
Farmer (Peasant)	13	11.0	18	15.1
Hawker	6	5.1	9	7.6
Casual worker	14	11.9	11	9.2
Housewife	-	-	13	10.9
Carpenter	7	5.9	-	-
Cleaner	2	1.7	1	0.8
Driver	6	5.1	-	-
Barmaid	-	-	3	2.5
Cook	2	1.7	2	1.7
Watchman	3	2.5	-	-
Messenger	4	3.4	4	3.4
Beggar	-	-	-	-
N/A	2	N/A	1	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had only one parent or had no parents)

Table 19 shows that teacher (11 %), businessman (28 %) and peasant farmer (11.0 %) were the major occupations of the fathers. As for mothers the major occupations were clerical officer (11.8 %), businesswoman (23.5 %) and peasant farming (15.1 %).

(b) Ownership of property by parents.

Ownership of property considered was local resources like land, livestock, investments and any other resource that can generate income. Seventy eight 78 (69.6 %) of the respondents claimed that their parents owned property, while 34 (30.4 %) did not. Of those who reported that their parents owned property, 56 (50 %) owned a piece of land over 3 acres, 29 (25.9 %) had land below 3 acres, 11 (9.8 %) had rental houses while 16 (14.3 %) had animals.

(c) Education level of the parents.

Table 20: Level of formal education attained by parents.

Education level	Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%
No formal schooling	13	11.0	23	19.3
Primary	32	27.1	36	30.3
Secondary	59	50.0	53	44.5
College	11	9.3	7	5.9
University	4	3.4	-	-
N/A	2	N/A	1	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (Children who had one or no parent or did not know

whether their parents had any formal education).

Table 20 shows that 11 % of the fathers had no formal education, 27.1 % had primary education, 50 % had secondary education, 9.3 % had college education while 3.4 % had university education. As for mothers 19.3 % had no formal education, 30.3 % had primary education, 44.5 % had secondary education while 5.9 % had attained college level education.

(d) Family size of the respondents

The maximum range of the family size was 8.00 and the minimum was 1.00, giving a range of 7.00. Most of the families considered had 1 - 4 children (77.2 %). The modal size was 4 (31.6 %)

4.4.0 RESPONDENTS DISCHARGED FROM APPROVED SCHOOLS

Those interviewed were all adults who were approved schools' ex-inmates aged between 21 - 27 years. Eight were males while the rest 8 were females. Fourteen respondents were of christian faith, while 2 did not have any serious religious affiliation or persuasion.

An attempt to show their places of origin indicated that 7 were from Central province, 4 from Rift Valley province, 2 from Eastern province and 2 from Nairobi. Only one was from Nyanza. In terms of their ethnic background, 8 were Kikuyus, 3 Kambas, 2 Merus, 2 Embus and 1 Luo. Of the 16 respondents 10 resided in the rural areas while 6 were from urban areas. The study also found

out that only 4 out of the sixteen respondents had attained a post primary level of education, while their marital status showed that 5 out of 16 were married.

4.4.1 Term and reasons for committal

All the sixteen respondents had spent a period of 18 months to 4 years in approved schools. Eleven respondents had spent more than two years in approved schools. All the 16 respondents reported that it was their first committal term. Out of the 8 males, 4 had been discharged while at Kabete approved school, 2 while at Othaya and 2 from Likoni approved schools. However 6 reported to have been to other schools and were transferred to the three schools in the course of their committal period. All female respondents had been discharged while at Kirigiti approved school.

Table 21: Type of offences the respondents had committed

Offences	No. of cases
Theft	5
Being idle and disorderly	5
Vandalism (destroying property)	1
Conveying stolen property	1
Unlawful possession of bhang	2
Burglary	2
Total	16

The table above shows that the majority (10) of the respondents had been committed for reasons to do with theft and being idle and disorderly. Two had been committed for vandalism and conveying stolen property, while 4 had been committed for conveying stolen property and unlawful possession of bhang. This shows that there is similarity in the nature of crimes committed by juvenile delinquents over the years. This is supported by the nature of offences in the table above and the ones found in table 12 for the respondents in approved schools.

The circumstances that surrounded the commission of these offences were also similar in certain respects. Seven reported that they engaged in these offences as a result of poor upbringing and problems they experienced in their families while 4 were as a result of "want". Three reported that it was as result of bad company while 2 had no good reasons for engaging in crime.

When further asked whether they considered their committal to approved schools as having been fair or not, 12 (75 %) stated that it was unfair, while 2 (12.5 %) said it was fair. Two (12.5 %) were uncertain.

4.4.2 School environment

When the students were asked to reminisce over the school experience, 14 talked of bad experience save for 2 cases that took a neutral stand.

The study further sought to know how much the respondents felt the approved schools had helped them in becoming people of good

conduct in the community through delinquency eradication or through counteracting delinquency tendencies.

Table 22: Progress made during committal period

Help received in becoming people of good conduct	N	%
Very much	3	18.7
A little	4	25.0
Not at all	9	56.3
Total	16	100

The above data shows that 18.7 % felt that approved schools had helped them very much in becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community. Some 25 % felt that they only received a little help from the schools, while majority (56.3 %) did not receive any help at all.

When further asked to state whether committal period brought any positive change in the respondents' lives in terms of discipline and acquisition of training (vocational and academic), only 6 (37.5 %) answered in the affirmative. The majority 10 (62.5 %) felt that committal did not bring any change in their lives. This puts into question the success of approved schools in readjusting and socially re-educating the offender in preparation for return to society.

4.4.3 Rehabilitation programmes.

The respondents were asked to state whether they found the rehabilitation programmes they underwent to have been of any use after they were discharged from approved schools.

Table 23: Usefulness of rehabilitation programmes.

Usefulness	N	%
Very useful	3	18.8
Useful	5	31.2
Not useful	8	50.0
Total	16	100

The data above shows that 18.8 % respondents found rehabilitation programmes (academic and vocational training, spiritual welfare, discipline and counselling) they underwent very useful after leaving the schools. The reason why they felt that these programmes were very useful might be explained by the fact that they were utilizing the skills learnt to earn a living. The majority (50 %) found rehabilitation programmes they underwent not to be useful.

The study found out that it was only two respondents (12.5 %) who had undergone further academic and specialized vocational training after they were discharged from approved schools. This may help to explain why 8 (50 %) respondents were handicapped given that they were barely equipped with only a meagre education

attainment and inadequate skill formation in their trades. They felt that the vocational training they had undergone was not sophisticated enough to enable them be self-employed or compete favourably in the labour market. This means approved schools ex-inmates lack self-confidence which in turn has a serious socio-psychological effects on their ability to be self-employed. It is unrealistic to expect a person who lacks self-confidence to have audacity to establish a private workshop, not forgetting availability of tools and initial working capital as a prerequisite. This in effect beats the original purpose of vocational training for future self-employment (self-reliance).

4.4.4 Great benefits derived from approved schools

The respondents were asked to state the great benefits they derived from approved schools. Six (37.5 %) respondents stated that they reaped great benefits through academic training, 4 (25 %) through acquisition of vocational training, while only 2 (12.5 %) benefited in character training. One (6.3 %) stated that she benefited in her upbringing through provision of basic necessities which were lacking in her home. Three (18.8 %) respondents stated they never benefited in any way.

When the respondents were asked whether they had any hope in life, only 4 (25 %) respondents looked optimistic in their lives. In fact when they were asked to compare their pre-institutional and post-institutional economic conditions, the majority 10 (62.5 %) felt that the conditions were worse. Four (25 %) felt that the

economic conditions were the same, while 2 (12.5 %) felt that they were better. The majority 10 (62.5 %) complained of difficult economic situations and vicissitudes of life which they were unable to cope with without some assistance. This may help to explain why the majority fell back into conflict with the law or recidivated as shown below.

4.4.5 Recidivism

For our purpose, recidivism will mean falling back in to crime. Anyone who completed his/her committal period satisfactorily and later commits another crime and gets rearrested, convicted or reincarcerated is a recidivist.

Table 24: Distribution of recidivists

Recidivism	N	%
Rearrests	4	25.0
New convicts	2	12.5
Reincarcerations	3	18.8
Police contacts	4	25.0
None	3	18.8
Total	16	100

The table above shows that 9 out of the 16 cases studied had relapsed in to crime at the time of the survey. This means that the rate of recidivism was 56.3 %. The offences committed were however still of minor nature such as petty theft (3), possession of "Chang'aa" (2) and bhang (2), assault (1) and handling of stolen

property (1). The rate of recidivism (56.3 %) should however be taken with caution for a number of reasons. One, the figure might be higher because the information came from the approved schools ex-inmates themselves. But as we know they might have hidden their personal criminal records. It is therefore possible that some of the rearrests, convictions and reincarcerations were not revealed and therefore not recorded for analysis. Secondly, others might have repeatedly committed subsequent offences but had only been lucky to escape arrest.

During the survey the respondents were asked to give their views on why people continue committing crimes even after institutional treatment. The answers given were varied. Some (3) said that crime is accidental and part of social life which cannot be avoided even after excellent institutional treatment. Others (3) said that only habitual criminals would fall back in to crime. The majority (9) said they fell back in to crime because they were faced by circumstances beyond their control. One (1) respondent did not give any reason.

The respondents were asked to suggest ways in which people should be assisted to keep away from criminal behaviour and thus become law abiding. The majority (7 out of 16) felt that it was only through improving means of livelihood, thus denoting socio-economic conditions. Two (2) felt that after-care services for approved schools ex-inmates should be improved. Another 3 felt that the concerned authorities should be more humane in dealing with offenders, while 4 did not have any solutions.

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CHAPTER FIVE.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.

This chapter will examine and interpret the relationships among the major variables of the study. Complex statistical tools rather than simple descriptive statistics will be applied to achieve this goal.

The relationship between nominal and/or ordinal level variables are examined and interpreted through the application of the following inferential statistics. Chi-square (χ^2), contingency coefficient (c) and Phi coefficient (ϕ). While chi-square will be applied to test the statistical significance of such relationships, the other two statistics will be used where appropriate to measure the strength of such relationships. Also in testing the first hypothesis, the control group and the experimental group will be compared.

5.0 Factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to approved schools.

As was cited earlier, rapid social change has taken a heavy toll on the family institution. This has in turn disintegrated the family, thus exposing children to vulnerable situations which predispose them to delinquent activities, mostly as a result of frustrations. However this study hypothesized an interaction between personal vulnerability and loss or inadequacy of socio-economic support from the home. To verify this the study compares both the socio-economic status of the experimental and control groups to test that:

5.1.0 H:1 Low socio-economic status at home leads to a high frequency of juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to approved schools.

5.1.2 The effect of socio-economic status

Socio-economic status of the respondents as a variable had several indicators:-

- (a) Ownership of property
- (b) Occupation of parents
- (c) Level of formal education attained by parents of respondents
- (d) Family size

(a) Ownership of property

Property ownership means that there are resources that can be used to generate income. Therefore parents who owned property in terms of land, animals, rental houses and so on were considered to be of higher socio-economic status when compared to their counterparts who did not, despite sharing almost similar characteristics and vulnerability.

Table 25: Property status of parents.

Property status	(Experimental)		(Control)	
	N	valid %	N	valid %
Owned property	48	44.4	78	69.6
Did not own property	60	55.6	34	30.4
N/A	12	N/A	8	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (Children who had no parents or did not know whether their parents owned property).

Table 25 shows that a higher percentage of childrens' parents in the control group (69.6 %) owned property as opposed to those in the experimental group (44.4 %). Further it is shown that 55.6 % of childrens' parents in the experimental group did not own property against 30.4 % of the control group.

Table 26: Type of property owned by parents.

Type of property	(Experimental)		(Control)	
	N	%	N	%
Land over 3 acres	38	35.2	56	50.0
Land below 3 acres	50	46.3	29	25.9
Rental houses	6	5.6	11	9.8
Animals	14	13.0	16	14.3
N/A	12	N/A	8	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had no parents or they did not know whether their parents owned property).

Table 26 above sheds light on the type of property owned by the children's parents. Only 35.2 % of children's parents in the experimental group had over three acres of land, compared to 50 % in the control group. The majority in the experimental group owned land which was below 3 acres (46.3 %), as opposed to 25.9 % in the control group. The trend was the same even in the case of rental houses and animals with the control group dominating. So, using ownership of property and the type of property owned by parents as a measure of socio-economic status, it can be concluded that the children in approved schools (experimental group) were in a lower socio-economic status.

(b) Occupation status of parents.

Occupational status determines the standard of life and economic status. The employed parents can better afford the basic needs of their children than the unemployed. However, this should be taken with caution as there are parents who are self employed but nevertheless derive higher income than those in formal employment. It can hence be added that it is the type of occupation of the parents which rates high in terms of its capacity to generate income.

Table 27: Employment status of parents.

Employment status	(Experimental)				(Control)			
	Father		Mother		Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Permanent employment	27	32.1	23	21.1	63	53.4	57	47.9
Self-employed	38	45.2	48	44.0	39	33.0	36	30.3
Unemployed	19	22.7	38	34.9	16	13.6	26	21.8
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A	2	N/A	1	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had only one parent or had no parents)

Table 27 above shows that more fathers' of children in the experimental group were unemployed (22.7 %), compared to 13.6 % of the control group. Only 32.1 % were in permanent employment in the experimental group against 53.4 % for the control group.

Similarly, only 21.1 % of children's mothers in the experimental group were in permanent employment as opposed to 47.9 % for the control group. Some 21.8 % of mothers in the control group were unemployed as compared to 34.9 % in the experimental group.

The general picture is one in which parents of children in the control group have an edge over those in the experimental group. Nevertheless as afore mentioned, we cannot make a logical conclusion unless we evaluate the specific type of occupations held by parents as shown in table 28 below.

Table 28: Specific occupations of the parents.

Occupation	(Experimental)				(Control)			
	Father		Mother		Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Accountant	-	-	-	-	3	2.5	1	0.8
Manager	-	-	-	-	2	1.7	-	-
Doctor	-	-	-	-	1	0.8	-	-
Teacher	4	4.8	3	2.8	13	11.0	9	7.6
Clerical officer	2	2.4	2	1.8	9	7.6	14	11.8
Secretary	-	-	6	5.5	-	-	6	5.0
Businessman/woman	8	9.5	12	11.0	33	28.0	28	23.5
Farmer (peasant)	15	17.8	27	24.8	13	11.0	18	15.1
Hawker	12	14.3	17	15.6	6	5.1	9	7.6
Casual worker	20	23.8	16	14.7	14	11.9	11	9.2
Housewife	-	-	13	11.9	-	-	13	10.9
Carpenter	4	4.8	-	-	7	5.9	-	-
Cleaner	2	2.4	3	2.8	2	1.7	1	0.8
Driver	8	9.5	-	-	6	5.1	-	-
Barmaid	-	-	7	6.4	-	-	3	2.5
Cook	3	3.6	1	0.9	2	1.7	2	1.7
Watchman	2	2.4	-	-	3	2.5	-	-
Messenger	1	1.2	-	-	4	3.4	4	3.4
Beggar	3	3.6	2	1.8	-	-	-	-
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A	2	N/A	1	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had only one parent or had no parents)

According to table 28, 5 % of the fathers of the children in the control group fell in what was categorized as high occupation status, and none for the experimental group. It is interesting to note that majority of the childrens' fathers in the experimental group fell in the low occupation status category (83.4 %), against 48.3 % for the control group.

There were also more mothers (78.9 %) in the experimental group who fell in the low occupation status category as opposed to 51.2 % for the control group.

The type of occupations for the parents of juvenile delinquents in approved schools (experimental) indicates that they were in the low income bracket. It can however be firmly concluded from the above data that children who have parents who are unemployed and in low income occupations are more likely to be delinquents and subsequently be committed to approved schools.

(c) Level of education.

The level of formal education often determines the type of occupation and the status of a person. It will therefore be considered an indicator of socio-economic status.

Table 29: Levels of formal education attained by parents of the respondents.

Education level	(Experimental)				(Control)			
	Father		Mother		Father		Mother	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No formal schooling	16	19.0	31	28.4	13	11.0	23	19.3
Primary	39	46.4	43	39.4	32	27.1	36	30.3
Secondary	21	25.0	34	31.3	59	50.0	53	44.5
College	6	7.1	1	0.9	11	9.3	7	5.9
University	2	2.4	-	-	4	3.4	-	-
N/A	36	N/A	11	N/A	2	N/A	1	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (children who had one parent or did not know whether their parents had formal education)

Table 29 above shows that there are variations in the level of formal education attained by parents of the respondents in the experimental and the control group. As can be noted, 34.5 % of the children's fathers in the experimental group had secondary school education and above, compared to 62.7 % in the control group.

There were only 32.2 % of the childrens' mothers who had secondary school education and above in the experimental group, while there were 50.4 % of them who had the same in the control group. This shows that as a measure of socio-economic status children's parents in the experimental group were inferior in levels of formal education attained.

The level of formal education attained in most cases determines the type of occupation, income and living standards. Muga (1975:120)¹ found that most of the parents of delinquent children studied had attained a low level of education. Muga however did not indicate whether it was the mother or the father who had attained low level of education. He also did not test for a relationship between his variables.

(d) Family size

In this study, family size is considered as an indicator of socio-economic status. Large families are associated with people of low socio-economic status. The Gluecks (1934:111 and 1950:154)² found that most of the delinquent boys came from families slightly larger than the average size of the family in America.

Table 30: Family size of respondents' parents

Size	(Experimental)		(Control)	
	N	%	N	%
1	3	2.6	10	8.8
2	4	3.5	18	15.7
3	16	13.9	24	21.1
4	29	25.2	36	31.6
5	34	29.6	18	15.8
6	14	12.2	4	3.5
7	12	10.4	-	-
8	2	1.7	4	3.5
9	1	0.9	-	-
N/A	5	N/A	6	N/A
Valid cases	120	100	120	100

Note: N/A (were the 'only children' in their families)

The findings in the above table show that delinquent children (experimental) came from large families. Fifty four point eight percent (54.8 %) of them came from families where there were over four children as compared to 22.8 % for the non-delinquents (control). The modal family size was four and five for the control and experimental groups respectively.

The above conclusion corroborates the Gluecks (1934:11 and 1950:154)³ findings. Large families can be associated with poverty, especially those from low socio-economic status. It would be easy for parents with small family sizes to afford the basics

and necessary care for their children.

The discussion on socio-economic status shows that all of its indicators relate to juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to approved schools. Comparing both the experimental (delinquents) and the control group (non-delinquents), there was a difference in percentages of all indicators. In all cases the delinquents were in low socio-economic status.

The findings show that children in low socio-economic status are more likely to be delinquents and subsequently be committed to approved schools. This supports Muga's (1975) contention and other scholars who hold the same view. The findings also support our first hypothesis that low socio-economic status leads to a high frequency of juvenile delinquency and subsequent committal to approved schools.

5.2.0 H:2 Rehabilitation success depends on gender, attitude towards rehabilitation programmes and committal to approved schools.

The indicators of rehabilitation success were:

- (a) How much the inmates and ex-inmates thought that the schools had helped them in becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community through delinquency eradication.
- (b) Whether committal had brought any positive change in terms of discipline and acquisition of training (vocational and academic) both for inmate and ex-inmates.
- (c) Rate of serious disciplinary cases (e.g. abscondment,

vandalism, theft, sodomy etc) for inmates and recidivism among ex-inmates.

(d) Inmates and ex-inmates aspiration level.

Many of the studies cited in chapter two point to the fact that various methods of rehabilitating offenders vary in their degree of success (Lipton et al 1975:7)⁴.

The issue of institutional treatment for juvenile delinquents as bequeathed to us by western society seems to be controversial in so far as the issue of sex is concerned. Khan (1962:35)⁵, Leger (1977:43)⁶ among others conclude that institutional treatment leads to some degree of improvement for juvenile male offenders.

The view is opposed by a second "school of thought" which holds a contrary view. In particular Pleune (1959:78)⁷ and Kercher (1987:132)⁸ seem to concur that females registered higher rehabilitation progress both in the institutional and post institutional behaviour than their male counterparts.

The above contrasting views form the basis of the study's first part of the second hypothesis.

Table 31: Gender and rehabilitation success (amount of help inmates received in becoming people of socially good conduct in the community).

Amount of help received	Gender		Row total
	M	F	
Very much	6 (10)	23 (38.3)	29 (24.2)
A little	9 (15)	13 (21.7)	22 (18.3)
Not at all	45 (75)	24 (40.0)	69 (57.5)
Column total	60 (100)	60 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in bracket indicate column percentages.

$\chi^2 = 17.0838$ with d.f = 2 significant at 96 % confidence level.

Contingency coefficient (C) = 0.35.

Table 31 above shows that while only 10 % males in the approved schools said that they had received very much help from the schools through counteracting their delinquency tendencies, thus becoming people of socially good conduct, a higher proportion of females (38.3 %) said the same. Likewise, 75 % males felt that they had not received help at all against 40 % females.

The relationship between gender and rehabilitation success (amount of help inmates received in becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community) was found to be significant at 96 % level of confidence. This was above the accepted level of 95 %. The association between the two variables was found to be moderate as indicated by the value of (C) of 0.35. Further, it was found out that more female ex-inmates (3 out of 8: 37.5 %) felt that approved schools helped them very much in

becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community while none of their male counterparts felt the same.

Table 32: Gender and rehabilitation success (whether committal had brought any change in the life of the inmate).

Any change	Gender		Row Total
	M	F	
Yes	13 (21.7)	24 (40.0)	37 (30.8)
No	47 (78.3)	36 (60.0)	83 (69.2)
Column total	60 (100)	60 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 4.7280 \text{ with } df = 1.$$

Significant at 96 % confidence level.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.20.$$

From table 32 above it is evident that there was a higher percentage (40 %) females in whose life, committal brought change, as opposed to 21.7 % male.

The relationship between gender and rehabilitation success (whether committal had brought any positive change in the life of the inmate), was found to be statistically significant at 96 % confidence level, far above the study's accepted level of 95 %. Hence gender did influence the fact whether one registered any positive change in life or not. Though the relationship was significant, the association was not strong as indicated by the low value of Phi of 0.20.

More female ex-inmates felt that committal period brought a change in their own life - 4 out of 8 (50 %) as compared to only 2 out of 8 males (25 %).

Table 33: Gender and rehabilitation success (level of disciplinary cases/No. Of times punished for serious offences.

No. of times punished	Gender		Row total
	M	F	
Low (0 - 3 times)	11 (18.3)	23 (38.3)	34 (28.3)
High (4 - 6 times)	49 (81.7)	37 (61.7)	86 (71.7)
Column total	60 (100)	60 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 5.9096 \text{ with df } 1.$$

Significant at 95 Confidence level.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.22.$$

Table 33 above shows that 81.7 % males were punished from 4 to 6 times for serious offences in one month which was considered to be high, as compared to 61.7 % females. The frequency of those who engaged in these serious offences like theft, absconding, vandalism, smoking etc helps in determining rehabilitation success in these schools and more specifically based on gender which is our central focus.

The relationship between gender and rehabilitation success (number of times punished for serious offences), was found to be significant at the study's acceptance level of 95 % level of confidence. The association between the two was found to be low as indicated by the value of Phi of 0.22.

It was found out that more males (75 %) than females (37.5 %) ex-inmates had recidivated in a period of 5 years. It is also notable that the number of male recidivists was twice as high as that of females. This further validates the argument that a relation does exist between rehabilitation success (number of times inmates were punished for serious offences and recidivism rate for ex-inmates) and gender.

These findings therefore support the views of the school of thought which seems to conclude that institutionalized female juvenile delinquents registered higher rehabilitation success, both in the institutional and post institutional behaviour than their male counterparts. It is possibly because the majority of the females were utilizing the skills learnt to earn a living. Also the majority were married and settled and had acquired a new status in society. The findings also support the first part of our second hypothesis that , rehabilitation success depends on gender.

5.2.1 Attitude towards rehabilitation programmes.

Liverpool (1974:217)⁹ and Norval (1964:175)¹⁰, in chapter two argue that rehabilitation success depends on inmates attitude towards rehabilitation programmes. This formed the second part of

the second hypothesis.

The indicator of "attitude towards rehabilitation programmes" was taken to be:

- (a) How useful rehabilitation programmes (i.e. academic and vocational training, spiritual welfare, discipline, counselling and recreational training) were to inmates and ex-inmates. In other words, their feelings on the usefulness of these programmes.

Table 34: Attitude (how useful) and rehabilitation success (amount of help inmates received in becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community).

Amount of help received	Attitude (How useful)			Row total
	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	
Very much	15 (62.5)	11 (37.9)	3 (4.5)	29 (24.2)
A little	7 (29.2)	13 (44.8)	2 (3.0)	22 (18.3)
Not at all	2 (8.3)	5 (17.3)	62 (92.5)	69 (57.5)
Column Total	24 (100)	29 (100)	67 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 81.6138 \text{ with df } 4.$$

Significant at 95 % confidence level.

Contingency coefficient (C) = 0.64.

From table 34 above, it is evident that 62.5 % of those who found rehabilitation programmes to be very useful, found the

schools as having helped them very much in acquiring skills and socially desirable patterns of behaviour through care and supervision. This is in contrast with 8.3 % of those who found rehabilitation programmes to be very useful, but did not find the school as having helped them at all. Only 4.5 % of those who found the programmes not useful received very much help, compared to 92.5 % who found the programmes not useful and did not receive any help at all.

The relationship between attitude (how useful) and rehabilitation success (amount of help received) was found to be statistically significant at 95 % confidence level. The association was also found to be fairly strong as indicated by the contingency coefficient (C) of 0.64.

Turning to the approved schools ex-inmates 8 out of 16 (50 %) of those who found rehabilitation programmes not useful did not receive any help at all in terms of acquiring skills and socially accepted patterns of behaviour. The researcher also found out that most of them were not utilizing the skills learnt while at the schools to earn their living (68.8 %). The post-institutional benefits, enthusiasm and commitment in the applicability of the skills learnt was notably lacking. This shows that there is a relationship between attitude (how useful) and rehabilitation success (amount of help received in acquiring skills and socially desirable patterns of behavior).

Table 35: Attitude (how useful) and rehabilitation success(whether committal had brought any positive change in the life of the inmate).

Any change	Attitude (How useful)			
	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	Row total
Yes	16 (66.7)	18 (62.1)	3 (4.5)	37 (30.8)
No	8 (33.3)	11 (37.9)	64 (95.5)	83 (69.2)
Column total	24 (100)	29 (100)	67 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 49.6778 \text{ with } df = 2.$$

Significant at 98 % confidence level.

Contingency coefficient (C) = 0.54.

The above table shows that 66.7 % of those who found rehabilitation programmes to be very useful while in approved schools did receive positive changes in their own lives. Only 33.3 % found rehabilitation programmes to be very useful but did not receive any positive change in their lives.

A high proportion 95.5 % of those who did not view rehabilitation programmes as useful did not receive any positive changes in their own lives at all.

The relationship between attitude (how useful) and rehabilitation success (whether committal had brought any positive change) was statistically significant at 98 % confidence level. The association was also fairly moderate as shown by contingency coefficient of 0.54

Further, 7 out of 16 (43.8 %) of the approved schools ex-inmates who did not find rehabilitation programmes they underwent as useful felt that, committal did not bring any positive change in their own lives. As pointed out in chapter 4, most of them were handicapped as the training they had was too basic to compete favourably in a competitive labour environment. This could possibly partly explain why majority of them never viewed these programmes as being beneficial. For example, only 31.2 % were utilizing the skills learnt while in the approved schools, and only 12.5 % had undergone any further training after discharge as pointed out earlier.

Table 36: Attitude (How useful) and rehabilitation success (aspiration level)

Aspiration level	Attitude (How useful)			Row total
	Very useful	Useful	Not useful	
Low	6 (20.7)	12 (41.4)	66 (98.5)	54 (70.0)
High	18 (75.0)	17 (58.6)	1 (1.5)	36 (30.0)
Column total	24 (100)	29 (100)	67 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 60.3832 \text{ with df } 2.$$

Significant at 97 % confidence level.

Contingency coefficient (C) = 0.58.

The table above shows that 75 % of the inmates who found rehabilitation programmes useful had a high future aspiration

(would have liked to continue with education or had a hope of joining certain professions). On the other hand 98.5 % of those who found rehabilitation programmes not useful had low future aspiration (i.e. did not have any future aspiration or any knowledge of the future). The implication of this is that most of these children had despaired, which in return has implications for their stated aspirations and rehabilitation.

The relationship between attitude or (how useful rehabilitation programmes were to inmates) and aspiration level was found to be statistically significant at 97 % confidence level, and were moderately associated as shown by contingency coefficient (C) of 0.58. For the ex-inmates only 4 out of 16 (25 %) reported to have any hope or were optimistic in their lives, who thought that rehabilitation programmes they underwent were very useful. The rest 75 % were pessimistic in life and did not find rehabilitation programmes they underwent as being useful. This shows that there is a relationship between attitude (how useful) And rehabilitation success (aspiration level).

The findings on attitude towards rehabilitation programmes and rehabilitation success is in support of the second part of our second research hypothesis that, rehabilitation success depends on attitude towards rehabilitation programmes. It further corroborates Liverpool's (1974:217)¹¹ and Norval's (1964:175)¹² contention.

5.2.2 Attitude towards committal to approved schools.

It was also pointed out by Liverpool (1975:219)¹³ and Norval

(1964:178)¹⁴ that rehabilitation success depends on inmates attitude towards being committed to correctional institutions in America. One of the concerns of this study is to test and find out whether the same case applies to approved schools in Kenya. This formed the third part of the second research hypothesis. The indicator for attitudes towards committal was whether those committed perceived it as fair, unfair or were uncertain.

Table 37: Attitude to committal (Whether fair, unfair or uncertain) and rehabilitation success (amount of help received in acquiring socially accepted modes of conduct in community).

Amount of help received	Attitude (Whether fair)			Row total
	Fair	Unfair	Uncertain	
Very much	23 (63.9)	3 (3.9)	3 (37.5)	29 (24.2)
A little	11 (30.5)	7 (9.3)	4 (50.0)	22 (18.3)
Not at all	2 (5.6)	66 (86.8)	1 (12.5)	69 (57.5)
Column total	36 (100)	76 (100)	8 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 78.6459 \text{ with df } 4.$$

Significant at 96 % confidence level.

contingency coefficient (C) = 0.63.

The table above shows that 63.9 % of those who considered being sent to approved schools as fair thought that they had

received very much help in acquiring socially accepted modes of conduct in the community through counteracting delinquency tendencies. This contrasts with the 5.6 % who perceived it fair to be committed to approved schools, but did not benefit at all.

On the other hand, only 3.9 % who perceived committal as being fair received very much help as opposed to 86.8 % who perceived committal as being unfair, but did not benefit at all.

The relationship was statistically significant at 96 % confidence level, which is above our acceptance level of 95 % . The association was relatively strong as indicated by contingency coefficient (C) of 0.63.

This shows that a relationship does exist between, attitude towards committal (whether fair, unfair or uncertain) and rehabilitation success (amount of help received in acquiring socially accepted modes of conduct in the community). This is further supported by our findings for the ex-inmates where (9 out of 16) 56.3 % of those who considered their committal as having been unfair did not benefit at all. Only 3 out of 16 (18.7 %) who perceived committal as having been fair received much help.

Table 38: Attitude to committal (whether fair, unfair or uncertain) and rehabilitation success (whether committal had brought any positive change in the life of the inmate).

Any change	Attitude (Whether fair)			Row total
	Fair	Unfair	Uncertain	
Yes	25 (69.4)	4 (5.3)	4 (50.0)	37 (30.8)
No	11 (30.6)	72 (94.7)	4 (50.0)	83 (69.2)
Column total	36 (100)	76 (100)	8 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 49.7136.$$

Significant at 99 % confidence level.

Contingency coefficient (C) = 0.54.

Table 38 above shows that 69.4 % of those who perceived committal as having been fair had registered positive changes in their own lives as opposed to 30.6 % who had not. Only 5.3 % of those who perceived committal as having been unfair had registered a positive change in their own lives as opposed to 94.7 % who did not.

The relationship was statistically significant at 99 % confidence level, far above our acceptance level of 95 %. The association was moderate as shown by contingency coefficient (C) of 0.54.

This is a proof that a relationship exists between, Attitudes towards committal (whether fair, unfair or uncertain) and rehabilitation success (whether committal had brought any positive change in the life of the inmate). Our findings on the ex-inmates further sheds light on this. It was found that 12 out of 16 (75 %) of those who considered their committal as having been unfair did not register any positive change in their own lives at all. Only 4 out 16 (25 %) who perceived committal as having been fair registered positive change in their lives.

The findings on attitude towards committal to approved schools and rehabilitation success is congruent with the third part of our second research hypothesis that rehabilitation success depends on attitude towards committal to approved schools. This supports Liverpool (1974:219)¹⁵, Norval (1964:178)¹⁶ and others who hold the same view.

5.3.0 Positive and negative effects of institutional confinement.

There are those scholars, Clifford (1974:48)¹⁷, Ndunda (1978:18)¹⁸, Khan (1963:120)¹⁹ who view institutional confinement rather positively and as a remedy to problems that beset the juvenile delinquents. They see institutionalization as providing children with what their immediate original environment could not give and which could have predisposed them to delinquency. As such in the institutions their well being is enhanced.

On the other hand there are scholars like Goldfarb (1952:36)²⁰, Tibbiths (1952:171)²¹, Onyango (1982:14)²² and Mushanga (1976:23)²³ who view institutional confinement rather negatively and counterproductive. Instead of rehabilitating children, institutionalization is seen in the latter case as not only alienating children from the community but even from their own selves.

Given these differing views we may not be able to assert categorically that institutional confinement invariably has either negative or positive effects. In order to strike a balance, the study proposed that an objective assessment of effects of institutional confinement on juvenile delinquents must take into consideration the juvenile delinquents' overall environment prior to institutionalization in an attempt to see how they adjust.

This leads to :

5.3.1 H:3 Positive or negative effects of institutional confinement depends on the juvenile delinquents overall environment prior to committal

The indicators of effects of institutional confinement were:

- (a) Juvenile delinquents attitudes towards the schools
- (b) Integration in the schools as indicated by whether juvenile delinquents would like to leave.

5.3.2 Effects of institutional confinement and life prior to committal

Table 39: Attitude towards the schools and where juvenile delinquents were staying.

Attitude	Where staying		
	Home	Not at home	Row total
Life better before	68 (86.1)	17 (41.5)	85 (70.08)
Life better in the school	11 (13.9)	24 (58.5)	35 (29.2)
Column total	79 (100)	41 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 25.7977 \text{ with df } 1.$$

Significant at 99.0 % confidence level.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.46.$$

The above table shows that there is a relationship between attitude towards the schools and where juvenile delinquents were staying prior to committal. The majority (86.1 %) who were staying in their homes prior to committal found life better before, while 58.5 % who were not living in their homes found life better in the schools.

The chi-square test of significance shows that there is a significant relationship at a 99 % confidence level, although the association between the variables is not very strong as indicated by the value of Phi (0.46).

Table 40: Integration (whether respondents would like to leave)
and where they were staying

Would like to leave	Where staying		
	Home	Not at home	Row data
Yes	62 (78.5)	19 (46.3)	81 (67.5)
No	17 (21.5)	22 (53.7)	39 (32.5)
Column total	79 (100)	41 (100)	120 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 12.7886.$$

Significant of 96 % confidence.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.33.$$

Table 40 indicates that 78.5 % of delinquent children who were staying in their homes prior to committal, would have liked to leave the schools, while only 21.5 % would not have liked to leave.

On the other hand 53.7 % who were not in their homes prior to committal would not have liked to leave the schools, while 46.3 % would have liked to leave. In other words, there seems to be a relationship between where juvenile delinquents were staying prior to committal and whether they would have liked to leave the schools. The chi-square test of significance shows that there

exists a significant relationship at 96 % confidence level. Despite the relationship being significant, the association between the two variables is not very strong as indicated by the small value of Phi (0.33).

It can therefore be said that where delinquent children were staying prior to committal determined whether life was better before or in the schools and whether they would have preferred to leave the schools, although the relationship was weak.

Table 41: Attitude towards schools and ownership of property

Attitude	Property ownership		
	Owned	Did not own	Row total
Life better before	36 (75)	26 (43.3)	62 (57.4)
Life better in school	12 (25)	34 (56.7)	46 (42.6)
Column total	48 (100)	60 (100)	108 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 10.8228 \text{ with df } 1.$$

Significant level at 96 % confidence level.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.32.$$

Missing observations = 12 -(Those who had no parents or did not know whether their parents owned property).

Table 41 above shows that out of the 48 delinquent children whose parents owned property, the majority (75 %) of them preferred life prior to committal, while only 25 % found life better in the schools. Of the 60, whose parents did not own property, 56.7 %

found life in the schools better while 43.3 % found life better before. This shows there is a relationship between attitude towards the schools and parents ownership of property. The chi-square test of significance shows that the relationship is significant at 95 % confidence level, although the association between the two variables is not very strong as indicated by the small value of Phi (0.32)

Table 42: Integration and ownership of property

Would like to leave	Property ownership		Row total
	Owned	Did not own	
Yes	41 (85.4)	24 (40.0)	65 (60.2)
No	7 (14.6)	36 (60.0)	43 (39.8)
Column total	48 (100)	60 (100)	108 (100)

NB: Figures in brackets indicate column percentages.

$$\chi^2 = 22.9131 \text{ with df } 1.$$

Significant at 98 % confidence level.

$$\text{Phi} = 0.46.$$

Missing observations = 12 (Those who had no parents or did not know whether their parents owned property).

Table 42 above sheds light to the fact that 85.4 % of the children whose parents owned property would have liked to leave the schools. On the other hand, 60 % children whose parents did not own property would not have liked to leave the schools. The relationship was found to be statistically significant at 98%

confidence level. The phi coefficient (0.46) indicates a moderate association. It can therefore be said that parents ownership of property influences integration in the schools.

This shows that ownership of property by the delinquent children's parents influenced attitude (whether life was better before or better in schools) and integration (whether they preferred to leave the school or not). However, just like childrens' life prior to committal (where staying) discussed earlier, the relationship between children's parents' property ownership and effects (attitude and integration) of institutional confinement was also found to be weak as shown by low values of phi coefficient in tables 40 and 41.

5.3.3 Regression analysis

In this section an attempt is made to give a summary of all the factors/predictors that influence the independent variables that were considered in hypothesis 3. On the basis of the weak relationships found in tables 39 - 42, it was assumed that other factors exist that may help explain attitude and integration in the schools. Consequently, it was found necessary to consider other predictors in the regression list of H₃. Regression analysis is therefore adopted for this purpose. Specifically stepwise regression (that entails multiple regression) is applied in order to predict a single dependent variable from a given number of independent variables (predictors). Nie (1970:34)²⁴ points out that multiple regression as a description tool has an important use in

"controlling other confounding factors in order to evaluate the contribution of a specific variable or a set of variables".

Dummy variables have also been used for the variables that were measured at nominal scale level - without which regression analysis could not have been possible. Nie et al (1970:373)²⁵ state that "dummy variables are most commonly used when a researcher wishes to insert a nominal variable into regression equation". They further state that such variables are created by treating each of category of a nominal variable as a separate variable and assigning arbitrary scores for all cases - depending upon the presence or absence in each of the categories. Since they have values of 0 and 1, they may be treated as interval variables and inserted in regression equation.

5.3.4 Key factors that influence effects (attitude and integration) of institutional confinement.

Initially it had been hypothesized that juvenile delinquents' overall environment prior to committal influenced effects (attitude and integration) of institutional confinement. Some other variables that seemed to be good determinants of effects of institutional confinement were included in the regression analysis. As such, these other predictors namely "parental background" (Whether one had parents or not) and family size are also included in the regression equation.

Regression analysis is used in an attempt to find:-

- (a) The joint contribution of the independent variables in

explaining the dependent variable.

- (b) The individual contribution of the independent variable in explaining the variation in the dependent variable.

The summary table of the stepwise regression analysis is given below. The predictors (independent variables) are presented in a descending order. The first predictor is one that explains the greatest amount of the variance in the dependent variable. The last dependent variable least explains the variance in the dependent variable individually.

Table 43: Predictors of attitude

Predictors	Multiple R	R ²	% of joint explained variations	% of individual explained variations
*Ownership	0.34665	0.1201	12.0	12.0
*Residence	0.39699	0.1576	15.8	3.8
*Parents alive	0.41218	0.1699	17.0	1.2
Family size	0.41976	0.1762	17.7	0.7
Total				17.7

NB: Predictors indicated with * have been converted into dummy variables.

e.g "ownership of property"
 owned = 1, Did not own = 0.

The above table shows multiple regression and stepwise regression between bivariate relationships.

While columns one, two and three show multiple regression; Column four indicates stepwise regression.

It can be noted from column 3 that ownership of property is the best predictor of attitude. The majority of respondents with parents who owned property indicated life was better before. Ownership of property and residence explained 15.8 % of the variations. When a third predictor (Whether one had parents or not) is introduced in the equation the three predictors explain 17 % of the variance in attitude. Finally when all the four predictors are considered, they explain 17.7 % of the variance when operating jointly.

From column 4, it can be noted that ownership of property is the greatest explanation of the variance in attitude when operating individually. Family size is the lowest explanation of variance with individual explanation of 0.7 %

It is therefore concluded that there are other factors that influence attitudes towards the schools.

Table 44: Relative importance of key independent variables affecting integration of respondents in the schools (whether respondents would like to leave the schools)

Predictors	Multiple R	R ²	% of joint explained variations	% of individual explained variations
*Parents alive	0.68572	0.47021	47.0	47.0
*Ownership	0.75892	0.57598	57.6	10.6
*Residence	0.77066	0.59391	59.4	1.8
Family size	0.78233	0.61204	61.2	1.8
Total				61.2

* = The variables that have been converted into dummy variables.

"ownership of property" Owned = 1 did not own = 0.

"Parents alive" = Had parents = 1 had no parents = 0.

"Residence" = Had home = 1 had no home = 0.

The table above presents factors in the study considered as paramount in influencing integration of delinquent children in the schools. Whether one had parents or not emerged as relatively the major factor that influenced integration. Delinquent children who had parents were less integrated in the schools and indicated that they would like to leave. Having experienced parental love prior to committal, they could not be properly integrated in the schools. This confirms our findings in chapter 4 where 53 % of those who would have liked to leave the schools said that they were missing their parents.

Indeed, whether one had parents or not explained 47 % of the variation of attitude towards leaving the school, while operating

individually. When operating jointly with ownership of property by parents, the two predictors explained 57.6 % of the variance. In all, the four factors that the study was able to consider explained 61.2 % of the variation of integration when operating jointly. This is a reasonable percentage, implying that the four factors have a bearing on integration.

It is therefore concluded that the juvenile delinquents overall environment prior to committal as indicated by ; whether one had parents or not, ownership of property by parents, residence and family size determined whether they wished to leave or not.

After testing hypothesis 3 the following findings emerged as of importance to the study.

- (a) Ownership of property by parents and residence (where staying) significantly influenced childrens' attitude towards the schools and integration.
- (b) Among the predictors the study considered, ownership of property by parents was the best predictor of attitude towards the school, while parental background was the best predictor of integration.

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CHAPTER SIX.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Following below are a summary of the main findings of the study and conclusions which were drawn. Recommendations and a pinpoint of area of further research are also tackled in the chapter. The key findings that have a bearing on the study's major objectives are highlighted first.

6.1.0 Staff members academic and professional backgrounds

This study found out that out of the 22 sampled staff members only 5 (22.7 %) and 3 (13.6 %) were trained as teachers and social workers respectively. The rest, worse off the housemasters and housemistresses who act 'in loco parentis' were of very low academic cum professional qualifications. The majority had undergone only a three month course in basic social development. As if this is not enough, none of the sampled serving members of staff had at any one time attended a refresher course or a seminar to enable them to learn current rehabilitation methods.

This implies that the quality of training and academic qualifications of staff members fall far short of the minimum requirements for such a demanding task of rehabilitating juvenile delinquents. This seems to echo Cressey's (1955:116)¹ earlier observation of instances where rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents is left by default to people who are unaware of sociological theory and implications of treatment.

6.1.2 Staff attitudes towards inmates, perception of the schools and rehabilitation programmes.

The majority (18 out of 22 - 81.8 %) reported to have had a positive attitude towards inmates. However this was found to be inconsistent with the researcher's observation of incidences of staff members insensitivity and hostility to children. Further, 12 out of 22 (54.5 %) staff members maintained that the schools were beneficial to delinquent children since they trained delinquent children to be law abiding and offer academic and vocational training. This was contrary to the researcher's observation that the children were hostile towards staff members (socialising agents), which implies that their capacity to learn norms is affected negatively. Also, since the majority of the children adhered to rules and regulations in order to avoid punishment, it is unlikely that they would live upto the values of the schools after leaving them. Furthermore, the majority of the children were also observed to be apathetic to learning.

Thus, there was an extra-ordinary praise of the schools by the staff members, the praise which was inconsistent with observations made by the researcher. That partly may explain the reasons why in their annual reports, administrators in these institutions regard the work of approved schools as successful and recommend for their increase.

When asked to state whether rehabilitation programmes being implemented in the schools were useful or not useful, 9 out of 22 (40.9 %) reported that they were very useful, while other 40.9 %

felt that they were not useful at all owing to inadequate facilities and capital. In fact 16 out of 22 (72.7 %) respondents stated that the system of rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents in approved schools was not effective as it was. They cited the ills of approved schools to be, inadequate facilities and personnel, low staff morale, inadequate budgetary allocations leading to the collapse of most essential services eg (in vocational training, recreation, diet, clothing etc) and lack of classification of existing schools thus mixing inmates who are liable to learn delinquent acts from one another.

This implies that the whole system of institutional rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents is operating under a faulty guideline thus rendering its effectiveness rather doubtful.

6.2.0 Major attributes of institutionalized respondents.

Among the 120 interviewed institutionalized juvenile delinquents, 63.3 % had both parents. The rest were brought up by single parents (34.2 %) or had no parents (2.5 %). The majority (50 %) came from broken homes. This implies that these children had limited opportunities for being brought up in normal families.

It was found out that 64 % of the institutionalized children came from urban areas, while only 34 % came from rural areas. 59.2 % of those from urban areas came from Nairobi, while out of those from rural areas, 15.4 % came from Kiambu while 9.7 % came from Murang'a prior to committal. For those who lived in Nairobi 62 % lived in the slums such as Mathare, Kibera, Korogocho and Kawangware.

6.2.1 Socio-economic backgrounds of the respondents.

It was found that most of the juvenile delinquents were children of poor parents. While 78.9 % of the mothers were not in gainful employment, only 32.1 % of the fathers were in wage employment. Farming, hawking and casual work were found to be the major occupations for parents. This implies that they were low income earners as indicated by their occupations. In terms of property ownership, only 44.4 % had parents who owned property. The majority (46.3 %) owned small pieces of land below 3 acres. Most of their parents (65.4 % fathers and 67.8 % mothers) had attained formal education only upto primary level or had no education at all. That could be the reason why the majority were not employed. The majority (80 %) came from big families (with 4 - 9 children). The modal size was found to be five and the maximum was nine. As compared to the control group (non-delinquents), the experimental group (delinquents) were found to be inferior in all the socio-economic indicators (parents occupation, ownership of property, level of education and family size) that the study employed.

6.2.2 Life prior to institutionalization.

The study found out that 65 % of the respondents were staying at their places of origin with only 24.2 % staying with both of their parents, while 10.8 % were staying alone. The study also found out that 60.4 % of the respondents were attending school but had dropped out due to reasons such as lack of fees, lack of

uniforms. teacher beating. sickness and bad company. Lack of money. food. clothing. shelter. and not being in school were found to be the major deprivations that the children suffered prior to committal.

6.2.3 Factors that contribute to rehabilitation success

The study found that sex had a relationship with all indicators of rehabilitation success considered in this study viz. (amount of help received by inmates and ex-inmates from the schools in becoming people of socially accepted modes of conduct in the community through delinquency eradication; whether committal had brought any positive change in terms of discipline and training acquisition (vocational and academic) for inmates and ex-inmates; rate of serious disciplinary cases for inmates and recidivism among ex-inmates; inmates and ex-inmates aspiration level). The statistical relationship between sex and all the indicators of rehabilitation success was found to be significant.

This implies that possibly female delinquency is rather not sophisticated and deep-rooted as compared to that of their male counterparts. This means that causes of female delinquency can easily be ascertained, thus facilitating their rehabilitation. This can further be supported by the fact that the types of offences committed by female juvenile delinquents were rather not of a serious nature for example minor theft and vagrancy. These can easily be treated using quick intervention measures. For female ex-inmates. the majority (4 out of 8) were married and settled.

This means that they had acquired new status in the society and it is also a sign of responsibility. Only one male ex-inmate was married and settled, while the rest were unstable and cited economic want as the major reason. This may explain why more male (75 %) than female (37.5 %) ex-inmates recidivated. This means the long term rehabilitation effectiveness of approved schools can be examined in the social and economic conditions of the approved schools ex-inmates.

The study found out that attitude towards rehabilitation programmes (usefulness) was not generally a warm one. The majority of the inmates (55.8 %) and ex-inmates (68.8 %) did not find rehabilitation programmes offered as being useful at all. Attitude towards rehabilitation programmes significantly influenced all the indicators of rehabilitation success. The relationship between the two was also found to be fairly strong, hence attitude towards rehabilitation programmes was a good predictor of rehabilitation success.

Rehabilitation programmes aim at counselling, educating and training the offender with the aim of causing a true change in behaviour to ensure he/she does not reoffend after release. The intended targets are the juvenile delinquents themselves and it seems reasonable to assume that their anticipation, beliefs and opinions will have some effects on the success or failure of the rehabilitation programmes. There is need therefore to explore the type of rehabilitation programmes juvenile delinquents prefer with the aim of modifying and improving them since they do not readily

accept all the services being provided. Rehabilitation programmes therefore should be adapted to individual interest, motivation and relevance.

The majority of the inmates (63.3 %) and ex-inmates (75 %) had a cynical attitude towards committal to approved schools which they considered as having been unfair. The study found that attitude towards committal (whether fair or unfair) significantly influenced the indicators of rehabilitation success. The relationship was also found to be fairly strong, meaning that attitudes towards committal was also a good predictor of rehabilitation success. This implies that inmates will respond or fail to respond to rehabilitation depending on whether they perceive their committal as having been just. This means committal and subsequent rehabilitation can only be justified in instances where the juvenile delinquent is held responsible for his/her own crime. It should not be in instances where other extraneous factors for example socio-economic want in our case is largely to blame. There is need therefore to relate committal with crime causation factors if rehabilitation is to be effective.

6.2.4 Effects (attitude and integration) of institutional confinement.

The majority (70.8 %) of the institutionalized children had negative attitude towards approved schools. It is argued that "a bad home is better than a good institution". The study confirms this as institutionalized juvenile delinquents preferred to be in

their homes to being in the approved schools. Despite the fact that the majority hailed from low socio-economic backgrounds where some had even been deprived of the basic needs prior to institutionalization. Most respondents never felt contented in the institutions and wished to leave. This is in view of the fact that they were being provided with some of the deprived basic needs for example clothes, food, shelter and education. It can be concluded that approved schools seem not to provide an alternative to a poor home which might predispose children to delinquency. They were not totally integrated in these schools and many missed their homes and 60.8 % said they wished to leave.

Among the four predictors considered in the study, the property status of parents emerged as the best predictor (12 %) of the variance in attitude towards institutional confinement while family size was the poorest predictor (0.7 %). The four predictors were only able to explain 17.7 % of the variance in attitude.

For integration in schools, the best predictor was whether one had parents or not (47 %). The poorest predictors were family size and residence. The four predictors chosen were able to explain 61.2 % of the variance in integration. Those who had parents at home were less integrated in the schools.

6.3.0 Recommendations.

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations can be made .

1. The juvenile court should at all times ensure that no child is committed to approved schools unless reform seems unobtainable by other means for example probation. This is because juvenile delinquency is primarily a social problem. Its solutions therefore lie within the social environment under which the child is reared. Where poverty is the main contributory factor to delinquency, improvement of the material condition of the home is highly desirable. The aid of private or public charity can usually be invoked to release the stress of economic want. Also community based rehabilitation services should be initiated so that juvenile delinquents can be helped while in their own homes instead of being moved to approved schools. This would also mobilize the community for advocacy towards prevention of juvenile delinquency.
2. Staff employed in approved schools should be trained social workers, sociologists, psychologists and even psychiatrists, so as to effectively handle delinquent children's attitudes and behaviour. As for serving staff members, seminars and refresher courses including conferences should be organized from time to time and all the officers should have the opportunity of attending. This would assist the officers in improving the quality of their work by learning more current methods of crime treatment.
3. Constant evaluation of rehabilitation programmes is necessary to ensure that new programmes and continuation of

old ones is based on their effectiveness and needs. It is necessary to employ evaluation officers whose services would be to ascertain the worth of the goals that the rehabilitation programmes have successfully achieved. Their work would also include writing proposals with a view to convincing donors for financial assistance. This would go along way in addressing the issue of inadequate budgetary allocations from the parent ministry.

4. Strengthening of after-care services for the approved schools ex-inmates in form of regular follow-up and crisis intervention is essential. This would help in evaluating the individual's progress and assist him/her in building a firm foundation for community living.

5. Some further measures of classification maybe introduced in the existing approved schools so as to avoid mixing both the delinquents and non-delinquents who are in need of protection and discipline. This means that the schools will be more appropriately graded according to the special nature of the cases committed to each one so as to facilitate rehabilitation efforts.

6.3.1 Further research.

A specific longitudinal research should be done focusing on a cohort of juvenile delinquents committed at a specific period. These should be selected as the research subjects in all approved schools, which would ensure a larger sample and a broader scope.

These should be followed with reports on their institutional and a segment of their post-institutional behaviour being taken at certain specified times using questionnaires and interview schedules. These should be administered to the research subjects by a team of researchers. Such an approach should be a step towards uncovering the major determinants of rehabilitation effectiveness which have so far remained obscure.

At the same time a fund should be set aside dealing with this kind of research. This is because the funding needed for this type of longitudinal research is quite enormous. However in the face of the changing time, this should not be so difficult since it will have its results in the future.

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APPENDIX

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE.

SECTION 1: To be administered to the members of staff.

1. Name of the institution _____
2. Name of the Respondent _____
3. Sex _____
4. Tribe _____
5. Marital status _____
6. Religion _____
7. What is your education level ? _____
8. How many years have you worked in approved school(s) ?

9. (a) Do you have professional training pertaining to your present job ?
1. Yes () 2. No ()
(b) If yes specify what kind of training _____

10. (a) Have you attended any refresher course, further training or professional seminars in the course of your service
1. Yes () 2. No ()
(b) If yes specify _____

(c) Has your training or experience helped you to understand the inmates problems in the school(s) ?
1. Yes () 2. No ()
(d) How ? _____

11. (a) What is your typical daily routine in this school ?

(b) What kind of special care do you give to inmates ?

(c) Do you consider the school(s) beneficial or harmful to inmates ?

1. Beneficial

2. Harmful

Explain _____

(d) What is your attitude towards inmates ?

1. Like them very much ()

2. Neutral ()

3. Do not like them ()

4. Dislike them ()

12. (a) What are the rehabilitation programmes that are emphasized most in the school ? _____

(b) What do you think of these programmes being implemented in this school ?

1. Very useful () 2. Useful () 3. Not useful ()

(c) What is the attitude of inmates towards these programmes?

1. Positive () 2. Neutral () 3. Negative ()

(d) How much do you think the delinquents (inmates) benefit from these programmes ?

1. A lot () 2. Very little () 3. Not at all ()

(e) Are facilities/resources to implement these programmes adequate ?

1. Yes () 2. No ()

Please explain _____

13. (a) What are the different types of inmates within the school? _____
- (b) Is there any intake study to indicate whether the juvenile is amenable to treatment facilities available?
1. Yes () 2. No ()
- If yes, how is it done _____
14. (a) How possible is it for an inmate to learn crime from one another?
1. Not possible () 2. Possible ()
3. Very Possible ()
- (b) How often do you receive juvenile delinquents committed for the second or third time?
1. Regularly () 2. Occassionally ()
3. Hardly ever () 4. Never ()
15. (a) Do you think the system of rehabilitation of delinquents in this school is effective as it is?
1. Yes () 2. No ()
- (b) If no, what changes do you feel are necessary if the system is to meet its goal better? _____

16. (a) What problems do you encounter in attempt to rehabilitate inmates? _____

17. Give any other comment about the institution _____

SECTION II: To be administered to children in approved schools.

1. Name of the school _____

2. Name/No. of the respondent _____

3. Age in years _____

4. Place of birth (District, Location) _____

5. Religion _____

6. Tribe _____

7. Residential area

(i) Rural (District, Location) _____

(ii) Urban (City, Estate) _____

Background information.

8. (a) Which of your parents is alive ?

1. Both _____

2. Mother only _____

3. Father only _____

4. Neither _____

5. Don't know _____

(b) If both parents are alive, do they stay in the same house
all the time ?

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

3. Don't know _____

8. If not, where does each of your parent stay ? (District, Location or town, estate)

Mother _____

Father _____

9. (a) Is your father or mother employed ?

Father: Yes _____ No _____

Mother: Yes _____ No _____

(b) If yes, where: Mother _____

Father _____

(c) If not, what does each do ?

Mother _____

Father _____

10. (a) Do your parents own any property ? (i.e. in terms of land, animals, house etc)

1. Yes _____

2. No _____

(b) If yes, specify _____

11. (a) Have your parents have any formal education ?

Mother: 1. Yes _____ 2. No _____ 3. Don't know _____

Father 1. Yes _____ 2. No _____ 3. Don't know _____

(b) If yes, which level did they attain ?

Mother: _____

Father: _____

12. (a) Do you have brothers or sisters ?

Brothers: Yes _____ No _____

Sisters: Yes _____ No _____

12. If yes, how many ?

Brothers _____ Sisters _____

13. Please state what each is currently doing _____

Life before committal to approved school

13. (a) Before coming to this school where were you staying ?

1. At place of origin _____

2. In this location (if not place of origin) _____

3. In the streets _____

4. Elsewhere (specify) _____

(b) With whom were you staying ?

1. Alone _____

2. With parents (Mother _____ Father _____)

3. Both _____

4. With relatives _____

14. (a) Did you ever go to school ? 1. Yes () 2. No ()

(b) If yes, for how many years ? _____

(c) If not, what were the reasons for not attending or dropping out of school ? _____

(d) If you never used to go to school, what did you use to do ? _____

15. What problems did you experience immediately before your coming to this school ? _____

Life in the school.

16. (a) When did you join this school ?
Month _____ Year _____
(b) How old were you ? Years _____
17. (a) For what offence were you committed to this school ?

(b) What circumstances surrounded the commission of your offence ? _____
18. Do you consider it fair to have been committed to an approved school ?
1. Fair () 2. Unfair () 3. Uncertain ()
19. What do you consider the purpose of the school to be ?
1. To train to be law abiding _____
2. Teach you a job training _____
3. Keep me out of home/town _____
4. Punishment _____
5. Education _____
6. Don't know _____
7. Others (specify) _____
20. How can you describe the school environment ?
1. Good experience _____
2. Bad experience _____
3. Unable to describe the experience _____
21. (a) What kind of rehabilitation programmes are you involved in while staying at this school ? _____

21. How useful do you think these rehabilitation programmes are to you ?

1. Very useful () 2. Useful ()
3. Not useful ()

(a) Are you forced to undertake these rehabilitation programmes or you do them freely/willingly ?

1. Forced () 2. Freely/willingly ()

(d) How much do you think the school has helped you in becoming a person of good conduct in the community through delinquency eradication ?

1. Very much () 2. A little ()
3. Not at all ()

(e) Has the committal brought any other positive changes in your own life in terms of discipline and training acquisition ?

1. Yes () 2. No ()

If yes, what kind of change _____

22. (a) Have you ever been punished here ?

1. Yes () 2. No ()

(b) If yes how many times in the past 30 days and why ?

(c) What kind of punishment were you given ? _____

(d) How do you consider punishment administered here ?

1. Mild () 2. Fair () 3. Severe ()

adversely affected you ? _____

(c) In what ways do you think this approved school can be improved ? _____

29. What is your future aspiration or what do you intend to do when you leave this school ?

1. Continuing with education beyond primary level
2. Joining certain professions e.g. medicine, teaching etc
3. Does not have any future aspiration
4. No knowledge of the future.

SECTION III: Control group

1. Name of the school _____
2. Name/No of the respondent _____
3. Age in years _____
4. Place of birth (District, Location) _____
5. Religion _____
6. Tribe _____
7. Residential area
(i) Rural (District, location) _____
(ii) Urban (City, estate) _____

Background information.

8. (a) Which of your parents is alive ?
 1. Both _____

2. Mother only _____
3. Father only _____
4. Neither _____
5. Don't know _____

(b) If both parents are alive do they stay in the house all the time ?

1. Yes ()
2. No ()
3. Don't know ()

(c) If not, where does each of your parent stay ? (District, location or town, estate)

Mother _____

Father _____

9. (a) Is your father or mother employed ?

Father:	Yes ()	No ()
Mother:	Yes ()	No ()

(b) If yes, where;

Mother _____

Father _____

(c) If not, what does each do ?

Mother _____

Father _____

10. (a) Do your parents own property ? (i.e. in terms of land, animals, house etc)

1. Yes _____
2. No _____

If yes, specify _____

11. (a) Have your parents had any formal education ?

Mother: 1. Yes () 2. No () 3. Don't know ()

Father: 1. Yes () 2. No () 3. Don't know ()

(b) If yes, which level did they attain ?

Mother _____

Father _____

SECTION IV: To be administered to those who have been discharged from approved schools.

1. (a) Name/No. _____

(b) Sex _____

2. Age in years _____

3. Place of birth (District, Location) _____

4. Religion _____

5. Tribe _____

6. Residential area

1. Rural (District, Location) _____

2. Urban (City, Estate) _____

7. (a) When were you on committal in an approved school ?

From _____ to _____

(b) In which school(s) ? _____

(c) Was that your first committal term ?

Yes () No ()

8. (a) For what offence(s) were you committed ?

8. What circumstances surrounded the commission of the offence? _____

9. Do you consider it fair to have been committed to an approved school?

1. Fair () 2. Unfair () 3. Uncertain ()

9. (a) How can you describe the school experience?

1. Good experience _____

2. Bad experience _____

3. Unable to describe the experience _____

(b) How much do you think the school helped you in becoming a person of good conduct in the community through delinquency eradication?

1. Very much _____

2. A little _____

3. Not at all _____

(c) Did the committal bring any other positive changes in your own life in terms discipline and training acquisition?

1. Yes ()

2. No ()

If yes, what kind of change? _____

If no, why? _____

10. (a) What kind of rehabilitation programmes were you involved in while in the approved school? _____

(b) How useful do you think these rehabilitation programmes you underwent are to you currently?

1. Very useful _____
2. Useful _____
3. Not useful _____

10. Are you utilising any skills/trades you learnt while in the approved school to earn your living ?

1. Yes ()
2. No ()

If yes, which ones ? _____

If no, why ? _____

11. (a) Have you had any further academic or specialised training ever since the time you were discharged from the approved school?

1. Yes ()
2. No ()

(b) Probe further _____

12. (a) What is the greatest thing you benefitted in by being in an approved school ? _____

(b) What other benefits did you gain from the approved school? _____

(c) What are your hopes/aspirations in life?

(d) What is your current economic conditions as compared to the economic conditions prior to committal?

1. Better _____
2. Same _____
3. Worse _____

13. (a) Have you had any subsequent problem with the law since completing your committal period?

1. Yes _____
2. No _____

(b) If yes, what have been your.

1. Rearrest rates _____

2. New conviction rates _____

3. Reincarceration rates _____

4. Police contact rates _____

(c) What circumstances surrounded these subsequent problems with the law? _____

14. (a) One would have expected that after receiving guidance, counselling and all that assistance during committal period, one would not commit further crimes. What is your opinion on this? _____

(b) And in your own case what would you say drove you back to fall into conflict with the law? _____

(c) What would you suggest should be done to assist people to keep away from criminal behaviour and so become law abiding citizens? _____

15. Any other relevant comments? _____