Journal of Advances and Scholarly Researches in Allied Education
Vol. 20, Issue No. 1, January-2023, ISSN 2230-7540

Existing Controversies Regarding the age Factor of Juvenile Delinquent Child

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Abstract - In this article, we examine the relationship between youth crime and the law throughout the world. The prevalence of juvenile delinquency is of increasing concern. There is a need for a public health strategy that strikes a balance between welfare and justice models since many juvenile offenders are also victims with complicated needs. However, a scarcity of specialized labor and inconsistent and insufficient legislative frameworks hamper these efforts worldwide. We also looked at how different factors, such a person's age when they start high school, might lead to markedly different patterns of development in their relationships. 166 female juvenile delinquents who were sentenced to community-based out-of-home care were included in the sample. Overall, the data show that the risk pathways for trauma and delinquency differ depending on whether or not a person has completed high school. The implications for future study and practice are highlighted.

Keywords - Delinquency, female, trauma, aggression, prevention, Juvenile

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INTRODUCTION

The nation's children are its most valuable resource. All children should be given the chance to develop into healthy adults who contribute positively to society via their wealth of knowledge, abilities, and character traits. Providing all children with the same developmental possibilities throughout their formative years is a powerful means of combating youth delinquency by eliminating inequality and guaranteeing social justice. Expectations for children include teaching them to be courteous, obedient, and virtuous. Children disobey established social and legal rules for a variety of reasons. Juvenile delinquency has emerged as the central focus of criminological study in recent years. There has been a growing need in recent years for a dispassionate analysis of the issue and the innovation of new methods. Juvenile delinquency has reached epidemic proportions, reflecting a diseased society. As a global phenomenon, deviant conduct is wreaking havoc in social institutions and serving as a wake-up call to those who are now affected by it or are at risk of becoming so.

Juvenile crime is an issue that is weighing heavily on the minds of people all across the world, and India is no different. The author of this study presents the perspectives and insights of secondary school educators on the topic of juvenile delinquency and the apparent moral degradation among their students. The issue was studied via the lens of socio-education, which, among other things, examines the impact of societal influences on the maturation of children and young adults. Author brings back the musical "West Side Story," in which a gang sings the tune "Gee, Officer Krupke," in the book's epigraph and elsewhere. Because of this, the researcher's focus has shifted back to the welfare of post-apartheid youngsters at township institutions of higher education. Teachers, administrators, education professionals, and authorities in India and throughout the world are now facing a similar conundrum to that faced by Officer Krupke, the psychiatrist and social worker, when asked "What... to do" regarding juvenile misbehavior. Research on the issue has shed light on societies and provided much-needed information about the phenomena throughout the years, and this process continues. Although many attempts have been made to better understand adolescent delinquency, it continues to be an issue and a huge challenge in both the family and the classroom. The next paragraphs provide an explanation of the issue that occupies the minds of many people in India and other cultures.

Though its specific meaning might vary by local jurisdiction, the phrase "juvenile delinquency" is often used in academic literature to refer to a young person who has committed a criminal crime. There doesn't seem to be a universally accepted worldwide standard, which may be at the root of these discrepancies. In this sense, a "juvenile" is a person who has reached the age of criminal responsibility and so is capable of committing an offense but who has not yet reached the age of criminal majority. The age of criminal majority is often set at 18, while the

minimum age of criminal responsibility may range from 6 to 18 years old depending on the country.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mittal, Kunjana. (2015) The crime rate in India continues to rise, and the most alarming trend is that it is rising among young people as well. They perform a wide variety of crimes, from robbery to murder to smuggling to sexual assault. People under the age of 18 are considered juveniles. Youth violence is an issue that is often brought to our attention. Night after night, news reports about shootings in neighborhoods and institutions of learning. The alarming rise in youth violence is a problem throughout the country. Punishment has been a major emphasis, while efforts to avoid problems or intervene have been mostly ignored.

Young S et.al. (2017) In this article, we examine the relationship between youth crime and the law throughout the world. The prevalence of juvenile delinquency is of increasing concern. There is a need for a public health strategy that strikes a balance between welfare and justice models since many juvenile offenders are also victims with complicated needs. However, a scarcity of specialized labor and inconsistent and insufficient legislative frameworks hamper these efforts worldwide. Forensic child and adolescent psychiatry, a comprehensive specialty that incorporates legal, psychiatric, and developmental areas, has been formed in the United Kingdom and other high-income nations throughout the globe. It is a more effective method of dealing with the issue of juvenile delinquency since its adoption of a therapeutic intervention philosophy is related with larger reductions in recidivism than the punitive methods popular in several nations throughout the globe.

Jingyi Gong (2022) Intervention strategies and program models that have been shown to decrease juvenile delinquency and promote prosocial growth have been found by researchers during the last decade. Juvenile delinquency prevention is important because it saves young lives and avoids the start of adult criminal careers, which in turn lessens the impact of crime on victims and society. This research seeks to address this societal issue by investigating the causes and potential solutions to incidents of minor violence on college campuses using a hybrid of Internet of Things and grid models. Utilizing concepts from the Internet of Things and grid computing, it implements the contemporary network system method of information management, collaborative operation, and grid integration in the designated region. Furthermore, a self-organizing competitive neural network is used to understand the reasons of campus violent offenses based on consulting-related literature and practical research. Finally, in order to successfully prevent and control the occurrence of juvenile campus violent crimes, this paper integrates the judicial practice of managing campus violence with the presentation of the preventive and control countermeasures of such crimes.

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E. C. Ates, et.al. (2020) Data stacks of great variety and volume have evolved with the fast evolution of information technology and the ubiquitous usage of the internet throughout time. Data mining's importance in the information-gathering process, particularly when dealing with massive datasets, is growing steadily. One of the most influential aspects of decision making is access to reliable information. Data mining has a variety of practical applications, one of which is the ever-expanding pile of crime records. Criminal acts are undesirable in every culture. This is why it's crucial to draw useful conclusions from crime statistics. This article's goal is to offer a high-level overview of the use of data mining and machine learning to crime data, as well as to shed light on the decision-making processes by providing concrete instances of such applications. A conceptual framework in the field of big data, data mining, machine learning, and deep learning, together with task kinds, procedures, and methodologies, is described, and then some instances of data mining and machine learning in crime and security-related domains are shown.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants

Girls (N = 166) with a history of chronic delinquency were eligible to participate and were placed in an out-of-home setting in their local community. Two cohorts of girls (n = 81 for Cohort 1 and n = 85 for Cohort 2) were recruited in a randomized-control study in the Pacific Northwest of the United States between 1997 and 2006 to compare Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care (MTFC; Chamberlain, 2003) to out-of-home services as usual (i.e., typical Group Care; GC). The criminal

court system recommended all of the participants and checked their qualifications. To qualify, a girl had to meet all of the following: (a)be between the ages of 13 and 17, (b)have been referred for criminal behavior at least once in the previous 12 months, (c)be put in out-of-home care during the same time frame, and (d)be a girl. Women who were expecting at the time of referral were not accepted. The project organizer flipped a coin to determine which group the girls would be placed in (MTFC = 81, GC = 85), and the independent assessors were kept in the dark about the girls' group assignments. At the start (T1) of the study, the average age of the participants was 15.30 (SD = 1.17). Sixty-8.1 percent of the females in this sample identified as Caucasian, 16.9 percent as Multiracial, 11.4 percent as Hispanic, 1.8 percent as African-American, 0.6 percent as Native American, 0.6 percent as Asian, and 0.6 percent as Other/Unknown. At T1, 63% of the girls were from single-parent households, and 54% were from households with an annual income of $10,000 or less. At T1, the girls were taken from their homes, but by T2, 43% were back with their families (34% were at a treatment facility, 13% were in custody or prison, 5% were on the run, and 4% were living independently). Neither juvenile delinquency nor rates of abuse throughout childhood were different between the two groups.

Procedure

Girls and their parents were polled twice: first at the study's start (T1) and again a year later (T2) (T2). Each girl and her current caregiver took part in a 2-hour evaluation at both time points, done by personnel who were unaware of group assignment and had no role in delivering the intervention. This research does not seek to evaluate the efficacy of an intervention, but we do provide a short overview of the intervention and account for it as a covariate in our analysis.

Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care (MTFC) intervention condition— Juvenile offenders' Treatment and Family Conservancy (MTFC) (Chamberlain, 2003) is a randomized intervention with strong empirical backing. MTFC is meant to aid young people in making a smooth transition back into society after receiving treatment for their delinquent behavior. The clinical staff, the placement of each kid, and the daily communication with the MTFC parents are all supervised by experienced program supervisors with minimal caseloads (i.e., 10 MTFC families). All participants receive the core MTFC intervention components, which include: daily telephone contact with foster parents to monitor case progress; weekly group supervision and support meetings for foster parents; a daily point-and-level program in the home; individual therapy; weekly meetings with behavioral support specialists in community settings; and family therapy for the aftercare phase. The Case of the Non-Interfering Control Group— Girls in the control condition of conventional group care (GC) were distributed to various community-based programs around the state, simulating the normal out-of-home care provided by the juvenile court system. There was an average of 10.67 and 11.06 kids in residence per program, respectively. Residential treatment (45.5% of all group care programs), foster care (39.4% of all group care programs), and other treatment (15.2%) were the most common forms of group care.

Measures Childhood trauma— T1 and T2 traumatic experiences were evaluated using Traumatic Stress Index items based on reports from caregivers (TSI; Norris, 1990). The TSI was developed to assess the frequency of traumatic events through the use of six indicators: (a) being a robbery victim, (b) being an assault victim, (c) being involved in a motor vehicle accident, (d) losing a friend or family member, (e) being a victim of natural or man-made disasters, and (f) other unique traumatic events. Caretakers reported whether their teenage participant had encountered each of the six categories of trauma throughout the course of their lifetime at T1 (cohort 1) or over the course of the previous 12 months (cohort 2), respectively (both cohorts). For each participant, we added up the points from all six markers to arrive at a total trauma event score. There was a scale from 0 to 6, with higher values indicating more severe trauma. At T1, primary caregivers were reported to be the child's birth parent(s), stepparent(s), adoptive parent(s), or grandparent(s) around 96% of the time, and a foster parent, staff member, or other relative roughly 60% of the time. About 60% of the time, the T2 reporter was not the same as the T1 reporter. However, there were no statistically significant differences in T2 mean levels of trauma based on biological parent report (M =.73, SD =.90) or other caregiver report (M =.71, SD =.87), t (137) =.12, p =.91.

Delinquency— To quantify the frequency and severity of criminal and antisocial conduct across evaluations, a delinquency construct was developed (Chamberlain, Leve, & DeGarmo, 2007). The construct included the three previously used indicators to evaluate the conduct of this sample of females over the past 12 months: (a) the number of criminal referrals, (b) the number of days in closed settings, and (c) self-reported delinquency. Finally, we performed independent post hoc analysis for each indicator of delinquency to examine whether there was a driver of the pattern of effects.

DATA ANALYSIS

The research hypotheses were put to the test across two models. To analyze the association between trauma and criminal behavior across time, we evaluated Model 1, a two-wave, two-variable cross-lagged structural equation model (Figure 1). Girls who began treatment before entering high school (n = 73; Figure 2a) and those who began treatment after graduating from high school (n = 93; Figure 2b) were compared in Model 2 for potential variations in the correlations between traumatic experiences and delinquency across time. Initial analyses included

cohort and treatment condition as factors to account for potential variations across cohorts and/or treatment effects. Pathways for both the complete model and pre- and post-high school entering groups may be seen thanks to the saturation induced by the full cross-lagged model. All research variables (i.e., traumatic experiences and delinquency) were analyzed for non-normal distributions, skewness, and kurtosis, as well as for descriptive statistics. Maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) was used to adjust for missing data and provide an accurate estimate of the model's coefficients.

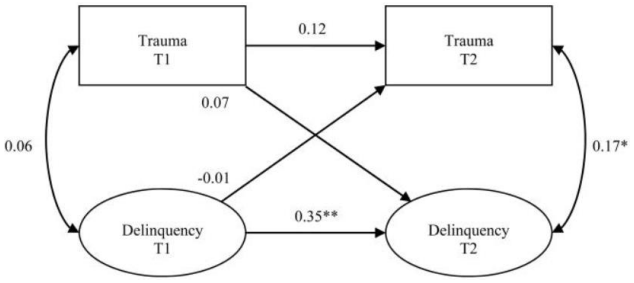

Figure 1: Full Model Cross-Lagged Path Analysis

Note. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Figure-2a

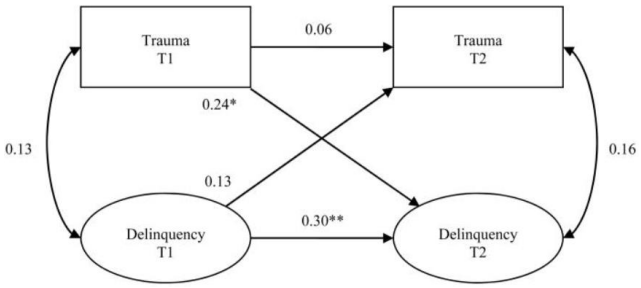

Figure- 2b

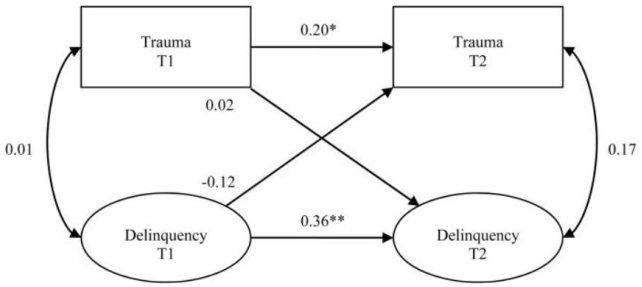

Figure 2 Group Based Cross-Lagged Path Analysis

Figure 2a. Pre-High School Entry

Note. * p < .05. ** p < .01

Figure 2b. Post-High School Entry

Note. * p < .05. ** p < .01

RESULTS

Table 1 presents descriptive information on trauma and delinquency (across the board and by high school entering status), whereas Table 2 presents relationships. Cohort and treatment variables were not included in the final models since their inclusion did not materially impact the findings. Distributional analyses revealed that the variables were not significantly out of normalcy. Using the whole model with cross-lagged observations allowed for a perfect fit to the data, $\chi 2$ (5, N = 166) = 27.01, p < 0.001 because fit indices are not reported. Little's Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) test for investigating missing data assumptions carried weight $\chi 2$ (11) = 21.24, p = .03, suggestive of a possible non-random missing data pattern. Girls with missing data (n = 24) and girls without missing data (n = 142) were compared for T1 and T2 delinquency and T3 trauma, respectively T1 or T2: t(27.29) = 1.65, p = 0.11; t(157) = 0.88, p = 0.45; t(163) = 0.41, p = 0.50; T2, t(142) = -0.45, p = 0.65, respectively. The chi-square test of independence between missingness and age groups also yielded inconclusive findings $\chi 2$ (1) = 0.41, p = .52, in the context of absence and race, $\chi 2$ (5) = 3.15, p = .68. These findings supported the idea that the MLR method for dealing with missing data might be reasonably pursued.

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations for Trauma and Delinquency Construct Scores

Variable	Pre-High school	Post-High school	Overall
Trauma construct			
T1	1.79 (0.13)	2.18 (0.13)	2.01 (1.24)
T2	0.82 (0.13)	0.65 (0.08)	0.72 (0.87)
Delinquency construct			
T1	0.48 (0.02)	0.47 (0.02)	0.47 (0.17)
T2	0.28 (0.02)	0.21 (0.02)	0.24 (0.20)

Table 2: Correlation Matrix by Pre-High School and Post-High School Entry Status

Variable	T1 Del	T2 Del	T1 Trauma	T2 Trauma
T1 Del		.367**	.015	−.107
T2 Del	.310**		.018	.123
T1 Trauma	.129	.263*		.209
T2 Trauma	.116	.170	.072	

Note. Del = Delinquency. Values for the Pre-high school entry sample are located below the diagonal and values for the post-high school entry sample are located above the diagonal.

*p < 0.05. **p < 0.01.

Cross-Lag Prediction: Full Model

Model 1 shows that delinquency at T1 strongly predicts delinquency at T2 ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.001$). There was no correlation between T1 trauma and T2 trauma. These findings imply that rank-order levels of delinquency are fairly constant over time for the complete sample, although the number of previous traumatic experiences is not necessarily predictive of the number of future traumatic events. When we looked at the connection between T2 delinquency and T2 trauma, we found that they were both substantial ($\beta = 0.17$, $p = 0.045$).

Cross-Lag Prediction: Developmental Differences Based on High School Entry Status

Model 2a demonstrated substantial connections between T1 and T2 delinquency for females entering high school as freshmen ($\beta = 0.30$, $p = 0.01$). Cross-lagged route analysis revealed a strong correlation between T1 trauma and T2 criminal behavior ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = 0.025$). Model 2b found that, among women who had completed high school, criminality at T1 again predicted delinquency at T2 ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, T1 trauma episodes strongly predicted T2 trauma occurrences ($\beta = 0.21$, $p = 0.049$). For females who sought help after graduating from high school, researchers found no evidence that exposure to trauma increased their risk of criminality.

It was investigated if the pattern of outcomes was variable specific by analyzing the number of criminal referrals, the number of days in locked settings, and self-reported delinquency as indicators within the delinquent construct.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the research was to look at the prevalence of teen crime among Indian high school students. The author of this study presents the perspectives and insights of secondary school educators on the topic of juvenile delinquency and the apparent moral degradation among their students. The issue was studied via the lens of socio-education, which, among other things, examines the impact of societal influences on the maturation of children and young adults. Similar patterns of developmental disparities by high school entrance status were seen in the criminal referrals model and the self-reported delinquency model. This trend was not replicated by the model that relied on the total number of days spent in closed environments. Consequently, the triangulated measure of delinquency was kept.

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