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The relationship between economic relative deprivation and delinquency in Libya

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Abstract

This study utilises a sample of Libyan juvenile offenders. The study examines the relationship between relative deprivation and delinquency, in the light of an anomie and strain perspective, whereby housing, education, monetary, opportunities, dissatisfaction or objective structural factors that lead to the crime. It also explores the interactions between these factors and the conditioning effects of family social class (family members, structure and family monthly income). A mixed method is used; a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews are used to retrieve information from male juvenile offenders in Libya 2010.

The results reveals that there are highly significant differences in the strains whether it is housing, education, or economic strain. According to the LSD test, the use of drug, violence and stealing of goods do not differ significantly. However, it shows that crime types can interact significantly with family situate strains. On the other hand, the two ways of ANOVA test detect significant differences in the remaining strains.

Key words: Economic relative deprivation; Delinquency; Juvenile; Offender; Anomie; Strain

أجريت الدراسة علي عينة من الاحداث الجانحين في ليبيا، وقد اختبرت العلاقة بين الحرمان النسبي والجنوح، في ضوء نظرية الضغط لمعرفة علاقة عدة متغيرات (السكن، التعليم، الوضع المادي، عدم تساوي الفرص، وغيرها) بالجرمة. اقتضرت العينة علي الذكور من الاحداث بمؤسسة الاصلاح والتأهيل وقت اجراء الدراسة. استخدم التعدد المنهجي في هذه الدراسة للجمع بين مزايا كل من المنهج الكيفي والكمي، فجمع بين استمارة الاستبيان مع المقابلة المقننة في جمع البيانات، وذلك عام 2010 (هنا سيتم الاقتصار علي عرض الجانب الكمي فقط من الدراسة).

توصلت الدراسة الي جملة من النتائج لعل ابرزها: هناك علاقة ذات دلالة احصائية عالية في الاختلافات فيما يتعلق بنظرية الضغط بخصوص السكن والتعليم، والضغوط الاقتصادية. بناء علي نتائج اختبار LSD، جرائم كتعاطي المخدرات، العنف، والسرقة لم تظهر اية اختلافات ذات دلالة احصائية، في حين اظهر ان نوع الجريمة اظهر دلالة احصائية مع الضغوط الناجمة عن الوضع العائلي. في حين اختبار ANOVA اظهر دلالة احصائية مع بقية المتغيرات.

Research problem:

"The official delinquency database in Libya is limited and insufficient to explain Libyan delinquency. It can be said that, with the discovery of oil in Libya in 1955, the country started towards an era of major social change. During Libya's pre-oil days, when less than 25% lived in cities, and it was relatively isolated from other societies, it was a traditional

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country, with agriculture, farming, and trading with neighbouring countries as its main sources of economic production"(Laytimi, 2002).

Since the discovery of oil, the changes of the society are made possible in large measure by petroleum wealth, which convert the country from one of the world's poorest at the time of independence in 1951, to one of the most prosperous. By the 1980s, most Libyans enjoyed educational opportunities, healthcare, and housing that were among the best in Africa and the Middle East. Responsibility for the care of the old and the needy had been largely shifted from the extended family to a comprehensive system of social security. Education and medical care were free and, when necessary, the state subsidized housing and other necessities. Life expectancy, perhaps the ultimate measure of living standards, had lengthened by ten years since 1960, and social mobility was much improved. Early in the 80s the Libyan population reached 3.6 million and was growing at about 4 percent a year, one of the highest rates in the world. Unlike its neighbours, the Libyan government welcomed this rate of growth, which it hoped would eventually remedy the country's shortage of labour. The population was overwhelmingly concentrated along the Mediterranean coast, much of it around Benghazi and Tripoli. Villagers and rural tribe members continued to migrate to cities and towns, seeking better-paying jobs in industry or in the service sector of the modern economy (Chapin, 2004). That is the beginning of a transformation toward a more modern society.

Thus, Libya to a certain extent faces the social problems and challenges accompanied by rapid economic change in much the same ways as Western nations did during urbanization and industrialization.

Neuman and Berger (1988) note that crime rates and delinquency correlate with modernization and other related factors ,such as, urbanization, the division of labour, social disorganization, anomie, modern values, and cultural heterogeneity. They believe that crime rates and delinquency are relatively low in traditional societies and higher in more urbanized and modernized societies. They attribute many social problems such as delinquency and crime to these rapid social changes.

According to Andrzej(1976), delinquency should increase faster in those areas subjected to rapid development. Clinard and Daniel (1973) indicats that developing countries face many dilemmas, including the required planning for economic development, and on the other hand, they also must recognize that the price of such development may probably include a marked increase in crime.

Later, in the 1990s, during the economic block on Libya, the society underwent a change in the culture value system that put a premium on monetary success without parallel emphasis on appropriate means. This circumstance leads to the emergence of “short cut” ways to earn lots of money in a short time, which becomes a very important value in this

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society- along with the increase of respect for rich people, whatever their means of being so. While adults may or may not generally adopt this monetary success goal, it is more likely to see that youths born in the 1990s will be more likely to accept this value. In this regard, it becomes important to know how much the value of “the short cut,” forces the youth into delinquent behaviour. Hence, overall, it appears that Merton’s strain theory can account best for this process. The central thesis of the theory is when there is a disharmony between goals and means, individuals will act in criminal ways. Second, there is no test of any sociological theory in relation to juvenile delinquency. In this regard, Libya is a unique and interesting local for collecting data on strain and crime and delinquency and addressing the question of the generality of strain theories.

Research purpose:

The present study examines the relationship between relative economic deprivation and delinquency constructed from variables associated with housing strain, educational strain, economic strain and perceived blocked opportunity, along with factors related to age, low family income, jobs, and family structure and size. Exposing juveniles at risk at an early stage can help to reduce the risk of social exclusion and stigmatisation. Different aspects of strain and exposure to delinquency is investigated. To conclude that the study aims to:

1. Identify that juvenile offenders within Libyan rehabilitation and correction institutions are faced by relative deprivations.
2. Determine the influence of individual factors (age, educational level, and family’s monthly income) in affecting the Libyan youths to become offenders.
3. Determine the influence of strain factors (housing strain, educational strain, and economic strain).

Research Questions

1. Is strain related positively to delinquency and aggression in Libya?
 - a) Is housing strain related positively to delinquency and aggression in Libya?
 - b) Is education strain related positively to delinquency and aggression in Libya?
 - c) Is economic strain related positively to delinquency and aggression in Libya?
2. Is strain related positively to anger and depression in Libya?
 - a) Is housing strain related positively to anger and depression?
 - b) Is education strain related positively to anger and depression?

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- c) Is economic strain related positively to anger and depression?
3. Does anger mediate the relationship between strain and delinquency/aggression?
 4. Does depression mediate the relationship between strain and delinquency/aggression?

Methodology:

There are many research methods that can be used to collect data. According to Bryman, (1989), Huberman (1994), and Remenyi (1998), data collection methods can be classified as qualitative or quantitative approaches. However, the simplest way to distinguish qualitative data from quantitative data is the fact that qualitative data come in word format and describe situations, individuals, or circumstances surrounding a phenomenon, while they are viewed as quantitative if they are in the form of numbers, often in the form of counts or measurements to attempt to give precision to a set of observations. In essence, the most fundamental classification has been between quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Furthermore, the difference between quantitative and qualitative research methods is how the data is collected and processed. The quantitative method collects data that is made measurable and studies questions like “how many” or “how much”. This data can be collected through questionnaires and is easier to compile. The preparation and decisions on what kind of data should be collected is of great importance since no changes can be made to the data once it is collected (Johannesen & Tufte, 2003).

On the other hand, Qualitative research, tries to get an answer to why certain outcomes appear by studying, for example, how a person perceives something based on his/her view of the world. This data can be collected by interviews, where the researcher can analyse thoughts and feelings that appear during the interview. This also gives greater flexibility to make changes and to complement the data if needed (Johannesen & Tufte 2003).

This research uses a triangulation approach, in which qualitative and quantitative approaches are used.

A questionnaire distributed among juvenile offenders in Arabic language. Design of the questionnaire takes into consideration how to meet the research questions. SSPS and related statistical programs are used to analyse the data.

In this article only a quantitative method will be presented.

Questionnaires:

Questionnaires are the most widely used data collection method in a survey strategy (Oppenheim, 1992). It is defined as a list of structured questions, ideally chosen after extensive testing, with a view to extracting reliable responses from a chosen sample (Hussey & Hussey, 2003). Also questionnaires are associated with both the positivistic and phenomenological paradigms; a positivistic research approach suggests the use of closed questions, whereas a phenomenological approach suggests open questions when designing a questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992).

Gilbert (2001) argues that there are two main kinds of research questions which can be asked in a questionnaire, namely closed and open questions.

This study has adopted the individual/self-completion type of questionnaire. This type has its own advantages. According to Oppenheim (2003), in the self-completion questionnaire, the researcher himself or someone in an official position usually distributes the questionnaire to the respondents, clearly explaining the research purpose, and the respondents are then left alone to complete the questionnaire (Hussey & Hussey, 2003; Oppenheim, 2003). Moreover, when using the self-completion questionnaire, there is an opportunity to introduce the research topic, to motivate the respondents to give their answer honestly, to clarify any ambiguous questions and to collect completed questionnaires in a short period of time (Saunders et al., 2007; Sekaran, 2003).

The main advantages of a self-completion questionnaire are that it may ensure a high response rate, give the benefits of a degree of personal contact, targets very precisely the most appropriate sample, and it overcomes sample bias problems if any (Hussey & Hussey, 2003; Oppenheim, 2003). The rationale behind adopting the questionnaire method in this study is the research objectives. This study is going to investigate whether there is relationship between deprivation and delinquency, through examining the impact of some variables such as family deprivation, level of education, deprived neighbourhoods, youth peers and so on. Moreover, it is intended to obtain many respondents' attitudes to this issue, which can only be obtained by using a questionnaire. Also, there are some sensitive questions that will be answered by the participants, which are concerned with juvenile offenders.

Juvenile delinquency in Libya

Social and economic changes in Libya:

Libya has gone into a social development and demographic transformation during the last three decades due to the following factors:

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- Socio-cultural factors
- Housing factors
- Education factors
- Economic factors

The above factors have an impact on the tribal nature of the Libyan social structure, where the family as a social unit has been influenced by modern aspects of life.

Socio-cultural factors:

In general, the basic social units in Libya are the extended family, clan, and tribe. These three are the primary economic, educational, and welfare-providing units of their members. Individuals are expected to subordinate themselves and their interests to those units and to obey the demands they make. The family is the most important focus of attention and loyalty and source of security, followed by the tribe.

Family Size:

Most Libyan families are large. Fertility rates of almost six children per woman lead also to high population growth and a large expatriate population. Libya has an extremely young population, and a high birth rate and decades of high fertility have kept the population young, with approximately one third of the population under the age of 15 and only 4.3% over 65 years of age (Central Intelligence Agency, 2010). Through governmental encouragement, this has led to an increase in population to over six million from one million in 1950, resulting in a young and urban populace (Harris.L, 1986, p. 31).

As such, the structure of society changes and develops into an urban modern lifestyle. Life in the city changes completely in spite of known colonization, which lasted for a long time until independence in 1952 and the Libyan Military coup in 1969.

Regarding size, most Libyan families are large. Within the family, the power and authority are centralized in the father or the oldest male (i.e. grandfather or son). Individuals subordinate their loyalty and faith to their family. Al-Kernawi and Graham (2003:85) postulate that a family unit in Muslim Arab communities is regarded as “a continual source of support”, and the family members may be involved and consulted whenever a family member is in need. The common custom of blood vengeance among the Muslim Arab society can be another reason for familial and tribal solidarity and kinship. If a family or tribe member commits homicide, the other members of those social units will be completely and inevitably accountable for this action, and revenge is sought from them as well as from the murderer. Violating this authority of the father by any family member, e.g. a son, can be considered as rebellion, and “he would find little or no support among his agnates, whatever the extent of the provocation” (Peters, 1990:195–196). It is still the father who has the first and last word even on his son’s personal affairs.

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Abbadi (2005, pp. 400-401) states that a Bedouin son who disobeys his father can face gossip and calls from within his society that he is an unlawful and adulterous son. Moreover, Peters (1990:196) suggests that a Bedouin man in Libya who “denies” his father loses too many privileges for the practice to become widespread.

Al-Zuwyy (1991:46) describes such social constraints in Bedouin and rural societies in Libya as an internal constraint system that can be attributed to the face-to-face-relationship. In which everyone in the social organisation is known by his face and consequently, everyone is afraid of being a subject of gossip.

Housing in Libya:

Housing is s one of the major concerns of the revolutionary government from the beginning, and the provision of adequate housing for all Libyans by the 1980s has remained a top priority. According to the Library of Congress and the CIA, the former regime had undertaken to build 100,000 units to relieve a critical housing shortage, but this project proves an expensive fiasco and is abandoned after 1969. A survey at the time of the revolution finds that 150,000 families lack decent shelter, the actual housing shortfall being placed at upward of 180,000 dwellings.

It is noted that both the public and private sectors are involved in housing construction during the 1970s. Private investment and contracting account for a large portion of all construction until new property ownership laws went into effect in 1978 that limited each family to only one dwelling. Despite the decline of privately financed undertakings, the housing sector constitutes one of the most notable of the revolution's achievements. By the late 1970s, the hovels and tenements surrounding Benghazi and Tripoli had begun to give way to modern apartment blocks with electricity and running water that stretched ever further into what had once been groves and fields. These high-rise apartments become characteristic of the skylines of contemporary Benghazi, Tripoli, and other urban areas.

During the period between 1970 and 1986, the government invested some LD2.8 million in housing, which made possible the construction of 277,500 housing units, according to official sources. To reach these targets, the regime drew not only upon Libyan resources but also enlisted firms from France, the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany), Spain, Italy, Turkey, the Republic of Korea (South Korea), and Cuba. Since 1984, budget allocations for housing have fallen in keeping with a general decline in government spending. Many housing contracts have been suspended or cancelled as a result, causing financial difficulties for foreign firms. A shortfall in new construction has also raised the prospect of overcrowding and the creation of new shantytowns as the country's burgeoning population threatened to overwhelm the supply of housing.

Education System

Education in Libya is free to everyone from elementary school right up to university and post-graduate study, at home or abroad. Schools are positioned throughout the country. The policy is to reach out even to the nomadic hard-to-reach areas, and mobile classrooms are introduced to cover all of Libya. According to Hamdy (2007) Libya's population of approximately 5.9 million includes 1.7 million students, over 270,000 of whom study at the tertiary level, including those in the higher-technical and vocational sector. This number is an increase of over 200,000 from the level of 1975, when just over 13,000 are enrolled.

Pre-university schooling is divided into three sections: primary, preparatory, and secondary. The first nine years of education are compulsory and are known as basic education, which consists of six years of primary school and the first three years of secondary school. Primary education covers six years, divided into a four-year period and a two-year period, and secondary education covers six to seven years divided into a three-year cycle (compulsory) and a three-to-four year intermediate cycle.

Higher education in Libya is provided by universities (both general and specialised) and higher technical and vocational institutions. The higher education system is financed by, and under the authority of, the state. The Open University is the only institution within the public sector that relies to some extent on tuition fees paid by students. Policymakers have, in recent years, allowed the establishment of private institutions of higher education through what are known as educational co-operatives. There has also been considerable research into the possibility of developing partnerships between the public and private sectors to finance higher education, which, in a three-year period between 1997 and 2000, resulted in the establishment of more than five private university colleges and higher education institutes; Education is free up to university level. Post-graduate studies are not free but are subsidized. For example, the whole cost of a master's degree course at the Academy of Postgraduate Studies may cost around 3,000 Libyan dinars or about £1500 or \$2,300 for three years.

Economic status

Algadi (2007) states that, a few decades ago, Libya was considered to be one of the least developed nations on earth, with meager national resources and a high proportion of arid desert land. However, with the discovery of oil, improved economic policies and industrialisation, this status has changed and urban transformation has occurred.

The government dominates Libya's socialist-oriented economy through complete control of the country's oil resources, which account for approximately 95% of export earnings, 75% of government receipts, and 30% of the gross domestic product. Oil revenues constitute the principal source of foreign exchange. Much of the country's income has been lost to waste,

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corruption, conventional armaments purchases, and attempts to develop weapons of mass destruction, as well as to large donations make to developing countries in attempts to increase Gaddafi's influence in Africa and elsewhere. Although oil revenues and a small population give Libya one of the highest per capita GDPs in Africa, the government's mismanagement of the economy has led to high inflation and increased import prices, resulting in a decline in the standard of living. According to Samia ALkhashab (2009), the enactment of the law, in reviewing the level of wages and salaries, is an attempt to reverse this decline by the state, which is no doubt aware that the living situation of workers and employees had reached a point where it was no longer possible to live a decent life. Enjoying a decent life is the goal of Act 15, which raises the rate of wages and salaries of the time by 45%. Work begins on this law, which sets out the average salary of 165 dinars, which is equivalent to 540 dollars in 1981.

The dollar was, as today, the account unit for all Libya's exports and imports. The average price of houses and apartments at the start of the new law did not exceed 10,000 dinars, equivalent to 50 to 60 months of salary for an average post. Today the purchase of the same house or apartment requires at least 400 to 500 months wages in the same job, if we consider that the average price of houses does not exceed 100,000 dinars (a hypothesis which is very optimistic in the light of prices, even for medium housing, in Tripoli and Benghazi, being often up to a quarter or even half a million dinars). In that period, any employee could buy a small car for less than 9 months of their monthly salary, while now the same car costs the same average employee at least 120 months of salary.

Traditionally, Libyans have sought to realize the means of success, fame and wealth through thrift and hard work. However, due to industrialisation, and with such circumstances increasing the cost of living, corruption on various levels spread and begin to erode that attitude away, replacing it with a philosophy of "get rich quick". A variety of seductive but elusive strategies have evolved, and today there are many ways leading to instant wealth, such as job exploitation, bribery, fraud, illegal businesses and so on. The causes of this malady are to be found in the socio-cultural and political matrix of the Libyan society, which presently is faced with a gradual loss of its value system, and even identity. It is extremely difficult to ascertain the exact causes and their degree in matters pertaining to human psyche and temperament. Strain results where a culture places a strong emphasis on the achievement of wealth and material possessions. The structure of the society may limit the possibility of poor individuals to achieve success through institutionalized and socially-acceptable means. In other words, it considers the unequal distribution of wealth and power a frustration, and seeks alternative methods of reaching goals, such as robbery, theft, and drug trafficking (Hall, 2007).

Results:

Sample

The population of this study are juvenile offenders in Libyan rehabilitation and correction institutions. The total number of juvenile offenders in Tripoli's juvenile rehabilitation and correction centres is 363. The data comes from a sample of male juveniles. The sample is limited to male juveniles because males and females are segregated in the country's rehabilitation and correction system, and gaining permission to conduct a study on females is very difficult. For female institutions to be included in this study, the request letter must travel through an extensive bureaucratic system that involves a great deal of time and effort. The request to survey male institutions students has been granted in two weeks, whereas the request for female institutions of rehabilitation and correction would be likely be rejected due to the perceived unsuitability of the research topic for juvenile female offenders.

In virtually every society, males are more likely to engage in delinquency than females (W. Wilson & Richard, 1985). Many studies indicate that males have higher crimes rates than females (Broidy & Agnew, 1997; Canter, 1982; S. Cernkovich & Giordano, 1979; Crosnoe, 1999; Hill & Atkinson, 1988; Morash, 1986). Of the different types of probability sampling, a geographically representative random sampling procedure is adopted.

The survey is going to be administered to a representative sample of male juveniles, age from thirteen to eighteen throughout juvenile institutions in Tripoli, Libya. Letters to parents have been sent home with students, requesting the parents' permission. Only those juveniles who have presented a signed consent form are allowed to participate.

Descriptive Analysis

Basic demographic characteristics of participants

For demographic characteristics of participants, the six questions in the first section of the questionnaires are devoted to gathering demographic information about the participants (Libyan and other nationalities offenders in Libya).

From Table2, it can be seen that the majority of youth offenders (78%) are aged sixteen or above. Libyan offenders constitute 88% of the participants. Interestingly, the eighteen non Libyan offenders all are aged sixteen or above. These results may indicate that youngsters have become more interested in committing crimes and breaking the law as they get older.

With respect to the educational level of offenders, Table 2 indicates that approximately 46% of the Libyan offenders have completed secondary school level education, whereas a minority (4%) is Non - Educated. From the same table, it can be seen that a large number of non-Libyan participants (66%) has not been educated beyond primary school level.

Table 1 Demographic characteristics of participants

Age	13 years		14 years		15 years		16 years		17 years		18years		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Libyan	5	4%	10	7%	18	13%	21	16%	53	39%	28	21%	135	88%
Foreign	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	28%	5	28%	8	44%	18	12%
Total	5	3%	10	6%	18	12%	26	17%	58	38%	36	23%	153	100%
Education level	None educated		Primary school		Secondary school		High school or equivalent		Total					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%				
Libyan	6	4%	37	27%	62	46%	30	22%	135	88%				
Foreign	6	33%	6	33%	5	28%	1	6%	18	12%				
Total	12	8%	43	28%	67	44%	31	20%	153	100%				
Type of recent Crime	Drug use		Violence		Stealing Goods		Sexual Offences		Drink Alcoholic		killing		Illegal immigration	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Libyan	23	17%	28	21%	45	33%	23	17%	5	4%	11	8%	-	-
Foreign	3	17%	-	-	7	39%	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	45%
Total	26	17%	28	18%	52	34%	23	15%	5	3%	11	7%	8	6%
Number of crimes committed	One crime		Two crimes		Three crimes		Four crimes		Five crimes					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%				
Libyan	98	73%	26	19%	6	4%	2	2%	3	2%				
Foreign	17	94%	1	6%	-	-	-	-	-	-				
Total	115	75%	27	18%	6	4%	2	1%	3	2%				
Father's work type	government		For himself		Retired		died		Missing value					
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%				
Libyan	66	49%	42	31%	10	7%	7	5%	10	7%				
Foreign	5	28%	2	11%	1	6%	9	50%	1	6%				
Total	71	46%	44	29%	11	7%	16	11%	11	7%				
Family's monthly income	100-199 LD		200-299 LD		300-399 LD		400-499 LD		500+ LD		Missing value			
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
Libyan	19	14%	32	24%	35	26%	20	15%	27	20%	2	2%		
Foreign	14	78%	4	22%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
Total	33	22%	36	24%	35	23%	20	13%	27	18%	2	1%		

Regarding the crime type, Table 2 shows that most the common crimes committed by Libyan offenders is stealing goods (33%), whereas, for non-Libyan offenders the highest proportion of crimes (45%) related to cases of illegal immigration . Large numbers of participants (17%) in both groups committed crimes associated with drug misuse/abuse, whilst only 4% of participants committed crimes were alcohol related. It can be seen therefore that only non-Libyan offenders were involved in illegal immigration crime although 8% of Libyan participants are involved in homicide cases. With regard to the number of crimes committed, data reveals that for the largest number of Libyan and also non-Libyan

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participants (73%, 94%) respectively, this was their first crime. However, 7) of all participants had previously committed three crimes or more.

In a large number of Libyan participant cases (49%) their father works for the government, whereas in the case of non-Libyan participants most, (50%), of their fathers had died. Finally, all non-Libyan participants (100%) the family monthly income is LD 200-299 or less, although more than (64%) of Libyan participant reports that their family's monthly income is DL300-399 or less. This finding reflects that the respondents lived in middle-class conditions. Although there is no officially established poverty line in Libya, Secretariat of «General People's Committee for Planning and Finance » in its description of the economic and social situation of Libya, states that the number of people below the poverty line rose from about 605,000 in 1992 - 1993, to about 739,000 in 2001. It is added that the poverty line per person amounted to LD 576.5 in 1995, and rose to 852.4 in 2000, declining to 759 in 2001. According to the report of development objectives in Libya (2010) it is confirmed that low-income population families do not get adequate levels of food. The poverty line is identified as (336) dinars per person per month, or (418) dinars per family. The report called for the need to double the size of current spending of (4,214) dinars to (8,544) dinars per year, in order to raise the purchasing power above the line of human need, particularly for large families as (the average number of children per family in Libya for subjects in this study was (8.43)

Housing Strain

In the next section of the questionnaire, participants are asked to provide information about their experiences of some common housing issues that they might face within their daily life in terms of their satisfaction and perceptions. This section is related to Aim 2 of the study.

Table 2 Housing Strain

House condition												
	Strongly Agree		Agree		Slightly Agree		Slightly Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
There are enough rooms in our house for all the family	24	16%	29	19%	27	18%	15	10%	31	20%	27	18%
It will be great if I have my own place in our house	15	10%	22	14%	15	10%	20	13%	54	35%	27	18%
The water supply just in the good houses all the year	15	10%	19	12%	18	12%	26	17%	43	28%	32	21%
My home is place where you can relax	18	12%	30	20%	17	11%	24	16%	28	18%	36	24%
One bathroom in the house more than enough for my family	13	9%	33	22%	23	15%	15	10%	39	26%	30	20%

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We get windows in every room so the light and the fresh air can get through	7	5%	29	19%	16	11%	34	22%	42	28%	25	16%
There is furniture in good condition in the house	11	7%	28	18%	20	13%	35	23%	42	28%	17	11%
We have a good fridge	12	8%	31	20%	25	16%	21	14%	40	26%	23	15%
We have a good wash machine	12	8%	29	19%	22	14%	25	16%	45	29%	20	13%
We have a good fitted carpets	11	7%	26	17%	24	16%	25	16%	37	24%	30	20%
feeling toward the house condition												
Statements: When I think about our house I feel:									Freq		%	
Upset									31		20%	
Comfortable									22		14%	
Not concern									22		14%	
Low									9		6%	
Satisfied									3		2%	
Stressed									19		12%	
Annoyed									9		6%	
Not bother me									3		2%	
Worried									7		5%	
Depressed									18		12%	
Happy									10		7%	

Table 2 reveals no real difference regarding satisfaction with living accommodation for the whole family, 48% perceived this to be adequate and the rest, 52%, did not. A large number of participants (35%) are disagree that it will be great if they have their own place in their house, and 24% does not see their home as place where they can relax. Most participants state that their homes did not have good condition regarding windows, furniture, equipments and fitted carpets. Moreover, 20% of participants report that they are upset as result of their home condition and strain, whereas, a small number (2%) are not bothered about it. Interestingly, overall, different negative emotional issues such as being upset feeling low, stressed, annoyed...etc is (75%) of the emotional outcome of housing condition.

Education and Job Strain

Table 3 shows that the statement of “If you are well educated, you will get a good job” has an equal response (25%) of participants It is for both strongly agree and strongly disagree. However, the majority (40%) of participants strongly disagree with the statement of “Who get connections will get good job whatever was his level of education” in contrast, the same table shows that a large number of participants (25%) disagree with the idea that obtaining good qualifications is the only way to have good job. In addition, 26% of the participants agree that there is always chance to get a job, not just any job, but to have the job they want after they have finished school. Moreover, 35% of participants do not consider having the job they want after finishing school as important. Regarding the statement “It is important to me to achieve my educational goals”32% of participants disagree, although a large number of

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participants (28%) disagree that “Through work normally you succeed to live a better life in Libya”.

With regard to the emotional outcome, when participants think about their education and job situation, a large number (24%) feel upset.

Table 3 Education and Job Strain

Education and Job													
Statements	Strongly Agree		Agree		Slightly Agree		Slightly Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	
If you are well educated you will get a good job	38	25%	20	13%	7	5%	18	12%	32	21%	38	25%	
Who get connections will get good job whatever was his level of education	10	7%	16	11%	8	5%	14	9%	44	29%	61	40%	
The only way to get good job if you are qualified	21	14%	29	19%	17	11%	16	11%	38	25%	32	21%	
There is always chance to get a job	31	20%	39	26%	19	12%	16	11%	29	19%	18	12%	
There is a good chance of getting the job I want after I have finished school	27	18%	39	26%	16	11%	17	11%	37	24%	17	11%	
It is important to me to have the job I want after I have finished school	13	9%	22	14%	7	5%	17	11%	54	35%	40	26%	
It is important to me to achieve my educational goals	12	8%	15	10%	12	8%	25	16%	50	32%	39	26%	
Through work normally you succeed to live a better life	17	11%	30	20%	16	11%	20	13%	42	28%	28	18%	
the emotional outcomes of the education satisfaction													
Statements: When I think about our house I feel:									Freq		%		
Upset									36		24%		
Comfortable									18		12%		
Not concern									17		11%		
Low									16		11%		
Satisfied									11		7%		
Stressed									13		9%		
Annoyed									14		9%		
Not bother me									8		5%		
Worried									3		2%		
Depressed									14		9%		
Happy									3		2%		

Family economic states

Table 4 Family economic states

Family economic states												
Statements	Strongly Agree		Agree		Slightly Agree		Slightly Disagree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
We eat the food that I would like to eat	16	11 %	23	15 %	18	12 %	30	20 %	34	22 %	32	21 %
We eat what is culturally important on most days	17	11%	31	20 %	17	11 %	29	19 %	34	22 %	25	16 %
We eat fresh fruit and vegetables every day	21	14 %	42	28 %	22	14 %	24	16 %	22	14 %	22	14 %
We have a telephone (landline) to use regularly	29	19 %	31	20 %	24	16 %	15	10 %	28	18 %	26	17 %
My parents have enough money to keep our home in a decent state of decoration	20	13 %	40	26 %	25	16 %	19	12 %	23	15 %	26	17 %
We replace any worn out furniture	28	18 %	31	20 %	33	22 %	13	9%	25	16 %	23	15 %
We replace or repair major electrical goods such as a refrigerator or a washing machine, when broken	15	12 %	31	20 %	21	14 %	20	13 %	32	21 %	31	20 %
My parents can afford to own a car	47	31 %	43	28 %	20	13 %	17	11 %	18	12 %	8	5%
My parents hardly have enough money to pay for basic necessities	22	14 %	31	20 %	21	14 %	23	15 %	30	20 %	26	17 %
My parents cannot afford the type of leisure activity that you would most prefer to practice (e.g. music or sports)	22	14 %	32	21 %	22	14 %	20	13 %	26	17 %	31	20 %
the emotional outcomes of the family economic states												
Statements: When I think about our house I feel:									Freq		%	
Upset									24		16%	
Comfortable									22		14%	
Not concern									22		14%	
Low									10		7%	
Satisfied									12		8%	
Stressed									13		9%	
Annoyed									16		11%	
Not bother me									7		5%	
Worried									11		7%	
Depressed									12		8%	
Happy									4		3%	

Table 4 represents a data set containing a range of measures related to family economic states, it shows that a large number (24%) does not eat the food they would like to eat, or what is culturally important on most days. However, most of them in variety levels (28%, 20%, and 26%), agree that they “eat fresh vegetables daily; have landline to use regularly and their parents have enough money to keep our home in a decent state of decoration”; in

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addition, 22% of participants report that their family can replace any worn out furniture. However, 21% state that they are unable to replace or repair major electrical goods such as a refrigerator or a washing machine, when broken. Regarding owning a car, 31% strongly agree that their parents can afford to own a car. Finally, large numbers (20%, 21%) agree that their parents hardly have enough money to pay for basic necessities, and they cannot afford the type of leisure activity that they would most prefer to practice (e.g. music or sports) respectively.

Confidence and self-respect

As can be seen from table 7, almost the same numbers of participants (23%. 22%) disagree and agree about the statement “Overall, I have a lot to be proud of” whereas, the highest responses (24%) indicated agreement that they can do things as well as most people. Moreover, in term of relative deprivation, from the same table it can be noted that a large number of participants (39%) strongly agree that they would like to make a lot of money in their life. However, a quite similar number (37%) strongly agree they realistically, don’t think they will make as much money as they would like. In addition, large numbers of participants strongly agree with the rest of scale’s statements “It bothers me that most people have more to live on than our family; I get angry when I see people having a lot of money than our family does ; I feel upset when other people spend their money on useless things; I value / would respect myself if I physically hurt another person on purpose. Most of the people whose opinions I value, they would lose respect for me if I ended up in prison” with (28%, 28%, 32%, 28%,and 36%), with an exemption of the statement “I value/would respect myself if I drank alcohol” where the large number of participants(26%) strongly disagreed.

Statistical data analysis

Questions testing

As mentioned earlier, this study aims to investigate the relationship between relative deprivation and delinquency. Thus, several questions were formulated to achieve this aim. Questions 1 and 2 were directed toward the first research aim. Questions 3 and 4 were directed toward the second research aim. Questions 5, 6 and 7 were directed toward the third research aim. The following sections present the results of two-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) to examine these questions.

Analysis of variance of categorical variables

It is mentioned that two-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA) is used in this study to examine the relationship of certain individual factors (age, gender, educational level and, (crime type) and strain factors (housing strain, education strain,

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economic strain and blocked opportunities) on juvenile offenders. This test was applied to these variables because they involve independent categories. Also used for the post-hoc multiple comparisons are Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) Test to identify differences between offenders as a function of their age, educational level, (crime type).

Additionally, the importance of checking the assumptions of ANOVA and t-test has been identified by many authors (e.g., Andy P Field, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Normality and independence are the most common assumptions that should be addressed for this test. There is no reason to suppose that data variables were not independent. The assumption of normality was checked using different types of methods such as statistically by applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. In general, the same conclusion can be reached for education and job, family economic states and blocked opportunities. The results indicate that normality is not satisfied for: income range groups, type of recent crime groups and Father's job description groups. According to these results, it seems to be better to use a non-parametric approach. In terms of our statistical purpose, the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric ANOVA should be used. However, Gavin, H (2008) states that parametric tests are the most widely used tests in statistical analysis. The parametric test offered in the two-way ANOVA window assumes normal distribution and equal variances between groups. Even if it is not certain about both these criteria, the parametric test assuming equal variance is a very robust test and should be safe to use. Secondly, general cases in each cell were reasonably large (i.e., greater than 30) which will reduce the detrimental effect of the violation of the normality assumption (Andy P Field, 2009; A. P Field, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition, in this study, dependent variables were measured using a 6-point scale.

In order to identify whether there are statistically significant differences in the responses (strains) of members of the study according to the difference between the groups of underlying variables, the test "two Way ANOVA" is used to illustrate the significant differences between the responses of members of the study according to the difference in crime type and one variable of interest.

Type of crimes difference in terms of education level, family state and family income status

Table 1 : Two way ANOVA results of the differences between the responses of study members in terms of crime type and age

Source	Housing condition		Education level		Family income states		Blocked opportunities	
	F	p-value	F	p-value	F	p-value	F	p-value
Age	3.273	.117	.139	.117	.801	.372	5.826	.016
Crime type	5.959	.000	7.224	.000	2.833	.011	6.881	.000

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Age crime type	.517	.763	1.657	.145	.738	.596	.941	.455
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Table 2 : Descriptive results of the differences between the responses of study members in terms of crime type

Type of recent Crime		House condition	Education and job	Family economic states	Blocked Opportunities
Drug us	Mean	3.593	3.989	3.267	4.381
	Std. Deviation	1.195	1.056	1.1360	.838
Violence	Mean	4.010	3.927	3.600	4.190
	Std. Deviation	1.079	1.1394	1.049	.981
Stealing Goods	Mean	3.81	3.758	3.464	4.319
	Std. Deviation	1.309	1.175	1.169	1.207
Sexual Offences	Mean	4.285	4.532	4.040	3.942
	Std. Deviation	1.075	1.149	.987	1.378
Drink Alcoholic	Mean	3.622	3.458	3.233	3.873
	Std. Deviation	1.049	1.331	.827	1.105
Killing	N	4.519	4.184	4.052	3.639
	Std. Deviation	.956	.773	.803	.961
Others	Mean	2.625	2.203	2.050	4.982
	Std. Deviation	.475	.508	.563	.260

Family state lead to differences in strain variables

According to Table 16, there is no significant confirmation indicating that family situation categories lead to differences in the blocked opportunities strains where the resulting p-values are bigger than .05. However, the interaction factor shows that crime types can interact significantly with family situation strains. On the other hand, the two ways of ANOVA test detect significant differences in the remaining strains. By looking at the resulting means for housing strain and family income states, it is noted from Table 17 that those who live alone or with friends agree with these strains, while they seem to slightly agree with the remaining strains. Using the LDS test which is displayed in Table 18, persons from these categories are observed not to be statistically different from each other, while they are significantly different from those who live with parents or a single parent. The significant difference in housing condition, Education level and family income states strains reported between persons who live with parents or a single parent. In terms of significant interaction between crime type and family state.

Type of strains and family economic status

Table 3 : Two way ANOVA results of the differences between the responses of study members in terms of crime type and family state

Source	Housing condition		Education level		Family income states		Blocked opportunities	
	F	p-value	F	p-value	F	p-value	F	p-value
Parent alive	2.741	.044	2.152	.094	5.731	.001	2.141	.096
Crime type	2.866	.010	5.091	.000	4.115	.001	1.588	.151
Parent alive crime type	1.788	.051	1.171	.305	.799	.651	1.490	.128

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Table 4 : Descriptive results of the differences between the responses of study members in terms of family state

Parent alive		House condition	Education and job	Family economic states	Blocked Opportunities
Father	Mean	4.004	3.995	3.966	4.285
	Std. Deviation	1.094	1.253	.999	.7993
Mother	Mean	3.388	3.531	2.919	4.464
	Std. Deviation	1.207	1.267	.94195	.890
Both	Mean	3.962	3.928	3.563	4.175
	Std. Deviation	1.191	1.180	1.104	1.196
Neither	Mean	2.100	3.708	1.533	4.000
	Std. Deviation	.1549	1.236	.450	.894

Table 5 : LSD results of the differences between the responses of study members in terms of family state using p-value

Parent alive	Housing condition	Education level	Family income states	Blocked opportunities
Father mother	.025	-	.000	-
Father both	.848	-	.041	-
Father neither	.000	-	.000	-
Mother both	.005	-	.000	-
Mother either	.009	-	.002	-
Both either	.000	-	.000	-

By investigating the differences in the underlying strains between four groups showing whether the person's parents are alive or not, the results of two ways ANOVA given in Table 16 shows that the significant differences between these groups are attributed to the housing condition and family income states. It is very interesting to notice from Table 19 that the persons who lost their parents show low mean (namely, agree with these strains), and hence by using the LSD test, their average strains are significantly different from the averages of those who live with at least one parent. Also, the strains for persons, who live with one parent, are statistically different from those who live with both parents, but it can be noted that those who live with their father are similar to those who live with both parents with respect to housing condition.

Summary

This section presents the results of the impact of individual factors and strain factors dimensions on juvenile offenders. Seven questions are mainly set and tested by using two-way between-groups analyses of variance (ANOVA). Regarding the first question relating to self-confidence, the statement "Overall, I have a lot to be proud of" marked the highest responses (24%), they agree that they can do things as well as most people. However, for the second question, the interaction between age and crime type is reported not to be significant for the all strains. On the other hand, the descriptive statistics reveals that both



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age groups tend to have low mean blocked opportunities, while the mean is slightly higher for the other strains.

Whereas, for question three, there are significant differences in the strains according to the difference between crime type for the all strains, other crime type is noted to have low mean (namely, agree). Based on the LSD test, the other crime type is found to be significantly different from the crime types. According to the LSD test, drug use, violence and theft do not differ significantly. Sexual offences show moderate mean (slightly disagree) and it is found to be significantly different from violence, stealing of goods, drinking of alcohol in terms of the educational background and family income status. Killing is generally noted to have moderate mean. It based on the LSD test that can be considered as a significant factor for raising difference in blocked opportunities. Fourthly, the significant difference in housing condition, educational background and family income states, is reported between persons who live with their parents or with a single parent.

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