EXPERIENCES AND CHALLENGES OF DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES IN DEALING WITH DELINQUENT CHILDREN IN BOTSWANA

Kenneth Moabi Matlakele

Student No: 3419973

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Faculty of Community and Health Sciences,
University of the Western Cape

Supervisor: Dr C. J. Erasmus

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ABSTRACT

Over the past decade, there has been a dramatic increase in the study of family structure and its impact on child well-being, growth, as well as development of delinquency behaviour. However, there is limited reliable literature on what experiences and challenges the different family structures encounter, in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore and describe the experiences and challenges the different family structures face, in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

The study utilised an explorative-descriptive qualitative methodological approach. Semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were used to collect data from five focus group discussions with learners at the Bana Ba Metsi School, individual interviews with staff members, working with learners, as well as individual interviews with families of some learners, making up a research sample of 47 participants for the entire study. The collected data was analysed using a thematic analysis method.

The participants reported that their children’s delinquent activities led to mostly negative experiences, such as shame, embarrassment, psychological pain, discrimination, stress and depression. They also reported happiness, due to their children’s behaviour modification, as a result of attending the Bana Ba Metsi School. It is evident from the findings, though, that they encountered challenges, such as the long distance between their homes and the school, the lack of communication with their children, the lack of resources, as well as the lack of family support.

However, they disclosed strategies that they employed to deal with the challenges, such as attending support groups, counselling, family discussions and prayer. In conclusion, the results of this study have practical implications for all personnel dealing with such families, including the social welfare departments, as well as schools coping with juveniles.
KEYWORDS

Family

Family structure

Family types

Children

Experiences

Challenges

Dealing (coping)

Delinquency

Delinquent behaviour

Bronfenbrenner’s Bio-ecological systems theory

Social constructionism
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS: Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome

BAISIV: Botswana AIDS Impact Survey IV

CADUBG: Classified as Destitute under Botswana government

HIV: Human Immuno-deficiency Virus

TUDRP: Temporary under Drought Relief Programme

UNICEF: United Nations Children’s Fund

UN: United Nations

UNODC: United Nations on Drugs and Crime

UNFPA: United Nations Population Fund

ZCC: Zion Christian Church
DECLARATION STATEMENT

I declare that the study entitled, “Experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana,” is a result of my own research. All the sources used in this study, have been indicated and fully acknowledged, by means of complete references.

Name: Kenneth Moabi Matlakele

Date: December 2015

Signed: ………………………………
DEDICATIONS

This study is dedicated to my late mother, Ms Monyadi Janet Matlakele, my late friend, Ms Maipelo Shillah Bimbo and to the many families working hard to support their children in becoming better citizens of Botswana, despite the many hurdles they face. God bless you all.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

1.1. Background and Rationale

A definition for child or juvenile delinquency is, criminal acts committed by youths under the legal age of 18 years (Siegel & Welsh, 2009; Botswana Children’s Act, 2009). Shoemaker (2010; 2013) further describes it as offenses that warrant discipline, such as running away from home, absence from school, and disobeying the lawful commands of parents or legal guardians. Some commonly identified delinquent acts include vandalism, stealing, simple assaults, underage drinking, truancy, bullying and sexual acts (Malete, 2007; Matsoga, 2003; Central Statistics Office, 2014a; 2015a).

In 2011, United Nations on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2013) showed that 8531 juveniles came into formal contact with the police and/or the criminal justice system in Botswana. Formal contact with the police and/or criminal justice system means, persons suspected, arrested or cautioned, for a criminal offence, at the national level (UNODC, 2013). In addition, Central Statistics Office (2015a) reported that there was an increase in primary school dropouts, from 3026 to 3350, documented between 2011 and 2012. They further identified teenage pregnancy, bullying, truancy and substance abuse, as some of the reasons leading to primary and secondary school dropouts in Botswana. In 2012, they recorded 77 cases of teenage pregnancy, 35 of bullying, 2345 of truancy and 32 of substance abuse at primary schools. In addition, they recorded 801 cases of teenage pregnancy, 20 of bullying, 1408 of truancy and 19 of substance abuse at secondary schools. These high numbers of delinquent acts are an issue of national concern and as such, warrant attention at home and in the community.
Studies have shown that there is a relationship between family structure and the probability of a child becoming delinquent (Krohn, Hall & Lizotte, 2009; Aldrige, Shute, Ralphs & Medina, 2011; Benson, & Buehler, 2012; Biblarz, & Stacey, 2010; Craigie, Brooks-Gunn & Waldfogel, 2010; Alfrey, 2015; Fry, 2010). Some studies reveal that changes in the family structure, plays a major role in contributing to child delinquency (Krohn et al., 2009; Schroeder, Osgood & Oghia, 2010; Balogi, 2004). Ngale (2009) established five factors of family structure that accounted for children’s delinquency in Cameroon. These are: co-habiting parent homes and non-intact married two-parent homes; permissive parenting style; financial disempowerment of both males and females; overcrowded homes; and heavy job time constraints, which dominated quality time that parents should be spending with their children. In addition, the common assumption is that child delinquency mostly occurs in female-headed families, as compared to two parent families (Singh & Kiran, 2014).

According to Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, van der Laan, Smeenk and Gerris (2009), juvenile delinquency is associated with parenting and the lack of support from the parent of the same sex. Doggett (n.d.), however, argues that children, who spent the minimum amount of quality time with their guardians, are more likely to be delinquent, irrespective of whether they are from a single-parent or two-parent household. In addition, Alfrey (2015) asserts that child delinquency is associated with family structure and the criminal behaviour of children, even when the socio-economic status is controlled. Certain research studies also indicate that youth from low-income families, may be more vulnerable to adolescent delinquency, compared to those from high-income families (Alex Mason, Hitch, Kosterman, McCarty, Herrenkohl & David Hawkins, 2010). The aforementioned studies have revealed the statistics of delinquent children in Botswana, as well as the possible causes, however, very few studies have attempted to establish the experiences and challenges encountered by different family structures of
delinquent children. In addition, limited information had been documented on how these families cope in dealing with delinquent children.

1.2. Theoretical framework

The bio-ecological systems theory, in conjunction with social constructionism, forms the theoretical underpinning of this study. Bronfenbrenner’s Bio-ecological systems theory (1979; 2004) views human development as a person-in-environment, meaning that the way in which an individual interacts with his/her environment, moulds his/her behaviour. According to Bronfenbrenner and Lerner (2004, as cited in Kaakinen, Gedaly-Duff, Hanson & Coehlo, 2010), the Bio-ecological system is the creation of human beings from blended forces of children’s genetic nature and environment. This means that children’s behaviour develop in accordance with their familial genes and the environment in which they live. According to this theory, five environmental levels affect individuals’ growth, namely, microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem and chronosystem (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blackmore, Berenbaum & Liben, 2009). The researcher of the current deliberately chose this theory as a guide, as family forms the microenvironment of the child, which has direct and indirect influences on the child’s behaviour and the family. Even though each type of family structure raises children in their own way, it is worth noting that the environmental forces play a significant role in determining the behavioural output of the child. Hence, all layers of the bio-ecological systems theory play a part in child’s development and behaviour. Conversely, the child’s behaviour also has an impact on the family.

Social constructionism, assumes that individuals’ involved in any situation are best suited to describe it from their own point of view, in their own setting, thereby, socially constructing an understanding about their situation, for others to know about it (Mertens, 2010; Rogers, 2010;
Creswell, 2009; Gergen & Davis, 1985). By applying the theory of social constructionism to this study, the researcher seeks to understand how different families deal with delinquent children, from their own point of view, as social constructionism asserts that there is no single truth and that knowledge is contextual for those who have lived or experienced it (Babbie, 2014). Social constructionism was, therefore, the best paradigm to unfold the opinions of different people, who have experienced dealing with delinquent children. In addition, it assisted the researcher to understand that the same situation could pose different challenges to different people, depending on their context. These theories will be further explored in Chapter Two.

1.3. Problem statement

Child delinquency is a topical issue in Botswana. Studies have reported vandalism of school property, stealing, simple assaults, bullying, substance abuse, absent from school and parental disobedience, as some of the delinquent behaviours in the country (Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012; Mangope, Dinama & Kefhilwe, 2012; Hulela & Matsolo, 2011; Malete, 2007; Matsoga, 2003; Central Statistics Office, 2014a; 2015a). The First Botswana Youth Risk Behavioural Surveillance Survey (2012) assumes that challenges, such as alcohol and drug abuse, multiple sexual partners and attempted suicide that youth between the ages of 10 and 19 years find themselves involved in during their development, perhaps did not exist 20 years ago. Factors, such as broken homes to single parent headed households (Dintwat, 2010), are proposed as possible causes of child delinquency in Botswana (Balogi, 2004). Other studies conducted in Botswana have focused on how family and environmental factors contribute to child delinquency (Balogi, 2004; Mangope et al., 2012; Mphale, 2014). While the statistics of delinquent children and the possible causes are well known; understanding the perceptions of the people, who experience the effects of raising these children, have gone unnoticed by writers. Therefore, this study attempts to understand what experiences and challenges different
family structures with delinquent children encounter, as well as what coping strategies they utilize to deal with the problem. Understanding the perceptions of these different people will guide the social service providers to provide families encountering such challenges with knowledge and skills that will help them effectively manage delinquent children.

1.4. Research question

What are the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana?

1.5. Aims and objectives of the study

The research question has subsequently resulted in the formulation of the aim and objectives of the study.

1.5.1. Aim of the study

The aim is to explore and describe the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

1.5.2. Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are:

- To explore the experiences of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children,
- To explore the challenges of different family structures in dealing delinquent children; and
- To describe the coping strategies employed by different family structures in managing the challenges of dealing delinquent children.
1.6. Research approach and design

This study used a qualitative methodological approach. Polit and Beck (2010), describes it as a holistic method of inquiry that addresses particular questions of interest by collecting data from the natural setting. They further explain it, as a flexible method that involves more than one method of data collection, and requires the researcher to spend some time in the field of inquiry. Newby (2014) also describes it as an integrative-holistic and naturalistic inquiry method that demonstrates that there is no single reality determining the way people behave; it helps the researcher understand how people see the world around them. In addition, it is a method of inquiry, which allows the researcher to inspect individuals’ experiences, from their own context, using in-depth interviews, observations and focus group discussions (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2010).

The current study utilised an explorative-descriptive research design. Babbie and Mouton (2001) is of the opinion that the use of an exploratory research design uncovers salient aspects of a subject, as well as its relevance to the research. Additionally, descriptive research design is a method that describes features of the study population, following data collected from a given sample (Burns & Grove, 2005). An exploratory research design was the most suitable for this study, as it allowed the researcher to gain insight into the experiences and challenges of different family structures, when dealing with delinquent children in Botswana, consequently, drawing a picture from their constructed reality.

A qualitative approach permitted the researcher to have direct interaction with the participants in their own natural setting, which facilitated the yield of rich descriptive data (Hicks, 2004; Hennink et al., 2010). The researcher selected this approach as the method of choice, based on the latter, and the explorative-descriptive design assisted the researcher in searching and
providing creative facts related to the experiences and challenges that the different family structures face with delinquent children.

1.7. Research methodology

According to Krysik and Finn (2010) and Polit and Beck (2010), a research methodology comprises of the steps and techniques, followed in structuring and carrying out the study.

1.7.1. Population and sampling techniques

A study population refers to individuals with definite features that are applicable to research subject (Hennink et al., 2010). The population for this study were parents, or guardians, living in Botswana with children under the age of 18 years, attending school at Bana Ba Metsi School in Sekandoku village. In addition, staff members (social workers, teachers and counsellors), who work closely with the children at the Bana Ba Metsi School and the Bana Ba Letsatsi centre, were interviewed, as well.

The study utilised purposive sampling techniques to select participants for the study. Purposive sampling implies thoughtfully and openly selecting participants, who could provide rich data on the topic of discussion from a larger population (Hennink et al., 2010). In addition, Creswell (2007) states that the chosen cases or people are preferred to give a clear understanding of the research problem and phenomena in the study. Therefore, the population of interest in this study were all families of children aged between 12 and 18 years, attending school at Bana Ba Metsi School, Sekandoku village in Botswana. This criterion was set based on the Botswana Children’s Act (2009).
1.7.2. Data collection methods

The researcher conducted data collection through focus group discussions (FGD) and individual interviews, using an interview guide as well as taking of field notes. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to focus on the full picture of the participant’s experience and insights into the topic under study (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011). Field notes refer to minutes the researcher makes while observing behaviour and activities at the research site (Creswell, 2009). An interview refers to a two-way verbal communication, in which the researcher and the participants will be working together to the understanding of the subject matter (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Burns & Grove, 2005). All the interviews were audio recorded with the permission of the participants. Regarding the focus group discussions that were conducted, De Vos et al. (2011: 351-361) state that the purpose of a focus group discussion ‘is to promote self-disclosure among participants’. A focus group discussion is a type of discussion interview with some participants, in order to collect data, managed by the facilitator, who serves as a leading person for the discussion (De Vos et al., 2011; Millward, 2012).

The researcher sought informed consent from the stakeholders and participants, as well as consent to interview youth from their legal guardian, the social worker. The researcher conducted a pilot study with one family, one FGD, and one staff member to test the effectiveness of the data collection process. Certain questions on the interview guide had to be modified prior to the data collection of the main study.

1.7.3. Data analysis

Data analysis, according to De Vos et al. (2011), means converting collected data into findings. Creswell (2007) further states that data analysis consists of preparing and
organising data, grouping related topics to form themes, and presenting data in the form of discussions, supported by quotes from the participants. The researcher utilized thematic data analysis, identified by Creswell (2007), to analyse collected data in this study. The 5 steps of Creswell are as follows:

(1) Creating and organising data files (managing data), at this step, the researcher reduced large amounts of data into smaller units by simplifying the sentences or words;

(2) Reading through the text (peruse), making margin notes and forming initial codes, reading and re-reading the data to gain a better understanding and assembling related data;

(3) Categorizing clarified information received from the participants, placing coded data together in groups called themes;

(4) Interpreting information to give meaning to the participants’ experience and continuously refining themes in order to generate clear meanings and names for each of them; and

(5) Reducing codes to themes and grouping them into meaningful units, thereby creating the research point of view to emphasize the data findings and themes (see Table 5.3 in Chapter Five).

1.7.4. Data verification

In qualitative research, trustworthiness is a key concept and the purpose is to evaluate the study’s worthiness. The researcher applied the following principles to assess trustworthiness; credibility, dependability, transferability and conformability (De Vos et al., 2011; Flick, 2009). Credibility involves establishing the validity or truthfulness of the research findings, achieved through triangulation of different methods, prolonged engagement, or peer debriefing (De Vos et al., 2011; Flick, 2009; Rubin & Babbie, 2011).
The researcher spends extended time with participants, collects data and seeks clarification from participants (De Vos et al., 2011; Rubin & Babbie, 2011). Additionally, the researcher used the concept of triangulation, utilizing multiple sources of data to ensure clarity and collecting additional data to create rich credible data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The data collection tools were interviews, focus group discussions and the taking of field notes. In addition to the concept of triangulation, families were sources of data, as well as the delinquent children and staff members.

Dependability is concerned with replicability and consistency of results; it needs to explore whether a different researcher would achieve the same results, with the same participants in their natural setting (Flick, 2009). The researcher achieved transferability by using purposive sampling to collect rich, detailed data and providing background of the study (Flick, 2009; Rubin & Babbie, 2011), as transferability seeks to determine whether the results of study could be transferred to other contexts.

Lastly, conformability refers to the point at which, the findings of the study could be validated by others, and requires that the researcher maintains a neutral position by respecting participants’ opinions, not labelling them or influencing their views, consequently ensuring that the findings could be confirmed (De Vos et al., 2011).

1.7.5. Ethical considerations

The researcher sought ethical clearance from the University of the Western Cape’s Senate Research Committee. In addition, the researcher requested permission to conduct the study in Botswana from two government ministries, the Ministry of Education and Skills Development and the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development. The
participants signed consent forms after receiving full information on the study aims and objectives.

Taking into consideration that some of the participants were children, the researcher sought consent to participation from their social worker, who was their legal custodian. The informed consent form included adequate information about the research (De Vos et al., 2011). Participation was voluntary, meaning that the researcher recruited the participants, following a clear explanation of the study, and after advising them that it was their choice to participate. The researcher also informed the participants of their right to withdraw at any time during the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; De Vos et al., 2011), without prejudice. The participants were assured of confidentiality and their right to anonymity, meaning that the data shared during the data collection process would not be disclosed, or their identity revealed, to anyone (De Vos et al., 2011).

The researcher obtained permission for the audio recording of the interviews through negotiation with the participants. The participants were psychologically prepared for the risks and benefits of the study, as it was clearly outlined in the information sheet (see Appendix G). The researcher informed the participants that professional counselling would be available to anyone, who experienced any emotional discomfort during the interviews or any time during study period. At the end of interviews, the researcher thanked the participants for their contribution and, again, advised them to seek counselling, if the need arose.
1.8. Significance of the study

The findings of this study benefit Botswana society, considering that juvenile delinquency is, currently, a huge issue of concern. The study will add new information to the limited body of knowledge on family structure and child delinquency in Botswana. In addition, it will contribute to the existing strategies utilised by social service providers, in assisting families. Consequently, it will provide psychological support to all the different family structures, helping them to deal with the challenges of the behaviours of delinquent children, in order to cope with and manage them adequately. This could lead to the provision of information on various ways of raising children, who are socially and morally well adjusted, as well as respectful members of society, due to the new knowledge.

1.9. Definition of terms and concepts

**Juvenile Delinquency:** youth or minors under the age of 18 years, who commit crime or deviant acts like shoplifting, vandalism and displaying anti-social behaviour or neglect responsibility, like going to school (Siegel & Welsh, 2011).

**Family:** a social unit comprising of more than two individuals, who are joined together by blood, marriage or adoption, and depend on each other for emotional, physical and economical support (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Strom-Gottfried & Larsen, 2006).

**Family structure:** defined as what constitutes the family unit, in terms of number, composition, membership, how members of the family relate to each other and members may or may not be blood related (Kisrt-Ashman, Grafton & Hull, 2009). It also refers to different forms of family types, in different sizes, defined in terms of legal relationships as nuclear, extended, single parent, cohabiting and others that may deem important in this study (Clark, 2003).
**Household:** number of people living together in the same compound, who are either legally related (in terms of marriage, blood or adoption), socially or psychologically related like friends or housemates (Ward & Bélanger, 2011). It is also referred to as the place where family members reside (Dintwat, 2010).

**Child:** Botswana Children’s Act No. 8 (2009), clearly states that a child is any individual, under the age of 18 years, whom the Act makes provision for the promotion and protection of their rights. A child is an individual of either sex, who has not yet reached maturity stage and is normally between infancy and youth stage (Webster comprehensive dictionary, 2000).

**Bio-ecological systems theory:** this is an idea developed by Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979), which states that a person’s behaviour depends on the way they interact with their environment; nature affects an individual’s growth, as human beings are actively involved in their own growth (Rogers, 2010; Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

**Experience:** an individual’s life-acquired knowledge learnt commonly through immediate observation, and only that person has knowledge and skill over it; or a person’s skill or knowledge gained through direct involvement or observation in life (Webster comprehensive dictionary, 2000; Sloth-Nielson, 2004).

**Challenge:** a new, or old, but mostly new, task that tests one’s skill or knowledge by provoking a person’s state of stability, mainly by giving them problems, thus demanding their attention (Hornby, 2000; Merriam-Webster, n.d.).

**Behaviour:** the way individuals conduct themselves in society or towards other people (Hornby, 2000).

**Social constructionism:** refers to a theory, which suggests that individuals are formed and/or shaped by their life experiences and their social human network, as well as the way each
individual perceives one another (Rogers, 2010; Sugiman, Gergen, Wagner & Yamada, 2008; Mertens, 2010).

1.10. Outline of chapters

Chapter One is an introduction to the study of how different family structures deal with delinquent children in Botswana, and provides a context and background to the study. It also introduces the research questions, aims, objectives, definitions, motivation, study significance and ethic considerations.

Chapter Two presents the detailed theoretical framework that guided the study. The two theories formed the studies theoretical framework are bio-ecological systems theory and social constructionism theory.

Chapter Three presents a detailed discussion of reviewed literature, which explained different family structures, their impact on juvenile delinquency and how they deal with delinquent children.

Chapter Four gives clear details of the research methodology utilised in the study. The areas covered include, the study design and approach, the study population, data collection methods, data analysis, data verification, limitations of the study and ethical considerations.

Chapter Five presents the results, as well as a discussion of the main findings, integrated with previous research, identified in Chapter Three, and linking them with the theoretical framework guiding this study, as discussed in Chapter Two.

Chapter Six concludes the study by giving the overall summary of the study chapters, study limitations and suggests recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on exploring the theoretical framework of this study for the purpose of gaining an understanding of the relationship between human development, specifically child development from birth to 18 years, and child delinquency, therefore, building the theoretical perspective of this study. The first part of this chapter briefly explores child development and delinquency, followed by a comprehensive description of the leading theory by Urie Bronfenbrenner’s bio-ecological systems theory, as well as social constructionism as the supporting theory to this study. The two theories provide emphasis on how family structure and juvenile delinquency are related and how the two systems affect each other.

2.2 Child development and delinquency

2.2.1. Child development

Different scholars define human development in various ways, but they all agree that there is an alteration in physical, emotional, social and cognitive aspects (Lindon, 2012; Sigelman & Rider, 2006; Santrock, 2011). Development is the changing creation of an individual’s natural setting, how s/he relates with it, his/her growing ability to learn, sustain, or modify its properties (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Bronfenbrenner (1989) continues to explain human development as a lifelong transformation of the way an individual identifies and interacts with his/her setting. In addition, human development is an adjustment in conduct or awareness, resulting from the interaction of the
individual’s genetic characteristics and his/her surroundings (Huston & Bentley, 2010). Furthermore, it is an eventual alteration of patterns that start from beginning and continue throughout a period of time, occurring in various spheres, such as alteration in physical being, social being, thought process, emotional acceptance and knowledge (Keenan & Evans, 2009; Howe, 2010). Neaum (2010) affirms that forms of conduct for children change radically in the first few years of their development. She further highlights that children learn and develop from a distinctive background, therefore, each child is unique, as well as the people they relate with and the settings in which they develop. Since these different settings are co-dependent, they will critically influence each child’s development.

2.2.2. Child delinquency

Child delinquency, or juvenile delinquency, as it is commonly known, is defined as criminal acts committed by youths under the legal age, meaning, under the age of 18 years (Siegel & Welsh, 2009; Botswana Children’s Act, 2009). Shoemaker (2010; 2013) explains it as offenses, other than criminal behaviour, that warrants discipline, like running away from home, absence from school, as well as disobeying the lawful commands of parents or legal guardians. Various factors like problems in the home, at school and the neighbourhood, influences youth to get involved in dangerous behavioural acts, including but not limited to, drug abuse, alcohol use and precocious sexuality (Siegel & Welsh, 2009). In addition, some other factors that might cause turmoil in the homes are household routines, instability in the caregiver’s intimate affairs, separation from caregivers, as well as dynamic salary fluctuations for disadvantaged families (Evans & Wachs, 2010). Additionally, family is a social environment that nurtures the child’s character over time, and child delinquency does not appear rapidly, but develops in their ecological system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).
In order to understand child delinquency and its impact on the different family structures, it is, therefore, essential to recognise the surroundings in which the child is raised, as well as all the factors associated with it. Bronfenbrenner (1979) declares that environmental factors affect human development and behaviour, and the human development theory by Urie Bronfenbrenner (Bio-ecological Systems Theory) provides an explanation of such external social factors that influence child development.

2.3. Bio-ecological Systems Theory

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1917-2005) developed the bio-ecological systems theory in order to understand human development. He defined the ecological environment as a set of layered constructions; each inside the next and at the centre of all the structures is the developing child. He argues that it is appropriate to study human development by observing children and adults in the natural environment, rather than in the laboratory (Keenan & Evans, 2009). Kurt Lewin’s work, ‘Field theory’, significantly influenced the theory’s development, and proposed that an individual’s behaviour is a result of the characteristics of a person, as well as their surroundings (Lewthwaite, 2011). Bronfenbrenner initially named the theory, ecological systems theory, addressing only the child’s surroundings but later modified the name in 1994, recognising the child’s biological disposition, therefore, calling it the bio-ecological systems theory (Kaakinen et al., 2010).

Bronfenbrenner viewed human development as a person-in-environment, meaning that the way an individual interacts with his/her environment, moulds his/her behaviour, in a particular period (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007). According to Bronfenbrenner and Lerner (2004, cited in Kaakinen et al., 2010), a bio-ecological system is the creation of human beings from the blended forces of children’s genetic nature and environment. In general, the bio-ecological
systems theory views an individual holistically in his/her environment (Aldgate, Jones, Rose & Jeffery, 2006). Rogers (2010), further suggests that individuals are actively involved in their development, and that surroundings and biological development, change with time. Rogers (2010), continues that individuals are born with both positive and negative traits, influenced, equally, by both their environment, as well as the way they are raised, socially.

The bio-ecological systems theory has five environmental layers (see Figure 2.1) that affect an individual’s development with the child at the centre, namely micro-system, meso-system, exo-system, macro-system and chrono-system (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blakemore et al., 2009).

Figure 2.1: Diagrammatic illustration of Bronfenbrenner’s bio-ecological model (Kaakinen et al., 2010)
2.3.1. Description of Bio-ecological Systems Theory layers

2.3.1.1. The microsystem

The microsystem is the layer that the child has direct interaction with; it signifies the person and their immediate surroundings in which they have bi-directional interaction (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blakemore et al., 2009; Rogers, 2010; Berk, 2006). Additionally, Bronfenbrenner stresses that it is the layer where the child plays an active role in its own development (Arnett & Maynard, 2013). The family has a major influential role on the child in the early stages of development. In the family, parents affect the child’s development, and children’s behaviour affect their parents (Wilmshurst, 2013; Arnett & Maynard, 2013; Berk, 2006). The micro-system includes the connection the child develops with each parent, siblings, extended family members, as well as his/her peers, friends, teachers and other adults in the society (Arnett & Maynard, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The child’s environment interaction experiences are mostly with family, school, neighbourhood and peers, which further includes all activities and roles among them (Wilmshurst, 2013; Arnett & Maynard, 2013; Kaakinen et al., 2010; Keenan & Evans 2009; Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

When applying this environmental layer to this study, the child is core in every family structure, be it single-parent, two-parent or extended family, and also includes the siblings of the developing child; therefore, the immediate environment for the development of a child is the parent(s) and siblings, making up the family. As such, the nature of communication between the developing child, parent(s) and siblings is vital, as it yields either positive or negative effects on the family structure. Family plays a major role in all aspects of child development, in terms
of providing food, security, health needs, as well as imparting good cultural beliefs. Therefore, the type and stability of the family into which the child is born, plays an integral role in providing support for the child’s positive development. Conversely, if the child is born into an unstable family, it might contribute negatively to the outcome of the child’s behaviour. Evans and Wachs (2010) support this notion with their finding that aggressive marital fights have a possible impact on child’s behaviour and developmental outcomes.

The school environment, including day care centres, is another micro system, in which children spends most of their time interacting with colleagues, peers, friends and teachers. As such, it is important to understand that it contributes to the child’s development, as a different atmosphere from the home environment. Children meet these individuals with very different values and cultural backgrounds to what they learn at home. The question is, ‘Do their influence lead to good or bad behaviour?’

Wallander and Siegel (1995) identify peers as the microsystem that could influence children, especially adolescents, into risk taking behaviours, such as antisocial behaviour, substance use/abuse and sexual acts. The neighbourhood area is another important area in microsystem level since the child associates with that environment, as well as the people around. As such, they can see common behaviours of the people in this environment, and the way they interact with their environment, could shape their behaviour (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007). This is similar to an assertion made by Albert Bandura’s social learning theory, which states that people modify their behaviour based on what they have observed from other people around them (Gerrig, 2013). For example, a mining township in
Botswana is commonly associated with lots of money, and as such, people around those areas drink alcohol and party more than in other areas. Therefore, a child growing up in this environment might assume that money is everything. In contrast, those living in tourist areas, meet different people from different cultures and might learn things, they assume are right, while in their communities those things might be social problems, such as smoking cigarettes. Similarly, those living in crime bound areas might perceive it to be normal. According to Bronfenbrenner’s model, children learn from all that they see around them, and observational learning, described by Gerrig (2013) confirms this.

Lastly, the **religious or church community** is another area where different families affiliate, in order to teach their children good moral behaviour, as well as how to be good citizens in the society (Willmshurst, 2013; Berk, 2006). However, like other environments, it differs from one family to family, and, therefore, contributes to the child’s development and behaviour of a particular culture. In practicality, the child experiences the microsystem with its diverse culture that might lead to a child’s positive or negative behaviour output, which would eventually affect family as a whole. Undeniably, according to the literature accessed, it takes a whole community (family, school, church, and neighbourhood) to raise a child.

### 2.3.1.2. The mesosystem

The mesosystem layer provides a link of interaction between members of the microsystem, for example school and family (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blakemore et al., 2009). Wilmshurst (2013) is of the opinion that the value
of interaction between the microsystem factors can have important effects on the
development of the child. For example, the application of the mesosystem layer in
this study, means the connection of these different family structures and other
microsystem structures, like school, church and neighbours within the community.
Furthermore, the state of the home environment might affect the child’s academic
results at school. For example, the child being left home alone, while the parents
are at work (Ruiz-Casares & Heymann, 2009) means, no supervision or assistance
with school-work, which results in poor academic performance and a negative
relationship with the school. Conversely, a positive relationship between the family
and the school, can improve the academic results of the child. Overall, a good
connection between the family, school and neighbourhood can positively influence
the child’s development (Berk, 2006).

2.3.1.3. The exosystem

The exosystem layer refers to a greater community system, in which the child does
not have direct interaction; however, interactions, such as parents’ relationships
with co-workers, can affect their development (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst,
2013; Blakemore et al., 2009). Rogers (2010) further emphasizes that the
exosystem layer includes issues related to the social and economic context, and
may affect the individual directly or indirectly. If the parent(s) or siblings’
relationships with their co-workers are positive, they may learn from the co-
workers, how to manage a delinquent child. A good relationship between these two
systems (family and work environment) could lead to positive child development
and provide support to the family, whenever there is a need (Blakemore et al., 2009;
Berk, 2006). For example, a manager at work might grant a mother some days off
to attend to her child’s academic progress at school, thereby, providing a positive reinforcement for the child’s development.

Parents find it hard to spend any time with a delinquent child, as result of anger and frustration (Gault-Sherman, 2012). However, if there is support from other structures that are not directly involved in the development of the child, it can assist families to spend time with their children. An example would be, adjusting the work schedule of the parent(s) to suit the family’s needs.

In conclusion, these systems do indeed matter in a child’s development. The effectiveness of parents’ performance in the family roles, may be influenced by roles, loads, stress or support coming from other settings that are not directly involved in the child’s development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Therefore, the family’s ability to function and nurture morally developed children, depends on external factors, like a flexible work schedule and quality healthcare systems (Berk, 2006). Also, the presence of extended family and friends, who can offer guidance, company and help with finances, prevents the family from isolating themselves from the rest of the community, therefore, reducing the rate of conflicts and child abuse in those families (Berk, 2006; Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

2.3.1.4. The macrosystem

The macrosystem layer refers to the individual’s cultural values, customs and the laws that influence official settings (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blakemore et al., 2009; Berk, 2006). For example, if government decides to enact a law that allows for the incarceration of any child under the age of 10 years, who commits a crime, the parent-child relationship can be affected directly, when free
access interaction with the child is curtailed. In addition, applying the macrosystem level to this study, social problems are defined differently by different societies. One society may perceive cigarette smoking, using alcohol and antisocial behaviour by children as the right thing to do, whereas other societies might perceive these activities as problematic.

For example, the concept of urban migration, or families migrating to urban areas, looking for employment opportunities and a better life, and in the process, meeting different families with diverse family values and cultural backgrounds (Bigombe & Khadiagala, 2004). Some of these families might define social problems differently. The challenge would be whether to judge according to an individual’s own cultural values, customs and laws, or to collaborate and discuss the differences. These interactions might have negative effects on different family structures, as the assumption is that immigrant children embrace bad behaviour, and may instigate delinquency, when other children copy that bad behaviour (Pauwels & Svensson, 2015).

Ultimately, these negative effects may also have unwanted impact on the other levels, such as affecting the links with other levels. For example, the poor relationship brought on by this societal shame, may lead to a fissure in the delinquent child’s immediate environment. Furthermore, when children grow up, factors, regarded by them as norms in their society, may influence their interactions. Children may become violent towards others, because of seeing crime and violence in their own environment (Cole & Chipaca, 2014).
2.3.1.5. The chronosystem

Lastly, the chronosystem signifies the dimension of time, in which events occur, in an individual’s environment. These events could be changing schools, or teachers, and influences the other layers of the system, as well (Kaakinen et al., 2010; Wilmshurst, 2013; Blakemore et al., 2009). In the case of this study, if a child is sent far away from home, it could affect the family, as the parents may feel that the child should be closer to them for guidance, during their development. Mosarwe (2013) indicates that the present developments of raising children in Botswana are serious challenges that could lead to delinquency. These developments come with modern parenting and, firstly, include having both parents working in order to realise the financial stability of the family. Secondly, is the manner in which children are disciplined, since they are rarely beaten, as in the past. Mosarwe (2013) asserts that the main challenge is the lack of supervision by parents, as they both work, and are too busy with their own affairs to bother with the children. The other challenge is use of alcohol and drugs by children who are not supervised by their parents. This clearly shows that the dimension of time plays a major role in child development; therefore, the chronosystem layer is applicable to this study.

Additionally, according to Bronfenbrenner, environment has a shifting power that affects child development, and not a static force that consistently moulds the child’s development (Berk, 2006). Time does not only refer to life events or environmental changes, but also to biological changes, in terms of the child growing older, therefore, transforming and building his/her own background and experiences (Berk, 2006). The critical issue, however, is how timing affects child development. Do the divorce of parents, and the death of any parent or sibling, have any impact
on child development? Ultimately, it is important to note that environmental transitions happen throughout the life span, for example, the birth of another child, going to school, parents getting married, or parent(s) changing jobs (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The bio-ecological systems theory is most appropriate for this study as it explains all the factors that have an influence on child development and how it might eventually lead to delinquency. Urie Bronfenbrenner emphasized in his theory that behaviour and development is mainly concerned with how the surroundings are perceived rather than how they may be in objective reality (Barnes, Katz, Korbin & O’Brien, 2006). He further interpreted humans and surroundings as reciprocally influencing structures that are shifting and adjusting over time (Berk, 2006; Barnes et al., 2006).

However, family forms the immediate microenvironment of the child that has both direct and indirect influences on the child’s development and behaviour. Furthermore, family provides the basic needs for the developing child, and since the interaction within different family structures is bi-directional, the child’s positive or negative behaviour can have an impact on the entire family system. Therefore, it makes sense to explore this interaction from the child’s position towards other family members. As such, understanding this bi-directional interaction, as well as the effects it has on the family’s point of view, is critical. Furthermore, the bio-ecological theory argues that experience in human development should not only be viewed as objective properties, but also as subjective properties experienced by the individual in his/her own environment.
(Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007). Undoubtedly, different families and people react to different situations and stress individually. The next section of this chapter explores and explains social constructionism theory relative to different family experiences in dealing with delinquent children.

2.4. Social constructionism theory

Social constructionism theory, developed from the study of interpretive understanding, called Hermeneutics, by Edmund Husserl and Wilhelm Dilthey, assumes that knowledge is socially constructed from the point of view of individuals, involved in a situation (Mertens, 2010; Rogers, 2010; Creswell, 2009; Mooney, Knox & Schacht, 2011; Gergen & Davis, 1985). In addition, it is mainly concerned with clarifying the processes by which people describe and explain, or alternatively, tell the story about the world around them (Gergen & Davis, 1985). Gergen and Davis (1985), as well as Burr (1995), define social constructionism in terms of the following assumptions;

1. What we take to be experience of the world, does not dictate the terms by which the world is understood. What people take to be knowledge of the world is not a product of induction, or the building and testing of general hypotheses. In other words, it means that people’s understanding does not merely rely on objective knowledge.

2. The terms in which the world is understood are social artefacts, products of historically situated interchanges among people; understandings of our surroundings is mainly influenced by culture, and as such, are seen as products of that particular culture, in that time and not the biological aspect.

3. Knowledge is sustained by social processes; the truth is not an observation, but rather the interaction between people, who live together in a certain place; and
4. Knowledge and social action go together, or forms of negotiated understanding are of critical significance in social life, as they are integrally connected with many other activities, in which people engage.

In general, social constructionism assumes that participants play an active role in research, since they seek understanding of the world in which they live and work (Creswell, 2009; De Vos et al., 2011; Lock & Strong, 2010). In addition, knowledge is socially constructed, depends on the society, and addresses, the reality of lived experiences, by different people, in their own environment (Aldgate et al., 2006). The theory argues that a person’s sense is a result of social interchange. In addition, they emphasize that there is no single truth, because people perceive environment around them differently. Furthermore, they highlighted that reality is uniquely experienced, interpreted and created by people, who have lived the experience. Moreover, Rogers (2010), affirms that people understand their own issues more than any other person does, and as such, they are in a better position to explain it. Zartler (2014) applied this theory to her research study, in which she explored how normative understandings, based on the nuclear family ideology, are linked to constructions of single-parent families. She alluded that the understanding of reality depends on the individual’s viewpoint.

Rogers (2010), further states that people are active in their own environment, full of meaningful objects, and identify interactions as reflections of their culture, history, language and experiences. The latter can be further explained as a problem that is whatever the society feels it is, for example, if a community feels smoking is not a problem, then it will be accepted as such. Alternatively, another community may see smoking as a problem, and as such, it will be seen as that. In summary, social constructionism is more interested in the creation of facts, rather than objective meaning. It seeks to understand multiple truths, rather than a single truth.
In addition, it stresses that people are actors and, therefore, make sense of interaction to form individual truths (Rogers, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, social constructionism connected well with bio-ecological systems theory, as the supporting paradigm. The two theories explain the link between human beings and their environment, during the time of development. The study explores experiences and challenges by different families in dealing with delinquent children. Social constructionism theory addresses the family as social beings, who are constructing meaning of their lived experiences, in their own setting. From bio-ecological systems theory, Bronfenbrenner speaks of bi-directional influences in child development; that the child’s behaviour might affect the parents or that they may influence the child’s development. Therefore, the theory guides the researcher to accept that different people, in the same situation, can have different experiences. In addition, it states that the same situation can pose different challenges to different people, depending on their context. This position also assumes that different people may have different coping strategies, when facing the same challenges. Therefore, this study aims to find the needed characteristics of different family experiences in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

2.5. Conclusion

Family structure is the core microsystem during the child’s developmental stage. However, other structures within the bio-ecological systems theory also influence the outcome behaviour of the developing child. All structures within the bio-ecological theory may act as contributing factors that lead to child delinquency, as it has been discussed under layers of the theory. Therefore, social constructionism theory plays an important role in understanding these different families and explaining their lived experiences. The relationship between different
family structures, delinquency and the effects of delinquency on the family will be further discussed and explained in the Chapter Three.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

This chapter explores a review of literature that focuses on child delinquency and family structure. It provides an overview of the child population and juvenile delinquency, types of family structure and their impact on child well-being. In addition, it discusses concepts, such as the impact of juvenile delinquency on the child, family and community. This chapter also discusses various methods, employed by individuals, to deal with the challenges associated with juvenile delinquency. Lastly, it gives a conceptual framework (see figure 3.1) that guides the entire chapter.

3.2. Juvenile delinquency

Children under the age of 18 years comprise approximately 2.2 billion of the total world population, which stands at 7.3 billion (UN, DESA, Population Division, 2015; World Bank, 2014; UNICEF World Population, 2015). In Sub-Saharan Africa, there are about 4.5 million children under the age of 18 years (UNICEF, World Population, 2015). Botswana, however, has around 811 thousand children under the age of 18 years (UNICEF, 2012). Juvenile delinquency is a cause for concern around the globe, and in 2011, approximately 97 000 children in most of the African countries, including Botswana, were brought into formal contact with the police for various criminal acts (UNODC, 2013). Botswana constituted nine percent (9%) of these children, who were brought before the police, and 246 of them were sent to prison and other rehabilitative institutions in 2011 (UNODC, 2013).
Juvenile delinquency has been defined previously, however, it can further be defined as children, who engage into adult-like behaviour, by rebelling their youthful state, in order to get involved in activities that include smoking, drinking alcohol, and/or minor theft (Patchin, 2006). In 1966, Howard Becker identified four types of delinquency; individual, group-supported, organised and situational delinquencies (cited in Venkatachalam & Aravindan, 2014). However, World Youth Report (2003) outlined some factors that contribute to juvenile delinquency as economic and social factors, urbanization, family migration, the media, neighbourhood and peer influence. A research study by Shader (2004) also found juvenile delinquency to be connected many factors, such as family, school, peer group, and community. In addition, it has been associated with poverty and peer delinquency (Graham & Bowling, 1995). Sociological and psychological effects have also been cited as contributing factors to juvenile delinquency (Ardoin & Bartling, 2010). Of the all factors linked to delinquency, family structure and the relations that parents have with their children, have been cited as the main contributing factors, leading to juvenile delinquency (Apel & Kaukinen, 2008; Leiber, Mack & Featherstone, 2009).

3.2.1. Types of juvenile delinquency

Youth under the age of 18 years get involved into different behaviours that are not accepted in society. Juvenile delinquency reveals various forms of behaviour with its own social context, the causes that are assumed to bring it about, and the forms of prevention or treatment most often suggested as appropriate for the type in question. These types of behaviours usually include youths, who commit serious crimes and those committing non-criminal acts. Serious crimes committed by youth ranges from selling drugs, juvenile gangs, murder, internal homicide, stealing and sexual assaults (Roberson, 2010). On the other hand, non-criminal behaviours (status offenses) include acts running away from home, truancy from school, disobeying the lawful commands of parents or
legal guardians, teenage drinking and smoking, as well as bullying (Roberson, 2010). In addition, Becker (1966: 226-238, cited in Venkatachalam & Aravindan, 2014) refers to four types of delinquencies; individual delinquency, group-supported delinquency, organized delinquency, and situational delinquency.

3.2.1.1. Individual delinquency

This type of delinquency refers to individuals, who misbehave on their own, and their behaviour, it is assumed, is caused by psychological problems associated with irrational broken family interaction patterns (Venkatachalam & Aravindan, 2014). In addition, individuals, who go through painful experiences in their earlier life, tend to behave in a manner that is unacceptable, despite putting the experiences behind them (Shoemaker, 2013). Besides, people with negative or bad personalities are, in most cases, associated with bad behaviour, leading to delinquency (Shoemaker, 2013; Siegel & Welsh, 2011).

3.2.1.2. Group-supported delinquency

Individuals, who commit acts of misbehaviour in groups, are mostly influenced by their environmental and home structures; therefore, the cause is not located in the individual personality or delinquency within the family (Venkatachalam & Aravindan, 2014). This type of delinquency is socially influenced by the socio-ecological structures around individuals, and, as youth primarily learn from their social groups, they may become delinquent, if they interact with groups that are inclined to violate the law (Siegel & Welsh, 2011). In addition, individuals may become delinquent because there is lack of commitment in their major social institutions, such as families, schools and peers (Siegel & Welsh, 2011).
3.2.1.3. Organized delinquency

Individuals, who form groups, such as of gangs, plan activities that are socially unacceptable and commit crimes, or behave in a manner that is deplored by the societies in which they reside (Venkatachalam & Aravindan, 2014). Youth go through challenging times during adolescence, and, therefore gravitate towards groups that afford them support, assurance, protection and direction (Siegel & Welsh, 2011). However, during this turmoil in their lives, these peer groups provide the social and emotional basis for antisocial activity, which may transform into gangs (Siegel & Welsh, 2011). Gangs are peers, who hang together, sharing a similar social class (gender, social status) and meeting face-to-face to discuss their own issues (Siegel & Welsh, 2011; Shoemaker, 2013).

3.2.1.4. Situational delinquency

Situational delinquency stems from Situational Action Theory by Wikström (2004), and assumes that individuals are motivated by different actions, in order to break their moral beliefs or rules (Wilkström & Sampson, 2006). Willits (2015) concurs that individuals commit crime, because of being provoked by situations around them, which may be verbal or physical. However, environmental and family factors cannot be separated from situational delinquency, but it is rather important to investigate how they interact to influence individuals to commit criminal acts (Wikström, Oberwittler, Treiber & Hardie, 2012).
3.2.2. Factors contributing to juvenile delinquency

3.2.2.1. Family and family structure

The family, two or more individuals, who consider themselves connected by blood, marriage or adoption (Henslin, 2015; Brinkerhoff, White, Ortega & Weitz, 2011; Knox & Schacht, 2010), is possibly the utmost significant means of socialization, which is essential in giving children warmth and nurturance for normal physical, cognitive and emotional growth (Brinkerhoff et al., 2011). In addition, Lippman & Wilcox (n.d.), asserts that family is a primary foundation in the lives of every man, woman and child, which serve as a vehicle for support and care giving across generations. However, it can be a good or bad social institution for both children and adults, depending on structure, functioning, socio-economic factors and the health state of family members (Child Trends, 2013). As such, it has been cited as the main factor that has an influence on juvenile delinquency (Shoemaker, 2013; Siegel & Welsh, 2011; Graham & Bowling, 1995). Graham & Bowling (1995) alludes to some aspects around family that may have an impact on children offending, such as: the level of supervision by parents; the way parents discipline a child; mainly harsh punishment; parental conflict or separation; criminal parents or siblings; parental abuse or neglect; and the quality of the parent-child relationship. In addition, Siegel and Welsh (2011) cites family breakup, conflict, deviance and family effectiveness as the four groups of family dysfunction that could influence child delinquency.

Family structure for this study, however, is defined as: single-parent families (male or female headed); two-parent families (married couple or cohabiting couple); and extended families (grandparents, uncle or aunt). Socio-economic, demographic and
socio-political factors, such as education, health care, employment and migration are seen to be the major contributing factors in altering family structure (Bigombe & Khadiagala, 2004; Dintwat, 2010). Dintwat (2010) asserts that movement of people, as a result, of employment or seeking employment, has destroyed most families in Botswana. In Botswana, males headed 52.5% of 550,926 households, according to the 2011 population and housing census (Lesetedi, 2014). A household is a unit of one or more people living together in the same house, sharing food and making provision for other living arrangements (Lesetedi, 2014). In 2012, there were 40,856 registered births in Botswana and 76% of the mothers were single, 23% were married and the remainder were divorced (Central Statistics Office, 2015b). In addition, 5,214 marriages were registered in the same year.

- **Single-parent family**, defined in the context of this study, as a family managed by one parent, either female or male, who cares for the biological children. Single-parent families might be the result of the death of a spouse, divorce, never married, father moved away from, or living far from, the family (Dintwat, 2010). There are more single-parent families than any other family structure in Botswana, especially female-headed households (UNICEF, 2011). The report also indicates that more than two-thirds of the children in Botswana are not living with their fathers. In addition, most children below the age of 18 years are being raised in single-parent families or by a social parent (Magnuson & Berger, 2009; Kendig & Bianchi, 2008). According to various reports, female-headed families are more affected by poverty, at a rate of 46%, as compared to their male counterparts, at 27%, which has an effect on the children’s well-being (UNICEF, 2011). Kendig and Bianchi (2008); Cancian and Reed (2009); and Baharudin, Krauss,
Yacoob and Pei (2011), further emphasize that female-headed families spend less time with their children as a result of the poverty, which results in poor monitoring of the children and the lack of parental interaction that could lead to adolescent risky behaviour. Additionally, Dunifon, Kalil, Crosby and Su (2013) assert that there are high levels of child behavioural problems, when mothers work night shifts, as compared to normal hours. There is also the assumption that boys display more delinquency behaviour in single female-headed families (Vanassche, Sodermans, Matthijs & Swicegood, 2014; Miller, 2010). In addition, boys mostly exhibit physical aggression, stealing and overall delinquency, than girls would (Cassidy, 2011). In contrast, the findings of a study by Zalot, Jones, Forehand and Brody (2007), indicated that girls reared in underprivileged areas by single mother, displayed high levels of conduct-disordered behaviours, while boys exhibited the same behaviour, regardless of the environment.

According to Singh and Kiran (2014), delinquent children are more often identified in female-headed families, as compared to two-parent families. Ultimately, all these studies clearly indicate that there is a relationship between delinquency and single parent families. “The adolescents from families where one or both biological parent is missing are more likely to be involved in delinquency” (Spohn & Kurtz, 2011: 346), because of the lack of supervision from parents (Baharudin et al., 2011). Coles’ (2015) review of literature on single fathers indicates that children raised by lone fathers tend to be more involved in externalizing behaviour and substance use, as compared to those raised by single mothers. However, Bronte-
Tinkew, Scott and Lilja, (2010) assert that single father families do have better socio-economic resources.

- **Two-parent family** signifies a family where both biological parents stay together and provide care for their own children. This family may consist of a married or cohabiting couple. Family structure alteration in Botswana has been linked to marriage (Dintwat, 2010), referring to a male and female, who are legally bound together by marriage (Knox & Schacht, 2010). The findings of a study by Bjarnason, Bendtsen, Arnarsson, Borup, Iannotti, Löfstedt, Haapasalo and Niclasen (2012) reveal that children living with both parents reported high levels of life satisfaction, as opposed to those living with a single-parent or parent-step-parent.

Literature also reveals that children, who live with both parents in a stable environment, tend to show positive outcomes during their growth, as opposed to those from unstable families, despite both parents being present (Mokrue, Chen & Elias, 2011; Bjarnason et al., 2012; Kendig & Bianchi, 2008). In addition, children raised by two biological parents are rarely involved in delinquency acts, because there is much better supervision and support from both parents (Booth, Scott & King, 2010; Siegel & Welsh, 2009; 2011). Brown (2010) asserts that children, who are raised by two-biological, married parents, tend to live better than children from other family structures do; therefore, they are less likely to be involved in delinquent acts. In addition, Kendig and Bianchi (2008) assert that married mothers spend more time with their children, than single mothers.

Despite prior evidence of time spent with children, by these mothers from different family structures, Biblarz and Stacey (2010) argue that if single
mother’s socio-economic characteristics are kept constant, then single mothers would be able to spend as much time with their children, as married mothers. Children, who grow up in two-parent families show low externalizing behaviour, as compared to single-parent families (Mokrue et al., 2011). Other scholars argue that if there is conflict in the married couple’s family, their children are more likely to be dropping from school, reporting poor results, smoking, indulging in early adolescent sex, compared to a married couple’s family with low or no conflict in their home (Musick & Meier, 2010). Furthermore, adolescents, who grow up in a conflict-married family, tend to have psychological problems (Osarenren, Nwadinigwe & Anyama, 2013). These adolescents put painful past experiences behind them, into the subconscious mind, but a similar stimulus makes them behave in an unacceptable manner (Shoemaker, 2013).

- **Cohabiting couple family** refers to two people, who are not legally married, but living together, or sleeping in the same place for at least four nights a week, caring for their own children (Knox & Schacht, 2010). Dintwat (2010) states that non-marriage and cohabitation could be ascribed to continuous alterations in principles and morality associated with women entering into education, career establishment and paid employment on a large-scale. Dintwat (2010) further states that some people choose to cohabit, as they perceive paying lobola (bride’s price) tantamount to buying a person. Others decide to cohabit due to pre-marital pregnancy and their low socio-economic status (Lichter, Sassler & Turner, 2014). Mokomane (2005) concurs that this is the case in Botswana; young women decide to
cohabit due to their low socio-economic status. Cohabiting mothers do not differ much from married mothers (Biblarz & Stacey, 2010). This was further emphasized by Craigie et al. (2010), stating that the well-being of children from cohabitating couples, who later marry, was no different from those in stable, married families. However, family stress has been identified as the main contributing factor to child delinquency in cohabiting families (Kierkus, Johnson & Hewitt, 2010). In addition, Parks (2013) established that adolescents from cohabiting families were more likely to participate in crime, than those from two-biological-parents, married families.

- **Extended family** comprises of a married couple, cohabiting couple, or unmarried living with their own biological children, as well as their siblings’ children or grandchildren (Brinkerhoff et al., 2011). According to Shaibu (2013), children are left with their extended family members due to the death of their biological parents. Children, not staying with their birth parents, are at high risk of committing crime earlier in their lives, before reaching adolescence, and are similar to those raised by single parents (Ikäheimo, Laukkanen, Hakko & Räsänen, 2013). The contributing factor is allegedly the stress that these children experience, being separated from their biological parents and having difficulties attaching to their new caregivers (Malinga-Musamba, 2013). The author further states that these children tend to withdraw from their caregivers, and accuse their biological parents for dying and abandoning them, resulting in antisocial behaviour and delinquency. In addition, the progression into delinquency has been revealed to be serious among children, who are neglected during adolescence (Ryan, Williams & Courtney, 2013). Lastly, poverty or
financial constraints may increase stress and risk behaviours for children (Hay, Fortson, Hollist, Altheimer & Schaible, 2007).

• **Blended family** refers to a family of two people, who bring together their own children respectively, and/or maybe children born after their marriage, and live together to raise them as one family (Brinkerhoff et al., 2011). Blended or stepfamilies may come about, when two divorced parents meet and decide to stay together (Henslin, 2015). Children brought into blended families have a higher chance to adjusting into the new setting (Anderson & Greene, 2013). In addition, blended families might have an emotional impact on the child’s well-being, through decreased economic or parenting resources, stress and instability (Sweeney, 2010). Children from blended families have shown an increase in antisocial behaviour, compared to those from intact married families (Apel & Kaukinen, 2008). It is believed that the reason might be, coming from a single parent family, to face the increasing demands of a large family (Sweeney, 2010). However, if both parents relate well, the children might adapt well, and relate well to their stepparent (Jensen & Shafer, 2013). In addition, more adolescents indicated to have close, kind, and loving connections with their stepfathers, when there was a close relationship between the mother and the children (King, Thorsen & Amato, 2014; King, Amato & Lindstrom, 2015). However, children who are closer to their non-resident natural parents might have slightly greater levels of stress than those who are closer to both their resident natural and stepparents (Jensen, Shafer & Holmes, 2015; Thorsen & King, 2015). In general, it appears that a good relationship with both
stepparents, especially the mother, makes the adjustment for children smoother and decreases the occurrence of delinquent acts.

- **A broken home family**, in the context of this study, refers to families affected by divorce, death and domestic violence, leading to the separation of the parents. In broken homes, some parents may leave their children home alone, unsupervised, which is a major contributing factor to children becoming involved in unacceptable behaviour (Ruiz-Casares & Heymann, 2009). Children living in non-intact families reported low levels of life satisfaction, compared to children living in joint physical custody families (Bjarnason et al., 2012). Craigie et al. (2010) assert that family stability plays a major role in children’s well-being. They found that children born to married couples, who later divorced, showed aggressive behaviour, compared to their peers in married stable families. In addition, transitions in the financial stability and well-being of a family could lead to problematic behaviour among children (Martinez & Forgatch, 2002).

Lastly, studies have shown that divorce results in ineffective monitoring and supervision of children by one parent, initially done by two parents (Krohn et al., 2009). Divorce does not happen instantly; therefore, the hurtful events that take place are seen as factors contributing to child delinquency (Shoemaker, 2010). This may lead to children seeking support from their peers and, ultimately, adopting the illegal behaviours of some (Krohn et al., 2009). Cassidy (2011), as well as Kristjansson, Sigfusdottir, Allegrante and Helgason (2009) assert that children from divorced families were more likely to indulge in stealing, smoking and the use of alcohol and drugs, than those raised by single female-headed families. Literature
reveals that delinquency is more common with children, raised in families where they usually witness various types of violence (Renner, 2012; Benson & Buehler, 2012; Bowles, DeHart & Webb, 2012).

In summary, instabilities in any family structure cause confusion and emotional instability in child development and leads to child delinquency. According to microsystem level of Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model, most causes of delinquency are, therefore, associated with family structure, indicating the vital role family plays in child development.

3.2.2.2. Peer influence

The family, especially the parents in the family, is considered the most important source of guidance and care in children’s early years; however, children aged 8 to 14 years, look for a stable peer group (Siegel & Welsh, 2011). The authors state that as friends increase, and the child moves into the adolescent stage; their friends and groups, in which they share activities, start to have a greater influence on their decision-making, than their parents would have. There is a possibility that offending minors do not spend much time with their parents (Gault-Sherman, 2012), and as such, end up belonging to gangs and delinquent groups, seeking security and being coerced into the activities, in which the group members are involved (Kreager, Rulison & Moody, 2011; World youth report, 2003). It has been revealed that friends, who smoke cigarettes, link well together, and those in low-smoking groups, pay more attention to whether or not a potential friend smokes (Simons-Morton & Farhat, 2010; DeLay, Laursen, Kiuru, Salmela-Aro & Nurmi, 2013). Thomas (2015), as well as Osgood and Schrenk (2007) support this
issue of delinquent specialization and affirm that people, who link with groups that exhibit specialty in certain delinquent acts, tend to exhibit the same acts.

Although in agreement with them, Hirtenlehner, Pauwels and Mesko (2015) argue that, not all friends are seduced by the peer effect to indulge in delinquency. A study, aimed at describing factors that contribute to unsafe sex practices among adolescents, indicated that 20.9% (n = 24) of teenagers were encouraged by their friends to indulge in sex for the first time in Botswana (Mwinga, 2012). According to Pauwels and Svensson (2015), the exposure to peer delinquency reveals the strongest direct influence on youth antisocial behaviour.

3.2.2.3. Gender of the child

Societies socialize boys and girls differently, which affects their development (Siegel & Welsh, 2011). In addition, boys and girls are introduced differently to risk and protective factors at the neighbourhood level (Rose & Rudolph, 2006; Zahn & Browne, 2009). Furthermore, Zimmerman and Messner (2010), as well as Weerman and Hoeve (2012) articulate that parents and other adults usually keep a closer eye on girls, and therefore, they are less likely to be influenced by friends, as opposed to boys. Additionally, UNODC (2015) indicates that 27,054 males, compared to 1,048 females from the three African countries of Algeria, Morocco and Cabo Verde, were brought before justice or were in contact with the police in 2013. Siegel and Welsh (2011) indicates that girls are less aggressive than boys are and tend to blame themselves if anything goes wrong, but boys will externalize their behaviour.
The effects of delinquent behaviour has been determined to be similar for both boys and girls, although more boys were involved in violence and serious offending, compared to girls (Weerman & Hoeve, 2012; Petersen & Howell, 2013). Girls are, however, more active in organized gang crimes (Petersen & Howell, 2013). Similarly, Haynie, Doogan and Soller (2014), as well as Zimmerman and Messner (2010) found that girls are easily influenced towards increasing and sustaining their delinquent acts when exposed to friends, who are more delinquent, as well as reducing their delinquency, when exposed to less delinquent friends. On the contrary, boys are easily influenced into increasing and sustaining their delinquent acts, when exposed to friends who are more delinquent, but are hardly likely to reduce their delinquency, when exposed to less delinquent friends. Other studies indicate that girls’ sexual offending is associated with victimization experiences and sexual risky behaviour, whereas boys’ sexual offending is commonly related to family background (Wijkman, Weerman, Bijleveld & Hendriks, 2014). In conclusion, gender has an effect on juvenile delinquency influence.

3.2.2.4. School environment

According to Bronfenbrenner’s ecological model, the school setting falls under the microsystem. It is described as the child’s immediate environment that influences both growth and behaviour (Berk, 2006). Studies have found that school environment has an association with child delinquency (Le & Stockdale, 2011; Virtanen, Kivimäki, Luopa, Vahtera, Elovainio, Jokela & Pietikäinen, 2009; Shoemaker, 2013). Schools, like neighbourhoods, differ in terms of structural characteristics that may contribute to the child’s positive or negative development (Pauwels & Svensson, 2015). These authors further declare that concentration of
features, such as immigrant children, and those from disrupted families, may shape delinquency.

Conversely, others argue that if such features are positive, the children commit less crime and there are positive child outcomes (Eklund & Fritzell, 2013; Sellström & Bremberg, 2006). Various studies have been conducted in Botswana on delinquency and school (Moswela, 2005; Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012; Hulela & Matsolo, 2011). Peer victimization is common at school, where learners act impulsively, by making fun of others, in order to excite their friends and to be accepted in their company (Moswela, 2005; Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012). This clearly shows that school environment can shape delinquency for various reasons that make learner feel accepted by some peers, while embarrassing other learners.

3.2.2.5. Community (environment or neighbourhood)

The surroundings are important in every child’s growth and development as has been indicated by Bronfenbrenner’s bio-ecological systems model. Environment can have a positive or negative influence on the growing child (Neaum, 2010). Environment, however, is not a stand-alone factor, contributing to child delinquency. As children grow up in disorganised neighbourhoods, their friends, community attitudes and/or certain unacceptable behaviours, like alcohol and drug use by other individuals, might influence them (Bocar, Mercado, Macahis & Serad, 2012). Other factors have been identified that make a community highly probable to contribute to child delinquency. They are high levels of poverty; residential mobility; more single parent households; and cultural heterogeneity (Valdimarsdóttir & Bernburg, 2014). Caicedo and Jones (2014) assert that
adolescents living in underprivileged societies are more likely to be exposed to, and connected with, deviant peers, than those living in wealthier neighbourhoods.

In addition, prisoners, who come from low socio-economic family upbringings, based on where they lived, indicated that they had run from home to the streets, where they later committed crimes to survive (Omboto, Ondiek, Odera & Ayugi, 2013). In addition, adolescents, residing in neighbourhoods that are high in concentrated disadvantage, reported more delinquency. Therefore, neighbourhood and disadvantaged background has a considerable influence on child delinquency (Valdimarsdóttir & Bernburg, 2014). Cole and Chipaca (2014), as well as Boynton-Jarrett, Hair and Zuckerman (2013) affirm that neighbourhood has an influence on child delinquency. In their study, conducted in Angola, they cited a variety of factors that account to delinquency; however, it was clear that criminalized neighbourhoods provided the environment for the development of delinquent relationships. Other studies have indicated that higher neighbourhood disadvantage was associated with more marijuana dependence symptoms among maltreated adolescents (Furr-Holden, Lee, Milam, Johnson, Lee & Ialongo, 2011; Handley, Rogosch, Guild & Cicchetti, 2015). In conclusion, the study by Niskala and Gustafsson (2013) that sought to answer why men and women live in high-risk rural areas, in Tubu, Botswana, indicated that people live in such areas because they belong there, and they have nowhere else to go. Valdimarsdóttir and Bernburg (2014), as well as Caicedo and Jones (2014), have cited these areas as disadvantaged areas that could lead to child delinquency. Unfortunately, no study or report has been found that links juvenile delinquency with such environments in Botswana.
3.2.2.6. Poverty background

There has been a decrease in the poverty rate in Botswana between 2003 and 2010 from 30.6% to 19.3% (World Bank, 2015; Central Statistics Office, 2015b). However, the rate of unemployment for people aged 18 years and above was recorded as 19.8% (Central Statistics Office, 2013b). Low-income or poverty is linked to stress and may lead to domestic violence, substance abuse, child abuse and neglect, divorce and problematic parenting practices (Knox & Schacht, 2010). There is a strong possibility that children between the ages of 6 to 11 years, living in a low-income family, will become juvenile delinquents, involved in violent crime, than those falling between ages of 12 to 15 years (“Poverty: key factor,” 2014). In addition, poverty has been identified as one factor that drives youth to criminal activity (Prior & Paris, 2005). Wright and Younts (2009) are of the view that lower social class increases criminal acts among youth. In addition, a study by Omboto et al. (2013) reveals that 70% of 55 youth inmates were from poor family backgrounds. The study further reports that some boys ran away from home, due to the lack of basic needs, and, eventually began stealing, in order to survive.

However, girls are more exposed to school dropout and poverty was predicted to be the cause (Hunter & May, 2011). In 2007, it was revealed that youth in Botswana were abusing alcohol due to unemployment and their low socio-economic family status, as a way of dealing with the stressful living conditions (Matwetwe, 2007). Poverty has been singled out as the strongest obstruction to child health and development in the society, as it can expose children to dangerous environments characterized by social disorganisation (Egba & Ngwakwe, 2015).
3.2.2.7. The media

Many authors have written about the relationship of the media, video games, technology and juvenile delinquency (Siegel & Welsh, 2011; Shoemaker, 2013; Chesney-Lind & Shelden, 2014; Strasburger & Donnerstein, 2014). Their argument was based on social learning theory, which assumes that behaviour is modelled through observation, either directly with others or indirectly through media. World Youth Report (2003) reported that male children aged mostly 8 to 12 years are more vulnerable to media, like television, and tend to watch violent television programmes. Fischer, Aydin, Kastenmüller, Frey and Fischer (2012) assert that video games, which positively support lawbreaking and misbehaviour, escalate the possibility of players modelling these behaviours in real life. In addition, the content of violent video games intensifies hostile behaviour, whereas that of no, or less, violence, decreases aggressive behaviour (Greitemeyer & Mügge, 2014).

Children in Botswana, just like the rest of the world, are exposed to media and television, which is one medium used mainly by many of them to watch games (Ajiboye, 2009). Furthermore, a study by Lesitaokana (2014) confirms that mobile phones have become a necessity among youth in Botswana, in order to connect with their peers, as well as access public and social services. According to the Botswana population and housing census 2011, Analytic Report (Central Statistics Office, 2014b), reportedly 60% of households in Botswana owned a television set, 24.4% owned a radio, and almost 90% had a member owning a working mobile phone, through which 11.3% were accessing internet. These statistics reveal that most children in Botswana have access to a media device in the form of a television
or mobile phones. The question that might be asked is; ‘How do they influence youth?’ A study by Makgosa (2010) revealed that there is quite a high level of vicarious role model effect of television celebrities and entertainers among teenagers in Botswana. Most parents have surrendered their role of providing moral support and material for their children, to the movies and advertising agencies to run their children’s lives (Omboto et al., 2013).

3.2.3. Impact of juvenile delinquency

Juvenile delinquency has its effects on all those involved, as has been discussed in the previous sections. Several factors also impel individuals towards delinquent activity. Lacey, Cornell and Konold (2015); Moswela (2005); and Tjavanga and Jotia (2012) have indicated that learners, who bully others at school tend to have their academic performance drop, due to the lack of concentration in class, as well as spending too much time being disciplined by the relevant authorities. In addition, they might end up abusing alcohol, dropping from school and attempting to kill themselves for their failures in life (Wu, He, Lu, Deng, Gao, Guo, ... & Zhou, 2015). In addition, DeCamp and Newby (2015) affirm that bullies might end up getting involved in serious offences, such as being part of gangs, vandalism and assaults. Lastly, other studies indicate that children, who run away from school end up getting involved into substance use/abuse (Henry & Thornberry, 2010).

“Being a parent and raising a child with an emotional, behavioural or mental health challenge is a full time job without pay, vacations or nights or weekends off” (Osher, Osher & Blau, 2008). Parents feel that they are at fault because of their children’s involvement in gangs and are very sensitive to shame (Aldrige et al., 2011). Gault-Sherman (2012: 141) pointed out that, “A delinquent adolescent can cause strain,
frustration, anger or hurt on the part of the parent, in which case spending large amount of time with the adolescent may not be a priority for the parent. It is disheartening and frustrating to constantly spend time with your adolescent who is causing or getting into trouble, especially when the time with them doesn’t seem to be doing any good”. Cook (2013), further infers that parents of juvenile probationers appear to be frustrated of parenting, which may be due to the long-suffering of child’s immoral behaviour from the past at home, school or community. In addition, Arditti, Lambert-Shute and Joest (2003), assert that when one member of the family is in prison, especially the parent, it brings emotional stress, financial strain and social stigma to those remaining behind. Furthermore, mothers of children, who are always implicated in unlawful activity, really endure many difficulties, such as financial strains, as well as serious social, emotional and psychological effects (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2011). Additionally, Holt (2009) asserts that all mothers stated it as a serious financial constraint, to be paying fines for their children and travelling long distances to visit them in prison. 

Juvenile delinquency does not only have an impact on the family, other leaners have been found to be victims of bullying in schools (Lacey et al., 2015; Moswela, 2005; Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012; Henry & Thornberry, 2010). Scholars identified several signals related to victims of bullying, such as; they isolate themselves, run away from school due to fear of being bullied, they lack confidence and have low self-esteem (Lacey et al., 2015; Moswela, 2005; Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012). As such, they tend to have suicidal attempts, as well as thoughts of harming themselves (Wu et al., 2015).

Mphale (2014) noted that children who drop out of school are at risk of facing poverty, unemployment and social despair, as well as frustrating their parents because of not being
able to bring income into the household. The author further indicates that the taxpayers’ money is wasted, as the learner would not have completed his/her education. The conclusion is that the uneducated community could be at risk of more people being involved in criminal activity (Whitaker, 2011). Molosiwa and Moswela (2012) indicates that school dropouts, due to pregnancies, had unprotected sex, which may put them at risk for HIV and the government will have to cover those costs. They further state that school dropout is a cost to the government, irrespective of the reason to drop out of school.

3.2.4. Strategies employed to manage delinquent acts

Due to the difficulties that mothers have to endure, when dealing with delinquent children, as explained by Holt (2009), they have to come up with innovative schemes, such as secretly locking the doors and windows to try prevent their offending children from going out. Associating with people, who have had similar experiences, has proved to assist mothers in managing their problems with delinquent children (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2011). Often mothers have few resources to help them deal with their delinquent children, and prayer is the most shared coping strategy. Victims of bullying resort to alcohol abuse and absent themselves from school, to avoid being bullied, and as a way of managing and coping with their stress (Rospenda, Richman, Wolff & Burke, 2013; DeHart, Longua Peterson, Richeson & Hamilton, 2014). Various authors suggested measures that could be employed to curb delinquent acts in schools. They suggested measures like corporal punishment, suspension, expulsion from school and counselling (Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012). In conclusion, there is limited literature on this subject and a few resources to support parents in dealing with delinquent behaviour; therefore, this study aims to explore more about different groups of people, with different cultures and beliefs.
3.3. Conclusion

The review of literature accounts for the ideas that the researcher found relevant to this study. The content reviewed in this chapter, not only covered the population of interest, which is juvenile delinquents, but also a general overview of the child population around the world. In addition, the researcher discussed the different types of family structures, in which children are raised (not only focusing on the three structures for the current study, which is single parent family, two parent family and extended family), under family, as a factor that contributes to juvenile delinquency. The discussion of family structures highlighted its inception, as well as the child well-being outcomes. Furthermore, the researcher discussed other factors, alluded to by previous researchers, and their relationship to child delinquency. Lastly, the researcher acknowledged and discussed the effects of juvenile delinquency on the delinquent child, their family and their community. The next chapter discusses the research methodology used to explore and describe the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children.
Overview of the child population

Factors contributing to child delinquency

1. Family and family structure
   - Single parent family (female headed or male headed)
   - Two-parent family (married couple or cohabiting couple)
   - Extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, etc.)
   - Blended family
   - Broken homes (divorced, death, etc.)

2. Peer influence
   - Weak social ties; antisocial peers
   - Delinquent peers; Gang membership

3. Gender of the child
   - Child socialization
   - Delinquent act mostly associated to
   - Who is easily influenced

4. School environment
   - Bullying; Poor performance
   - Truancy; Academic failure

5. Community (environment)
   - Neighbourhood crime or crime prone community
   - Neighbourhood disorganisation
   - Cultural unacceptable activities like use of alcohol and drugs, etc.

6. Poverty
   - Inability to provide for the family
   - Growing in a poverty stricken community

7. The media
   - Television and radio
   - Video games and movies
   - Use of smart phones and internet access

Types of delinquency
- Individual delinquency
- Group-supported delinquency
- Organised delinquency
- Situational delinquency

Strategies employed to manage delinquent children
- Innovative schemes like locking doors and windows
- Prayer

Impact of juvenile delinquency on;
- Individual delinquent child
- Family of the delinquent child
- Community and nation

Figure 3.1: Conceptual framework of the study
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed discussion, following the brief outline in Chapter One, of the methodology employed during this study, to accomplish the specific aims and objectives of the study. It also describes the research approach utilised, the research design, research population and sampling, as well as the research setting. The data collection and analysis procedures are presented, as well as a discussion on the ethical considerations of the study.

4.2. Research question

The research question guides the study, therefore, it should be focused, suitable and meaningful to test the mind (Thabane, Thomas, Ye & Paul, 2009; Merriam, 2009). O’Leary (2004) adds that it provides focus, while setting limits for the research. According to Marczyk, DeMatteo and Festinger (2005), it usually follows an identified problem in the field of research. The research question for this study is as follows:

- What are the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana?

4.3 Aim(s) and objectives

The aim and objectives of the study were developed based on the research question. The aim of this study was:
To explore and describe the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana

The aim of a study refers to a broader statement of what the research intends to attain (Aim, n.d.). The objectives of the study give reasons for the intention of the research and mostly start with the word, ‘to’ followed by a verb (doing word), such as investigate, explore or describe, just to mention a few (Hofstee, 2006). They provide a clear roadmap on how to achieve the aims of the project. The objectives of this study are:

- To explore the experiences of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children;
- To explore the challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children; and
- To describe the coping strategies employed by different family structures in managing the challenges of delinquent children.

4.4. Research approach

This study utilised a qualitative research methodological approach. It is a method of inquiry, in which the researcher gathers data from the field where the study is conducted, by using more than one source of data collection method, organising the data into related topics (themes) and analysing the data (Creswell, 2007). In addition, Hicks (2004), states that it is the best method of investigation to describe people’s feelings, opinions, views and beliefs of their own natural environment. This approach was chosen over a quantitative approach, since it is a holistic inquiry method, which answers complex questions by means of describing and appreciating the phenomena from the participant’s point of view and has flexible guidelines (De Vos et al.,
In addition, its main emphasis is on understanding the situation, as constructed by the participants, consequently, capturing how people interpret their environment (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Krysik and Finn (2010) stress that a qualitative approach pursues the deeper meaning of the human understandings of their own issues, by capturing participants’ excerpts or their words, rather than counting or using numbers, as in qualitative approach.

4.5. Research design

Research design refers to a structure that explains the reason and moralities of the research approach and techniques, in relation to the research question (Jupp, 2006). In addition, it refers to a structure, or plan, to guide the data collection and analysis, therefore, inspecting the issue of concern (Bryman, 2012; Adler & Clark, 2011). An explorative and descriptive research design was employed for this study.

An explorative research design is a method of discovering new concepts, or ideas, about a particular issue, which is not known, or little is known about it, in order to formulate hypotheses (De Vos et al., 2011; Stebbins, 2008; Jupp, 2006; Burns & Grove, 2005; Neuman, 2006). Babbie (2013) asserts that explorative research assists the researcher to produce new understandings on the topic of interest. In addition, exploratory research is practically inductive in nature, since the researcher begins by observing the issue and attempts to draw uncertain simplifications from it (Adler & Clark, 2011). Therefore, explorative design was the appropriate design for this study, as it is most suitable for investigating situations, of which the participants have previous knowledge (Keegan, 2009). In addition, the design is useful in examining an interesting, or new situation, in order to satisfy the researcher’s interest and need for better understanding (Babbie, 2013). It has also allowed the researcher to develop
explanations, from the participants’ point of view, without prior expectations, therefore, acquiring personalised understanding of the researched issue (Wysocki, 2007; Krysik & Finn, 2010).

Descriptive research design is a method that describes the features of the study population, following data collected from a given sample (De Vos et al., 2011; Burns & Grove, 2005), and observed during the investigation (Burns & Grove, 2005; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009; Neuman, 2006). In addition, it describes a subject with an emphasis on structure, attitudes or conduct (Adler & Clark, 2011). It best suited the study, as it guided the researcher to describe the participants’ situation, as explained and observed, without making any attempts to understand what caused it (Babbie, 2012; Wysocki, 2007). Krysik and Finn (2010) assert that it gives a clear picture of the problem, as well as describes the characteristics of those participants’ affected by the identified problem. Besides, descriptive design is grounded on the general premise of constructionist inquiry, which assumes that people perceive environment around them differently (Rogers, 2010; Polit & Beck, 2014). This correlated well with social constructionism, as one of the theories guiding this study (see Chapter Two).

4.6. Research methodology

Research methodology refers to philosophies, methods and practices that direct research (Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2005). In addition, it explains all the steps, followed to carrying out the study, including sampling and the research tools for data collection (Krysik & Finn, 2010). The study’s research setting, population and sampling, data collection and data analysis will be discussed in the following section.
4.6.1. Research setting

According to Polit and Beck (2010), research setting refers to one or more specific locations where data for a particular study is collected. The data for this study was collected from various places in Botswana. However, the main place that guided the researcher to different families was the Bana Ba Metsi School, located in Sekandoku settlement, approximately 600 kilometres west of Maun village, in the North-West Administrative District. The school is located in the bush, in order for it to be away from the temptations and disturbances of the villages. Maun is approximately 849 kilometres north of the capital city, Gaborone (distance calculator online, 2015). The North-west (Ngamiland west) district has a population of 64,864 people and 13,661 households (Central Statistics Office, 2012a, [2011 Population and Housing Census]). Bana Ba Metsi School admits students from different areas of Botswana, but at the time of this study, it had 60 male learners from Kanye, Hukuntsi, Ghanzi, Selebe-Phikwe, Maun, Francistown, Mahalapye, Palapye, Oodi, Letlhakane, Mochudi, Malotwane, Bobonong, Etsha 6, Nokaneng and Dibete (see map of Botswana: Appendix N).

Bana Ba Metsi School came into existence in the year 2000, through the Moremogolo Trust (Bana Ba Metsi School background report, updated September 2011), with its focus on supporting disadvantaged groups in Botswana, specifically youth at risk, as well as AIDS orphans. The first 21 learners were admitted to school in March 2000. Although Botswana provides universal access to free primary education, a significant percentage of school-aged learners are not in primary school due to various reasons. The main target group for the school are young people, who were either expelled, or dropped out of regular classes due to behavioural problems, or other socio-economic reasons. The goals for its establishment are to rehabilitate youth at risk, as well as enable them to pass
primary level education. As the only formal school in Botswana that admits delinquent children, hence, the school was specifically chosen for this study. Furthermore, the place was ideal as the researcher had no prior knowledge about it and was not in anyway involved with the school.

4.6.2. Population and sampling

This segment describes the population of the study, as well as the sampling method utilised in this research study. Population is defined as a group of people, who have characteristics that meet the sampling criteria (De Vos et al., 2011; Burns & Groove, 2005; Hicks, 2004). The study population helps the researcher to have a context group, on which to focus the study (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). For the purpose of this study, the population included all delinquent children, whose ages ranged between 12 and 18 years, living in Botswana and attending the school at Bana Ba Metsi School, along with their families. In addition, the staff members, (social workers, teachers and counsellors) responsible for children and their families at Bana Ba Metsi School and the Bana Ba Letsatsi centre, formed part of the population for the study.

Sampling means carefully selecting a group of people from the larger population considered for actual inclusion in the study (De Vos et al., 2011; Burns & Groove, 2005). In addition, it refers to a small group selected from the main population, in order to give the study focus, and the data collection is easily managed due to small sampling size (Rubin & Babbie, 2011; Saunders et al., 2009). Participants were recruited into this study using purposive sampling, which is defined as carefully choosing certain people, or cases, that will provide rich information for the study (Burns & Groove, 2005). Creswell (2007) states the chosen cases, or people, are preferred to give a clear understanding of the
research problem and phenomena in the study, alternatively, purposefully shed light on the research problem. Three sets of samples were purposively selected for this study. They included children, their families and staff members. Initially the researcher identified the school with the help from the Department of Social Services, who indicated that a large population of delinquent children is at the Bana Ba Metsi School, located at Sekandoku settlement. The researcher then contacted the school by telephone explaining the interest of the study. A formal letter was written to the school Director who positively responded for study to take place. The meeting was set with school as described under 4.6.4.1. The purposeful selected sample of children was chosen from a bigger population at the Bana Ba Metsi School. The children were between 12 and 18 years old. This selection criterion was set based on the Botswana Children’s Act of 2009, which describes juvenile delinquency to up to age 18 years. They also had to have a history of delinquent behaviour or anti-social behaviour. The families with children at Bana Ba Metsi School were identified with help from the social workers. The families were, subsequently, contacted through their mobile phones and recruited to participate in the study. The staff members, who are employed at Bana Ba Metsi School and Bana Ba Letsatsi centre were recruited by asking them to participate in the study. However, families with children over the age of 18 years, and under 12 years, were not included in this study, regardless of whether they were attending the Bana Ba Metsi School. The sample size comprised 33 delinquent children at the Bana Ba Metsi School, 10 families (selected amongst 33 delinquent children), and four staff members. The sample size is uncertain in non-probability sampling, since there are no rules; however, in this study it was influenced by the research question and research objectives (Saunders et al., 2009). The research question sought to investigate experiences and challenges encountered by different family structures in dealing with delinquent children as well how they manage
challenges associated with juvenile delinquency. Hence, qualitative approach was utilised for this study. As such, interviews formed the methods used to collect data and it is suggested that when used, data be collected until reaches saturation (Saunders et al., 2009; Saumure & Given, 2008).

4.6.3. Pilot study

The pilot study was an initial assessment of the interview schedule, defined as a way of testing and confirming whether the instrument will function accurately, by first experimenting with a small group of participants from the proposed target population (Bryman, 2012; De Vos et al., 2011). In this study, the pilot study was done to test the clarity and application of the interview schedule questions, to be used in the main study. The interview schedules were pre-tested with six children, one family, and one staff member of the identified population, who, subsequently, were excluded from the main study. In the pilot study, the six children were interviewed through a focus group discussion at their school, while the staff member and the family were interviewed, separately, in their own homes, all at different times. The pilot study was valuable as it assisted the researcher to identify unclear or ambiguous items in the interview schedule, and refine it, so that questions were clear for the participants in the main study (Saunders et al., 2009). After the pilot study, the questions were modified and corrected for use in the main study. Some questions were shifted or merged, while in others, the wording was changed for more clarity. The interview schedule for the children initially contained 18 questions, which was reduced to only 13, after the pilot study. The word ‘prison’ was removed from all interview schedules since only the Bana Ba Metsi School was used for this study.
4.6.4. Data collection

Data collection is a process of acquiring information through unstructured or semi-structured interviews, observations, documents and visual material (Creswell, 2007), and in qualitative research, it involves direct communication with the participants on an one-on-one basis or in a group setting (Gill, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008). The collection of data for this study was achieved through semi-structured, individual interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs), as well as the taking of field notes. Individual interviews and FGDs were guided by the use of three sets of interview schedules: one designed for learners (utilised for FGDs); one for families/caregivers; and a third for the staff members. The participants were interviewed until the saturation of data was reached. Data saturation is the point in time, during data collection, where new information, related to the topic of inquiry, no longer arises (Saumure & Given, 2008). Krysik & Finn (2010) contends that in qualitative research, the goal is to understand the phenomena studied, rather than generalise, and as such, data saturation is reached when the participants start to repeat the same information, as the previously expressed, at which point the data collection process should be terminated.

An interview refers to a two-way verbal communication, in which the researcher and the participants work together to understand the subject matter (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Burns & Grove, 2005). In qualitative research, interviews could be defined as an effort to appreciate the world from the participant’s point of view, thus revealing their perceptions of the experiences (De Vos et al., 2011). Researchers interview people in order to gain an understanding of certain phenomena, such as their beliefs, feelings, present and past behaviours and their opinions on managing certain situations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The interview schedule, a written questionnaire with predetermined
questions to guide the interviewer (De Vos et al., 2011; Gill et al., 2008), was used during the focus group discussions and individual interviews. Semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to focus on the full picture of the participant’s experiences and insights into the particular topic (De Vos et al., 2011). In addition, the interview is a flexible instrument of data collection that allows the researcher to capture data without any rigidity (Bryman, 2012).

4.6.4.1. Preparation of participants

The researcher initially arranged a meeting with the Bana Ba Metsi School Director to map the way forward. This was done after requesting permission from all the stakeholders, including the school. During a second meeting, with all the school staff, the study was fully explained and suitable times and venues for the conducting of the interviews were discussed. A further meeting was arranged with the learners, where the study was fully explained, after which the researcher recruited some of the learners for participation in the study. The learners were recruited by being asked to participate in the study and were informed of their right to voluntary participation. All the learners, who agreed to participate in the study, gave assent, as well as signing the FGDs confidentiality binding form. They also had their assent forms signed by the social worker, after expressing an interest to participate.

The researcher had a meeting with the Executive Coordinator of the Bana Ba Letsatsi Centre and later met with the staff members, who agreed to take part in the study. The study was fully explained to them and the participants signed the consent forms.
The researcher selected families, whose children were at the Bana Ba Metsi School at the time of this research project. They were contacted telephonically, a few days before the date of the interviews. The researcher briefly explained the purpose of the study to them over the phone. The study was further explained, in detail, to all the participants’, who agreed to participate in the study. The family participants signed the consent forms and the interviews were conducted at their own homes, as well as the other preferred venue (work).

Ethical considerations were clearly explained and ensured, to all three sets of participants, before and after the interviews. The participants were assured of their confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary participation. The researcher also sought permission from all the participants to audio record the interviews, to which all agreed. Mutually convenient dates and times for the interviews were agreed on by the participants and the interviewer, well before the time.

**4.6.4.2. Focus group discussion sessions**

A focus group discussion is a type of discussion interview, in which a certain population is selected, based on similar qualities that they possess about a topic, in order to obtain rich data. The interview is managed by a facilitator, who serves as the leading person for the discussion (De Vos et al., 2011; Millward, 2012). De Vos et al. (2011: 351-361) state that the purpose of a focus group ‘is to promote self-disclosure among the participants’. Group dynamics were taken into consideration, appreciating the fact that all people are unique, and as such, some may try to dominate conversations, while others may be reluctant to express their views (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The researcher avoided this obstruction by giving all the participants equal opportunity to talk during the session.
Five FGDs were conducted at the Bana Ba Metsi School. The researcher obtained permission to audio record the interviews, while simultaneously taking field notes during the sessions, resulting in a much better and fuller record of the data, than field notes only (De Vos et al., 2011). The FGDs were conducted in a school classroom, which the facilitator ensured was in good order before participants arrived. The seating arrangement was set in a semi-circle, in order to allow visibility of all the participants, which allowed the researcher to note any non-verbal cues by participants. The FGDs included 6-8 students per session (Creswell, 2013). During the FGD sessions, the classroom door was always closed, in order to provide privacy. Ground rules were set by both the participants’ and the facilitator as follows:

- All the participants were urged to participate and share their experiences freely.
- The participants were advised that there was no correct or wrong answer; therefore, all answers were accepted. All shared opinions were important.
- The participants agreed to keep all the contents of the meeting to themselves and never to share it with anyone after the meeting.
- The participants also stressed respect for others.

The participants were allocated codes to represent their names, as the use of names was not allowed during the discussions. All five FGDs lasted roughly 45-60 minutes per session. The discussions were also audio-recorded with permission from the participants. Clarity of responses was sought by paraphrasing the responses. The researcher ensured active listening throughout the discussions and constantly probed participants for more data.
4.6.4.3. Individual interview sessions

An interview is a social bond intended to interchange information between the participant(s) and the researcher (De Vos et al., 2011) and, therefore, its value and extent depends on how smart and creative the interviewer is at understanding and managing the relationship. The participants were asked simple, open-ended questions, one at a time, thereby, allowing them time to respond. In addition, the researcher gave the participants extra time to talk and tell their story. The interview schedule was arranged in such a way that sensitive questions were asked at the end, in order to allow for openness and trust. In addition, the interviewer requested extra information and clarity on points that seemed unclear. Lastly, most interviews were concluded within the agreed reasonable times (between 45 – 70 minutes) and the participants were asked whether there was anything else, important, that should be included.

Families (parents and caregivers) were interviewed; face-to-face, in their own homes and other preferred venues (work), using Setswana as their preferred language. Staff members’ interviews were conducted at their work place using mostly English as the preferred language. Additionally, all interviews were audio recorded with the participants’ permission. At the end of each interview session, the researcher immediately downloaded the audio-recorded interview onto the computer, which was password protected, for confidentiality purposes.

Communication techniques are important prerequisites of interviews, in order to keep the interview active. Therefore, it is important to understand that the interview is not only about recording answers and asking questions (De Vos et al., 2011).
During the interviews, the researcher kept in mind the following communication techniques, in order for the interview to stay active. The most important technique was active listening and ensuring minimal verbal responses, thereby, avoiding an interruption in the participants’ story flow. The interviewer regularly paraphrased facts, seeking clarification throughout the interview, to ensure that the facts were clearly understood. The interviewer also used probing to get a deeper meaning of the data collected. A semi-structured interview guide was used with all the participants during the data collection process. (See Interview Schedule: Appendix H, I & J).

4.6.4.4. Field notes

Field notes refer to minutes that the researcher takes, while observing behaviour and activities at the research site (Creswell, 2009). These notes should include a complete description of the participants, by recording non-verbal cues during the interviews, events taking place, the actual deliberations and communication, the observer’s attitude, perceptions and feelings (De Vos et al., 2011). In addition, they often include material that was obtained without consent and was not confirmed (De Laine, 2000). The researcher was very focussed during the visits and interviews, in order to detect the participant’s reactions during sessions. These noted points were documented immediately after the sessions, to ensure that no vital information was lost or omitted. The field notes assisted the researcher during the analysis and interpretation of data.

4.6.5. Data analysis

Data analysis, according to De Vos et al. (2011), means converting collected data into findings. Creswell (2007) state that data analysis includes the following strategies:
preparing and organising the data; grouping related topics to form themes; and presenting
the data in the form of tables or discussions. Thematic analysis is a technique, commonly
known in qualitative research data analysis, used for recognising, examining, and
reporting patterns within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In addition, it is an inductive
method of analysing data, in which themes are not forced into data, but emerge from the
collected data (Dawson, 2007). Joffe (2012) further refers to a theme as an exact pattern
of meaning found in the data. Through qualitative thematic data analysis, the researcher
identified the emerging themes from the collected data (Neuman, 2006). Within these
identified themes, sub-themes were developed and related to the participants’ hard data,
which were direct quotes from the participants.

The study embraced qualitative data analysis steps, as outlined in Creswell (2009). The
complete orderly process of data analysis, which starts from the bottom up to the top,
involved the collection of data, the transcribing of data, understanding the data, coding
the data, developing categories and putting coded data into developed categories (see
Figure 4.1).

- **Created and organised data files (managing data);** in this first step, the
  researcher meticulously transcribed, verbatim, all audio-recorded data, including
  notes that were made (field notes) immediately after interviews and FGDs. The
  researcher sorted processed data into three groups, based on sets of participants
  (children, parents/caregivers and staff members) (Creswell, 2009). The researcher
  revised transcribed data by listening to the audio, while checking for correctness.
  It is important to break large data into smaller units, simplify it into sentences or
  words, reviewing it, in order to check for accuracy (Clark & Creswell, 2015;
  Creswell, 2009, 2013; Saunders et al., 2009).
Figure 4.1: Qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2009; Clark & Creswell, 2009).

- **Read through the text** (peruse); Creswell (2009) refers to the second step as getting comfortable by skimming through the data several times to make sense of it. The researcher continued reading and re-reading the transcribed data, while making notes to create preliminary codes and relating the three sets of data. Ultimately, the researcher made sense of the initial notes that helped to assemble relevant data together, guided by the initial codes.

- **Coding the data**; is a technique qualitative data researchers use to recognise segments of text by underlining or highlighting and allocating a code that describes the meaning of the segment (Clark & Creswell, 2015). A code is a word or short expression that summarises the main or evocative attributes for a portion of qualitative data (Saldaña, 2009; Babbie, 2014). After the researcher made sense
of the transcribed data, some initial codes and phrases were used to label related segments that recurred several times. The researcher sought assistance from a colleague in coding the collected data, who served as independent coder. Saldaña (2009) asserts that multiple minds bring numerous ways of analysing and interpreting data. Finally, the researcher categorized clarified information received from the participants, by assembling groups of coded data, after meaning was generated from them.

- **Interpret information to give meaning:** the researcher created descriptions and sub-themes that translated the participants’ meanings of their experiences. The coding process is utilized to produce themes and categories (Creswell, 2009). These sub-themes were continuously refined to create clear meanings, and final categories were made from the refined sub-themes and descriptions. Eventually, reduced sub-themes were grouped into meaningful units (major themes), thereby, creating the research point of view to emphasise the data findings (Creswell, 2009).

### 4.6.6. Data verification and trustworthiness

In qualitative research, **trustworthiness** is the key concept and the purpose is to evaluate the study’s worthiness and validity (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013). Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that trustworthiness is only created if the description of findings closely reveals the meanings offered by the participants. Polit and Beck (2010) describe trustworthiness as the researchers’ self-assurance in their own data. It is assessed by the application of the following principles; credibility, dependability, transferability and conformability (De Vos et al., 2011; Flick, 2009; Given, 2008).
• **Credibility** involves establishing the validity or truthfulness of the research findings. This can be achieved through the triangulation of different methods, prolonged engagement and peer debriefing (De Vos et al., 2011; Flick, 2009; Rubin & Babbie, 2011). The researcher applied all three methods mentioned. The concept of *triangulation* was applied by collecting data from three different sources – families, children, and staff members – to create rich credible data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Spencer & Ritchie, 2012). Furthermore, the researcher also applied the concept of triangulation by using different methods of collecting data – interviews (families and staff members), focus group discussions (children), as well as taking of field notes. In addition, the researcher interviewed the participants at different times, thereby, establishing congruence of the issue (Polit & Beck, 2014). The concept of *prolonged engagement* is crucial for enhancing trust and building relationships with the participants, as it could allow them to be free, more open, as well as provide accurate and rich information during the interviews (Polit & Beck, 2010). The researcher did spend some time with the children participants and staff at the Bana Ba Metsi School, while collecting the data and, during the data analysis process, asked them to clarify and verify collected data (De Vos et al., 2011; Rubin & Babbie, 2011). Some participants were individually approached to clarify some of the answers they gave after transcription of data was done. Additionally, the researcher applied the concept of *peer debriefing* while seeking assistance from other colleagues by reading to them the transcribed data and asking their opinions on the captured themes, during data analysis (Polit & Beck, 2014).

• **Dependability** is concerned with replicability and consistency of results; it needs to assess whether the same results would be achieved with the same participants
in their natural setting (Flick, 2009). The researcher used the same data collection tools (see data collection tools: Appendix H, J & I) for different participants (Shenton, 2004). This also applies to the research approach and methodology, as long as the problem formulation remained the same. The researcher employed the same methods in order for the gathered data to correlate. The researcher also made use of the services of an independent coder to enhance dependability.

- **Transferability** seeks to confirm whether the results of the research could be transferred to other contexts or settings. The researcher achieved this by using purposive sampling to collect rich, detailed data and providing a background to study (Flick, 2009; Rubin & Babbie, 2011). The researcher clearly described the methodology employed during the study by indicating the instruments used during data collection and the type of participants, therefore, the results can be applied to other settings (Polit & Berk, 2010). In addition, researcher had different set of participants, who were interviewed using the same guide.

- **Conformability** refers to whether the findings of the study can be validated by other people, and requires that the researcher maintains a neutral position, while respecting the participant’s opinions; not labelling them or influencing their views, thereby, ensuring that the findings could be confirmed (De Vos et al., 2011). It is, therefore, important to explain the concept of *reflexivity*. Reflexivity involves the researchers understanding of the personal qualities they bring into the inquiry that might affect the research process, such as their unique background as individuals; their set of moral values; and their social, as well as professional identity (Polit & Beck, 2014). Tracy (2013) labels it ‘self-reflexivity’ and states that it is an exercise, which challenges researchers to demonstrate self-awareness, self-critique, and vulnerability in their research, to their audiences, and to
themselves. The researcher applied this concept by appreciating that participants were the specialists in this research study; therefore, their expertise would achieve the goal of the study (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). The researcher also applied ethical considerations and as indicated under credibility, the researcher did ask the participants at Bana Ba Metsi School to clarify and verify collected data. In addition, the researcher used the concept of triangulation by using different methods to collect the data (FGD and individual interviews), with different sets of participants (children, families and staff members) in order to assist in validating conclusions (Shenton, 2004; Polit & Beck, 2010).

4.7. Ethical considerations

In social sciences, researchers usually use human beings as subjects, and it is, therefore, important to protect their rights (Rubin & Babbie, 2011). Neuman (2006) highlights the need to safeguard the participants from any physical or psychological harm, as well as the importance of treating them with respect and dignity. The researcher, therefore, observed the following ethical considerations, in order to protect the participants’ rights of voluntary participation, confidentiality, consent and anonymity.

4.7.1. Permission to conduct the study

The researcher obtained permission to conduct the study from the University of Western Cape’s Senate Research Committee (see ethical clearance letter: Appendix A). Since the study was conducted in Botswana, the researcher further sought permission from the Ministry of Education and Skills Development (see research permit: Appendix B), as well as from the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (see research permit: Appendix D). In addition, the researcher obtained permission from other relevant
Departments around the country, such as the Ministry of Education and Skills Development’s North West Region Director (see research access permit: Appendix C), the Bana Ba Metsi School Director (see research access letter: Appendix E) and the Executive coordinator at the Bana Ba Letsatsi centre (see access letter: Appendix F).

4.7.2. Informed consent

The researcher explained the purpose of the study, in detail, to the participants, after the information sheets were provided to them (see information sheet: Appendix G). The informed consent form also included all the relevant information about the research (De Vos et al., 2011). All the adult participants signed the consent forms (see consent form: Appendix L). Polit and Beck (2014) affirms that children are not legally capable to give informed consent, nonetheless, it is fitting to acquire assent from those aged at least seven years, to confirm their agreement to participate in the research. Therefore, the researcher obtained assent from children and their social worker, as the legal custodian, who had to witness their assent forms (see assent form: Appendix K). Children were further requested to sign a FGD confidentiality binding form, thereby agreeing to keep what was discussed, confidential (see confidentiality binding form: Appendix M). Finally, permission for the audio recording of the interviews and FGDs and the taking of field notes during these sessions was requested from the participants.

4.7.3. Voluntary participation

Participants were informed that participating in this study was voluntary. Voluntary participation means that participants were recruited following clear explanations of the purpose of the study. They were also advised that they had the choice to participate, or not, as well as the right to withdraw at any time from the study, without prejudice (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; De Vos et al., 2011). The researcher took into consideration the
participants’ right to terminate the research process at any time, the sensitivity of the topic and the provision of trauma debriefing should participants experience distress. In case of debriefing, the researcher had arranged for the participants (children) to be referred to the school social worker, while the families and staff members were to be referred to the area social worker.

4.7.4. Confidentiality and the right to anonymity

Participants were assured of confidentiality and the right to anonymity, which means that participant’s identity, would be protected, while data shared during data collection, would not be disclosed to reveal their real identity (De Vos et al., 2011). In addition, participants were asked not to use their names and the researcher assigned them codes to ensure confidentiality. Finally, participants were informed that audio-recorded tapes and field notes would be kept safe by filing them in lock-up cabinets and password-protected computers. The researcher ensured confidentiality and privacy to participants during the interviews, by conducting the interviews in closed-door areas. However, there were instances where family members preferred to have them conducted outside, away from others, who were not involved in the study.

4.8. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher gave the reader an understanding of the qualitative research approach that was employed during this study. The research was explorative and descriptive. In addition, the researcher outlined the methodology applied in conducting this research study, discussing and explaining the actual procedures and methods adopted in the course of data collection and data analysis to data verification.

In the next chapter, the research results will be presented and discussed.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. In order to realise this aim, a qualitative methodological approach was utilised to collect data, focused on the individual participant’s feelings, in their own settings on the deliberated topic. In addition, the researcher utilised thematic data analysis to make sense of, or attach meaning to, the information supplied by the participants. The attainment of the research aim was guided from the beginning by the following objectives:

- To explore and describe the experiences of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children;
- To explore and describe the challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children; and
- To describe the coping strategies employed by different family structures in managing the challenges.

This study utilised thematic data analysis, a technique in qualitative research, used to identify and create patterns, as well as meaning from the collected data, using codes (Bryman, 2012; Willig, 2013; Joffe, 2012). Consequently, the themes permit the researcher to tell a story from the collected data, by linking codes in a significant way, thereby producing understanding from them (Willig, 2013). Therefore, in this chapter, the researcher describes the findings, according
to five major themes. The participants’ demographic data is presented in Table 5.1 and 5.2, and are subsequently discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

5.2. Demographic data of participants

The total number of participants for this study was 47, comprising five focus group discussions of six to eight children, individual interviews of 10 families and four members of staff (social workers, teachers and counsellors). The focus group discussion participants were drawn from learners at the Bana Ba Metsi School, comprising standard 5, 6 and 7 classes (Grade 7, 8 and 9). All the interviews and discussions lasted between 40 and 70 minutes for both the individual interviews and focus group discussions.

5.2.1. Demographic data of children

Five focus group discussions were conducted at the Bana Ba Metsi School and Table 5.1 summarises these demographic details. All participants were male, as the school currently only admits male students.

Table 5.1: Demographic data of children in focus groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focus group</th>
<th>Age range (years)</th>
<th>Participants per group</th>
<th>Family structures</th>
<th>Participants home villages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1           | 13 – 16           | 6                      | • Single parent = 2  
• Two parent = 1 (married)  
• Extended = 3 | Maun (3)  
Francistown  
Ghanzi  
Kanye |
| 2           | 12 – 17           | 6                      | • Single parent = 2  
• Two parent = 3 (2 married & 1 cohabiting)  
• Extended = 1 | Nkaneng  
Hukuntsi  
Etsha 6  
Maun (3) |
| 3           | 13 – 17           | 6                      | • Single parent = 1  
• Two parent = 3 (2 married & 1 cohabiting)  
• Extended = 2 | Maun (2)  
Kanye  
Mahalapye  
Selebe-Phikwe  
Ghanzi |
5.2.1.1. Age range

The 33 participants, aged between 12 and 17 years old, were pupils from three levels at school. In the focus group discussions (FGDs), they were intermixed, regardless of the school level, except for FGD 4 and 5 that comprised standard 5’s (grade 7’s) pupils, who were interviewed during a different period.

5.2.1.2. Family structures

The participants came from different family structures. Nine participants were from single parent families, all female-headed. Eleven participants were from two-parent families; seven were raised by married couples, while four were part of cohabiting families. Most of the participants (13) were raised by extended family members, and the least (4), came from two-parent cohabiting families. Extended families were mainly grandparents and aunts to the participants.

5.2.1.3. Participants’ home villages (children)

Most of the participants were from Maun (12) and Lethakane (7), two participants each were from the three villages of Mahalapye, Kanye and Ghanzi, and eight villages had one participant each (Mochudi, Malotwane, Bobonong, Nokaneng, Etsha 6, Hukuntsi, Selebe-Phikwe and Francistown).
5.2.2. Demographic data of families

Ten families were interviewed for the study in three different areas of Botswana (Maun village, Lethakane village near Orapa Township, and Mahalapye village). Table 5.2 give a brief description of each of the families interviewed.

Table 5.2: Demographic of families interviewed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family number</th>
<th>Family structure</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>Employment status</th>
<th>Religion and church affiliation</th>
<th>Number of children in the house</th>
<th>Participant’s home village</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Extended family</td>
<td>Cohabiting</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Unemployed (TUDRP)</td>
<td>Christians (Apostolic Faith Church)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Single parent family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>Christians (ZCC)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Single parent family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Unemployed (TUDRP)</td>
<td>Christians (Rara Apostolic)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Single parent family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unemployed (CADUBG)</td>
<td>Christians (Apostolic Church)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Single parent family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Christians (Old Apostle Church)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Single parent family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Christians (Rara Bapati Church)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Maun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Extended family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unemployed (CADUBG)</td>
<td>Christians (Share the Fire Church)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lethakane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Extended family</td>
<td>Cohabiting</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Christians (Simione Church)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lethakane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Two parent family</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>Christians (Baptist Church)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lethakane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Extended family</td>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>Christians (Roman Catholic Church)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Mahalapye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TUDRP = Temporary under drought relief programme  
CADUBG = Classified as destitute under Botswana Government
5.2.2.1. Family structure

The data in Table 5.2 indicates that three different family structures were involved in this study. Four were extended families, five single parent families (female-headed) and a two-parent family. These family structures represent some of the families, whose children were being schooled at the Bana Ba Metsi School during this study.

5.2.2.2. Marital status

There were seven unmarried parent families; two were part of an extended family, while five were female-headed. Cohabiting parents, who are extended family to the children, are represented by two families. Only one family was represented by a married couple.

5.2.2.3. Education level

As indicated in Table 5.2, four family heads attended primary school level and three attended secondary school level, while the other three family heads had never been to school.

5.2.2.4. Employment status

The demographic data has also illustrated that four families were not employed, two families were classified as destitute according to the Botswana Government, and two families were unemployed, but doing temporary jobs under the drought relief programme, which is only for six months in a year. However, one family was employed, while the other one was self-employed.
5.2.2.5. Religion and church affiliation

The participant families in the study indicated that they are Christians, affiliated to a church, where they worship.

5.2.2.6. Number of children in the house

The data illustrates that there were more than one child in each of the families. There were three families with two children, and two families with four children. The other five families each had three, five, seven, eight and eleven children, respectively.

5.2.2.7. Participants’ home villages (families)

The participation of the families in this study was informed by the children who were being schooled at the Bana Ba Metsi School. Therefore, these families were from the same villages as children (see 5.2.1.3) and only three villages of Maun, Letlhakane and Mahalapye were selected based on children’s FGD.

5.2.3. Demographic data of staff members

Four members of staff were interviewed during the data collection process. The staff members, who participated in the study, were the school social worker, two teachers and a counsellor, who worked closely with the children at the school. In addition, they were providing a link between area social workers, where the children came from, and the school. The members of staff involved three males and a female, who were based at the Bana Ba Metsi School and the Bana Ba Letsatsi centre.
5.3. Presentation and discussion of findings

The results of the study are presented as they emerged from the analysed data of verbatim-transcribed, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and field notes. The results are described according to themes and sub-themes that emerged from the collected data codes. The themes were discussed and agreed upon after consultations with fellow colleagues, who are versatile in research, as well as the study supervisor. The exploration of the experiences and challenges of different families with delinquent children in Botswana resulted in similar themes and sub-themes across all three different family structures (extended family, single parent family and two parent families). However, the sub-theme, ‘it is not easy raising children…’ was only common in extended families. As such, the description of the results is presented, discussed and supported by participants’ (families, children and staff) direct quotes from the transcribed data, in order to establish their credibility. In addition, reference is made to relevant literature, where available, in order to substantiate, or negate, the themes that emanated from the study.

The themes and sub-themes that emerged from analysed, transcribed, collected data are tabulated in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Themes and sub-themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>SUB-THEMES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 1:</strong> The impact of different family structures on delinquent children (5.3.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theme 2:</strong> Emotional and psychological factors (5.3.2)</td>
<td><strong>Sub-theme 2.1:</strong> Shame and embarrassment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-theme 2.2:</strong> Psychological pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Sub-theme 2.3:</strong> Stress and depression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3.1. Theme 1: The impact of different family structures on delinquent children

In this theme, the results indicated that these three different family structures had similar impacts to the development of delinquency in their children. Most of the families were unemployed, having no source of income to use to provide for their children. In a study by Magnuson and Berger (2009), the results revealed that many children under the age of 18 years are raised by single parents or relatives. In addition, female-headed families were cited as being harder hit by poverty, than their counterparts (UNICEF, 2011), while poverty, or financial difficulty, has been observed to escalate stress and risk taking behaviours among children (Hay et al., 2007; Wright & Younts, 2009; Matwetwe, 2007). This is evidenced by some of the participant’s comments:

“Majority of these families are not economically up to standard, they are poor and for them to care for this children is a challenge” (Interview Staff Member 02).

“I left school because we were not eating well and preferred to eat in the rubbish bins” (FGD 04).
“I ran away from school because my classmates were always teasing me with torn pants and my mother could not afford to buy me a new one” (FGD 03).

In contrast, the quote of another participant, who is married, differs from the argument.

“I am working and was able to provide for my children and honestly do not know what happened to my son because he started fighting others and stealing” (Interview Family 09, Letlhakane).

In another study, the findings showed that male children were more likely to exhibit delinquent acts in single, female-headed families (Vanassche et al., 2014). In addition, delinquency is mostly associated with single female-headed families, than two parent families (Singh & Kiran, 2014). Participants commented:

“I ran away from school for not doing school homework and was always beaten because my mother was always arriving home late and could not assist me” (FGD 02).

“My brother drinks alcohol a lot and he will come home and harass everyone including my mother” (FGD 03).

“My child left school because I was forced to find a job as a housekeeper and left him with his relatives” (Interview Family 02, Maun).

The above extract is consistent with Kendig and Bianchi’s (2008) argument, in which they assert that two parent families spend more time with their children, than single headed families. However, Biblarz and Stacey (2010) differ, stating that single mothers can spend as much time with their children as two parent families, if their socio-economical individualities are kept constant. Children who are not raised by their biological parents and those that are neglected are more prone to commit crimes (Ikäheimo et al., 2013; Ryan et al., 2013). This is indicated by the extract below:
“I left school because my grandmother used to leave other kids with us while going to the fields” (FGD 01).

“I only get P580 from a temporary job and I have eight children to look after. Five of my children lost their parents and I had to take them in. Sometimes they feel I am too strict for them” (Interview Family 01 Maun).

The above discussion clearly shows that family structure does have an impact on child delinquency behavioural activity. The bio-ecological systems theory of Bronfenbrenner (1979, 2004) alludes that family plays a big role in the socialisation of the child and can contributes to positive or negative behaviour. In addition, the social constructionism theory asserts that people construct their knowledge from their own context; therefore, delinquency behaviour comes as a result, of what children learn from their own environment (Pritchard & Woollard, 2013).

The second theme discusses the emotional and psychological factors that different families encounter in dealing with delinquent children.

5.3.2. Theme 2: Emotional and psychological factors

The findings of this study suggest that the three different family structures experience the same ordeal of psychological pain, shame and embarrassment, stress and depression when dealing with delinquent children. The theme attests to families’ involvement and understanding of raising children, who later become involved in criminal activity and antisocial behaviour. This theme describes the families’ emotional and psychological factors in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. Therefore, the researcher describes the sub-themes that support the major theme. The three sub-themes were common across the three different family structures (single parent family, two parent
family and extended family). Hence, the descriptions for three sub-themes represent all three family structures. The next segment discusses family feeling of shame and embarrassment.

5.3.2.1. Sub-theme 2.1: Shame and embarrassment

Shame is a highly negative emotion that makes individuals feel as if their image and identity are threatened or publicly exposed (Lewis, 1995; Said, 2014). Sociocultural norms are highly valued in any society, and the sense of inadequately adhering to them can make individuals feel small in their own state (Lewis, 1995). This follows self-awareness by the individuals in their own environment that draws the attention of others. The findings indicated that most participants (about 60% of interviewed families) in this study felt that the display of children’s bad behaviour resulted in family humiliation. Some of the children participants also had the same sentiments on their families’ experiences. This was common among all three different family structures indicated by three sets of participants. Some of the participants were quoted as follows:

“I used to steal and people were coming to our home to complain, it was not a good thing because I felt like I am destroying my family’s name. It was like I am pulling my mom’s name in the mud, and also destroying my own name” (FGD 01).

“Some of them were eating at the dumping site and it pains because people think they are not fed at home. It is a shame to the family” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

This finding is in accordance with the results by parents of children, who were involved in gangs (Aldridge et al., 2011), as they expressed that their children’s
involvement with gangs make them feel ashamed and humiliated, when having to face their neighbours and other members of their community.

The excerpt below is almost similar to one in a study conducted by Holt (2009), in which one parent was expected to supervise her son for the youth offending team, in order for them to both complete their sentences. The participant expressed concerns about the situation, as s/he was constantly engaged in escorting the child to school, while s/he should be seeking for employment to provide for the family. The participant said:

“I was forced to take him to school every day and be by the school after break... It was difficult for me to handle the whole situation... by always taking him to school. It was like I am also a student” (Interview Family 03, Maun).

Conversely, some participants (children) blamed their parents and did not perceive the situation as a problem. When individuals feel rejected, it is not surprising that they tend to hide their shame, by blaming others and defending their actions (Gausel, Leach, Vignoles & Brown, 2012; Tangney, Stuewig & Martinez, 2014). One participant said:

“I ran away from school for not doing school homework. I got tired because I was always beaten and my mom was always arriving home late and could not assist me with my homework” (FGD 02).

In contrast, most mothers pointed the finger at themselves for failing in their children’s upbringing, which led to criminal behaviour (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2011). In addition, Selwyn and Meakings (2015) assert that adoptive parents were
ashamed for failing their adoptive children, as they were evaluated and found to be fit to raise these children, as the responses below indicate:

“It is not an easy thing, especially orphans they like to misbehave and they take advantage of the loss of their parents and even talk any how to us. It is not easy raising children that are not yours” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

“(Laughed...), you know I’m not laughing, it is not easy to raise somebody’s child. You feel useless, as if there is nothing you can do. It is difficult to raise someone’s child because you cannot treat him or her like your own. For example, if they misbehave, you do not care much but your own child you get worried” (Interview Family 10, Mahalapye).

Although the child and family are discussed under microsystem in the bio-ecological systems theory, this sub-theme is summarised under the macrosystem layer in bio-ecological theory. This is because it explains the families’ feelings towards unacceptable behaviour displayed by their children, which conflicts with their cultural norms and values; hence, the feeling of shame. Bremner and Wachs (2010), as well as Berk (2006) assert that it is an umbrella for other layers and, therefore, refers to individuals’ values, cultural norms and customs that guide and regulate everyone’s behaviour in their neighbourhood. The findings of this study indicated that most families were not happy that their children are not at school, and some were contravening with the law. According to social constructionism theory, participants expressed their feelings of shame, the way they experienced it, as their children’s actions were contrary to what was expected in society. The next
segment discusses the other sub-theme on families’ experiences focusing on psychological pain.

5.3.2.2. Sub-theme 2.2: Psychological pain

It is apparent that dealing with a delinquent child has different experiences for the different family structures. Almost all the participants expressed the same sentiments about the effects of children’s bad behaviour on the entire family. The three sets of participants indicated that it was hurtful, stressful, and was not easy to deal with delinquent children by all three different family structures. The situation was not only distressing the family, but family friends and neighbours were disturbed.

“It was painful and I was so stressed up that I landed in hospital and was admitted” (Interview Family 02 Maun).

“To be honest, I was giving my parents headache, I was seriously naughty. I remember when I was accused to have impregnated a girl, she Fainted” (FGD 05).

“It is generally painful or hurting to some families… Some parents come here crying saying, ‘I do not want to see my child go through what I went through’ Another parent came here crying… the mother is now sick due to the pain of now seeing her child in that state. …there is one child that tried to commit suicide and last night I could not sleep thinking about her” (Interview Staff member 04).

“This thing was eating me alive, it was heart breaking” (Interview Family 08 Letlhakane).

These findings are consistent with those of a study by Gault-Sherman (2012), which revealed that parents of delinquent adolescents are overwhelmed and
frustrated by their children’s involvement in delinquent activity, resulting in less
time spent with them. In addition, the findings indicated that delinquent children
might leave their parents hurt, irritated, stressed and annoyed at their unacceptable
behaviour. In addition, mothers of offending children reported a terrific amount of
stress, which was also manifested in tension disorders, such as hypertension and
migraine headaches (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2011).

Although most participants alluded to the hurt in their family, other participants,
especially children, had nothing to add, regarding the issue. Others were not sure
how their families felt. One participant said:

“Ahh (smiling), they were not feeling okay that I am not going to school”
(FGD 01).

Child development is influenced by the family structure; however, child behaviour
can affect their parents and family, conversely, as Bronfenbrenner’s model alludes
to the bidirectional nature of relationships (Wilmshurst, 2013). The participants
clearly indicated in their own setting that their children’s behaviour was causing
them heartache. The social constructionism theory suggests that they are experts
on the phenomenon. Accordingly, they voiced their own opinions about their
feelings regarding their experiences in dealing with delinquency.

Stress and depression, as experienced by these three different families is discussed
in the following sub-theme.
5.3.2.3. Sub-theme 2.3: Stress and depression

Ambert (1999) indicates that delinquent boys cause their parents, especially their mothers, more stress, tiredness, unhappiness, ill health, as well as shame, because of their delinquent behaviour. Some participants indicated that they were worried about their children’s bad behaviour, while others were desperate to know why. Some families practised the Tswana proverb, ‘Fa ngwana a lelela legodu le moneele le tle le mo fise’, which means that a child, who insists on doing something that is against parental advice, should be left to do what s/he feels is right to him/her, in the hope s/he learns the hard way. This is evidenced by the extract below:

“We were trying hard to help him by seeking for help... He was beaten but there was no change in his behaviour. He did not listen and we ended up leaving him with the thought he will change” (Interview Family 10 Mahalapye).

Children also had some thoughts about their families’ feelings. One participant said:

“I think my family was worried and concerned during the time that I was not schooling because they ensured that I get back to school” (FGD 04).

According to the social constructionism theory, there is no single truth, which means, people are experts in sharing their story relative to their feelings, as experience by them (Rogers, 2010). Therefore, the participants’ feelings of stress and depression, from repeatedly trying to encourage their children to become better citizens, are well understood by them.
The third theme discusses the different families’ social perceptions and knowledge they encountered in dealing with delinquent children.

5.3.3 Theme 3: Social perceptions and family knowledge

Social factors are perceived as all aspects that encompass the change of an attitude towards another person or group of persons as well as those factors that moulds individuals (Henslin, 2015; Siegel & Welsh, 2011). On the other hand, knowledge refers to an understanding gained about a situation (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). The findings of this study indicated how different families’ interpreted and understood their children’s delinquency acts as perceived by the societies in which they live. The families indicated social issues like family disintegration, discrimination and judgement, reasons and influences of delinquency behaviour, “it is not easy raising children…” and happiness brought by children’s reform.

The families had different views about what could have caused their children’s delinquency. They had their suspicions and were desperate to know what influenced them. The next section discusses families’ experiences with delinquent children, regarding reasons and influences of delinquent behaviour.

5.3.3.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Reasons and influences of delinquent behaviour

The results suggested that most families were helpless, not knowing what really led to their children’s antisocial and criminal behaviour. They were beating themselves up, thinking about what they had done to cause it, or could have done to prevent it. Ultimately, they believed that they had done their best, but could not prevent it. They started blaming their children’s behaviour on other people (God, bad friends, witches, neighbours and even teachers). However, the children
confirmed some of the suspicions of their families and the staff members had their opinions on the latter. The participants were quoted as saying:

“When it started I could not sleep, I asked God why He hates me so much, but also prayed for my child’s protection” (Interview Family 05 Maun).

“I used to steal from other people, and they got tired and bewitched me. They messed up with my mind” (FGD 02).

“I was not living well, always had pain in my heart, asking myself so many questions like what is wrong with my child” (Interview Family 09 Letlhakane).

Some participants associated their children’s bad behaviour with poverty. Some children’s problem behaviour may have developed due to negative parenting because of financial stress that caused parental mental problems and inter-parental fights (Ponnet, 2014). In addition, coming from poverty-stricken backgrounds, could influence children to commit criminal acts, such as stealing, in order to survive (Omboto et al., 2013). The participant’s suspicions were indeed supported by literature. Some of them were quoted as follows:

“I think it may be caused by poverty and when children are hungry (go sena mo maleng) end up going to eat in dustbins” (Interview Family 07 Letlhakane).

“I left school because I didn’t have jersey and during winter I will refuse to go to school until I was kicked out of school” (FGD03).

The following quote indicates that there were many factors, which, the families believed, contributed to their children’s delinquent activity, apart from the lack of food. They reported that the environment contributed to child delinquency, as their neighbours were drinking too much alcohol, and did not value education.
Consequently, they were not encouraging children to go to school. Many researchers have cited environment and neighbourhood, as factors that could contribute to child delinquency (Valdimarsdóttir & Bernburg, 2014; Omboto et al., 2013; Furr-Holden et al., 2011; Handley et al., 2015).

“I suspected he did that because there was no food at home, but he continued doing that even if we managed to buy some food. Environment contributes to such behaviour. For example, when we moved to this area, we found that people here drink alcohol too much, and parents did not encourage their children to go to school” (Interview Family 08 Letlhakane).

Although environment does not contribute to child delinquency alone, Bocar, Mercado, Macahis and Serad (2012) affirm that community attitude or certain behaviours, such as alcohol use and drugs by other individuals in a certain neighbourhood, could contribute to child delinquency. Additionally, poor societies have been identified as being predisposed to adolescent deviant behaviour, compared to those from wealthier backgrounds (Caicedo & Jones, 2014). Additionally, bio-ecological systems theory attests to the notion that the environment influences the child’s development and behaviour, since there is a reciprocal relationship between them (Lewthwaite, 2011; Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

However, there are different factors that could lead to child delinquency. The excerpt below indicates that fear could lead to truancy among learners, who, consequently, might leave school. This exposes them to bad influences, such as using of alcohol and smoking cigarettes at a young age. Literature has linked substance use/abuse to learners, who are absent from school (Henry & Thornberry, 2010). Bullying is a serious concern at Botswana schools and because of the fear
could lead to a drop in academic performance among victims, (Tjavanga & Jotia, 2012).

“I ran away from school because I was bullied by others at school. They used to make us steal from others. I ended up drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes” (FGD 04).

Children affirmed some of their families’ suspicions that friends, indeed, influenced them. This is in relation to study by Mason, Mennis, Linker, Bares and Zaharakis (2014), who found that substance use could develop as result of peer influence. DeLay et al. (2013) further indicates that peers are nominated based on what is observed as factors to be included into the group, and consequently, pressure can mount to do as others do. However, others may opt not to follow what their friends do, and, accordingly, may not be included into the group. Some participants were quoted as saying:

“My friend is not schooling and he liked to tell me to go to the bars at night. He influenced me since he is older than me, he used to buy cigarette and asked me to smoke. My friend used to tell me to sniff glue to be a man (lejita), but I refused...decided to smoke cigarette. All this happened due to friend’s influence, right now the other one is in jail” (FGD 05).

“We used to go and break in at my aunt’s place since we knew she liked going to church. We influenced each other as friends to do bad things” (FGD 05).

Some of the staff members had different viewpoints. They indicated that children copy behaviour or learn from their family members.

“I think some of the contributing factors are issues from the families. For example, you will find traditional beer is made in the home and parent’s drink, so the child grows up knowing that it is okay to drink. Other children
are influenced by their peers at school even when their parents are’’
(Interview Staff member04).

This is in accordance with social learning theory by Albert Bandura, which declares that children learn not only by being taught, but also by observing and modelling the behaviour of others (Cech & Martin, 2012). In addition, it is consistent with bio-ecological systems theory, which indicates that behaviour is shaped by how an individual interacts with the environment (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2007). Families with children who display delinquent behaviour also experience discrimination and judgement from the societies in which they reside, as illustrated by the discussion of the next theme.

5.3.3.2. Sub-theme 3.2: Discrimination and judgment

The results revealed that discernment was generally common among all three different family structures. Most participants indicated that they have seen signs of discrimination from the communities in which they reside. This finding is confirmed by the findings of Usher, Jackson and O’Brien’s (2007) study, in which the participants (parents) voiced distress that they were perceived by society as somehow responsible for their children becoming involved with drugs. The participants (children and family) of this current study commented:

“People around my home were saying I am a bad influence to their kids”

(FGD 02).

“My neighbours didn’t want me to be friends with their kids as they said I’ll teach them bad behaviour” (FGD 03).
“They didn’t like what I was doing and they were calling my mother names like this one whose son beats our kids, who ran away from school” (FGD 05).

“…people were always looking at me as if I am influencing him or even sending him to steal or fight with their children” (Interview Family 08 Letlhakane).

These findings are similar to Aldridge et al. (2011), who indicates that parents of these children articulated feelings of being disrespected, especially when people in their community treat them with a sense of disparagement and gossip behind their backs. In addition, discrimination increases adolescents risks of getting involved in early substance use (Brody, Kogan & Chen, 2012; Ottu & Oladejo, 2014), and further contributes to the causes of blame, anger and aggressive behaviour among them (Hartshorn, Whitbeck & Hoyt, 2012). This is evidenced through the following extracts from participants, who revealed feelings of disappointment and blame to other families:

“Eish, (with a disappointing loss of hope look), I look at them and think they do not do enough to discipline their own children. For example, when my son does not spend night at home, I will go looking for him and sometimes find him at their homes, I will feel they should have done more than allowing him to sleep” (Interview Family 09, Letlhakane).

“I look at them as people who do not take responsibility in raising their children when they grow up in a manner that is acceptable by the society. People looked at us as if we do not care about him” (Interview Family 10 Mahalapye).

Although the participants highlighted some signs of discrimination or judgements towards them, the aforementioned quotations highlight constructs of discrimination, by the same families, towards others. The participants of this
current study showed their disappointment towards the other parents, for failing to raise their children well, because they believed that these parents were contributing towards their children’s bad behaviour. The proponents of the juvenile justice system also seem to be inconsistent with youth, who encounter them, as they selectively discriminate those coming from less supervised parents with poor socio-economic backgrounds (Gatti, Tremblay & Vitaro, 2009). The findings have also indicated that families experience family disintegration because of their children’s delinquent behaviour. The following sub-theme attempts to address this.

5.3.3.3. Sub-theme 3.3: Family disintegration

Family disintegration naturally means family separation or falling apart, which is the case with all these families. Their children are supposed to be living with their families, but because of their bad behaviour, the families have been forced to send them to the Bana Ba Metsi School, with the hope of them rehabilitating. However, the families felt that it was better for their children, instead of them being away, somewhere unknown, and not knowing about their safety. Generally, almost all the participants indicated that they wished to be together as family.

Some parents indicated that they separated from, or broke up with, their spouses due to the demands and constant supervision that the child needed, versus their spousal relationships (Myers, Mackintosh & Goin-Kochel, 2009). Although this study was not focussed on exploring juvenile delinquency as such, it does provide insight into how, dealing with children, who need constant attention, can affect families. In another study on ‘pains of imprisonment: narratives of the women partners and children of the incarcerated’, the results showed that the sudden separation caused strains on the marriage, with some participants admitting that
they missed their partners (Chui, 2010), clearly affecting the solidity of the family structure. The participants of this current study provided evidence to similar effects in the following quotations:

“The only concern is that other children miss him because he is now far away from home. I also miss him” (Interview Family 10 Mahalapye).

“It is not an easy thing to separate from family members, we miss him a lot ever since he went to Bana Ba Metsi School, because we used to stay with him” (Interview Family 01 Maun).

The above extracts are consistent with research by Hadwen (2015), whose results revealed that parents reported separation from their children as a painful moment, as well as cause for concern about how their children would settle in a new setting. According to Jackson, Usher and O’Brien (2007), families split and separate, because of the negative and hurtful behaviour caused by children abusing drugs. In addition, the results of their study indicated that the children’s bad behaviour was a result of substance use that had an effect on their parents’ health, as well as relationship with other family members. The following citation indicates that separation from family was indeed a factor in this current study, as indicated by a participant own words:

“I was very naughty and as a result my brother was always beating me, so I ended up running away from home” (FGD 05).

Family separation caused uncertainties in other families, as they believed that it was their responsibility to be caring and living with their children. Separation and reintegration of families could cause negative emotional effects, especially between mothers and children (Gindling & Poggio, 2009). In addition, Suárez-Orozco, Bang and Kim (2010) indicate that children, who are separated from their
families, experience depression and anxiety as compared to those, who stay with their parents. Similarly, parents, who were separated from their children, suffered separation anxiety (Kins, Soenens & Beyers, 2011). Some families were quoted as follows:

“I ask myself so many questions about his well-being while at school” (Interview Family 03 Maun).

“He is still young, so it concerns me as a parent not knowing how he is” (Interview Family 04 Maun).

“When he left I was worried if he was going to cope and I was not sure they are being taken good care” (Interview Family 06 Maun).

The above extracts are in consistent with the findings of Peng and Wong (2015), in which some participants stated that it was not easy to find someone trustworthy to care for their children. According to the bio-ecological systems theory, family, as part of the microsystem, is responsible for child development and socialization (Bremner & Wachs, 2010). Therefore, the separation of children from their families, concerns parents, as they believe it is their responsibility to care for their children. In addition, the chronosystem layer signifies this separation of families from their children, as a state in which changes in events occur in their environment (Wilmshurst, 2013). As a result of this change, and despite of the fact that, before being sent to school, the children were causing problems for caregivers, the findings have revealed that many families were worried, for their children’s well-being, far away from home.
Extended families shared their experiences of raising their non-biological children, therefore, the following sub-theme discusses that experience, as they said it, ‘It is not easy raising children…’

5.3.3.4. Sub-theme 3.4: ‘It is not easy raising children…’

This sub-theme was only common among the extended families. The findings suggest that there are various challenges associated within extended families raising their non-biological children. Although all the extended families accepted the role of parenthood to these children for various reasons, they highlighted that it was not easy, due to lack of support from other family members, financial constraints and children’s behaviour, in general. This finding is similar to a study conducted by Shaibu (2013), who determined that grandmothers, caring for orphans, endure financial challenges while providing for them, as well as the lack of support from extended family members. Shaibu’s study findings are essential to this current study, since most of these delinquent children, are orphans, who were cared for by their grandparents and other relatives. Wangui (2009) adds that grandparents feel bound to care for their orphaned children regardless of the inadequate resources to do so. All of them were not formally employed, therefore, no source of income, although others were informally employed, under a drought relief scheme. Two families were receiving food baskets from government, since one had an orphan child, while the other was classified as destitute. The following extracts support the sub-theme:

“It is challenging because you cannot raise them while there is no one helping financially to support them” (Interview Family 08, Letlakane).
“It is not an easy thing, especially orphans they like to misbehave they take advantage of the loss of their parents and even talk any how to us. It is not easy raising children that are not yours” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

“They are raised by their aunts, uncles and sometimes they are busy with their kids or maybe they are giving more attention to their own kids than these ones” (Interview Staff member 01).

“(Laughed...), you know I’m not laughing, it is not easy to raise somebody’s child. You feel useless, as if there is nothing you can do. It is difficult to raise someone’s child because you cannot treat them like your own. For example, if they misbehave, you do not care much but you get worried if it is your own child” (Interview Family 10).

Despite the many negative experiences expressed by these families, they were all happy that the Bana Ba Metsi School helped to improve the behaviour of their children. The discussion that follows in the next sub-theme reveals how children’s behaviour reform pleases the family.

5.3.3.5. Sub-theme 3.5: Children’s reform makes families happy

The Bana Ba Metsi School was established in order to rehabilitate youth at risk. The school, therefore, exists to provide therapy to these children. The social constructionism theory argues that rehabilitation focuses on the meaning that people attribute to their world and how it shapes their life (Neimeyer, 2009). Intrinsically, they interact actively with individuals, who are more knowledgeable and understand their behaviour, in order to learn (Weegar & Pacis, 2012). In this study, and despite the many negative experiences expressed by all three different families’ structures, they were all delighted that the transformation the Bana Ba Metsi School provided for their children was of great importance. The expressions communicated by some of the parents were amazing, as they were smiling and
talking with happiness, indicating how delighted they were that their children were improving. Parents commented:

“He was misbehaving and used to disappear visiting his father without anyone knowing but ever since going to Bana Ba Metsi School he has been behaving well. He now understands that he should let us know when he wants to visit his father or friends” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

“He is civilized now and he never went back to the dustbins during school vacations” (Interview Family 07, Letlhakane).

“He was a naughty boy and honestly he has slightly improved now but still needs time to be encouraged to change his behaviour. I am happy that he is schooling and getting education” (Interview Family 09, Letlhakane).

These findings are similar to those of a study by Sheridan, Peterson and Rosen (2010) in which they investigated the therapeutic experiences of parents of adolescents in family therapy. Their findings showed that the parents were able to reflect back and explain change in family climate, relationship and communication within the family. In this current study, the families were not the only ones expressing happiness, as the children also reported that their parents and siblings appreciate what was happening at Bana Ba Metsi. The following extracts refer:

“My parents are happy that I will get education and become a better person” (FGD 05).

“My family was excited that at least I will get education and be able to support myself when I get a job in the future after completing school” (FGD 05).

Other participants said:

“Most of the families are happy... they understand the need for their education. They believe that their kids have the second and last chance...
Some of them had long given up that their kids will go through any other school, but they are happy that we are giving this service to them and the improvement of their kid’s behaviour” (Interview Staff member 01).

Although some participants appeared to be in doubt, they still appreciated what the school was doing to mould their children’s behaviour. They hoped that the children would change for the better. This was evidenced in the excerpt below:

“Ahh, we are only hoping that he will change and become a better person. ...we are happy at least they have social workers at school and we are hoping for the best in change in his behaviour. ...there is a slight change in his behaviour. He is becoming to be a better person” (Interview Family 10, Mahalapye).

The Bio-ecological systems theory asserts that family is the socialisation layer within the microsystem, in which the behaviour between parents and children affect each other (Wilmshurst, 2013), therefore, the parents in these three family structures are happy, when their children reform. Alternatively, the social constructionism theory argues that people’s behaviour and mental power is a construction of what they encounter in their life (Pritchard & Woollard, 2013). Therefore, the feeling of happiness by these three family structures is a behaviour only understood by them, following their experiences. The next theme discusses the challenges different family structures encounter in dealing with delinquent children.

5.3.4. Theme 4: Challenges families face in dealing with delinquent children

The findings for this study have established that the major challenges facing these families, as extracted from the analysed collected data, are the distance between the
school and their homes, resources to help their children, communication with their children and support from other family members in dealing with their children. Therefore, in the following section, the researcher describes sub-themes that support the main theme.

5.3.4.1. Sub-theme 4.1: Long distances affect visitations and worries families

The long distance between the Bana Ba Metsi School and their homes has been expressed as the major concern facing parents, who would like to visit their children. Families appreciated what the school was doing for their children, but they were worried about how their children were managing, far away from home. They cited long distance and financial constraints as the main obstacles to arrest their worries. In this study, parents were worried about how their children were cared for, while not under their care, and wished that they could visit them, to show their support and love. The distance to visit their children was viewed as a hinderance as the following quotations indicate:

“No visitors and they say the place is very far from home and work commitments is also reason for not visiting” (FGD 03).

“They have never visited me due to distance. They say Bana Ba Metsi School is far away from home” (FGD 05).

“We do not have money for transport to go and check on him and it is far from here. However, we wish to visit him because we believe that could give him hope that indeed we care about him” (Interview Family 08, Letlhakane).

The following sub-theme provides a discussion of the challenges regarding the lack of resources to help children.
5.3.4.2. Sub-theme 4.2: Lack of resources to help their children

The lack of resources has been cited by all participants as distressing, as the families really wanted to help the children at the school. Almost all the families reported that they were not working, while others were doing piece jobs and had no fixed salary, or source of income, to rely on. Even the one, who was working cited that the money was not enough to cater for all the family needs. These findings are consistent with results of a study by Chui (2010), who indicates that partners of incarcerated men, who were the breadwinners voiced financial strain as a serious challenge in providing for their families; like buying food, clothes and paying school fees for their children. Although the majority of the participants in this current study were single mothers, not formally employed, the findings by Chui (2010) is useful in this current study, since almost all families in this study reported financial constraint as a major challenge to support their children, because of being unemployed. Some of the extracts from the participants’ data provide the following evidence:

“It is far and I have to call him frequently to show him support. Therefore, it is expensive for us” (Interview Family 09, Letlhakane).

“They said it will cost them a lot of money since it is too far away from home. The main problem is money, our parents cannot afford it” (FGD 04).

Financial constraints have been cited as the major resource deficiency that led to the failure of families to provide for their children. A study on ‘(en)gendering responsibilities: experiences of parenting a young offender’, conducted by Holt (2009), shows economic strains as the main problem among single mothers in paying for fines and court costs, while their economic situation was already fragile.
In this study, therefore, most of the parents, or caregivers, were not working and their financial burden was seriously affecting them, especially those, who had to repay people, from whom their children stole. One child felt ashamed that his parents had to pay for the damages he caused to one family, he sadly said:

“I used to steal from people, and as such, my parents had to pay for the damages... My parents used the money that could have been used to buy food for our family” (FGD 01).

“Majority of the families are not economically up to the standard, they are poor and for them to care for this kids is a challenge. Even the food they are given is so small that some families sell the food to get cash” (Interview Staff member 01).

“I think most student enjoy what is being done here (Bana Ba Metsi School), for example, most of them do not have things they do here like watching television” (Interview Staff member 03).

Families appreciated the assistance they received from the Government and other Non-governmental organisations like the Bana Ba Letsatsi Centre, in Maun. The following quotations refer:

“Social welfare office helps with uniform and toiletry...” (Interview Family 10, Mahalapye).

“I get help from Social welfare office regarding my needs, but it is not enough” (Interview Family 04, Maun).

“As a centre we give psychosocial support to families and children in need, it might be those families who are in poverty. We assist them with toiletry and other small necessary things like uniform and some clothes that we get from donors” (Interview Staff member 04).
The next sub-theme provides a discussion on the challenges families encounter regarding the lack of communication with their children.

5.3.4.3. Sub-theme 4.3: Lack of communication

The participants reported that they do manage to talk to their children occasionally, but generally, it is not enough, since they only call during weekends, since, they miss them. They noted that communication was not as they wished it could be, as when they were close and living with their children. These results are similar to those of a study by Enroos (2011), who also indicated that, for women prisoners, keeping relationships with family, was a challenging matter, since there were serious restrictions on when, and how long, to speak to their loved ones on the phone. Learners are not allowed to own mobile phones at school, so parents can only call their children on the School Director’s phone, on weekends.

“They have never visited me saying they are working, but they call once in a while to check me” (FGD 05).

“My mother only checks me by phone” (FGD 05).

In her study on children’s experiences of contact with their imprisoned parents: a comparison between four European countries, Sharratt (2014) indicated that keeping communication with family is important, in order to continue the daily routine interactions, receive updates on the daily life and provide assurance that they are doing well and are safe. In addition, families worry about the well-being of their children, while far away from home. Therefore, maintaining communication might help allay their concerns. Some cited that calling their children was also too costly for them, as the following quotation indicates:
“It is far and I have to call him frequently to show him support. Therefore, it is expensive and last night he was telling me that he is leaving school because other children have stolen his clothes” (Interview Family 09, Leithakane).

The school conducts meetings at the beginning and end of term with the parents at Maun, in order to share with them, their children’s progress at school. Unfortunately, not all parents are able to make it to the meetings due to the distance. One participant disclosed:

“We only have a meeting with parents and social welfare officers twice a term, which is during the beginning and the end of the term. The meeting is held at Bana Ba Letsatsi in Maun where we discuss children’s progress at school. ...they hardly attend the meetings” (Interview Staff member 01).

According to the bio-ecological systems theory, the microsystem layer includes settings like school (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). However, as indicated by the above extract, the school tries to close the communication gap, but due to financial constraints, families fail to attend these essential meetings. The sub-theme that follows discusses challenges regarding the lack of support from other family members.

5.3.4.4. Sub-theme 4.4: Lack of support from family members

Most of families cited the lack of support from other family members, especially the extended family, to assist with the children at the reform school. Some also reported that the lack of family support led to the children’s misbehaviour, because of hunger and the lack of other resources. As mentioned previously, most of the participants were unemployed and the support from other family members could have assisted with the purchasing of uniforms or food. Single mothers reported the
lack of support from family members, even though they were receiving welfare assistance (Ambert, 1999). The following quotations refer:

“*I am a destitute, all my children do not have their fathers, and I struggle alone in raising them*” (Interview Family 03, Maun).

“We do not get along as extended family and my children were mistreated because I am not working. I struggle alone to ensure they get uniform. No one in the family supports me in this issue. I am the only one who is concerned about my children. At home they could see but they did not care to help me” (Interview Family 06, Maun).

In contrast, Chui (2010) indicates that, although they are financially constrained, some mothers, who had husbands in prison, refused help from their fellow family members, as they were ashamed to accept support. However, a few participants appreciated the support they received from family members, as well as friends. These findings are consistent with those of studies by Sturges and Hanrahan (2011), as well as Orford, Velleman, Copello, Templeton and Ibanga (2010), who determined that the support system makes a difference in coping with the challenges and stress of contending with offending children.

Some participants reported support from their family, relatives, and friends. The following quotations refer:

“I was worried at night and got support from my son (his uncle) who helped me to discipline him accordingly” (Interview Family 07, Letlhakane).

“We have stuck together as family to cope in dealing with his behaviour until he was admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School” (Interview Family 08, Letlhakane).
“I cannot talk of my family because we were together in the situation and we were there for each other all the way until he was admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School” (Interview Family 05, Maun).

According to social constructionism theory, truth is created through shared human social activity (Pritchard & Woollard, 2013), and in this study some families indicated that they had support from their families, while others reported a lack of support. In addition, social constructionism defines family differently, as per the individuals’ context, while bio-ecological systems theory places it under the microsystem layer. Therefore, referring to other members of the families as the extended family is vital for the support of each other. Coping strategies for the challenges that families face in contending with delinquent children is the fourth main theme derived from the data collected and analysed.

5.3.5. Theme 5: Families’ coping strategies towards challenges

The findings revealed that the three different family structures utilised similar strategies to cope with the stress and challenges of contending with delinquent children. Some participants indicated that they sought counselling from church ministers and social workers. All of them referred to prayer and the power of God’s love, as key to their coping and acceptance of, contending with their delinquent children. They also identified family discussions as helpful in the attempts to instil common sense in their children’s minds, helping with discipline or finding ways to resolve conflicts caused by delinquent children. The theme captures measures, which all three different family structures utilised in managing challenges that they faced in contending with their delinquent children. These measures include ones used before the children were send to the Bana Ba Metsi School, as well as during their time at school. The following section describes sub-themes that support the main theme, with the aid of quotes from the participants.
5.3.5.1. Sub-theme 5.1: Attending support groups

Most participants suggested the need to form support groups in order to share their feelings, as it could help them understand how others contend with delinquent challenges. Support groups involve meeting with non-professional individuals, who had endured similar experiences, to share coping strategies and provide emotional support, thereby empowering each other to contend with the problem (Merriam-webster, n.d.). A support group empowers individuals with knowledge and skills on how to contend with the problem (Banach, Iudice, Conway & Couse, 2010; Kingsnorth, Gall, Beayni & Rigby, 2011). A support group has been suggested to provide individuals with knowledge and readiness to contend with both current and future problems, by encouraging them to realise that they are not alone (Henriksson, Årestedt, Benzein, Ternestedt & Andershed, 2013; Scharpe, 2012).

In relation to this study, the mothers of the offending children indicated that attending the meetings with individuals, who had similar problems, assisted them to understand that they were not alone and these groups do assist individuals in similar circumstances (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2011). Two families shared their experiences on the effects of the support group and how talking to other people had assisted them to cope with the stress, they faced. It also opened their eyes to see the bigger picture, thereby encouraging them to explore other coping measures. The following quotations refer:

“It was helping to share with other people since I like attending support groups. It helps to know that you are not the only one going through this challenge...” (Interview Family 01, Maun).
“I was also sharing with other people but they were thinking my child was being witched and I did not like that because I did not see any relationship between delinquency and witchcraft” (Interview Family 09, Lethakane).

Some of the participants suggested the formation of support groups. The following is what they had to say:

“…we also think people can come together and talk amongst others, we believe we may learn something from them” (Interview Family 08, Lethakane).

“We have only proposed to the school management to bring parents to school for a week to discuss such issues, but it has failed due to financial constraints” (Interview Staff member 02).

“…maybe we can form groups as parents and families with delinquent children and talk, as such, bringing different ideas that we can learn from each other. I wish as families we can have such societies because there are many children who are not admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School” (Interview Family 05, Maun).

The next sub-theme discusses family counselling and support as another coping strategy that families utilised, in order to deal with their delinquent children.

5.3.5.2. Sub-theme 5.2: Counselling and support

All the participants indicated that they had managed to get their children admitted at the Bana Ba Metsi School and were dealing with their children’s bad behaviour by seeking support from social welfare officers (social workers). However, most of them reported that, although the office was assisting with the provision of toiletries and school uniforms for their children, they felt the need for psychological support, which was lacking. Other participants stated that they had received counselling from their church ministers. Generally, almost all families had sought
assistance at the social welfare offices, for their children to be admitted at the Bana Ba Metsi School, as they had hoped that it would assist to mould their children’s behaviour. In a study conducted by Egenti (2015), counselling was found to be an answer for the provision of positive emotional support to delinquent adolescents, as the author’s aim was to establish its effectiveness in adolescents. As much as social constructionism theory argues that those best articulate constructs, who experience it, this study is essential in supporting the importance of counselling to help individuals, who are experiencing a difficult time. In addition, the findings of a study that aimed to describe patients’ experiences of counselling showed that the majority of the clients appreciated the presence of a family member, during the counselling session, for moral support (Paavilainen, Salminen-Tuomaala, Kurikka & Paussu, 2009). The findings of that study highlighted the importance of family support in this current study. The following quotations refer:

“…we give psychosocial support to families and children in need... We assist them with toiletry and other small necessary things like uniform and some clothes... Lastly, we do home visits to make follow-ups to this children and find progress in their behaviour as well as giving this children life-skills” (Interview Staff member 04).

“I was seeing Social workers for counselling, since the stress was just too much for me. Some other times I was doing self-counselling in order to deal with such challenges” (Interview Family 02, Maun).

“I was getting help from my pastor at the church. He provided counselling for me and praying for the family to protect my prodigal son” (Interview Family 05, Maun).

“I had to talk to people like pastors, friends, church mates, police officers and social welfare officers in order for me to feel better” (Interview Family 09, Lethakane).
Other participants felt psychological support was lacking at the social welfare offices, as they were only helping with material needs. The following quotations refer:

“Social welfare office help with uniform and toiletry, and they were there to talk to the child but they were not providing any psychological help” (Interview Family10 Mahalapye).

“I feel you can include the issue of social workers in order for them to do more in the community visits and let the community know what services they offer rather than only giving food to them. I feel they don’t do counselling to this children and families” (Interview Staff member04).

“I feel the social welfare officers at the areas where these kids come from are not doing much to ensure that environment is conducive for kids. We are doing all that we can to ensure the situation improves” (Interview Staff member 01).

Family discussions have been identified as another strategy, utilised by families to deal with delinquent children, therefore, the next section discusses this strategy.

5.3.5.3. Sub-theme 5.3: Family discussions

The majority of participants reported that when there is a problem, they usually call family meetings to sort the matter at hand. It appeared that elders and uncles are mostly respected to solve family conflicts and are mostly involved in disciplining children, who misbehaved. The participants indicated that it helped to know that they could rely on their relatives to discipline their children, although they previously reported the lack of support as challenge. Some of the participants expressed the following:
“If there is any conflict, it is my uncle’s responsibility to insure there is peace, he advises us not to get involved” (FGD 01).

“We call a meeting to sort the problem and we usually understand that we should respect our older siblings” (FGD 04).

“If there is a misunderstanding, for example, if I misbehave to elders I will be beaten and told that it is not the way to talk to older people” (FGD 05).

“We support each other and talk about the issue to resolve it since children behave differently” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

“We talk as family and discipline sometimes and normally there is piece like right now children are behaving well. I had to ask his uncle to discipline by beating him. He then listened and left for school” (Interview Family 07, Letlhakane).

According to social constructionism theory, facts are not learned, but constructed by people, of people, in discussion and not in isolation (Carr, 2006). Therefore, family discussions play a major role in assisting and supporting members of the extended family. In addition, bio-ecological systems theory defines family as the lager system surrounding the child, therefore, family collaboration is essential (Kaakinen et al., 2010). The following sub-theme discusses belief in the power and love of God, as the last coping strategy utilised by all different families.

5.3.5.4. Sub-theme 5.4: Belief in the power and love of God

All the families interviewed were Christians, who were affiliated to different churches. The results showed that all the different family structures relied on the Lord and believed the Mighty God could help them deal with situations they were facing. These results correlate with the findings of a study conducted by Sturges and Hanrahan (2011), in which they established that mothers of offenders relied
mostly on prayer and believed that God had solutions for the challenge they were facing. They further indicated that other participants in their study received support from their church ministers and Christian friends. In this current study, this belief was evident in all three family structures. Some of the participants were quoted as saying:

“*We had given all and had faith in the Lord that God will help us mould the child. I thank God for giving me strength and patience to be able to raise them. I only managed to do it because prayer concurs everything*” (Interview Family 01, Maun).

“I relied in prayer and had faith to protect my children” (Interview Family 07, Letlhakane).

“At *church they were helpful by helping us deal with difficult situations. Sometimes I will go to church hurt, low in spirit and feeling hopeless, but will leave church encouraged after the bible scriptures*” (Interview Family 08, Letlhakane).

“We depend on the Lord, we pray most of the time” (Interview Family 10, Mahalapye).

“My last resort was going to church and asked for prayers, then my son was admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School. I was giving all to the Lord by always praying for him. We are living in trying times and prayer is the answer” (Interview Family 02, Maun).

Bronfenbrenner (1979) identified key concepts in his model, namely adaptation, coping, energy, interdependence and transactions. It is important to appreciate that individuals relate with one another and their environment reciprocally, therefore, it depends on their ability to cope with those situations (Aldgate et al., 2006). By understanding these concepts, in relation to the families dealing with delinquent children, different families adjust to, and deal with, negative situations in their
surroundings in different ways; therefore, the application of social constructionist theory, which assumes that truth is constructed by people, in their own setting (Mooney et al., 2011; Rogers, 2010).

5.4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the researcher, firstly, discussed the demographic data of the participants. The experiences, challenges and coping strategies of three different family structures were explored in relation to contending with delinquent children in Botswana. The main findings of this study described the families’ both negative and positive experiences, challenges encountered as well as strategies employed in dealing with delinquent children. These results suggest that the three different family structures encountered emotional and psychological factors in terms of shame and embarrassment, stress and depression and psychological pain. In addition, they faced social factors as they interpret situations around them with regard to discrimination, family disintegration and suspicions on cause of delinquency. Furthermore, they identified challenges as long distance, lack of resources, lack of communication, and lack of support from family members. Additionally, families highlighted strategies they employed in dealing with delinquent children as attending support groups, counselling and support, family discussions and belief in the power and love of God.

In the next chapter, the researcher will state the conclusion and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter will present a summary of the study, the conclusions of the findings and recommendations to the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, as well as for future research. The aim of this study was to explore and describe the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. This aim was achieved through a qualitative methodological approach, which sought to explore and describe the social phenomenon, in terms of meaning, brought by people, as described by Boeije (2010). The research question was answered in Chapter Five, where the research findings were presented and discussed. The conclusions are based on the objectives that were initially set as yardsticks, to achieve the aim of the study, and to answer the research question.

The study had three objectives:

- To explore the experiences of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children;
- To explore the challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children; and
- To describe the coping strategies employed by different family structures in managing the challenges of dealing with delinquent children.
The collected data, obtained from the various participants were analysed, from which four main themes emerged that were unpacked in Chapter Five. Literature and theory were used to substantiate, explain, compare and contrast the findings of this study. A brief summary on each of the previous chapters, as well as conclusions and recommendations from the findings will be presented in the following sections.

6.2. Summary of the study

The summary of the study provides a brief account of all chapters together, without going into detail, as they have been thoroughly discussed previously.

6.2.1. Chapter 1: Introduction of the study

The first chapter provided a blueprint and gave an outline of the study through a discussion of the background of the study, the research problem, the aim, the objectives guiding the study and the methodology utilised in the study.

6.2.2. Chapter 2: Theoretical framework

The second chapter presented detailed discussion of the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The Bio-ecological systems theory by Bronfenbrenner and Social constructionism were opted for as theories, appropriate to guide the study.

6.2.3. Chapter 3: Literature review

Chapter Three explored the available literature in relation to the topic. The researcher provided a detailed discussion of all the concepts relevant to juvenile delinquency and its impact on family structure. In addition, the few previous studies in the literature gave insights into the parents’ experiences of dealing with children, who displayed delinquent behaviour.
6.2.4. Chapter 4: Research methodology

The researcher determined that an explorative and descriptive qualitative approach were best suited in seeking to achieve the study’s aim. The researcher recruited three sets of participants, in order to gather different views of the study phenomena, using purposive sampling. The first recruitment group was delinquent children from the Bana Ba Metsi School, the second group was their parents or caregivers and the third group was staff members working directly with the recruited children at the Bana Ba Metsi School and Bana Ba Letsatsi centre. The researcher collected the data by means of individual one-on-one interviews (families and staff members) and focus group discussions (children), guided by a semi-structured interview schedule.

6.2.5. Chapter 5: Presentation and discussion of the findings

In chapter five, the researcher presented and discussed the findings of research, after data collection and data analysis. The collected data, which was also audio-recorded, was verbatimly transcribed and analysed. Thereafter, the themes that emerged were described in detail. The findings of this study concluded by highlighting that the three different family structures experienced the same ordeal in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. These findings were concluded based on four themes: Impact of different family structures on delinquent children; Family experiences; Challenges faced by families; and Coping strategies utilised by families when dealing with delinquent children.

6.2.5.1. Theme 1: Impact of different family structure on delinquent children

The overall outcomes of this study have shown that family structure plays a critical role in the development of delinquency among children. The main factor was
poverty that was seen to be among all the families that participated in this study, as almost all of them were unemployed and had no other source of income to provide for their children.

6.2.5.2. Theme 2: Emotional and psychological factors

The findings indicated clearly that the three different family structures, whose children were involved in delinquent activity, experienced stress and depression, psychological and emotional pain, and became the victims of shame and embarrassment.

6.2.5.3. Theme 3: Social perceptions and family knowledge

The findings under this theme adds to the three negative consequences in theme two (2), thus making seven sub-themes as compared to the one positive sub-theme, children’s reform makes families happy. The four negative experiences associated with this theme illustrates that families had suspicions regarding cause of delinquency to their children, they felt discriminated and judged as a result of their childrens’ delinquency acts. They further indicated that their childrens’ delinquent acts had an effect of family integration, thus it led to family disintegration. In addition, the extended families indicated that it was not easy raising non-biological children. However, they were happy and appreciated what the Bana Ba Metsi School was doing in relation to the children’s transformation.

6.2.5.4. Theme 4: Challenges families face in dealing with delinquent children

It was apparent that all the families in this study suffered similar challenges in dealing with delinquent children. All the families had limited resources, mainly financial. They could not fully provide for their children, in terms of acquiring
school uniforms and food. Financial scarcity, coupled with the lack of family support, resulted in the inability of families to visit their children at school, or even to keep in contact more often, due to long distance for telecommunication or travel.

6.2.5.5. Theme 5: Families’ coping strategies towards challenges

Among all the families involved in this study, as well as the quotations from the other participants (children and staff members), trust in the Lord, and therefore, prayer was the main coping strategy utilised by families in dealing with their delinquent children. All families relied on prayer because they believed that God would intervene in their problems.

6.2.6. Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

Lastly, chapter six provides the conclusions and recommendations of the study. It presents an overall summary of the chapters covered in the study, as well as the limitations that need to be observed simultaneously with the findings of the study.

6.3. Limitations of the study

Although the study was well structured and constructed, it is worth noting that several methodological limitations were identified that might have a direct or indirect effect on outcomes of the study. The limitations of the study are factors that the researcher cannot control, and may include weaknesses, situations beyond the researcher’s control that place constraints on research methodology and conclusions (De Vos et al., 2011). The following items have been observed as limitations, in relation to findings for this study:

- The research met several challenges during the recruitment process. This study was initially planned to be conducted with families of delinquent children held at the Moshupa boys’ prison and the Ikago School of industry, however, the prison denied the researcher...
access. The Ikago School of industry had less than five possible participants; and therefore excluded as a research site.

- Juvenile delinquency in most cases is defined as criminal acts committed by under 18’s and perceived as serious crimes. In this study, the researcher did not take that into consideration since types of juvenile delinquency displayed by the participants (children), were mostly under-age smoking, under-age drinking alcohol, stealing and truancy. Therefore, there was lack of serious crimes that may have been perceived as disturbing by all societies in Botswana.

- The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. In addition, previous literature indicated that gender had an effect on the type of delinquency. It was not the intention of the study to single out gender or the type of juvenile delinquency, however, during the time of this study, the Bana Ba Metsi School only had admitted males, and therefore, females were not included in the study.

- Although the researcher intended to interview both parents, in the case of two parent families, during interviews only one of the three families had both parents present. the other two families had one member present while their partners were held up due to work commitments and the long distances from homes.

- Previous literature has indicated that juvenile delinquency is associated with family economic background (poverty), and even though the study did not specifically aim to explore the experiences with regard to social class, the findings of this study has shown that almost all of the participants were not formally employed.

- Although the researcher involved three sets of participants (families, their children and staff members), the study aimed to explore the experiences and challenges by different family structures in dealing with delinquent children. Only 10 families participated in
this study, with the exclusion of the 33 children and four members of staff. Consequently, the researcher cannot claim applicability of this study findings beyond the sample used in this study.

- The researcher regarded the participants as the experts in this study; however, it is worth noting that the presence of a researcher in any qualitative research is assumed to affect the construction of the data. Reflexivity (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013) is considered as another limitation in this study.

6.4. Recommendations

The recommendations are grouped into three sets, being (a) Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, (b) Ministry of Education and Skills Development and (c) future research that can address families’ issues in dealing with delinquent children and improving families’ ways of helping children to transform.

6.4.1. Recommendations to the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development

- The results of this study have shown that almost all the participants lacked counselling and appeared not to understand the role of social workers. The Department of Social Services, therefore, should educate the communities they serve about their services and responsibilities. They should inform the communities that their services are not only centred on assisting them with the provision of food and clothes for their children in need.

- Some participants also indicated that support groups were helpful in assisting them to cope with the challenges they faced, in dealing with delinquent children. The researcher suggests that the social services, through the social workers in
various communities, should identify families experiencing similar difficulties and assist them to form support groups.

6.4.2. Recommendations to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development

- It is understood that the ministry has implemented a reception classes programme, during the end of the third term, when the standard sevens (grade sevens) close for the year. In Botswana, standard sevens close after writing examinations in October, and a week later, children, who would like to be registered for standard one in the following year, are expected to attend these reception classes for admission into primary school. However, the researcher advocates for a three year pre-school, to cater for all families that cannot afford private pre-school, thereby, giving the parents a chance to seek employment, in order to provide for their children.

- In their study entitled, “Are social workers needed in Botswana schools? Some food for thought”, Maundeni and Ntseane (2004) assert that social workers are required in Botswana schools, to assist students to deal with psychosocial difficulties that impede effective learning. The researcher of this current study concurs that social workers are needed in Botswana schools, since the findings of this study revealed that families were happy about the presence of a social worker at the Bana Ba Metsi School, who contributes to the transformation in their children’s behaviour. The researcher, therefore, recommends that the ministry act on this recommendation, although guidance and counselling is generally practiced in schools.

- The ministry is aware that juvenile delinquency as a problem that warrants special attention, therefore, the researcher recommends that the ministry
designate one or more secondary schools to admit children from the Bana Ba Metsi School, in order to provide support for those learners to prevent them from relapsing.

- Studies by Matsoga (2003), Hulela and Matsolo (2011) and Tjavanga and Jotia (2012) indicate that bullying is prevalent in Botswana schools. The researcher, therefore, recommends that the ministry retain the services of a social worker for each school, or cluster of schools. This social worker should be specifically trained to assist victims of bullying, besides offering other psychosocial services, which would help learners and their families.

- Lastly, the findings of this study should be shared with learners in schools so that they can understand the impact of delinquency on their families.

6.4.3. Suggestions for future research

- Future research should address the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with female delinquent children in Botswana.

- This study grouped all types of juvenile delinquency impacts on different family structures. Therefore, a future study might seek to explore whether the results would differ, regarding the impact or effects of delinquency, related to specific types of juvenile delinquency.

- A future study should explore the serious types of juvenile delinquency and the effect/s thereof on families.

- Future comparative studies on juvenile delinquency between poor and wealthy families or families in South Africa and another country (maybe Botswana).
6.5. Conclusion

The research question was answered through a qualitative approach, thereby attaining the research goal and objectives of the study. The results of this study provided insight into the experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children, in Botswana. This last chapter of the study provided the reader with a summary and the conclusions of the preceding chapters, from the introduction, theoretical framework, literature review, applied methodology and the presentation of the research findings.

A number of recommendations were made to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, as well as the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development based on these results. In addition, the researcher made suggestions for future research. In conclusion, the study is expected to add new knowledge to a limited body of literature on family structure in Botswana. The study further contributes to the strategies utilised by social welfare officers, in providing psychological support to different families dealing with delinquent children in Botswana, thereby improving family functioning.
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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethics Clearance Letter – University of the Western Cape

OFFICE OF THE DEAN
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

15 September 2014

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by:

Mr K Matlakele (Social Work)

Research Project: Experiences and challenges of different family types in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

Registration no: 14/7/13

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape
Appendix B: Research Permit – Ministry of Education and Skills Development

TELEPHONE (027) 3685469
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 3185167

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

REFERENCE: DPRS 7/1/S XV (16)
Kenneth M Matlaakele
Private Bag X7
Bellville
Cape Town, South Africa
7535

Dear Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study in the sampled areas in Botswana to address the following research objectives/questions/topics:

Experiences and challenges of different family types in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

It is of paramount importance to seek Assent and Consent from the Department of Basic Education, North West Regional Director, School Head, teachers, School Social Worker and students of Duma Ba Motse Primary School that you are going to collect data from. We hope that you will conduct your study as stated in your proposal and that you will adhere to research ethics. Failure to comply with the above stated, will result in immediate termination of the research permit. The validity of the permit is from 17 October 2014 to 16 October 2015.

You are kindly advised to seek further Assent and Consent from Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs that will grant you access to interviewing Boys in Moshupa Prisons.

You are requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, in the Department of Educational Planning and Research Services, Botswana.

Thank you.

A. Galeboe
Acting/Permanent Secretary
Appendix C: Research Access Permit – Ministry of Education (North West Region)

TELEPHONE: 6860348
FAX: 6860629

REFERENCE: NWRE 1/15/21(107)

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

29 October 2014

Mr Kenneth M. Matlakele
Private Bag X7
Bellville
Cape Town
South Africa
7535

Dear Sir,

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

This serves to acknowledge receipt of your letter Ref: DPRS 7/1/5 XV (16) dated 17 October 2014. Permission is granted to yourself to “conduct a research study on “experiences and challenges of different family types in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana”. The period is from 17 October 2014 to 16 October 2015.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

G.S. Elias
For/Regional Director
North West Region

cc: Chief Education Officer – Shakawe Sub-Region
Director – Bana Ba Metsi

GSE@um...
Appendix D: Research Permit – Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development

TELEGRAMS: MERAPE
Telephone: 3658400
Fax: 3902263/1599

Ref Number CLG 4/14/3/11 [4] RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

Ministry of Local Government & Rural Development
Private Bag 9006
Gaborone
Botswana

March 13, 2015.

Mr. Kenneth Moabi Matlaokale
P. O. Box 4505
Gaborone

Dear Sir,

RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

This serves to acknowledge your application for a research permit in order to carry out a study entitled “Experiences and Challenges of Different Family Types in Dealing with Delinquent Children in Botswana.”

We are pleased to grant you the permit. This permit is valid for a period of six (6) months – commencing on March 13, 2015 to September 30, 2015 – and it is granted subject to the following conditions:

1. Copies of the final product of the study are to be directly deposited with the Ministry of Local Government, National Archives and Record Services and University of Botswana Library.
2. The permit does not give you authority to enter any premises, private establishment or protected areas. Permission for such entry should be negotiated with those concerned.
3. You conduct your study according to particulars furnished in application you submitted taking into account the above conditions.
4. Failure to comply with any of the above stipulated conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of the permit.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

[Stamp]

M. C. S. Mogoeng, Minister of Local Government

cc: PS, Ministry of Finance and Development Planning
PS, Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs
PS, Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture
Director, National Archives and Record Services
Director, National Library Service
Director, Research and Development, University of Botswana

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Appendix E: Letter of Permission – Bana Ba Metsi School

To: Kenneth Moabi Matlakele

Letter of Permission

Dear Kenneth,

This letter serves to inform you that you have been granted permission by the School’s Director, to undertake your Mutese Lever research at Bana Ba Metsi School, for a time period that shall remain flexible. You shall be welcome to stay here at the school while collecting your data and to interact with both the student population and staff. Should you desire any other assistance, you need only ask.

Sincerely yours,

Peter Dow
Director, Bana ba Metsi School
(72728058)

October 30th, 2014
Appendix F: Research Access Letter – Bana Ba Letsatsi Centre

To: Kenneth Moabi Matlakele  
Institute of Health Sciences  
P. O. Box 267  
Francistown.

21/04/2015  

Re: request to access and conduct study at BBL – Kenneth Moabi Matlakele

Dear Kenneth,

Bana Ba Letsatsi Trust is Registered NGO based Maun, Ngamiland, and takes care of orphans and vulnerable children on a half boarding term. Children are provided with meals everyday from the center. It survives by donations from both local and international communities. The organization was founded in 2002 and registered as an NGO in 2004. The Trust is governed by a Board of trustees.

This communication serves to allow you interview one of Bana Ba Letsatsi Trust employees as part of the above mentioned assignment.

We hope that the findings of the study shall be shared with Bana Ba Letsatsi Trust.

Yours faithfully,

Margaret Morris / Executive Coordinator

Bana Ba Letsatsi trust

P. O. Box HASHAK

Maun

Tel: 6864787

Email: info@banabaletsatsi.org
Appendix G: Information Sheet

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE
Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21 959 2760, Fax: +27 21 959 3686
E-mail: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

What is this study about?
This is a research project being conducted by Kenneth Moabi Matlakele, a Motswana student pursuing a Masters in Child and Family Studies at the University of the Western Cape in South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you meet the set criterion for the population of interest and your participation will help other people. The purpose of this research project is to find out how different families in Botswana deal with delinquent children in terms of experiences, challenges and coping strategies. Hence, your participation will be of great importance to make this study valuable to other families with similar challenges.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?
You will be asked to sign consent form agreeing to take part in the study. You will also be asked questions either in a group discussion or individually. The study will be conducted in Botswana focusing on families with children schooling at Bana Ba Metsi School. The interview will last approximately 1 – 2 hours at a venue to be agreed upon.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?
Your personal information will be kept confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, your real names will not be included in the data collection sheets and all information collected will be locked in cabinets and password protected computers. The researcher will use codes to represent your names and only the researcher will have access to such information which will
link you to the collected data. During the time when data collected will be reported about this research project, your identity will be protected.

In accordance with legal requirements and/or professional standards, I will disclose to the appropriate individuals and/or authorities information that comes to our attention concerning child abuse or neglect or potential harm to you or others.

All the data will be kept in password protected computer files known only to the researcher. Data collection sheets and audio tapes will be kept safely in a lockable filling cabinet accessed only by the researcher. All raw data including written documents and tapes will be destroyed after three months of the final dissertation being marked and graded. If I write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

**What are the risks of this research?**

Risks from participating in this research study mainly include discomfort around providing private or sensitive information. Should the discussion result in pronounced emotional discomfort or trauma, the researcher will provide references for further counselling to the participant. There are no other known risks associated with participating in this research project. If any of the questions asked during the interview make you feel uncomfortable, you are allowed to refrain from answering it.

**Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?**

If at any time of the study, you feel uncomfortable and need assistance, the researcher will refer you for counselling through social welfare office in your area.

**What are the benefits of this research?**

This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help the investigator learn more about different family’s experiences, challenges and coping strategies in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of the contributions you make in terms of better ways of managing children who display problematic behaviour in their communities. This will therefore improve how other families might do things differently to raise well rounded responsible focused children.
Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?
Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

What if I have questions?
This research is being conducted by Kenneth Moabi Matlakele, a student pursuing a Masters in Child and Family Studies at the University of the Western Cape, South Africa. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Kenneth Moabi Matlakele at: +27 78 121 1222 (South African mobile number) or +267 71 702 711 (Botswana mobile number), or email at: papatlo2012@gmail.com

Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department: Professor R. Schenk
Department of Social Work

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: Professor J. Frantz
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17
Bellville 7535
South Africa

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape’s Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.
TSEBE E TLHALOSANG KA BOTLALO KA PATLISISO

Setlhogo sa patlisiso: Maitemogelo le dikgwetlho tsa malwapa a a farologanyeng a a nang le bana ba boitshwaro jo bo sa amogelesegeng mo setshabeng mo Botswana.

Patlisiso e ke ka eng?

Patlisiso e e dirwa ke Kenneth Moabi Matlakele, moithuti wa Motswana yo o ithutelang dithuto tse di kgolo tsa malwapa le bana kwa Mmadikole (Sekole se golo) sa Kapa Bophirima kwa Aferika Borwa (University of the Western Cape in South Africa). Re go laletsa go tsaya karolo (go nna le seabe) mo patlisisong e, ka gore o na le ngwana yo o tsenang sekole ko sekoleng se se botlana sa Bana Ba Metsi. Maitemogelo a gago a ka thusa malwapa a a ka tsenang mo seemong se o leng mo go sone se. Maikaelelo a patlisiso e e dirwa ke boitswarong jo bo sa amogelesegeng mo setshabeng sa Botswana ke dife. Ka jalo go tsaya karolo gaga go go mosola fela thata ka go ka fetola seemo sa malwapa a mangwe a a mo seemong sa lwapa la gago, kana a iphitlhela a lebaganwe ke dikgwetlho tse di tshwanang letsa lona.

Fa ke dumela go tsaya karolo, ke tsile go kopiwa go dira eng?

O tsile go kopiwa go saena (go baya monwana) pampitshana e e supang gore o dumela go nna le seabe mo patlisisong e. Ka jalo fa o setse o dumalane go nna le seabe, o tla botswe dipotso mabapi le patlisiso e o le mongwe kana le molekane wa gago mo lapeng, kana o na le ba bangwe lo le sethopha se le sengwe. Patlisiso e, e dirwa mo lefetsheng la Botswana e itebagantse le malwapa a nang le bana b aba tsenang sekole ko sekoleng se se botlana sa Bana Ba Metsi ko motseng wa Sekandoku mo kgaolong ya Bokone Bophirima. Dipotsolotso di tla nna bolelele jwa oura e lengwe go ya go tse pedi (1 – 2 hours) ko lefeleng le o tla dumelang go kopana le mmatlisisi ko go lone.
A go tsaya karolo mo patlisison e game e tla nna sephiri?
Ke tsile go dira ka gotlhe go netefatsa gore tsotlhe tse di go amanyang le patlisiso e nna sephiri. Maina a gago ga ana go tlhagelela gope mo dipampiring tse di tla dirisiwang mo patlisison, se se tla dirwa go thomamisa gore o a sirelediwa ka nako tsothle mo patlisison e. Go tla thomamisiwa gore tse tsotlhe e nna sephiri ka go lotlelela tsothle tse re di dirisang e.
E ka nna dipampiri tse ke kwaleleng mo go tsone kana segatisa mantswe. Mmatlisisi o tsile gape go netefatsa gore o dirisa dibalamakgolo tse di sireletsegileng, go se ope yo o ka e dirisang ntle le mmatlisisi. Mmatlisisi o tla dirisa dinomore kana methale mengwe go go bitsa ka yone boemong jwa leina la gago fa a kwala. Mmatlisisi a le nosi ke ene a tla nnang le kitso ka ga gago e e ka go amanyang le patlisiso e.
Ka nako e mmatlisisi a tla a bong a kwala ka tsothle tse o di mmoleletseng mabapi le patlisiso e, o tla dira ka gotlhe gore leina la gago e nna sephiri.
Go ya ka tsa semolao, mmatlisisi o tla patelesega go ntsha kana go bolelela ba ba lebanyeng kana boeteledipele ka dipe tse di amanang le kgokgontsho ya bana kgotsa go ikgatholosiwa ga bana kana sepe fela se se ka go tsenyang ba bangwe mo diphatseng le wena tota.

Mmatlisisi o tsile go thomamisa ka bojotlhe gore go dirisiwa dibalamakgolo tse di sireleditsweng ka nako tsothle go thomamisa gore kitso ka ga gago e nna e ba ba lesegile.
Dipampiri le digatisa-mantswe tsothle tse di tla dirisiwang ka nako ya patlisiso di tla nna di lotleletswe ka nako tsothle. Mmatlisisi a le nosi fela ke ene a tla nnang le tshwanelo ya go di bona. Tsothle tse di tla a bong di dirisitswe mo patlisison e, e ka nna digatisa-mantswe, dipampiri kana eng fela, di tla sengwa kana go tshujwa kgwedi tse tharo morago ga go tlhatlhoywa ga patlisiso e feletseng. Leina la gago le tla sireletswa fa mmatlisisi a ka kwala pego kana eng fela ka patlisiso e.

**Bodiphatsa jwa patlisiso e ke eng?**
Go ka nna le dikgwetho dingwe mo go tseyeng karolo mo patlisison e. Dikgwetho tse dikgolo e ka nna go se tseege sentle ka go bua ka se o bonang e le sephiri ebile se ka tlhoka go go tsaya sentle mo moweng. Fa e kare o ntse o tsweletse mo puisanong le mmatlisisi, ga diragala gore o se ikutlwe sentle mo moweng, mmatlisisi o tla thomamisa gore o a thusiwa ke ba ba nang le kitso ya go sidila maikutlo. Ga gona dipe dikgwetlo tse dingwe tse di itsiweng mabapi le patlisiso e. O a letelesega go sa arabe potso epe fela yo dumelang gore ga e go tseye sentle ka nako ya puisano ya gago le mmatlisisi.
A gona le thuso e ke tla a e bonang fa ke ka amega ka tsela epe fela ka go nna le sebe mo patlisisosong e?

Mmatlisisi o tla go fa thuso ka go go romela kwa go ba ba ka go thusang, ebile ba rutetswe tiro ya go sedila maikutlo fa go ka diragala gore e re o ntse o tsweletse le patlisisong e, wa thhoka go ikutlwa sentle kana go sa tseege sentle mo maikutlong. Mmatlisisi o tla a dira se ka go go romela kwa go ba ofisi ya boipelego mo kgaolong ya gago, kana ka fa go ka tlhkafalang ka teng.

Bomolemo jwa patlisiso e ke eng?

Patlisiso e ga ya direlwa go go thusa ka bo wena, mme e tla thusa mmatlisisi go thalaganya botoka kana ka botlalo gore malwapa a farologanyeng mo Botswana a kgona jang kgodiso ya bana ba boitshwaro jo bo sa letlelesegeng mo setshabeng. Le gore maitemogelo le dikgwetlho tsa bone ke eng, ebile ke ditsela dife tse ba di dirisang go itebaganya le seemo se. Re dumela gore moisagong, se se ka thusa malwapa a mangwe kana batho go thalaganya seemo se lo leng mo go sone le go kgona go its gore ba ka dira jang ka seemo se mo malwapeng ka go farologana. Ka jalo se, se ka fetola seemo le go thusa ba bangwe ka tsela tse di farologaneng fa ba kopana le kgwetlho tse.

A ke patelesega go tsaya karolo mo patlisisong e, le gone a ke ka emisa go tsaya karolo nako nngwe le nngwe?

Go tsaya karolo ga gago mo patlisisong e, ke tshwetso ya gago ka jalo o a letlelesega go ka tsaya karolo fa o batla kana wa emisa ka nako nngwe le nngwe e o e batlang. Go dira jalo ga go go tlame go tlhalosa mabaka a gago, ebile seo ga se kake sa go baya ka fa mosing ka tsela epe fela, kana wa latlhegelwa ke go akola tse dintle tse o neng o ka di bona ka go nna karolo kana di go lebane.

Ke tshwanetse go dira jang fa kena le dipotso mabapi le patlisiso?

O letlelesega go ka ikgolaganya le mmatlisisi mogolo wa patlisiso Kenneth Moabi Matlakele yo o ithutelang dithuto tse dikgolewane tsa malwapa le bana kwa sekolong segolo sa Kapa Bophirima kwa Aferika Borwa (University of the Western Cape, South Africa). O ka golagana nae go mmotsa sepe fela mabapi le patlisiso ka go moleletsa mo: +27 78 121 1222 (mogala wa Aferika Borwa), kana +267 71 702 711 (mogala wa Botswana), kana wa mokwalela ka maranyane a inthanete mo: papatlo2012@gmail.com.
Jaaka motsaya karolo, kana monaleseabe mo patlisisong e, o a letlelesega go ka botsa sepe fela mabapi le patlisiso, kana wa ikuela fa o ka kopana le mathata ape fela kana ditshwanelo tsa gago di gatakwa ka dinao. O ka dira se ka go ikopanya le Tlhogo ya Lephata la tsa boipelego Motthatlheledi mogolo R. Schenk kana Tlhogo-kgolo ya Lephata la Maranyane mo go tsa Botsogo le Setshaba Motthatlheledi mogolo J. Frantz ka go kwalela mo atereseng e latelang;

**Head of Department:** Professor R. Schenk  
Department of Social Work

**Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences:** Professor J. Frantz  
University of the Western Cape  
Private Bag X17  
Bellville 7535  
South Africa

Patlisiso e e letleletswe go ka dirwa ke bookamedi bogolo kana komiti ya sekole segolo sa Kapa Bophirima (University of the Western Cape) ba thibelo dikgathako tsa setho le dipatlisiso.
Appendix H: Interview Schedule for Children (Focus Group Discussion Guide)

Interview schedule for children (Focus group discussions)

General information for all participants

Date of the interview

___ / ___ / ___
Date / Month / Year

Location: _________________________________________________________

Participants’ codes: ______________________

Interview questions (focus group discussion guide)

Questions will be modified based on the direction of the discussion.

1. Introductions; family type, age of the child, etc.
2. Tell me about your family, communication patterns at home, type of people, etc.
3. Tell me about the meal times, how is the setting during meal times.
4. Who are you close to in your family?
5. Do you value your family opinion or those you are close to?
6. How is your relationship with your parents, siblings?
7. What happens if there is conflict, how is it resolved?
8. Tell me about your friends, where are they now?
9. Where did you school before coming to Bana Ba Metsi School? Have you been to school? How far did you go at school (level, i.e. primary, secondary, etc.)?

10. What is your understanding regarding delinquency/criminal behaviour?

11. How did you end up here at Bana Ba Metsi School and is there a difference between it and your previous school? How has been in Bana Ba Metsi School affected you? How are you managing being here? What support do you get here?

12. How do you think being admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School has affected your parents, siblings, and the entire family? Who do think is most affected in your family?

13. What do you intend to do about it and your plans when you complete from here (Bana Ba Metsi School)?

14. Do you ever have any visitors; how often; who are they?

15. How does community view your behaviour?

16. What do you think are the major concerns with your family (parents and siblings) as a result of your behaviour?
Lenaneo la potsolotsa la bana (puisano le setlhopho sa bana)

Tse di tshwaneseng go botswe ba tsayla korolo botlhe mo patlisising

Letsatsi la potsolotsa

______ / ______ / ______

Letsatsi / Kgwedi / Ngwaga

Lefelo la potsolotsa: __________________________________________________________

Code ya batsaakarolo: ______________________

Dipotso tsa potsolotsa (puisano le setlhopho sa bana)

Dipotso di tla tswelela di baakangwa kana go tokafadiwa go laolwa ke seemo sa puisano fa gare ga mmatlisisi le motsaakarolo.

1. Ikitsiso go botlhe ba ba nang le seabe mo potsolotsong; mohuta wa lelapa, dingwaga tsa
ngwana, jalo jalo.
2. Ke kopa o mpolele ka ba lwapa la gago, ka fa lo tsaanang ka teng, go buisana, lo tsanaa
jang fela, tirisano mmogo ke ya mofuta mang, le tse dingwe fela jalo.
3. A ko o mpolelele gore ka nako ya dijo lo dira jang, seemo e nna se se ntseng jang?
4. Ke mang yo o utlwanang thata le ene kwa ga lona, yo lo kgonang go arogana megopo?
5. A o bona gona le mosola mo dikgakololong tsa ba lwapa la gago fa lo ntse lo buisana malatsi otlhe?

6. Botsalano jwa gago le ba lwapa la gago ke jo bo ntseng jang, e ka nna bo mogoloo, botsadi kana bo monnao?

7. Go diragala eng fa gona le tlhoka kutlwisisano mo lwapeng, e rarabololwa jang?

8. Ditsala tsa gago di kaе mo nakong e, a o ka mpolelela ka bone?

9. A o kile wa tsena sekole, kana a o kile wa ya sekoleng? O badile mang ko sekoleng (level, i.e. primary, secondary, etc.)? O ne o tsena sekole kae pele o tla go tsena mo Bana Ba Metsi?

10. O thaloganya eng fela ka boitshwaro jo bo sa letlelesegeng mo setshabeng, a o ka mpha sekai?

11. Go tsile jang gore o bo o tsena sekole mo Bana Ba Metsi?

12. A ko o mpolelele gore o akanya gore go tsena sekole mo Bana Ba Metsi ga gago go katswa go amile ba lwapa la gago jang fela, ke mang mo go ba lwapa la gago yo o ka tswang a amegile go gaisa ba bangwe?

13. O ikaelela go dira jang ka seo, ebile O ikaelela go dira jang (eng) fa o tswa fa o fetsa sekole mo Bana Ba Metsi?
Appendix I: Interview Schedule for Families (parents and caregivers)

Interview schedule for families (parents and caregivers)

General information for all participants

Date of the interview

___ / ___ / ___
Date / Month / Year

Location: ____________________________________________________________

Participant code: ______________________

Interview questions

Questions will be modified based on the direction of the discussion.

Family demographic data

1. Family Name (codes will be used to identify families): __________________________

2. Type of Family (tick): □Nuclear, □Extended, □Blended, □Single parent – male or female headed (specify___________)

3. Marital status (tick): □Single, □Cohabiting, □Married, □Divorced, □Separated, □Widowed

4. Religious Identification (tick): □Christianity □Other (specify_________________________)

5. Church denomination: ________________________________
6. Education level (tick): □None □Primary □Secondary □Senior □Tertiary
8. Monthly family income (tick):
   □Less than P500
   □Between P500 – P1500
   □Between P1500 – P2500
   □Between P2500 – P5000
   □More than P5000
9. Other sources of income: ___________________________________________________
10. How many children are you responsible for and how many are in your house, state their
    gender as well? __________________________________________________________
11. Tell me about the communication patterns in your home, how do you relate as family?
12. Tell me about the meal times, how is the setting during meal times
13. What happens if there is conflict, how do you resolve it?
14. What does your husband/wife do when you and your child are arguing? What about other
    children?
15. What do you understand by criminal/delinquency behaviour?
16. What do you think are the causes of delinquency?
17. Do you know any delinquent child and their family?
18. What do you think of them?
19. What led your child to be admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School?
20. When did you first know about your child’s delinquent behaviour?
21. What caused your child’s delinquency behaviour?
22. What was your reaction when your child was sent or referred to Bana Ba Metsi School?
   What led you to make the decision to send your child to Bana Ba Metsi? What about other
   family members?
23. What was your child’s behaviour like before going to Bana Ba Metsi School?
24. How was your relationship with your child before going to Bana Ba Metsi School? What
    about with other family members?
25. How did you manage your child’s behaviour before going to Bana Ba Metsi School?
26. How has your child being at Bana Ba Metsi School affected you and other members of the
    family?
27. What are you doing about (mention the child’s name) while at Bana Ba Metsi School?
28. What are your experiences as a parent with a child who is admitted or schooling at Bana Ba Metsi School? How is it like having a child admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School?
29. What challenges do you face as a result of having your child admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School?
30. How are you managing to deal with the experience and challenges of having a child admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School, or how are you managing to deal with experiences and challenges of dealing with a delinquent child?
31. What sort of support do you get with family regarding this? Do you and your family have any profession support, e.g. social worker, etc.?
32. Can you tell me how these children came into your care? (Extended family)
33. Can you tell me about your experiences of raising your grandchildren, you sisters, brother’s child?
34. Who takes care of your child while at work or when you are away?
35. Who is most concerned about the child schooling at Bana Ba Metsi School?
36. How do you think your child is feeling being admitted at Bana Ba Metsi School? Do you think they will change?
37. Have you experienced any form of discrimination in your community regarding your child’s behaviour?
38. How often do you and family visit (mention child’s name) at Bana Ba Metsi School?
39. What support do you and your family give to this child (mention the child’s name)?
40. What is the family plan or reception during school vacations? What do you think should be done to support your child during school vacations?
Lenaneo la potsolotso la malwapa (batsadi le batlhokomedi ba bana)

Tse di tshwanetseng go botswa ba tsaya karolo botle mo patlisisong

Letsatsi la potsolotso

_______ / ______ / ______
Letsatsi / Kgwedi / Ngwaga

Lefelo la potsolotso: ______________________________________________

Code ya motsaakarolo: ____________

Dipotso tsa potsolotso

Dipotso di tla tswelela di baakangwa kana go tokafadiwa go laolwa ke seemo sa puisano fa gare ga mmatlisisi le motsaakarolo.

Family demographic data
1. Leina la lelwapa (go tla dirisiwa dinomore kana methale go supa malwapa): ____________
2. Mofuta wal le lelwapa (tlhopa ka go tshwaya): □Nuclear, □Extended, □Blended, □Single parent – male or female headed (tlhalosa___________)
3. Seemo sa lenyalo (tshwaya): □Ga ke is eke tsewe, □Ke nna le molekane, □Ke tsere/tserwe, □Ke kgaogane le molekane, □Ke mo pharologanong le molekane, □Ke tlhokafaletswe ke molekane
4. Supa tumelo ya lelwapa (tshwaya): □Tumelo ya Sekeresete □Tumelo e nngwe (tlhalosa__________________)
5. Leina la kereke: __________________________________________________________
6. Dithuto tsa batsadi/motsadi/mothokomedi (tshwaya): □Ga ke a tsena sekole  □Dithuto tse dipotlana  □Dithuto tse di fagare  □dithuto tse di kgolwane  □Dithuto tsa ithutelo tiro

7. Seemo sa tiro (tshwaya): □Ga ke bereke □Ke a ipereka □Ke a bereka □Ke tlogetse tiro ka bogodi

8. Letseno la kgwedi le kgwedi mo lwapeng (tshwaya tse di latelang):
   □Ko tlase ga P500
   □Fa gare ga P500 – P1500
   □Fa gare ga P1500 – P2500
   □Fa gare ga P2500 – P5000
   □Go feta P5000

9. Methale kana mefuta e mengwe ya go dira madi: _______________________________________

10. Lo/o tlhokometse bana ba le kae? Ke ba le kae ba ba nnang molwapeng? Bolela bong jwa bone.___________________________________________________________

11. Ke kopa o mpolelele ka fa lo dirisanang ka teng mo lwapeng, lo buisana ka mokgwa o ntse jang?

12. Lo dira jang ka nako ya dijo mo lapeng, lo tlhwaetse go dira jang?

13. Mo lapeng lo dira jang fa gona le tlhoka kutlwisisano, lo e rarabolola jang kana ka tsela efe?

14. Fa o na le tlhoka kutlwisisano kana dipharologano le bana rre/mme wa gago o dira jang?
   Bana ba ba bangwe bone ba dira jang?

15. O tlhaloganya eng ka boitshwaro jo bo sa letlelesegeng mo setshabeng jo bo dirwang ke bana?

16. O akanya gore boitshwaro jo bo sa letlelesegeng jwa bana bo ka tswa bo bakwa ke eng?

17. A o itse lelwapa lengwe le le nang le ngwana wa boitshwaro jone jo?

18. O akanya e le batho b aba ntse jang fela kana o akanya eng ka bone?

19. Ke eng se dirileng gore ngwana wa gago a bo a tsena sekole kana ke eng se se go gwtlhileng go romela ngwana ko sekoleng se sebotlana sa Bana Ba Metsi?

20. O simolotse go itse leng gore ngwana wa gago o itshwara ka tsela e sa letlelesegeng mo setshabeng?

21. Ke eng se se dirileng gore ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana) a bo a itshwara ka yone tsela e sa letlelesegeng e?

22. O ile wa tseega jang fa o tsaya tshwetso ya go isa ngwana wa gago kana go laolwa gore a nne ka fa tlase ga ba boipelego ko sekoleng sa Bana Ba Metsi? Ba ba bangwe ba lelwapa bone ba ile ba tsaya jang se?

23. (Bitsa leina la ngwana) o ne a itshwara ka tsela efe pele ga a ya kana o tsaya tshwetso go mo isa sekoleng ko Bana Ba Metsi?
24. Botsalano jwa gago le ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana) ene e le jo bo ntse jang pele ga ya sekoleng ko Bana Ba Metsi? Bone bo ntse jang le b aba bangwe ba lelwapa?
25. O ne o kgona go molaola jang ka nako tseo?
26. Go ya go tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi ga ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana) go go amile jang wena le ba lwapa la gago?
27. Lo dira jang ka (bitsa leina la ngwana) fa a le ko sekoleng sa Bana Ba Metsi?
28. Jaaka motsadi, maitemogelo a gago ke eng ka ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana) yo ko sekoleng ko Bana Ba Metsi, kana go ntse jang go bo ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana) a le tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi?
29. O kopana le dikgwetlho dife ka go tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi ga ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana)?
30. O kgona jang go itebaganya le dikgwetlho le maitemogelo a go tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi ga ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana)? O kgona jang go itebaganya le boitshwaro jwa ngwana wa gago (bitsa leina la ngwana)?
31. A gona le tsela kana dithuso tsa boitseanape tse lo di boning wena le balwapa la gago, e ka nna go tswa mo go ba boipelego kana bangwe ba se le fela?
32. Go tsile jang gore bana ba, ba bo ba le mo tlhokomelong ya gago? (Go masika a tlhokomelang bana)
33. A o ka mpolelela ka maitemogelo a gago mo kgodisong ya bana ba bana ba gago/ bana ba ga kgaisadio?
34. Bana ba tlhokomelwa ke mang fa o ile tirong kana o seyo mo lwapeng?
35. Ke mang yo o tshawentsweng thata ke go bo ngwana tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi?
36. A fa o lebile o bona go ya tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi ga ga (bitsa leina la ngwana) go tla mofetola? O ka tswa a tseega jang go bo a tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi?
37. Baagisanyi ba gago ba go tsaya ka tsela efe mabapi le gobo (bitsa leina la ngwana) a tsena sekole ko Bana Ba Metsi? A o ka tswa o lemogile kgethelolo ka tsela epe mo go bone mabapi le se?
38. Lo tlhola (bitsa leina la ngwana) jang/ ga kae ko sekoleng sa Bana Ba Metsi?
39. Lo tshegeditse (bitsa leina la ngwana) ka tsela e ntse jang fa a le ko sekoleng sa Bana Ba Metsi?
40. Lo amogela (bitsa leina la ngwana) ka nako ya dikole di tswetswe? A go sengwe se lo se akantseng go se dira fa (bitsa leina la ngwana) a fetsa sekole kana ka nako tsa dikole di tswetswe go mothusa gore a fetoge? O bona go tshwanetse go dirwa eng fa (bitsa leina la ngwana) a goroga mo gae dikole di tswetswe go mothusa gore a fetoge?
Appendix J: Interview Schedule for Staff Members

General information for all participants

Date of the interview

____ / ____ / ____
Date / Month / Year

Location: __________________________________________

Participant code: ______________________

Interview questions

Questions will be modified based on the direction of the discussion.

1. Tell me about your services at Bana Ba Metsi School or Bana Ba Letsatsi centre.
2. Tell me about your clients (delinquent children) behaviour, the exact nature of delinquent acts.
3. How do these children cope being here at Bana Ba Metsi School?
4. Has the school (Bana Ba Metsi) affected children, their families?
5. What services/support do you give to the families regarding their children schooling at Bana Ba Metsi School, their delinquent behaviour?
6. Tell me about your office’s relationship with your colleagues from communities where these children come from?
7. How do you view being a social worker, teacher, counsellor, especially dealing with these children?
8. Tell me what do you like and do not like about being a social worker, teacher, counsellor, in this centre/school.

9. What do you feel are the major concerns you face with these children as result of their behaviour?

10. What coping strategies do you recommend for children, parents?
Appendix K: Assent Form

Title of Research Project: Experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.

_______ I agree to be audio tape recorded during my participation in this study.
_______ I do not agree to be audio tape recorded during my participation in this study.

Participant’s name: .................................
Participant’s signature: ..............................
Witness: .................................
Date: .................................

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator’s Name: Dr. Charlene J. Erasmus
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Belville 7535, South Africa
Telephone: +27 21 959 2760
Cell: +27 82 611 0060
Fax: +27 21 959 3686
Email: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za
TUMALANO YA GO TSAYA KAROLO

Setlhogo sa patlisiso: Maitemogelo le dikgwetlho tsa malwapa a a farologanyeng a a nang le bana ba boitshwaro jo bo sa amogelesengeng mo setshabeng mo Botswana.

Ke tlhaloseditswe ka patlisiso e ka puo e ke e tlhologanyang, e bile ke ikutlwa ke gololesegile go ka tsaya karolo ke sa patelediwe. Dipotso tsotlhle tse ke di boditseng ka patlisiso e, di arabilwe ka botlalo. Ke tlhaloganya gore ke gololesegile gore ke ka tsaya tshwetso ya go emisa go nna karolo ya patlisiso nako ngwe le ngwe ke sa patelesege go bolela mabaka a gore ke eng ke tswa. E bile ke itse ka botlalo gore ke sireleditswe mo patlisisong e, ka jalo leina lame kana tselo epe fela e ka supang gore ke mang ga e kake ya ntshetswa mo pontsheng ka nako epe. Ke tlhaloganya gape gore fa ke tsaya kgato ya go tswana mo patlisisong ga gona ga ntsenya mo diphtseng kana ga mpaya ka fa mosing ka tselo epe fela.

Ke letlelele mmatlisisi go ka dirisa sekapa mantswe go gatisa puisano ya rona ka nako ya patlisiso.

Leina la Moeteledipele wa Patlisiso: Dr. Charlene J. Erasmus

O ka kwalela Moeteledipele ko: University of the Western Cape, Private Bag X17, Belville 7535, South Africa.

Kana wa mo leletsu wa: Mogal wa ofisi: +27 21 959 2760 Mogala wa letheka: +27 82 611 0060 Fekese: +27 21 959 3686

Kana wa mo kwalela ka maranyane a inthanete go: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za
Appendix L: Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE
Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21 959 2760, Fax: +27 21 959 3686
E-mail: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za

CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: Experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. I further agree to be audio tape recorded during my participation in this study. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.

Participant’s name: ………………………..

Participant’s signature: ……………………………….

Witness: ……………………………….

Date: ……………………………….

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator’s Name: Dr. Charlene J. Erasmus
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17, Belville 7535, South Africa
Telephone: +27 21 959 2760
Cell: +27 82 611 0060
Fax: +27 21 959 3686
Email: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za
TUMALANO YA GO TSAYA KAROLO

Setlhogo sa patlisiso: Maitemogelo le dikgwetlho tsa malwapa a a farologanyeng a a nang le bana ba boitshwaro jo bo so amogelesegeng mo setshabeng mo Botswana.

Ke tlhaloseditswe ka patlisiso e ka puo e ke e tlhologanyang, e bile ke ikutlwa ke gololesegile go ka tsaya karolo ke sa pateleidiwe. Ke letlelela mmatlisisi go ka dirisa sekapa mantswe go gatisa mo puisanong ya rona ka nako ya patlisiso. Dipotsotse tsothle e ke dibuditseng ka patlisiso e, di arabilwe ka botlalo. Ke tlhaloganya gore ke gololesegile gore ke ka tsaya tshwetso ya go emisa go nna le karolo mo patlisisong nako ngwe le ngwe ke sa patelesege go bolela mabaka a gore ke eng ke tswa. E bile ke itse ka botlalo gore ke sireleditswe mo patlisisong e, ka jalo leina lame kana tsela epe fela e ka supang gore ke mang ga e kake ya ntshetswa mo pontsheng ka nako epe. Ke tlhaloganya gape fa ke tsaya kgato ya go tswa mo patlisisong ga gona go ntseny a mo dipbotseng kana ga mpaya ka fa mosing ka tsela epe fela.

Leina la mo tsaya karolo / Leina la mona le seabe: ……………………………

Monwana wa mo tsaya karolo: ………………………………………

Mosupi: ………………………………………

Letsatsi: ………………………………………

O gololesegile go ka ikopanya le Moeteledipele wa patlisiso ka nako nngwe le ngwe fa o ka eletsa go botsa sengwe mabapi le patlisiso kana go supa gosa itumelela sepe fela. O ka ikopanya le Moeteledipele wa patlisiso ka tsela tse di latelang;

Leina la Moeteledipele wa Patlisiso: Dr. Charlene J. Erasmus

O ka kwalela Moeteledipele ko:
University of the Western Cape, Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Kana wa mo leletsa ko: Mogal wa ofisi: +27 21 959 2760 Mogala wa letheka: +27 82 611 0060 Fekese: +27 21 959 3686
Kana wa mo kwalela ka maranyane a inthanete go: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za
FOCUS GROUP CONFIDENTIALITY BINDING FORM

Title of Research Project: Experiences and challenges of different family structures in dealing with delinquent children in Botswana.

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way. I agree to be audio-taped during my participation in the study. I also agree not to disclose any information that was discussed during the group discussion.

Participant’s name: ………………………………………..

Participant’s signature: ……………………………………..

Witness’s name: ……………………………………………

Witness’s signature: ………………………………………..

Date: ……………………………
TUMALANO YA GO TSAYA KAROLO MO PUISANONG YA
PATLISISO LE GO ITLAMA GO SE NTSHE KWA NTLE SE SE BUISANWANG

Setlhogo sa patlisiso: Maitemogelo le dikgwetlho tsa malwapa a a farologanyeng a a nang le bana ba boitshwaro jo bo sa amogeselegeng mo setshabeng mo Botswana.

Ke tlhaloseditswe ka patlisiso e ka puo e ke e tlhologanyang, e bile ke ikutlwa ke gololesegile go ka tsaya karolo ke sa patelediwe ke ope. Dipotso tsotlhe tse di boditseng ka patlisiso e, di arabilwe ka botlalo. Ke tlhologanya gore ke gololesegile gore ke ka tsaya tshwetso ya go emisa go nna karolo ya patlisiso nako nngwe le ngwe ke sa bolele mabaka a gore ke eng ke tswa. E bile ke itse ka botlalo gore ke sireleditswe mo patlisisong e, ka jalo leina lane kana tsela epe fela e ka supang gore ke mang ga e kake ya ntshe tshweta mo pontsheng ka nako epe. Ke tlhaloganya gape gore fa ke tsaya kgato ya go tswa mo patlisisong ga gona go ntshe tshweta mo diga kgato go mpaya ka fa mosing ka tselo epe fela. Ke letlela leina leina le patlisiso go gona go ntshe tshweta mo pontsheng ka nako epe. Ke tlhaloganya gape gore fa ke tsaya kgato ya go tswa mo patlisiso ya tshweta mo kake ya tshweta mo botlalo. Ke tlhaloganya gape gore fa ke tsaya kgato ya go tswa mo patlisiso ya tshweta mo botlalo.

Leina la mo tsaya karolo / Leina la mona le seabe: ..............................
Monwana wa mo tsaya karolo: .................................
Mosupi: ........................................
Monwana wa mosupi: .................................
Letsatsi: .................................
Appendix N: Map of Botswana showing participants home villages
Appendix O: Editorial Certificate

30 November 2015

To whom it may concern

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Editorial Certificate

This letter serves to prove that the thesis listed below was language edited for proper English, grammar, punctuation, spelling as well as overall layout and style by myself, publisher/proprietor of Aquarian Publications, a native English speaking editor.

Thesis title
EXPERIENCES AND CHALLENGES OF DIFFERENT FAMILY STRUCTURES IN DEALING WITH DELINQUENT CHILDREN IN BOTSWANA

Author
Kenneth Moabi Matlakele

The research content or the author’s intentions were not altered in any way during the editing process, however, the author has the authority to accept or reject my suggestions and changes.

Should you have any questions or concerns about this edited document, I can be contacted at the listed telephone and fax number, e-mail address or website.

Yours truly,

E H Londoit
Publisher/Proprietor