

Original Research Article

# Assessment of the Differences in Juvenile Crime Based on Family set-up among Secondary School Students in Kisii County, Kenya

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**Abstract:** Juvenile crime is a huge concern across the world today. Young individuals engage in antisocial behaviors such as theft, robbery, rape, drug and substance misuse, drug trafficking, disdain for authority, and even murder. The purpose of the study was to assess the differences in juvenile crime according to family set-up among secondary school students in Kisii County, Kenya. A descriptive survey research approach was adopted. The study's target population comprised 6,357 students from selected secondary schools. The sample size included 610 students, 9 school officials (principals, deputy principals, and teacher counsellors, one from each school), and 9 parents. The sample only included pupils from grades two and three. Both probability and non-probability sampling approaches were utilized. The schools were chosen using the convenience sampling approach. In contrast, simple random sampling was used to pick student respondents from schools A and B, and purposive selection was used to select student respondents from school C and all school administrators. The parents were also picked using convenience sampling. Data was gathered through student and teacher surveys, principal interview schedules, and parent focus groups. Data was analyzed using correlation analysis with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25. The findings revealed that upper-class adolescents were more delinquent than lower-class adolescents and that the media impacts juvenile crime. The research advised that media be used appropriately to minimize crime and that upper-class parents limit the digital gadgets available to their children.

**Keywords:** Adolescent, Juvenile Crime, Media, Suicidal Ideation.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

In this study, juvenile crime (JC) refers to criminal activities performed by young people under the statutory age of maturity in their respective nations. Globally, youngsters are accused of being the primary perpetrators of crime and other forms of violence, and this behavior is on the rise. Fourchard (2010) highlighted that adolescent crime is one of the most critical and oppressive issues in both developed and developing countries throughout the world. According to the United Nations Development Corporation (2011), the worldwide juvenile crime rate climbed by 180% between 1997 and 2010. According to the International Energy Agency (IEA, 2011), Kenya's jailed juvenile population grew from 15,607 to 21,904 between 1971 and 1976. Furthermore, youngsters perpetrated 48,710 (54%) of Kenya's crimes between 2007 and 2008; these figures must be substantially higher today.

Juvenile Crime (JC) is a significant concern for many governments, communities, schools, and families (Shoemaker, 2017). According to Moffit (2016), all teenagers worldwide have a predisposition to participate in antisocial, violent, or delinquent behavior that adults often frown upon. According to Mncube and Madiya (2017), the issue begins in childhood, progresses through puberty, and reaches its climax in middle adolescence. Many governments throughout the globe, both now and in the past, have attempted to contain the scourge of juvenile crime by enacting severe laws to handle it. However, the strict regulations have only resulted in significant expenses and frustration for the governments themselves (Ojo, 2012). This is because convicts must be fed, treated when sick, provided with social amenities like as power, water, and sanitation, and supplied with personal hygiene products, in addition to being paid by the guards who watch over them. Families are also highly

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psychologically frustrated since they are concerned for their detained loved ones. They also face financial difficulties in attempting to communicate with a loved one who is incarcerated (Lockwood & Lewis, 2019).

According to the Australian Institute of Criminology (2018), crime rates among adolescents aged 15 to 19 have continuously been more significant than those aged 19 and older. In 2007-2008, those aged 15 to 19 had four times the offending rate as those over 19. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2012), juvenile offenders accounted for 29% of all offenders that year. This is a concerning trend since today's adolescents are tomorrow's adults, and there is no assurance that future generations will behave better than the ones we know now. UNICEF (2010) proposed an explanation for this scenario, claiming that JD continues most likely because the programs launched to combat it in many countries worldwide are either inadequately equipped or lack appropriately qualified and dedicated workers.

In Kenya, Juvenile crime has been on the rise since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. A report by the Kenya National Crime Research Centre (KNCRC, 2016) citing the Sagini Report of 1991, states that student violence in the country can be traced to as far back as 1908 when the first case of student violence occurred at Maseno School. At that time, what was called student unrest involved only simple protests like boycotting classes and staging mass walk-outs. Since then, incidences of youth involvement in school unrest across the country has grown in leaps and bounds to involve actual murder, injury/assault to others and destruction of property. Youth crime in Kenya has increased since the early twentieth century. According to a report by the Kenya National Crime Research Centre (KNCRC, 2016), which cites the Sagini Report of 1991, student violence in the nation dates back to 1908, when the first occurrence happened at Maseno School. At the time, "student unrest" referred to basic demonstrations such as boycotting classes and organizing massive walkouts. Since then, the number of teenagers involved in school unrest around the country has increased dramatically, with cases involving actual murder, injury/assault to others, and property damage. In 2007/2008, for example, 89,770 crimes were perpetrated, with 48,710 committed by minors. The frequency of juvenile offenses among Kenyan youth increased by 76.9% between 2012 and 2013 (KNBS, 2014). In September 2012, for example, females from Maua Secondary School colluded with guys from a neighboring school, Ngelani Secondary School. They successfully sneaked them into the dorms, where a sexual orgy took place all night (Biu, 2011). According to Kenya's National Bureau of Statistics (2015), 2,570 young Kenyans under 18 were imprisoned in 2013, with 3,455 in 2014.

In Kisii County, students from both primary and secondary schools participate in criminal activity. They

conduct heinous and painful acts. The case at hand is a Kisii school student who, in January 2021, attacked two of his instructors for the weak reason of being reprimanded for a misdeed. In the Kenyena sub-county, a Randani Primary School standard eight student fatally stabbed a classmate. In another remarkable event, a 14-year-old grade four student attempted to kill her father by poisoning his food because he disapproved of her connection with a form four guy (<https://www.pd.co.ke>, 2021). This situation may not be a one-time occurrence; for whatever reason, the daughter may have had a long-standing animosity against her father. According to Mogendi (2012), elementary school pupils participate in delinquent behaviors such as disobedience to instructors, absenteeism, sexual associations, theft, drug usage, and even untidy attire. Furthermore, Mogendi (2012) states that parents and the general public may assist such vulnerable individuals in dealing with the reasons for misbehavior before they cause harm. According to the same author (Mogendi, 2021), in 2016, students in Kisii county's secondary schools razed 24 schools in two months. In 2021, rowdy students set fire to Amabuko and Nyabigena secondary schools in Kisii County because they wanted to go home for half-term despite the government's desire to keep all pupils in school.

## 2. Statement of the Problem

The issue of juvenile crime is a primary concern worldwide, affecting governments, communities, families, and young people themselves. Adolescents consume drugs and sell them to their classmates in many schools throughout the world, as well as to the broader public, steal, fight, participate in sexual orgies, and damage valuable property for pleasure. Furthermore, there have been scary and terrible reports of pupils murdering or severely hurting their teachers and other school personnel. On other occasions, they have brazenly demolished expensive school facilities, and in the chaos and fear that ensues, female students and even professors have been raped. As if that is not enough, they have devised a new kind of crime in which they plot and arrogantly walk out of school, instructing the school administration to wait for their word on the day they want to return to school! Several educational institutions of all levels continue to organize violent and destructive strikes at the slightest provocation. National and county governments, churches, communities, and families have attempted to address this issue. Despite these diligent efforts, the issue persists. To reduce adolescent crime, it is necessary to understand it from various perspectives, which is why this study was conducted.

Even though problematic conduct among secondary school students is on the rise, relatively few seek treatment. Despite the increasing prevalence of juvenile crime among adolescents, young people are hesitant to seek treatment (Lynch & Long, 2020; Divin *et al.*, 2018). Many scholars have studied juvenile criminality, but few have looked at both juvenile crime and family set-up, which prompted this investigation.

### 3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to Assessment of the Differences in Juvenile Crime Based on Family set-up Among Secondary School Students in Kisii County, Kenya.

### 4. LITERATURE REVIEW

Many factors have been connected to adolescent criminality, including a history of antisocial behavior in childhood, substance misuse, cognitive deficiencies, poverty, family, classmates, neighborhood, media, and school, to name a few. This study concentrated on family, poverty, and the media. The familial and societal environment in which children grow can either shield them from or lead to juvenile criminality (Wallman, 2010). Parents or caregivers teach values and behavioral norms (the notion of right and wrong, respect, fairness, compassion, and responsibility) at home; children learn the significance of these values and their repercussions within the family. As a result, dysfunctional families pass on dysfunctional beliefs and standards to their offspring. In contrast, a functional family will pass down functional standards and values (Fumiyiwa, 2019).

The family influences a child's physical development by providing nourishment that either promotes or inhibits growth. The family also influences a child's character development since youngsters frequently absorb values learned at home and apply them later in life (Mwangangi, 2019). According to Mwangangi, unstable homes cause children to acquire bad attitudes and a tendency to fail chores, which can lead to crime. The family is the primary school of morality in any culture. The quality of each member of society is encouraged and nurtured in the family. The home environment should foster appropriate morality and social norms. Unfortunately, in today's culture, the family's ability to constructively socialize children has been significantly reduced. Some parents are themselves delinquent!

Adolescents of all ages live in various households with various parent combinations, including single, married, step, separated/divorced, and grandparents. They also face monitoring levels, supervision, participation, and parental connection. In these various familial situations, children are either encouraged or criticized. Baltazar discovered that parental support increases children's behavior, whereas blame discourages it (Baltazar, 2019). According to Hearnese, teenage crime is common when parents are emotionally distant from their children, show little love and warmth to them, give little supervision, purposefully neglect the children, and have low expectations or demands for their behavior (Hearnese, 2015). Parents need more support or interest in their children's activities by not attending school events, spending most of their time on the internet at home, failing to assist their children with homework, or being away from home for

extended periods. Confident parents' conduct causes children and teenagers to seek attention from others unconcerned about their well-being. Such parents are too preoccupied with their own issues to address their children's issues.

The traditional family setting, in which the father, mother, and extended family members lived and worked at home, was ideal for raising well-behaved children because it provided children with loving male and female role models who contributed positively to both family life and society as a whole (Mwangangi, 2019). This setting reduced delinquent risk factors for teenagers. In Kenya's traditional Abagusii society, for example, children were constantly engaged in meaningful activities under adult supervision, and any youngster detected misbehaving was punished by an adult. Such a child would never dare to disclose the punishment to his parents, who would punish him in return. As a result, children were obligated to act appropriately at all times. In this context, adults told children folktales. The folktales were intended to teach the younger generation about acceptable and unsuitable characteristics.

Other studies, such as Petts (2009) and Wallman (2010), stress this component of child-parent attachment/relationship and supervision, stating that the type of household children grow up in and the social milieu they are exposed to significantly influence their well-being. Adolescents nurtured in family systems that reward, encourage, and show affection develop good self-esteem and self-control, which reduces anti-social behavior (Barnes *et al.*, 2006). Parents' parenting styles and family structure directly impact their children's aberrant conduct. When an adolescent lacks appropriate supervision and guidance and frequent sanctions, he or she is more likely to engage in deviant conduct. Children who live in non-traditional households are more likely to acquire destructive behaviors, including crime, than children who live in conventional families with biological parents (Wallman, 2010). Children's criminal conduct varies depending on their family of origin.

According to the World Youth Report, young people at risk of becoming delinquent usually live under challenging circumstances such as parental alcoholism, poverty, family fragmentation, overcrowding, abusive home conditions, the growing HIV/AIDS epidemic, or the loss of parents. Otieno's research on juvenile delinquents committed to the Shikusa Borstal Institution in Kakamega discovered that dysfunctional or broken family systems do affect criminality in juveniles since the majority of cases were from broken households (Otieno, 2017). The same study discovered that broken households hurt children's mental health. This data shows that there is a strong and urgent need for all stakeholders, including the government, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), semi-autonomous government agencies (SAGAs), the church, and schools,

to develop intervention strategies to educate parents and youth about the scourge of crime and to provide therapy to those who are already affected.

Research in Africa has also found that their familial and social surroundings significantly influence children's well-being. According to Sanni *et al.*, families are the most potent socialization elements in life because they educate children to avoid improper conduct, delay pleasure, and respect the rights of others (Sanni *et al.*, 2017). They can also educate youngsters on violent and antisocial behavior based on the family's lifestyle. Children internalize the values of their parents and significant others. The basis of juvenile crime is established in the type of family a child grows up in. Children who run away from home are more likely to come from families where their parents are uninvolved with their children's concerns.

In Kenya, research by Mugo, Musembi, and Kangethe discovered that most juvenile offenders come from poor and isolated families. Adolescents who intentionally seek out antisocial friends may have severe and long-term family troubles. Another research on adolescent delinquents at Eldoret Remand Home found that many came from broken and divided families, while others originated from single-parent households (Rwengo, 2017). In other words, many youngsters who participate in delinquent behavior originate from insecure households. According to Radohl, as Otieno, Kombo, and Bowen mentioned, if these unstable connections are repaired, young people will be less likely to commit crimes (Otieno *et al.*, 2017).

However, research has revealed that some teenagers engage in dangerous and criminal behavior out of curiosity since they are trying things for the first time. Just as they learn to drive for the first time, they experiment with drugs, clothing, and who they want to hang out with. Some of these experiences get them into trouble. According to Eric Erikson's 1956 theory of development, adolescence is a phase of exploratory behavior typical of that stage of development. Steinberg saw juvenile offending as natural teenage behavior (Steinberg, 2008). According to Seedat *et al.*, (2009), young people are the most likely to be both victims and perpetrators of violence across the world. Baltazar further claims that as part of the normal process of growing up, young people participate in activities that break established laws and regulations (Barrett & Welsh,

2018), some of which are significant crimes, while others are minor. Some youngsters connect with delinquent friends in adolescence because they believe it is expected (Buehler, 2006). Most children engage in some antisocial or delinquent behavior during adolescence, while some stop all criminal activities once they reach maturity. This evidence suggests that not all teenage crime is caused by family type, which supports one of the study's weaknesses.

## 4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 4.1 Study Area

This study was carried out at selected secondary schools in Kisii County, Kisii Central Sub-County, and Getembe Zone. Kisii Central Sub-County contains eight (8) educational zones: Birongo, Ibeno, Keumbu, Kiogoro, Matunwa, Mosoch, Nyatioko, and Getembe. The sub-county was chosen as the research location since studies concentrating on the factors of this study have yet to be conducted there. Second, nine of the eighteen secondary schools set on fire by Kisii County students are located in Kisii Central. Furthermore, three of the nine schools are from the Getembe Zone, explaining their inclusion. Three schools were chosen: one for girls (School A), one for boys (School B), and one for mixed-day secondary students (School C).

The schools were purposefully chosen because they have the highest enrollment in their categories and are expected to generate sufficient data for the study, as well as because Parhiz, Zarrabi, and Meshkini (2017) state that there is a significant relationship between a place's population intensity and its crime rate. This is likely due to the ease with which wrongdoers may hide among others after offending. The chosen region was judged an adequate sample area since most Kenyan high schools are similar in the environment; they are either solely boys' boarding schools, strictly girls' boarding schools, mixed day and boarding, or simply mixed day schools. The target group of adolescents was likely to provide a good representative sample.

### 4.2 Sample and Sampling Technique

Turner (2020) states that a sample size is a subset of the population of interest in a research study, which is used to estimate the characteristics of the whole population. The sample size of the study was calculated using the Cronbach sample size determination formula thus:

$$n = \frac{N}{(1 + N(e)^2)} \quad n = \frac{3180}{(1 + 3180(0.03432)^2)}$$

**n=670**     where **e** is the error term.

The calculated sample size using the stated formula was 670. However, only 610 students took part

in the study. The researcher used 610 secondary school pupils from Kisii Central Sub-County, Getembe Zone.

School A had nine streams per class, school B had twelve, and school C had just two.

All three schools were purposefully chosen for inclusion in the sample since they had the most significant enrollment in their respective categories. The decision was based on Oliveira's (2021) belief that crime is more prevalent in densely populated places. Two from two streams from school A had 140 pupils, and two from three streams had 110 for 250 students. School B had 124 form two pupils and 110 form three students, totaling 234. However, because school C had a low enrolment,

all form two and three children (186) were included in the sample.

The schools' replies to the administration of the tools were as follows: Table 1 shows 245 from School A, 237 from School B, and 128 from School C. There were also nine school administrators and nine parents. Kombo and Tromp (2009) chose the number of parents who suggested that a focus group should consist of 6-9 persons with similar features. Miller (2020) also adds that a focus group discussion typically involves 6-10 individuals.

**Table 1: Table Showing the Distribution of the sample by school category**

Category	School	Principal	D. Principal	Counsellor	Parents	Students	Total
Boys	School B	1	1	1	3	237	243
Girls	School A	1	1	1	3	245	251
Mixed Day	School C	1	1	1	3	128	133
<b>Total</b>		<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>610</b>	<b>627</b>

Table 1 depicts the school category and the actual schools. It also displays the number of participants included in the sample from each school and the overall number of sample units.

### 4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design was a descriptive survey with mixed methodologies. Kothari defines a research design as the conceptual framework for conducting research. According to Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, and Zechmeister (2011), a study design enables a researcher to explain numerous experiences, events, and behaviors and examine their connections.

#### 4.4 Study Instruments

The researcher collected data from respondents via three study instruments: a questionnaire for kids and instructors, an interview schedule for principals, and a focus group discussion tool for parents. This was done to broaden the scope of the study beyond the answers of students and teachers.

#### 4.5 Validity of the Instruments

According to Orodho (2012), validity is the degree to which the findings of a test instrument measure what it claims to measure. The questionnaires utilized in this study were designed to explain the extent to which chosen respondents' suicidal thoughts, media exposure, and help-seeking behavior predicted juvenile criminality among secondary school students in Kisii County. The responses to the measures were also used to examine if juvenile crime differed between secondary schools in Kisii County based on the type of household respondents hailed from and their perceived social status. Finally, the findings were used to determine if the factors impact teenage help-seeking behavior. The tools were also verified by the findings of a pilot research done at Kiamabundu Mixed Day Secondary School, which was not part of the study. The instruments were also

presented to university supervisors, who provided helpful feedback for improving the research tools.

#### 4.6 Reliability of Instruments and Definition of Variables

According to Oso and Onen (2005), dependability refers to the extent to which data-collecting processes and tools yield consistent findings each time they are delivered. According to Kasomo (2007), dependability refers to the degree to which a research instrument produces consistent results when used in similar settings. The dependability of a study's instruments may be determined using a variety of approaches, such as pre-testing or factor analysis.

In this study, reliability was assessed using factor analysis. Factor analysis is one method for assessing the dependability of instruments and variables. It involves eliciting numerous reactions to a particular phenomenon and statistically aggregating them to generate factors using SPSS's "create a variable" technique. The replies are statistically re-evaluated to ensure internal consistency. If the consistency is strong, the replies are thought to reflect the respondents' impression of the phenomenon.

This phenomenon is then referred to as a construct or factor. Factor analysis can be exploratory (where a freshly generated questionnaire is examined for prospective constructs or factors) or confirmatory (where an existing questionnaire is checked to ensure that it still measures what it used to or promises to measure). Cronbach Alpha measures consistency. Low dependability goes from 0.000 to 0.300, while moderate reliability is between 0.400 and 0.600. Any measure greater than 0.700 is considered 1.000, indicating flawless dependability.

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed to analyze the reliability of variables from data gathered

using the Ageton and Elliot (1980) crime questionnaire and the Wilson, Deane, Ciarrochi, and Rickwood (2005) General Help-Seeking Questionnaire for help-seeking behavior. Factor analysis was also performed to assess the dependability of media-related components and suicidal ideation. These were then connected to determine the extent to which they affect adolescent crime.

According to Tavakol and Wetzel (2020), factor analysis enables a researcher to reduce complicated variables using statistical processes to clarify their relationship. The procedure was utilized to create the variables of crime, help-seeking behavior, and suicidal ideation, which were later employed in the study. The explanations that follow demonstrate the statistical process of developing variables from the many items in the Ageton & Elliot (1980) self-report crime questionnaire and the items in Wilson, Deane, Ciarrochi, & Rickwood's (2005) General Help-Seeking Questionnaire (GHSQ) for help-seeking behavior.

**4.7 Methods of Data Analysis**

The study results were presented in a methodical manner that informed the reader. First, tables,

frequencies, and percentages describe the demographics of respondents. They include their age, class, school, and gender to provide basic demographic information on the participants and their schools. The correlations were then interpreted using a variety of inferential statistical approaches. Before completing each objective, a thematic analysis of the qualitative data is conducted.

**5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

**5.1 Relationship between Juvenile Crime and Respondents' Family Set-Up**

The study attempted to determine the effect of family type on adolescent criminality. The definition of family type was based on the response to the item "What type of family do you come from?" to which they had to pick an appropriate response from the following:

1. Single parent family
2. Step family
3. Two biological parent family
4. Separated/divorced family
5. Grandparent family

A study of the distribution of responses among family types produced the results shown in Table 2 below.

**Table 2: Distribution of Respondents According to Family Set-up**

	Frequency	Percent
Single	112	18.4
Two Biological parents	468	76.7
Step family	7	1.1
Separated/divorced	15	2.5
Grand parent family	8	1.3
Total	610	100.0

Table 2 shows that most responders (468 (76.7%)) remained with their two biological parents. This was followed by 112 (18.4%) who reported living with their single moms. In all, 95.1% remain with their

biological parents (either both or one). Although the numbers in each group are comparable, the results of a one-way analysis of Variance are shown below.

**Table 3: One-Way ANOVA for Crime and Help Seeking According to Family set-up**

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
DELINQUENT	Between Groups	1.107	4	.277	1.230	.297
	Within Groups	134.808	599	.225		
	Total	135.916	603			
HELPSEEKING	Between Groups	3.680	4	.920	3.444	.009
	Within Groups	160.286	600	.267		
	Total	163.966	604			

From the Table 3, it was revealed that all mean differences in crime were not significant (F=1.230, p-value=0.297). This means that crime is the same among family set-up.

**5.2 Differences in Help-Seeking Behavior among Family set-up**

However, a F=3.44, p-value = 0.009, substantially lower than 0.05, indicates significant differences in help-seeking behavior across the groups.

Children from families that are cohesive, adaptable, and have strong communication skills are more likely to seek assistance than those from households lacking these characteristics. This is because parents connected to their children can spot harmful conduct and intervene to stop it before it spreads. Parents worried about their children's well-being are more likely to promote help-seeking behavior. This attitude was shared by the selected parents, who also expressed sorrow that job conditions have prevented some parents from spending enough time

with and guiding their children. Table 3 shows a post-hoc analysis to determine which groups differ in help-seeking conduct.

**Table 4: Post-Hoc Analysis for Group Differences in Help-Seeking Behavior**

(I) What family set-up do you come from?	(J) What family set-up do you come from?	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Single	Biological parent	-.02164	.05461	.692
	Step family	-.59627*	.20142	.003
	Separated/divorced	-.06198	.14218	.663
	Grand parent family	.38052*	.18921	.045
Two Biological parents	Single	.02164	.05461	.692
	Step family	-.57463*	.19682	.004
	separated/divorced	-.04034	.13559	.766
	Grand parent family	.40216*	.18431	.029
Step family	Single	.59627*	.20142	.003
	Biological parent	.57463*	.19682	.004
	separated/divorced	.53429*	.23659	.024
	Grand parent family	.97679*	.26750	.000
separated/divorced	Single	.06198	.14218	.663
	Biological parent	.04034	.13559	.766
	Step family	-.53429*	.23659	.024
	Grand parent family	.44250	.22628	.051
Grand parent family	Single	-.38052*	.18921	.045
	Biological parent	-.40216*	.18431	.029
	Step family	-.97679*	.26750	.000
	separated/divorced	-.44250	.22628	.051

According to Table 4, there are significant variations in help-seeking behavior among respondents raised by single moms and stepfamilies (p-value = 0.003), single mothers and grandparents (p-value = 0.045), two biological parents' households, and stepfamilies (p-value = 0.004). There were also significant variations in help-seeking behavior among respondents reared by their biological parents and grandparents' families (p-value 0.029). It is worth noting that help-seeking behavior is substantially greater in stepfamilies than in other households.

This intriguing discovery may imply that children raised by stepparents seldom seek assistance from either their stepparents or anybody else. This admission may indicate a lack of trust between the stepchildren and their stepparents or step-siblings. It can also suggest a sense of fear among juveniles raised by stepparents or just a desire by the juveniles to gain independence in coping with their problems. Stepparents, particularly stepmoms, treat their stepchildren severely, causing pain and shame associated with cruelty. Children in stepfamilies are more prone to violence due to the lack of solid emotional relationships with their non-biological family members. There is usually much violence toward stepchildren because stepparents are hesitant to invest their feelings and resources in children who do not share their blood. The principal of School A also emphasized this point, stating that many children from stepfamilies experience

violence, disinheritance, and sexual abuse, which adds to their erratic conduct.

## 6. CONCLUSION

The fact that the majority of criminals remain with their biological parents demonstrates the complexities of the circumstances that contribute to juvenile criminality. It emphasizes the importance of a complete strategy considering family dynamics, socioeconomic situations, educational settings, and psychological well-being. Implementing multimodal treatments can help to build a supportive framework that reduces the risk factors linked with juvenile crime and promotes healthy development for adolescents.

## 7. RECOMMENDATION

The research recommended that parents perform a successful parental role by being accessible for consultation with their children so they do not seek advice from dubious sources. Effective parenting is more than just meeting children's physical requirements; it also includes emotional support, direction, monitoring, and serving as a trustworthy source of counsel and consultation.

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