Etiology of Crime: An Analysis of How Schooling in Kenya Breeds Offending and Criminal Behavior

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Abstract:- **It is impossible to explain predictors of juvenile offending and criminal behavior development using one single theory, but it is possible to recognize possible risk factors that can be directly associated to juvenile offending tendencies among children and young people. Child and youth risk factors to juvenile offending and criminalitylies within five key pillars of a child's life: family, school, peers, neighborhood and the media. School is the second socializing agent and perhaps, the most important for a child of the 21st century, who spends substantial amount of time in this setting. Popularly known, schools are contexts where children are universally cared for supported and nurtured in tandem with societal ideals. Thus, schools are unanimously eyed as a protective agent for preventing offending and criminal behavior development. Unfortunately, many schools in Kenya have never lived up to the realization that nurturing a criminal free society is one of their critical mandates. More often than not, schools refer to criminality as a society-created problem. In separate instances, societies and schools label each as incompetent in molding morally upright citizens. Meanwhile, compelling evidence ranks schooling and education as one of the greatest criminogenic factors. Based on the sociological theory, this paper review explored school policies, public policies related to education as well as specific flows in curriculum and student management practices that could be precursors to juvenile offending and criminality. Findings revealed that schools are not any longer safe heavens. A lot of violence experienced by children occurs in this setting. The paper documents education related risk factors of antisocial, violent behavior and criminal tendencies. It urges attention in creation of safe schools, change in students discipline and curriculum management practices in order to nurture a criminal free society.**

Key Words: **Etiology, Juvenile, Delinquency, Criminal behaviour**

I. INTRODUCTION

Crime, violence and disruptive behavior are widely documented as old age problems whose control, reduction and prevention have been a major challenge in many societies. They range from mental/psychological to physical forms of violence, hazing or initiation, assault, robberies, rape, murder, sexual harassment, intimidation, bullying, shootings, stabbings, gangsterism, drug trafficking and related violence,theft of property and vandalism,racially motivated violence and student protests that turn violent (Burton, 2008; Jefthas & Artz, 2007). These inhuman acts pose devastating effects to individuals, ravish communities, significantly harm the confidence and lives of individuals and, seriously compromise development (Human Rights Watch, 2001). However the good news is that, any society with effective, responsible crime prevention mechanisms enhance the quality of life of its citizens, gains significant long-term benefits by reducing costs associated with the formal criminal justice system, as well as other social costs that result from crime. Put succinctly, in a paper, Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of 2013 "crime prevention and reduction pay significant dividends by decreasing crime-related expenditures of tax dollars, prevent victimization, promote community safety and contribute to sustainable development of countries.

In support of this view, United Nations Human Rights Commission (1989) acknowledges that human fundamental rights cannot be achieved unless crime is reduced and even prevented. In part, the report states "one of the most fundamental values is that men and women have the right to live their lives and raise their children in dignity, free from hunger and from the fear of violence, oppression or injustice Pp. 89". Pursuant to this call, world nations have expressed resolutions on "action to promote effective crime prevention." There is renewed focus in preventing delinquency early in a child's life and enhancing chances of young people living law-abiding and productive lives (WHO 1999). Promoting civil and law abiding behavior have been prioritized as paramount goals for all social systems, and in particular education settings. Schools are entrusted with responsibility of ensuring a safe effective learning environment, meaningful formal and informal curriculum management and civic development of youths (Richards, 2011). School's wider role of integrating children and youth into the society as citizens with a sense of achievement, is a crucial theme in every education discourse.

Placing this in context, the Center on Crime, Communities & Culture (1997), opined that quality educational interventions may be the most desirable and economical protective factor against delinquency and a determinate of a person's success. Schools are believed to be perfectly positioned to play a key role in the identification, prevention and treatment of at-risk juveniles (Farmer et al., 2001). As pointed out by Loeber & Farrington (2000), schools enable students to develop resiliency by providing protective factors such as a positive and safe learning environment, trains children to set achievable academic and social expectations and facilitates

academic and social success. Education imbues young people with social skills that can deter criminal engagement, stress behaviors that are not useful in the criminal world (e.g.honesty, hard work, and respect for rule of law), causes students to contemplate on the consequences of criminal activity and gives students a future-driven outlook on life (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). Other school protective factors include: relevant curricula for academic, technical and life skills, access to positive peer groups and activities for social development. When these factors are present, even the most at risk child do not develop antisocial and violent patterns of behavior. These protective factors acts as buffers to young people vulnerable to developing antisocial and violent behavior (Henry, 2000)

Several school/classroom programs such as peer relations training, teaching reading skills to juveniles, alternative educational programs (for example individualized instruction, rewards for positive behavior, goal-oriented work, small student populations) have also shown considerable promise in reducing recidivism and dropout rates in many communities (Tobin & Sprague, 2000). Tobin and colleague opine that educational programs are the foundation of effective crime prevention because protective factors can be best learned, performed, and maintained when they are ingrained in youth's daily routines. For example, teaching basic literacy skills, problem-solving, social skills, and rules to all students encourages academic success and discourages the development of antisocial and violent behaviors

Based on the foregoing, it is reasonable to conclude that children spend a substantial amount of time in school. Schools are sites where pro-social attitudes are reinforced and individuals prepared for the role they are to play in society at large. Schools have great potential as a locus for crime prevention. They provide regular access to students throughout the developmental years, and perhaps the only consistent access to large numbers of the most crime-prone young children in the early school years. Schools are staffed with individuals paid to help youth develop as healthy, happy, productive citizens. This explains why communities usually support schools' efforts to socialize youth arguing that many of the precursors of delinquent behavior are school-related and therefore likely to be amenable to change through school-based intervention. (Burton, 2008).

Surprisingly, empirical and media reports seem to invert this popular discourse. There is a chain of shocking youth-related crime often provoking ugly thoughts about the state of today's young people. Questions abound: How could a teenager become so angry, violent and antisocial in just a few years of life? The rare but devastatingly violent crimes committed by youth at school seem to suggest that schools are in fact the sites of violence (Jefthas & Artz, 2007; Burton, 2008). Burton (2008) in his report "Dealing with school violence in South Africa" reiterates that although the school has been constructed as a space in which children can come and learn in a safe and protected environment, schools have become one

of the most dangerous settings. Violence among children and youth across age, gender, race and school categories has become a pervasive problem and a grave national concern in many world states, for instance in Kenya.

A report by Kaufman et al., (2000), confirmed that in the US, 50-60 school-associated violent deaths occurred nationally during the complete 1997-99 school year ' 42 involved student homicides or suicides. This report revealed that more serious types of school crime (for example, aggravated assault, sexual violence, suicide, physical attack, fight with a weapon, robbery, rape, murder, violence with a weapon) are relatively rare. On the other hand, the less serious types of crime (e.g., theft, intimidation, bullying, rioting and physical fights without weapons) which later on led to chronic crimes were much more rampant (Snyder, 2000). Garth (2004) identified violence and crime among school age-going children as a significant health concern in South Africa reported cases of rape, assault, battery increased drastically from 10,288 in 1997 to 13,401 cases in 2003. In Uganda and Sierra Leone students identified gender based violence, consumption of drugs and sexual immorality as the most common types of crimes in schools. Separately, Naker (2005) study across five districts in Uganda painted a similar picture noting that 98% of students in high schools had experienced some form of physical violence in schools.

Bullying, aggression, sexual harassment, drug abuse and intimidation of junior students have been highly reported in high schools in Kenya (Poipoi, 2011; Oloo, 2003; Ochieng, 2005; Daily Nation 23rd November, 1996). Specifically, Oloo (2003) established that in many high schools, girls experience sexual harassment but most of these go unnoticed or unreported as they took the form of comments, teases and obscene gestures. The worst case of student's unrest and violence in Kenyan history occurred in 1997 at St Kizito Mixed Secondary School where boys invaded girls' dormitory and raped them, leaving 19 girls dead. Shortly after, similar incidences of violent unrest were reported in Nyeri, Vihiga and Nairobi among other schools across different parts of the country. These incidents often leave scores of students injured, maimed, suffer permanent deformities, buildings burnt and several students dead. Violence in Kenya has not only been associated to truancy, chronic absenteeism, and student dropout but also equally responsible for disruption of learning and compromised students' physical, emotional security and performance. Undoubtedly, the scenario necessitates a sense of great urgency in ensuring school safety. As such this extensive review, explored education created risk and protective factors as this has not been given priority by the researcher.

Objectives of the Review

The paper sought

i.   To account for the wide range of education created risk factors of offending and criminal behavior among children and young persons;

ii. To identify specific flows in educational management systems and practices that could predispose learners to offending behaviour and criminality;

iii. To provide knowledge on effective education related strategies for preventing child delinquency and its escalation into serious and violent juvenile offending behaviour.

II. METHODOLOGY

A search of the published literature for this review included several steps. First, personal inquiries and consultations were made with professionals with relevant research and practice interests, which resulted in identification of several previous and current sources of literature. Second, journals were reviewed, focusing on preventive intervention and criminological articles based on longitudinal, cross-sectional, comparative studies and meta-analyses. Third, relevant texts were searched for applicable information. Finally, a site search was conducted on the World Wide Web of organizations, databases, references, and on-line publications on the subject of criminal behaviour in secondary schools across the globe. Data was collected and synthesized from these sources pertaining to risk factors, including developmental pathways and contextual variables, resiliency factors, and empirically validated programs for preventing youth antisocial and violent behavior. Discussion of issues was bound within the theoretical understanding thatcriminal behavior is the product of a complex interaction between biology and environmental or social condition. However, a sociological theory of crime causation that assumes that a criminal's behavior is determined by his or her social environment and rejects the notion of the born criminal was the focus. Specifically the theory of social disorganization to explain how some schools are potential risk agents to offending and criminality. The presentation was dome thematically.

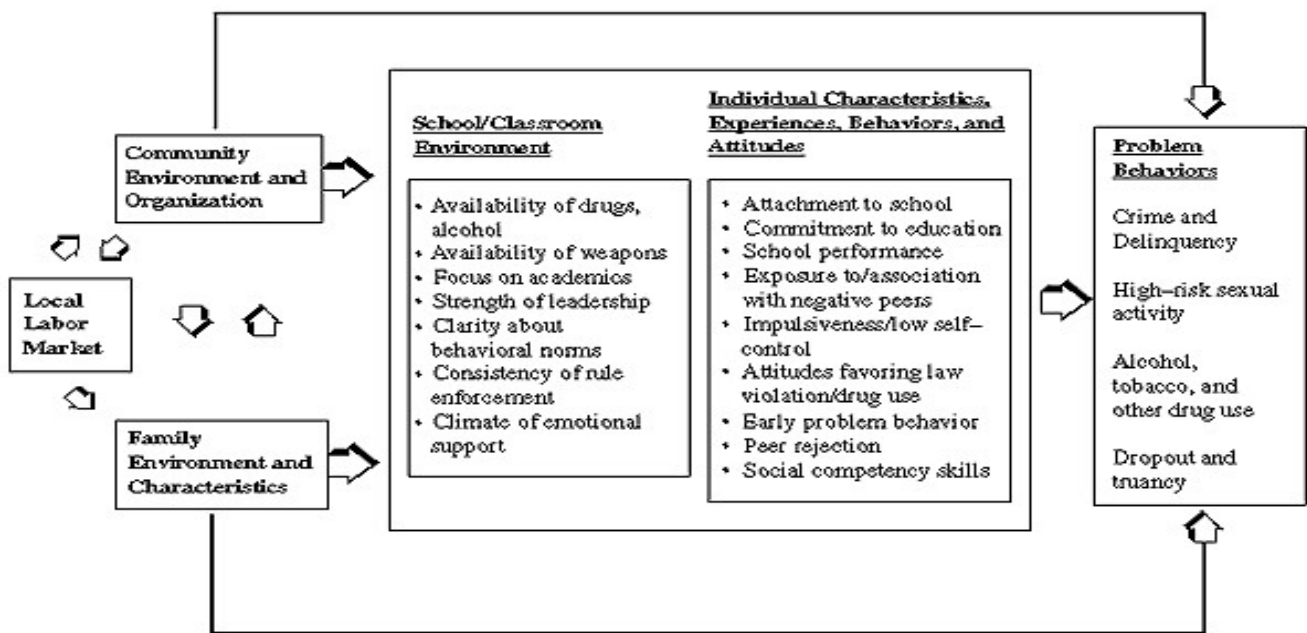Figure 1 Conceptual Framework of School Related Predictors of Problem Behavior

Figure 1 above demonstrates the possibility of influence between the variables. It draws attention to fact that schools operate in larger contexts which influence their functioning as well as their outcomes. While illuminating several precursors to delinquency, the review attention was drawn towards school-related factors to delinquency. These factors include characteristics of school and classroom environments as well as individual-level school-related experiences and attitudes, peer group experiences, and personal values, attitudes, and beliefs. School environment factors related to delinquency include availability of drugs, alcohol, and other criminogenic commodities such as weapons; characteristics of the classroom and school social organization such as strong academic mission and administrative leadership; and a climate of emotional support. School-related experiences and attitudes which often precede delinquency include poor school performance and attendance, low attachment to school and low commitment to schooling. Peer-related experiences, many of which are school-centered, include rejection by peers and association with delinquent peers. What learners bring in

school (individual factors) are also highlighted but not the center of focus although we are aware that such problems like impulsiveness or low levels of self-control, rebellious attitudes, beliefs favoring law violation, and low levels of social competency skills (for example identifying likely consequences of actions and alternative solutions to problems, taking the perspective of others, and correctly interpreting social cues) are also linked to offending behavior and criminality (Gottfredson, Sealock, &Koper, 1996). Although schools cannot be expected to reverse their communities'problems, they can influence their own rates of disorder and this explains significant amounts of variation in school rates of disorderly behavior (Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 1985).

III. EDUCATIONAL RELATED RISK FACTORS

Risk factors are conditions empirically related to particular outcomes (Reddy et al., 2001). A variety of antecedents may precede deviant behavior, and multiple risk factors are associated with antisocial and violent behavior. The combinations and the complex relationship of these risks within certain developmental stages can increase chances for antisocial and violent behavior (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). Risk factors that contribute to youth antisocial and violent behavior can be categorized as internal (individual) or external (family, school, community and peer relations) (Catalano, Loeber, & McKinney, 1999). Educational created risk factors can be placed into seven categories:academic transitional bonding failure, unhealthy school climate and relationships between peers and school personnel,disorganized school environment, poor rule enforcement policies and school policy abuse, lack of stakeholders' commitment, age of convergence at school and lastly, lack of skills and motivation among school personnel.

(a) Poor Academic Performance among students

A specific school risk factor for delinquency is poor academic performance. A meta-analysis of more than 100 studies examined the relationship between poor academic performance and delinquency and found that poor academic performance is related to the prevalence, onset, frequency, and seriousness of delinquency even when individual intelligence and attention problems are taken into account (Loeber et al., 2000). Inability to excel in school evokes negative responses, carries with it a lot of psychological and emotional problems, reduces a child's self-esteem, and leads rejection (e.g. peer, teacher and school) and frustration. These reactions solidify feelings of inadequacy and leading to a pattern of chronic delinquency. On the other hand, when young people realize that they will never achieve success through conventional means, low achievers seek like-minded companions (whom they get access to due to numbers present in school) and together engages in antisocial behavior. In most school in Kenya there limited opportunities for student to achieve due to high student teacher ratio, poor literacy development in early grades, poor involvement of students and teachers in school activities (absenteeism) and a narrow range of elective courses

in the curriculum. These and others add to a disconnect with school and subsequent school failure or dropping out.

(b) Schools' Contribution to Academic Failure

Longitudinal studies demonstrate that children who are struggling academically are more likely to turn to crime than those who are performing adequately or well (Dishion et al., 1991; Flannery 2000). This is supported by evidence that the intellectual functioning of young offenders is at the low-average to average range and that they have significant deficits in reading, mathematics, written and oral language compared to their non-offending peers (Leone et al. 2003). Studies have established a relationship between students' lack of interest in certain subjects, academic failure with certain school factors (e.g. inappropriate teaching methods, poor teaching styles, lack of resources). Further, school personnel's belief that students from lower socio-economic, disadvantaged families and minority groups have only limited potential and may not make it even with extensive remediation (Macfarlane 2004), has also been noted to jeopardize efforts to remediate academic deficits of low achievers. It has also been argued that examinations, testing and class grouping are biased, with children from lower socio-economic homes being less likely to be placed into classes that will lead them to university, and that some schools have obviously discriminated students on the basis of academic achievement. A child from a poor family in Kenya is likely not to participate in preschool education, join primary and school of low quality and the cycle of academic disadvantage continues. This has led to serious concerns whether education still is a social equalizing tool in Kenya (Poipoi, 2011).

(c) Inadequate Transition in School, and from Primary to Secondary School

All school transitions from one level to the next, present developmental challenges and unique risk factors (Kellam et al., 1998). This situation is worse during the stormy period of adolescence. Smooth school transition require adapting to a range of new demands and expectations by previously unknown adults, negotiating new roles, reconstruction of the peer groups, forming new relationships, adapting to unfamiliar classroom environment and incorporating new dimensions into their self-evaluations (Reinke & Herman 2002). Specifically, lower to middle primary transition is challenging because it involves the movement from one teacher to multiple teachers, a few subjects taught in one classroom by one teacher to multiple subjects taught by a number of teachers in different classrooms with differing teacher styles. In secondary school, greater and more complex academic demands, and greater demands for self-monitoring and self-reliance, need to move around several classrooms, laboratories and libraries as well as ability to shun peer pressure can be overwhelming (Kellam et al. 1998). This transition period is twice as risky for girls, who are more likely than boys to experience pubertal maturity at the same time as they experience the transition from primary to secondary school (Poipoi, 2011).

(d) An Unhealthy School Climate

An unhealthy school climate is linked with a poorly organized, malfunctioning school that has a prevalent sense of despondency among students and staff, accompanying high rates of teacher and student absenteeism, and a higher incidence of school mobility (McEvoy & Welker 2001). Such schools are characterized by teachers who are routinely late to class and students being left unsupervised and vulnerable; cramped classrooms and overcrowding; poor physical condition and appearance of school buildings and grounds; high student-teacher ratios; and insufficient teacher training on effective behaviour management (Leone et al. 2003). An unhealthy school climate not only contributes to academic failure, leading to a lack of school attachment, school drop-out and criminal offending, but can also contribute to aggressive students' violent behaviour (Reinke & Herman 2002).

(e) Mistreatment by School Personnel

Halkias et al., (2003) identify two categories in the student-school personnel relationship that traumatize students: deliberate versus unintentional maltreatment. Deliberate maltreatment involves punitive disciplinary strategies and control techniques that are based on fear and intimidation. These include but not limited to verbal assaults, sarcasm and ridicule, isolating a student from his or her peers, allowing or ignoring peer humiliation, sexual harassment, humiliating in front of peers in relation to their learning difficulties, calling them liars and criminals, and personal attacks regarding their appearance, family and choice of friends. Unintentional maltreatment is demonstrated by involuntary provision of a low quantity and quality of human interaction, and providing limited opportunities for students to develop self-worth. At the extreme end of teacher abuse is the use of corporal punishment, the purposeful infliction of pain or confinement as a penalty for an offence (Halkias et al., 2003), and other forms of prejudice directed at students who are already marginalized within the school setting (Cunningham 2003). These forms of intentional and unintentional maltreatment have been widely noted to occur in Kenya schools where not only corporal punishment is rampant leading to physical and emotional abuse of boys and girls, but also sexual abuse with those whom are trusted to create a safe environment- the teachers and other care-givers in the schools.

(f) Poor Bonding in School, Poor Teacher- Child Relationship and Social Interaction

Academic achievement and school bonding are, in many ways, interdependent. Poor performers fail to develop strong bonds to school and exhibit lower expectations of success. Weak bonds (low commitment) to school, low educational aspirations, and poor motivation are risks for general offending and for child delinquency (Hawkins et al., 1998). According to Oloo, (2003), boys who engage in delinquency are less committed to school and more likely to have "shorter plans" for their schooling. These boys described themselves as bad students. Failure to bond to school during childhood together with early neurological deficiencies when combined with the failure of family, school, and community to provide adequate socialization, lead to early-onset offending that persists throughout life. (Richards, 2011). Research also has provided some insights into the types of social interactions that occur in classrooms for students who exhibit problem behavior. In many instances teachers rarely use positive statements in many classrooms and in particular to deviant students (Wehby et al., 1993). This strains students and teacher relationship (Farmer et al., 2001). The outcome of these patterns of coercive social interactions in schools is a cycle of academic failure, detachment from the school, behavior problems, low school attendance, suspension, and dropping out of school which are strong predictors of delinquency and violence.

Evidence verifies that a teacher's teaching style, attitude and expectations can adversely affect students' educational and social outcomes (Kennedy & Kennedy 2004, McEvoy & Welker 2001). For instance, when teacher-student relationship is characterized by high levels of conflict and negative interactions, a vicious cycle can be set in motion in which there is an escalation in the student's antisocial responses to the teacher's requests, a punitive reaction to this response from the teacher, and an intensification of negative behavior as a reply from the student. When teachers cannot cope with the stress and frustration associated with working with these difficult students, they react to minor problems with irritability, fear, counter-aggression and negative thinking, which often escalate the frequency and severity of the child's aggressive behaviors Church (2003). Studies by Church (2003) attribute the ambivalence to working with difficult, time-consuming children to the teachers' lack of knowledge about how to work with defiant and antisocial students. Poipoi (2011), informs that students in one of the boys' schools in Western Kenya burned one of their dormitories after being denied a chance to watch a football match. This was not one of the days designated for entertainment, but due to misunderstanding and lack of consensus between teachers and students, the students wanted their way while the teachers were firm on the school routine. Hence the standoff ended up with a case of arson.

(g) Anti-Social Peer Relationships formed at School

Schools assemble together large numbers of at-risk youth thus can become breeding grounds for discontented, embittered and alienated students to mix with like-minded peers, especially where there is little adult supervision (Farmer et al., 20001). Both inside and outside the classroom, students develop social hierarchies and groups that have a significant influence on their performance and play a large role in shaping both their appropriate and inappropriate behaviors (Reinke & Herman 2002). Particularly at risk are children who exhibit verbally and physically aggressive behaviors, display non-normative forms of aggression such as relationally aggressive boys and overtly aggressive girls (Bloomquist & Schnell 2002) may be rejected by them, may

find acceptance only in antisocial or delinquent peer groups. In effect, Farmer and Cadwallader (2000) points out that they go through a process of deviancy training, in which their peers teach them deviant norms and values. These relationships become stronger and more reinforcing over the years and the antisocial patterns and beliefs become more resistant to change (Henry, 2000). Studies equally reveal that once these children are rejected, they will remain isolated from 'normal' peers, even after interventions have been implemented to improve their social behavior. Peer rejection deprives a child of the socializing experiences that s/he may obtain from pro-social peers and sets the stage for him or her to become involved with an antisocial peer group (Church 2003, Gardner et al. 2004). This process of peer rejection spiraling to disruptive behaviors and youth offending begins in the primary school years and accelerates during the intermediate and high school years, becoming more serious, more frequent and more covert as the children mature (Church 2003; Reinke & Herman 2002).

(h) Disorganized Schools

When schools are poorly organized and operated, children are less likely to value their education and do well on academic tasks. They are more likely to experience peer influences that promote delinquency and opportunities for antisocial behavior (Gottfredson et al., 1996). For example, schools with fewer teacher resources and large enrollments of students have higher levels of teacher victimization by pupils. Teacher victimization is also higher in schools with lower cooperation between teachers and administrators and with poor rule enforcement. Equally, disorganization may take the form of physical characteristics found in schools, contributing to youth antisocial behavior and violence. Overcrowding, poor building design, and portable buildings hamper communication and increase isolation (Flannery, 2000). Over-reliance on physical security measures (metal detectors, locker searches, surveillance cameras) appears to increase the risk of school disorder (Henry, 2000). A school that appears unkempt adds to the general perception of a lack of order and safety (Garth, 2004).

(i) Poorly Defined Rules and Expectations for Appropriate Conduct

Schools are places where appropriate and inappropriate social behaviors may be learned or reinforced. However, poor rule enforcement within schools or absence of clear rules and school policies governing student behavior has been associated with higher levels of student victimization. When teachers or school personnel take a "hands-off" approach and ignore such infractions as name-calling, fighting, and harassment, they inadvertently condone such behaviors (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). This promotes a cycle that leads to increasing aggression in which lack of adult intervention allows the students to retaliate against aggressive peers with more aggression and violence. In effect, teachers who ignore students' harassment of other students send a message that students are on their own to solve their interpersonal safety

issues (Furlong & Morrison, 2000). Equally, when educators fail to establish clear rules or provide inconsistent consequences to pupils who break rules, students may develop disrespect for school rules and learn to manipulate them to their own advantage (Snyder, 2000). Zero tolerance policies and an authoritarian discipline style that engages staff in power struggles exacerbate disruptions (Skiba & Peterson, 2000). Studies have noted that when learners are involved in making schools rules they tend to self-check themselves against the standards set

(j) Lack of Training and Poor Morale among Teachers

Schools that lack staff trained to address diverse and multi-need student populations may experience higher levels of youth antisocial and violent behavior. Although, both general and special education teachers rate effective behavior management techniques among the most important teaching skills, classroom teachers report being most unprepared in this area (Skiba & Peterson, 2000). Studies indicate that many teachers do not feel prepared to address school violence issues (Furlong & Morrison, 2000) and are not able to effectively manage students with emotional and behavioral disorders, who are placed in their classrooms without appropriate support. These school risk factors ultimately aggravate existing individual and family risk factors, increasing the likelihood that youth will develop antisocial and violent behavior.

(k) Limited Allowance for Individual Differences in the School.

When academic curriculum and mode of instruction do not match a student's ability level, s/he may become frustrated or bored and less attached to the school altogether (Jefthas & Artz, 2007). This relationship is evident in many students with emotional and behavioral problems, who exhibit patterns of academic underachievement in reading. Difficulties in reading also have been found to be extremely prevalent among children and youth who exhibit conduct disorder and delinquent behavior (Coleman & Vaughn, 2000). To some extent, the relationship between behavior and academic problems may be due to differences in the amount of instructional interaction time with teachers that students who exhibit problem behavior experience compared with their typical peers. Teachers tend to interact less often with disruptive students. In a study of high-risk first graders, Wehby et al., (1993) found that teachers used twice as many negative commands with the high-risk group than they gave to a group of low-risk peers. Teachers also are more likely to exclude students with problem behavior from the classroom for disciplinary measures (Skiba & Peterson, 2000).

(l) School Policy Abuse

Senior management in schools, supported by their board of trustees, can victimize students by using legitimized but inappropriate punitive disciplinary practices to deter students' behaviors (Morrison & Skiba 2001). Intolerant or zero-tolerance policies such as school stand-downs, suspension,

exclusion and early school exemptions provide opportunities for at-risk, alienated youth to associate, unsupervised, with deviant peers (Leone et al., 2003; Morrison & Skiba 2001). In general, zero-tolerance practices are only effective in immediately stopping undesirable behaviour in the school setting simply because the antisocial student is removed from the school grounds and transferred out into the community (Skiba & Peterson, 2000). This does not help but to exacerbate the problem.

(m) Age Group of Convergence at Schools

The relationship between age and crime is widely accepted among criminologists and appears to hold true across race, gender, society, and time (Halkias et al., 2003). High schools and to a lesser degree, middle schools, therefore, bring together large groups of individuals from age groups that are characterized by higher offending and victimization rates, likely to be offenders than individuals in any other age group. These motivated offenders gather in and around schools, engaged in routine activities on a daily basis. According to Catalano (2007), when teacher student ratios in schools are such that capable guardianship is often absent, as is in Kenya in schools with large student populations, there will be increase crime and victimization at or near schools. From a social disorganization perspective, these schools might actually be thought to increase the social disorganization of school.

(n) Poor Parental Involvement

Schools and their related activities, organizations, and events facilitate social ties among both adults and adolescents through local organizations, like Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) that add on supervisory structure to the juvenile population, both through the process of schooling and through associated extracurricular clubs and activities. Social disorganization theorists have argued that the local organizations and youth supervision are important aspects of maintaining community organization (Poipoi, 2011). Effective supervision can be realized in smaller and a more close knit school community (Hill & Taylor, 2004). This also goes with age of child. For instance studies (Broidy, Willits, & Denman, 2009; Murray & Swatt, 2010) have noted that high school, parents are less involved in their children's education as compared to elementary school students.

At this stage, adolescents are becoming more autonomous and the school curriculum becomes more advanced, so students are less likely to seek parental involvement and parents feel less qualified to offer academic help (Church, 2003). Kennedy and Kennedy (2004) noted that among the characteristics of socially disorganized areas is the presence of groups of unsupervised adolescents. In that sense, high schools and middle schools may actually contribute to a neighborhood's social disorganization. The routine activity and social disorganization perspectives overlap considerably on this issue, as both traditions argue that groups of un- (or under-) supervised youths are a criminogenic risk factor for

neighborhoods. Research on schools and neighborhood crime equally support these arguments, as a number of studies have found that neighborhoods with middle schools (Roman, 2004; Broidy, Willits, & Denman, 2009) and high schools have higher crime rates than neighborhoods without middle or high schools.

IV. THE WAY FORWARD

Is now clear that just enrolling children in school is not sufficient, what happens in school setting is relevant and meaningfully enhancing young person's productive living. The following education related measures can help reduce the rise in the number of the young people involved in criminal activities.

- ❖ Professional Guidance and Counseling Services should be enhanced in schools by training teachers to deal with defiant adolescence. Adolescence is a stormy period when young people encounter the evil impact of the peer pressure, try drugs, disengagement with adults and experience turbulence emotions. Besides providing children with essential needs, moral guidance and close supervision should be embraced by those who work with this group.
- ❖ Education and training have a role in youth criminality hence the Kenyan government deserves enormous support in implementing its social policies for low income families and in realizing quality Education for All (EFA). This would lead to reduction of dropout rate, absenteeism, truancy and all factors that are highly linked to delinquency
- ❖ It is important that schools implement a balanced curriculum. There is urgent need to reduce the overemphasis on academic components only.Idleness is not just a devils' workshop: it is to man what rust is to iron.Schools should engage young person's in sports and other extra -curricular activities bearing in mind that these activities not only allow adolescents to expend built up energy that invokes emotions that may lead to antisocial tendencies but are also avenues to reinforce conformity since they are rule oriented.
- ❖ Schools should develop more direct work with children and young people to enhance their participation in formulating and implementing rule enforcement policies. Parental involvement in this is key, particularly on supervision
- ❖ Teachers should be offered training in participative approaches to working with children and young people as part of their initial and in-service training.
- ❖ Efforts used by schools to prevent problem behavior and the quality of their implementation. These efforts include formal curricular programs (formal, informal and extra-curriculum) as well as disciplinary practices and policies, and security measures with regards to physical, emotionally and psychologically safety of all children.

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