A REVIEW ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS

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Abstract: This paper sought to review key literature on juvenile delinquency and academic performance of students with respect to the historical development of the concept of academic performance, the concept of juvenile delinquency, causes of juvenile delinquency among the students, personal factors due to maladjustment outside the home, effects of juvenile delinquency on the academic performance of students in the school, relationship between juvenile delinquency and academic performance, measures to minimize the problem of juvenile delinquency in the school, and contributing factors. According to the study’s results, children become delinquent due to a variety of reasons, including financial hardship, negative influences in their lives, and low academic achievement. Accordingly, discipline, guidance, and counselling are some of the effective ways to deal with child delinquency. Parents should also keep an eye on their children and report any mis-behaviour to their instructors. Parents should also monitor their children’s movements and be aware of the kind of individuals they relate with. Additionally, it is suggested that students should not be given long free periods and that classes be kept at a manageable capacity. Another key outcome from the review is that there is a commensurate relationship between juvenile delinquency and students’ academic performance. Some of the important variables that have been recognized as contributing to juvenile delinquency include insufficient teaching skills, inadequate teaching aids and irregular school attendance. Students’ frequent attendance at school is influenced by the content of the school’s curriculum. The ability to motivate normal pupils has some effect on the success of efforts to eradicate juvenile criminality in schools. In conclusion, variables affecting students’ frequent attendance include their own personal traits, their social environment, and their physical surroundings, to name a few.

Keywords: juveniles, delinquency, academic performance, students

1. INTRODUCTION

Biologically, a child is generally a human being between the stages of birth and puberty. However, the legal definition of a child generally refers to a minor, otherwise known as a person younger than the age of a mainstream. According to the United Nations Convention on the rights of a child, a child is a human being below the ages of eighteen (18) years unless under the law applicable to the child. (Hogg, 2019). Delinquency is basically a legal concept defined in different ways among people or scholars. It is defined as a state of being delinquent or behavior that is not in accordance with accepted social standards or with the constitution of Ghana (Hogg, 2019). In a society, a delinquent behavior refers to any act punishable by death, imprisonment or a fine (Hogg, 2019). Delinquent behavior includes stealing, sexual offences, destruction of state property (vandalism) and smoking of
Child delinquency is a growing phenomenon and many people do not know what to do about it quite yet. The rising incidence of child delinquency in many countries may be caused by certain socio-economic problems often associated with development. From the word “child delinquency”, child means young people while delinquency means young offenders that are guilty of minor crimes or misdeeds. Bartol & Bartol (2018) explains that the psychological definition of delinquency is a child’s engagement in extreme anti-social behavior. In Ghana, Bosiakoh and Andoh (2021) have emphasized an upward surge of juvenile delinquency which many well-meaning Ghanaians admit as alarming. According to the Department of Social Welfare annual performance report, 276 juvenile delinquency cases were handled in the year 2021.

The Ghana prison service annual report in 2021 also indicated an average daily lock-up of 115 juvenile offenders. With an increased understanding of the delinquent children’s perspective, stakeholders in the community can incorporate them in proactive steps which will address the problem rather than waiting for children to be involved in crime before any action is taken. Some efforts have been made by teachers to curb this problem of child delinquency but to no avail. It seems to have become the norm and the number of delinquents increases with each coming generation. Quite often, school boys break into school offices and staff common rooms, with the intention of stealing textbooks, examination scripts and exercise books. Most of the times, these boys or children get caught, when luck elude them. These behaviors of children affect most of them in their academic performance. Therefore, this review seeks to deepen our understanding of the circumstances that normally get children involved in delinquent behaviors for lessons to be deduced, whether they affect their academic performance and the possible remedies to it?

2. THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONCEPT OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Academic achievement has a historical foundation. Pupil teachers have been paid based on the results of an annual examination since 1846 (Hogg, 2019). This kind of remuneration is more often referred to as ‘payment by outcomes’ (Hogg, 2019). Hogg (2019) went on to say that instructors’ effectiveness was measured by how well their students performed in the yearly test. More scientific techniques of evaluating schoolchildren started to emerge in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in the United States of America, France, and the United Kingdom (Hogg, 2019). Despite the fact that testing was ubiquitous between the two world wars, trust in assessment started to dwindle (Hogg, 2019). According to Cummings and Riddell (2002), the International Association for the Evaluation of Achievement has been conducting testing for a long period. They said once again that the association’s first work was restricted to testing in Mathematics since it was assumed at the time that the test content would be free of cultural variance. Carr-Hill and Magnussen (2021) said that there was no defined set of educational objectives accessible and that it was difficult to obtain a foundation from which indicators of success could be developed. According to Ruby (2021), the following are the grounds for increased policy interest in performance indicators: concern to improve the country’s international economic competitiveness by a variety of means but particularly by increasing the general level of education of the workforce;

a. demands by decision-makers for better information about outcomes and performance to improve policy-making about education - the ‘what works’ syndrome;

b. demands for information to guide and monitor the implementation of reforms, particularly structural reforms involving the devolution of authority, and to evaluate the outcome of those reforms;

c. political commitment to equity such as equality of outcomes for minority groups;

d. a belief that betters information about effective strategies and performance will bring about qualitative improvements in teaching and learning;

e. enhancing accountability measures in the public sector by gathering data on performance and outcomes; and
a commitment to improving the information available to the public about the performance of public authorities (p. 15-16).

Commenting upon the potential use of performance indicators, Wilcox (2021) stated that performance indicators are seen as an essential element in the greater accountability which will be demanded of schools. As a consequence of financial delegation, there is a concerted attempt to develop appropriate [performance indicators] but also to model and interpret them. Wyatt (2014) agreed that the concept of educational indicators as summary statistics on the status of education systems is not new. Whenever there are perceptions of falling levels of achievements, the traditional response has been a call for the imposition of higher 'standards'.

Many different 'concepts' of educational performance indicators have been defined by the various researchers. Sing (2021) and Ashenden (2021), for example, cite a range of indicators of effectiveness, equity, productivity, process, quality in education among others. The sources of data for performance indicators are eclectic; the data provided by the institutions which are part of administrative information systems; the data based on client and provider perceptions collected by questionnaire; or information collected through direct observation of the workings of the institutions (Wilcox, 2021). Oakes (2016) defined performance indicators as possible information that is useful for understanding levels and variations in performance, in order to assess the impact of interventions and ultimately inform decision-making. Scheerens (2020) identifies three recent trends or indicators of performance as:

a. transition from descriptive statistics (largely input and resource measures) to measurement of performance outcomes;
b. movement towards more comprehensive systems and a growing interest in manipulable characteristics;
c. concern to measure data at more than one aggregation level. He also shows how different indicators are appropriate according to the type, level and mode of decision making.

Wyatt (2014) stressed that the recent pressure towards educational indicators (determinants of academic performance) is due to a call for the requirement of central government for a means of monitoring the process of devolution of responsibility to the school. The latter led to a call for how schools might evaluate themselves emphasizing the use of locally determined indicators in the school management process; and the use of indicators to monitor specific policy objectives in schools.

Oakes (2016) argued that performance indicators must provide at least one of the following kinds of information:

a. a description of performance in achieving desired educational conditions and outcomes;
b. features known through research to be linked with desired outcomes;
c. a description of central features of the system in order to understand its functioning;
d. information which is problem oriented; and
e. policy-relevant information.

Thus far, attempts have been made to trace the historical development of academic performance and the indicators needed in defining it. This therefore forms the theoretical basis of the review.
THE CONCEPT OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Different authors have defined juvenile delinquency in various ways, and the idea of child offenders is carried by most of the definitions. Juvenile delinquency as a concept refers to prohibitive behaviour among a particular age bracket – children and youths. Sambo (2021) and Ruch (2020) see juvenile delinquency as the problems caused by the youth in the community which are now universally accepted as crimes frequently committed by young people under the age of 21 years. Similarly, Ozi (1994) and Adeshina, (2021) opine that juvenile delinquency is that behaviour on the part of the children which many under the law subject those children to the juvenile court. Therefore, it is a relatively new and legal term for a very old phenomenon. They also said that the earliest known code of laws “The code of Hammurabi “took specific note of the duties of children to parents and prescribed punishments for violation, later as legal system was elaborated offenders were dealt with according to age.

Longman dictionary of contemporary English defines juvenile delinquency as an Anti-social or criminal behaviour by the children. Juvenile is seen as young youthful, not fully developed, not yet adult that has reached sexual maturity. Water (1990) in ZEDA (2016) noted that youth delinquency has been associated with the adolescent age, to him this because it is the age when youths struggle for their freedom. In this attempt they commit so many offences. Sunday (2021) observed that ironically as nations grow richer and the opportunities for youths multiply, juvenile delinquency seems to increase steadily in almost every society as adults continue to complain about the presumed immorality of children.

According to section 188.16 (1) (c) of the Wisconsin Statutes, simple Juvenile Delinquency is defined as any absence of part or all of a school day for which a pupil’s parent or guardian has not provided a valid excuse (Wisconsin, 2019). A key term used synonymously with Juvenile Delinquency is school refusal behaviour (SBR) addressed by professionals including psychologists, educators, and pediatricians (Stickney & Mitenberger, 2018). Keame and Silverman (2018) defined school refusal behaviour as difficulty in attending school or remaining in school for the entire day. Included in the classification of school refusal behaviour are the following manifestations: social phobia, school phobia, anxiety and or depression, and truancy (Lee & Mitenberger, 2016; Daleiden & Chorpita, 2018; Stickney & Mitenberger, 2018). While the first three often need medical and or counselling interventions, the manifestation of Juvenile Delinquency is one that presents diversity of issues of interest to school personnel. Juvenile Delinquency disturbs the dynamic teaching – learning environment and adversely affects the overall well-being of classes (Segal 2021). According to Rood (2021), Juvenile Delinquency is a constant interruption of the learning process.

In personal research conducted, Tyerman (2018) reported that Juvenile Delinquency can be classified by the following character type:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Persistent absentees without parents’ knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>Persistent absentees despite parents’ knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>Occasional absentees without parents’ knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>Occasional absentees despite parents’ knowledge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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Stemming from the above, Juvenile Delinquency can be explained as pupils of school going age who persistently stay away from school during instructional hours with or without parents’ concern.

THE CAUSES OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AMONG STUDENTS

Various views have been expressed on the factors affecting academic performance of students in school. Lockheed (2018) alluded to regular attendance to school by both teachers and students according to time table help teachers to gain hold the attention of students which leads to improved learning. The causes of Juvenile Delinquency do not lend itself to a single factor. Birman and Natriello (2018) categorized Juvenile Delinquency into three categories. The most common were the students’ lack of adequate socialization and ignorance of appropriate behaviour. The second group (the school-level group), was primarily concerned with peer pressure and school organizational patterns and their adverse effects. The authors labelled the third
group as societal-level. These Studies indicate that Juvenile Delinquency is caused by a number of factors such as: lack of challenging curriculum; a desire for hedonistic activities with peers; negative self-image and self-esteem; lack of personal interest in studies; the mental capacity of a student does not match the course opted; the poor teaching skills of lecturers; inadequate relationship between a student and their lecturers and their distance to university (Mayer-Mitchell 2016; Marburger 2018; Williams 2019; Weller 2020). Peer influence as cited by several researchers among them Williams (2019), as an important factor that contributes to various forms of anti-school behaviour such as Juvenile Delinquency, truancy and dropping out. The peer group has also been cited by Sharma (2016) as an important agent which has a strong bearing on the student’s ability to perform well.

Delinquent children cannot be held directly accountable to the offences they commit; such offences can always be traced to a particular root. Juvenile delinquency can be traced to one or a combination of factors in any situation. According to Bello (2016), Ben-Yunusa (2021), and Sambo (2021), juvenile delinquency can be attributed to home causes, community, and the school environment.

5. PERSONAL FACTORS DUE TO MALADJUSTMENT OUTSIDE THE HOME

5.1 Home conditions
The home where the child comes from has some influence. The home as the first agent of socialization is charged with the responsibility of providing the child with his or her basic needs such as food, clothing, shelter, affection, security and the like. If for any reason one of these basic needs is not provided, the child seeks approval elsewhere and may not find it important to go to school. Family health or financial concerns that pressure the student to care for family members or work during school hours; Child is a victim of abuses; Pressure arising from teenage pregnancy or parenting; Safety issues such as violence near the home and school; parental alcoholism or drug abuse; negative role models such as peers who are truant or delinquent; parents or guardians who do not value education and are complicit in students’ absence; All these factors contribute to Juvenile Delinquency. According to Tyerman (2018), faulty parent-child relationship, inadequate provision of the basic needs of the child, control principally by corporal punishment as well as lack of strong-emotional tie with a responsible adult of good standard also contribute to Juvenile Delinquency.

5.2 School conditions
School characteristics and culture can influence Juvenile Delinquency of the students (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002). The curriculum of school and strength of approval against the customary are also cited as contributing causes to the problem. It was cited by some students as a reason for non-attendance due to lack of challenging and interesting course work and curriculum (Kilpatrick, 2021). Perhaps organizational school structures endorse rewards to particular peer groups while ignoring the others. If so, peer identity becomes relevant in schools as values, attitudes and beliefs held within the peer groups predispose those in the group to endorse or reject the mission of schools. Haris (2016) claims that peer groups are more powerful than parents in changing the values of an individual. Teenagers divide themselves into peer groups based on their attitudes toward intellectual achievement, and anti-intellectual attitudes can even be found in middle-class neighbourhoods. If this is the case, a student's choice of peer groups may have an impact on his or her academic performance, resulting in Juvenile Delinquency (Hartnett, 2021).

Push-out policies, including suspension as a punishment for Juvenile Delinquency and automatic failing of students with poor performance; parents or guardian not notified of absenteeism; characteristics of teachers such as lack of respect for students and neglect of diverse student needs, and upwelling atmosphere, for example, a school with ineffective discipline policies where bullying is tolerated. Others are inadequate identification of special educational needs, leading to some students to feel overwhelm and frustrated with their inability to succeed; poor record-keeping, making Juvenile Delinquency difficult to spot; and lack of effective and consistently applied attendance policies including changing social norms and community values. A number of teachers-related characteristics or attributes can be a factor in the problem of non-attendance for classes by students. In other words, these teachers’ attributes act as push factors that
militate against students’ attendance to classes. According to Enotomo (2021), when students perceive that lecturer do not care to follow up when they are absent, their motivation for attendance is very low. Interestingly, a converse view of compulsory attendance is provided by Lots and Lee (2021) as contributing to and furthering the absentee problem. Forcing older students to remain in school when they are not motivated will increase the Juvenile Delinquency (Williams, 2019). According to Tyerman (2018), some students absent themselves because they are afraid of their teachers for fear of being “giving the stick” and of bullying by others.

5.3 Personal Factors
Some personal characteristics of children as well as personal reasons known to them also lead to their absence from school. Poor academic performance, sometimes due to special educational needs, and as a result of lack of self-esteem; unmet mental health needs; alcohol and drug abuse and lack of vision of education as a means to achieve goal. Tyerman (2018), shares a similar view that many children absent themselves from school because of their intellectual conditions such as ability and attainment when assessed on their I.Q., in the areas of spelling, reading and arithmetic. She further says that, upon interrogation with students, some said they miss school in order to play and seek adventure.

6. EFFECTS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY ON THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF STUDENTS
The issue of Juvenile Delinquency in the education landscape of Ghana has become a complex educational, political and social problem that is generating increased interest among educators, researchers and policy makers. It is, therefore, an undisputable fact that students who have Juvenile Delinquency problems generally suffer academically and socially. When students are absent from class, they miss valuable information resulting from peer lecturer interaction and benefits of the specific examples lecturers use to clarify difficult concepts. This valuable part of the learning experiences can be replicated when lecturers re-teach the material to absentee students (; Williams 2019; Weller 2020). Juvenile Delinquency in students affects their school performances especially when they are in group or teamwork for their assignments and projects. Since grouping will help develop the students cooperative and ability to share and gain knowledge from their group mates, likewise the group mates will also miss the opportunity of gaining knowledge from the students who are (Koppenhaver, 2021). Murger (2018), states that there is difficulty inferring the effects of Juvenile Delinquency on performance because, once a student is absent in class, he or she may miss the opportunity of learning other techniques. He found out that missing class increases the likelihood of missing examination material covered that day compared to the students who were present in the class. Juvenile Delinquency creates a dead, tiresome, unpleasant classroom environment that makes students who come to class uncomfortable and the teacher irritable (Marburger 2018). Students who miss class on a given date are significantly likely to respond poorly and incorrectly to questions relating to materials covered that day than those who were present. They also have lower achievement and may be penalized on test scores.

Also, teachers who spend class time re-teaching lessons take instructional time away from students who attend class regularly, and the extra time spent going over absentees’ homework and class assignments takes time away from teachers planning periods and time needed to provide individual assistance. This is in line with (Lelek 2016; Rumberger 2021), that in quality terms, Juvenile Delinquency is a waste of educational resources, time and human potential due to the poor performance of pupils. As a result of Juvenile Delinquency, students drop out of school prematurely and as drop outs they may indulge in social vices such as stealing, armed robbery, pick pocketing, prostitution, teenage pregnancy and the like.

Thus, Juvenile Delinquency is a multifaceted and multi-causal problem. Identifying causal factors of Juvenile Delinquency is vital in developing preventive methods and interventions (Lehr et al., 2020). Current research suggests that even though the main causes of Juvenile Delinquency vary from study to study, a combination of home, school, and individual factors are be involved (Reid, 2016). Research also states that the causes of Juvenile Delinquency on attendance can vary depending
on the methodology used (Reid, 2016). Three main causal factors of truancy have been identified. These factors include individual factors, institutional factors, and family backgrounds and community factors (Lindstadt, 2016; McCluskey, Bynum & Patchin, 2020). Individual or personal characteristics can have an impact on whether or not an individual attends school. Petrides et al., (2016) collected data from 901 11th graders from a number of secondary schools under the Buckinghamshire County Council Educational Authority (UK) to determine the psychosocial influences on scholastic behaviour and achievement in school. The authors categorized students according to personality traits: psychoticism, extraversion, and neuroticism. The results of the study showed that children who have high verbal ability, low psychoticism (i.e., they are altruistic, conformist, empathic, and socialized), and low extraversion (i.e., they are quiet and restrained) tend to have better attendance in schools than others.

Also, those children who were excluded from school due to serious breaches or discipline were more likely to have below average verbal ability scores and above average psychoticism scores (aggression, hostility). Interestingly, there was no relationship between verbal ability or the three personality traits and the number of unauthorized absences for truants (Petrides et al., 2016). Furthermore, neuroticism (high or low) did not have a significant impact on academic performance and was not a strong predictor of attendance (Petrides et al. 2016). These findings were similar to two other studies in which children’s aggressive behaviour was used to predict educational outcomes (Risi & Kistner, 2021; Kupersmidt & Coie, 2019). They found that children who were perceived as aggressive in elementary school were less likely to graduate from high school. The authors explained that since aggression is a relatively stable behaviour, those who display aggressive behaviours in elementary school will continue to display these behaviours later on and are more likely to be expelled from school than others. Kupersmidt and Coie (2019) also found that aggressive and rejected children are at substantial risk for subsequent problems of maladjustment such as truancy and school withdrawal.

Again, Cairns, Cairns et al., (2021) studied 475 participants from three different middle schools located in three different communities in Nigeria. The participants were followed for 5 years (starting from the seventh grade). The purpose of the study was to examine any behavioural, cognitive, and demographic factors that might be associated with early school dropout. School dropout was determined by tracking individuals to the schools they attended during the period of the study and if they dropped out, they were tracked to their place of employment or residence. At the beginning of the study, the authors collected various participant characteristics data. These included school nominations for aggressive behaviour, teacher rating on peer aggression, peer popularity, academic competence, social relations and social networks, socioeconomic status, maturational status, and chronological age. Cairns et al. stated that the group of students who were most likely to drop out later could reliably be identified at the beginning of the study. They stated that children with high levels of aggressive behaviour and low levels of academic performance were the ones who were most likely to drop out of school. Out of the group of boys that were in this category, 80% dropped out of school before completing grade eleven. Of the girls who were nominated as having aggressive behaviours and low levels of academic performance in the seventh grade, 47% dropped out of school.

Attitudes about school have also been identified in the literature as a causal factor of non-attendance. In a review, Reid (2016) discovered that truants and non-attendees tend to prefer fewer and different subjects (compared to other students who like a variety of Children’s subjects), under-achieve or perform badly in a range of school subjects, disagree or have negative attitudes towards school rules and regulations, fail to do their homework, have fewer friends in school, have lower long term career aspirations, and tend to suffer from psychosomatic illnesses. From a Truancy Evaluation Center survey, Berger and Wind (2019) found that the majority of the students skipped school because they missed their school bus.
7. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

The relationship between juvenile delinquency and academic performance is the core of this study. However, there few reports about the topic. Osarenren (2021) opined that as should be expected, truancy and absenteeism in particular affect the academic performance and achievement of students. Since they constantly absent themselves from school, they do not perform well in examinations because they were not in the class when lessons were thought. Secondly, because of their nature, they do not even collect notes from their classmates. In other to perform well they cheat in examination. Often times, they repeat classes and still they do not perform better instead the problem worsens resulting in dropping out of school. They constitute another source of social nuisance because the boys may become armed robbers while the girls' become prostitutes. In view of the above, Bello (2016) reveals that examination malpractice is becoming a rampant phenomenon among students and it is also fast assuming a cult image which could be as a result of juvenile delinquency. The effect of alcoholism on the individual is that, it reduces individual's capacity for meaningful developments (O'kwu & Shamija, 2020). They said alcohol gives the individual a false feeling of himself, that an alcoholic addict always feels he or she is right and must have his/her way. He behaves differently, forgets his senses of right and wrong and neglects his duties. Any student in this situation definitely cannot think straight.

Internationally, there is considerable evidence to suggest that juvenile delinquency levels are moderately related to academic performance (Park & Kerr, 2021; Romer, 2016; Devadoss & Foltz, 2020). Some researchers argue that attendance is merely a proxy for student motivation (Durden & Ellis, 2016). This means that juvenile delinquency does not determine students' performance but seen as something students get inner satisfaction from as being part of a school. Romer (2016) found a statistically significant relationship between performance and attendance after controlling for motivation. Studies on attendance rates and academic performance at South African higher education institutions are few. While, Garry (1996) found that lecture attendance was not significantly related to academic performance in a first-year economics course, others have found that there is a significant relationship between attendance and academic performance and that suggests that a more student approach to the lecture environment is most needed to improve upon the performance of students in school.

Executive summary (1998) on the analysis of the relationship between student and teacher attendance rates and student achievement suggested that poor teacher attendance combined with poor student attendance yielded the lowest scores followed by poor student attendance alone and poor teacher attendance alone. McInnis and Hartley (2002), in their surveys of first-year students in seven Australian schools, found that between 1994 and 1999, the percentage of full-time students in paid employment had grown from 42% 51%. By 2018, this share had risen to 73% (McInnis & Hartley, 2002). The issue of the effect of paid work is not restricted to Australia. It has received attention in the literature (Winn, 2002). British literature has focused on the equity implications of paid employment, arguing that those students from low-income backgrounds are likely to be disadvantaged educationally by their need to engage in paid employment (Metcalf, 2021).

An article by Lynn (2020) reported a negative effect of paid employment on academic attainment. They surveyed full-time undergraduates at Northumbria schools over an eleven-year period, 1999 to 2018. On the basis of a total of 2,737 responses, they were able to provide their sample into seven subject groups and compared results for those in paid employment and those who were not. They found that paid employment had a significant negative effect on academic performance of between 4.9 and 0.7 percentage points. In the economic models of time allocation developed by Becker (1974) students can be thought of as making rational optimizing decisions about the allocation of their time subject to the constraints they are facing. Achieving a particular grade in a subject can be thought of as a production decision. Students bring to their studies a certain level of motivation and natural ability. This can be used in combination with time spent in classes and individual study to produce certain grades outcomes. A comparison of academic performance to
juvenile delinquency revealed a positive trend of higher grades associated with higher attendance (Johnson, 1996). This presupposes that students’ attendance relate directly to their academic achievements. One of the largest costs involved in undertaking higher education is the opportunity cost of foregone earnings. By engaging in employment while studying, students can reduce those costs substantially but they will only be willing to engage in period employment up to the point where benefits of a higher income are equal to the cost of acquiring that income.

Chung (2020) reported a significant correlation between achievement and attendance, homework, and mini-quizzes. Thus, students’ achievement is a dependant of juvenile delinquency as mini-quizzes depend on homework. In a study by Green (1993), a significant correlation was reported between attendance grades for first year psychology students. Van Blerkon (1992) also studied why student missed class. Rodgers (2018) found that attendance has a small but statistically significant effect on performance. This is an indication that the correlation coefficient between attendance and performance is small but statistically significant. From that research, it was reported that the most frequent reasons given by the students were: pressure from other courses, becoming discouraged, and believing attendance have little effect on a grade. In a follow-up study (Van-Blerkon, 1992) found fairly low correlation between academic perseverance, self-efficiency, juvenile delinquency and course grades.

Teevan and Dryburgh (2019) also studied the relationship between juvenile delinquency, class work, homework, and grade based on collaborative tasks. Their results revealed that overall attendance predicted success on the task tests. In an attempt to control attendance (Berenson et al., 1992) put in place a ‘compulsory attendance policy’ that combined reward and punishment protocols in which college students in America were allowed three unexcused absences, with additional unexcused absences possibly resulting in dismissal from the course. Eventually, students with no more than one absence between exam dates were awarded five points for that exam score. Consequently, there was improvement in attendance rates, and the study showed that increased attendance rates correlate with increased achievement. With these results in mind, Berenson et al., (1992) concluded that ‘it is highly likely that policies which enforce attendance will have an impact on students’ grades. In the same vein, Brooks (2018) compared reward-based and punishment approaches to controlling attendance. Students were either awarded extra grade points for regular attendance or penalized grade points for missing class. Attendance was recorded on ten class days, chosen at random. He found no significant difference between attendance rates and concluded that there is no significant difference between juvenile delinquency and performance. Halpern (2019), on the other hand, documents an improvement in attendance rates by employing a grade incentive with 997 students over four years compared to a baseline group attendance policy (i.e., no rewards), the reward group demonstrated 25.5% decrease in juvenile delinquency.

Hancock (1996) reported dramatic correlation between test performance and penalizing students for missing class. He found that 10% of the final grades were based upon attendance. Additionally, Caviglia-Harris (2020) investigated the impact of a mandatory attendance policy on student grades. He reported that GPA prior to taking the course and SAT score consistent predictors of students’ performance, even after accounting for student withdrawer; and that attendance rates were not found to be significant indicators of exam grades after accounting for simultaneity. Marburger (2018) found that juvenile delinquency increased the probability of answering the exam question incorrectly. To Marburger, juvenile delinquency effects ranged from 7.5% to 14.6%. This is It is important to note that most of the studies reviewed have been carried out elsewhere, it may be interesting to see, if location of the study and particularly, a country with high incidence of HIV/AIDS as Botswana will yield further results on impact of attendance on achievement. It is also possible to be able to come out with suggestions on new strategies for tackling the problem of juvenile delinquency. In general, research has indicated that greater juvenile delinquency is associated with lower achievement (Dolezal et al., 2021; Klem & Connell, 2020). The relationship between student achievement and attendance has been argued to be a recursive one in which those students who are lower performing are more likely to reduce their attendance rate which in
8. MEASURES TO MINIMIZE THE PROBLEM OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN THE SCHOOL

School attendance must be encouraged at all levels of education by parents or guardians, school authorities and the community at large to minimize Juvenile Delinquency. Zanoff and Mayer (2016) are of the view that if Juvenile Delinquency is to be checked in schools, punitive management practices should be decreased and positive ones and closer correspondences between pupils’ capabilities and interests and their academic performance should be promoted. Also, recognition should be given to pupils whose attendance is exemplary by awarding them with certificates, pen, pencils, exercise books or another token.

According to David and Lucile (2018), there are a variety of services and activities that can minimize Juvenile Delinquency and build protective factors through public awareness and media campaigns, providing culturally competent, parent education, training child care providers about school readiness and sponsoring homework clubs through family resources centers and churches. The National Centre for School Engagement also shares the following views as some of the ways of minimizing Juvenile Delinquency.

Parent / guardian involvement; a continuum of supports, including meaningful incentives for good attendance and consequences for poor attendance; Collaboration among community actors such as law enforcement, mental health workers, mentors and social service providers in addition to educators; Concrete measurable goals for programmed performance and students’ performance. Good record keeping and on-going evaluation of progress towards the goals. There should also be counselling services by social workers, psychologists and psychiatric. From the various opinions and suggestions given above by experts, it can be noted that everyone: community leaders, students, senior citizens, the media, health providers, recreational centres and law enforcement agencies, have a role to play in minimizing Juvenile Delinquency. Minimizing Juvenile Delinquency is therefore a collective effort.

9. CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

Have you ever considered the implications of poor academic performance on juvenile delinquency? There are few established links with more empirical confirmation than the correlation between juvenile delinquency and educational performance and achievement. The real question, however, centers around what is the causal link between delinquency and academics. Of the many academically confirmed factors correlated with juvenile delinquency, academic performance is among the strongest. The issue is whether academic performance causes juvenile delinquency or whether juvenile delinquency causes poor academic performance. Evidence-based research has not completely established these direct causal and directional links. However, there are steadfast factors that contribute to this correlation. While it is not a definitive conclusion that poor school performance spurs delinquency, or just that there is some other factor about juvenile delinquents that leads them to underperform in school, there are key features that define this relationship link. Juvenile delinquency is seen to increase on average with poor school performance. Past research has attributed this link to major factors, including poor grades, failing grade levels, poor school environment, poor student-teacher relationships, truancy, negative peer relationships, and early drop-out from school. Other strongly associated factors include poor social bonds with family and school influencers, poor community and school resources, learning and attention deficiencies, low self-esteem, low self-control, and higher than normal aggressive actions and tendencies.

10. SOME KEY THEORIES

In considering the key factors that link and relate poor academic performance and delinquency, there have been several theories applied to aid in understanding how this relationship may exist.

Strain theory posits that juveniles turn to crime for tangible and esteem laden rewards that fall short from school-related performance. Thus, when students do not receive the gratification and rewards, they expect from good school performance, they turn to crime to...
achieve happiness, money, material goods, and attention.

**Control theory** presents information that normal controlling influences of family members and school officials such as teachers have weak bonds with poor performing students. These students in turn do not feel the controlling fear of disappointing or disobeying these individuals, which lowers the inhibition for engaging in delinquency.

**The general theory of crime** suggests that students cannot adequately manage their behavior in order to get good grades, or to consider the costs associated with engaging in delinquency. Other social theories related to delinquency include social disorganization theory, which relates to the lack of community organized resources or cohesion to causing delinquency. Likewise, social learning theory suggests delinquent behaviors are learned from major influencers in a child’s environment (i.e., family and friends) within a series of rewards and punishments that guide the child towards delinquent behaviors.

Developmental theories, such as life-course theory and three-pathway theory, hold the view that many different combined impacts of relationships and attachments to personal and institutional groups, such as family, school, work, friends, and community groups, influence the engagement or rejection of delinquency.

11. **CONCLUSION**

There is a long history of academic success. Student instructors have been compensated depending on their students’ performance in a yearly test since 1846. Tests were widely used between the two world wars, but public confidence in them began to wane. It’s because of this and the assumption that greater knowledge about successful methods would result in qualitative improvements in teaching and learning that policymakers are becoming more interested in performance metrics. Child delinquency, also known as juvenile offending or child crime, is the involvement of kids (juveniles) who are younger than the statutory age of majority in unlawful conduct. Most legal systems provide particular processes for dealing with adolescents, such as juvenile detention facilities and juvenile courts, which must be followed in all cases. The term "child delinquent" refers to a person who is usually under the age of eighteen (18) and who performs an act that would have been considered criminal if they had been prosecuted as an adult. In this way, factors leading to delinquency may be discovered not only in the individual’s mental and physical make-up, but also in his or her current and previous environmental circumstances. Unwholesome influences and challenging circumstances experienced throughout early infancy are likely to be just as significant as current conditions in the development of delinquency in children. They may be more significant than you think. As a result, parents and instructors should be very vigilant in watching their children from an early age. The human resource base of a country has a significant impact on the country’s future. As all people of a country are considered to be a part of the base, a country that does not pay attention to the appropriate overall growth of its population has a good risk of falling behind in the race for development success. Ghana, as a developing country, has put in place certain measures to guarantee that children of school-going age are enrolled in school and get the kind of education that the country needs in order to grow. What must be guaranteed is that programs are implemented and monitored in the appropriate manner.

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