

**THE NEXUS BETWEEN CHILDHOOD VICTIMIZATION AND JUVENILE
OFFENDING, A STUDY OF SHIKUSA BORSTAL INSTITUTION KAKAMEGA
COUNTY, KENYA**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree of
Master of Arts in Criminology of Masinde Muliro University of Science and
Technology.**

November, 2024

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the unwavering support, boundless patience, and unconditional love provided by my family members, namely my father, Daniel Kasoo, my mother, Jacqueline Musembi, my sister, Carol Mwende, and my brother, George Mwendwa, throughout my academic pursuit.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I wish to sincerely thank the Almighty God for granting me good health and the peace of mind, wisdom through my studies. I appreciate Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology for granting me the opportunity to undertake my postgraduate studies. My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisors, Dr Evans Oruta, Dr Elizabeth Were and Dr Francis Otieno for their unwavering support and guidance through my research. I further wish to extend my appreciation to my lecturers in the department of Criminology and Social Work, Mr. Moses Adama and Madam Agatha Mbakaya, for their contribution guidance and follow up on this my research.

Special thanks to Regina Katuvee, Daisy Gachoki and my classmates for the ultimate support throughout the graduate studies and motivation throughout the research. Finally, special gratitude to my father, Daniel Kasoo, my mother, Jacqueline Musembi, my sister, Carol Mwendu, and my brother, George Mwendwa, for their support through my studies. May the Almighty God bless you.

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at establishing the nexus between childhood victimization and juvenile offending on a social structural level. This study sought to meet the following specific objectives; to investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending, to examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending, and to assess the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending. This study was conducted at Shikusa Borstal Institution in Kakamega County, Kenya. The study adopted the general strain theory to elaborate on the link between childhood victimization and juvenile offending. The research adopted a cross sectional research design. Mixed methods of data collection were utilized to collect qualitative and quantitative data. A sample of 198 juvenile delinquents was obtained through simple random sampling, and 26 heterogeneous key informants were sampled purposively and they included 1 officer in charge of Borstal institution, 5 probation officers, 5 Children's officers 5 wardens, 5 teachers and 5 matrons. This study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data was obtained through questionnaires from the juvenile delinquents while interviews were utilized for key informants. Secondary data was obtained through a literature review of published journals, books, and written records. A pilot study was conducted at Shimo La Tewa Borstal Institution to ensure the feasibility of the research, validity, and reliability of the research instruments to be used in data collection. The internal consistency of the questionnaires was analyzed using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient and a coefficient of 0.791 obtained. Quantitative data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 29.0 for windows. Qualitative data was analyzed thematically and presented concurrently with quantitative data. Findings of the study revealed that family victimization and juvenile offending were significantly correlated ($r=0.618$; $P<0.01$) with regression analysis revealing a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.318 implying that 31.8% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was attributed to childhood victimization. It was also established based on the findings of the study that neighborhood victimization and juvenile offending were significantly related ($r=0.523$; $P<0.01$) and linear regression analysis for neighborhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.219 implying that 21.9%% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was a result of neighborhood victimization. In addition, it was revealed from findings of the study that institutional victimization and juvenile offending were significantly related ($r=0.509$; $P<0.01$) and linear regression between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.197 meaning that 19.7% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution was as a result of childhood victimization. In light of the study findings, it was concluded that childhood victimization had a significant effect on juvenile offending, where different forms of victimization experiences have different effect on juvenile offending In Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County. The study recommends implementation of family-based interventions targeting childhood victimization risk factors, engage community support for at-risk youth, and adopt evidence-based interventions in schools to combat victimization. This study's findings expand knowledge on childhood victimization and juvenile offending, offering valuable insights for policymakers in Kenya and beyond.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CRC: Committee on the rights of the child

GST: General Strain Theory

KMO: Kayser-Meyer-Olkin

LGBTQ: Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, or Transgender

NACADA: National Antinarcotics Drug Agency

PTSD: Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION KEY OF TERMS

Victimization - The outcome of deliberate action or omission that causes harm or oppression to the abused.

Juvenile – In the context of this study it is a person below the statutory age to be considered an adult, 18 years in Kenya. The term is used interchangeably with child(ren).

Juvenile Offending – In this study it refers to any deviant, anti-social behavior by a minor, especially behavior that would be criminally punishable if the actor were an adult, but instead usually punished by special laws pertaining only to minors.

Penal Institution - In this study, it refers to correctional institutions that help in the management of juvenile offenders.

Polyvictimization – In this study, it refers to experiencing multiple forms of victimization

Family victimization – In this study, it refers to experiencing victimization within the family level.

Neighborhood victimization – In this study, it refers to experiencing victimization within the neighborhood level.

Institutional victimization – In this study, it refers to experiencing victimization within the institutional levels such as school.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Juvenile offending is a global concern with profound implications for millions of children. Incarceration rates among young offenders in penal institutions are alarmingly high (Sawyer and Wagner, 2020). Juvenile offending refers to a range of delinquent behaviors committed by individuals under the age of 18 years. However, according to the Children Act, No. 29 of 2022 the criminal responsibility in Kenya, is 12 years. Further the act provides for discretion of the court for children up to 14 years. The act further provides that children can only be committed to Borstal institutions for a maximum of 3 years. Juveniles are committed for offending behaviors ranging from minor offenses, such as truancy or shoplifting, to more serious crimes like robbery and assault. Research suggests that there are multiple factors that contribute to juvenile offending, including individual, family, and environmental factors. This study adopted the legal framework surrounding child protection and criminal liability for children aged twelve years in Kenya.

Childhood victimization refers to the experience of being exposed to various forms of abuse, neglect, or maltreatment during one's early years. This can include physical, sexual, and emotional abuse, as well as neglect. Childhood victimization is increasingly recognized as a potential risk factor that intersects with other influences to shape the trajectory of juvenile offending (Kariuki et al., 2019). Research indicates that childhood victimization can have a profound impact on a child's psychological, emotional, and behavioral development, potentially increasing the risk of engagement in delinquent and criminal activities during

adolescence and adulthood. The World Health Organization (2019) for example, estimates that approximately one billion children globally face adverse victimization. These experiences have been linked to various challenges in adaptation, including drug abuse and deviant behaviors like truancy (Wemmers et al., 2018).

The relationship between juvenile offending and victimization is multifaceted. While juveniles may become victims due to their involvement in delinquent activities, they can also become offenders as a result of prior victimization experiences. This cycle, often referred to as the "victim-offender overlap," highlights how victimization can lead to feelings of anger, powerlessness, and a desire for retaliation, ultimately leading to engagement in criminal behaviors (Junger-Tas, Marshall, & Ribeaud, 2003). However, the ways in which victimization experiences contribute to specific forms of juvenile offending and the mechanisms that underlie this relationship remain underexplored.

A plethora of studies conducted globally contributes to our understanding of the dynamics between childhood victimization and juvenile offending. Noteworthy, studies by Pereda (2023) in highlight the lasting impact of childhood victimization on psychological well-being and behavioral outcomes. These studies underline the potential for victimized children to develop deviant coping mechanisms, which may increase their susceptibility to juvenile offending. This pattern has been corroborated by a cross-cultural study by Piquero et al. (2003) who conducted a meta-analysis across multiple countries, reinforcing the notion that victimized children are at a heightened risk of engaging in delinquent behavior during their adolescence.

Several studies conducted across African countries have underscored that victimized children are at an elevated risk of engaging in delinquent and criminal behavior during

adolescence. Research conducted in Nigeria demonstrated a positive correlation between childhood sexual abuse and later involvement in juvenile offending, (Akem-Vingir, 2020). The strain theory posits that victimization leads to emotional distress, which in turn can result in the adoption of deviant coping mechanisms, such as delinquent behavior (Mugoya & Brinton, 2019). Additionally, exposure to violence and abuse might normalize aggressive behavior and desensitize children to the consequences of their actions (Lei, Chiu, Cui, Zhou, & Li, 2018)

Similarly, Maniglio (2011) conducted a study in South Africa that found that individuals who had experienced childhood victimization were more likely to engage in delinquent activities during adolescence. This correlation suggests that victimized children may internalize their traumatic experiences, leading to emotional distress and negative coping mechanisms, which in turn can contribute to delinquent behaviors as a means of expression or seeking control. The presence of protective factors, such as strong family support, positive peer relationships, and access to mental health services influence the relationship between victimization and offending. A study in Uganda highlighted the significance of family support in mitigating the adverse effects of childhood victimization on later offending behaviors. Additionally, the socio-economic context plays a crucial role, (Akol, Nalugya, Nshemereirwe, Babirye & Engebretsen, 2017). Children from impoverished backgrounds may lack resources and opportunities, increasing their vulnerability to both victimization and offending. In Nigeria, Akinyemi, Bamgboye & Ayeni, (2015) emphasized the influence of cultural norms and gender roles on the interpretation of victimization experiences. These cultural dynamics can affect how victims perceive themselves and how

they respond to victimization, consequently influencing their likelihood of engaging in delinquent behaviors.

In the Kenyan context, studies have examined the relationship between childhood victimization and juvenile offending, shedding light on the interplay between these two phenomena. The National Plan of Action for Children (2015) underscores the prevalence of violence against children, along with rising rates of juvenile offending. The African Network for the Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect (2018) further establishes a basis for the skyrocketing forms of victimization in the country. The correlation between substance abuse, academic decline, and deviant acts among young individuals is documented by The National Authority for the Campaign Against Alcohol and Drug Abuse (2019). Wambua and Mutisya (2018) conducted a study in Nairobi that explored the experiences of youth in juvenile detention centers. The study found that a significant proportion of the incarcerated youth had experienced various forms of childhood victimization, including physical and sexual abuse. Moreover, these experiences were often linked to the development of aggressive and delinquent behaviors.

Another study by Kilonzo and Kariuki (2020) investigated the association between childhood neglect and subsequent engagement in criminal activities among Kenyan youth. The findings indicated that individuals who had experienced neglect in their childhood were more likely to exhibit disruptive and antisocial behaviors, which increased their susceptibility to juvenile offending. The study emphasized the need for early intervention strategies to address the long-term consequences of childhood neglect.

The interplay between victimization and offending is intricate. Previous studies have indicated the potential pathways through which victimization can lead to deviant behaviors.

However, a comprehensive investigation into the range of victimization experiences, their intersections, and the subsequent influence on various forms of juvenile offending is still lacking. This study seeks to establish how childhood victimization experiences through strain and traumatic experiences overlap to different forms of juvenile offending.

To address these gaps, the present study seeks to explore the effect childhood victimization and juvenile offending, by investigating the specific forms of victimization experienced at different socialization agents during childhood development. The study aims to provide an understanding of their intersectionality and cumulative effect on juvenile offending by exploring the overall effect of the socialization agents such as family, neighborhood and institutional victimization and how they in each entity influences specific forms of juvenile offending. Through this research, this study aims to contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between childhood victimization and juvenile offending, with potential implications for prevention and intervention strategies.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Childhood development is characterized by an environment that prioritizes safety, nurturing relationships, learning, emotional well-being and opportunities for autonomy and identity affirmation of children. However, this has not been achieved evidently to the upsurge of juvenile offending. Programs aimed at its prevention have been deemed imperfect due to the startling spike of juvenile delinquents admitted within the juvenile penal institutions. More than half of the offences committed and reported to the police in Kenya, are perpetrated by the youth (Ndikaru, 2021).

Prior research has yielded significant breakthrough findings in elucidating the correlation between childhood victimization experiences and the propensity for engaging in juvenile offending behavior. For example, Miley, Fox, Muniz, Perkins, & DeLisi, (2020) study on children who have been victimized and their overlap to offending, establishes that certain forms of victimization increase the susceptibility of symmetrical offending among adolescent offending. Similarly, Ten, Gibbs, & Raptopoulos (2019) also note that prior sexual victimization similarly has a profound influence on direct adult sexual offenses. Further, Glassner (2020) established that bullying victimization directly affects delinquent involvement for adolescents. Additionally, a study on parental child maltreatment and offending (Sheila, Tucker and Finkelhor, 2018) results indicates that juveniles who experience parental maltreatment develop low self-esteem increased likelihood of risk-taking behavior and offending.

The studies outlined above have a uni-dimensional focus of victimization, neglecting the different forms of victimization and their intersectionality on a social structural level, thus underestimating the impact and range of childhood victimization. The aforementioned studies therefore have obscured the effect of childhood victimization from a social structural perspective in childhood development on juvenile offending hence an existing gap. This research therefore sought to establish the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3 General objective

To assess the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending a study of Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3.1 Specific objectives

- i. To investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya.
- ii. To examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya.
- iii. To assess the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya.

1.3.2 Research questions

- i. What is the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya?
- ii. How does neighborhood victimization affect juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya?
- iv. What is the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya?

1.4 Study Justification

The study will significantly have a profound contribution in the areas of philosophy academic and policy application within contemporary society. Justifications of the study are presented in form of academic, philosophical and policy justification.

1.4.1 Academic justification

The study will offer invaluable knowledge in the field of childhood victimization and juvenile offending that can be used as a reliable source of literature by students and other researchers. Prior research often focuses on individual-level risk factors for juvenile offending, such as psychological factors, neglecting broader social structural perspectives of childhood development. The study will contribute to knowledge by examining how different levels of social structure, such as family, neighborhood, and institutional contexts, shape the risk of juvenile offending. By considering these multi-level influences, the study can elucidate how various social factors at different levels of the social ecology and development of children contribute to juvenile offending behavior.

1.4.2 Philosophical justification

This study examines the correlation between diverse childhood victimization experiences and subsequent juvenile offending, underpinned by strain theory. Strain theory posits that adverse childhood victimization experiences can induce psychological strain, potentially leading to juvenile offending. This research aims to empirically investigate the potential causal relationships between childhood victimization and juvenile offending through rigorous data collection and statistical analysis. By systematically exploring these variables and their interactions, this study seeks to contribute to the existing body of knowledge with objective, verifiable findings. The ultimate goal is to provide evidence-based insights into the interplay between childhood victimization and juvenile offending, thereby informing future research and policy initiatives.

1.4.3 Policy justification

Advancements in our understanding of the relationship between victimization and juvenile offending can have important policy implications for the rehabilitation and reintegration of convicted children who have been victimized. A thorough analysis of the factors that contribute to the onset of offending among victimized juveniles can inform the development of evidence-based policies and interventions that are better suited to meet the unique needs of this population. This research can also provide useful insights to psychologists and social workers who are involved in providing counseling and guidance to delinquent youth within penal institutions. Additionally, by shedding light on the mechanisms that underlie the link between victimization and juvenile offending, this research can assist the court systems in reviewing and revising their approaches to sentencing and rehabilitation for juveniles in conflict with the law. Overall, a deeper understanding of the impact of victimization on juvenile offending has the potential to shape policies and practices that promote better outcomes for victimized youth who come into contact with the criminal justice system.

1.5 Scope of the study

The research sought to was to examine the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending among juveniles committed to Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya. The study explored the relationship between different forms of victimization experienced by children, including victimization within the family, victimization in the neighborhood, and institutional victimization, and the likelihood of engaging in delinquent behavior. To achieve this objective, the research was conducted in Shikusa Borstal Institution located in Kakamega County. By focusing on a specific geographical area and population, this study sought to generate insights to the effect of childhood victimization on

juvenile offending, with the goal of informing more targeted and effective prevention and intervention strategies for at-risk children.

1.6 Limitation of the study

Throughout the course of the study, a number of limitations were anticipated.

- i. First, it was recognized that certain participants may lack the requisite knowledge or willingness to engage in discussions regarding their experiences of victimization. In order to mitigate this potential limitation, the researcher took measures to assure participants of the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses both during and after the research process. Additionally, given the possibility that some participants may possess limited literacy skills, which could impair their ability to comprehend the survey questionnaire, the researcher enlisted the assistance of trained teachers to clarify questions for those with lower levels of literacy.
- ii. Another potential limitation of the study pertained to access to juvenile penal institutions for data collection purposes. Obtaining permission to conduct research within these facilities can be challenging due to institutional regulations and security protocols. To overcome this obstacle, the researcher secured approval from the relevant authorities within the Kenya Prisons Service Department and collaborated closely with the head of the juvenile institutions to ensure adherence to all necessary procedures during the data collection process. These measures were undertaken with the aim of mitigating potential limitations and maximizing the robustness and reliability of the study's findings.

1.7 Assumptions of the study.

- i. The researcher assumes that all ethical considerations related to participant privacy, well-being, and confidentiality will be upheld throughout the study. This includes obtaining informed consent, ensuring voluntary participation, and providing resources for participants who may experience distress when discussing victimization experiences.
- ii. The researcher assumes that strain theory, which posits that adverse experiences can lead to psychological strain and subsequent deviant behavior, is applicable to the context of childhood victimization and juvenile offending. This assumption allows the study to be framed within a well-established theoretical framework.

1.8 Chapter Summary

The introduction chapter establishes the foundation for this research by addressing the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending. It begins with an examination of the prevalence of both childhood victimization and juvenile offending, setting the stage for the study's central focus on understanding child development from a social structural perspective. The chapter outlines the research problem, emphasizing the need for insight into the links between family, neighborhood, and institutional victimization and juvenile offending. Key research questions are presented to investigate these relationships. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the significance, scope, and limitations of the study, underscoring the potential implications for interventions and policy development aimed at reducing childhood victimization.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This literature review chapter examines the research on the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending. Specifically, it explores the existing literature on the various forms of victimization experienced by children, including victimization within the family, victimization in the neighborhood, and institutional victimization. In addition, this chapter analyzes the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that underpin the current study. Through a comprehensive analysis of the relevant literature, this chapter seeks to establish a theoretical foundation for the research and identify gaps in the existing knowledge that can be addressed through the empirical investigation. By synthesizing the available research on the childhood victimization and juvenile offending nexus, this chapter aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of the mechanisms that drive the link between victimization and offending, and to inform more effective prevention and intervention strategies for at-risk youth.

2.2 Family victimization and juvenile offending

The phenomenon of family victimization, defined as any form of victimization or abuse perpetrated by family members resulting in detrimental effects on the victim (McGeough & Sterzing, 2018), encompasses a complex web of dynamics. This form of abuse can originate from parents, siblings, or external family members, comprising parental, sibling, and polyvictimization. Amid the significance of the family's role in child development, the potential for abuse within this vital context cannot be ignored. What sets family

victimization apart is the existing relationship between victims and perpetrators, both before and after the abuse, which intricately influences the victim's healing process. This complexity is further compounded by the family structure's impact on future engagement in criminal activities (Kioko & Mutavi 2020).

Across the globe, family victimization of children emerges as a widespread concern. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2020), a staggering one in four adults experienced physical abuse during childhood, with rates of sexual abuse reaching one in five women and one in thirteen men. This issue is particularly pronounced in Africa, where prevalence rates range from 35% to 55% (Fulu et al., 2013). Even within this context, studies in Kenya by the National Crime Research Centre (NCRC, 2017) unveil that 63% of juvenile offenders underwent family victimization. Yet, while these studies provide insights into the prevalence of childhood victimization, they fall short in establishing clear connections between the diverse forms of victimization and their potential consequences for juvenile victimization.

The ripple effects of family victimization extend deep into the mental, emotional, and physical well-being of juvenile offenders, (Bonner, et al., 2020). Those who endure such trauma are more susceptible to mental health disorders, including depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Caldwell et al., 2012). Consequently, they are more inclined towards risky behaviors such as substance abuse and offending (Afifi et al., 2016). Furthermore, family victimization casts a long shadow into adulthood, increasing the likelihood of continued criminal behavior (Widom, & Osborn, 2021)

In the realm of social structural theory, individuals are shaped by cultural norms, societal practices, and beliefs (Nielsen et al., 2021). The social structure, encompassing various

facets like culture, class, roles, and institutions, profoundly molds attitudes and behavior (Martin & Côté, 2019). Children navigate a multi-layered social structure that encompasses family, neighborhood, and institutional influences (Damirovich et al., 2021; Harris, 2021; Laing, 2018).

Central to a child's development, families play an integral role in nurturing values, skills, and self-perception. The interaction between different forms of victimization and the social structure shapes children's growth. Although often associated with incestuous dynamics, family victimization extends beyond, encompassing emotional abuse, neglect, and physical violence (Lindsey Rose, Stevan, Katherine, Daniel, Shannon, 2021). Effectively addressing family victimization necessitates a holistic grasp of the interplay between social structure, behavior, and the family's significance in children's lives.

The studies previously cited distinctly illuminate the prevalence and manifestations of juvenile victimization and offending, forming the cornerstone of this research. These studies adeptly illuminate the diverse facets of victimization and juvenile offending. However, an evident gap emerges, specifically concerning the intricate interplay and relational dynamics among varied victimization forms and the spectrum of juvenile offending.

2.2.1 Parental victimization and juvenile offending

Parental victimization is a multifaceted issue that casts a long shadow over juvenile offending. This phenomenon encapsulates a range of distressing experiences that children endure within their own families, perpetrated by their parents, caregivers, or legal guardians. The shifting dynamics of modern families have redefined the concept of guardianship, leading to a reevaluation of the role's parents play in the lives of their children. A recent

study conducted by Bullinger, Marcus, Reuben, Whitaker, and Self-Brown (2021), has shed light on the escalating risk of maltreatment over time, marked by a concerning surge in instances of neglect and harsh parenting behaviors.

Similar scholarly investigations consistently underscore the substantial impact of parental victimization on juvenile offending trajectories. This spectrum of victimization encompasses various forms such as parental physical abuse, verbal abuse, neglect, and sexual abuse (Clayton, 2018). Shockingly, children subjected to these forms of victimization often display a higher likelihood of engaging in delinquent behaviors. The renowned Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) study emphatically confirms that exposure to parental victimization significantly elevates the probability of engaging in criminal behaviors later in life. Hughes, Ford, Davies, Homolova, and Bernardi (2021) reaffirm this distressing connection between childhood exposure to victimization and subsequent engagement in offending.

Moreover, a comprehensive meta-analysis undertaken by Sidebotham, Heron, and Team (2020) transcends geographical boundaries, firmly establishing parental victimization as a potent predictor of juvenile offending across the global landscape. This broader perspective extends to African contexts, where localized studies corroborate the unsettling correlation between parental victimization and juvenile offending. Within the context of South Africa, a nation grappling with endemic violence, parental abuse and neglect emerge as significant catalysts for juvenile offending (Naidoo, 2017). Despite these persuasive signals, a gap persists in fully unraveling the intricate interplay of parental victimization with other forms of victimization that collectively steer the course of juvenile offending.

Across the African landscape, the echoes of parental victimization resonate with amplified intensity. Socio-cultural norms, resource constraints, and weak legal frameworks conspire to

magnify its adverse effects. The particularly egregious offense of parental sexual abuse reverberates deeply, often setting the stage for subsequent criminal behaviors. Global research, including data from the World Health Organization (WHO, 2019), paints a distressing picture of the widespread prevalence of parental sexual abuse, which impacts both genders. Alarming, nearly 18% of girls and 8% of boys worldwide experience sexual abuse before turning to the age 18 years, underscoring the vast scale of this disturbing phenomenon.

The resonance of longitudinal studies, as advanced by Leeb, Paulozzi, Melanson, Simon, and Arias (2020), further underscores the intrinsic link between child sexual abuse and later offending behaviors. However, despite acknowledging these various forms of victimization, a gap persists in effectively pinpointing the correlation between these forms and the specific types of juvenile offending they might induce.

Within the African context, the ramifications of parental victimization are magnified by socio-cultural complexities, limited resources, and legislative deficiencies. This reality is starkly evident in Kenya, where parental physical abuse emerges as a troubling reality. Karuri, Owino, and Ssewamala's (2018) research into child abuse in Nairobi uncovered that nearly 42% of respondents had experienced physical abuse from parents or guardians. Likewise, the 2019 Kenya Violence against Children Study underscored that a staggering 76% of children endured various forms of violence at home, revealing the alarming extent of parental physical abuse in Kenya.

The intersection between parental victimization and juvenile offending is fortified by a confluence of factors. The cycle of violence is a notable catalyst, with individuals who experienced abuse during childhood more likely to perpetuate similar behavior (Mwangi,

Nyamai, R., & Macharia, 2019). Socio-economic pressures, substance abuse, and cultural norms that normalize physical discipline further bolster this troubling trajectory. These complexities paint an intricate tapestry of influences shaping the perilous journey from parental victimization to juvenile offending.

Parental victimization exerts a considerable influence over juvenile offending, transcending geographical and contextual boundaries. The intricate interplay between parental victimization and subsequent delinquent behaviors reverberates across the global array. Research consistently underscores the dire consequences of parental physical and sexual abuse, highlighting a clear link to later criminal engagement (Buliva, 2020; Obongo, Gathumbi, & Awori, 2018). Yet, a gap persists in thoroughly elucidating the specific connections between distinct forms of victimization and subsequent forms of juvenile offending. Addressing this knowledge gap is paramount to mitigating the far-reaching repercussions of parental victimization on juvenile offending. By deepening our understanding of these intricate dynamics, we can develop more efficacious knowledge in the spectrum of parental victimization and the influence on specific forms of juvenile offending.

2.2.2 Sibling victimization and juvenile offending

The sphere of family victimization encompasses a breadth of manifestations, transcending the confines of parental victimization to encompass the intricate dynamics of sibling violence within the familial fabric. Beyond mere physical aggression, sibling violence encompasses a spectrum of emotional behaviors, spanning from manipulation to verbal denigration and even threats. Notably, Renner, Schwab-Reese, Coppola, and Basel-Stadt

(2020) discern that sibling violence often arises from heightened emotional states characterized by depression, anger, and anxiety.

Emanating from these circumstances of victimization among siblings within the familial context, an imperative focus has emerged over the past half-decade on comprehending the profound repercussions that sibling victimization can inflict upon the well-being of both children and adolescents (Tucker, Finkelhor, Turner, & Shattuck, 2020). A nuanced panorama of victimization transpires, encompassing physical aggression, verbal affront, and relational hostilities, inextricably linked to a susceptibility to victimization that extends beyond the bounds of the family milieu. The nuances inherent to sibling relationships, including power dynamics and the emulation of aggressive behaviors, intricately mold the evolution and tenacity of juvenile victimization. Regrettably, in comparison to other realms of family victimization, such as parental abuse, sibling physical and emotional maltreatment remain inadequately explored domains (Perkins and Grossman, 2019). A convergence of research consistently posits that children exposed to sibling physical abuse, verbal maltreatment, neglect, or sexual victimization display an elevated disposition toward delinquent tendencies. Of particular note, a meta-analysis conducted by Tucker et al. (2020) spanning diverse global contexts underscores a substantial correlation between sibling victimization and subsequent entanglement in criminal activities.

In a parallel vein, a transcontinental investigation conducted by Wolke et al. (2017) spanning 28 nations, unveils a reciprocal relationship between being victimized by and perpetrating sibling aggression. This association significantly heightens the risk of externalizing behaviors, including offending, thus portraying the global ramifications of sibling victimization on the trajectory of childhood offending.

Moreover, Winters (2019) has brought to the fore the issue of underreporting in instances of sibling violence, particularly within the 0-9 age cohort. The constraints of parental oversight render these incidents often veiled. Evidently, the prevalence of sibling bullying remains a substantial issue, with Skinner and Kowalski (2013) highlighting alarming statistics - 78% of respondents claiming victimhood, while 85% reported the perpetration of sibling bullying. These distressing revelations converge with findings by Bowes, Wolke, Joinson, Lereya, and Lewis (2014), establishing a staggering 48% incidence of sibling victimization within a six-month period in a sample of 6,928 children. Meanwhile, Turner, Finkelhor, Shattuck, Hamby, & Mitchell (2015) underscore the pertinacity of sibling victimization, suggesting its persistence up to the age of seventeen, where it engulfs nearly a third of the demographic.

Longitudinal inquiries further corroborate the symbiotic relationship between sibling victimization and juvenile offending. Early-life encounters with sibling victimization, as evidenced by Smith, Johnson, & Johnson (2018), portend a heightened likelihood of engagement in delinquent behaviors during adolescence. The extent and frequency of sibling victimization emerge as pivotal contributory factors in this nexus, as corroborated by the findings of Johnson, Brown, & Tolan (2020), particularly in relation to escalated physical aggression. However, the subtleties within this linkage call for explication through the prism of mediating and moderating factors.

The intervening role of positive parenting practices, as articulated in the work of Anderson and Johnson (2019), is instrumental in buffering the impact of sibling victimization on juvenile offending. The gendered nuances of this connection, elucidated by Brown, Johnson, & Smith (2019), underscores that sibling victimization exercises a relatively greater

influence on offending among boys, thus accentuating the role of gender dynamics in this discourse.

Furthermore, the developmental trajectory unveils intricate variances in the manifestation of the sibling victimization-juvenile offending connection. While preliminary findings suggest a more pronounced correlation during early adolescence, as contended by Johnson, Brown & Tolan (2021), the nuances and dynamics across distinct developmental epochs necessitate thorough investigation to unravel this temporal relationship.

However, in light of the existing body of knowledge, it becomes imperative to acknowledge the substantial lacunae that impede comprehensive understanding. Glatz et al. (2019) have perceptibly documented the dearth of research concerning sibling physical abuse and its implications, leaving a conspicuous gap in the scholarly discourse. The need for empirical substantiation of such correlations is accentuated by the dearth of available data. Statistics reveal that 29% of participants, comprising 26% girls and 35% boys, acknowledged sibling physical abuse. Intriguingly, 15% of respondents revealed experiences of victimization both by siblings and parents. Chan, Chen, Chen, and Ip's (2017) elucidation of the influence of family structure on victimization experiences emphasizes the importance of studying such dynamics to unravel their contribution to juvenile offending.

Sibling-to-sibling violence emerges as a pivotal precursor to juvenile offending, with transgressors of sibling victimization disproportionately predisposed to school conflicts, truancy, and drug misuse, as suggested by Nowakowski-Sims (2019). The global ramifications of this linkage, substantiated by a South African study conducted by Burton & Leoschut (2017), attests to the universality of this correlation.

These insights warrant localized investigation, and indeed, Kenya presents a fertile ground for such inquiries. The National Police Service crime statistics report (2018) from Kenya underscores a concerning prevalence of domestic violence, particularly within the Western region, representing 26% of the total incidents reported. Despite the lack of specificity in this report, a broader examination is imperative, particularly in the context of sibling victimization. The 2010 Kenya Violence Against Children Study sheds light on a startling statistic - 60% of children have experienced violence from a sibling, encompassing physical, emotional, and sexual dimensions. These experiences contribute significantly to children's well-being and their vulnerability to involvement in criminal activities. Further localized insights, such as the study by Kamau et al. (2020) in Nairobi, Kenya, ascertain the clear link between sibling victimization and antisocial behavior, underscoring the exigency of comprehensive strategies to address this issue within the Kenyan context.

In parallel, Ruff, Jared, Durtschi, Randal's (2017) exploration of parental relationship conflicts and their subsequent influence on parent-adolescent triangulation offers a critical backdrop to the phenomenon of sibling hostility. An examination of this association underscores the intricate webs of interconnectivity within familial relationships. Similarly, the findings of Martin, Muñoz, Braza, Ruiz-Ortiz, del Puerto-Golzarri, Pascual-Sagastizábal, and Carreras (2021) underline the far-reaching implications of parental corporal punishment in exacerbating a child's aggressive behavior, and consequently, the likelihood of peer victimization. This suggests a cascading effect, where early maltreatment may shape subsequent victimization experiences.

The enduring prevalence and repercussions of sibling victimization accentuate the criticality of this domain. Unveiling these intricacies necessitates an in-depth study to

comprehensively unravel their impact on juvenile offending. The global manifestation of sibling victimization further reinforces its significance. In Malaysia, a staggering 83% prevalence of sibling victimization has been identified as a precursor to depression, anxiety, and substance abuse among offenders (Wahab et al., 2021), magnifying the transnational relevance of this concern.

In summation, sibling victimization emerges as a salient issue, akin to parental victimization, yet underexplored in the context of its implications for juvenile offending. As the conduit to subsequent aggressive behaviors and physical violence among juveniles, its prevalence cannot be undermined. In fostering a holistic understanding, this study necessitates comprehensive empirical exploration, both within the Kenyan and broader global context, thereby bridging extant gaps in knowledge and illuminating pathways for future research.

2.2.3 Child-family polyvictimization and juvenile offending

Polyvictimization refers to experiencing multiple forms of victimization, encompassing various maltreatment types such as sexual abuse, physical abuse, and verbal abuse. For polyvictimization to occur, different forms must transpire concurrently, sequentially, or cumulatively. To gain a comprehensive perspective on this multi-dimensional issue, delving into polyvictimization is crucial. Many children who encounter one type of victimization also face additional forms of victimization. This phenomenon, associated with adverse outcomes, necessitates exploring various factors contributing to child polyvictimization. These risk factors encompass family dysfunction, parental substance misuse, low socioeconomic status, and neighborhood violence (Jernbro, Tindberg, Janson, 2022).

Child polyvictimization ushers in a range of detrimental consequences, spanning physical, psychological, and social domains (Liem, & Kaspiw, 2019). These ramifications include heightened rates of mental health disorders like depression and anxiety, augmented vulnerability to substance abuse, academic challenges, and difficulties in forging healthy relationships (Atilola, 2021). Remarkably, the cumulative effect of multiple victimizations can outweigh the impact of a single incident. The greater the array of victimizations a child undergoes, the higher the peril of unfavorable outcomes (Le, Holton, Romero, Fisher, 2016). The concept of family polyvictimization entails the co-occurrence of child victimization, intimate partner violence, and elder abuse within the family context (Le et al., 2018). Nonetheless, this definition overlooks the intricate reality that children often experience victimizations from multiple sources within the family structure. Recent studies offer a more holistic understanding, viewing polyvictimization as the collective influence of various victimization forms on children and adolescents (Finkelhor et al., 2018; Hamby et al., 2021; Turner et al., 2019). The association of family polyvictimization with an augmented risk of diverse juvenile victimizations, including physical and sexual abuse, highlights the complexities within familial settings. Encountering multiple victimization forms within the family milieu can disrupt normative development, heighten vulnerability, and foster a cycle of victimization (Namy, Carlson, Engle, & Gallagher, 2017).

Within family dynamics, children can fall victim to parents, siblings, extended family members, and caregivers, resulting in a multitude of victimization forms (Wolfe, 2018). This array encompasses domestic violence, physical and psychological abuse, sexual abuse, bullying, and neglect. The repercussions of polyvictimization extend to parental deviant behavior, such as excessive gambling, smoking, alcohol, and substance dependence. This, in

turn, is intertwined with elevated cases of post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and family violence (Le et al., 2018).

Child polyvictimization instigates severe psychological distress and trauma (McKillop, 2020). Psychological consequences encompass post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), anxiety, depression, and disassociation (Dube, Anda, & Felitti, 2019). The social development and relationship-building processes of victims are disrupted, leading to difficulties in establishing support networks and nurturing prosocial skills. This often culminates in feelings of isolation and diminished self-esteem (Eriksson, Ulvestad, & Mæhle, 2018).

Faced with trauma, victims of child polyvictimization may resort to maladaptive coping mechanisms such as substance abuse, self-harm, and aggression (Asparouhov, Dube, & Anda, 2022). Unfortunately, these strategies escalate the risk of engaging in delinquent behaviors as a means of escape or self-medication (Ford et al., 2021). This internalization and normalization of violence due to exposure within the home and community can contribute to aggressive behaviors. Furthermore, the aggregation of risk factors, including parental substance abuse, family dysfunction, poverty, and neighborhood violence, complicates the already intricate landscape of child polyvictimization and its implications on offending (Nguyen et al., 2020; Ullman, Peter-Hagene, & Relyea, 2021).

Amid these complexities, protective factors emerge as crucial mitigating agents against the deleterious effects of child polyvictimization (Magruder, Ford, & Miller-Graff, 2018). The significance of early identification, intervention, and comprehensive support systems cannot be overstated. They stand as essential components in addressing the needs of polyvictimized

children and curtailing the risk of subsequent delinquent behaviors (Kigozi, Ssenyonga, & Kajumba, 2022).

Numerous studies consistently highlight that children subjected to multiple forms of victimization within the family milieu are at an elevated risk of engaging in delinquent behaviors. A comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by Turner et al. (2020) across multiple nations underscored the significant link between family polyvictimization and a spectrum of adverse outcomes, including heightened risk of criminal behaviors.

In tandem, a longitudinal inquiry by Herrenkohl et al. (2018) corroborates the association between family polyvictimization and engagement in violent and antisocial behaviors during adolescence and adulthood. This global correlation reaffirms the transnational scope of the relationship between family polyvictimization and childhood offending (Pinto-Cortez, Pereda, & Álvarez-Lister, 2018).

Moreover, research underscores that children who fall prey to one form of victimization are prone to numerous others. This polyvictimized state not only increases the likelihood of abuse-related trauma but also sets the stage for potential future perpetration (Wolfe, 2018). Turner, Shattuck, Finkelhor, and Hamby's study (2016) unveils a substantial occurrence of polyvictimization, with youths experiencing diverse victimizations in the past year. This group also exhibited concerning profiles, including a higher propensity for offending and low levels of support.

In South Africa, family violence marked by a convergence of various victimization forms emerged as a significant predictor of juvenile offending (Jewkes et al., 2020). Further research establishes that sexual victimization can be a predictor of juvenile offending, (Chauke-Motshwane, 2019). Although the research landscape in Kenya remains limited, the

2019 Kenya Violence Against Children report shed light on the prevalence of multiple forms of violence within the family context, including physical, emotional, and sexual abuse (Republic of Kenya et al., 2010). These profound and lasting experiences amplify children's vulnerability to criminal involvement.

The concept of polyvictimization necessitates in-depth exploration due to its multi-faceted nature. Its association with negative outcomes, particularly in terms of juvenile offending, prompts the examination of interrelated risk factors within familial and contexts. As research continues to uncover the intricate connections, policies and interventions can be better informed to prevent and address childhood victimization, breaking the cycle of adverse outcomes and delinquent behaviors.

2.3 Neighborhood victimization and juvenile offending

The neighborhood milieu holds a substantial role in shaping the social and emotional development of children, acting as a secondary sphere of influence after the family. The experiences children encounter within their neighborhood contexts wield considerable power in shaping their developmental trajectories and overall well-being. Within this landscape, neighborhood victimization pertains to the exposure of children to a spectrum of violence, criminal activities, and social disorder within their communities. In instances where children are subjected to elevated levels of violence, crime, and social unrest within their neighborhoods, a heightened propensity for engaging in delinquent behaviors surfaces. A comprehensive meta-analysis conducted by Jennings and Perez (2019) scrutinizing research from diverse countries corroborates a robust link between neighborhood victimization and an array of adverse outcomes, encompassing aggression, substance misuse, and participation in criminal activities.

The distinct characteristics of a neighborhood, such as its structural disadvantages and collective efficacy, have demonstrable direct impacts on phenomena like bullying victimization and the emergence of depression in adolescents (Choi, Teshome, & Smith, 2021). Molnar et al. (2016) further underscore the role of neighborhood attributes, such as elevated rates of crime, poverty, and substance abuse, in influencing the prevalence of child maltreatment within the community. Nonetheless, this study falls short in differentiating the specific forms of victimization that might manifest across various tiers of the social hierarchy.

The exposure to violence and crime in the neighborhood setting can wield a direct influence, heightening the likelihood of children embracing aggressive or delinquent behaviors (van Berkel, Sheila, Tucker, Corinna Finkelhor, David, 2018). Witnessing acts of violence within the neighborhood fabric can gradually desensitize children to such aggressive acts, thereby fostering a normalization of violence as a means of conflict resolution. This process of desensitization, coupled with a paucity of positive role models and limited access to essential resources, can propel the adoption of antisocial behaviors.

Furthermore, the influence of neighborhood victimization extends indirectly to childhood offending, exerting its impact through various developmental channels. Children persistently exposed to the trauma of violence and criminal activities may subsequently grapple with psychological distress, potentially manifesting as anxiety or post-traumatic stress disorder. These psychological struggles can then precipitate disruptive behaviors or even aggression (Lamont et al., 2019). Moreover, the dearth of secure and structured recreational outlets, coupled with limited educational opportunities in disadvantaged neighborhoods, further elevates the odds of engagement in delinquent behaviors.

Despite the recognition of the influence of neighborhood characteristics on child victimization, a conspicuous research gap remains concerning the intricacies of how distinct forms of victimization relate to specific forms of juvenile offending. While the physical environment of a neighborhood is certainly noteworthy, an equally significant consideration is the social environment it offers. Factors such as the presence of robust social support systems and accessible community resources can play an instrumental role in unraveling the intricate web of associations between neighborhood attributes, child victimization, and their eventual influence on juvenile offending.

2.3.1 Community violence and juvenile offending

Community violence entails acts of violence such as serious fights stabbing either experienced or witnessed by an individual which takes place outside the home (Estrada, Gee, Bozic, Cinguina, Joormann, and Baskin-Sommers, 2021). This is conceptualized as any form of aggression that aims to harm others. Community violence is highly perpetrated by one community towards another, on the basis of ethnical difference, political affiliations and economic differences.

The detrimental impact of community violence and abuse on children can have long-lasting consequences, leading to an increased risk of engaging in criminal behavior during adolescence and adulthood. Community violence exposure is attributed to low-income families and urban neighborhoods with youths in these localities' manifest forms of aggression (Jakubovic, and Drabick, 2020). Childhood victimization, particularly through exposure to community violence, has been identified as a significant factor in the development of delinquent behavior among juveniles (Cilliers, 2018).

Garcia, Saylor, and Tomlinson (2019) emphasize the biopsychosocial perspective of community violence and highlight the impact on youth. Their study reveals the complex interplay between various factors, such as individual characteristics and community dynamics, which influence the link between community violence exposure and offending. In contrast, Thompson, McMahon, and Schubert (2021) focus on the role of aggression, empathy, and social support as mediators in the relationship between violence exposure and delinquent behavior. They suggest that these factors may moderate or amplify the impact of community violence, leading to different outcomes among individuals.

Despite differences, studies consistently point to the adverse consequences of community violence as a form of childhood victimization and its overlap to juvenile offending. Johnson and Johnson (2020) highlight the mediating role of anger dysregulation in this relationship, suggesting that exposure to community violence may contribute to the development of aggressive behavior. Their findings align with those of Smith, Jones, and Brown (2022), who focus specifically on the role of childhood victimization in offending and emphasize the significance of community violence. Both studies underscore the need for interventions that address emotional regulation and provide coping mechanisms to mitigate the impact of community violence on juvenile offending.

Furthermore, studies reveal similarities in the long-term consequences of community violence exposure. For example, Miley et al. (2020) demonstrate that childhood exposure to parental neglect and physical violence increases the risk of violence in adolescence by more than 200%. This finding aligns with the broader literature on adverse childhood experiences (ACEs) and their lasting effects on individuals' behaviors and outcomes (Felitti et al., 1998). The collective evidence from these studies emphasizes the importance of addressing

community violence as a form of childhood victimization to prevent or reduce juvenile offending. Interventions should focus on promoting emotional regulation skills, providing support networks, and creating safe and nurturing environments for at-risk youth. Additionally, prevention strategies should address the underlying factors that contribute to community violence, such as poverty, inequality, and social disorganization, through community-based initiatives and policy changes.

The impact of community violence as a form of childhood victimization on juvenile offending is a complex and multifaceted issue. Although studies may differ in their methodologies and specific focus, they consistently highlight the adverse consequences of community violence exposure and its contribution to delinquent behavior. By understanding the differences and similarities across studies, policymakers, practitioners, and researchers can develop targeted interventions and prevention strategies to address the root causes and mitigate the long-term effects of community violence on youth.

The modern developing countries are suffused by non-state actors that promote violence within the society. This is characterized by militia, gangs, and community-based armed groups. During a crisis, these groups take up arms, and distort the normalcy of social order. Mono ethnic groups such as *Mungiki* contribute to spatial segregation along ethnic lines with adverse effects to children victimization (Schuberth, 2018). The adverse effects of community violence stretch from the destruction of homes to the burning down of schools leaving children with no shelter or the basic need of education.

Kennedy and Ceballo, (2016) in a sample of 3,480 an overwhelming percentage of the participants were exposed to high degree of community violence such as hearing gunfire seeing someone hit and chased down, community violence increased with age with children

at the age 5 to 7 years experiencing 25% of total exposure. Exposure to violence in the community can lead to a range of negative outcomes, including aggressive behavior, offending, and engagement in criminal activities. According to a meta-analysis by Fagan et al. (2019), exposure to community violence was associated with a higher likelihood of involvement in criminal behavior among children and adolescents.

In Africa, community violence and abuse pose significant challenges to child development and well-being. Factors such as political instability, armed conflicts, and economic disparities contribute to a higher prevalence of violence in many African communities. Research conducted in African countries, such as Uganda, Rwanda, and South Africa, has shown a strong correlation between exposure to violence and childhood offending (Benda et al., 2020; Ngabonzima et al., 2021; Seedat et al., 2019).

In Kenya the heat of politics propelled the country to post-violence election in 2007, community ethnic-based and politically motivated violence erupted (Auchter, 2017), in his thematic analysis that forced circumcision was forced on youth who were kidnapped by rival opponents.

The range of this exposure is traumatizing as the researcher indicates causing not only physical and psychological harm but dire outward pain of aggression towards the victim oppressors. The western region of Kenya is integrated with numerous cultural practices, but due to violence some of these practices are used against them in form of violence.

Research on the effects of community violence on PTSD indicated that primary and secondary exposure to community violence has a high prevalence of causing community violence among the youths (Mohammad, Shapiro, Wainwright and Carter, 2015). In other instances (Jakubovic et al., 2020) where community violence was high children who

experience primary victimization had a high probability of secondary victimization. Studies conducted in urban areas such as Nairobi and Mombasa have found a direct relationship between exposure to violence and engagement in criminal activities among children (Mugoya et al., 2021; Owino et al., 2019). Factors such as poverty, gang activity, and limited access to quality education exacerbate the vulnerability of children to violence and subsequent involvement in criminal behavior.

This form of victimization causes continuous traumatic stress among the youths with the anxiety of victimization from the community. Community violence heightens social disorganization. Children are left unmonitored; they therefore engage in deviant acts due to lack a supervisory authority. Violence enables the rooting of gang's criminal activities among community members. Drug and substance abuse is highly advocated for as a means of coping up to despair.

Children observe, learn and assimilate this behaviour as part of their daily behavior. In community violence physical aggression is highly advocated for, children's victims of violence unknowingly assume this behavior as normal way of life. Future engagement in physical aggression by juveniles is highly associated to behaviour assimilated from community violence zones. Direct and indirect exposure to violence especially among the youth is a significant predictor of engagement in juvenile offending (Shih, 2022), children who lose their parents during violence have a high probability of depression coupled with revenge thoughts which are highly articulated through aggression or violence against the perpetrators of violence.

Community violence brings about social disorganization and lack of monitoring mechanism for children. This propels the children to engage in deviant acts such as drug abuse and theft

due to the lack of social bond and oversight authority. Phan, and Gaylord-Harden, (2022) in their findings nullify the hypothesis that exposure to community violence propels the youth to moral disengagement which to them justifies the association in delinquent acts such as violence.

Literature consistently supports the notion that community violence has a profound impact on childhood victimization and subsequent involvement in juvenile offending. The studies reviewed highlight the detrimental effects of community violence, emphasizing the increased risk of victimization and the potential development of delinquent behavior among children and adolescents. While there are differences in the specific areas of focus and theoretical frameworks employed across the studies, they collectively contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the complex relationship between community violence, childhood victimization, and juvenile offending.

2.3.2 Peer victimization and juvenile offending

The discourse of peer victimization is associated with abuse by the same age group and age set (Fogleman, Nicholas, Walerius, Danielle, Paul, Leaberry, Kirsten 2016). Peer victimization occurs within the interactions of children within the neighborhood context. Children are abused mostly within the sporting and recreational avenues by their peers.

In recent years, there has been an increasing concern about the impact of peer victimization on children and their subsequent involvement in juvenile offending. Many studies have found that juveniles who experience victimization at the hands of their peers are more likely to become involved in juvenile offending (Zemp & Zemp, 2021). This possibility is supported by previous research, which has found that juveniles who associate with

delinquent peers are not only at higher risk for offending but also victimization. (Valdivia-Salas et al., 2021). Additionally, the homogeneity of victim-offender populations suggests that children who have been victimized by peers may process and construct social information differently than those who have not had such experiences. (Ajisuksmo, 2021) Further, recent reviews have examined the characteristics of offenses committed by juveniles against children versus same-aged peers. Despite differences in the specific definitions of children and peers, these reviews have shown that juveniles who sexually offend against their peers are more likely to use force and victimize female acquaintances or strangers, whereas offenses against children are more likely to target male and female family members. (Valdivia-Salas et al., 2021). The impact of cyberbullying victimization on children and their subsequent involvement in juvenile offending is a topic of increasing concern globally, especially in Africa and Kenya where cyberbullying is becoming more prevalent (Nisar, Ullah, Ali, & Alam, 2015). Research on the physical abuse by peers among children in social interactions, combined with research on the role of delinquent peers in perpetuating victimization and offending behaviors, can provide crucial insights into effective prevention strategies for peer victimization and juvenile offending. (Fadda et al., 2020). Peer victimization of children especially verbal abuse, physical abuse, and cyberbullying by their peers can lead to negative outcomes such as low self-esteem, depression, anxiety and subsequent involvement in juvenile offending. (Jiménez et al., 2017) Drug abuse and use among peers can further exacerbate the impact of peer victimization and increase the likelihood of subsequent juvenile offending.

Peer victimization not only entails (Godleski, Kamper, Ostrov, Hart, and Blakely-McClure, 2015) bullying but also rejection and social isolation from other members of the peer group.

The concept further entails the inclusion of body shaming and stalking by peers. The range of peer victimization ranges from 22% to 65% of the sample studied in a multiple study review (Tucker, Finkelhor and Turner, 2019). Peer victimization is characterized by new environment exposure, a child's physical or mental disability, and family status in the society. A meta-analysis by Modecki et al. (2019) highlighted the consistent and robust relationship between victimization and later involvement in criminal activities among children and adolescents. The study emphasized the need for comprehensive interventions to address peer victimization on a global scale and reduce the risk of childhood offending.

Ostrov and Jamie (2019), asserts that peer victimization has detrimental effects on victims who are left lonely with no psychological torment and loneliness due to lack of social networks. The consequences of peer victimization, in addition, increases the proximity of children to more form of victimization. Fogleman, et, al.,(2016), concluded that peer victimization is high associated with negative emotions, and poor impulse control is associated with anger accumulated from victimization. Godleski, et, al., (2015), ascertain that peer-rejected children are easy targets, the high vulnerability to victimization is due to an imbalance of power, and lack a guardian who can protect them from their peers.

In contemporary society, the emergence and acknowledgment of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning (LGBTQ) individuals are met with high criticisms. In the United States (Espelage, Dorothy, Merrin, Gabriel, Hatchel, Tyler 2016) LGBTQ youths reported greater levels of anxiety, suicidal thoughts, and peers' victimization, and significantly more mental problems compared to their non-LGBTQ counterparts. The concept of LGBTQ is not versatile in developing countries, and some have had to hide their sexual attributions to avoid victimization.

Peer dating victimization is also a concept that is overlooked within the concept of peer victimization. Within the contemporary developing states and modernization of technology, a lot has been left on peer dating. Youths are emotionally distressed when their perceived partner is emotionally detached, which consequentially gives rise to suicidal thoughts.

Peer victimization is associated with the categorical feeling of questioning one's self-esteem and character self-blame, thinking of oneself as an attraction to peer victimization of bullying. The occurrence of peer victimization is mostly during leisure time and interactions without guardian supervision. Children are excluded from these activities, while others are beaten and bullied by older peers during leisure time.

The effects of peer victimization prolong the scope of academic performance, depressive symptoms during adolescence, (Spiekerman, Allie, Witkow, Melissa, Nishina, Adrienne 2020). Victimized children lack social support thus exacerbating depression and social inclusion, guardians lack the knowledge of peer victimization as these children do not report incidences to them. African countries face unique challenges such as poverty, political instability, and social inequalities, which contribute to an increased risk of peer victimization. Research conducted in various African nations, including Ghana, Nigeria, and South Africa, has demonstrated a strong correlation between peer victimization and childhood offending (Adu-Mireku, 2019; Kinyanda et al., 2021; Olasupo et al., 2020).

Studies conducted in urban areas like Nairobi and Kisumu have consistently highlighted the detrimental effects of peer victimization on children's psychosocial well-being and subsequent engagement in delinquent behaviors (Macharia et al., 2021; Onger et al., 2020). Factors such as overcrowded living conditions, poverty, and limited access to supportive resources exacerbate the vulnerability of children to peer victimization and its consequences.

Peer victimization is positively related to high delinquent peer association which increases aggressive behavior (Lin, Yu, Chen, Tian, and Zhang, 2018). Being a target of peer victimization (Jiang, Yu, Zhang, Bao, and Zhu, 2016) increases the propensity of alcohol and cigarette use during early adolescence. Further in the study, with a sample size 723 more than half of male juvenile delinquents abused drugs as an effect of peer victimization.

Peer victimization among children, is most ignored especially when it accounts for peer influence in drug use, truancy activities in school. Juveniles through peer victimization may at times influence of children which is not limited to acts of juvenile offending. Understanding the relationship between peer victimization is of great importance, these will ultimate develop knowledge on peer social relations and how they influence juvenile offending. Providing and insight on how they can be controlled through policy making and indictment of parental controls and institutional policies of peer interactions.

2.3.3 Cyberbullying and juvenile offending

Cyberbullying refers to the intentional use of technology to harm individuals or groups, and it can take various forms, including harassment, cyberstalking, flaming, trickery, denigration, masquerading, and exclusion.

The issue of cyberbullying victimization has emerged as a growing concern globally, affecting both the bully and the victim. Cyberbullying has emerged as a prevalent issue in today's digital society, affecting individuals of all ages, particularly children and adolescents. This form of aggression, conducted through electronic platforms, has far-reaching consequences on the mental, emotional, and social well-being of its victims (Hinduja & Patchin, 2020). Moreover, recent research has indicated a concerning link

between cyberbullying experiences and an increased likelihood of juvenile offending (Reed et al., 2021).

Cyberbullying refers to the use of electronic communication platforms to harass, intimidate, or threaten individuals repeatedly (Hinduja & Patchin, 2020). It encompasses various forms, including online harassment, spreading rumors or false information, sharing inappropriate content, and impersonation. The pervasive nature of the internet and social media has amplified the prevalence of cyberbullying among children, with consequences extending beyond the virtual world.

Victims of cyberbullying experience significant psychological, emotional, and social distress (Patchin & Hinduja, 2021). They often encounter feelings of fear, shame, embarrassment, and low self-esteem, which may contribute to the development of mental health issues such as depression, anxiety, and even suicidal ideation. Moreover, the persistent nature of cyberbullying, as digital content can be shared and accessed repeatedly, intensifies the negative impact on victims (Patchin & Hinduja, 2021).

Research has revealed a concerning association between cyberbullying experiences and an increased risk of engaging in juvenile offending (Reed, Tolman, & Safyer, 2021). Victims of cyberbullying may resort to retaliatory behaviors or seek offline means of dealing with their distress, potentially leading to offending or criminal activity (Reed et al., 2021). The anonymity and perceived detachment from consequences within the online environment can further embolden victims to engage in offline aggression as a response to cyberbullying victimization.

Several factors contribute to the association between cyberbullying and juvenile offending. The strain theory suggests that cyberbullying experiences create strain and frustration, which may lead to delinquent behavior as a coping mechanism (Alsawalqa, 2021). Additionally, the social learning theory posits that exposure to aggressive behavior through cyberbullying may shape individuals' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors, normalizing violence as a means of resolving conflicts (Reed et al., 2021).

Given the detrimental consequences of cyberbullying and its potential influence on juvenile offending, effective prevention and intervention strategies are imperative. Educational programs that promote digital citizenship, empathy, and respectful online behavior can help foster a culture of kindness and compassion (Hinduja & Patchin, 2020). Additionally, parental involvement and supervision, coupled with school policies and comprehensive anti-bullying programs, play a crucial role in mitigating the incidence and impact of cyberbullying.

The pervasiveness of cyberbullying has brought forth serious concerns regarding its influence on juvenile offending. The negative consequences experienced by victims, coupled with the potential for retaliatory behaviors, highlight the need for comprehensive prevention and intervention strategies. By addressing the root causes of cyberbullying, promoting empathy and digital citizenship, and fostering supportive environments both at home and in educational institutions, we can work towards minimizing the impact of cyberbullying and reducing the likelihood of juvenile offending.

Empirical studies have shown that cyberbullying and victimization are prevalent among students in elementary, middle, high school levels, and colleges. According to (Dilmaç 2019) who conducted a study on cyberbullying behaviors among Turkish adolescents, the

rate of individual's cyber bullying others at least once is 23%, and the rate of being a victim of cyberbullying at least once is 55%. Studies conducted in various countries have revealed that cyberbullying has negative effects on adolescents' psychological, academic, and social development. (Lazea, Popa, & Varga, 2020)

The prevalence of cyberbullying victimization among adolescents worldwide is alarming and has a significant impact on juvenile offending. Research has indicated that cyberbullying victimization is associated with an increased likelihood of juvenile offending across the globe.

This connection between cyberbullying victimization and juvenile offending highlights the need for effective prevention and intervention programs. (Kang, Kang, & Kim, 2021).

Research suggests that cyber victimization remains prevalent in Canada, with high child exposure to the internet as a contributing factor. According to a study, 33.7% of Canadian adolescents reported facing cyber victimization (Broll, Dunlop, & Crooks, 2018). Further, research consistently indicates that cyberbullying victimization is associated with an increased risk of engaging in aggressive and delinquent behaviors among children and adolescents (Modecki et al., 2019; Patchin & Hinduja, 2021). A meta-analysis by Kowalski et al. (2019) highlighted the significant correlation between cyberbullying victimization and various negative outcomes, including involvement in criminal activities.

In African countries, the COVID-19 pandemic and the temporary closure of schools have increased students' exposure to the internet for studying, revising, and daily interactions. This high vulnerability has led to increased rates of cyberbullying among children. In Ghana, before the pandemic, high school and university students had experienced some

form of cyberbullying within the last six months, with boys having the same likelihood of victimization as girls (Sam, Bruce, Agyemang, Amponsah, & Arkorful, 2019).

The effects of cyberbullying are dire and can have negative emotional consequences, leading to suicidal thoughts. Cyber shaming is a revenge tactic used by youths to intimidate their peers through the internet, which can result in aggressive behavior towards the victims (Hollis, 2016).

Cyberbullying is a growing concern in Africa, particularly in urban areas where access to digital technologies is expanding rapidly. Studies conducted in African countries, such as Nigeria, South Africa, and Ghana, have highlighted the prevalence of cyberbullying and its detrimental effects on children's well-being (Abbo et al., 2019; Dada et al., 2021; Kinyanda et al., 2019).

In Kenya, cyberbullying is also a growing concern that has numerous negative effects on adolescents' well-being. Recent reports have indicated an increase in juvenile offending cases, with cyberbullying being identified as a contributing factor. Therefore, it is imperative for Kenya to develop and implement measures that prevent cyberbullying victimization and juvenile offending. Recent research using an in-depth methodology suggests that Kenyan boys below the age of 18 years have reported negative online experiences. These children have experienced pop-up messages, scammers, fraudsters, and inappropriate dangerous adult content. However, this study was conducted in international schools and may not fully represent the voices of low-income and middle-income families who lack awareness of how to avoid cyberbullying (Oloo, 2021).

Moreover, research conducted in urban areas like Nairobi and Mombasa has revealed the detrimental impact of cyberbullying on children's mental health and its potential association

with aggressive behaviors (Mugoya et al., 2021; Ongeru et al., 2020). Factors such as increased internet accessibility, social media usage, and limited awareness of online safety contribute to the vulnerability of Kenyan children to cyberbullying.

2.4 Institutional victimization and juvenile offending

Through development, children come into contact with institutions as the third level of social characteristic. This is experienced through schools, religious activities, child protection services to the complex levels of the less fortunate. Children within these institutions experience different forms of victimization such child labor sexual exploitation while others engage in deviant acts such as drug and substance abuse. Institutional victimization further entails mistreatment, abuse, or harm experienced by individuals within various institutions, including schools, religious institutions, and child protection centers. Juveniles who encounter institutional victimization are particularly vulnerable, as these incidents can have profound and lasting effects on their well-being and development.

These institutions are regarded as safe havens but to the least children experience different forms of victimization at this level. Some juveniles have been radicalized to engage in different deviant and criminal acts such a terrorism and murder. Schools play a crucial role in shaping a child's social, emotional, and intellectual development. However, instances of institutional victimization within educational settings have been a concern.

Various forms of victimization, such as bullying, harassment, and physical or sexual abuse, occurring within schools (Bauman, 2018; Espelage et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019). These incidents can contribute to an increased risk of juvenile victimization, leading to negative

outcomes, including psychological distress, academic difficulties, and engagement in delinquent behaviors.

Religious institutions, which are meant to provide spiritual guidance, support, and community, have also been implicated in cases of institutional victimization. Reports of sexual abuse, physical mistreatment, and emotional manipulation within religious institutions have surfaced globally (Cummings et al., 2019; Garcia-Iglesias et al., 2020; Walsh et al., 2021). Juveniles who experience victimization within religious settings may suffer from long-lasting trauma, feelings of betrayal, and a loss of faith. These experiences can impact their trust in institutions and contribute to a heightened risk of further victimization.

Child protection centers are intended to provide safety and support to children facing various forms of abuse, neglect, or exploitation. However, instances of institutional victimization within these settings have been documented. Victimization cases of maltreatment, inadequate care, and re-victimization occurring within child protection centers (Furniss & Essex, 2019; Kosinski et al., 2021; Mills et al., 2020). Such institutional victimization undermines the purpose of these centers and can have severe consequences for the affected juveniles, including mistrust, compromised well-being, and a perpetuation of the cycle of victimization (Bridgewater, G. 2016).

2.4.1 Corporal punishment and juvenile offending

Corporal punishment refers to the intentional use of physical force to cause pain or discomfort as a means of punishment. However, despite 86% of respondents in a study by Kindiki (2015) being aware of the abolishment of corporal punishment, it is still practiced

due to poor policy implementation by state agencies, affecting both stakeholders and students.

Every year on April 30th, the international community observes the day to end corporal punishment for children. Shockingly, 64 countries, mostly developing nations, still advocate for corporal punishment. In a systematic review conducted by Heekes, Kruger, Lester, and Ward (2022) on corporal punishment in schools, it was revealed that although South Africa banned it in 1996, a national study conducted in 2012 showed that 49.8% of children still experienced physical punishment. The review also highlighted that within the past week, 50% of children experienced corporal punishment, with an overall lifetime prevalence of 80% (Portela & Pells, 2015).

Corporal punishment is especially prevalent in the early grades of elementary education, with a higher rate reported at the age of 15 in Peru, Ethiopia, India, and Vietnam. These findings align with (Heekes et al. 2022), who observed a high prevalence of corporal punishment in developing countries.

Extensive research consistently demonstrates the detrimental effects of corporal punishment on children's well-being and its association with increased likelihood of engaging in childhood offending (Durrant, 2019; Gershoff et al., 2019; Lansford et al., 2020). Numerous studies have shown a correlation between corporal punishment and aggression, antisocial behavior, and offending among children. International bodies, including the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, advocate for the abolition of corporal punishment to ensure the global protection and well-being of children.

In their study, Khanal and Park (2016) found that teachers in Kenya have developed a habit of using corporal punishment despite its ban. Their thematic findings indicate that teachers

commonly slap or hit students as a form of discipline. However, students often feel helpless as they cannot report these incidents to the administration, as principals often support the teachers' actions.

Corporal punishment remains a significant issue in African countries, particularly within institutional settings. Studies conducted within the African context highlight the prevalence of corporal punishment in schools and its potential influence on childhood offending (Ajala, 2020; Ogunsola et al., 2019; Otieno & Nambiro, 2020).

Although corporal punishment is often considered an accepted disciplinary practice deeply rooted in cultural beliefs and practices, research suggests that it can have adverse consequences by perpetuating a cycle of violence and contributing to children's engagement in aggressive and delinquent behaviors. Efforts are underway in African countries to promote alternative discipline strategies and advocate for the elimination of corporal punishment in institutional settings (Ogando & Pells, 2015).

Although corporal punishment is banned in Kenya, some schools and institutions still practice it, with teachers being strong proponents of its use in Eldoret (Matofari, 2021). Surprisingly, the key supporters of these banned policies are the policy implementers themselves. The aftermath of corporal punishment poses challenges to emotional and social development, as well as the integration of children into society (Finkelhor et al., 2019). Children may isolate themselves, feel neglected, experience distress, and develop skepticism towards education. Despite its illegality, corporal punishment remains prevalent in third-world countries. However, a contrasting study by Le and Nguyen (2019) suggests that corporal punishment does not lead to delinquent behavior, as children become more disciplined and fearful of punishment.

Corporal punishment is a controversial issue globally, particularly in developing countries. While efforts have been made to ban corporal punishment and promote alternative discipline strategies, poor policy implementation and cultural beliefs continue to perpetuate its use. Extensive research demonstrates the detrimental effects of corporal punishment on children's well-being and its association with aggressive and delinquent behaviors. The international community, including organizations like the United Nations, advocates for the elimination of corporal punishment to safeguard the rights and well-being of children worldwide.

2.4.2 Bullying victimization and juvenile offending

Bullying victimization is a pervasive issue that affects many children and adolescents worldwide. Research indicates that bullying victimization is associated with numerous adverse outcomes such as mental disorders, physical health issues, and academic difficulties both in adolescence and adulthood. In addition to these negative consequences, bullying victimization has also been linked to an increased risk of juvenile offending (Al-Azzam et al., 2020).

Victims of bullying are more likely to exhibit externalizing behaviors such as hyperactivity, offending, and substance use. They may engage in these behaviors as a coping mechanism to deal with the stress and trauma associated with being victimized. Furthermore, bullying victimization can result in poor academic performance, school avoidance, and increased school dropout, which may lead to disengagement from mainstream activities and increased involvement in delinquent behavior (Esteban et al., 2020).

Bullies often exhibit externalizing behaviors such as aggressive conduct, rule-breaking, and involvement in criminal activities. Their bullying behavior may translate into a more

generalized pattern of aggression and rule-breaking, leading to engagement in delinquent activities. Moreover, studies suggest that victims of bullying may become bullies themselves. That is, being a victim of bullying may increase the likelihood that an individual will develop aggressive tendencies and engage in similar behavior towards others. It is crucial to identify and address bullying victimization early on in childhood and adolescence to prevent further negative outcomes, including juvenile offending (Emmanuel & Tahan, 2019).

The negative consequences of bullying victimization are well-documented, including mental and physical health issues, poor academic performance, and school dropout. Further literature suggests that bullying victimization is significantly associated with juvenile offending, as victims may display externalizing behaviors and disengage from mainstream activities leading to involvement in delinquent behavior (Fiddiana & Priyambodo, 2022).

Moreover, bullies themselves are also at a higher risk of engaging in juvenile offending due to their generalized pattern of aggressive behavior. Therefore, it is crucial to develop effective intervention and prevention strategies that address bullying victimization in schools. Bullying incidents often go unreported, persisting for extended periods and causing adverse effects on the physical, psychological, and emotional well-being of the child. It is worth noting that bullying occurs across all levels within an institution, but it tends to peak during the middle school and adolescent years when children strive to establish their social status among peers (Graham, 2016).

Bullying victimization among children in schools is a pervasive issue with severe consequences for both individual well-being and societal development. Bullying takes different forms, including verbal, physical, relational, and cyberbullying. Verbal bullying

encompasses insults, name-calling, and derogatory remarks, which can harm victims emotionally. Physical bullying involves direct physical aggression, such as hitting, pushing, or stealing personal belongings, resulting in bodily harm. Relational bullying entails social exclusion, spreading rumors, and damaging relationships to marginalize the victim. Cyberbullying, an increasingly prevalent form, involves using electronic devices to harass, intimidate, or spread harmful content through social media platforms or messaging applications.

Bullying victimization has severe consequences for the well-being and development of children. Victims often experience emotional distress, including anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, and loneliness. Academic performance may suffer due to difficulties concentrating, absenteeism, and decreased motivation to learn. Moreover, victims of bullying are at a heightened risk of developing long-term psychological and physical health problems, such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), sleep disturbances, and psychosomatic complaints (Baglivio, e. tal, 2020).

Research conducted globally indicates that bullying victimization is a pervasive issue affecting children worldwide. For instance, a study by Modecki, Minchin, Harbaugh, Guerra, and Runions (2018) found that approximately 30% of children worldwide experience bullying victimization. Another study by UNESCO (2020) highlighted the global burden of bullying and emphasized the need for collaborative efforts to address this issue.

In Africa, bullying victimization has gained attention as a significant concern within school settings. A study conducted by Craig and Harel-Fisch (2021) in multiple African countries, including Kenya, revealed high prevalence rates of bullying victimization. The study reported that over 40% of children surveyed experienced bullying, with physical and verbal

aggression being the most common forms. In Kenya, bullying victimization has been identified as a pressing issue within schools, warranting immediate attention. According to Wawire (2020), a significant number of Kenyan children experience bullying, with Western Kenya schools being particularly affected. Research by Wambugu, Muola, and Makori (2021) identified factors such as poor disciplinary measures, inadequate teacher-student ratios, and socio-economic disparities as contributors to the high incidence of bullying in Western Kenya schools. Bullying victimization in Western Kenya schools has far-reaching consequences for children. A study by Ongong'a, Okwara, and Ang'awa (2019) found that victims experienced emotional distress, poor academic performance, and physical injuries. Additionally, bullying victims in Western Kenya schools were prone to social withdrawal, which further exacerbates feelings of isolation and low self-esteem.

Bullying victimization has been linked to subsequent offending behaviors in children. A study by Ttofi, Farrington, Lösel, and Loeber (2016) found a significant association between bullying victimization and later engagement in criminal activities. Victimized children may resort to offending to seek power, revenge, or attention, perpetuating a cycle of aggression and victimization.

Bullying remains a prevalent issue in schools and other institutional settings worldwide. Extensive research consistently demonstrates the detrimental effects of bullying on children's well-being and its potential association with childhood offending (Arseneault, 2018; Kwan et al., 2020; Olweus, 2019). The consequences of bullying can be far-reaching, including increased aggression, antisocial behavior, and involvement in offending. Moreover, bullying negatively impacts children's academic performance, mental health, and overall development.

In line with these findings, Graham (2016) acknowledges that victims of bullying often experience internalized feelings of sadness and worthlessness. Some victims may turn their aggression outward and retaliate against their perpetrators through physical violence. Additionally, Cho, Peguero, and Misuraca (2019) conducted a study in South Korea with a sample of 490 adolescents, revealing that delinquent behaviors such as defiance and property destruction were significantly mediated by aggression. Their research also suggests that bullying increases delinquent behaviors, mediated by high alcohol and tobacco consumption, as well as poor academic performance.

Another study by Attar-Schwartz and Khoury-Kassabri (2015) surveyed 1,324 Jewish and Arabic adolescents aged between 11-19 years and found that 73% reported experiencing verbal victimization at least once a month. Furthermore, 62% of the participants indicated indirect victimization, such as social exclusion. The research concluded that young adolescents with adjustment difficulties experienced high levels of physical maltreatment. Research conducted within the African context also highlights the prevalence of bullying and its impact on childhood offending (Dawit et al., 2021; Kaggwa et al., 2019; Mwale et al., 2020). Unfortunately, bullying victimization is a prevalent issue in many African countries across various institutions such as schools and orphanages. The consequences of bullying victimization in African countries may exacerbate due to prevalent factors such as limited access to mental health care, poverty, and societal attitudes towards mental health (Esteban et al., 2020). Research has shown that bullying victimization in African schools is associated with various negative outcomes, including decreased academic performance, increased likelihood of homelessness and addiction, and involvement in criminal activities such as theft and drug abuse (Aparisi et al., 2021). In addition, institutional bullying in

African orphanages has been found to have severe long-term consequences for the mental health and well-being of children. Institutions must take swift action to address the issue of bullying victimization and foster safe and supportive environments for children. Bullying in Ghana, for instance, has been identified as a significant problem, especially in boarding schools (Duah, 2023).

Bullying behaviors in African schools often stem from cultural norms, power imbalances, and social hierarchies. Victims of bullying may face emotional distress, physical harm, and social isolation, increasing their likelihood of engaging in delinquent behaviors.

In Kisumu East Sub-County, Kenya, Aloo (2017) conducted a study involving 352 students, which revealed a bullying prevalence rate of 75.6%. The research further showed that bullying in schools led to delinquent acts such as truancy, dropout, and poor academic performance, consistent with the findings of Glassner (2020) in a longitudinal study that established a link between bullying victimization and increased negative emotions, substance abuse, and engagement in offending.

In Ghana, a study by Duah (2021) with a response rate of 74% demonstrated that bullying predicted juvenile offending in a sample of 3,632 participants. Physical and verbal bullying were strongly associated with drug abuse, such as cigarette smoking and alcohol consumption, as the delinquent individuals sought to prove their toughness. Bullying diminishes an individual's sense of self and fosters anger and resentment towards the perpetrators, often leading to coping mechanisms like drug abuse (Hynd, 2018).

The adverse effects of bullying extend to psychological consequences, with children experiencing depression, suicidal ideation, drug use, and engagement in offending behavior (DeCamp and Newby, 2015). The research further suggests that bullying victimization is

linked to diminished social bonds. Consequently, victims may feel they have nothing to lose, leading them to engage in delinquent activities.

Victims of bullying often withdraw from normal activities within institutions, resulting in lower school performance. This, in turn, has a ripple effect on the victim's life and may drive them towards deviant behaviors as a coping mechanism. Similarly, being a victim of bullying can impact an individual's trajectory towards engaging in delinquent acts. Bully victims, particularly during adolescence, are more likely to engage in both serious and non-serious delinquent behaviors, such as bringing weapons to school, property theft, disorderly conduct, truancy, and stealing (Han, 2022).

In Kenya, research highlights the prevalence of bullying and its influence on childhood offending (Gona et al., 2020; Kandie et al., 2019; Waithaka et al., 2021). Bullying behaviors in Kenyan schools can result in physical harm, emotional distress, and academic difficulties for victims. Children who experience bullying may resort to aggressive behaviors or engage in delinquent activities as a means of self-defense or retaliation.

It is important to note that bullying victimization is often neglected as a criminogenic factor and is instead viewed as a primary effect of crime or abuse. However, using Propensity Score Matching (PSM) to study the link between bullying and offending, DeCamp (2015) found that bullying victims are at a higher risk of various negative outcomes, including crime, deviance, substance use, and official school sanctions. Additionally, Kavwei & Cheseto (2021) conducted a study in Machakos, Kenya, revealing that children who engage in bullying are prone to fighting, drug and substance abuse, and absenteeism in school.

Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between bullying victimization and childhood victimization, yet variations in findings exist. These differences can be attributed

to various factors, such as sample characteristics, measurement methods, and cultural contexts. For instance, a study by Johnson et al. (2021) found a significant positive association between bullying victimization and childhood victimization in a sample of urban adolescents in the United States. In contrast, a study by Lee and Shin (2020) conducted in South Korea reported no significant relationship between these variables. These disparities highlight the importance of considering cultural and contextual factors that may influence the relationship between bullying victimization and childhood victimization.

Additionally, differences in measurement methods contribute to the variations observed in study findings. Some studies utilize self-report measures to assess bullying victimization and childhood victimization, while others rely on teacher or parent reports. The choice of measurement method can influence the reported prevalence rates and the perceived severity of victimization experiences. Therefore, researchers should strive for consistency in measurement approaches to facilitate meaningful comparisons across studies.

Despite the differences, several similarities emerge across different studies exploring the relationship between bullying victimization and childhood victimization. First, a consistent finding is the positive association between bullying victimization and subsequent childhood victimization. For example, Smith et al. (2019) conducted a longitudinal study and found that children who experienced bullying victimization were more likely to become victims of subsequent victimization.

Furthermore, studies consistently indicate that certain factors mediate or moderate the relationship between bullying victimization and childhood victimization. For instance, family support and peer relationships have been identified as protective factors that can mitigate the negative impact of bullying victimization on subsequent victimization

experiences (Brown, Johnson, & Smith, 2021; Garcia, Romera, Ortega-Ruiz, & Del Re, 2020). Understanding these mediating and moderating factors is crucial for developing targeted interventions to prevent and address childhood victimization.

Bullying victimization is a pervasive issue with serious consequences for children's well-being and its potential link to juvenile offending. Its prevalence and detrimental effects necessitate a concerted effort from educators, policymakers, and communities to create safe and nurturing environments. As society grapples with these issues, it becomes imperative to consider comprehensive interventions that foster empathy, resilience, and a sense of belonging among children and adolescents.

2.5 Theoretical framework

The study adopted general strain theory to explain the link between childhood victimization to juvenile offending.

2.5.1 General strain theory

This theory was posited by Robert Agnew in 1992, based on three factors; failure to achieve a goal, the existence of harmful impulses, and the removal of positive impulses. General Strain Theory (GST) stems from the original Strain theory which was overly criticized for being too simplistic with a narrow focus on the range of possible strains. GST further springs from the works of Robert Merton who developed classic strain theory that posits crime as an emergent of social class difference. It emphasizes on the utilitarian, and goal-oriented nature of deviant adaptations. GST was developed as a part of a response to criticisms leveled against classical and strain theory (Agnew and Brezina, 2012).

GST focuses on the negative treatment by others and highlights on the negative role of emotions in the etiology of offending. GST purposes that individuals experience strain or stress which result to negative emotions such as depression, anger, despair, and frustrations. These negative emotions create pressures for reparatory reaction, with crime, and offending being a possible outcome (Agnew, 2015). Negative emotions in this research are emergent of victimization and abuse from basic interactions with members of the society.

Strains or stressors increase the likelihood of negative anger emotions like anger and frustrations. These emotions create pressure for corrective actions, and lower inhibitions and offending is one of the possible responses. Stressors and traumatic experiences such as victimization are from multiple domains such as family, neighborhoods and institutions. Offending is viewed as a form of reducing strain and seeking revenge. Exposure to a domain source of stressors has an independent unique correlation to the form juvenile offending. Family forms of victimization such as harsh discipline, poor supervision, parental neglect, parental conflict, and family criminality (Cudmore, Cuevas & Sabina 2017), predict juvenile offending. As the number of stressors increases, this could include the loss of a parent and the withdrawal of parental love (Badasa, Gameda, Gaduda, and Wondimu, 2019), so does the likelihood of engagement in offending for instance children running away from their homes, truancy in school, alcoholism and theft. GST posits that institutional victimization, such as bullying, abuse, or mistreatment by staff or peers, can create strain and negative emotions that increase the likelihood of juvenile offending. For example, experiencing bullying in school may lead to anger, frustration, and a desire for retaliation, which can result in delinquent behavior (Agnew, 2019). Studies have shown a positive association

between institutional victimization and subsequent offending among juveniles (Piquero, 2019), indicating the relevance of GST in explaining this phenomenon

GST is based on goal blockage (Agnew, 2014), as the first form of strain, which includes the inability of individuals to achieve their goals. It encompasses all forms of goals that an individual may have such as respect from others, wealth or masculine status. The second form of strain elicited from GST is the presentation of negatively valued stimuli. Individuals who experience negative forms of experiences such as victimization, or negative treatment by others. It elicits undesirable experiences and psychological torment. Institutional forms of victimization (Oh & Connolly, 2019) such as bullying and corporal punishment elicits different forms of strains such as anger, high levels of personal injury and contribute to retaliation as a coping mechanism. These is espoused through theft, vandalism, physical fights as a means to justify the desire for revenge (Teijón-Alcalá & Birkbeck, 2019). The third form of strain explained in GST is the loss of positively valued stimuli. GST proposes that living in a high-crime neighborhood can generate strain through the fear of victimization, limited opportunities, and the presence of deviant peers (Agnew, 2019). This strain can lead to negative emotions and a sense of injustice, which may prompt some juveniles to engage in delinquent acts as a way to cope or seek revenge. Research by Mazerolle, Burton, and Cullen (2019) found that neighborhood victimization significantly predicted juvenile offending, supporting the applicability of GST in understanding this relationship.

Some strains may be stronger than others and the influence to criminality or offending relative. High magnitude strains which are of high importance to the individual will increase the influence to offending. Individuals feel bad and have the urge to do something about it.

Crime results as a way of escaping the strain or reducing the effects of the strain (Agnew, 2014). GST suggests that experiencing violence, abuse, or neglect within the family can create strain that may lead to juvenile offending. According to Agnew (2019), strained relationships with family members can result in negative emotions, such as anger, frustration, and depression, which may motivate individuals to engage in delinquent behavior as a coping mechanism. Children who experience victimization within their families may feel a lack of social support, which can exacerbate strain and increase the likelihood of engaging in offending (Agnew, 2019). Children victimized by their fellow peers have high anger issues attributed to physical violence as a form of reaction against their bullies. The higher the magnitude of the strain the lower the perception of the cost of committing a crime. Strains that have a high negative impact on one's life result in a high degree of negative reaction. Victims for instance, feel like there is nothing much left to lose when they commit the crime. Children who engage in drug abuse may perceive the notion that since their parents have neglected them nothing worse can happen. Strain offers different types of responses such as immediate, short-term responses and long-term.

Further, strain results in the disposition of crime, anger might lead to the desire for revenge (Lauger, Densley, and Moule, 2020). Strains offer conformity to social learning of crime. Children who are exposed to neighborhood forms of victimization such as community violence often adapt and learn that crime as a desirable, justifiable, or excusable act. They adjust from the legal coping mechanism and embrace criminality. Individuals who cannot acquire certain status through legal means cope with adjustments and join gangs to feel respected or gain the material wealth that they desire (Krohn, Marvin, Hendrix, Nicole, Penly, Gina, Lizotte, Alan, 2019).

Social control is highly reduced by strain (Krohn et. al, 2019), individuals lack the direct control power and the legal coping capability entangled with the belief that crime is wrong. Disciplining of children harshly by parents or peer victimization results to temporary or chronic strain that reduces social control.

The perception of strain is relative across different individuals, some view it as unjust when it is perceived a willing and intentional violation. Victims lack choice during victimization, and the perpetrators of this strain lack an explanation to as why. This includes bullying by peers in school, which is deemed to the victim as undeserved. Victimization of this kind may result in forethought revenge on the perpetrators of the strain (Müller, 2018).

Park and Metcalfe, (2020) relates bullying victimization as a strain to offending. He clearly notes that, victims experience negative stimuli from victimization, that increase negative affective behavior of an individual resulting to offending as a coping mechanism especially among juveniles. The study adopted GST to explain how victimized children face strains after abuse and how they adopt to delinquent acts as a coping mechanism or as means to escape realities.

General strain theory provides a valuable theoretical framework for understanding the influences of childhood victimization on juvenile offending. By examining the strain created by family victimization, neighborhood victimization, and institutional victimization, GST helps elucidate the pathways through which these experiences can lead to delinquent behavior. This theoretical perspective offers insights into the role of strain, negative emotions, and coping mechanisms in the link between victimization and juvenile offending, thereby contributing to a comprehensive understanding of this complex relationship.

2.5.2 Traumatization Theory

Traumatization theory, as explored in literature and historical contexts, delves into the psychological and emotional responses of individuals who have endured overwhelming and often catastrophic events, leaving lasting impacts. It underscores how trauma is evidenced through symptoms such as flashbacks, nightmares, and difficulties in social adjustment, effectively creating an "impossible history" for survivors, (Wattenberg, Gross & Unger, 2021). Trauma is portrayed as a profound wound that affects individuals across psychic, emotional, physical, and spiritual dimensions, resulting in an ongoing struggle between denial and the imperative to articulate the inexpressible. In literary analysis, trauma theory is applied to examine characters' post-war experiences, illustrating how trauma influences their behaviors and relationships, (Serafini, Aguglia, Amerio, Canepa, Adavastro, Conigliaro & Amore, 2023).

Developmental trauma, arising from experiences of abuse or neglect during early life, profoundly disrupts various aspects of social cognition, physiological regulation, and the formation of parent-child attachments. This formative trauma can have enduring consequences, influencing critical developmental periods and shaping diagnostic and therapeutic approaches for affected individuals across their lifespan. Research underscores that trauma, particularly when experienced during sensitive developmental stages, can significantly impact neurological, psychological, and social development. Such disruptions can manifest in diverse ways, including impaired emotional regulation, difficulties in forming healthy relationships, and disruptions in cognitive processing (Tomoda, Nishitani, Takiguchi, Fujisawa, Sugiyama, & Teicher, 2024)

Moreover, trauma theory serves as a crucial framework for comprehending the multifaceted effects of early-life trauma on children's mental health and overall well-being. It emphasizes the necessity of integrating trauma-informed practices into child welfare systems to ensure the provision of appropriate interventions that promote safety, stability, and psychological healing. Literature in this area extensively explores the intricate dynamics of developmental trauma, shedding light on its profound and enduring impacts on individuals' lives. Through narrative accounts, case studies, and empirical research, scholars delve into the complexities of trauma's effects on children's development, elucidating the interplay between biological, psychological, and environmental factors.

According to the theory, children who experience abuse, neglect, or witness violence are at risk of developing post-traumatic stress and other trauma-related symptoms such as emotional dysregulation, negative self-perception, and difficulty with interpersonal relationships (Kerig, & Mendez, 2022). These trauma impacts can manifest in externalizing behaviors like aggression, offending, and substance abuse as maladaptive attempts to cope. The traumatization theory suggests that the more chronic, severe, and multi-type the childhood victimization experiences, the more likely trauma symptoms will develop and persist into adolescence (Hodges et al., 2013). Polyvictimization in childhood has been linked to higher rates of arrests, substance use, and violent delinquent behaviors in adolescence (Ford et al., 2013).

Disruptions in neurobiological development due to toxic stress from childhood trauma may partly explain the propensity for aggressive and antisocial behaviour seen in traumatized youth (Moreno-Manrique et al., 2022). Trauma can impair the development of emotional regulation abilities and increase emotional reactivity, hostility, and difficulties with social

information processing (Ford, 2015). However, the cycle of violence and offending is not inevitable or automatic for victimized children. The traumatization perspective highlights how protective factors like positive relationships, community support, and trauma-focused therapies can buffer the effects of adverse experiences and build resilience (Kerig, & Mendez, 2022). Interventions aimed at regulating emotions, reframing maladaptive beliefs, and improving coping skills may prevent the perpetuation of violence.

Traumatization theory offers a robust theoretical framework for comprehending the effect of childhood victimization trauma experiences on juvenile offending. By exploring the various forms of victimization experienced within familial, neighborhood and institutional contexts, this theory provides valuable insights into the mechanisms through which such experienced trauma can precipitate delinquent behavior. Traumatization theory underscores the profound influence of adverse childhood victimization experiences on the development of maladaptive coping strategies and emotional dysregulation, which in turn contribute to the manifestation of offending. By integrating trauma theory into our understanding of juvenile offending, we gain a deeper appreciation of the nuanced interplay between traumatic experiences, psychological distress, strain and offending behavior.

2.6 Conceptual Framework Model

Independent variable: Childhood victimization

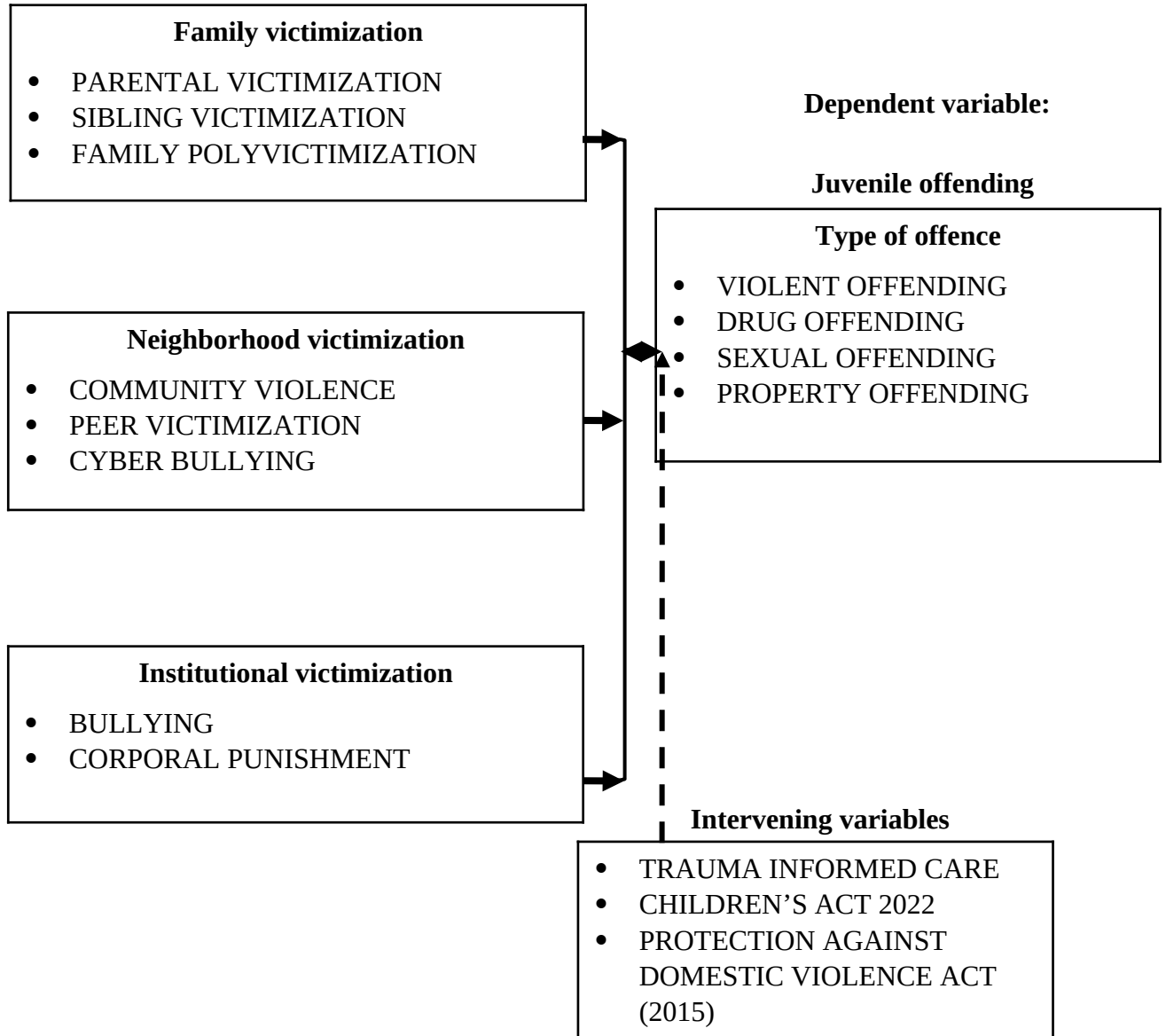


Figure 2. 1 Conceptual Framework (Researcher, 2022).

The study aimed to examine the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending sentenced in juvenile penal institutions in Kakamega County, Kenya. Childhood victimization served as the independent variable, which was operationalized through family victimization, neighborhood victimization, and institutional victimization. To measure each objective, indicators such as parental victimization, sibling victimization, child polyvictimization, community victimization, peer victimization, cyberbullying, corporal punishment, and bullying were utilized.

The dependent variable was operationalized using the form of offense convicted, which is classified as either violent or non-violent. Additionally, the study incorporates intervening variables, including the child protection act and trauma-informed care, to examine their role in mitigating the impact of childhood victimization on juvenile offending. Overall, the conceptual framework provided a comprehensive approach to understanding the relationship between childhood victimization and juvenile offending and highlights the importance of addressing intervening variables to prevent such outcomes. The study's methodology included the use of indicators and operationalization of variables to ensure a rigorous and systematic approach to data collection and analysis.

2.7 Chapter Summary

The literature review chapter examines existing research on the impact of childhood victimization on juvenile offending, beginning with an overview of the significance of studying this link. It explores family victimization, highlighting how dynamics such as abuse and neglect contribute to offending behaviors. The chapter then addresses neighborhood victimization, focusing on peer victimization, community violence, and cyberbullying, and their effects on juvenile offending. Institutional victimization is also

discussed, specifically the roles of corporal punishment and bullying within institutions, and their detrimental effect on youth. Supported by general strain theory and traumatization, a conceptual model illustrates the interplay between family, neighborhood, and institutional victimization and juvenile offending. Overall, the chapter establishes the theoretical and empirical foundation for analyzing how victimization experiences contribute to juvenile offending.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter comprises a comprehensive account of the methodologies and procedures employed to facilitate the study's execution. The chapter expounds on the study's research design, target population, sample size, and sampling techniques. Additionally, the data collection instruments, data collection procedures, pilot study, reliability, and validity, data processing analysis, and ethical considerations are delineated in detail. Through a systematic and rigorous application of these methodologies and procedures, the study aims to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings and uphold ethical standards in the research process.

3.2 Research design

According to Pandey and Pandey (2021), a research design is a comprehensive framework that outlines the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing data to achieve the necessary information. It is a blueprint that structures and strategizes investigations to provide answers to specific research questions. The research design facilitates the seamless scaling of various research operations and enables the collection of relevant data using appropriate techniques.

For this study, a cross sectional research design was adopted, as it is suitable for investigating human behavior and conditions. Cross sectional research aims to identify the relationship between two variables and the extent to which a change in one lead to a change

in the other (Seeram, 2019). The researcher was interested in identifying recurring statistical patterns connecting the variables, rather than the cause-and-effect relationship. The research design sought to explain the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, rather than causality where positive, negative or zero correlation can be achieved between variables. It is a relatively inexpensive way to test independent variables that cannot be manipulated for ethical reasons (Connelly, 2016). To ensure a comprehensive understanding of the research problem, the research design adopted a parallel mixed method approach (Jafari, 2023). This approach utilized both qualitative and quantitative data, enabling the researcher to gather data that complements the shortcomings of each approach.

3.3 Study area

The study was conducted in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, situated in Kenya. As the fourth most populous county in the country, with an estimated population of 1,867,579 individuals, it is preceded only by Nairobi, Kiambu, and Nakuru counties (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2019). Kakamega County encompasses 12 Sub Counties, namely, Lugari, Likuyani, Malava, Lurambi, Navakholo, Mumias East, Mumias West Matungu, Butere, Khwisero, Shinyalu, and Ikolomani.

The county is primarily inhabited by the Luhya community, and its rural and urban structures are well-established. The primary economic activity in the region is farming, which plays a significant role in shaping the social and cultural fabric of the county. The county's unique demographic and socioeconomic characteristics make it an ideal location for conducting research on the intersection of childhood victimization and juvenile offending.

The study was conducted in Kakamega County, primarily due to the presence of a main juvenile penal institution, namely Shikusa Borstal Institution. This strategic selection of location afforded the researcher the opportunity to access a diverse pool of potential respondents as counties surrounding Kakamega County, have male juvenile offenders from different courts within the country committed to serve at Shikusa Borstal Institution.

Consequently, the researcher anticipated that the study would gather culturally rich and varied data and empirical experiences from the respondents, providing valuable insights into the complex interplay between childhood victimization and juvenile offending in the Kenyan context.

3.4 Target population

In the study, the target population was defined as a group of individuals or set of units who shared similar characteristics and from which findings were generalized (Pandey, et al., 2021). The target population was drawn from the actors involved in the reformation of juvenile offenders. The target population comprised 412, which included juvenile offenders aged 13-17 years old. The study also involved key informants such as the 1 Head of Institution, 15 Wardens, 10 Children's Officer, 18 Teachers, Matrons, and 10 Probation officers. The target population was highly heterogeneous, with diverse culture, religion, and ethnic practices, hence highly reliable for empirical experiences and qualitative data.

3.5 Sampling procedure and sample size

A sample is a smaller representation or fractional part of a whole. The process of selecting and estimating a sample from a population is defined as sampling. Pandey, et. al, (2021). Data obtained from the sample was inferenced to the population as its characteristics. The

merit of sampling for this study was to enumerate more accurate data and make the research economical (Etikan & Bala,2017). Juvenile penal institutions within Kakamega County were sampled purposively as they hold the target population suitable for the study.

The research study sampled respondents from a target population of 356 juveniles. To obtain the sample of the juvenile the researcher utilized the Taro Yamane formula to get a precise sample size of 198 juvenile offenders from Shikusa Borstal Institution.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+(Ne^2)}$$

N= Target population

E = is the significance level, 0.05

$$n = \frac{356}{1+ (320*(0.05)^2)}$$

n= 198

In the study, both probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling techniques were utilized to select the respondents. Simple random sampling was employed to select the juvenile offenders who were included in the study. Furthermore, purposive sampling was used to select 30% of the total key informants from each category which includes the head of the institutions, teachers, matrons, and probation officers who handle juvenile delinquents in the penal institutions.

The selection of 10% to 30% of the key informants was deemed a fair and equitable representation of the total sample size (Rai & Thapa, 2015). The key informants were

chosen based on their interaction with the juveniles, and those with high engagement rates were given first priority. The homogeneity of the key informants was also considered during the selection process.

The sampling respondent is outlined in the table below;

Table 3. 1 Sampling Respondents

Respondents	Target population	Sample Determinant	Sample size	Sampling techniques
Juvenile delinquents	356	Taro Formula	198	Simple random
Officer in-charge	1	100%	1	Purposive sampling
Wardens	15	30%	5	Purposive sampling
Probation officers	10	50%	5	Purposive sampling
Children's Officer	10	50%	5	Purposive sampling
Matrons	12	30%	5	Purposive Sampling
Teachers	18	30%	5	Purposive Sampling
Total	422		224	

3.6 Data collection methods

The study employed a mixed-methods approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques (Almalki, 2016). This approach enabled the study to capture a more holistic view of the research problem by drawing on both numerical data and rich,

descriptive insights. The primary data collection instruments used were questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires facilitated the gathering of quantifiable data, allowing for statistical analysis, while interviews provided in-depth qualitative insights into the personal and group experiences of informants. By integrating these methods, the study was able to balance the strengths and limitations of each, achieving a comprehensive understanding of the impact of childhood victimization on juvenile offending. Further, secondary data was collected to provide background and context for the study. This included reviewing relevant literature, official records, and institutional reports on childhood victimization and juvenile offending. Secondary data sources helped to validate and enrich the findings from primary data, offering additional insights and supporting evidence for the analysis.

3.7 Data collection instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaire

In the study, primary data was collected using a structured questionnaire which was designed to gather information from juvenile delinquents in each institution based on the specific research objectives. The questionnaire employed both closed and open-ended questions to limit respondents to the relevant information required while allowing them to express their opinions in the open-ended sections.

3.7.2 Interview guide

The study adopted the use of interview guide as a data collection instrument from the key informants; head of the institutions, wardens, teachers, matrons, children's officers and probation officers. The research adopted both structured, and semi-structured interview

questions. This ensured that data collected is relevant to the research, and the respondents had the free will to give their perspectives about the subject in question (Olson, 2016).

The researcher developed an interview guide entailing short, open-ended questions to enable flexibility from the respondents. The interviewer ensured less dominance to allow the interviewee to air their views. A good rapport was created to reduce tension and ensure rich quotable data is collected for the research. To facilitate objective rich collection of data the researcher carefully listened, recorded while taking note of the key details raised by respondents during the interviews.

3.7 Data collection procedure

Primary data was collected through the use of questionnaires and interviews. This elicits both qualitative and quantitative data. Questionnaires were administered by the researcher to the respondents. Interviews were scheduled through appointments with the key informants such as; head of juvenile penal institutions, teachers, matrons, probation officers and wardens. The researcher recorded and took notes of the interview as a form of data collection. Secondary data was be obtained through a literature review of books journals, and other publications.

3.8 Pilot test

Hazzi and Maldaon, (2015) posits that a pilot study is the cornerstone of a good research, as it creates a clear road map to be followed in the actual research. Pilot study addresses (Viechtbauer, Smits, Kotz, Budé, Spigt, Serroyen and Crutzen, 2015) missing data issues, theory to practice translation, normality, and reliability of study, which can be addressed prior the data collection of the research. A pilot study was important in improving the

efficiency of the main study, while testing the validity, and reliability of the data collection instruments. Furthermore, it helped to redefine scales of measurement improving words, statements, and increasing the feasibility of the intended approach of research (Doody and Doody, 2015).

Hazzi and Maldaon, (2015) notes that, a 10% equivalent of the actual sample size is reasonable to carry out a pilot study, therefore a total of 22 respondents. This involved 19 juvenile offenders and 3 key informants for the interview. A pilot study was conducted at Shimo La Tewa Borstal Institution, Mombasa, as it houses similar juvenile offenders as those in juvenile penal institutions in Kakamega County. The pilot study enabled the study to single out and amend the items in the data collection instruments that were difficult, ambiguous, and unclear ensuring that only information that was relevant and consistent was generated. The data generated from the pilot study allowed for a dry run of the descriptive and qualitative analytical procedures that helped the researcher to determine whether the tools would generate appropriate data for the actual study. The pilot study further helped the researcher to determine the average amount of time that would be required in the administration of the data collection tools during the actual data collection and facilitated proper planning.

3.8.1 Reliability of research instruments

Reliability is concerned with the lack of differences, and the ability to obtain similar results when repeated tests are done (Noble, Scheinost, and Constable, 2021). The study adopted the Cronbach's alpha test, a measure of internal consistency was used to assess the reliability of the test instruments, as it is most efficient, and reliable in social sciences (Bonett, and Wright, 2015). The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was used to ascertain how well the items

measured a particular behavior or characteristics of the variables within the tests that were used (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004). According to Sekaran (2016) and Kothari (2014) Cronbach's alpha has the most utility for multi-item scales at the interval and ratio levels of measurement and provides a unique, quantitative estimate of the internal consistency of a scale. Cronbach's Alpha is a coefficient of reliability (or consistency) and can be expressed as a function of the number of test items and the average inter-correlation among the item, (Bujang, 2018).

The obtained reliability coefficient for this study was 0.791 which was greater than the 0.70 thresholds used in behavioral research. To enhance the reliability of findings from the interview guides, data from interviews was transcribed by two different people after the pilot study, and the results were duly compared. Findings revealed that the interview schedule was reliable in collecting data for this study.

3.8.2 Validity of research instruments

The validity of research instruments is aimed at what the instruments measure, and how accurate it does so within the intended area of research. There are different forms of validity, content validity, construct validity, and face validity.

Content validity attempts to establish whether the items in an instrument fit the content of the population through which the instrument were be inferenced (Vakili and Jahangiri, 2018). The researcher ensured an elaborate literature review on the objectives, indicators are done, and articulated in the data collection instruments. The research was reviewed by experts in the field of criminology and my supervisors to ensure that the necessary content is captured for measurement in the research instruments.

Construct validity seeks to a causal or transformative aspect of a concept, operationalization (Chapelle and Lee, 2021). Considering discriminant convergent validity, the researcher ensured that the key variables are objectively operationalized to measure the outcome intended for the research. Face validity was strengthened through the subjection of the data collection instruments to research experts in the field of criminology, and supervisors to eliminate any forms of ambiguity, increase reason clarity, and relevance of the research instruments.

3.9 Data analysis and presentation

According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2016) data analysis refers to the application of reasoning to understand the data that has been gathered to determine consistent patterns and summarize the relevant details revealed in the investigation. To determine the patterns revealed in the data collected regarding the selected variables, data analysis was guided by the aims and objectives of the study. Study data from the field was sorted and edited to ensure completeness and consistency, classified, and coded according to research objectives for analysis.

The study generated two types of data: quantitative data from the closed-ended items of the questionnaires and qualitative data from the open-ended items of the questionnaire and interview schedules. For qualitative data the researcher familiarized with the data, coding significant phrases, and grouping them into broader themes that capture the experiences of victimization among juvenile offenders. Themes were then reviewed, refined, and clearly defined, ensuring they accurately reflect the participants' experiences and align with the study's objectives. Further, data was then presented through verbatim means in the research.

Quantitative data from the closed-ended items in the questionnaires were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics with the help of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 29.0 for windows. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to determine the degree of centrality and variation of participants' opinions on rating scales and were presented in the form of tables, graphs, and charts.

Inferential statistics such as linear regression and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were used to determine associations, relationships, and influences between and among variables. Multiple regression analysis was carried out for each specific objective to determine the effect of the independent variable to the dependent variable. Multinomial regression was further analysed to determine the change in the dependent variable. For intersectionality and the overall effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable an overall regression of coefficients was conducted.

All quantitative measures were undertaken at 95% confidence interval. The study used a recommendation by Sekaran and Bougie (2013) when analyzing qualitative data since they proposed as follows, “it involves transcribing the recorded data and editing to remove ambiguities, then organizing the data into themes to form the coding categories. Thereafter, the sorted data are analyzed by identifying excerpts that either supported or challenged the interpretation that the researcher made”. The analyzed data was presented in the form of texts and this was done concurrently and alongside the quantitative data in line with the themes of the study.

3.10 Ethical considerations

The ethical considerations of the research were paramount in ensuring the dignity, rights, and welfare of the participants were upheld. The researcher took appropriate measures to obtain ethical clearance from relevant authorities such as Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, National Research Institute, and The Prisons Administration. Before data collection commenced, informed consent was sought from all participants.

The purpose of the study was clearly explained to the participants, and they were given the opportunity to ask questions and clarify any issues before signing the letter of informed consent. The confidentiality and anonymity of participants were upheld to ensure that data input was free from fear or coercion. Only the researcher had access to the raw data.

Furthermore, the researcher accorded respect to the right to privacy of the participants. The collected data was used for research purposes only and was not disclosed to any unauthorized party. The researcher did not intimidate or coerce any participant, and any participant had the right to withdraw from the research process at any time without any consequences.

It is important to acknowledge that some participants may have experienced trauma when recounting their experiences. As such, the researcher ensured that the data collection process was conducted in a sensitive manner that minimized any potential harm to the participants. The researcher showed empathy and compassion and provided counseling services to any participant who required such services. By upholding these ethical considerations, the researcher could confidently collect valuable data that contributed to knowledge and improved the lives of the participants.

3.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlines the study's methodologies, including the correlational research design and mixed-methods approach used to gather qualitative and quantitative data. Conducted at Shikusa Borstal Institution, the study targeted juvenile offenders and key informants, utilizing both probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling. Data collection involved structured questionnaires and interviews, with a pilot study conducted to ensure reliability and validity. Data processing combined quantitative and qualitative analyses, while ethical practices—such as informed consent and confidentiality—were upheld to protect participant rights and well-being.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The chapter contains findings, their interpretation and discussions in relation to the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution in Kakamega County, Kenya. The study was guided by three specific objectives which were to; investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending, examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending and to establish the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending. In addition to the major findings of the study, the study's response rate and results from pre-analysis data testing are also presented. It was necessary that data is tested so that the characteristics of data are identified to inform the selection of statistical tools to be used.

4.2 Response Rate

The study targeted 412 respondents 356 being juveniles, 1 officer in charge of penal institutions, 12 wardens, 15 probation officers, 10 Childrens' officers, 12 matrons and 18 teachers. From the targeted sample, a total of 224 respondents being 198 juveniles, 1 officer in charge of penal institution, 5 wardens, 5 probation officers, 5 Children's officers 5 matrons and 5 teachers participated in the study as respondents. All questionnaires to the juveniles were completed successfully. Out of 26 interviews 13 were conducted successfully. This gave the study a response rate of 94.20%. According to Lund (2023), when conducting a study, collecting data from 70% or more of the target sample is adequate

for purposes of generalization of findings from the sample to the population from which such sample was drawn. This clearly shows that the sample for this study was adequate.

4.2.1 Pre-Analysis Data testing

The study employed the Kayser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy to assess the adequacy of the study sample. As per Vogt's (2005) recommendation, a KMO value ranging from 0.8 to 1 is considered acceptable, whereas a value less than 0.6 signifies inadequacy of the sample, thereby warranting remedial measures. The obtained KMO value in this study was 0.862, thereby indicating that the data collected for this study was sufficient for the intended analysis.

Table 4.1: Test of sampling adequacy

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.853	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	22941.508
	Df	1519
	Sig.	.000

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Due to the nature of this study where the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Kakamega County was investigated, assumed univariate and multivariate normality were analysed. Typically, there are two ways of analyzing normality. First, graphical tests plot data of empirical observations and their distribution in comparison with a theoretical distribution to identify mismatches is done. Secondly, numerical tests can be used to derive the skewness and kurtosis statistics. Although graphical tests are more

intuitive and potentially easier to interpret and apply, numerical tests are more objective Ghoojani, (2016) and therefore numerical method was used. Univariate normality was analyzed by merging responses from the study respondents using Shapiro-Wilk D statistic on the total factor scores as distributed across the items (table 4.2). The statistical procedure determined the extent to which the distribution deviated from the normal distribution. Findings are presented in table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: Shapiro Wilk Test for Normality in data distribution

Variables	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Family Victimization	.825	45	.0142
Neighborhood Victimization	.831	45	.0098
Institutional Victimization	.817	45	.0075

- a. Test statistic is normal
 - b. Test statistic is uniform
- N =198 listwise

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Normality test findings in table 4.2 show significant results, indicating that the quantitative data for this study was normally distributed. This is evident in all the three coefficients relating to the three independent variables being above 0.5 with p- values less than 0.05 across all the three independent variables. Such normal distribution made it safe to use statistical procedures that assume normality in data distribution such as Chi-Square and

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. According to Ghoojani (2016), when interested in measuring changes in one variable as caused by changes in another variable, the available data must pass the tests of normality and uniformity. Such normal dilution made it possible to use predictive analytics that rely on normality in data distribution such as regression analysis.

4.3. Demographic Information

In this section data is presented on respondents' age, level of education, gender, whether they had experienced victimization, their feeling after victimization, their family composition, offence committed, duration of stay in a penal institution, whether they have been abused in custody and type of victimization faced.

To the question as to the age of respondents, findings are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4. 3: Age of respondents

Age Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
15 – 16 years	20	10.11
17 – 18 years	97	48.99
18 years and above	81	40.90
Total	198	100.0

Source: Research data, 2023.

From the results in table 4.3, nearly half of the sample 48.99% (97) of the respondents were between 17 and 18 years, 40.90% (81) of the respondents were aged 18 and above years, 10.11% (20) of the respondents were between 15 and 16 years of age. This shows that

majority of the respondents were aged between 17 and 18 years, and 18 years and above. The Borstal Act establishes that offenders committed to Borstal institutions as from the age of 15 years. Early childhood development plays a crucial role in shaping an individual's future behavior and outcomes, including the potential for involvement in juvenile offending. These are the ages when most children hit the peak of adolescence and want to experiment with different ideas some of which result into committing offences. This finding is in line with studies conducted by Kitteringham and Fennelly (2020), who notes that it is also during this age that most adolescents resort to peer alignments that could introduce them to pro-criminal attitudes and behaviour.

Respondents were asked to state their level of education and findings presented in figure 4.1.

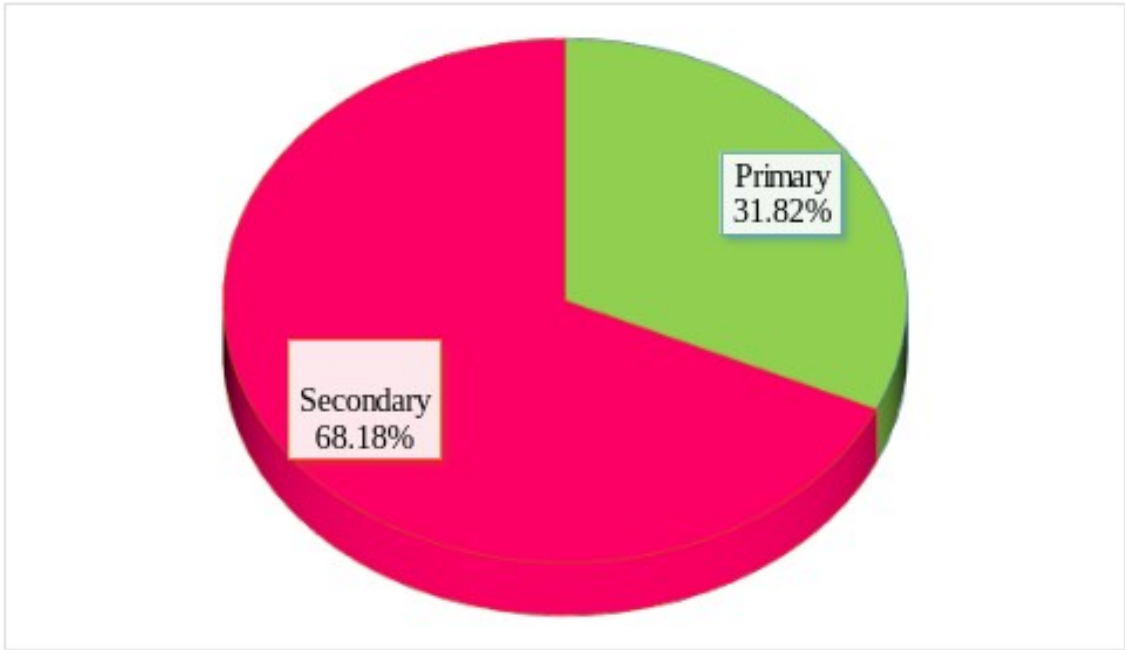


Figure 4. 1 Education level of the respondents

From the results in figure 4.1, more than half of the sample 68.18% (135) were pursuing secondary school education while 31.82% (63) were at Primary school level. This reveals

that majority of the respondents were at secondary school level of education at the time of the study. Lower educational attainment has been associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in criminal behavior. Limited access to quality education can result in diminished life prospects, contributing to feelings of frustration, low self-esteem, and a sense of alienation. These factors can increase the risk of involvement in criminal activities as a means of economic survival or a response to a lack of legitimate opportunities. Peer relationships and influence can have a significant impact on adolescent behavior. In certain communities or neighborhoods with gang activities, secondary school students may face pressure to join youth gangs or engage in delinquent behavior to gain acceptance or protection. Similar studies for example Chan, (2019) ascertain that juvenile within low levels of study such as secondary school, have a high susceptibility to peer influence a high-risk factor to violent offending.

All the 198 juvenile respondents (100%) were male. This was the case because Kakamega County does not have a female penal institution for offenders under the age of 18 years. This also confirms the position that there are more male juvenile offenders than there are female juvenile offenders as depicted by the Kenya Child Protection Data, (2024) where there are 3,372 girls in custody compared to 6,619 boys in custody across the country. This explains why Kenya has two male Borstal institutions (Shikusa and Shimo La Tewa) and only one female Borstal institution (Kamae). Traditional gender norms often influence behavior in Kenya. Boys may be socialized to display aggression or assert dominance, which can lead to engagement in violent offenses. Teenagers raised in environments that emphasize physical prowess and dominance may feel pressure to prove their masculinity by engaging in confrontational behavior. This could lead to his involvement in physical altercations, making

them more vulnerable to becoming a victim of violence. If they are victimized, the perception and the need to retaliate to regain respect and restore their self-esteem is eminent. This cycle of victimization and offending can reinforce a negative trajectory, increasing their chances of criminal involvement. The trend of there being more male juvenile offenders than female offenders has endured globally and has been alluded to in studies by Mikhhalchenkova, Bolshakov, and Bolshakova (2020) and by Choi, Teshome and Smith (2021).

Respondents were asked about the composition of their families and findings presented in table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Family Composition of the respondents

Family Composition	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Single parent mother	52	26.26
Single Parent father	21	10.61
Both Parents	46	23.23
Total Orphan	61	30.81
Other	18	9.09
Total	198	100.0

From the results in table 4.4, (52) having single parent mothers and 10.61% (21) having single parent fathers, 30.81% (61) were total orphans, 23.23% (46) had both parents while 9.09% (18) were from other types of family compositions that included those that did not

know their parents and could therefore not say with certainty whether they were alive or dead and those that were born in street families. This shows that majority of the juvenile offenders were from single parent families and total orphans. Due to a lack of parental presence and guidance, children in single-parent households may be more susceptible to diverse forms of victimization experiences, potentially increasing their likelihood of engaging in offending behavior and criminal activities. With little or no social structures to shield juveniles from different forms of victimization, juveniles from these families, (single parents and orphaned children) are more likely to be victimized.

Orphaned children are often exposed to various forms of victimization. As a response to the stressors associated with such victimization, they are more likely to engage in offending behaviour. This points to lack of adequate supervision for these adolescents that exacerbates their propensity into offending as pointed out in the study by Agnew and Brezina (2012) which established that parental support, presence and moral upbringing of children offer a safe space for growth and development with cases of victimization addressed that keeps adolescents out of juvenile deviant behaviour.

To the question whether respondents had experienced victimization, findings are presented in figure 4.2.

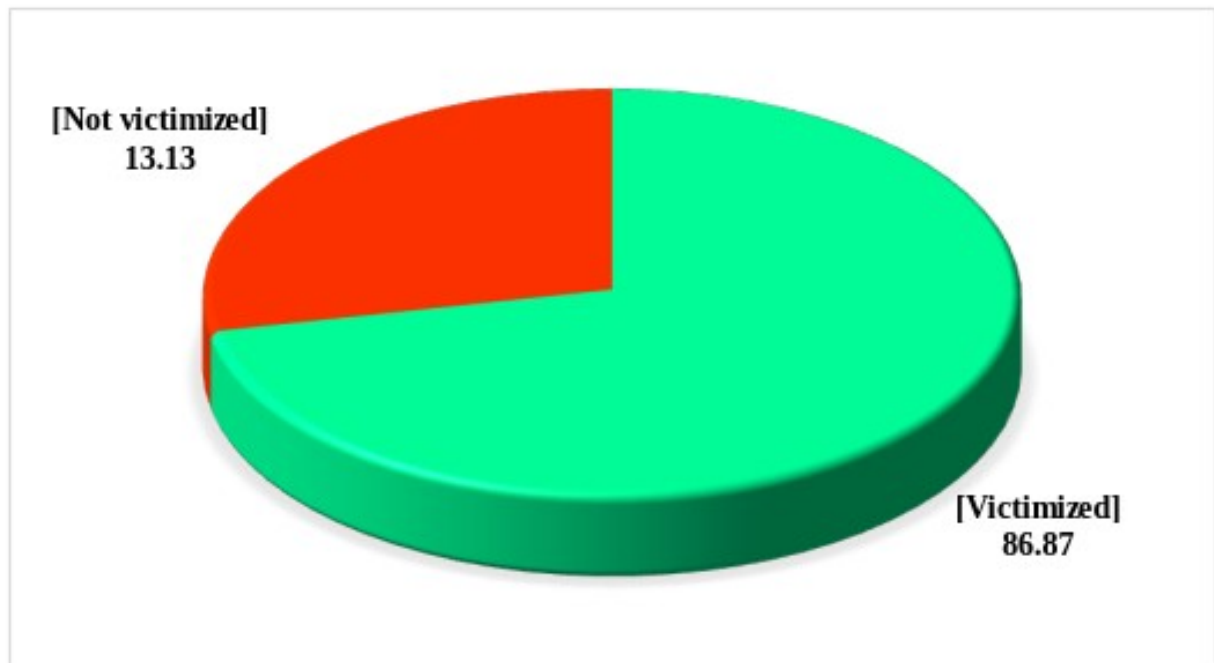


Figure 4. 2 Victimization experiences of the respondents

From the results in figure 4.2, 86.87% (172) of the respondents had experienced victimization while 13.13% (26) of the respondents indicated that they had not experienced victimization. This implies that the majority of the respondents had experienced victimization. Juveniles prior to their incarcerations may not have the secure social shields that protect them for different forms of victimization and exploitations. Studies conducted on victimization among juveniles for instance, Braga, Gonçalves, Basto-Pereira, and Maia (2017), a nexus was established between juvenile emotional and physical victimization in homes and schools and offending. Further a finding was made that adolescents who were emotionally victimized became rebellious, some ran away from home to seek shelter on the streets and ended up apprehended for juvenile offences, as a result of lack of legitimate means on livelihood on the streets. Similarly, Violence against Children Survey Report, (2019) notes that more than 56.1% of males experience childhood victimization.

Respondents were asked to state the kind of victimization that they faced and findings presented in figure 4.5

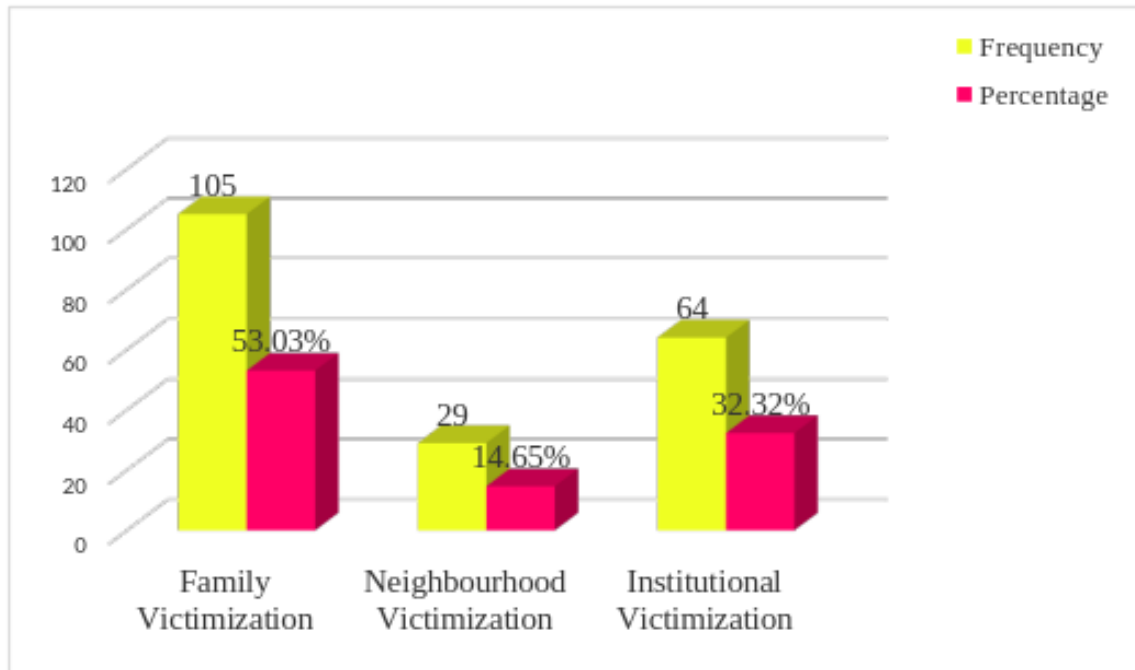


Figure 4. 3 Forms of victimization experienced by the respondents

Results in figure 4.5 reveal that 53.03% (105) of the respondents had been victims of family victimization perpetrated by parents, siblings, guardians and caregivers. It was also established based on the findings of the study that 32.32% (64) of the respondents had suffered from institutional victimization in schools and places of worship and 14.65% (29) of the respondents had been victims had been exposed to neighborhood victimization mainly perpetrated by peers and other people in the community. From the results, majority of the respondents had suffered from family victimization. The family encompasses the social structure in which juveniles spend most of their time. Family victimization further has key actors such as parents and sibling who highly associate with the juveniles. Therefore, the

rate of victimization due to simplicity of access and propensity of vulnerability increases the likelihood of childhood victimization.

A study in Korea concurs with the above finding indicating that child victimization by parents that is within the family social structure has been on the rise despite the national efforts to curb it. Lim and Lee, (2017) further in a sample of 2,351 participants, notes that parental abuse and neglect exerts levels of negative effects on adolescents' school adjustments. Children often engage in deviant acts such as aggression or physical abuse as reaction to different forms of victimization. These findings have a bearing on the fact that parental victimization can attribute to a scale of negative reactions from children.

Further Winters (2019) reports instances of sibling violence for those aged 0-9 go underreported as parents are not likely to be with all children all the time. The prevalence of sibling bullying is high 78% of the reported as being bullied by siblings, and 85% reported bullying a sibling. The predominance of sibling violence is alarming but little research has been offered concerning juvenile offending (Skinner, and Kowalski, 2013). Glatz, et.al, (2019) findings indicate that sibling physical abuse was reported at 29% with 26% girls, and 35% boys. While 15% of the participants reported victimization by both siblings, and parents. Chan, Chen, Chen and Ip, (2017), illustrate that the structure of the family which children are living in has a tremendous effect on the child victimization experiences.

The respondents who had experienced victimization were asked to state how they felt about it and findings revealed that of the 142 respondents who experienced victimization, 58.45% (83) stated that they felt bad about the victimization and that they felt rejected by the people they trusted. It was also revealed based on the study findings that 27.46% (39) developed

hatred towards the people that victimized them and 14.08% (20) developed suicide feelings and left home to go and stay in the streets. One of the Juvenile offenders had this to say;

I felt very bad that my own father beat me up just because he did not want me to be walking with my friends. He injured me and hid me in the house for two weeks without going to school just to prevent people from knowing that he had injured me. I left home the day I got the opportunity and I have never returned. I joined my friends on the streets of Nakuru town and I used to live there before I was apprehended for the offence of theft (JO 12, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023).

This finding underscores the reaction by a number of adolescents whenever they are confronted by difficult situations. Similarly, to general strain theory, where negative stressors from victimization experiences such as hatred and neglect have a positive relationship to juvenile offending. There is always a possibility of running away from home whenever adolescents are victimized and this is due the shame and pain that comes with victimization. This finding corroborates findings from a study by Elsaesser and Voisin (2015) who established that injuries and pain, both physical and emotional that encompass physical assault and victimization by parents, guardians and caregivers may result in rebellious behaviour among children and this may drive them away from home to join offending peers.

Respondent were asked to state the type of offence for which they were committed and findings presented in table 4.5.

Table 4. 5: Offences for committal by the respondents

Offence Type	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Violent offending	47	23.74
Drug and substance abuse	46	23.23
Sexual offence	43	21.72
Property offence	62	31.31

Total	198	100.0
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Results in table 4.5 show that 31.31% (62) of the respondents were convicted of property related offences, 21.72% (43) convicted for sexual offences and 23.23% (46) of the respondents were convicted for offences related to drug and substance abuse. It was also found based on the study findings that 31.31% (62) of the respondents were convicted for violent offences. Result of the study show that majority of the respondents were charged with property offences. Property offences burglary and stealing, this would suggest that most of the juvenile offenders in penal institutions in Kakamega County were convicted for stealing and related offences as they tried to make ends meet. Juveniles mostly engage in property offences as a means to access the most essential needs during development such as food and clothing. Drug related offences accounted for 23.23 % from the sample these offences are highly associated with stressors such as depression from victimization experiences.

A juvenile offender observed that;

We would go for two days without food and home, my mother who works in town failed to send money, I therefore stole a chicken from our neighbor for which I was apprehended, (JO 99, 2023)

In extreme cases a juvenile offender noted that;

I used to live with my sick grandmother all alone in the village, children from school would mock me and even our neighbors. Due to hardships, I stole a bunch of bananas and some money from the home of our neighbor, I was physically abused by the neighbors, and taken to the police, (JO 73, 2023)

This finding is supported by findings from the study by Sege, Siegel, Flaherty, Gavril and Idzerda (2018) who revealed that whenever youthful offenders run away from home into the

streets, they tend to lack provision and usually engage in stealing as a means of earning a living. This shows that the traumatic experiences that result from victimization have a degree of effect in juvenile offenders into committing offences as a survival measure while on the streets away from home.

Respondents were asked to state how long they had been committed to the penal institution and findings presented in figure 4.3.

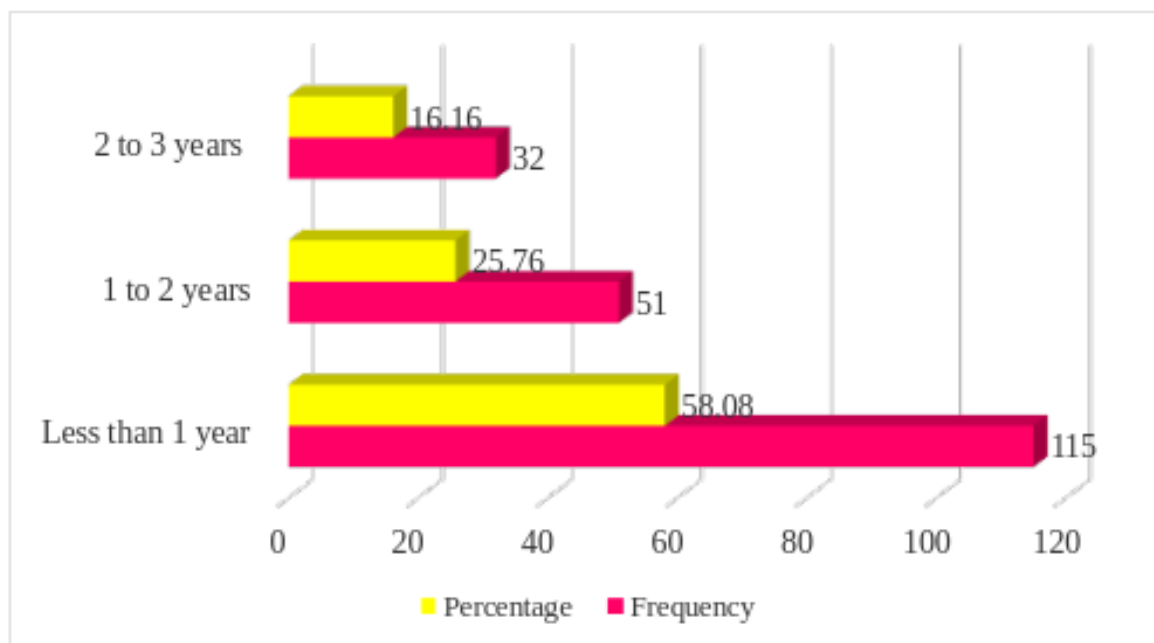


Figure 4. 4 Duration of committal of the respondents

From figure 4.3, results reveal that 58.08% (115) of the respondents had spent less than 1 year while convicted, 25.76% (51) of the respondents had spent 1 to 2 year years while serving their periods on conviction and 16.16% (32) of the respondents had spent between 2 and 3 years in conviction. This result shows that majority of the respondents had spent less than 1 year in custodial confinement. Usually, juvenile offenders are committed to penal institutions for a period of three years but can be released on license to complete the balance

of their sentence on a non-custodial programs. The release on license is done after 12 months of stay at a penal institution and requires a probation officer to prepare an environmental assessment report and a final home report to inform the release board on the suitability for the release of a particular juvenile offender (Probation & Aftercare Service Annual Magazine, 2022). The above finding shows that majority of the respondents were new convicts that had not reached the release stage. It is worth noting that the juvenile offenders who had not been released even after having stayed more than 1 year did not receive a positive environmental adjustment report from a probation officer because the conditions back home were not favorable for the release, rehabilitation, resettlement and reintegration of the juvenile offender.

4.4 Effect of family victimization on juvenile offending

The first objective of the study sought to investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County. To help in addressing this objective, the following research question was formulated;

What is the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending?

Data on family victimization and data juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis and findings presented in this section.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4. 6: Forms of Family Victimization

Form of Family Victimization	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Parental physical abuse	117	59.09
Parental verbal abuse	119	81.82
Parental sexual abuse	12	6.06
Sibling physical abuse	89	44.95

Sibling verbal abuse	101	51.01
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To this question, respondents were allowed to tick more than one option as applicable to them. Findings in table 4.6 show that 81.82% (162) of the respondents had experienced parental verbal abuse, 59.09% (117) had experienced parental physical abuse and 51.01% (101) had experienced sibling verbal abuse. Parental verbal abuse emerged as the predominant form of victimization among the respondents, affecting over 80% of them. This finding underscores the significant emotional and psychological effect that verbal abuse from key family members, such as parents and guardians, can have on adolescents.

The study also highlights the crucial role of parental victimization in predicting child victimization within the family. Negligence and improper parenting practices can lead to increased aggressiveness in children. Modernization, social media, and educational influences have made the dynamics of parenting and child-parent relationships more complex in contemporary contexts. Parental alcoholism as noted by one of the respondents emerged as a key determinant of child victimization, often leading to neglect and increased risk of physical and psychological harm. Children of alcoholics are more susceptible to experiencing physical abuse and are at a higher risk of engaging in substance abuse themselves at an early age.

Sibling victimization, while less prevalent than parental victimization, remains a significant concern. Unchecked sibling victimization can escalate into violent interactions among children, potentially leading to subsequent aggression and physical violence. Verbal abuse

by siblings often accompanies physical abuse, further exacerbating the harm experienced by the victimized child.

The findings align with existing research on family victimization and its implications for juvenile behavior. Studies by Onsando, Mwenje, & Githui (2021) emphasize the role of parenting style in child victimization, particularly in the context of parental negligence and improper parenting practices.

Concurrently (Hussain and Warr, 2019) highlights the complexities of contemporary parenting dynamics influenced by factors such as modernization, social media, and education. Jose, Justin, Cherayi, & Shanuga (2020) underscore the detrimental effects of parental alcoholism on child victimization, including increased risk of physical and psychological harm.

Rossow, Felix, Keating & McCambridge (2016) discuss the link between parental substance abuse and increased susceptibility to substance abuse among children. Caffaro (2020) emphasizes the prevalence of sibling victimization and its potential to escalate into violent behavior among children.

Respondents were asked who victimized them and findings presented in table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Perpetrators of Victimization

Perpetrator of victimization	Physical abuse	Verbal abuse	Sexual abuse
Father	70 (35.35%)	41 (20.7%)	8 (4.04)
Mother	17 (8.59%)	84 (42.42%)	4 (2.02%)
Brother	55 (27.78%)	69 (34.85%)	0 (0.00%)
Sister	34 (17.17%)	32 (16.16%)	0 (0.00%)

Step family	30 (15.15%)	37 (18.69%)	0 (0.00%)
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Results in table 4.7 show that 42.42% (84) of the respondents experienced parental verbal abuse perpetrated by their mothers, 34.85% (69) experienced verbal abuse perpetrated by their brothers, 20.7% (41) experienced verbal abuse from their fathers and 18.69% (37) experienced verbal abuse from members of their step families and 16.16% (32) of the respondents experienced verbal abuse from their sisters. With regard to physical abuse, it was revealed that 35.35% (70) of the respondents experienced physical abuse from their fathers, 27.78% (55) experienced physical abuse from their brothers, 17.17% (34) had experienced physical abuse from their sisters, 15.15% (30) of the respondents had experienced physical abuse from their step family members and 8.59% (17) reported experiencing physical abuse from their mothers. As regards sexual abuse, results show that 4.04% (8) of the respondents had experienced sexual abuse perpetrated by their mothers while 2.02% (4) had experienced sexual abuse perpetrated by their fathers.

The findings reveal a complex interplay of family victimization experiences among juveniles, characterized by the varied roles of different family members as perpetrators of abuse. Fathers and mothers, as primary caretakers within the family unit, emerged as significant perpetrators across all forms of abuse. Fathers were most commonly associated with physical abuse, while mothers were predominantly implicated in verbal abuse. Sibling relationships also played a significant role in perpetrating abuse, with both brothers and sisters contributing to physical and verbal victimization. Additionally, the involvement of stepfamily members underscores the impact of blended family dynamics on family victimization experiences.

Wolfe, (2018), notes that polyvictimization further entails domestic violence exposure physical abuse, psychological abuse, bullying, harassment, extra familial or familial sexual exposure, parental neglect, and also care giver victimization. The effects of polyvictimization are dire as it is associated with parental deviant behavior such as frequent gambling, smoking, alcohol, and substance dependence, with high reported cases of post-traumatic stress disorder, depression, and family violence, (Le, et. al., 2018). Children who experience one form of victimization are more likely to experience or will experience many others. Polyvictimized children are at an elevated risk of transitioning from victims to perpetrators of abuse in the future. (Wolfe, 2018). In a study by (Turner, Shattuck, Finkelhor and Hamby, 2016), 17.8% of the total sample size experienced polyvictimization, with youths experiencing the highest numbers of different victimizations in the past year. They further had problematic profiles such as high probabilities of engaging in delinquencies, low-level support and high trauma scores.

Respondents were asked to state how often they experienced the identified form of victimization and findings presented in table 4.8.

Table 4. 8: Frequency of Victimization

Frequency of Victimization	Once	Twice	More than twice	Total (Freq & %)
Parent physical abuse	20 (10.1%)	31 (15.6%)	36(18.2%)	87 (43.94%)
Parent verbal abuse	28 (14.1%)	47(23.7%)	50(25.3%)	125 (63.13%)
Parent sexual abuse	3(1.5%)	2(1.0%)	7(3.5%)	12 (6.06%)
Sibling physical abuse	19(9.6%)	25(12.6%)	45(22.7%)	89 (44.95%)
Sibling verbal abuse	23(11.6%)	36(18.2%)	42(21.2)	101 (51.01%)

From the results in table 4.8, it is clear that majority of the respondents who experienced parental physical abuse reported having been abused more than twice and this was seen from 18.2% (36) of the respondents. As regards parental verbal abuse, it was clear that majority of the respondents had experienced it more than twice as per 25.3% (50) of the respondents. When it comes to parental sexual abuse, the study found that majority of the respondents had experienced it more than twice as evidenced by data from 3.5% (7) of the respondents. Majority of the respondents who had experienced sibling physical abuse had been victimized more than twice as revealed by 22.7% (45) of the respondents. 51.01% (101) of the respondents who had experienced sibling verbal abuse, majority of the respondents being 21.2% (42) reported having been victimized more than twice.

The findings from the data highlight a concerning pattern of chronic victimization among respondents who experienced familial abuse, particularly from parents and siblings. The majority of individuals who reported parental physical, verbal, and sexual abuse, as well as sibling physical and verbal abuse, indicated experiencing it more than twice. This recurring victimization within the family environment carries significant implications for the development of juveniles and their propensity for engaging in offending behaviors.

The high prevalence of repeated parental abuse, whether physical, verbal, or sexual, suggests a persistent cycle of violence within the family. Juveniles who endure such chronic victimization may internalize aggressive or maladaptive coping mechanisms, increasing their susceptibility to juvenile offending. Similarly, the data reveal a concerning trend of repeated victimization among individuals who experience sibling abuse, whether physical or

verbal. Sibling aggression can exacerbate feelings of hostility, resentment, and emotional distress among juveniles, potentially leading to disruptive behavior and offending acts.

The chronic victimization experienced within familial relationships, as evidenced by the data, serves as a significant risk factor for juvenile offending. Children and adolescents who endure repeated abuse from parents or siblings are more likely to develop maladaptive coping strategies, emotional dysregulation, and aggressive tendencies, which are closely linked to involvement in delinquent behaviors. Furthermore, the normalization of violence within the family environment may desensitize juveniles to aggressive acts, making them more prone to replicating such behavior outside the home.

This study corroborates findings from the study by Bridgewater, T, (2016) who found that physical abuse has negative outcomes including substance abuse, increased likelihood of victimization and ultimately death. Physical abuse is prevalent in Kenya with children experiencing life-threatening injuries, fractures, and other fatal injuries perpetrated by their parents, with men as the highest perpetrators.

Studies have also revealed that sibling to sibling violence is highly attributed to juvenile offending (Nowakowski-Sims, 2019) with perpetrators of sibling victimization highly likely to indulge in school fights, truancy and drug and substance abuse.

Respondents were asked whether the victimization experienced affected them and findings presented in figure 4.6.

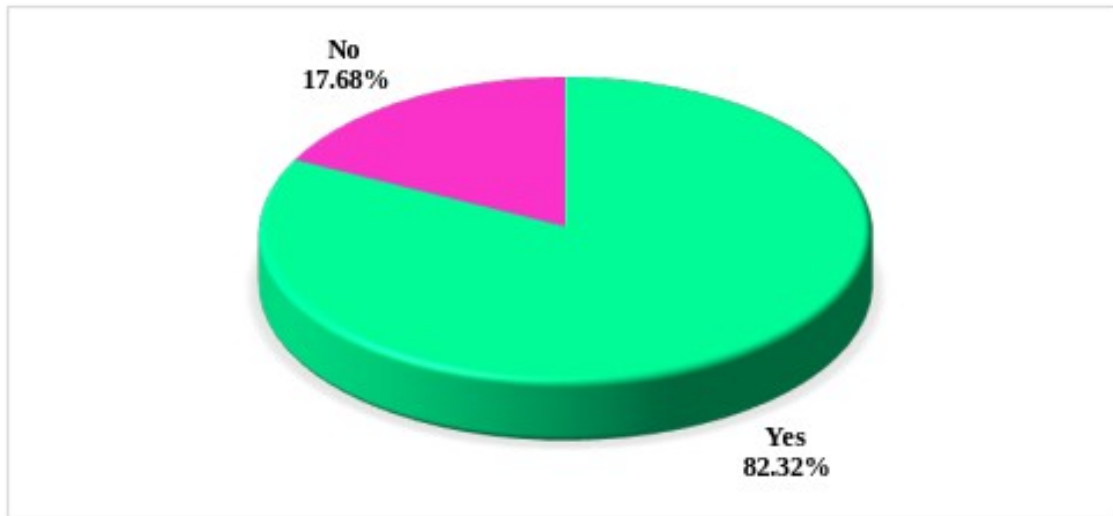


Figure 4. 5 Effect of victimization on juvenile offending

Results in figure 4.6 show that 82.32% (163) of the respondents reported being affected by the victimization that they experienced. Results also showed that 17.68% (35) of the respondents reported not having been affected by the victimization that they experienced. Respondents who indicated that they were affected by victimization stated that they experienced physical and psychological pain that made it difficult to operate normally in their homes. It is for this reason that some juvenile offenders took off from home to go and start living on the streets as street children, where they were apprehended and convicted for the offences that landed them into penal institutions. Respondents who stated that they were not affected by victimization were of the position that they had gotten used to victimization that they hardly felt any feelings arising from it.

Findings on descriptive statistics having pointed to trends in family victimization as having the ability to influence juvenile offending, it became necessary to subject the data to Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was the ideal test statistic since descriptive statistics suggested linearity in the data between family victimization and juvenile offending, there were no extreme scores (outliers) and data

revealed that family victimization and juvenile offending were related pairs. Findings are presented in Table 4.9.

4.4.2 Inferential Statistics

Table 4. 9 Pearson correlation coefficient for family victimization and juvenile offending (n=198)

		Family Victimization	Juvenile offending
Family Victimization	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N	198	
Juvenile Offending	Pearson Correlation	.618**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	198	198

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Findings in Table 4.9 for the correlation between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a statistically significant relationship (r=0.618; P<0.01). This showed that respondents who experienced family victimization were likely to engage in juvenile

offending. Findings from this study were compared with findings from previous empirical studies on the nexus between family victimization and juvenile offending. The nature of relationship between parents and the child is a key determinant whether children engage in delinquent activities.

Children who often face scolding, rejection and general parental neglect (Mwangangi, 2019) notes that they often engage in delinquent activities such truancy. Randal, (2017), in a study to examine associations between parents' relationship conflict and parent-adolescent triangulation, with a sample size of 400 participants indicate that parental conflict within the family structure influenced sibling hostility and levels. Street children are highly associated with deviant behavior such as drug abuse, theft, bullying and physical violence.

In Kenya with over 300,000 homeless children, according to the World Health Organization, 2017 many of whom are victims of parental abuse, it's plausible to draw connections between their experiences of victimization, aggressive behavior, and involvement in juvenile offending. These children, lacking proper support systems and as coping mechanisms, may turn to offending behaviors as a means of survival or as a response to their traumatic experiences.

Since Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient revealed the presence of a relationship between family victimization and juvenile offending in Kakamega County, it was necessary to establish how much variation in juvenile offending was as a result of family victimization. To this end, linear regression analysis was conducted between family victimization and juvenile offending. Linear regression was the ideal test statistic since data for this study was normally and uniformly distributed, there was uniform distribution of the error term across the independent variables (homoscedasticity) and descriptive statistics

suggested linearity in the association between family victimization and juvenile offending. Findings are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4. 10: Linear regression model for family victimization and juvenile offending (n=198)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.302 ^a	.318	.311	.42028	1.514

a. Predictors: (Constant) Family Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Research findings in Table 4.10 for linear regression between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.318. This implied that 31.8% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution was a result of family victimization.

The positive correlation suggests that higher levels of family victimization are associated with increased likelihood of juvenile offending. However, the strength of this relationship is modest, indicating that family victimization is just one of many factors influencing juvenile offending.

Physical abuse from parents is highly associated with subsequent apprehension and involvement in deviant behavior. Adolescent violent victimization is predictive of adult offending, witnessing parental violence affects future engagement in delinquent tendencies.

As noted by Manzoni *et.al* (2019), parental victimization directly or indirectly affects adolescents to offending. Children have a reduced social bond with their parents and lack the self-control hence indulge in deviant activities such as violence due to victimization from their guardians.

Since there was a positive coefficient on the linear regression, it was paramount to determine the effect of different forms of family victimization on offending, multiple regression analysis was conducted. Indicators of family victimization were parental victimization, sibling victimization and family polyvictimization. The three forms of family victimization were measured against juvenile offending to determine their individual and collective influence on offending and findings presented in table 4.11.

Table 4. 11: Multiple Regression Analysis for Family Victimization and Juvenile Offending

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T		Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.365	.327		3.193	.001		
Parental V.	.032	.0392	.372	5.522	.003	.814	1.228
Sibling V.	.025	.0128	.049	2.531	.002	.979	1.022
Polyvic.	.043	.0395	.035	6.671	.001	.950	1.053

a. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data (2023)

Findings in table 4.11 reveal a beta co-efficient of 0.401 with a t- value 5.522 which is significant as p- value is less than 0.05 with regard to Parental Victimization. Sibling victimization had a t-values of 2.531 and a corresponding p- value of 0.002. Thus, sibling victimization had a significant effect on juvenile offending. Polyvictimization had a t- value

of 6.671 and a beta coefficient of 0.43 with a p- value less than 0.05 that was significant. From the above findings, polyvictimization had the greatest influence on juvenile offending. Based on the traumatization theory, polyvictimization compounds the psychological burden on children, leading to heightened emotional dysregulation and an increased likelihood of engaging in externalizing behaviors as maladaptive coping mechanisms. Such experiences can exacerbate feelings of isolation and mistrust, further complicating a child's ability to navigate social relationships and increasing the likelihood of engaging in offending as a means of asserting control or seeking validation.

The regression model with regard to family victimization then became:

$$Y = 1.365 + 0.033PV + 0.025 SV + 0.43PV.$$

Where: Y = Juvenile Offending

PV is Parental Victimization

SV is Sibling Victimization

PV is Polyvictimization

It was necessary to investigate forms of parental victimization and their influence on different forms of juvenile offences to determine the extent of influence of each form of family victimization on the various offences. Research data was subjected to multinomial logistic regression and findings presented in table 4.12.

Table 4. 12: Multinomial logistic regression for family victimization and forms of juvenile offending

Mode	Unstandardized		Standardized		t	Sig.
	Coefficients		Coefficients			
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1 (Constant)	2.683	.385			2.255	.024
Violent Offending	.295	.051	.150		1.382	.035
Drug Offences	.321	.063	.169		1.356	.021
Sexual Offences	.309	.029	.152		1.483	.019
Property Offences	.299	.040	.192		1.398	.026

a. Predictors (Constant): Family Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

A multinomial Logistic Regression analysis was conducted using family victimization as the predictors of the direction and magnitude of juvenile offending among juvenile offenders at Shikusa Borstal institution. Study findings in table 4.12 indicated that family victimization had an influence on drug related offending (0.063), violent offending ((0.051), sexual offences (0.029) and the property offences (0.040). From the coefficients of determination, family victimization had a significant contribution to drug related offences and violent offences among juvenile offenders and a least effect on sexual offences.

The positive coefficient suggests that higher levels of family victimization are associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in drug-related offending behaviors among juvenile offenders. This indicates that juveniles who experience more victimization within their families may be at a heightened risk of involvement in drug-related activities, possibly as a coping mechanism or as a consequence of adverse family environments. This can be traced

to the traumatization theory which posits that individuals who experience adverse childhood events may turn to drugs as a form of self-medication to numb the pain of their emotional wounds. This reliance on substances not only reflects their struggle with emotional regulation but also exacerbates the cycle of offending.

Similarly, the positive coefficient for violent offending indicates that family victimization is also associated with a higher propensity for engaging in violent behaviors among juvenile offenders. This suggests that exposure to family victimization, such as physical or verbal abuse, may contribute to the development of aggressive tendencies or a normalization of violence, leading to involvement in violent offenses.

The coefficient for sexual offenses, while positive, is smaller compared to drug-related and violent offending. This suggests that while there is still a positive association between family victimization and sexual offenses, it is relatively weaker compared to the influence on other types of offending behaviors. It's important to note that sexual offenses may be influenced by various factors beyond family victimization, such as individual predispositions, peer influences, and societal norms.

The positive coefficient for property offenses indicates that family victimization also plays a role in increasing the likelihood of engaging in property-related offending behaviors. This suggests that juveniles who experience victimization within their families may resort to property crimes as a means of gaining resources, asserting control, or seeking retaliation.

Respondents were asked to state the forms of childhood victimization that juveniles suffer from within the family and findings revealed that 18 of the 21 key informants mentioned

parental physical abuse, sibling physical abuse and abuse from members of the extended family including foster parents, guardians and caregivers.

This is what a probation officer had to say about the form of family victimization experienced by juvenile offenders;

Juvenile offenders are usually normal children that go about the routine activities like any other child. Their lives usually turn for the worst when they get victimized by a person within the family that they trust and often rely upon such as being beaten by parents or older siblings for some mistakes committed at home, in school or in the community. At this point, juvenile offenders feel betrayed, abandoned, neglected and in many cases may run away from home due to the inability to cope with other extreme forms of victimization like extreme physical abuse. Such juveniles get afraid of the home environment and seek refuge among peers, some of whom end up introducing them to criminal behaviour (PO 8, Kakamega Central Probation Office, 2023).

This finding shows that violence from parents and siblings is a form of family victimization in whose extreme cases many children are not able to cope. It also emerges from this finding that family level victimization makes children feel rejected by people that they had trusted and makes some of the children to run away from home to seek shelter among friends and peers.

A teacher at Shikusa Borstal Secondary School said the following about forms of family victimization that face juvenile offenders;

Juvenile offenders that are admitted to the Borstal institutions report being propelled into offending by acts of parents, guardians, caregivers and siblings. Most of these juvenile offenders run away from home as a result of difficult living conditions since most of them are adolescents between 15 and 17 years and are at a stage in their lives where they want to experiment in many ways. Whenever they experience violence from parents and guardians as a result of mistakes that are commonly committed by children, they feel embarrassed, injured and humiliated and may end up rebelling and running away from home to go and stay in places they perceive as safe (TC 6, 2023).

This result emphasizes the treatment given to some juvenile offenders by their close family members and how it influenced offending behaviour among the convicted juveniles.

Key informants were asked to state what the effects of childhood victimization were on the juveniles and from the responses, 9 of the 11 respondents in this category indicated that childhood victimization causes rebellion, fear and negative reaction in juveniles and this makes them disregard family order and, in most cases, become rude and want to leave homes. It also emerged from the responses that juveniles who leave home usually proceed to stay with friends, some of whom are known offenders. Such an association with deviant offenders in most cases resulted in negative influence on children that leads them into committing offences.

A probation officer had this to say about the effect of childhood victimization on juveniles;

Juveniles are at a stage in life when they are learning a lot of things, all at the same time. They need all round support to enable them to adequately cope with the rapid changes that they are going through. It is unfortunate that small mistakes made by juveniles attract overreaction from family members, community members and heads of institutions where they seek educational and religious services. Juveniles are victimized through various forms of abuse that leave them devastated and with the desire to move far away from their sources of victimization being homes, schools and communities where they reside. Juveniles leave their homes without a regard of where they are going to reside. Majority of these juveniles go into petty offences to earn a living and gradually graduate into serious offenders that engage in the peddling of drugs, robberies and sexual offences which they are convicted of by the courts. (PO 1, Batali Probation Station, 2023).

This finding reveals that victimization has the net effect of causing the development of offending behavior among juveniles.

Respondents were asked to state whether type of childhood victimization had effect on the form of offense committed by juveniles and 9 of the 11 key informants were of the view that

type of victimization does not have an effect on the type of offence that juveniles committed.

A warden said the following about type of victimization and type of offence committed;

There may be no connection between type of victimization experienced by a juvenile and the type of offence committed by the juvenile. Many a times, juveniles' rebel against any form of victimization that they experience, be it from within the family, community or school. Such rebellion is in most cases followed by running away from the source of the victimization. Running away may be in the form of leaving home or leaving school. It is the difficulties experienced in life when juveniles start living on their own and the opportunities that come by that push juveniles into different offences. It is for this reason that a juvenile who lacks food may steal to get food and a juvenile who wants to forget about his problems may want to smoke marijuana and dose off. (WO 3, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023).

This finding shows that the type of victimization experiences by children are related to the type of offences that juveniles engage. This finding aligns with findings in empirical studies on type of victimization and type of offences committed by juvenile offenders.

For instance, the study of Wemmers, Cyr, Chamberland, Lessard, Collin-Vézina and Clement (2018) revealed that juveniles who experience violent form of victimization tend to commit violent offences meaning that type of victimization significantly influenced the type of offences committed by juveniles.

4.5 Effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending

The second objective of the study sought to examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. To this end, the following research question was formulated to guide the study. How does neighborhood victimization affect juvenile offending?

Data on neighborhood victimization and data on juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis and findings presented in this section.

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4. 13: Forms of neighborhood victimization experienced

Neighborhood Victimization	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Peer Physical Abuse	119	60.1
Peer Verbal Abuse	130	65.66
Peer Sexual Abuse	0	0.0
Peer Rejection	97	48.99
Community Violence	41	20.71

To this question, some respondents selected more than one form of victimization.

Findings in table 4.13 show that 65.66% (130) of the respondents experienced peer verbal abuse, 60.1% (119) of the respondents experienced peer physical abuse, 48.99% (97) of the respondents experienced peer rejection, 20.71% (41) of the respondents reported experiencing community violence and no respondent reported experiencing peer sexual abuse. This shows that peer verbal abuse and peer physical; abuse were the most prevalent forms of neighbourhood victimization experienced by juvenile offenders. The discourse of peer victimization is associated with abuse by the same age group and age set (Fogleman, Nicholas, Walerius, Danielle, Paul, Leaberry, Kirsten 2016). Neighbourhood victimization occurs within the interactions of children within the neighborhood context. Children are abused mostly within the sporting and recreational avenues by their peers and community

members. In comparing findings of this study to findings from previous studies on neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending, it emerges that peer victimization not only entails bullying but also rejection and social isolation from other members of the peer group. The concept further entails the inclusion of body shaming and stalking by peers. The range of peer victimization ranges from 22% to 65% of the sample studied in a multiple study review (Tucker, Finkelhor and Turner, 2019).

Respondents were asked to state how often they experienced the identified forms of neighbourhood victimization and findings presented in table 4.14.

Table 4. 14: Frequency of neighborhood victimization experienced

Frequency of Neighbourhood Victimization	Once	Twice	More than twice	Freq & %
Peer Physical Abuse	33(16.7%)	50(25.3%)	36(18.2%)	119 (60.1%)
Peer Verbal Abuse	28(14.1%)	43(21.7%)	59(29.8%)	130(65.7%)
Peer Sexual Abuse	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)	0(0.0%)
Peer Rejection	21(10.6%)	29(14.6%)	45(22.7%)	97(49.0%)
Community Violence	14(7.1%)	12(6.1%)	15(7.6%)	41(20.7%)

From the results in table 4.14, peer verbal abuse, peer physical abuse, peer rejection and community violence were experienced more than twice by majority of the respondents. Specifically, 29.8% (59) of the respondents experienced peer verbal abuse more than twice, 22.7% (45) of the respondents experienced peer rejection more than twice, 18.2% (36) of the respondents experienced peer physical abuse more than twice and 7.6% (15) of the respondents experienced community violence more than twice. This finding suggests that

majority of the respondents experienced high frequency of neighbourhood victimization. Exposure to frequent victimization can contribute to increased stress, trauma, and feelings of insecurity among adolescents. Similarly to Smith (2020), these negative experiences in turn, heighten the risk of engaging in delinquent behavior as a coping mechanism or as a means of seeking validation or protection within their peer groups.

Findings from this study agree with findings from previous studies on the nexus between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending. For instance, Ostrov and Jamie (2019), asserts that peer victimization has detrimental effects on victims who are neglected endure psychological torment and loneliness due to lack of social networks. A study by Ndikaru (2021) revealed that neighbourhood victimization that includes isolation may push young people into leaving the community to seek recognition elsewhere and may end up identifying with offending peers.

Respondents were asked whether neighbourhood victimization that they experienced influenced them to juvenile offending and findings presented in figure 4.7.

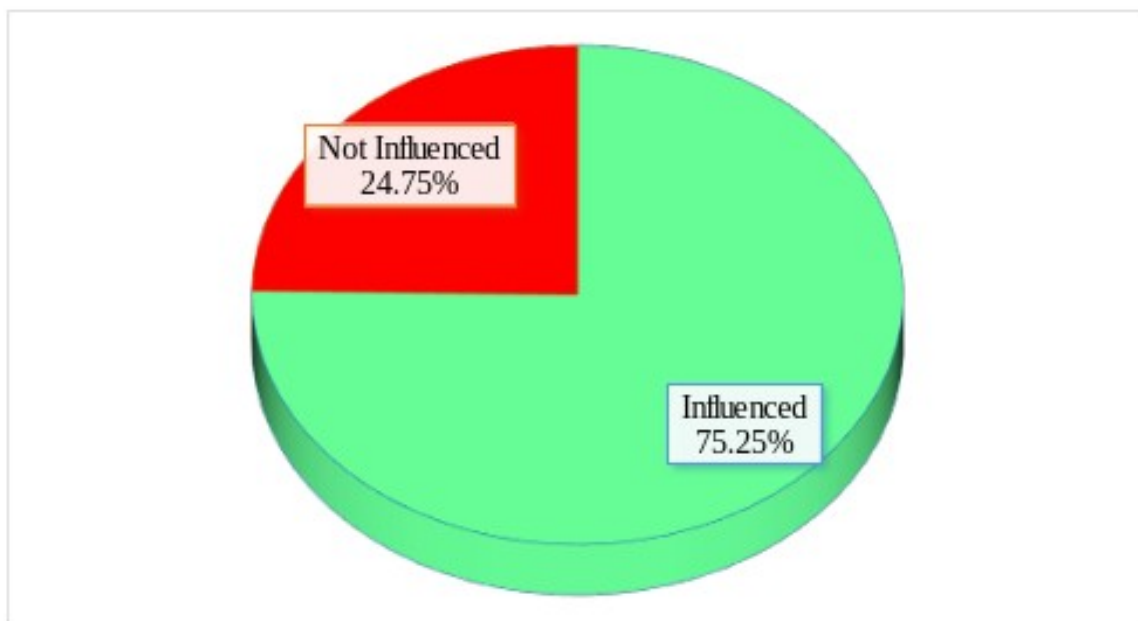


Figure 4. 6: Influence of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending.

From the results in figure 4.7, 75.25% (149) of the respondents agreed that they were affected by the neighbourhood victimization that they experienced while 24.75% (49) of the respondents indicated that they were not affected by the neighbourhood victimization that they experienced. This shows that majority of the respondents were affected by the neighbourhood victimization that they experienced.

This is what one juvenile offender who was affected by neighbourhood victimization had to say;

My friends from home used to abuse me that I was a coward and that I always behaved like a girl because I used not to smoke marijuana. Due to constant pressure and shaming, I started smoking marijuana to please them and I was later detained with the offence of being in possession of 3 rolls of marijuana and sentenced to serve 3 years at Shikusa Borstal Institution (JO 49, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023)

This shows that forms of neighbourhood victimization such as peer abuse have the potential to push adolescents into offending.

Findings on descriptive statistics having pointed to the likelihood that neighbourhood victimization had an influence on juvenile offending (majority of the respondents (75.25%) reported having been affected by neighbourhood victimization), it became necessary to subject the research data on neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending to Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to establish the presence or absence of relationship between the two variables. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was the ideal test statistic since descriptive statistics suggested linearity in the data between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending, there were no extreme scores (outliers)

and data revealed that neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending were related pairs. Findings are presented in Table 4.15

4.5.1 Inferential Statistics

Table 4. 15: Pearson correlation coefficient for neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending (n=198)

		Neighbourhood	
		Victimization	Juvenile offending
Neighbourhood	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
Victimization	N	198	
Juvenile Offending	Pearson Correlation	.523**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	198	198

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Findings in Table 4.15 for the correlation between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed that neighbourhood victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile offending ($r=0.523$; $P<0.01$). This showed that respondents who experienced neighbourhood victimization were likely to engage in juvenile offending. Findings from this study were compared with findings from previous empirical studies on the interplay between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending. Teshome and Smith, (2021), neighborhood environment is an important component of a child's development and any forms of abuse within the neighbourhood may derail the emotional, social and psychological development of a child and may lead to juvenile offending.

Since Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient revealed the presence of relationship between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, it was necessary to establish how much variation in juvenile offending was as a result of neighbourhood victimization. To this end, linear regression analysis was conducted between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending. Linear regression was the ideal test statistic since data for this study was normally and uniformly distributed, there was uniform distribution of the error term across the independent variables (homoscedasticity) and descriptive statistics suggested linearity in the association between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending. Findings are presented in Table 4.16.

Table 4. 16: Linear regression model for neighbourhood victimization and juvenile Offending (n=198)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.425 ^a	.219	.206	.47593	1.607

a. Predictors: (Constant) Neighbourhood Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Research findings in Table 4.16 for linear regression between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.219. This implied that 21.9%% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was a result of neighbourhood victimization.

The substantial portion of variance in juvenile offending attributed to neighborhood victimization underscores the significant impact of community-level risk factors on juvenile behavior and offending. Prior research suggests that exposure of children to traumatizing events causes not only physical and psychological harm but also dire outward pain of aggression towards the victim oppressors. Research on the effects of neighbourhood victimization on PTSD indicated that primary and secondary exposure to violence has a high prevalence of causing community violence among the youths (Mohammad, Shapiro, Wainwright & Carter, 2015). In other instances (Jakubovic *et al.*, 2020), neighbourhood victimization was high among children who found themselves in conflict with the law.

To determine the effect of different forms of neighbourhood victimization on offending, multiple regression analysis was conducted. Indicators of neighbourhood victimization were community victimization, peer violence and cyber bullying. The three forms of neighborhood victimization were measured against juvenile offending to determine their individual and collective influence on offending and findings presented in table 4.17

Table 4. 17: Multiple Regression Analysis for Neighbourhood Victimization and Juvenile Offending

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T		Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.578	.361		2.852	.002		
Community.	.018	.0295	.329	3.107	.001	.807	1.531
Peer.	.030	.0346	.107	2.925	.001	.886	1.432
Cyber	.013	.0483	.094	1.743	.002	.913	1.396

a. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data (2023)

Findings in table 4.17 reveal a beta co-efficient of 0.295 with a t- value 2.852 which is significant as p- value is less than 0.05 with regard to community victimization. Peer violence had a t-values of 3.107 and a corresponding p- value of 0.001. Thus, peer violence had a significant effect on juvenile offending. Cyber bullying on the other hand had a t-value of 1.743 and a beta coefficient of 0.013 with a p-value less than 0.05 that was significant. From the above findings, peer violence as a form of neighbourhood victimization had the greatest influence on juvenile offending.

The regression model with regard to family victimization then became:

$$Y = 1.578 + 0.018 CV + 0.030 PV + 0.013CB.$$

Where: Y = Juvenile Offending

CV is Community Violence

PV is Peer Violence

CB is Cyber Bullying

The study went further to interrogate the forms of neighbourhood victimization and their influence on different forms of juvenile offences to determine the extent of influence of each form of neighbourhood victimization on the various offences. Research data was subjected to multinomial logistic regression and findings presented in table 4.18.

Table 4. 18: Multinomial logistic regression for neighborhood victimization and forms of juvenile offending

Mode	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.303	.414		3.119	.018
Violent Offending	.385	.059	.225	1.423	.012
Drug Offences	.391	.043	.197	1.396	.015
Sexual Offences	.337	.047	.164	1.373	.028
Property Offences	.329	.031	.176	1.365	.024

a. Predictors (Constant): Neighbourhood Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

A multinomial Logistic Regression analysis was conducted using neighbourhood victimization as the predictors of the direction and magnitude of juvenile offending among juvenile offenders at Shikusa Borstal Institution. Study findings in table 4.18 indicated that neighbourhood victimization had an influence on violent offending (0.059), drug related offending (0.043) sexual offences (0.047) and property offences (0.031).

The coefficients of determination suggest that neighborhood victimization has a significant contribution to violent offenses, drug offenses, and sexual offenses, more so than it does to property-related offenses among juvenile offenders at Shikusa Borstal Institution. This implies that the experiences of neighborhood victimization play a more prominent role in predicting and explaining violent, drug-related, and sexual offenses compared to property offenses among the juvenile offenders in Shikusa Borstal Institution.

Interviews were conducted with 11 key informants on the effect of neighbourhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Respondents were asked to state the forms of childhood victimization that juveniles suffer within their neighborhood and results from 6 of the 11 respondents indicated that peer bullying, physical abuse from local administration officials were the most prevalent forms of neighbourhood victimizations experienced by juveniles. It was mentioned that local administration officials regard youths who move in groups in the evening and at night to be offenders in some cases apprehended them, label them as criminals and also assault them as a form discipline.

This is what a matron had to say about forms of neighbourhood victimization experienced by juveniles;

Juveniles that I have interacted with were victims of neighbourhood victimization in the form of peer bullying, harassment by neighbors and confrontation by officials working in local administration, mostly, chiefs, assistant chiefs and Nyumba Kumi officials. These youths were branded as offenders just because they were sometimes seen with people of deviant behaviour. Some ended being labelled as criminals and sometimes harassed in the community. Such harassment made some of these juveniles to actualize the label and ended up offending. (MT 2, 2023).

This finding emphasizes the role of peers and community opinion leaders in neighbourhood victimization of juvenile offenders. This finding also alludes to the relationship between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending.

A Children's Officer had this to say about neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending;

Neighbourhood victimization is a form of victimization that is endured by a number of juveniles while they are still in the community. Juveniles are bullied by neighbors and peers and in some cases suffer in silence. Some juveniles endure shaming by people in the community and this affects

their moral and psychological development. Such developmental challenges deny juveniles the opportunity to develop good morals, respect for authority and prosocial values and this is why they end up being in conflict with the law (CO 3, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023).

This shows that neighbourhood victimization is a real cause of offending among juvenile offenders.

4.6 Effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending.

The third objective was to establish the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. In relation to this objective, the following research question was formulated;

What is the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending?

Data on institutional victimization and data juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis and findings presented in this section.

4.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

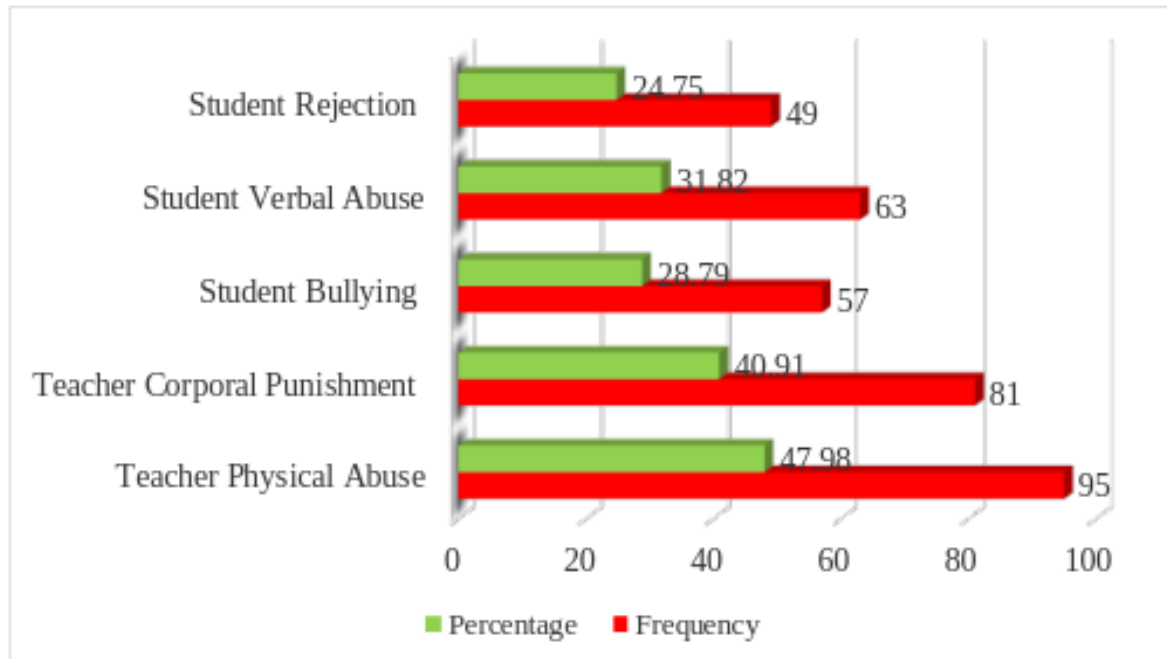


Figure 4. 7: Forms of institutional victimization experienced

Findings in figure 4.8 show that 47.98% (95) of the respondents experienced teacher physical abuse, 40.91% (81) of the respondents experienced teacher corporal punishment and 31.82% (63) of the respondents experienced student verbal abuse. It was also established based on the findings of the study that 28.79% (57) of the respondents experienced student bullying and 24.75% (49) experienced student rejection.

The findings indicate that teacher physical abuse and teacher corporal punishment were the most prevalent forms of institutional victimization experienced by the respondents at Shikusa Borstal Institution in Kakamega County. Nearly half of the respondents reported experiencing teacher physical abuse, followed closely by teacher corporal punishment. This highlights the significant issue of abuse perpetrated by teachers within the institution. Additionally, while student verbal abuse, bullying, and rejection were also reported, they were relatively less frequent compared to teacher-inflicted victimization.

Considering this finding in relation to existing empirical literature on institutional victimization, Khanal and Park, (2016), reports that teachers have habituated, and adopted corporal punishment despite its ban. Thematic findings indicate that teachers cane students at the back and out mostly slap as a form of disciplining the children. Students report corporal punishment from teachers, and suffer in silence where they are not able to report. One of the juvenile respondents reported that;

I remember one time when I forgot my textbook at home, the teacher found out and he caned me at the back in front of the whole class. It was embarrassing and painful. Sometimes they don't just cane, they slap too, especially if they think you're not paying attention. We feel scared to report because we're afraid of more punishment or not being believed. So, we just suffer quietly. (JO 100, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023).

Teacher physical and verbal abuse, together with bullying from students may push the victims out of school since they will associate school with hostility and negative emotions and end up in offending (Khanal & Park, 2016). In as much as corporal punishment is banned in Kenya, some institutions, schools mostly still practice it, teachers highly support the use of it despite knowledge of its ban in Kenya (Matofari, 2021). Respondents were asked to state how often they experienced the different forms of institutional victimization and findings presented in table 4.19

Table 4. 19: Frequency of institutional victimization experienced

Frequency	of	Once	Twice	More than	Freq & %
Neighbourhood				Twice	
Victimization					
Teacher Physical Abuse		17(8.6%)	25(12.6%)	53(26.8%)	95(48.0%)
Teacher	Corporal	14(7.1%)	29(14.6%)	38(19.2%)	81(40.9%)
Punishment					
Student bullying		11(5.6%)	21(10.6%)	25(12.6%)	57(28.8%)
Student Verbal Abuse		15(7.6%)	19(9.6%)	29(14.6%)	63(31.2%)
Student Rejection		9(4.5%)	18(9.1%)	22(11.1%)	49(24.78%)

From the results in table 4.19, teacher physical abuse was the most frequent form of institutional victimization with 48.0% (95) of the respondents reporting it followed by teacher corporal punishment that was reported by 40.9% (81) as being the second most frequent form of institutional abuse. The two forms of institutional abuse reported above were reported by majority of the respondents as having been perpetrated more than twice. It was also established that student verbal abuse, student bullying and student rejection were also reported by respondents as being institutional forms of victimization that had been experienced more than twice. This shows that the frequency of teacher physical abuse and teacher corporal punishment were alarming as forms of institutional victimization. The aftermath of corporal punishment is associated with a challenge in emotional, social development, and association of children in the society (Finkelhor, Turner, Wormuth,

Vanderminden & Hamby, 2019). Children isolate themselves and feel neglected with high distress, and skeptical on the need of education. Despite its illegality, physical violence is still used as a form of disciplining children in schools in third world countries. Contrary to findings of this study, Le and Nguyen (2019) found in their study that corporal punishment and child physical abuse by teachers do not lead to delinquent behavior since children in such cases grow up more disciplined due to fear of punishment. Bullying is experienced across all levels within an institution; however, it appears to peak during the middle school years and to the adolescent stages as children seek to maintain the status among peer (Graham, 2016) and bullying isolates the victims and leave them with negative feelings towards the school environment and some may end up dropping out of school to seek solace in street families and offending because dropping out of school is not tolerated by most families. Respondents were asked whether institutional victimization that they experienced influenced juvenile offending and findings presented in figure 4.9.

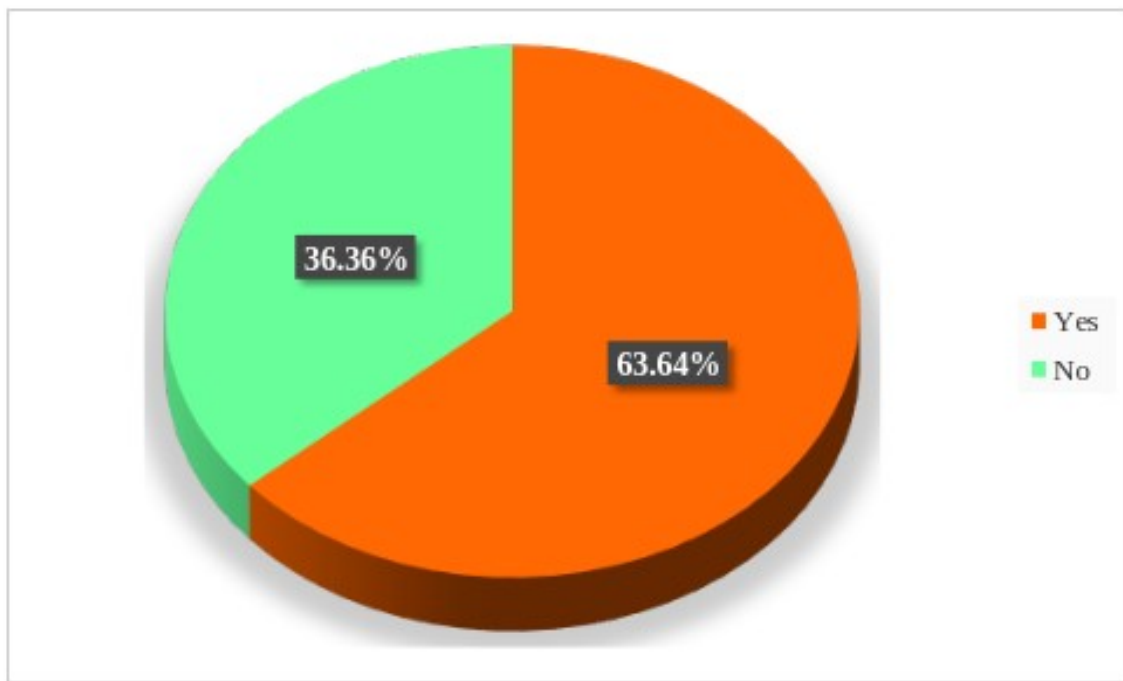


Figure 4. 8: Whether Institutional Victimization influenced juvenile offending.

From the results in figure 4.9, 63.64% (126) of the respondents were affected by institutional victimization while 36.36% (72) reported that they were not affected by institutional victimization. This finding shows that majority of the respondents of the study were affected by institutional victimization.

In relation to previous studies on institutional victimization and juvenile offending, looking at bullying, it entails repeated harmful acts, and imbalance of power. As noted by Glassner (2020) bullying victimization involves physical, verbal or psychological intimidation against a victim who cannot properly defend themselves due to lack of resilience. The definition of bullying is further extended to the form of acts involved such as rumor-spreading, name-calling isolation destruction of other people's property and theft as (Sampson, 2016) posits.

Physical abuse by teachers in schools has a major negative effect on learners and there are many reported cases of children who avoid attending school regularly due to physical abuse by teachers and older students. Such children may end up engaging with negative peers and join offending as an alternative.

Respondents who were affected by institutional violence were asked to explain their predicament and this is what one juvenile offender said;

Teachers at our school used to subject us to corporal punishment regularly and they were merciless. In some cases, they could cane us in turns at the staff room for even the slightest mistake in school like coming late. Many of my friends and I stopped going to school since we were suffering in silence. We started hawking and when business became difficult due to low sales, we resorted to violent offending in the streets of Eldoret (JO 102, Shikusa Borstal Institution, 2023).

This finding emphasizes the need for strict enforcement of government policies since such forms of institutional victimization as physical abuse and corporal punishment by teachers have been banned in schools and yet they are still being practiced. As noted by Finkelhor, Turner, Wormuth, Vanderminden and Hamby (2019), the aftermath of corporal punishment is associated with a challenge in emotional, social development, and association of children within the society as a result of cruelty towards children, they feel isolated and neglected with high distress, and skeptical on the value of education since they associate learning with pain. As highlighted in the traumatization theory

Findings on descriptive statistics in Figure 4.8 pointed to the likelihood that institutional victimization influenced juvenile offending (majority of the respondents (63.64%) reported having been affected by institutional victimization), it became necessary to subject the research data on institutional victimization and juvenile offending to Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to establish the presence or absence of relationship between the two variables. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was the ideal test statistic since descriptive statistics in Table 4.2 suggested linearity in the data between institutional victimization and juvenile offending, there were no extreme scores (outliers) and data revealed that institutional victimization and juvenile offending were related pairs. Findings are presented in Table 4.20.

4.6.2 Inferential Statistics

Table 4. 20: Pearson correlation coefficient for institutional victimization and Juvenile Offending (n=198)

		Institutional Victimization	Juvenile offending
Institutional Victimization	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N	198	
Juvenile Offending	Pearson Correlation	.509**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	198	198

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Findings in Table 4.20 for the correlation between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed that institutional victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile offending ($r=0.509$; $P<0.01$). This showed that respondents who experienced institutional victimization were likely to engage in juvenile offending. Moreover, the comparison with previous empirical studies strengthens the validity and generalizability of these findings, emphasizing the consistent association between institutional victimization and juvenile offending across different contexts and populations. For instance, available empirical evidence suggests that children come into contact with institutions as the third level of social characteristic. This is experienced through schools, religious activities, child protection services to the complex levels of the less fortunate. Children within these institutions experience different forms of victimization including sexual exploitation while

others engage in deviant acts such as drug and substance abuse. These institutions are regarded as safe havens but to the contrary, children experience different forms of victimization at this level (Portela & Pells, 2015). Some juveniles have been radicalized to engage in different deviant and offending acts such as terrorism, murder and other violent offences due to institutional victimization (Finkelhor, Turner, Wormuth, Vanderminden & Hamby, 2019). As regards bullying, Graham, (2016) acknowledges that bully-victims do not react, and they just feel bad about themselves. Others turn outward, and aggress against their perpetrators, for instance through physical violence. Cho, Peguero, and Misuraca, (2019) with a sample of 490 adolescents clearly outlines that in South Korea, delinquent behavior such as defiance and destruction of property was highly mediated by aggression that resulted from previous forms of bullying.

Since Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient revealed the presence of relationship between institutional victimization and juvenile offending in penal Institution in Kakamega County, the study needed to go further and establish how much variation in juvenile offending was as a result of institutional victimization. Consequently, linear regression analysis was conducted between institutional victimization and juvenile offending. Linear regression was the ideal test statistic since data for this study was normally and uniformly distributed, there was uniform distribution of the error term across the independent variables (homoscedasticity) and descriptive statistics suggested linearity in the association between institutional victimization and juvenile offending. Findings are presented in Table 4.21.

Table 4. 21: linear regression model for institutional victimization and juvenile Offending (n=198)

Mode			Adjusted R	Std. Error of the	
1	R	R Square	Square	Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.382 ^a	.197	.185	.51226	1.573

a. Predictors: (Constant) Institutional Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data, 2023.

Research findings in Table 4.21 for linear regression between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.197. This implied that 19.7% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County was a result of institutional victimization.

This suggests that institutional victimization plays a significant role in influencing juvenile offending behaviors within the institution. Specifically, nearly 20% of the variability in the occurrence and severity of juvenile offending can be attributed to experiences of victimization within the institutional environment.

Research on the relationship between institutional victimization and juvenile offending reveals that April 30th has been set aside world over as the international day to end corporal punishment for children owing to the negative effects of corporal punishment (Heekes, Kruger, Lester & Ward, 2022). Despite the ban on corporal punishment in South Africa in 1996 a study conducted in 2012 nationally indicated that 49.8% of the children still

experienced physical punishment in schools that continues to relive the pain and suffering on them. Gershoff, Grogan-Kaylor, Lansford, Chang, Zelli, Deater-Deckard, Dodge, and Alampay (2017) has similarly shown that the aftermath of corporal punishment is linked to challenges in emotional and social development, as well as the child's ability to form positive associations within the broader social context.

Table 4. 22: Multiple regression analysis for institutional victimization and juvenile offending

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.399	.384		2.735	.012		
	Bullying	.037	.0362	.349	2.648	.003	.855	1.521
	Corporal Punishment	.049	.0387	.352	2.391	.001	.867	1.484

a. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

Source: Research Data (2023)

Findings in table 4.22 reveal a beta co-efficient of 0.362 with a t value 2.735 which is significant as p value is less than 0.05 with regard to bullying as a form of institutional victimization. The study revealed that corporal punishment had a beta value of 0.387, a t-values of 2.391 and a corresponding p value of 0.001. From the above findings, corporal punishment as a form of institutional victimization had the greatest influence on juvenile offending.

The regression model with regard to family victimization then became:

$$Y = 1.399 + 0.037 B + 0.049 CP$$

Where: Y = Juvenile Offending

B is Bullying

CP is Corporal Punishment

The study moved on to examine the forms of institutional victimization and their influence on different forms of juvenile offences to determine the extent of influence of each form of institutional victimization on the various offences. Research data was subjected to multinomial logistic regression and findings presented in table 4.23.

Table 4. 23: Multinomial logistic regression for institutional victimization and forms of juvenile offending

Mode	Unstandardized		Standardized		
	Coefficients		Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1 (Constant)	2.524	.386		3.362	.025
Violent Offending	.323	.071	.191	1.316	.009
Drug Offences	.369	.022	.214	1.374	.012
Sexual Offences	.331	.056	.209	1.377	.019
Property Offences	.346	.017	.185	1.335	.011

a. Predictors (Constant): Institutional Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile Offending

A multinomial Logistic Regression analysis was conducted using institutional victimization as a predictor of the direction and magnitude of juvenile offending among juvenile offenders at Shikusa Borstal Institution. Study findings in table 4.23 indicated that institutional victimization had an influence on violent offending (0.071), drug related offending (0.022) sexual offences (0.056) and property offences (0.017). From the coefficients of determination, institutional victimization had a significant contribution to violent offences

and drug offences more than it had on sexual offences and property related offences among juvenile offenders at Shikusa Borstal Institution.

Respondents were asked about the forms of childhood victimization that juveniles suffered within institutions. Results from the 11 key informants indicated that teachers were major perpetrators of physical, emotional, verbal and psychological abuse in schools. It was also stated by 7 of the 11 respondents that the learning environment in Kenya, particularly in primary and secondary schools, puts enormous pressure on learners that some are subjected to corporal punishment by teachers whenever they don't match up to the schools' performance expectations. All the 11 respondents linked institutional victimization to juvenile offending.

A teacher had this to say about institutional victimization and juvenile offending;

I have noticed learning difficulties among juvenile offenders committed to penal institutions. These juveniles lack the right levels of concentration, interest and desire to excel in studies. They generally have a negative attitude towards schooling and many of them attribute the negative attitude to past experiences in schools. They report having been victimized by teachers in schools and have always associated learning with pain and suffering. Some of the juveniles dropped out of school due to corporal punishment and teacher verbal abuse and shaming and ended up in crime (TE, Shikusa Borstal Primary School, 2023).

From this finding, it is clear that juvenile offending was linked to institutional victimization. Further 6 out of 11 respondents agreed the students who were victimized in schools dropped out and started engaging in offending.

A probation officer said the following about institutional victimization and juvenile offending;

As part of our corporate social responsibility, we undertake community outreach programmes that extend into schools where we raise awareness

about the negative effects of institutional victimization not only on the academic achievement of learners but also on the likelihood to push students into dropping out of schools and engaging in crime. We visit schools and talk to teachers about what the law says about corporal punishment in schools and how corporal punishment in schools develops rebellion and indiscipline among children. Our efforts seem to bear fruits since reported cases of corporal punishment have generally declined in Kakamega County (PO 4, Lugari Probation Office, 2023).

From this finding, it is clear that teacher physical abuse, verbal abuse and corporal punishment have been rampant forms of institutional victimization that have required interventions from government agencies given the negative consequences associated with these vices.

The study sought to determine the overall influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable in order to effectively make conclusions about the extent to which forms of victimization influence juvenile offending among. Consequently, multiple regression analysis was employed factoring in family victimization, neighbourhood victimization and institutional victimization as predictors of the direction and magnitude of change in juvenile offending and findings presented in table 4.24

Table 4. 24: Model summary for forms of victimization and juvenile offending.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.863 ^a	.791	.782	.17495	1.599

a. Predictors: (Constant), Family Victimization, Neighbourhood Victimization, Institutional Victimization

b. Dependent Variable: Juvenile offending.

Source: Research Data (2023)

The value of R square was 0.791 implying that the combined effect of family victimization, neighbourhood victimization and institutional victimization explained 79.1% of the variance

in juvenile offending among juveniles in penal institutions in Kakamega County. This means that the remained 20.9% unexplained variance in juvenile offending among juveniles in Shikusa Borstal institution in Kakamega County was largely due to other factors that were not part of the study which were accounted for by the stochastic error term. A Durbin Watson test for autocorrelation revealed a value (1.599) which falls between the normal range (1.5 – 2.5) meaning that the model did not have autocorrelation issues

Regression analysis was employed to determine the direction and magnitude of influence of the independent variables of the study (family, neighbourhood and institutional victimization) on juvenile offending.

Table 4. 25: Regression coefficients for forms of victimization and juvenile offending.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T		Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	1.385	.405		3.251	.001		
Family	.295	.051	.373	4.539	.000	.821	1.228
Neighbourhood	.217	.069	.049	2.941	.001	.953	1.022
Institutional	.181	.049	.035	2.671	.000	.938	1.053

a. Dependent Variable: Juvenile offending

Source: Research Data (2023)

Findings in table 4.25 reveal that family victimization had a beta coefficient of 0.295 implying that overall, family victimization accounted for 29.5% of the variance witnessed in juvenile offending. Neighbourhood victimization had a beta coefficient of 0.217 implying that neighbourhood victimization accounted for 21.7% of the variance witnessed in juvenile offending. In addition, institutional victimization posted a beta coefficient of 0.181 meaning that holding all other factors constant, institutional victimization accounted for 18.1% of the variance in juvenile offending among juveniles in Shikusa Borstal institution in Kakamega County, Kenya. As a result of the above findings with regard to table 4.33, the overall regression model thus becomes:

The regression model then became:

$$Y = 1.385 + 0.295FV + 0.217 NB + 0.181IV.$$

Where: **Y** = Juvenile offending

FV is Family Victimization

NV is Neighbourhood Victimization

IV is Institutional Victimization

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents data on the effect of victimization on juvenile offending, starting with an analysis of response rates and demographic information. It explores family victimization, using tables and figures to illustrate forms, perpetrators, and frequency, supported by correlation and regression analyses. Similarly, neighborhood victimization is examined, with statistical analyses showing its association with juvenile offending. Finally, institutional victimization is assessed, with data outlining its forms and effect, further clarified by statistical methods linking it to juvenile offending.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a concise summary of the study's findings, conclusions, and recommendations regarding the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Kakamega County, Kenya. To achieve the overarching objective, the researcher formulated specific objectives which include investigating the nexus between family victimization and juvenile offending, examining the relationship between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending, and assessing the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

This study was conducted on the premise that childhood victimization had an effect on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya. The study sought to expound on the gap that other studies obscured as they have a uni dimensional focus of victimization and influence on juvenile offending, advancing the focus on a social structural level of a child's development. The study reviewed both theoretical and empirical literature on childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Kakamega County, Kenya. From the review of related literature, a conceptual framework was formulated to conceptualize the relationship between childhood victimization and juvenile offending. Guided by the conceptual framework together with objectives of the study, the research used a questionnaire for primary respondents (juvenile offenders) and an interview schedule for

key informants (officer in charge of Borstal institution, probation officers, wardens, matrons and teachers). In summary, the following were the findings of the study;

5.2.1 Effect of family victimization on juvenile offending

The first objective of the study sought to investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Data on family victimization and data juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis. Findings showed that 81.82% (162) of the respondents had experienced parental verbal abuse, 59.09% (117) had experienced parental physical abuse and 51.01% (101) had experienced sibling verbal abuse. In addition, 44.95% (89) of the respondents experienced sibling physical abuse and 6.065 (12) reported experiencing parental sexual abuse. The study revealed that 42.42% (84) of the respondents experienced parental verbal abuse perpetrated by their mothers, 34.85% (69) experienced verbal abuse perpetrated by their brothers, 20.7% (41) experienced verbal abuse from their fathers and 18.69% (37) experienced verbal abuse from members of their step families and 16.16% (32) of the respondents experienced verbal abuse from their sisters. With regard to physical abuse, it was revealed based on the findings of the study that 35.35% (70) of the respondents experienced physical abuse from their fathers, 27.78% (55) experienced physical abuse from their brothers, 17.17% (34) had experienced physical abuse from their sisters, 15.15% (30) of the respondents had experienced physical abuse from their step family members and 8.59% (17) reported experiencing physical abuse from their mothers. As regards sexual abuse, results show that 4.04% (8) of the respondents had experienced sexual abuse perpetrated by their mothers while 2.02% (4) had experienced sexual abuse perpetrated by their fathers. In addition, the majority of the respondents who experienced parental physical

abuse reported having been abused more than twice and this was seen from 18.2% (36) of the respondents. As regards parental verbal abuse, it was clear that majority of the respondents had experienced it more than twice as was alluded to by 25.3% (50) of the respondents. When it comes to parental sexual abuse, the study found that majority of the respondents had experienced it more than twice as evidenced by data from 3.5% (7) of the respondents. Majority of the respondents who had experienced sibling physical abuse had been victimized more than twice as revealed by 22.7% (45) of the respondents. 51.01% (101) of the respondents who had experienced sibling verbal abuse, majority of the respondents being 21.2% (42) reported having been victimized more than twice. Results also revealed that 82.32% (163) of the respondents reported being affected by the victimization that they experienced. Results also showed that 17.68% (35) of the respondents reported not having been affected by the victimization that they experienced. Findings on the correlation between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a statistically significant relationship ($r=0.618$; $P<0.01$). This showed that respondents who experienced family victimization were likely to engage in juvenile offending and regression analysis between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.318 implying that 31.8% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was a result of family victimization.

The findings presented a significant effect of family victimization on juvenile offending. The multiple regression analysis in Table 4.11 demonstrates that different forms of family victimization, namely parental victimization (PV), sibling victimization (SV), and polyvictimization (PolyV), have varying degrees of influence on juvenile offending.

Firstly, it's evident that polyvictimization exerts the strongest influence on juvenile offending, as indicated by its higher beta coefficient and significant t-value. This suggests that experiencing multiple forms of victimization within the family environment significantly increases the likelihood of engaging in juvenile offending behaviours.

Secondly, while both parental and sibling victimization also show significant effects on juvenile offending, their impact appears to be comparatively lower than that of polyvictimization. Nonetheless, these findings underscore the importance of considering various forms of family victimization when assessing the risk factors associated with juvenile offending.

Moving on to the multinomial logistic regression analysis it becomes apparent that family victimization plays a pivotal role in shaping different types of juvenile offending behaviours. Specifically, the coefficients associated with each type of offending (violent, drug-related, sexual, and property offenses) provide insights into the differential impact of family victimization on these behaviours.

For instance, family victimization appears to have a particularly pronounced influence on drug-related and violent offenses, as evidenced by the higher standardized coefficients for these categories. This suggests that juveniles who have experienced family victimization are more likely to be involved in drug-related and violent offending behaviours compared to other types of offenses.

However, it's crucial to note that the impact of family victimization on sexual offenses appears to be relatively weaker, as indicated by the lower standardized coefficient. This could imply that while family victimization contributes to various forms of juvenile

offending, its association with sexual offenses may be mediated by other factors not captured in this analysis.

5.2.2 Effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending

The second objective of the study sought to examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Data on neighbourhood victimization and data juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis. Findings revealed that 65.66% (130) of the respondents experienced peer verbal abuse, 60.1% (119) of the respondents experienced peer physical abuse, 48.99% (97) of the respondents experienced peer rejection, 20.71% (41) of the respondents reported experiencing community violence and no respondent reported experiencing peer sexual abuse. It was also established that peer verbal abuse, peer physical abuse, peer rejection and community violence were experienced more than twice by majority of the respondents. Specifically, 29.8% (59) of the respondents experienced peer verbal abuse more than twice, 22.7% (45) of the respondents experienced peer rejection more than twice, 18.2% (36) of the respondents experienced peer physical abuse more than twice and 7.6% (15) of the respondents experienced community violence more than twice.

From the results, 75.25% (149) of the respondents agreed that they were affected by the neighborhood victimization that they experienced while 24.75% (49) of the respondents indicated that they were not affected by the neighborhood victimization that they experienced.

Correlation between neighborhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed that neighborhood victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile

offending ($r=0.523$; $P<0.01$). This showed that respondents who experienced neighbourhood victimization were likely to engage in juvenile offending. Linear regression analysis for neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.219 implying that 21.9%% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County was a result of neighbourhood victimization.

Community violence, peer violence, and cyberbullying emerge as significant predictors of juvenile offending, with varying degrees of impact. Community violence exhibits a beta coefficient of 0.329, with a t-value of 3.107 and a p-value of 0.001, indicating a significant influence on juvenile offending. Similarly, peer violence demonstrates a stronger association, with a beta coefficient of 0.349, a higher t-value of 3.107, and a p-value of 0.001, highlighting its considerable impact on juvenile offending. Cyberbullying, though exhibiting a weaker association, still shows significance, with a beta coefficient of 0.094, a t-value of 1.743, and a p-value of 0.002.

Findings of multinomial logistic regression for neighborhood victimization and forms of juvenile offending, it becomes evident that neighborhood victimization plays a crucial role in shaping various types of juvenile offenses. Specifically, violent, drug-related, and sexual offenses are significantly influenced by neighborhood victimization, with lesser impact observed on property offenses as evidenced by their respective coefficients, t-values, and p-values.

5.2.3 Effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending.

The third objective was to establish the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Data on institutional

victimization and data juvenile offending were subjected to descriptive, inferential and thematic analysis. Findings established that 47.98% (95) of the respondents experienced teacher physical abuse, 40.91% (81) of the respondents experienced teacher corporal punishment and 31.82% (63) of the respondents experienced student verbal abuse. It was also established that 28.79% (57) of the respondents experienced student bullying and 24.75% (49) experienced student rejection. This shows that teacher physical abuse and teacher corporal punishment were the most reported forms of institutional victimization in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. From the results, teacher physical abuse was the most frequent form of institutional victimization with 48.0% (95) of the respondents reporting it followed by teacher corporal punishment that was reported by 40.9% (81) as being the second most frequent form of institutional abuse. The two forms of institutional abuse reported above were reported by majority of the respondents as having been perpetrated more than twice. It was also established that student verbal abuse; student bullying and student rejection were also reported by respondents as being institutional forms of victimization that had been experienced more than twice. This shows that the frequency of teacher physical abuse and teacher corporal punishment were alarming as forms of institutional victimization.

In addition, 63.64% (126) of the respondents were affected by institutional victimization while 36.36% (72) reported that they were not affected by institutional victimization. Findings on correlation between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed that institutional victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile offending ($r=0.509$; $P<0.01$). This showed that respondents who experienced institutional victimization were likely to engage in juvenile offending.

Research from linear regression between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.197 meaning that 19.7% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County was a result of institutional victimization.

The research findings highlight the significant influence of institutional victimization, specifically bullying and corporal punishment, on juvenile offending. Both forms of victimization exhibit statistically significant beta coefficients and t-values, indicating their relevance in predicting juvenile delinquent behaviors. However, corporal punishment emerges as the stronger predictor, with a higher beta coefficient and lower p-value compared to bullying.

Further, multinomial logistic regression for institutional victimization and forms of juvenile offending, it becomes apparent that institutional victimization plays a nuanced role in shaping various types of juvenile offenses. While institutional victimization has a notable effect on violent and drug-related offenses, its influence on sexual and property offenses appears to be relatively weaker.

5.3 Conclusions

The general conclusion of the study and conclusions specific to each objective are presented in this section.

5.3.1 General Conclusion of the Study

In light of the study findings, it is concluded that childhood victimization has a significant effect on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya.

5.3.2 Conclusions Specific to Objectives

In regard to the findings of the study, the following conclusions are made;

The first objective of the study sought to investigate the effect of family victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Findings on the correlation between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a statistically significant relationship and regression analysis between family victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.318 implying that 31.8% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was a result of family victimization. Based on this finding, it is concluded that family victimization has a significant effect on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya.

The second objective of the study sought to examine the effect of neighborhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Findings on correlation between neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed that neighbourhood victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile offending and linear regression analysis for neighbourhood victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.219 implying that 21.9% of the variance in juvenile offending in Kakamega County was a result of neighbourhood victimization. Each form of victimization community violence, peer violence, and cyberbullying shows statistically significant relationships with juvenile offending, as indicated by their respective t-values and p-values. Regarding this finding, it is concluded that neighborhood victimization has a significant effect on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County, Kenya.

The third objective was to establish the effect of institutional victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County. Findings on correlation between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed that institutional victimization had a statistically significant relationship with juvenile offending and linear regression between institutional victimization and juvenile offending revealed a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.197 meaning that 19.7% of the variance in juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution, Kakamega County was a result of institutional victimization. In line with the findings on this objective, a conclusion is made that institutional victimization has a significant effect on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya

5.4 Recommendations

Drawing from the study's findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are proposed:

1. The study recommends comprehensive family-based proactive interventions aimed at underlying risk factors and dynamics of childhood victimization to mitigate the overlap to juvenile offending. The study further recommends remote interagency collaboration between child welfare agencies, law enforcement, healthcare providers, and educational institutions to enhance coordination and response to cases of child victimization. Establishment of protocols for information-sharing and joint intervention efforts to better support victimized children. Further, stakeholders should adopt a trauma-informed approach to care and intervention within correctional and rehabilitation institutions recognizing the impact of victimization on

the mental health and well-being of juveniles. Provide trauma-informed training for staff and integrate trauma-sensitive practices into the institution's programming.

2. Community members, local administration officials, and opinion leaders are exhorted to support young people in the community who display signs of offending. It is important to educate the youths on the negative impacts of criminal behavior while avoiding negative labelling and stereotyping. Within the neighborhood stakeholders should have targeted interventions in high-risk areas or among vulnerable populations to address specific factors contributing to neighborhood victimization. These interventions may include increased patrols, environmental improvements, and targeted outreach to at-risk individuals or families.
3. The study recommends for an evidence-based intervention strategy in schools to address victimization among students, emphasizing the importance of informed measures to mitigate harm. Additionally, stringent enforcement of existing policies prohibiting corporal punishment is strongly advised, aligning with scholarly recommendations for promoting safe and supportive learning environments. Stakeholders should further advocate for positive behavior support programs aimed at promoting prosocial behaviors and creating a supportive peer culture within the institutions. Recognize and reward positive behavior to reinforce desired outcomes.

5.5 Suggestions for further Research

This study investigated the effect of childhood victimization on juvenile offending in Shikusa Borstal Institution Kakamega County, Kenya. Based on the findings of the study, the following suggestions are made for further research;

- i. Future studies can be conducted to explore the different social structural dynamics of female victimizations and its interplay to offending, mostly within developing countries.
- ii. Furthermore, research may examine the cultural and social contexts that shape attitudes towards victimization, particularly in societies where physical punishment and other forms of violence are normalized as disciplinary measures.
- iii. Further research can be conducted on the intersectionality of victimization experiences within institutions, considering factors like ethnicity, sexual orientation, disability, and socioeconomic status.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviews research on childhood victimization's effect on juvenile offending in Kakamega County, Kenya. It identifies significant correlations: family victimization, especially polyvictimization, strongly influences juvenile offending; neighborhood victimization is linked to drug-related and violent crimes; and institutional victimization, notably corporal punishment, significantly shapes juvenile offending. The study concludes that childhood victimization notably affects juvenile offending at Shikusa Borstal Institution and recommends family interventions, community support for at-risk youth, and evidence-based school strategies. Future research should explore female victimization and cultural influences on attitudes toward victimization.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: CONSENT FORM

Dear Respondent,

My name is Japheth Musau, a student at Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology pursuing a Master's Degree in Criminology, and Criminal Justice. As part of my requirement, I am required to conduct a research study. I am currently undertaking a study on the **“The nexus between childhood victimization and juvenile offending in Kakamega County, Kenya.”**. You have been selected to participate in this study and I would highly appreciate if you answer these questions completely, correctly, and honestly as possible. Information obtained will assist address juvenile offending at early stages and establish mitigating measures to reduce juvenile offending.

Participant's Statement

I understand that the information I am about to give will be used for the purpose of this research, and none other whatsoever. I understand my identity will remain anonymous in this research. I understand that I will not directly gain from the results and findings of this research. I understand that the question might trigger emotional trauma and personal sensitive information which could be uneasy. I understand while participating I can withdraw at any time or refuse to answer questions without consequence. By reading and understanding the above information regarding my participation I thereby agree to participate voluntarily.

Respondent's Signature..... Date

Researcher's Signature..... Date

APPENDIX II: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS

SECTION ONE: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. How old are you? 12-13 14-15 16-17
2. Level of Education Primary School ☐ Secondary School ☐
3. Please select your gender. MALE ☐ FEMALE ☐
4. Have you experienced victimization? YES ☐ NO ☐
5. What is your family composition? Single Parent Mother ☐ Single Parent Father ☐ Both Parents ☐ Others ☐ Both parents dead ☐
6. What was your feeling upon victimization?
.....
7. What type of crime have you been convicted of?
Violent offending ☐ Non Violent offending ☐ Drug abuse ☐ Sexual Abuse ☐
Property Offending ☐
8. How long have you been convicted? 10-12 ☐ 13-14 ☐ 15-16 ☐ 17-18 ☐
9. Have you ever been abused? YES ☐ NO ☐
10. What form of victimization you face? FAMILY (parents, siblings). ☐
NEIGHBORHOOD. ☐ INSITUTIONAL (school, church). ☐ OTHERS
(specify).....

SECTION TWO: FAMILY VICTIMIZATION

Please tick in the most appropriate box.

1. Which of the following form of victimization did you experience within the family?

a) Parent physical abuse []

b) Parent verbal abuse []

c) Parent sexual abuse []

d) Sibling physical abuse []

e) Sibling verbal abuse []

2. Who victimized you?

	Parent physical abuse	Parent verbal abuse	Parent sexual abuse	Sibling physical abuse	Sibling verbal abuse
Father					
Mother					
Brother					
Sister					
Step family					

3. How often did you experience the identified form of victimization?

	ONCE	TWICE	MORE THAN TWICE
Parent physical abuse			
Parent verbal abuse			
Parent sexual abuse			
Sibling physical abuse			
Sibling verbal abuse			

4. Did the victimization experienced affect you? YES NO

If yes please explain.....

If no specify.....

5. To what extent do the following forms of family victimization influence juvenile offending?

Form of Family Victimization	Does not Affect at all	Does not Affect	Not Sure	Somewhat Affect	Least Affect
Parental victimization					
Sibling victimization					

Polyvictimization					
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SECTION THREE: NEIGHBORHOOD VICTIMIZATION

1. What form of victimization did you face within the neighborhood?

- a) Peer physical abuse []
- b) Peer verbal abuse []
- c) Peer sexual abuse []
- d) Peer rejection []
- e) Community violence []

2. How often did you experience the form of victimization indicated above?

	ONCE	TWICE	MORE THAN TWICE
a) Peer physical abuse			
b) Peer verbal abuse			
c) Peer sexual abuse			
d) Peer rejection			
e) Community violence			

3. Did the victimization experienced affect you? YES NO

If yes please explain

.....

.....

.....

If no specify

.....

.....

.....

4. To what extent do the following forms of neighbourhood victimization influence juvenile offending?

Form of Neighbourhood Victimization	Does not Affect at all	Does not Affect	Not Sure	Somewhat Affect	Least Affect
Community victimization					
Peer violence					
Cyber Bullying					

SECTION FOUR: INSITITUTIONAL VICTIMIZATION

1. What form of victimization did you face within the institution (school)?

- a) Teacher physical abuse []
- b) Teacher corporal punishment []
- c) Student bullying []
- d) Student verbal abuse []
- e) Student rejection []

2. How often did you experience the form of victimization indicated above?

	ONCE	TWICE	MORE THAN WICE
Teacher physical abuse			
Teacher corporal punishment			
Student bullying			
Student verbal abuse			
Student rejection			

3. Did the victimization experienced affect you? YES NO

If yes please explain.....

If no specify.....

4. To what extent do the following forms of institutional victimization influence juvenile offending?

Form of Institutional Victimization	Does not	Does not	Not Sure	Somewhat	Least Affect
Corporal punishment					

Bullying					
----------	--	--	--	--	--

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR KEY INFORMANTS

1. What forms of childhood victimization do juveniles suffer within the family

.....
.....

2. What forms of childhood victimization do juveniles suffer within their
neighborhood?

.....
.....

3. What forms of childhood victimization do juveniles suffer within institutions?

.....
.....

4. In your view, what are the effects of childhood victimization on the juveniles?

.....
.....

5. In your own opinion, how does childhood victimization affect juvenile offending?

.....
.....

6. How does the type of childhood victimization effect on the form of offense
committed?

.....

APPENDIX IV: UNIVERSITY RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER



MASINDE MULIRO UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (MMUST)

Tel: 056-30870
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E-mail: sgs@mmust.ac.ke
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P.O Box 190
Kakamega – 50100
Kenya

Directorate of Postgraduate Studies

Ref: MMU/COR: 509099

Date: 3rd November 2022

Musembi Japheth Musau
CCJ/G/01-70073/2020
P.O. Box 190-50100
KAKAMEGA

Dear Mr. Musau,

RE: APPROVAL OF PROPOSAL

I am pleased to inform you that the Directorate of Postgraduate Studies has considered and approved your master's. Proposal entitled: *“Effect of Childhood Victimization on Juvenile Offending in Kakamega County, Kenya”* and appointed the following as supervisors:

1. Dr. Evans Oruta - MMUST
2. Dr. Elizabeth Were - MMUST

You are required to submit through your supervisor(s) progress reports every three months to the Director of Postgraduate Studies. Such reports should be copied to the following: Chairman, School of Social Arts and Social Sciences Graduate Studies Committee and Chairman, Department of Criminology and Social Work. Kindly adhere to research ethics consideration in conducting research.

It is the policy and regulations of the University that you observe a deadline of two years from the date of registration to complete your master's thesis. Do not hesitate to consult this office in case of any problem encountered in the course of your work.

We wish you the best in your research and hope the study will make original contribution to knowledge.

Yours sincerely,



Prof. Stephen O. Odebero, PhD, FIEEP
DIRECTOR, DIRECTORATE OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

APPENDIX V: NACOSTI RESEARCH LICENSE

 REPUBLIC OF KENYA	 NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
Ref No: 471241	Date of Issue: 16/November/2022
RESEARCH LICENSE	
	
This is to Certify that Mr.. JAPHETH MUSEMBI MUSAU of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in Kakamega on the topic: EFFECT OF CHILDHOOD VICTIMIZATION ON JUVENILE OFFENDING IN KAKAMEGA COUNTY, KENYA. for the period ending : 16/November/2023.	
License No: NACOSTI/P/22/22001	
471241 Applicant Identification Number	 Director General NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION
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