PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO JUVENILE DELinquency in the ZFM-Region, Northern Cape, South Africa

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation, ‘PSYCHOSOCIAL FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN THE ZFM-REGION, NORTHERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA’ is my own work and that all resources that were used during the research study, are indicated by means of a complete reference and acknowledgement.

Signature: Nathaniel V. van Staden Date: 31 November 2015

NATANIEL V. VAN STADEN
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The phenomenon juvenile delinquency is an enormous concern for communities in the ZFM district, Northern Cape, South Africa. Juvenile offences have increased since 2010 in this area. From existing theories, it is clear that the causes of this phenomenon are complex and interrelated. Some of these contributing factors are rooted in the character of the delinquent and his or her family. Other factors are peer, community or economic related. Against this background, it is clear that each community/area should be individually assessed concerning its contributing factors as these factors can differ from community to community, individual to individual and family to family. Thus, the research question: What are the psychosocial contributing factors of juvenile delinquency in the ZFM district, Northern Cape, South Africa? The research goal of this study was to determine the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa. The objectives to arrive to the aim were to explore and describe the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa and to make recommendations for interventions through probation services by probation officers and the Department of Social Development in the Northern Cape, South Africa.

A qualitative approach was used, with an exploratory, descriptive design. Non-probability; purposive sampling was used to select probation officers from the Department of Social Development in the ZFM district in the Northern Cape. These Probation officers have each identified a parent of a juvenile in their caseloads. Because both parents of delinquents and probation officer’s perceptions are shaped by their own context, social constructivism was used as theoretical framework.
Data was collected by semi-structured interviews with a checklist. The spiral for data analysis was used to analyse data, which was then clustered in themes, sub-themes and categories.

Probation officers, participants identified a range of familial and community contributing factors to juvenile delinquency, and emphasises the interplay between these factors. Their also stressed the issue of parental control and guidance. Participants further indicated that harsh and ineffective parental discipline, lack of parental involvement, family conflict, child abuse and/or neglect and rejection by parents have also been identified as important factors related to delinquent behaviour. Another finding was that single parents, especially single mothers and the lack of a father figure are a great risk factor for juvenile delinquency. Parents also stressed the issue of their lack of control due to peer dependence and the juvenile’s involvement in alcohol and drugs.

Probation officers also stressed the lack of parental involvement, continuous communication & parental guidance as some of the important contributing factors of delinquent behaviour amongst children. Parents also indicated a general lack of close relationship amongst family members, as well as emotional insecurity, and the inability to control their children. Both parents and probation officers agreed that peer pressure is a major risk factor concerning juvenile delinquency.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Juvenile arrests accounted for sixteen percent of all arrests and seventeen percent of violent crime arrests (Snyder 2006). Sabol, Minton & Harrison (2007), reported that there were 6,104 youth in adult jails during 2006. These statistics are globally and not recent. The researcher discovered during literature searches that there is limited statistics on the prevalence and patterns on juvenile crimes in South Africa. However, the crime rate in Africa is globally the highest, followed by the USA and other continents (http://www.crimestatssa.com/international.php#Global_study).

Locally, statistics in the ZFM-district municipality area (consisting mainly of Postmansburg, Danielskuil, Upington, Rietfontein, Askam, Keimoes, Kenhardt, Augrabies & Kakamas), show a steady increase of juvenile offences especially in burglaries at residential and non-residential areas, all kinds of theft, all kinds of robbery and damage to property. These are evidence from the local court and police records. The ZFM-district is in the Northern Cape, South Africa (Rossouw, Bezuidenhoudt & Adams, personal communication, 14 November 2014). Police crime statistics also indicates a steady increase in carjacking, robbery at residential and non-residential areas, which are according to local court statistics the main areas of crime with the regards to juvenile crimes (Rossouw, Bezuidenhoudt & Adams, personal communication, 14 November 2014; http://www.crimestatssa.com/provinceselect.php?sortorder=&ShowProvince=Northern+Cape)
1.2 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Although much is to be learned about risks for delinquency, the one thing that all agree on is that delinquent behaviour has multiple causes. Risk factors exist at all levels and influences the individual child, family, peer group and neighbourhood. There is a consensus that complex interaction exists between environmental (social, familial, economic) and personal characteristics (personality, aptitude, maturity and psychopathology). This interaction is associated with increased aggressive and violent behaviour among adolescents. It is therefore important to understand the impact, as well as the relationship between these contributing factors in order to understand the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency. For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

1.2.1 Personal factors and juvenile delinquency

Hedonism (pleasure seeking) motivate individuals and they act in free will. Decision-making processes of offenders, as well as non-offenders are rational. Aiming to maximize pleasure and minimize pain, individuals choose to commit deviant acts unless the perceived punishment outweigh the anticipated pleasure. Punishment and fear guide behaviour. A limitation of Bronfenbrenner’s’ (1979) theory is its assumption that all offences and offenders are equal by ignoring important circumstances such as mental state, age and repeat offending (Benkos & Merlo, 2009). Juvenile delinquents are therefore inclined to risk behaviour. There is evidence that mental state, age and repeat offending contribute to later offending behaviour and youth delinquency in young offenders, although the nature of the link is less clear (Moffitt, 1993; Monahan, Steadman, Robbins, Appelbaum, Banks, Grisso, Heilbrun, Mulvey, Roth & Silver, 2005).
There is a link between the ingestion of certain drugs, particularly alcohol and violent behaviour. Abuse of alcohol is common because it is legal, widely available and socially acceptable and these are contributing factor towards delinquent behaviour. Approximately half of all convictions for violent crimes in the USA are as result of alcohol. In South Africa, the crime reports indicate that drug-related crimes increased by 4% from 2006 to 2007 (Brunelle, Brochu & Cousineau, 2000; http://www.saps.gov.za/about/stratframework/annual_report/2007_2008/2_crime_situation_sa).

Behavioural problems in the early childhood stages are indicators of future delinquent behaviour. Aggressive behaviour before age thirteen is predictive to delinquency but the diagnosis is often conduct or oppositional defiant disorders (Tremblay & LeMarquand, 2001). There is also a relationship between hyperactivity and attention seeking problems, which contribute to risk and violent offending behaviours (Hawkins, Catalano & Muller, 1992). Depression and often co-morbid mental health problems, including bipolar disorder in young people is a significant contributor to juvenile delinquency (Gellerman, Zimerman, Williams, Bolhofner & Craney, 2001).

Cognitive development plays an important role in the development of early delinquency and may have an effect on the learning of social rules. Poor cognitive development during early childhood could explain the association between academic achievement and delinquency. For example, numerous studies have shown that delinquents’ verbal IQ’s tend to be lower than their nonverbal IQ’s and they have lower global IQ’s and lower school achievement rates compared with non-delinquents (Fergusson & Horwood, 1995; Maguin & Loeber, 1996; Moffit, 1993).
Gender is also a predictor of juvenile delinquency. Most of the offenders arrested in the U.S. are young males and most delinquents mature out of crime by their mid-twenties. Females are more likely to run away from home and prostitution (Snyder, 2004; Snyder & Sigmund, 2006). Local court statistics indicates that seventy percent of juvenile arrests are males (Rossouw, Bezuidenhoudt & Adams, 2014, personal communication).

1.2.2 The role of the family in juvenile delinquency

Children in conflict with the law belongs to a family and do not live in isolation. Hepworth, Rooney and Larsen (1992) argue that the significance of the family is paramount, because the family is the system that nourishes the individual. Family functioning has consistently been among the strongest predictors of risk for delinquent and criminal behaviour. Families are a primary source of social integration and social control, which provides youth with feelings of belonging and establish both formal and informal boundaries that limit the possibility of youths engaging in delinquent activities (Unnever, Cullen & Agnew 2006; Benekos & Merlo, 2009). Parenting practices and family functioning including family/parental violence, family structure, parental styles and family relationships are important in understanding delinquency risk. Research suggests that poor parenting (including insufficient monitoring of children’s activities) fosters childhood delinquency (Barton, 2006; Henry, Gorman-Smith, Henry & Tolan, 2002; Jang & Smith, 1997).

Parenting practices, most often discipline and monitoring, contribute significantly to juvenile delinquency. There is a correlation between lack of parental monitoring, parental rejection, poor discipline methods and participation in delinquent and violent behaviour for a range of populations. In the process of socializing their children, parents who employ overly authoritative discipline, who promote aggression and who fail to bond with children are
actually fostering some degree of criminal activity among their offspring (Unnever, Cullen & Agnew 2006; Barton, 2006).

Dimensions of family functioning such as parental neglect, family conflict and disruption, child sexual abuse and parental deviance can contribute to delinquent and aggressive behaviour in children and adolescents (Deschenes & Esbensen, 1999). Parental warmth, supervision, support and involvement help children cope despite challenging environments. The presence or absence of role models affects juvenile delinquency and may be associated with problem-behaviour, psychological well-being and academic engagement. The extent to which a boy's father is acceptable as a figure with whom he identifies has an influence on juvenile delinquency. If delinquents show respect for the father's vocational and social standing, as well as having some sort of common understanding with him, they consider him the kind of man that they would like to be, but fewer than two out of ten delinquents have the same opinion (Benekos & Merlo, 2009; Kim & Kim 2008).

The family structure is one factor that may predict patterns of delinquent behaviour. Therefore, it is important to note that parents play an essential role in children’s lives by teaching norms and values, regulating behaviour, and providing emotional and financial support (Petts, 2009). Two parents may be better equipped to provide this support to their children as in the case of a single parent, resulting in increased well-being. By contrast, single parents may have less time to invest in their children, and the stress of raising a child by oneself may limit the support provided by a single parent. Consequently, children in single-parent families are more likely to be unsupervised, which may lead to increased delinquency (Demuth & Brown 2004).
Cohabitation is a phenomenon seen more frequently as times move on. Recent research has focused on the impact of this type of lifestyle on delinquency. Bergin & Bergin (2012) list cohabitation among other new forms of family structures as risk factors for child development in comparison to a traditional nuclear family with married partners where there is higher parental education, fewer financial problems, fewer moves, greater parent-child closeness especially for adolescents, and less abuse, which serve as protective factors for child development. Bergin & Bergin (2012) furthermore states that cohabiting families typically contain a pre-schooler, which they tend to have lower cognitive skills, social competence and academic achievement at school and are more likely to use drugs or become more violent later in life.

At least two in five adolescents have witnessed domestic or community violence and these experiences are associated with increased risk of a wide range of psychiatric symptoms and problem behaviour. Witnessed parental violence is associated with aggression, conduct problems, and other externalizing and internalizing symptoms (Kilpatrick, Saunders & Smith, 2003).

1.2. 3 Relationships with peers and juvenile delinquency

Another important socialization agent of adolescents are their peers. Antisocial behaviour in youth is associated with problematic interactions with pro-social and affiliation with delinquent peers. Notably, the quality and quantity of peer relationships, especially for boys, may be a significant risk factor connecting trauma to violent delinquency. Male youth who affiliate with other male youth involved in crime are at an increased risk for displaying violent behaviour. Males are initiate into and commit the majority of their crimes in male peer groups (Snyder, 2000). Moreover, unresolved emotions, such as anger, coupled with
increased exposure to delinquent peers, can further exacerbate the risk that a youth who has experienced trauma will in turn react with violence (Howe & Parke 2001; Rodgers-Farmer, 2000). Affiliation with delinquent peers is a strong predictor of future delinquency (Moffitt, 1993; Granic & Patterson, 2006). Longitudinal studies, for example, have indicated that youth with delinquent peers are five times more likely than youth without delinquent peers to commit a crime during adolescence and emerging adulthood and are ten times as likely to have a diagnosis of antisocial personality disorder in adulthood (Burt & Klump, 2013).

1.2.4 Factors in the community contributing to juvenile delinquency

As individuals we form part of a community and greater society, which to a lesser or greater extend influence our thoughts and behaviour. Crime and delinquency can be the result of social disorganization in pathological urban environments rather than the deviant behaviour of abnormal individuals. Problems such as poverty, weak social control, migration and mobility created an environment that encouraged deviant groups and values to develop alongside conformist ones (Jarjoura, Triplett & Brinker 2002).

Strain theorists suggest that the connection between poverty and delinquency. Boys that lives in poverty lack school preparation and subsequent performance in school (Cohen, 1955), as well as differential access to legitimate and illegitimate opportunities (Cloward & Lloyd, 1960). These theories suggest that delinquency results as the boys attempt to adapt to the strain caused by these lower-class experiences (Jarjoura, et al., 2002).

*Sub-cultural theory* focuses on the structural and cultural differences arising from the isolation of the lower class to explain delinquent behaviour (Miller cited in Jarjoura et al., 2002). According to this theory, boys in female-headed households search for status and
belonging among their peers. Delinquency results among these boys because lower-class values encourage behaviours defined as deviant by middle class standards. Also important in understanding the relationship of poverty to crime is the timing of poverty, or when during the individual’s life poverty occurred.

Though none of these theorists clearly spell out the importance of timing, implicit in their work is the idea that most people who become involved in crime do so early in life. Poverty is an important factor in criminality, especially when the individual is young.

Three neighbourhood factors are important in juvenile delinquency: The ability of a community to supervise and control teenage peer groups, the strength of local friendship networks and the rate of local participation in formal and voluntary organizations. Socio-economic status (poverty), residential mobility/instability and ethnic heterogeneity are sources of disorganization that indirectly affect crime (Sampson & Groves, 1999; Sampson, Raudenbush & Earls, 2006).

1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK RELEVANT TO THE STUDY

The theoretical framework used in this study is a psychosocial framework for the explanation of adolescent risk factors with regard to delinquency (Jessor, 1992). This framework focuses on the micro system level (the individual) being influenced by other levels of the ecological system – the family, school and community. The ecological system, which include the family, school and community are of utmost importance for this study. These include factors such as adolescence, parental and peer attitudes, emotional deprivation, delinquency, substance abuse, environment, poverty and violence. Interrelated theoretical perspectives for are example problem behaviour and social learning theory by the previous factors.
Problem behaviour theory focuses on substance abuse in adolescence. Adolescents who are alienated from the values and norms of their families, schools and communities show a high tolerance towards deviance; resist traditional authority; are pleasure seeking; unconcerned for their own safety; do not perform well at school and befriend drug-abusing peers (Hawkins et al., 1992).

Social learning theory suggests that individuals function in environments or ecological (macro-level) systems, where they reside or operate. These systems are the nuclear family, extended family, peer group, neighbourhood and community, including institutions such as the school, church and recreational activities. Multi-familial and intergenerational processes, as well as the values, attitudes and beliefs influence the family context (Hurst, Sawatsky & Paré, 1996).

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION

It is clear from the literature review and theoretical framework that various personal and social factors are contributing to juvenile delinquency. The research question, which the researcher asked, was: **What are the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa?**

1.5. RESEARCH GOAL

The research goal of this study was to determine the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa.
1.6. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives to accomplish the goal were to:

- Explore the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Describe the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Make recommendations for interventions through probation services by probation officers and the Department of Social Development in the Northern Cape, South Africa.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The researcher, in this section, focuses on a summary of the research methodology used during this research. This is not an orientation to the methodology; an in-depth discussion will follow in chapter three of this study.

1.7.1 Qualitative approach

The researcher used a qualitative approach to answer questions about the complex phenomena, with the purpose of describing and understanding them from the participants’ point of view. The qualitative researcher thus seeks a better understanding of the complex situation or issue (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011). In qualitative research, the researcher seeks to find data that are rich and deep (D’Cruz & Jones, 2007). The researcher used a qualitative research approach for the purpose of this study as it seeks to answer questions about the complex phenomenon of juvenile delinquency and its contributing factors from the participant’s point of view.
1.7.2 Research design

The researcher used both an exploratory and descriptive research design. An exploratory research design is used in order to gain new insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual. This research design can also be used where a lack of basic information on a new area of interest exist, or to become informed with a situation to formulate a problem or develop a hypothesis use exploratory research. Exploratory research frequently uses qualitative data (De Vos et al., 2011). The researcher used exploratory research to get new insights into juvenile delinquency and its causes in the ZFM district. With descriptive studies the aim are to describe a phenomena accurately, in this case, delinquent behaviour in the identified area. The researcher used descriptive research through classification, and narrative-type descriptions with the findings of this research in chapter four.

1.7.3 Social Constructivism as Theoretical Framework during the research

Constructivists are of the view that the human world is different from the natural and physical world. Constructivism assumes that there are multiple realities, which influence people’s lives and interaction with others. People seek to understand the world they live in. They develop subjective meaning of their experiences directed towards certain objects or things; these experiences are unique to individuals. Interaction with others, historical and cultural norms of the individual construct subjective meanings. Consideration of participant’s perceptions and social realities is therefore necessary (Creswell, 2013, Patton, 2002). Social constructivism is relevant as the proposed study explored the perceptions of parents of juvenile delinquents and probation officers regarding the contributing factors of juvenile delinquency in the ZFM district in the Northern Cape, South Africa. The participants based their perceptions on the
realities of their daily experiences and their subjective meanings, which they give to the factors.

1.7.4 Population & Sampling

A study population is all the elements from which the sample is actually selected (Babbie, Mouton, Vorster & Prozescky, 2008). The study population for the purpose of this study was the parents of juvenile delinquents convicted of a crime in the past year and include probation officers of the Department of Social Development, ZFM Region, in the Northern Cape. Four probation officers working at the Department of Social Development in the ZFM district participated in the interviews. The population also included the parents of juvenile delinquents in the ZFM district.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher made use of non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher or by accident. One of the types of non-probability sampling are purposive sampling, where the researcher selected what he thinks is a typical sample based on specialist knowledge or selection criteria (Walliman, 2006). The researcher engaged with the probation officers of the Department of Social Development in the ZFM district in the Northern Cape by using non-probability, purposive sampling. These probation officers identified parents of juveniles in their caseloads who met the following criteria:

- The juveniles committed a crime in the past year.
- Participants included single parents and parents from extended family households.
- Parents were from low, middle, and high-income households where possible.
1.7.5 **Data collection procedures**

Interviewing is the predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research. Individuals or groups, which the researcher expects to have knowledge about a phenomenon and contribute to rich information, are used for interviews (De Poy & Gilson in De Vos et al., 2011). After information was given on the project by using an information sheet (Appendix A), semi-structured, one on one interviews were conducted with all participants. Researchers use this method of interviewing in order to gain a detailed picture of a participant’s beliefs about, or perceptions or accounts of, a particular topic. The researcher had an interview schedule (Appendix C) with predetermined questions during semi-structured interviews. The interview was however flexible and not dictated by questions (Smith, Harré & Van Langenhoven in De Vos et al., 2011). The researcher asked the same questions to parents and probation officers. The semi-structured interview guided the researcher throughout the interviews. During the interviews, the researcher made use of interviewing techniques such as probing to get more detail on the perceptions of the participants.

1.7.6 **Pilot Study**

During the pilot study, the researcher established if the data gathering methods and interviewing techniques, as well as questions were correct (Bryman & Bell, 2003). One probation officer and one parent of a juvenile offender participated in the pilot study. Questions during the pilot study focused on what the participants perceived are the contributing factors of juvenile delinquency, with specific focus on individual characteristics of juveniles, family dynamics, the school environment as well as community and economic contributing factors. The researcher wanted to ensure that the participants understood the nature and content of the research question, but also that the participants are able to answer
the questions from their perspective. The researcher asked both participants to give feedback on their experience during the interviews. Their feedback indicated that they could relate to the questions asked, and clearly understood it. Participants also indicated that they were comfortable with the way the questions were asked. This gave the researcher the indication that he could proceed with the interviews.

1.7.7 Data Analysis

The researcher used Creswell’s (2013) data analysis spiral for the purpose of this study, as well as an external coder to get rich data. The researcher also works in the field of juvenile delinquency and had to reflect on his own perceptions in order to hear the voices of the participants rather than his own. The researcher transcribed the data and captured it to computer files. The researcher has read the data and notes made in the margins to get a sense of the whole interview. Classification followed to themes and categories. The researcher compared the date with those of the external coder and then present the themes and categories in Figure 4.4 in chapter four.

1.7.8 Trustworthiness in qualitative research

Trustworthiness in qualitative research are established when he researcher persuade his or her audience that the findings of the research represents the experiences of the participants and are therefore credible. Credibility, confirmability and transferability ensured trustworthiness of the study (De Vos et al., 2011). The following are brief descriptions of each of the strategies used to ensure trustworthiness according to Patton (2002):
The researcher ensured credibility through prolonged engagement with the participants or through member checks where the researcher allows the participants to validate that the reported findings represent their views. The researcher has done member checks by discussing the findings with the participants to ensure that it reflected the participants’ view and not those of the researcher. Another contributing factor to credibility was reflexivity. Reflexivity emphasizes the importance of self-awareness, political, cultural consciousness, and ownership of one’s perspective. It entails a critical self-reflection of the researcher’s potential biases, predispositions and modifications made in the methodology. The researcher used reflexivity by using reflective journals where he has written about his personal and cultural perspectives. This was important as the researcher is working in a context, which focuses on juvenile delinquency, although he is not a probation officer.

The researcher ensured confirmability by validating the findings of the study with other people. This ensured that the researcher maintained a neutral position through respecting participants’ views, not labelling them or influencing them. Participants confirmed the findings of the research. The external coder also contributed to the confirmability of the study as the researcher compared his data and findings with those of the independent coder.

If the findings of the research can apply to others contexts or respondents, transferability exits. The specific context define the findings in which they occur, therefore, the researcher does not claim that the knowledge gained in a particular context will necessarily have relevance in another context or for the same context in another timeframe. The researcher ensured transferability through thick descriptions of the research methodology used during the study in chapter three of this document. The researcher uses quotations, from the
transcribed data after interviews, in the findings chapter (chapter four). Literature strengthened the information in the quotations to ensure transferability. Purposive sampling contributed also to transferability. Through purposive sampling, the researcher purposely selected the locations and informants that differ from one another and thereby maximized the range of specific information.

1.8 ETHICAL STATEMENT

The ethics committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the research and provided ethical clearance for the study. Participation was voluntary and participants have given permission to use a voice recorder during interviews. The researcher assured participants that they could withdraw from the research study at any stage. The researcher also prepared participants for possible emotional reactions due to the research and referred to another person for counselling if necessary.

There was no violation of privacy by the researcher. The researcher ensured anonymity and confidentiality during the study by using pseudonyms for the participants. Before interviews, participants were informed about the purpose of the study through an information sheet (Appendix A) and an informed consent form (Appendix B) was signed by participants. The data was stored in a safe place and only the researcher and external coder had the password for the data (De Vos et al. 2011).

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is significant as it seeks to identify and explore the contributing factors of delinquency in a specific region in the Northern Cape. It will add to the knowledge base of both probation officers and social workers in the area regarding phenomena of juvenile
delinquency. Therefore, it can contribute specifically to prevention, but also diversion programs aimed at addressing the issue of juvenile delinquency. A limitation of the study is that it focuses only on the phenomena in a specific area and therefore the findings of the study may only be applicable to the area. Another limitation of the study is that it exclude the views and perception of the juveniles as only parents and probation officers participated in the research.

1.10 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

**Adolescence** is a stage in the life course, usually referring to the years between 12 and 18, which separate ‘childhood’ from ‘adulthood’

[http://search.credoreference.com.ezproxy.uwc.ac.za/content/entry/worldsocs/juvenile_delinquency/0](http://search.credoreference.com.ezproxy.uwc.ac.za/content/entry/worldsocs/juvenile_delinquency/0)

**Parenting** is the process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood. It entails the activity of raising a child rather than biological relationships, which is usually done by the biological parents of the child in question (Draft Integrated Parenting Framework: Department of Social Development, 2011)

**Peer Pressure** refers to the influence of a social group on an individual. It can be positive or negative (Wickert, 2002).

**Attitudes:** Eagly & Chaiken (1993) define attitudes as a “psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour of disfavour.

**Emotional deprivation:** Juvenile delinquency: Juvenile delinquency refers to any activity by persons classified as “juveniles” given their age and that violates a criminal law or other legal code

[http://search.credoreference.com.ezproxy.uwc.ac.za/content/entry/worldsocs/juvenile_delinquency/0](http://search.credoreference.com.ezproxy.uwc.ac.za/content/entry/worldsocs/juvenile_delinquency/0).
Substance abuse: Are, the definition of drug dependence, substance abuse could also be defined as habitual nonmedical substance-seeking and substance taking behaviour resistant to extinction or suppression by its adverse social pharmacological consequences (Wickler, 1971).

Environment refers to the factors that can affect a person’s behaviour. There are social and physical environments. The social environment include family members, friends and colleagues. Physical environment is the size of a room, the ambient temperature or the availability of certain foods. (Glanz, Rimer & Lewis, 2002).

Poverty includes those individuals who struggle to obtain adequate shelter, food and basic needs that are required for daily living (Russel, Harris & Gockel, 2008).

Psychosocial pertains or refers to the influence of social factors on an individual’s mind or behaviour, and to the interrelation of behaviour and social factors (Simpson & Weiner 1991).

1.11 CONCLUSION & CHAPTERS TO FOLLOW

This chapter deals with the theoretical background and rationale of the study. It a provided a description of the research question, the goal and objectives as well as the research methodology, method of data collection and ethical issues considered. The following is a brief description of the chapters that follows:

Chapter 2: This chapter encompasses literature review of the phenomena of juvenile delinquency, focusing on different theories of causations regarding child delinquency.

Chapter 3: The researcher discusses the application of the research methodology in more detail in this chapter. The first objective in this study to explore the phenomenon of juvenile
delinquency from the perceptions of parents and probation officers is the focus of this chapter.

**Chapter 4** provides the reader with the findings of the research study as well as the biographical profile of the parents of the juvenile delinquents. This chapter focuses on second objective of the study to describe psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency.

**Chapter 5:** This chapter comprises of the conclusions and recommendations of the study, which are related to the third objective of the study.
CHAPTER 2

THE PHENOMENON OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Juvenile delinquency is a complex social problem that significantly affects all members and processes of a social structure. Delinquency refers to a set of behaviours that are not in line with the collective practices and/or ethics of the dominant social group. Essentially, these behaviours deviate from societal norms and more specifically, they violate established criminal codes and laws. Juvenile delinquency incorporates not only general criminal activity but also conduct that is only unlawful for youths, such as running away from home and skipping school. Current research into this difficult and pressing issue reflects a vast range of theories about, and predictors of delinquency, as well as a multitude of strategies to control and reduce overall delinquency. The consensus among practitioners and researchers, however, maintains that juvenile delinquency is a dynamic, multifaceted problem with numerous potentially causal factors (Agnew, 2006).

2.2 DEFINITION OF THE JUVENILE OFFENDER

Juvenile delinquency is the committing of either violent or non-violent crimes by persons who are usually under the age of eighteen, and are still considered to be a minor as they have committed an offence ordinarily punishable by criminal processes. Persons are under the statutory age for criminal responsibility and thus their behaviour has been labelled as delinquent by a court of law (Dissel, 1999). In many different countries the age limits of juveniles vary but in South Africa the Department of Correctional Services (2005) regards all persons under the age of twenty-one as juveniles and those under the age of eighteen as children, having had participated in criminal acts of an antisocial nature.
Within this study, the juvenile delinquents were in a diversion programme and were recorded as being under the age of eighteen but no younger than ten years. They are referred to as juvenile offenders but additionally described as ‘delinquents’, ‘children’ and ‘youthful offenders’ where these concepts could be utilised interchangeably. Additionally they have violated the law due to participation in antisocial acts. The concept antisocial behaviour was utilised throughout this research. Whilst it is difficult to define the domain of what is considered antisocial, broadly speaking, antisocial behaviour indicates an inability to conform to social norms. Individuals labelled as ‘antisocial’ are characterised by their engagement in criminal acts and they have a tendency towards displaying hostility, tension and rage as well as lacking a conscience. Anti-social individuals are further characterised for their violation of the basic rights of others, the violation of societal norms and rules, as well as engagement in criminal acts (Sadock & Sadock, 2003). The concept “antisocial” is used as a descriptive sense rather than a formal diagnosis or personality type for the purpose of this study. In this sample, antisocial behaviour committed by these offenders encompassed activities such as robbery, grievous bodily harm, theft, assault, rape and attempted rape.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It was important for the researcher to do a literature review on the causal underpinnings of juvenile delinquency in order to get an in-depth understanding on the holistic efforts important to combat juvenile delinquency. An enquiry was done into its causal underpinnings and this has led the researcher to identify risk and protective factors, which can significantly increase or decrease the likelihood of children to engage in delinquent behaviours (Green, Gesten, Greenwald & Salcedo, 2008; Simões, Matos & Batista-Foguet, 2008; Hunte, 2006).
A discussion of the Problem Behaviour Theory (Hawkins, Catalano & Muller, 1992) and Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) follows as theoretical frameworks. These theories are conceptually sound paradigms and are presented to provide a baseline and background to consider when discussing juvenile delinquency.

2.3.1 Problem Behaviour Theory

According to Jessor and Jessor (1977), the Problem Behaviour Theory is a psychosocial model that attempts to explain behavioural outcomes such as substance use, deviancy, and risky sexual behaviour. Research has shown its applicability with adolescents and young adults (Donovan & Jessor, 1985; Jessor, 1987). The Problem Behaviour Theory consists of three independent but related systems of psychosocial components. Firstly, it refers to the personality system which includes social cognitions, individual values, expectations, beliefs, and attitudes. Secondly, the focus is on the perceived environmental system, which consists of proximal and distal social influence factors such as family and peer orientation and expectations regarding problem behaviours. The third component of the behaviour system consists of problem and conventional behavioural structures that work in opposition to one another. Examples of the problem behaviour structure include illicit drug use, tobacco use, alcohol abuse, and deviant behaviour (for example delinquency, precocious sexual behaviour). Jessor postulate that these problem behaviours stem from an individual’s affirmation of independence from parents and societal influence. In contrast, conventional behaviour structures consist of behaviours oriented toward society’s traditional standards of appropriate conduct such as church attendance and high academic performance. Proneness to specific problem behaviours entails involvement in other problem behaviours and less participation in conventional behaviours (Jessor & Jessor, 1977).
2.3.2 Social Learning Theory

Bandura (1977) characterized human behaviour as a continuous and reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural, and environmental determinants, known as social learning theory. Social learning emphasizes the role played by vicarious, symbolic, and self-regulatory processes in psychological functioning. Individuals do not merely react to external influences; they select, organize, and transform the stimuli that impinge upon them. Bandura proposed that individuals are not born with an inherent knowledge of behaviour, and that behaviours must be learned. There are two types of learning: learning by response consequences, and learning rooted in direct experience. From this experience, an individual can provide numerous functions: informative, motivational, and reinforcing.

Observational learning or learning through modelling is a key contributor to an individual’s repertoire of behaviour. Much of human behaviour is learned observationally, which reduces errors and time. Four processes govern observational learning: attention (perceive accurately), retention processes (remembering it), motor reproduction processes (converting the thoughts into appropriate actions), and motivational processes (not necessarily enacting everything learned) (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura placed great importance on sensor motor and idea motor learning. Young children must develop the ability to translate what they perceive into corresponding actions. They learn to convert thought into organized sequences of actions. A patterned theory of modelling can account for behaviour that is acquired observationally and the social setting in which it will most likely be exhibited (Bandura, 1977). Aggression and other long-term personality traits are shaped by social learning principles. Similarly, juveniles learn through their interactions with peers to engage in delinquent acts (Agnew, 2001).
Risk factors can be defined as the circumstances that contribute to negative developmental outcomes in a person’s life (Carr & Vandiver, 2001). In contrast, protective factors are the circumstances that mitigate the impact of risk factors. Factors such as the circumstances that, irrespective of the presence of risk, promote or contribute to growth-oriented developmental outcomes (Fraser, Richman & Galinsky, 1999). Research from the perspective of these developmental influences has concentrated to a considerable degree on risk and to a much lesser extent on protective and promotive factors. Leading longitudinal studies on the risk and protective factors of criminal involvement are listed here. The first attempt was made by Glueck & Glueck’s (1950) longitudinal study on 500 men born in late 1920’s and early 1930’s. The study focused on two groups, one group had been convicted of crimes; the other remained free of convictions. Their findings revealed that multiple risk factors propelled certain youth to engage in delinquent behaviour and later adult crime.

Another study on the causes and correlates of delinquency (Thornberry, Huizinga & Loeber, 1993) initiated research to understand the causes of delinquency and crime in three different sites and confirmed the research findings of the Glueck’s in 1950. The study found that a host of risk factors, including family functioning, peers behaviour and school performance, contributed to child delinquency. Any discussion of risks, protection or contributing factors with respect to juvenile delinquency immediately becomes a complex analysis because of the myriad elements of a growing child’s social ecology and the complex interactions among these, which could potentially exert some level of influence on the child’s developmental outcomes. Circumstances such as general offending, substance abuse, status delinquency (such as truancy and dropping out), serious and violent behaviours, recidivism, gang membership, availability of
firearms, teen pregnancy, economic deprivation, family conflict, academic failure, having delinquent peers, and early antisocial problems typically overlap as risk factors, and the presence of multiple risks leads to cumulative effects (Huizinga, Loeber & Thornberry, 1994; Huizinga, Loeber, Thornberry & Cothern, 2000). Problematic behavioural outcomes typically have multiple determinants (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). Furthermore, the effects of risk factors typically differ according to gender, race, and age (Kroneman, Loeber & Hipwell, 2004; Maschi, Morgen, Bradley & Hatcher, 2008; Rumberger, 1983).

Most research on risk and protective factors for delinquency or violence focus on males due to data availability, but females and males tend to respond to the same risk and protective factors differently. For example, Kroneman, Loeber & Hipwell (2004) found that trusting relationships, positive self-esteem, and identity development offer greater protective and promotive influences for girls compared to boys. Having poor relationships in the family or at school, and the presence of physical or sexual assault were robust predictors of delinquency among girls while not among boys (Hubbard & Pratt, 2002). Age also matters when examining risk and protective factors, a concept reflected in life course theory as developmental-timing. Family protective factors, for example, play a more important role early in a child’s life than in later adolescence. In middle childhood and adolescence, peer influences and school-related factors, particularly academic achievement, are potent developmental influences (Welsh & Farrington, 2007).
2.5 RISK FACTORS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Sociologists have identified a variety of factors that they believe contribute to juvenile delinquency. These factors include the lack of parental supervision; a lack of discipline; a lack of parental monitoring; the lack of attachment to pro-social institutions such as school, community, and church; low income; poor housing; a large family size; low educational attainment; associations with other delinquents; drug or alcohol abuse; and the criminal behaviour of parents and siblings. Sociological thinkers suggest that it is not just one single factor, but many factors working together, that increase the likelihood of juvenile delinquency (Agnew, 2001; Agnew, 2006).

Risk-taking, physical violence, previous delinquency, truancy or dropping out from school, delinquent peers, gang membership and coming from a neighbourhood with exposure to crime, drugs, and disorganization are risk factors for the late onset of delinquency, while they are not significant for younger children. According to a summary by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) Study Group (1999) on Serious and Violent Juvenile Offenders, the best child predictors of delinquency by age 6-11, were a prior offence, substance abuse, being male, coming from a low socio-economic status family and having an antisocial parent. The best predictors of delinquency by age 12-14 were lack of strong social ties, antisocial peers and prior offences (Lipsey & Derzon, 1999). Just as the risk for delinquency varies with age, risk also varies with gender and race (Loeber, Farrington & Petechuk, 2003). Social ties and emotional factors, such as reliable relationships in family and other social institutions, stress, trauma, and self-esteem and identity, impact more on girls than boys (Kroneman, Loeber & Hipwell, 2004; McKnight & Loper, 2002). The researcher discusses these factors in the following text in more detail.
2.5.1 **Individual Factors**

Children’s behaviour is the result of genetic, social and environmental factors. In relation to juvenile delinquency, some of the individual factors identified as risk factors in juvenile delinquency are early antisocial behaviour; emotional factors; cognitive development and hyperactivity. These factors are frequently interrelated, yet the underlying mechanism of how this occurs is not fully understood (Loeber & Farrington, 2000).

Anti-social behaviour at an early age may be the best predictor of later delinquency. This behaviour varies from oppositional rule violation and aggression to theft, physical fighting and vandalism (Haapasalo & Tremblay, 1994; Tremblay, Nagin, Séguin, Zoccolillo, Zelazo, Boivin, Perusse & Japel 1994). Gender is another important risk factor concerning delinquent or anti-social behaviour, especially in terms of aggressive behaviour. Research showed that males engage in higher levels of physical aggression than females (Archer, 2004; Carr, Hudson, Hanks & Hunt 2008; Dodge, Lansford & Dishion 2006). However, gender differences in social aggression are far less clear. Although some have proposed that girls engage in social, indirect, and relational forms more than boys (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Crick, Werner, Casas, O’Brien, Nelson & Grotpeter 1999), recent evidence suggests gender differences may be small (Carr *et al.* 2008).

Emotional factors may also at a later stage contribute to delinquent behaviour. How children express emotions, especially anger, early in life may contribute to or reduce their risk for anti-social behaviour. Overall studies have shown that impulsive, non-anxious boys are more likely to commit delinquent acts at twelve to thirteen years (Farrington, 1998). Cognitive and emotional development appears to be associated with children’s ability to control their behaviour within their first two years of life. Evidence suggests that these factors play an
important role in the development of early delinquency and may affect the learning of social rules. Poor cognitive development and behaviour problems during early childhood could explain the association between academic achievement and delinquency. Numerous studies have shown that delinquents’ verbal IQ’s tend to be lower than their nonverbal IQ’s. Delinquents also have lower global IQ’s and lower school achievement rates compared to non-delinquents (Moffit, 1993; Fergusson & Horwood, 1995; Maguin & Loeber, 1996).

2.5.2 Family Risk Factors
In general, family factors influence young children more than older children, but peer relationships become increasingly influential as the child progresses through the early school years. Some significant risk factors are associated exclusively for early onset (age 6-11) and late onset (age 12-14) (Lipsey & Derzon, 1999). Family criminality and poor parental practices, exposure to television violence, are risk factors for the early onsets (Ou & Reynolds, 2010).

Parental monitoring is typically described as parental awareness of the children’s whereabouts and activities and represents an important component of effective family management (Patterson & Stouthamer–Loeber, 1984). Monitoring has been consistently linked with youth aggression, defiance, and other acting-out/externalizing problems, with deficits in parental supervision shown to lead to the increase of these maladaptive acts. Parenting styles relate to children’s involvement in both social and physical aggression (Kawabata, Alink, Tseng, van Ijzendoorn & Crick, 2011; Olsen, Lopez-Duran, Lunkenheimer, Chang & Sameroff, 2011).

Authoritarian parenting, characterized by harsh and intrusive behaviours in conjunction with a lack of warmth and positivity, may put children at greater risk for involvement in aggressive
behaviour by modelling coercive and power asserting techniques to children who may in turn view these behaviours as effective with peers (Ladd & Pettit, 2002). In a recent meta-analysis, negative and harsh maternal parenting behaviour was correlated with relational aggression for both boys and girls, though effect sizes were uniformly small (Kawabata et al., 2011).

Authoritarian parenting is also a predictor of overt and physical aggression, as are specific practices associated with this style (Kawabata et al., 2011).

The permissive parenting style, characterized by warmth with low or inconsistent demands placed on the child, is also associated with behaviour problems and aggression. Permissive parenting predicted relational aggression in girls in a study with 4th grade children (Sandstrom, 2007). Furthermore, Kawabata et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis found that uninvolved maternal parenting was correlated with relational aggression and this relation was not moderated by gender. Permissive parenting may be negatively reinforced by aggressive behaviour, as parents give up their attempts to control their children’s behaviour to avoid aversive interactions with that child. This may in turn reinforce aggressive behaviour as an effective form of peer interaction (Patterson, DeBargashe & Ramsey, 1990).

Other risk factors within the family apart from parental styles, includes conflicts within the family, norms, values, models of behaviour, and other imprints that emanate from the family unit. These factors create an internalized “blueprint” for the child’s personality, beliefs, and attitudes. It is within the family unit that children receive most of their information about how to interact with other people and society. Healthy and nurturing families instruct members on how to interact using functional norms of behaviour, whereas unhealthy family environments instruct members on how to interact using dysfunctional norms.
Thus, dysfunctional families transfer dysfunctional norms to their children. In additional studies, family trauma in the form of physical and sexual abuse, neglect, maltreatment, loss of a parental figure via bereavement or due to cessation of contact and the presence of emotional problems were also a common finding within juvenile youths’ histories (Mkhondo, 2005; Ryan, Miyoshi, Metzner, Krugman & Fryer, 1996; Elliot & Smiljanich, 1994).

Another important predictor of children’s aggression is how parents behave in conflicts with their spouses. Children and adolescents who are exposed to frequent inter-parental conflict (IPC) are at greater risk of delinquency and aggression (Cummings, Goeke-Morey & Papp, 2004; Li, Putallaz & Su, 2011; Marcus, Lindahl & Malik, 2001; Underwood, Beron, Gentsch, Galperin & Risser, 2008). Social learning theory suggests that children are likely to imitate the conflict strategies they observe (Bandura, 1986; Grych & Fincham, 1990). One study found that children’s perceptions of the frequency and intensity of their parents’ conflicts were associated with higher levels of aggression with peers at school; this relation was mediated by the children’s cognitions about how appropriate aggressive responses were (Marcus et al., 2001). Given that negative conflict strategies may involve physical aggression or resemble socially aggressive behaviours (for example stonewalling, triangulation), it is not surprising that observing these behaviours in the home may predict engaging in aggressive behaviours towards peers (Kerig, 2001; Underwood et al., 2008).

2.5.3 Family Structure and Change

According to Simons, Simons and Wallace (2004) there is evidence to suggest that single-parent families, especially single-mothers, expect less of their children, spend less time monitoring them and use less effective techniques to discipline them. Furthermore, children in single-parent homes are more likely to participate in delinquency. In addition, it is harder
for a sole parent to find the time to monitor, supervise, and discipline because they find it hard to prioritize their children’s needs above other life demands. Living in a single-parent family is a major predictor of delinquency. Research has consistently shown that children in single-parent homes are more likely to be delinquent. Overall, this means that children have greater opportunities and motivation to participate in delinquent acts than do those living in a two-parent family. Several studies have found that children in divorced and low income families are at greater risk of engaging in aggressive behaviour during childhood and adolescence, hence the absence of one parent is a major predictor for juvenile delinquency (Breivik, Olweus & Endersen, 2009; Mandara & Murray, 2006; Mack, Leiber, Featherstone & Monserud, 2007; Nagin & Tremblay, 2001; Putallaz, Grimes, Foster, Kupersmidt, Coie & Dearing, 2007). For example, a study by Furstenberg & Teitler (1994) looks at the effects of marital disruption before and after the actual act of separation through divorce that may influence a child’s development. They found that in marriages that are disrupted, parents may have higher levels of conflict, be more prone to economic stress and meager parenting practices. The study suggests that exposure to these effects of divorce may compromise the child’s social, economic and psychological well-being. In contrast with these studies, other researchers have found that income is not a significant predictor of social or indirect aggression (Underwood et al., 2009; Vaillancourt, Miller, Fagbemi, Coté & Tremblay, 2007).

Another family structural change is the increasing presence of women in the workforce that may draw them away from their responsibilities as mothers. Seventy percent of mothers are employed today, including the majority of mothers with children less than one-year-old (Vander Venn, 2003). Women’s labour force involvement increased their economic independence and decreased their dependence upon marriage for income (Sweeny, 2002). Many women began to enter the labour force during the 1970’s due to economic strains
associated with low paying manufacturing and service jobs, which resulted in a decline in real family income from 1973 to 1988 (Vander Ven, 2003). Divorce contributed to the greater presence of women in the workforce (Vander Ven, 2003). The traditional role of the mother as a full-time homemaker has decreased significantly. While this may be a huge step for women and their careers, what implications does this have for their children? There is much debate over whether or not maternal employment has an effect on juvenile delinquency. Early research found that children with working mothers had higher rates of delinquency, and researchers attributed this delinquency to reduced supervision in children with working mothers (Hirschi, 1969; Nye, 1963; Sampson & Laub, 1993). Other studies, however, found no evidence of a relationship between a mothers employment and the delinquency of her children (Broidy, 1995; VanderVen, Cullen, Carrozza & Wright, 2001; Farnworth, 1984).

2.5.4 School Risk Factors

The educational experiences of youth affects juvenile development as the school environment may affect the child’s self-esteem and self-worth (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996; Farrington & Hawkins, 1991; Hawkins & Weis, 1985). School-related risk factors for juvenile delinquency include the unique dimensions of learner factors, relational factors, and factors within the school climate. Academic performance, especially academic failure or grade retention, is specifically a strong predictor of delinquency at the level of the individual learner, and early school dropout (Browning & Huizinga, 1999). Other pupil-level risks include poor attitude (Schoeneberger, 2011) and frequent school transitions (Zhang, Willson, Katsiyannis, Barrett, Ju & Su, 2010). A negative association was found between participation in sports and rule-breaking and aggressive behaviours (Burton & Marshall, 2005). Pupils who receive special education have a high probability of involvement in the juvenile justice system (Zhang, et al., 2010). School-related relational factors include teacher-pupil relations
and relations among pupils (Libbey, 2004). Low bonding or commitment to school (Hill, Howell, Hawkins & Battin-Pearson, 1999) and low levels of teacher satisfaction with a pupil both contribute to school disengagement, which further puts a learner at risk of being delinquent (Henry, Knight & Thornberry, 2012). School climate factors that present risks for juvenile delinquency include high delinquency rates, inner-city neighbourhood location, inadequate rule enforcement, and poorly defined school regulations and norms. One study examined exclusionary discipline practices as school-level risk factors and found that suspension was significantly correlated to delinquency (Christle, Jolivette & Nelson, 2005).

Both acceptable and unacceptable excuses for absences lead to low academic performance, especially in maths, but, as would be expected, a high proportion of unexcused absences are associated with stronger positive relationships with school difficulties than excused absences (Gottfried, 2009). Attendance patterns from as early as at the first grade predict risk for school disengagement later on (Ensminger & Slusarcick, 1992; Lehr, Sinclair & Christenson, 2004), and ultimately these risks elevate risks for academic failure and high-school dropout (Kearney, 2008). These outcomes present particular risks for other social problems in adolescence and adulthood, including criminality (Schoeneberher, 2011). There is no single reason that explains why being absent from school predicts such a vast array of social problems (Gandy & Shultz, 2007; Grooters & Failey, 2002). Indeed, early school absence is best thought of as an important social marker of multiple developmental risks that include individual characteristics, developmental issues, socio-economic influences, and family, school, peer, and community factors (Teasley, 2004; Baker, Sigmon & Nugent, 2001; Zhang, Katsiyannis, Barrett & Willson, 2007). The fact that multiple risks associated with truancy are involved in later deleterious outcomes points to the importance of comprehensive interventions that reflect the interests and involvement of multiple stakeholders in the welfare
of our children (Henry, Knight & Thornberry, 2012). Of all the risks for juvenile delinquency presented in the social ecology, the most dominant factor is low family socio-economic status.

This risk is intimately linked to homelessness, poverty, single-parent families, transportation difficulties (Teasley, 2004), elevated levels of family conflict (Alexander, Entwisle & Kabbani, 2001), family mobility, and ineffective parental disciplinary practices (Bell, Rosen & Dynlach, 1994; Corville-Smith, Ryan, Adams & Dalicandro, 1998), each of which presents additional risks for developing children.

Bullying or victimization in school increases the risk of becoming habitual truancy (Gastic, 2008; Snyder & Sickmund, 2006). Gandy and Schultz (2007) showed that large schools in low income, inner-city districts have more serious school problems than their counterparts. It was confirmed in other studies that school size in higher risk communities is a strong predictor of school violence (Eisenbraun, 2007). Unchallenging classes/homework and unsupportive or uncertified teachers also link to school absenteeism (Alexander, Entwisle & Horsey, 1997; Gandy & Schultz, 2007).

Poor academic performance, especially reading skills and mathematics, was a strong predictor of dropping out of high school (Finn & Rock, 1997). In one study, 47% of dropouts said the major reason for leaving school was that the classes were not interesting (Bridgeland, Dilulio & Morrison, 2006; Teasley, 2004). Other school factors include poor relations with teachers (Corville-Smith, Ryan, Adams & Dalicandro, 1998), inappropriate academic placement, and ineffective and inconsistently applied attendance policies (Bell, Rosen & Dynlacht, 1994; Teasley, 2004).
The repeal of school discipline practices, such as corporal punishment and expulsion, dependence on security measures and law enforcement, also contribute to violence in school (Eisenbraun, 2007; Finn & Voelkl, 1993).

Cultural biases in discipline practices tend to push minority students out of school disproportionately (Glanville & Wildhagen, 2007; Johnson, Crosnoe & Elder, 2001). Students who attend school with greater proportions of students or teachers of their own race tend to have better school engagement (Johnson, Crosnoe & Elder, 2001; Rumberger, 1983).

Community factors, including the presence of gangs, violence, delinquent peers, and interracial tensions of the community, impact on the child’s school experience (Alexander, Entwisle & Kabbani, 2001; McCluskey, Bryum, & Patchin, 2004; Teasley, 2004). Truancy is prevalent in urban settings and geographic regions with concentrations of poverty and minority populations (Hammond, Linton, Smink & Drew, 2007). Additionally, Richman, Bowen & Woolley (2004) reported that public health problems, including higher risk of sexually transmitted diseases and school-age pregnancy, are associated with school failure.

2.5.5 Peer Risk Factors
Delinquent peers tend to have a heavier impact on risks for juvenile delinquency among school-age children, compared to younger children (Gorman-Smith, Tolan & Henry, 2000). Peer relations significantly influence decision-making processes and behavioural patterns among adolescents. Having deviant or delinquent siblings or peers (Rodgers, Buster & Rowe, 2001; Slomkowski, Rende, Conger, Simons & Conger, 2001) has also been shown to be a strong risk factor for delinquent behaviours among juveniles (Sullivan, 2006; Kaufmann, Wyman, Forbes Jones & Barry, 2007). Peer rejection also predicts future delinquency,
and this effect is likely to be mutually reinforcing, where higher levels of delinquency entail rejection by greater numbers of peers (Sullivan, 2006). Gang membership by definition involves social deviance and delinquency, and these effects on an individual child’s trajectory tend to become condensed and intensified. Typically, these children have weak family ties and low bonding to school and other social institutions (Hill, Howell, Hawkins & Battin-Pearson, 1999).

2.5.6 Community and Neighbourhood Risk Factors


2.5.7 Criminological Factors for Recidivism

In behavioural science, generally, the strongest predictor of future behaviour is previous behaviour (Green, Gesten, Greenwald & Salcedo, 2008). Criminological factors at an individual level, such as offense type, age at the first crime (Baumer, 1997; Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004), and gang membership (Lattimore, Visher & Linster, 1995), have been identified in several different studies as important risks for future criminal behaviour in
adulthood. The linkage of prior offenses with further recidivism is well identified (Cottle, Lee & Heilbrun, 2001; Rodriguez, 2007), especially for more serious types of offenses. For example, those who commit property crimes may have fewer propensities for future crime than those who commit violent crimes (Rodriguez, 2007; Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004). Accordingly, children with histories of multiple crime records are at higher-risk levels than one-time offenders. Several studies have documented a negative relationship between the onset age of crime and later recidivism (Gendreau, Little & Goggin, 1996; Green, Gesten, Greenwald & Salcedo, 2008). The younger the child’s age is at the first conviction, the higher the probability to continue the offending pattern in adulthood (Farrington, Ttofi & Coid, 2009). Likewise, juveniles with gang affiliations are often more at risk of continuing a life pattern of crime (Hill, Howell, Hawkins & Battin-Pearson, 1999; Kaufmann, Wyman, Forbes-Jones & Barry, 2007; Lattimore, Vishner & Linster, 1995). Gang membership tends to intensify the negative impact on a child of delinquent peers or siblings, and increases the risk of involvement in serious and violent crimes. Compared with criminological factors at the individual level, such as gender, race, and previous offences, there are limited studies on the factors predicting recidivism at the correctional institution level. The type of detention facility, which is an indicator of the severity of the legal charge, is one of few criminological predictors for future recidivism. Juveniles placed in secure custody or confinement are at greater risk for recidivism than those placed in non-residential programs (Baumer, 1997; Sharpe & Litzelfelner, 2004), as secure confinement is associated with more serious crimes. Children who commit crimes that are more serious tend to also have more prolonged involvement in the juvenile justice system, and have more exposure to other delinquent youths. Therefore, a child placed in secure care is often exposed to greater risk than a child who is placed on probation and remains in his or her community.
2.6 CO-OCCURANCE OF RISK FACTORS AND OTHER PROBLEM BEHAVIOURS

Under the social ecological framework, no single factor is likely to be responsible for any single developmental outcome. Problem behaviours tend to vary with multiple risk factors (Loeber & Farrington, 1998). The larger the number of accumulated risk factors, the higher the risks for delinquency (Loeber & Farrington, 2000; Paylor, 2010). This is also true for protective and promotive factors. The more positive factors present in a child’s social environment, the better the chance for a child to be resilient in the face of adversity (Burton & Marshall, 2005; Garmezy, 1985). Usually risk factors are highly interrelated and clustered between and within different domains. For example, family conflict and poor family management at the family level are witnessed more often from a disorganized community where drugs and firearms are available, compared to more stable neighbourhoods without these problems.

Family and community risk factors, in turn, contribute to school performance, which, in turn, is likely to be associated with future unemployment, welfare system dependency, and raising a child following this negative cycle (Hartwell, 2000). It is remarkable to see the co-occurrence of serious and violent offences with other problem behaviours in a child’s life (Huizinga, Loeber, Thornberry & Cothern, 2000). Cumulative risk factors increase the likelihood of having multiple personal and social problems. The overlap of risks for serious, violent, and chronic offenders is especially potent (Capaldi & Patterson, 1996). Huizinga, Loeber, Thornberry & Cothern (2000), in a report for OJJDP, found a clear relationship between serious/violent delinquency and other problem behaviours, such as dropping out of school and substance abuse.
2.7 PROTECTIVE FACTORS

Delinquency is clearly not a single event that may happen randomly in the life of a juvenile. In fact, the amount that is now known about the specific risks for juvenile delinquency provides a great deal of information about how to address the problem. Comprehensive prevention and rehabilitation models for juvenile delinquency, that address the multiple risk factors and reinforce the protective factors in a child’s life, are possible to achieve whenever there is commitment.

Compared with the accumulated knowledge about risk factors, less is known about protective factors for juvenile delinquency and crime. Protective factors are associated with the concepts of resilience and desistance (Fraser, Richman & Galinsky, 1999). Protective factors are the internal and external forces that help children resist or ameliorate risk. Howell (2003) defined protective factors as those, which can serve to buffer risk factors, interrupt the causal processes operated by risk factors, and prevent the initial occurrence of a risk factor. Garmezy (1985) described three broad categories of protective factors: dispositional attributes, family milieu, and attributes of the extra-familiar environment. Positive family relationships and stability, low community crime, high IQ, and sustained attention have been identified as protective factors for desistance from delinquency (Carr & Vandiver, 2001; Christle, Jolivette & Nelson, 2005). Protective factors are very helpful in explaining why some children exposed to multiple risk factors do not engage in antisocial behaviours, and why others appear to be on a path toward serious criminal activity (Hoge, 2001). Problem behaviours normally develop in individuals who have a preponderance of risk factors over protective factors (Browning & Huizinga, 1999), so it is important to reinforce protective factors to prevent delinquent acts. As the number of risk factors exceeds the number of protective factors, the probability for evasion of harmful developmental outcomes diminishes. In this regard, reinforcement of
protective factors can be considered not only an effective prevention for delinquency but also an effective rehabilitation strategy to help guide juvenile delinquents toward productive lives (Fagan, Van Horn, Hawkins & Arthur, 2007). Howell (2003) divided major protective factors for delinquency into the following categories based on two main studies (Stouthamer-Loeber, Loeber, Wei, Farringaton & Wilstrom, 2002):

- Individual protective factors against delinquency include high IQ, intolerant attitude toward antisocial deviance, positive social orientation, and high personal accountability, capacities for empathy and guilt, and trustworthiness.

- The family can be a contributing protective factor against juvenile delinquency by enhancing good relationships with parents, good family communication, and stability. Other protective factors in the child’s environment include the school, peers and neighbourhood.

- School protective factors include positive commitment to school, strong school motivation, academic achievement, and favourable attitude toward school.

- Having a non-delinquent friend is a protective peer-related factor; a non-disadvantaged neighbourhood and low neighbourhood crime are two main protective community and neighbourhood factors.

The researcher illustrated a summary of risk and protective factors in juvenile delinquency in figure 2.1.
**FIGURE 2.1: SUMMARY OF RISK AND PROTECTIVE FACTORS IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOMAIN</th>
<th>EARLY ONSET OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY</th>
<th>LATE ONSET OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY</th>
<th>PROTECTIVE FACTORS AGAINST JUVENILE DELINQUENCY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDIVIDUAL</td>
<td>• GENERAL OFFENSES&lt;br&gt;• SUBSTANCE ABUSE&lt;br&gt;• BEING MALE&lt;br&gt;• AGGRESSION**&lt;br&gt;• HYPERACTIVITY&lt;br&gt;• PROBLEM (ANTISOCIAL) BEHAVIOUR&lt;br&gt;• EXPOSURE TO TELEVISION&lt;br&gt;• VIOLENCE&lt;br&gt;• MEDICAL, PHYSICAL PROBLEMS&lt;br&gt;• LOW IQ,&lt;br&gt;• ANTISOCIAL ATTITUDES/BELIEFS&lt;br&gt;• Dishonesty**</td>
<td>• GENERAL OFFENCES&lt;br&gt;• RESTLESSNESS&lt;br&gt;• DIFFICULTY CONCENTRATING**&lt;br&gt;• RISK TAKING&lt;br&gt;• AGGRESSION**&lt;br&gt;• BEING MALE&lt;br&gt;• PHYSICAL VIOLENCE&lt;br&gt;• ANTISOCIAL ATTITUDES &amp; BELIEFS&lt;br&gt;• CRIMES AGAINST PERSONS&lt;br&gt;• PROBLEM (ANTISOCIAL) BEHAVIOR&lt;br&gt;• LOW IQ&lt;br&gt;• SUBSTANCE USE</td>
<td>• INTOLERANT ATTITUDE TOWARDS DEVIANCE&lt;br&gt;• HIGH IQ,&lt;br&gt;• BEING FEMALE&lt;br&gt;• POSITIVE SOCIAL ORIENTATION&lt;br&gt;• PERCEIVED SANCTIONS FOR TRANSGRESSIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAMILY</td>
<td>• LOW SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS&lt;br&gt;• POVERTY&lt;br&gt;• ANTISOCIAL PARENTS,&lt;br&gt;• POOR PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP&lt;br&gt;• HARSH, LAX OR INCONSISTENT DISCIPLINE&lt;br&gt;• BROKEN HOMES&lt;br&gt;• SEPARATION FROM PARENTS&lt;br&gt;• ABUSIVE PARENTS,&lt;br&gt;• NEGLECT</td>
<td>• POOR PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP&lt;br&gt;• HARSH OR LAX DISCIPLINE&lt;br&gt;• POOR MONITORING, SUPERVISION&lt;br&gt;• LOW PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT&lt;br&gt;• ANTISOCIAL PARENTS&lt;br&gt;• BROKEN HOME&lt;br&gt;• LOW SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS&lt;br&gt;• POVERTY&lt;br&gt;• ABUSIVE PARENTS&lt;br&gt;• FAMILY CONFLICT**</td>
<td>• WARM, SUPPORTIVE RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS AND OTHER ADULTS&lt;br&gt;• PARENTS’ POSITIVE EVALUATION OF PEERS&lt;br&gt;• PARENTAL MONITORING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHOOL</td>
<td>• POOR ATTITUDE/PERFORMANCE</td>
<td>• POOR ATTITUDE/PERFORMANCE&lt;br&gt;• ACADEMIC FAILURE</td>
<td>• COMMITMENT TO SCHOOL&lt;br&gt;• RECOGNITION FOR INVOLVEMENT IN CONVENTIONAL ACTIVITIES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEER GROUP</td>
<td>• WEAK SOCIAL TIES&lt;br&gt;• ANTISOCIAL PEERS</td>
<td>• POOR ATTITUDE/PERFORMANCE&lt;br&gt;• ACADEMIC FAILURE</td>
<td>• FRIENDS WHO ENGAGE IN CONVENTIONAL BEHAVIOR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNITY</td>
<td></td>
<td>• NEIGHBOUHOOD CRIME&lt;br&gt;• DRUGS&lt;br&gt;• NEIGHBOUHOOD DISORGANIZATION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*AGE OF ONSET NOT KNOWN  **MALES ONLY*
2.8 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND SOCIAL WORK: DIVERSION PROGRAMS

Through the democratisation of South Africa in 1994, important changes needed to be made. Some of these changes, among other, were changes to the country’s legal and criminal justice landscapes. Newly enacted legislation in the form of the Child Justice Act was promulgated.

Children who previously engaged in minor crimes were often subjected to the harsh realities of formal prosecution, while many received corporal punishment. Section 28(2) of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) considers these practices to contravene the best interest of the child; procedures were needed for the humane and age-appropriate treatment of children in conflict with the law. Diversion Programs were some of these measures, which is the channelling of child offenders, in appropriate cases, away from formal justice procedures, although there is sufficient evidence to prosecute them (Davis & Busby 2006; Gallinetti, Muntingh, & Skelton, 2004). This strategy aims to strengthen responsibility in child offenders by holding them accountable for their actions, and by reinforcing respect for the rights and fundamental freedoms of others (Matshego 2001). Diversion has been practiced in South Africa since the early 1990s, although in a selective and disjointed manner due to the absence of formal legislation. Since then, the types and scope of programmes expanded considerably amid the burgeoning of referrals for diversion (Steyn 2005; Wood 2003).

The promulgation of the Child Justice Act (CJA) 75 of 2008; is seen as a milestone in South Africa’s response to children in conflict with the law. The act was introduced on 1 April 2010 following a long process of development and consultation. It contains, among others, directives for diversion of child offenders. According to Section 51 of the CJA, the aims of diversion are to encourage accountability in child offenders and meeting their individual needs; reintegrate and reconcile them with their families, as well as the community and those affected by the offence. Victims should be provided the opportunity to express their views.
and benefit from some form of compensation (albeit symbolically). Stigmatisation should be prevented following the contact with the criminal justice system as well as receiving of a criminal record. In essence, the options for diversion amount to supervision and guidance orders, instructions for appropriate behaviour, attendance of counselling or therapy, restitution to those affected by the offence, and community service.

The Child Justice Act (2008) calls for the entrenchment of restorative justice in the child justice system. This paradigm considers crime as a harm to society and not only to victims (Gallinetti et al. 2004). It is understood as strategies that involve the offender, the victim, their families and community members to collectively identify and address the damage caused by the offence (Bradshaw, Roseborough & Umbreit 2006; Roche 2002). Active involvement, taking responsibility, cooperative decision-making, forgiveness, reparation and reintegration are regarded as key futures of restorative programmes (Mousourakis 2004; CJA 2008). However, it has been argued that not all programmes that function under the rubric of restorative justice completely satisfy these demands (Skelton & Batley 2006; Steyn 2005; Zehr 2002). Instead, practices function on a continuum between “fully restorative” and “restorative limited”, depending on the nature of stakeholder involvement and the activities in which the offender engage.

According to McCold & Wachtel (2000), the social sciences can play an important role in providing description, theory and evaluation of child justice services. The rapid expansion of local diversion programmes and support for restorative practice far outpaced research about its impact and effectiveness (Steyn 2005; Wood 2003). In particular, concerns have been expressed about the ability of crime prevention initiatives, including diversion, to understand and express the theoretical and process assumptions that guide their activities (Frank 2003; Muntingh 2005). This is deemed imperative for a programme’s success, as it has been shown
that theoretically informed programmes are more likely to achieve their goals than those without adequate theoretical groundings (DuBois, Neville, Parra & Puch-Lilly, 2002; Izzo & Ross 1990). An important aspect when dealing with intervention theory relates to what programmes understand as the aetiology of child offending, as this generally direct the intervention methods they follow. Additionally, the importance of knowledge on different diversion options, as well as their content and limitations are emphasised, in order to ensure informed recommendations in the administration of child justice. This view applies to assessors, referral officers and service providers in the diversion chain (Bruyere 2002; Steyn 2005; Badenhorst & Conradie 2004).

2.9 AN OVERVIEW OF APPROACHES TO DIVERSION PROGRAMS

In most instances, definitions of diversion interventions vary considerably within and across the types of services rendered. Explanations are generally structured in terms of the purpose of programmes, their clientele, and the methods of intervention. A vast array of literature has been consulted to compile the following definitions of the core constructs of the investigated diversion strategies:

Life-skills are individual proficiencies for behaving in a manner that meaningfully and successfully meets the demands of the self, others and the environment (Ebersöhn & Eloff 2003). Life-skills training focus on the transfer or strengthening of abilities needed to function effectively in society, reacting to life’s stressors amicably, and successfully dealing with conflict situations (Chance 2003; Muthukrishna 2002).

Mentoring refers to a cross-age, dyadic relationship between an experienced, caring adult and a disadvantaged or troubled younger person (Davies & Thurston 2005; Vanderven 2004). Mentoring relationships are based on acceptance and support in order for the mentor to provide attention and guidance. This serves to assist the young person in negotiating life’s
challenges and to foster his/her potential (Keating, Tomishima, Foster & Alessandri, 2002; Rhodes, Spencer, Keller, Liang & Noam, 2006).

Outdoor intervention implies nature-based experiences, by means of physical and emotional challenges, that bring about the psychological awareness needed to advance behavioural change. Outdoor programmes are structured in such a way that participants perceive activities as insoluble, risky and even dangerous, when they are in fact quite safe (Glass & Meyers 2001; Sheldon & Arthur 2001).

Family-group conferencing refers to the opportunities that are created for the offender, the victim, their families and concerned community members to discuss the events surrounding the crime and its impact in order to develop a mutually beneficial strategy or settlement to remedy it. Repairing the harm caused by the offence and reconciling those affected by the action are two important concepts in family group conferencing (Kuloane 2002; Schneider 2000).

2.10 CONCLUSION
This chapter has drawn on the Problem Behaviour theory and Social Learning theory in order to provide a theoretical underpinning for this study. Using the psychosocial approach, it specifically examined the literature, which has looked at the personal, social and environmental factors contributing to Juvenile Delinquency.
These factors included risk as well as protective factors and the relationship between them. It is therefore clear, through this chapter that the problem of juvenile delinquency is of a complex nature and so also the factors contributing to it.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

While chapter two reviewed existing literature on the relevant subjects to gain information on the topic of the study, chapter three aims to describe the research methodology as applied during the research study, following a brief overview of the methodology in Chapter one. This therefore focuses the selected research approach, the research design, population and sampling, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTION

Babbie and Mouton (2007) argues that research begins with the identification and formulation of a research problem, which is expressed as a question. This research question derives or extends from the study's purpose and is more specific, representing the actual question that the research study seeks to answer (Mouton & Marais, 1996; Creswell, 2009). Research questions guide the study by clarifying direction and prevent it from becoming too broad (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Punch, 2005). The research question guides the research design and consequently controls the course of the study and influences the selection of the research design to ensure that the research goals are adequately achieved (Babbie & Mouton (2007). The research question, which the researcher wanted to answer in this study, was:

What are the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the Zwelentlanga Fatman Mgcawu-region (ZFM-region) in the Northern Cape, South Africa?
3.3 **RESEARCH GOAL**

A research goal is a brief statement of the end product that will overcome the shortage in knowledge identified in the literature review (McCuen 1996). The research goal of this study was to determine the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa.

3.4 **RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

According to McCuen (1996), the research objectives are the specific ends of the research project and are basically the general steps necessary to achieve the set goal of the research study. The objectives of the study were:

- Explore the psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Describe the psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Make recommendations for interventions through probation services by probation officers and the Department of Social Development in the Northern Cape, South Africa.

3.5 **RESEARCH APPROACH**

The researcher had a choice between a qualitative or quantitative approach or a combination of these two primary approaches. The qualitative approach stems from the anti-positivistic, interpretative approach. When the purpose of the qualitative study is primarily to describe a situation, phenomenon, problem or event; the information is gathered through the use of
variables measured on nominal or ordinal levels. Analysis is done to establish the variation in
the situation, phenomenon or problem without quantifying it.

Qualitative research uses flexible methods and techniques and could be classified as unstructured. This unstructured approach is more appropriate to explore the nature of a problem, issue or phenomenon. Qualitative research sets less formal relationships with the participants then quantitative research as participants engage in reciprocal communication styles with the researcher, elaborating their responses and in greater detail (Boeije, 2010; Kumar in Creswell, 2009).

The researcher kept the focus on learning about the opinions that the participants hold about the problem or issue, not the meaning that the researcher bring to the research or from writers of literature (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research is therefore based on the assumption that individuals have an active role in the construction of social reality and that they are able to describe and understand a phenomenon in terms of the meaning brought by people. Hence it enables contact with participants and produces rich descriptive data (Boeije, 2010). This correlates with social constructivism, which the researcher utilized during this research (See page twelve of the chapter one).

The researcher used the qualitative research approach through semi-structured interviews, interviewing probation officers and parents of delinquents in order to get the subjective meaning of their experiences of the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency. Through this approach, the researcher could gain a greater understanding of the participant’s perceptions and social realities.

Qualitative research can be applied through in-depth interviews, focus groups, observations and case studies that generate rich, detailed data that contributes to in-depth understanding of the research problem (Frederikson, Chamberlain & Long, 1996; Anderson, 2006). Qualitative researchers are key instruments doing data collection through examining
documents, observing behaviour and interviewing participants. Through their research, they
gather multiple forms of data, which allow them to build a complex, holistic picture as a
result of data analysis (Creswell, 2009; Davis, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

3.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.6.1 Explorative and descriptive research

Babbie & Mouton (2007) describes a research design as a blueprint of how the research will
be conducted. This study had been conducted according to an explorative and descriptive
research design. Through an explorative research design, the researcher aims to generate new
information, make preliminary investigations or gain insight into the studied phenomenon
and focuses on the "what" questions (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011; Durrheim,
2006). The researcher wanted to gain new information and insight into the contributing
factors of juvenile delinquency in the ZFM Region in the Northern Cape, South Africa.
Therefore, an explorative design was chosen for the research. Although an explorative
research designs leads to insight, it may not be descriptive enough, and for this reason, a
descriptive research design was also engaged in this study (Babbie & Mouton (2007).

While explorative studies aim at generating new information, descriptive studies seek to
accurately describe a phenomenon (De Vos et al., 2011; Durrheim, 2006). The descriptive
research design is also more organised than the explorative research design as it aims at
attaining a deeper understanding of a phenomenon to achieve rich data, which could possibly
inform an accurate description of the phenomenon (Durrheim, 2006; Babbie & Mouton,
2007). A descriptive design was used in this research to get a deeper understanding and
accurately describe the contributing factors to juvenile delinquency as illustrated in the
empirical findings (chapter four).
3.6.2 Social Constructivism as paradigm for research

Social constructivism is a postmodern paradigm. People make sense about their world where they live and work. This is done through interaction with their environment and others. This meaning is always subjective and focuses on the individual’s meaning. The meanings, which they attached vary and there are multiple meanings. Interaction with others, as well as cultural norms and the social, political and psychological contexts influence them. Language is also an important in the way people understand their world. The researcher has done the research in the client’s language and has taken their social, political and the psychological context of the juvenile delinquent, his family and probation officers in the ZFM region in consideration during the research (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002; De Vos et al., 2011).

Constructivists are specifically interest in these complex views and not narrow meanings. Therefore, the participants are selected according to their contribution to these complex views for the research, as the researcher has done by using purposive sampling and selected probation officers and parents of children with juvenile delinquent behaviour. Each participant experience and perceive his world different and all of these should be treated as “real” and included in the research (Creswell, 2013).

The researcher has to understand how his own background influence their interpretation of the experiences ad acknowledge that his own personal, cultural and historical experiences influence his interpretations of the participants’ world. It is important to use reflexivity in this regard (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002).

In comparison social constructionism is collectively generated and meaning is attached by culture and power. This power is socially and culturally constructed to serve someone’s interest, which are usually the most powerful (Patton, 2002).
3.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Babbie (2004) defines research methodology as the process to be undertaken, the tools and procedures to be used in order to attain the goal of the research. Research methodology is therefore the practical guidelines utilised in the process of population and sampling, data collection and data analysis of the research study.

3.7.1 Population and Sampling

A population refers to the entirety of elements such as people or organisations (Daymon & Holloway, 2011). It encompasses the larger group from which a sample is taken to represent the population (Durrheim, 2006). The population of this study consisted of all the probation officers in each of the towns in the ZFM district in the Northern Cape. These probation officers each identified a parent of a juvenile delinquent, which have committed a crime in the previous twelve months. The parents and probation officers were chosen because participants in a qualitative study should be individuals who have experienced and are able to relate to the phenomenon the researcher wishes to explore (Creswell, 2008). Time and cost, however, permit researchers to collect data from only a limited number of members of a population (Leedy & Omrod, 2005) and the researcher had to choose a sample from the population.

Sampling is a process of selecting a few members (sample) from a bigger group (sampling population) to be the basis for studying the unknown information or situation regarding the bigger group (Kumar, in Cresswell 2009). In other words, it is simply the process of selecting the actual research participants from the identified population to produce a sample (De Vos et al., 2011).
In quantitative research, samples tend to be structured, quantitative and strictly applied, whereas in qualitative research, where interviews and observation are used as methods of collecting individual, detailed and in-depth information (rich data), an unstructured element is implied. Non-probability sampling is mostly used; they are relatively limited, the size is not statistically determined and not representative, but based on the saturation of collected data (De Vos & Sarantakos as cited in De Vos et al., 2011).

Non-probability sampling relies on the judgement of the researcher or by accident and cannot be used to make generalizations about the whole population. Purposive sampling relies on the researcher’s specialist knowledge or selection criteria. Here the researcher selects what he/she thinks is a typical sample of the population bases on his/her knowledge (Walliman, 2006). Making use of non-probability, purposive sampling the researcher used the probation officers of the Department of Social Development in the ZFM district in the Northern Cape, South Africa, as well parents of juvenile delinquents identified by probation officers. These parents of a juvenile delinquents have form part of the caseloads of the probation officers and had to meet the following criteria:

- The juveniles committed a crime in the past year.
- Participants includes single parents and parents from extended family households.
- Parents should be from low, middle, and high-income households where possible.

### 3.7.2 Data Collection

Data collection is a process of acquiring information through unstructured or semi structured interviews, observations, documents and visual material (Creswell, 2003). Data collection for this study took place by means of individual semi-structured in-depth interviews with the aid of an interview guide (See appendix C). The participants were approached on a one-on-one basis and the researcher in person conducted interviews.
Interviews allow greater spontaneity and adaptation of interaction between the researcher and the participants (Davis, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln 2000). Semi-structured interviews are the most appropriate data collection method because it gives the researcher an opportunity to gather more information through observation of non-verbal cues, while those being interviewed have the opportunity to ask questions and get clarity on certain aspects of the interview process. Semi-structured individual interviews use open-ended questions during interviews. These questions range from simple to complex and broad to specific, allowing the participants to gradually adjust to the pattern of the interview.

Moreover, this data collection method includes flexible relations between the participants and the researcher, as the researcher can follow up on particular interesting avenues emerging from the interview and the participants also share information more closely in the direction of the interview. (De Vos et al., 2011). Flexibility provides an opportunity for the researcher to probe and explore issues further instead of dictating the flow of discussion. Therefore, the interview schedules will serve as a guide in a conversational two-way communication process that will give both the interviewer and interviewee the opportunity to ask further questions and to clarify data (Swartz, Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008; De Vos et al., 2011; Babbie, 2001).

The continuous nature of qualitative interviewing implies that questions are redesigned throughout the research project. The researcher may consider appropriate questions relating to all areas of interest, ensuring that the topic is covered thoroughly. The questions, however, should be limited in number, neutral and open-ended, rather than leading, arranged from simple to complex and from broad to specific. Questions should be brief, thematically and dynamically effective, producing knowledge and promoting good interaction during the
interview. Questions should be pitched at the right reading level in accordance with the expected reading level of the respondents. The sequence in which the questions are presented should aim to present general, non-threatening questions first and more sensitive questions later (De Vos et al., 2011; Babbie & Mouton 2007). Examples of the questions asked to parents are as follow:

- How did you feel when you find out that your child got involved in a crime?
- How did you experience his/her behaviour at a younger age?
- In your opinion, what do you think are the main aspects that contributed to him/her getting involved in a crime?

Example of question that were asked to probation officers included?

- From your assessments, what are the primary aspects contributing to delinquent behaviour amongst children?
- In your experience, in terms of individual characteristics, can one differentiate between a juvenile delinquent and a non-delinquent child? If so, how?

As the researcher intends to categorising the answers, frequent clarification of answers was done with respect to possible themes and categories that could be used later (De Vos et al., 2011; Babbie & Mouton, 2007).

3.7.2.1 The preparation of participants

Following the guidelines of De Vos et al., (2011) the researcher, before commencement of each interview session, ensured that the participants are fully prepared for the interviews. Considering the both the availability and schedules of all participants, the researcher set appointments for the interviews with each participant. As part of the preparation process, the
The researcher explained the purpose of the interview to the participants and placed emphasis on the fact that they could withdraw at any stage of the interview and that they can get counselling when necessary from someone for debriefing. Interviews were conducted in the participants’ choice of language and venue to ensure that the participants feel relaxed and comfortable during the interviews. Permission to audio record the interview was requested from the participants before the onset of the interviews. Each participant was also informed about the nature of the research, as well as other ethical considerations as stated in chapter one (1.8) and appendix A.

The researcher observed that participants were more relaxed after the researcher have shared these information, addressed their anxieties and assisted them to make informed decisions.

### 3.7.2.2 Course of the interviews

Each interview took approximately 25-40 minutes on average depending on how much information the participant wanted to share. In view of the fact that the participants are only conversant in Afrikaans, all the interviews were conducted in Afrikaans. These interviews have been recorded through an audio recorder; the use of an audio recorder has allowed the researcher to devote his full attention to the participants as well as on the interview process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Field notes were made during the course of the interview which includes the participants’ non-verbal cues that were noticed by the researcher. Making use of structured interview guides, the researcher also incorporated excellent interviewing and communication skills to elicit in-depth information from the participants.
3.7.3 **Pilot study**

A pilot study is a small experiment designed to test logistics and to gather information prior to a larger study, in order to improve the quality of the interview guide and the efficiency of conducting the research (Bryman, 2001; Bryman & Bell, 2003). A pilot study is used to test the accessibility of the respondents and to see whether data collection techniques employed will result in gathering rich data. Through a pilot interview the researcher aimed to determine the participants’ understanding of the interview questions and whether it will be able to collect adequate data relevant to the research problem. Pilot interviews may also give the researcher an indication of whether any changes are required and provide him the opportunity to make relevant changes before the actual study takes place (De Vos *et al*., 2011).

The initial interviews have been scheduled and pre-tested in one pilot interview, representing a sample of the study. The researcher made use of two participants who adhered to the inclusion criteria to conduct a pilot interview. This was done to ensure that the questions asked were understood by the participant to make sure that the techniques planned to use for data gathering would result in rich data gathered during interviews. This was followed up by a discussion with the study leader, who indicated that the method of data collection and the questions asked would indeed assist the researcher to attain the research goal.

3.7.4 **Data Analysis**

Qualitative data analysis is a process that includes coding and analysing the data after it has been collected. It can also be referred to as the categorisation, ordering and summarising of data to obtain answers to research questions (Babbie 2004; De Vos *et al*., 2011). The data analysis starts during data collection when the researcher makes notes, such as jotting down commonalities between participant responses (Sarantakos, 2005). It moves deeper and deeper into understanding the data and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of data.
Within the identified themes, sub-themes have been developed and related to the participants’ hard data, which are direct quotes from the participants. Through comparative analysis, the participants' findings have been compared and contrasted, linking them to the respective literature (Creswell, 2009).

The researcher have used the eight stages of data collecting as indicated in Creswell (2009) when doing data analysis. These stages are as follow:

Step 1: Firstly, in preparation for the analysis, the researcher had organised and prepared data through transcribing interviews, keeping account of field notes and arranging the data into different types, depending on the different types of questions. Having done the transcription process, the researcher has read through all data to obtain a general sense of the information to enable him to reflect on its overall meaning (Creswell, 2009). The researcher firstly transcribed all the interviews thoroughly and read through all the transcripts a number of times alongside the field notes in order to familiarise and immerse himself in the data. Immersion is a process of becoming thoroughly familiar with the topic which involves careful reflection and interpretation on an intuitive level as opposed to using analytical techniques (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Kelly, 2005).

Step 2: Secondly, starting with the shortest and most interesting transcript, the researcher had examined it, reflecting on its underlying meaning and making notes on any rising thoughts, views or opinions (Creswell, 2009).

Step 3: Having done this process on most of the informants’ data, the researcher made a lists of all the noted topics and clustered together similar topics in the third stage.

Step 4: Moving onto the fourth stage, Creswell (2009) points out that this is the beginning of a detailed analysis with a coding process. According to Rossman & Rails, (1998) coding is a process of organising the materials into "chunks" before bringing meaning to them.
In relation to the drawn-up list on noted topics in the informants’ data, the researcher has abbreviate the topics and develop codes on the appropriate ones and hereby noted relevant segments in the participants’ information.

Step 5: In the fifth stage, Creswell (2009) advises the researcher to develop descriptive wording for the already noted topics in the third stage. The researcher founded descriptive wordings for these topics and turned them into categories. These categories have been reduced considerably by grouping related topics together.

Step 6: In the sixth stage, the researcher made a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and then categorised these codes, for example data reflecting the personal risk factors which were coded PRF and data reflecting family risk factors were coded FRF.

Step 7: The seventh stage enabled the researcher to assemble data material belonging to each category in one place and to perform a preliminary analysis (Creswell, 2009), putting data into themes and sub-themes. This categorisation of data into themes and sub-themes allowed the researcher to initiate discussions and debates comparing and contrasting findings to the existing literature.

Step 8: The final stage entailed the recording of existing data to obtain consistency in the meaning attached to the participants’ collected data.

Data verification and trustworthiness were important aspects the researcher took note of, this were done to ensure the validity of this study. The researcher considered all these aspects and will discuss it in the next section.

3.7.5 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness refers to the mechanisms used during the process of research to incrementally contribute to ensuring reliability and validity of the collected data (De Vos et
al., 2011). It is also a process where data is checked for accuracy and inconsistencies. Qualitative data is verified through trustworthiness on the basis of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability as the main criteria in upholding the legitimacy and neutrality of a study’s findings (Neumann, 2006).

Credibility seeks to answer the question of how compatible the findings are with reality (Babbie, 2004). Krefting (1991) cites Sandelowski who suggests that when human experiences are described and interpreted in such a way that others who share the experiences may immediately identify with the descriptions, a qualitative study is credible. Truth value may be determined using the strategy of credibility, which can be established by, for example, prolonged and varied field experience, triangulation, reflexivity, peer examination, interview technique and establishing the authority of the researcher (Krefting, 1991).

As suggested by Lincoln and Guba (as cited in Krefting, 1991), a field journal had been kept in which the researcher has written down his thoughts, experiences, decisions, frustrations and methodology to help identify any bias or preconceived ideas. Triangulation, a method of comparing data gained from various sources such as from semi-structured interviews, observations and field notes have been used. This was done by comparing all transcripts of interviews, as well as the field notes that have been made. (Knafl & Breitmayer as cited in Krefting 1991). These methods were of importance as the researcher followed social constructivism as paradigm. Constructivism proposes that there are multiple perspectives of people rather than one truth. Triangulation ensure that the researcher portrays all the various perspectives of the participants rather than one single truth (Patton, 2002).

The researcher has also drawn on the knowledge of colleagues, like other social workers and probation officers with experience in the research topic (peer examination). This was done through consultations focusing mainly on their experience in the field of juvenile delinquency.
The interview process itself has enhanced credibility by verifying participants' interpretations and portrayals of their experiences. Inconsistencies or divergent data have been described and interpreted to enhance structural coherence and to contribute to describing a range of experiences (Krefting, 1991). Finally, Miles & Huberman (as cited in Krefting, 1991) states that the authority of the researcher as instrument should also be included as a means of establishing credibility. The researcher is a social worker who works in the field of child and family care with a specific interest in delinquent adolescents.

Transferability is of essence so that other researchers can apply the findings of the study to their own (Babbie, 2004). It is the extent to which knowledge generated can be generalised to similar contexts, from a general naturalistic perspective. Generated knowledge cannot be transferred beyond its context (D’Cruz & Jones, 2004). To prove that the data gathered was transferable to similar contexts, the researcher have provided a thorough description of the research methodology implemented to ensure that research data and findings could be applicable to other contexts. The purposive sampling technique also contributed to the transferability of the data.

Dependability relates to stability after taking into account contextual differences (D’Cruz & Jones, 2004). To ensure dependability the researcher had used the same interview schedule, research approach and methodology when working with different participants. As the problem formulation remained similar, the researcher has employed the same methods so that the data gathered might correlate. The researcher also made use of an independent coder to enhance dependability.

Conformability is the ability of the researcher to use reflexivity in identifying own personal and social positioning and power issues in research (D’Cruz & Jones, 2004). The researcher ensured that the data collected was confirmable by taking into account the ethical considerations. Even though it is impossible to totally remove oneself from the research as
the researcher and yet be objective, the researcher had consulted the participants regarding the information they gave to ensure whether the inferences, deductions and conclusions drawn in the data analysis and coding of data had their intended meanings as the researcher had interpreted them.

Reflexivity is of importance for the researcher in qualitative research but even more for a researcher working from the constructivist paradigm because the researcher has to understand how his own experiences and background, especially as a social worker in this instance, affected how he understood juvenile delinquency in the specific context of the ZFM region (Patton, 2005).

Patton (2005) suggests certain reflexive questions, which the researcher should ask. Reflexivity should be done on culture (in this instance also the juvenile delinquency culture), age, gender, class, social status, education, family, politics, language and values. The researcher should ask the following questions about himself: What do I know? How do I know what I know? What shapes and has shaped my perspective? With what voice do I share my perspective? What do I do with what I have found? There should also be questions, which the researcher need to answer on the participants, which include: How do they know what they know? What shapes and has shaped their worldview? How do they perceive me? Why? How do I know? How do I perceive them? The audience or those who receive the study should also be included in reflexivity and the researcher should ask: How do they make sense of what I’ve give them? What perspectives do they bring to the findings I offer? How do they perceive me? How do I perceive them?

As stated the researcher used reflexivity throughout the whole research process and had a reflective journal where he has written it or has talked to his supervisor when necessary.
3.8 CONCLUSION

While the previous chapter focussed on current literature on juvenile delinquency as a point of departure for this study, chapter three provided a detailed account of the research methodology and the implementation thereof. The research approach and the research design were effectively discussed in order to provide detailed information on the data analysis process.
CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Data collection is a process that entails the inspecting, cleaning, transformation and modelling of the collected data in order to highlight useful information (Schandt in De Vos et al., 2011). By drawing on the information gathered through semi-structured interviews with parents of juvenile delinquents and their respective probation officers, the researcher is now able to paint a holistic picture of a combination of risk and protective factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM Region, Northern Cape, South-Africa.

The researcher used thematic analysis that provided the opportunity to code and categorise the data into themes and categories for example, family dynamics and the profile of the juvenile delinquent. The process has included coding, categorisation and noting patterns, for example, different level of themes were provided (Braun & Clarke, 2006), a relationship between the variables and factors were also provided in order to create a reasonable and logical chain of evidence (Creswell, 2009; Braun & Clarke 2006; Miles & Huberman 1994).

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

As indicated in Chapter 1, section 1.7.4 and chapter 3, section 3.7.1, two groups of participants took part in the research study. The first group consisted of probation officers, employed by the Department of Social Development, in the Northern Cape, South Africa. These probation officers specifically render probation services in the ZFM-region in the Northern Cape and are representative of all towns in the ZFM-district. The second group consisted of parents, of juvenile delinquents who committed a crime in the past year and assessed by these probation officers.
An outline of the demographic details of only group two, the parents of the juvenile delinquents, are presented in table 4.1 and figures 4.1-4.3, as it is of more importance to the study and its findings. These demographic details include a variety of aspects, which some of, are the age and gender of the participant; his or her level of education; the socio-economic status of the participant as well as the marital status.

The table below provides a summary of the demographic details of the parents of the juvenile delinquents who took part in the study:

**TABLE 4.1: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS OF PARENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANT</th>
<th>AGE GENDER</th>
<th>EDUCATION LEVEL</th>
<th>ECONOMIC AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS</th>
<th>MARITAL STATUS</th>
<th>SUBSTANCE USE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>50 YEARS FEMALE</td>
<td>GRADE 7</td>
<td>PERMANENTLY EMPLOYED HOUSEHOLD INCOME R3000 PER MONTH</td>
<td>DIVORCED</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>41 YEARS FEMALE</td>
<td>GRADE 9</td>
<td>PERMANENTLY EMPLOYED HOUSEHOLD INCOME R4500 PLUS PER MONTH</td>
<td>DIVORCED</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3</td>
<td>50 YEARS FEMALE</td>
<td>GRADE 1</td>
<td>DISABLED UNEMPLOYED HOUSEHOLD INCOME R1700 PER MONTH</td>
<td>SINGLE</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4</td>
<td>40 YEARS MALE</td>
<td>GRADE 3</td>
<td>TEMPORALLY EMPLOYED R2900 PER MONTH</td>
<td>MARRIED</td>
<td>ALCOHOL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2.1 Age, Gender and Marital status

Seventy-five percent of the parents that participated were women and twenty-five percent were men. Fifty percent of the participants were fifty years and the other fifty percent were in younger than fifty years old. An outstanding character here is that an overwhelming percentage of the parents who participated were women who are also single parents (either divorced or never married). The information on the gender and marital status is illustrated in the figure 4.1 and 4.2.
4.2.2 Level of Education
All of the parents who participated in the study never completed high school. Seventy-five percent of them left school as early as the primary school stage. The first participant has grade nine, second grade seven, the third participant has only grade one and that is the participant, which is disabled and participant four has grade three. The data illustrated in Figure 4.3 is of importance to note in the study.

FIGURE 4.3: EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF PARENTS

Research have shown that parents who have a good standard of education encourage their children to further their school development while such parents tend to keep closely monitoring their children’s school development and achievements and expect their children to be productive in the work carried out at school (Cohen 1955; Eckert 1989). Consequently, the opposite can also be true, that is that parents with a low educational level may not be as involved as should in their children education. Myers, Milne Bakers & Ginsburg, (1987) further argue that parents with a low educational level may feel uncomfortable in interacting with teachers and school officials while expectations and aspirations for the future career of their children is very limited.
4.2.3 Socio-economic status

Most of the participants received an income that is less than R3000 per month, with only one of them receiving an income of between R4000 – R5000 per month. These incomes included salaries and government grants. The socio economic status of these families could have contributed to the delinquent behaviour of these children, as research have shown that youth offenders who come from poor and middle class families, are more likely to participate in delinquent behaviour (Geldenhuys, 2007). Agnew’s (2001) Strain Theory, further suggest that being in an environment of poverty increases the prevalence of negative emotions such as anger and frustration. Thus, the economic position of families therefore indirectly influences the likelihood of becoming involved in crime. The Strain theory explains that crime may reduce the strain or to alleviate negative emotions associated with the family’s economic circumstances.

4.2.4 Marital status

Only one of the parents are married. The other four are single parents of which two are divorced and one never married. Family composition can either be a protective or contributing factor to juvenile delinquent behaviour. Hollin, Browne & Palmer (2002), supported this notion by stating that being poor cannot be seen as the only risk factor for delinquency as large family size, single-parent families and broken homes play a role. This concurs with the Attachment Theory, which states that children might become close to peers in circumstances where appropriate attachment figures such as parents, guardians or family members are absent (Ainsworth, 1979). Martin, Martin, Dell, Davis & Guerrieri (2008) argue that youth offenders are not socialised in the way they are supposed to because they are being raised by single parents, step families or are separated from the biological parents, putting them at risk of becoming delinquent.
4.3. **EMPIRICAL FINDINGS**

This section of the chapter explicates the themes, categories and sub-categories. All of the participants provided the information in Afrikaans, thus, to ensure that findings presented are accurate, Afrikaans quotations were given and then translated to English just below in brackets. An illustration of the themes, sub-themes and categories is indicated Figure 4.4. The researcher did literature control after the findings and used inductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning begins the data from participants or observations and then move to theoretical explanations (De Vos et al., 2011). The researcher has done that as social constructivism emphasizes the personal experiences of people, rather than the theory as real “truth” according to postmodernism (De Vos et al., 2011; See also chapter three, 3.6.2). The researcher referred to literature from previous chapters afterwards where applicable.

4.3.1 **Theme 1: Family relationships and family dynamics**

Probation officers firstly placed strong emphasis on negative factors in the internal family environment that influenced the behaviour of children in conflict with the law. Single parenthood, usually single mothers contributes to the absence of a positive father role model. Participants also referred to the quality of parent-child relationship that leaves the child with lack of emotional bond and security, lack of consistent parental control and guidance from a young age. Living in a single-parent family is a major predictor of delinquency. Home environments have been found to predict early onset and chronic patterns of delinquent or antisocial behavior in children and youth (McEvoy & Welker, 2000).
FIGURE 4.4: THEMES, SUB-THEMES AND CATEGORIES

THEME ONE
FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND DYNAMICS

1.1 Absent fathers and lack of positive role model
1.2 Emotional Insecurity and quality in family relationships
   1.2.1 Lack of parental involvement, continuous communication and parental guidance
   1.2.2 Lack of parental control

THEME TWO
INFLUENCE OF EXTERNAL FAMILY ENVIRONMENT

2.1 Peer influence and dependence override parental guidance
2.2 School influences
2.3 The availability of alcohol, drugs in the community – role models and children involvement
2.4 Lack of supportive resources and recreational activities

THEME THREE
PROFILES OF JUVENILES

THEME FOUR
EFFECT OF INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES
Other factors, such as harsh and ineffective parental discipline, lack of parental involvement, family conflict, child abuse and/or neglect and rejection by parents have also been identified as important factors related to delinquent behavior (Patterson, Forgatch & Stoolmiller, 1998; Walker, Stieber, Ramsey & O’Neill, 1991). Studies have found that children who are exposed to these patterns of coercive interactions at home are likely to repeat them in school, increasing their risk for school failure (Sprague & Walker, 2000; Walker & Sprague, 1999). In conclusion the family’s influence on a child’s or adolescent’s behavior is powerful and can be generational in scope (Allen, Leadbeater & Aber, 1994).

The following sub-themes and quotes emphasize the above statements:

**4.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Absent fathers and lack of positive role model**

Probation Officers all stressed absent fathers and lack of role models as contributing factors to delinquent behaviour amongst children.

Seuns wat betrokke word in misdaad, en veral in hierdie gevalle is daar ‘n afwesige vader of ’n vader wat nie betrokke is in die kind se lewe nie (P2).

“Boys who become involve in crime, specifically in these cases, have an absent father or a father who is not involve in raising the child” (P2).

En elke keer wanneer ek met hom praat, kom net daai uit: ek het ‘n behoefte aan my pa ... (P1).

“Every time I communicated with these boys, the same issue is mentioned, namely: *I am in need of my father’s presence*” (P1).

Tagtig persent van my kinders kom uit enkel ouer gesinne (P2).

“Eighty percent of the children comes from single parent homes” (P2).

Die meeste is dit alkohol of dwelm misbruik wat in die huis self plaasvind, en dit sluit eksterne familie ook in (P3).
“Most of the time alcohol and drug abuse is a dominant factor in these households, including external family” (P3).

Die afwesigheid van ‘n vader speel ‘n belangrike rol of die afwesigheid van altwee ouers waar die kind deur grootouers moet groot gemaak word. Daar is nie ‘n vaste gesin of sekuriteit vir hom by die huis a drink of altwee drink (P4).

“The absence of either the father or both parents lead to the child being raised by the grandparents. All these contribute to the lack of security or a stable family structure for the child” (P4).

In line with this description are some research findings, which has consistently shown that children in single-parent homes are more likely to be delinquent (Mandara & Murray, 2006; Astone & McLanahan, 1994; Downey & Powell, 1993; Wu, 1996). Overall, this means that children have greater opportunities and motivation to participate in delinquent acts than do those living in a two-parent family. Hence, the absence of one parent is a major predictor for juvenile delinquency (Mack, Kristin, Leiber, Featherstone & Monserud, 2007).

Emotional insecurity in family relationship and the lack of positive role model is intrinsically linked. The following excerpts indicate other factors that play a role in family relationships and the emotional security

4.3.1.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Emotional Insecurity in family relationships & quality of family relationships

The views of probation participants indicated that the lack of emotional security in the home and the quality of relationships are interrelated to a number of factors as indicated in the following categories. A study by Dekovic, Janssens & Van As (2003) demonstrated that the quality of parent-adolescent relationships explains adolescent antisocial behaviour. Other
studies have also showed that a lack of emotional ties between parents and adolescents contributes to involvement in maladaptive behaviour (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Hirschi, 1969). Needle, Su, Doherty, Lavee & Brown (1988) consistent with these studies; founded that family instability, deficient family cohesion, and lack of quality relationships between parents and children resulted in adolescent substance abuse and delinquent behaviour.

4.3.1.2.1 Category 1.2.1: Lack of parental involvement, continuous communication & parental guidance

Participants indicated that the absence of and/or lack of positive communication and guidance from parental figures left children with unsatisfied needs of belonging and supportive family relationships. Most of the participants were also notably single mothers. Research have shown that there is evidence that single-parent families, especially single-mothers, expect less of their children, spend less time monitoring them and use less effective techniques to discipline them (Simon, Simons & Wallace; 2004).

"The primary need of the child that comes to the forth is the need of belonging. Parents are absent because they are too busy. Due to alcohol abuse, the children estrange them to find a substitute for a sense of belonging .... Other reasons are mothers that are absent from the home to work on farms. Children are sometimes put in the care of families which make them feel rejected” (P1).

"Hulle kry nie daai belonging gevoel by die huis nie...nou het dit geskuif. En hulle is baie meer vulnerable omdat hulle later begin identifiseer met ’n vriende groep wat ook nie belonging gekry het by die huis nie (P3).

They don’t get that feeling of belonging at home, but with someone else. And they are more vulnerable, because they soon identify with peers, which also don’t experience a sense of belonging at home” (P3).
Baie keer is daar geen kommunikasie in die gesinne nie, elkeen is maar net vir homself en dit bring my maar net weer terug na die ouers se vaardighede, hulle weet nie hoe om ouers te wees nie (P 4).

“In most cases there is no communication between family members. Everyone functions individually and this bring me back to the fact that parents do not have the skills and just do not know how to be proper parents” (P4).

Ons se ouers is nie altyd oop om met ons se kinders te praat nie. En dit maak dat die kinders weg beweeg, want hulle kry nie daai wat hulle by hul ouers eintlik wou gehad het nie.... Die verhouding is soms al heeltemal gebreek. En nou moet ons in kom en probeer om daai verhouding reg te maak. ... As hulle nou sien my kind is verkeerd en ek kan dit nie meer weg steek nie, kry jy dan die ouer wat wys hulle gee om, hulle is daar ... (P1).

“Our parents are not always open to talk with their kids. Resulting to the fact that there is no bond between the parents and their children. Also, children do not get what they seek from their parents... In some instances there is no relationship at all. Now we as the probation officers, have to come in and fix that relationship. When a parent recognises his or her child’s bad behaviour because the wrong deeds cannot be hidden anymore, that parent will show she or he cares and is willing to take responsibility for the child” (P1).

Kinders van die sake wat ek nou het kom uit huise uit waar daar streng christlike waardes gehandhaaf word. Dis kinders se ouers wat baie in die kerk betrokke is en geloof speel vir hulle ’n belangrike rol. Maar soos ek ook al vir hierdie ouers gese het, party keer is dit asof die kerk voorkeur kry in hulle lewe. Hulle is in al die aktiwiteite van die kerk betrokke en so verloor hulle hulle kinders langs die pad. En sonder dat hulle bewus is daarvan dwaal hulle kinders van die pad af (P2).

“Children whose cases I am now dealing with come from homes with strong Christian-values. These parents are fully involved in church practices and their faith is a vital part of life. But, sadly I have to warn these parents that it seems that their church activities are first priority. Because of their involvement, they drift away from their children along the way. And without them knowing it, these children drift away and start losing direction” (P2).
Parents/caregivers responses in general indicate a lack of close family relationships, emotional insecurity, lack of parental involvement, lack of communication and even abuse. The biological mother however thought that there was closeness in her family. Compare the quotes:

Hulle familie was verskriklik deur mekaar, roekeloos en so…verskriklik gedrink. Die ma was baie rof, sy het sommer bottel kop gesteek. Die hele familie het basies drank misbruik. Hulle was ook baie sieklik. Die oudste, sy ma het hom sommer aangerand…daai kind se kop is vol houe soos die ma vir hom gekap het met die bottel kop. Daar was geen bydra van hulle pa nie, hy was glad nie betrokke nie, die ma het toe later, toe hulle al by my bly, ‘n ander man gaan vat en nog ‘n kind gekry (Pleegmoeder).

“They family were very disorientated, reckless, and abused alcohol. The mother was very aggressive, she often stabbed people with a bottle neck. The whole family, in fact, abused alcohol. The eldest was assaulted by his mother. He has scars all over his head due to his mother’s assault. There was no support from the father’s side, he was not involved in their life. At a later stage, while they were staying with me, the mother started a sexual relationship with another man and a child was born” (Foster care mother).

By my was dit nou eerstens die egskeiding van ek en sy pa. en dan is dit seker ook omdat ek ‘n enkel ouer is sal hy sê as ek nie geskei het nie sou hy nie so swaar gekry het nie: Ons kom goed oor die weg. Hy is eintlik ‘n “mommy’s baby”kan jy maar sê. Saans as ek my was dan kom sit hy by my en dan vra hy wantoe gaan ma en wanneer kom ma terug…Ons (gesin) hou van saam sing, en ons juig saam. En dan sal ons soos Sondae saam sit en eet. Ons is redelik na aan mekaar en praat met mekaar oor alles (Biologiese moeder).

In my case it was the divorce between me and his father at first. Secondly, I am a single parent now and he would usually say that if I did not divorce his father we would have suffered so much. We have a good relationship. He is actually a ‘mommy’s baby’ one could say” (Biological mother).

Studies have confirmed that children of divorced parents exhibit more behavioural problems than children from intact families (Wood, Repetti & Roesch, 2004).
Ek is die Ouma...die ma is mos oorlede daar was mos nie ‘n pa gewees nie...ons het hom maar so groot gemaak (Ouma).

“I am the grandmother...the mother has passed away, there was no father. We have raised him like this” (grandmother).

Elkeen doen maar meeste van die tyd sy ding...maar daar is nie baie stry of baklei nie...hulle (kinders) is op die straat... sy (ma) is sieklik...sy kan nie veel vir haar self doen nie (Biologiese vader).

“Everyone do his own thing most of the time...we don’t argue or fight a lot...they (the children) are on the street...his mother is ill...and unable to care for herself” (Biological father)

According to Hirschi (1969), attachment to parents along with parental involvement serve as protective factors in juvenile delinquency (Patchin, 2006). Hirschi (1969) calls this attachment “virtual supervision,” in that children avoid delinquent behaviours when they strongly attached to their parents, even if their parents are not immediately supervising them.

4.3.1.2.2 Category 1.2.2: Lack of parental control

Probation officers perceived lack of emotional security and the inability of parental figures to install and maintain structure and discipline as interconnected. This is in line with the findings of Chao (2001) who emphasized that a close parent-adolescent relationship explains the beneficial effects of authoritative control. In addition, probation officers indicated that parents are too accommodating, too strict and/or inconstant in discipline and it seems as if children are controlling the parent/carer. Parents/caregivers also strongly emphasise their inability to control the children but blaming the children’s disobedience. This is clear from the following quotations from interviews from probation officers:
Die ouer het ook geen of min beheer oor hul kinders, en die kinders raak by vriende betrokke wie se ouers wel drink. Ma en pa laat toe dat almal net maak wat hulle wil in hierdie huis, maar by ons se huis is ma te streng want ma drink (P1).

“The parent has limited, or no control over their children, and the children get involve with friends whose parents are also abusing alcohol. The mother and father in the last mentioned household, let their children do as they please, but in our home there are strict rules and regulations” (P1).

Grootouers is meeste van die tyd nie streng nie, want dit is hul klein kinders, so hulle laat baie dinge toe … Ouers is ook meeste tyd bewus van hierdie probleem gedrag maar hulle het net nooit hulp gaan soek nie, totdat die kind nou ‘n misdryf pleeg (P 2).

“Grandparents are usually not so strict, because it is their grandchildren, and therefore allow many things… Parents are usually aware of their children’s problem behaviour but never seek assistance, until the stage that the child gets involve in crime” (P2).

Die ouers se gesag word net aanvaar nie. En dit sê vir my dat die ouer tree nie altyd met gesag op nie…of konsekwent op nie. Want die kind sal byvoorbeeld net besluit ek gaan nie skool toe nie en die ouers los dit maar … (P3).

“The parents have no authority at all. This tells me that the parents do not always act authoritative or consistently. The child would just decide that I am not going to school and the parents would accept it” (P3).

…Die kinders gee van kleins af probleme…en hulle is maar net outjiëes wat nie onder gesag staan…hulle is aggressief of kom ons sê hulle rebelleer. En dan sit jy met die ouer wat of nie belangstel nie of nie die vaardighede het om die kind te beheer nie (P4).

“The children display behaviour problems since a young age…and they are children that just don’t accept any authority…and are aggressive or let me rather say they are rebellious. Then you have the parent that either does not care or does not have the skills to control the child” (P4).

Dit lyk dit ook nie hulle kan dissipline toe pas in die huis nie. Want hulle gee te veel aandag hierdie kant, aan die kerk. En vanaand as sy nou kom van die bid uur afwil sy nie nog kom sukkel met ‘n kind wat vir haar probleme gee nie. Nou terwille van jou vrede binne in jou, nou los jy maar en jy laat gaan alles…Ouers kan vrees het om dalk te streng te wees en op so manier ons kinders na die verkeerde goed dryf…Ouers is soms bang wanneer kinders so begin op tree en gee in tot hierdie versoek van die kind (P1).
“It also seems that parents cannot discipline their children at home, because they give too much attention to church activities. When arriving from church, she or he does not want to fight with the child because of any behavioural problems. For the sake of peace, they choose to let go and do not address the issues at hand. Parents may be afraid to be too strict, thus leaving their children to do as their please…Parents are sometimes afraid when children start making demands, and give in to these demands” (P1).

Die reëls wat daar is word gemaak en gebreek deur almal en die ouers tree nie konsekwent op nie. ...autokratiese ouerskap styl tot ‘n traak my nie agtig ouerskap styl... So met die gevolg weet die kinders nie meer hoe om op te tree nie en die onaanvaarbare raak die aanvaarbare en so... die ouers vat die verantwoordlikhede uit die kinders se hande uit, hulle word nie take gegee nie (P2).

“The rules that have been laid are being disregarded by everyone, and parents don’t act consistently against those breaking these rules.... Autocratic parenting styles change to don’t care parenting-style. Resulting in children that are confused and no longer know what are acceptable or not” (P2).

Hulle gaan werk toe, kom huis toe maak vuur om kos gaar te maak, dis maar hulle program. Die vriende wat hulle het is maar drinkers vriende. So hulle skakel nie in nie, hulle leef maar in hul eie wereld...en hmm... self binne die gesin elkeen doen maar sy eie ding, daar bestaan nie iets soos gesins tyd waar ons saam eet, of net gesels man...so ja...dis maar hoe meeste lyk (P3).

“They go to work, come home and make a fire to cook some food, that is mainly they program. The friends they have are also abusers. They do not engage with the community, they usually live in they own world...and even within the family each one of them do their own thing, there is no such thing as family-time where they eat together, or just chat with each other...so that is how most of them function (P3).

Parents experienced powerlessness to control and guide:

Die kind het my later laat voel asof ons iewers ‘n mis-kommuniekasie het met mekaar ek het gevoel ek is nie meer die kind se ouer nie. En hmm... ons het gepraat en praat en vir hom in programme probeer sit. Maar hy het nog elke keer dieselfde dinge gedoen...oor en oor het hy dit gedoen. Hy het nie geluister nie en hmm... ek kon toe later ook nie meer nie want hmm... wat moet ek nou doen as ouer. En die ander feit van die saak is dit was nou nie my eie kind gewees nie, dit was my pleegkind wat ek in pleegsorg geneem het...Hulle het al daai tyd probleme gegee want ‘n een vrou het vir my gesê sy soek hulle nie naby haar nie want hulle vloek te lelik en hulle is ombeskof en so...so niemand wou hulle gehad het nie (Pleegmoeder).
“The child made me feel that somewhere we have a communication gap with each other, I felt that I am no longer the parent of my child. And... we talked and talked and I made him participated in programmes. But he did the same thing ... over and over again. He did not listen and ... and I could not take it any more...what should I do as parent? And the other fact of the matter is, it was not my child, it was a foster child whom I had in foster care. They have been displaying behaviour problems long before they were with me. One lady told me she does not want these children near hers because they swear too much and are very disrespectful, so nobody wanted them” (Foster mother).

Hy is mos meeste maar by sy vrinne... en dan kom hy mos maar die tyd wat hy voel om in te kom in die huis... en ek is oud mnr... ek kan nie meer agter hom hardloop nie (Ouma).

“He is with his friends most of the time...and then he decides which time he wants to come home... and I am old sir ... I can no longer run after him” (Grandmother).

Hy is stout en hy luister nie...hy maak net soos hy wil wanneer hy wil... en dan is dit daai maatjies van hom...hulle is dag en nag bymekaar...ons kry hom nie daar uit nie (Biologiese vader).

“His naughty and does not listen. He does as he pleases...and those friends of his...they are together day and night. We can’t get him to separate with them” (Biological father).

A biological mother acknowledged lack of discipline and control but for reasons, what she thought, was for his own good. She also blames the school and social worker for not acting preventatively. She also defended his behaviour as seen in the following excerpt:

Kyk as ek streng gewees het dan was hy seker nie op straat nie, maar ek wil nie so wees nie, ek wil hê hy moet vir homself kan dink, hy moet nie so wees nie ...toe hulle (Skool) uitvind hy het ’n drug probleem toe begin hulle met snaakse maniere. maar ek het na die Hoof toe gegaan en gaan praat- Maar jy kry maar net van daai onderwyser wat so is as hulle weet die kind gebruik drugs of so. Ek het al vir ons maatskaplike werker gevra om hom weg te stuur, nog niks het gebeur nie. Hy was al in Kimberley vir gang rape, hy en twee maatjies het ’n meisie bevoel...toe is hy maar nege jaar. Hy was vir twee weke in Kimberley, en dit was vir onnodig, want daai kind het niks oor gekom nie (Biologiese moeder).
Look, if I were strict, he probably would not have been on the street, but I don’t want to be like that, I want him to be able to think for himself, he must not be like that…when it came under the school’s attentions that he had a drug problem, they (the school) started to act funny with him… but I went to the principle and talked to him. Nevertheless, some teachers are just like that when they know the child uses drugs. I have requested our social worker to send him for rehabilitation, but nothing happened up until now. He was also in Kimberley for a gang rape case, he and two of his friends have sexually assaulted a girl… he was nine years old. He was in Kimberley for two weeks, and it was unnecessarily, because nothing really happened to that girl (Biological mother).

The lack of control and setting of clear boundaries for behaviour that enforce structure and discipline within the household are an important protective factor regarding delinquent behaviour amongst children (Hanson & Carta, 1995). The absence of these can clearly motivate or lead to delinquent behaviour amongst children. Apart from the family is the external family environment, which plays an important role in assessing the contributing factors regarding juvenile delinquency. Following are a discussion, based on the views of both parents and probation participants the influence of the external family environment.

4.3.2 Theme 2: Influence of the external family environment

The external family environment encompasses peers, school and the community, which have an influence on juvenile delinquency.

4.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Peer influence and dependence override parental guidance

Probation officers indicated that due to lack of parental control, children dropped out of school and got involved with friends controlled by the group and its leaders.

Daar is die leier in die groep wat vir almal wil sê … en dat die ander kind is nou die een wat stil is…en is bietjie bang…want hy moet nou hier luister, want hier het iemand nou met gesag gepraat. En nou sien hulle op meer na die leier… verstaan… as wat hy na sy ouer sou op gesien (P1).
“There are usually this one leader in the group that wants to control everyone...and there is the child that is quiet...and a little bit scared... because he must now listen, because someone have talked with authority. And now they see their leader as a role model, and not their parents. (P1).

Die ouer het ook maar geen of min beheer oor hul kinders, en die kinders raak by vriende betrokke wie se ouers wel drink. Na drie maande voel hy dat hy sy straf uit gedien het, dan gaan hulle weer terug na hulle se maatjies (P2).

“The parent has limited or no control over their children, and the children get involved with friends who have parents who abuse alcohol. After three months he feels that he has served his sentence, and then they go back to their old friends” (P2).

Hy begin identifiseer met ‘n vriende groep wat ook nie belonging gekry het by die huis nie (P3).

“He starts to identify with a group of friends who also experience no sense of belonging at home” (P3).

Hulle assosieer met verkeerde vriende en daar kom groepsdruk weer in (P4).

“They associate themselves with the wrong friends and there is peer pressure” (P4).

Parents/caregivers emphasized on the role of the influence of friends when getting involved in crime:

Hy was baie beinvloedbaar. Hy het gemaak soos die maatjies vir hom sê en ‘n ding gaan doen. So as Piet, Paul of Klaas vir hom sê kom ons gaan doen die ding, dan gaan doen hulle dit (Pleegmoeder).

“He could be easily influenced. He did the things that friends asked him to do. Anyone could have asked him to go and do something wrong with him or her, and he would go and do it” (Foster care mother).

En sy maatjies wat hy mee beweeg gaan ook nie skool nie, en hulle drugs almal... (Biologiese moeder).

“His friends with whom he associates are also school drop-outs, and all of them use drugs ...” (Biological mother).
Hy is mos meeste maar by sy vrinne...

en dan kom hy mos maar die tyd wat hy voel om in te kom in die huis (Ouma).

“He is with is friends most of the time...and comes home at a time he sees fit to come” (Grandmother).

Daai maatjies van hom is baie gruwelik...Hulle breek winkels en rook dagga...hulle is stout (biological father).

“His friends are very naughty...They break into shops and smoke marijuana. They are really naughty” (biological father).

Literature supported the above views, which demonstrates that inadequate or neglectful supervision contributes to association with deviant peers (Ingram, Patchin, Huebner, McClunsky & Bynum, 2006; Warr, 2002, 2005).

4.3.2.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Schooling influences

Probation officers and parents agree on the role of poor school performance and adaptation at school as indicated in the following quotations:

Hulle sukkel verskriklik op skool... Hulle is “drop-outs” (P3).

“They struggle a lot at school...They are “drop-outs” (P3).

Die kind wat nie skool gaan nie, dus waar ons die meeste probleme het. Want dit is hulle wat elke dag hier buite kant is wat misdaad beplan...Van laerskool af was daar dan al problem geidentifiseer, maar dit is asof die ouers hulle net nie gesteur het daardie tyd aan die probleem toe hy geidentifiseer was by die skool nie (P1).

“The child who doesn’t attend school, gives us the most problems. They are guys who have the time to plan their criminal activities.... They usually have displayed behavioural problems since primary school, and it seems that parents have never took note of the problem while it was identified at school” (P1)
By skole kry jy die ding van kinders wat rook op skool, skool bank en dan is dit maar groepsdruk, veral by die skool. En die onderwysers raak ook soms moeilik met die kinders want hulle word seker maar ook moeg of weet nie hoe om hierdie probleme te hanteer nie. Want wat ons baie keer kry dan sê die kind vir jou hy is geskors...permanent...en dan weet die ouer nie...so daar is nie prosesse gevolg nie (P3).

“At schools you will find children who smoke on the school premises, leave school premises without permission, and then there is a lot of peer pressure, especially at school. Teachers sometimes become impatient with the learners, as they may not know how to handle these problems. Sometimes children tell us that they have been discharged from school...permanently...and the parent was never informed...so the right processes are not followed” (P3).

School level risk factors, which contribute to juvenile delinquency, include exclusionary discipline practices such as suspension (Christle, Jolivette & Nelson, 2005).

Parents/ caregivers were all opinionated about problems at school:

...op skool...daar is nie genoeg ondersteuning vir hulle in die stelsel nie en hulle word “drop-outs” (Biologiese moeder).

“At school, there is not much support for them in the system and they become drop-outs” (Biological mother).

Hy het nou begin maak soos hy wil...want hy is so by die skool... hy loop buite die klas rond...hy’s nooit in die klas nie (Pleegmoeder).

“He started now to do as he pleases...because this is how he behaves at school...he just walks out of classes without permission...and is never in class” (Foster care mother).

The biological mother indicated that the child has a lot of potential and at some time he did well, but then afterwards indicated the contrary about school attendance:

Hy loop skool soos hy wil. Hy loop mos nou heel nag rond, en slaap mos maar elke derde nag of dag, en dan kan hy nie sy oë oop hou nie (Biologiese moeder).

“He goes to school whenever he wants. He is on the street the whole night...and only sleeps every second or third night that is when he gets too tired (Biological mother)
“Very bad sir…. As he is becoming a young man, he only listens to his friends and do as they say….sometimes he passes and sometimes not…that is how it is” (Grandmother).

We send him to school sir, but instead, he goes with his friends to the bush, and in the afternoon when the children come from school, he comes home … he struggled a bit at school and it started at the time he began to associate with those friends of his, that’s when he started to perform poor at school” (Biological father).

The above views of parents indicated that their children’s association with deviant peers have led to them under performing or temporally expelled at school, which then in return resulted that they permanently dropped out of school. According to literature peer pressure can be a significant factor in the school dropout situation because it has been established that most learners’ dropout of school because their peers have suggested this (Dizon-Luna, 2013; Janosz, Blanc, Boulerice & Tremblay, 1997). Deviant peers cluster together and encourage one another to support the idea of dropping out of school (Beauvais, Chavez, Oetting, Deffenbacher & Cornell, 1996). Literature in chapter 2, section 2.5.4, reveals that academic failure or grade detention, is especially a strong predictor of delinquency at the level of the individual learner, and early school dropout (Browning & Huizinga, 1999).

4.3.2.3 Sub-theme 2.3: The availability of alcohol, drugs in the community – role models and children’s involvement.

The availability of alcohol and other drugs in the community are contributing factors to delinquent behaviour amongst children by both parents and probation officers who
participated in the study. Previous research has already found that the availability of drugs and weapons and exposure to violence and other crimes in the neighbourhood also contribute to criminal outcomes for young residents (Mrug & Loosier, 2008; Barrett, 2007; Van Horn, Hawkins, Arthur & Catalano, 2007). Bandura.s (1977) social learning theory further lays emphasis on the importance of observing and modelling behaviours, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. According to the social learning theory, most human behaviours are learned, through observation and modelling. By observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action.

"Sometimes there are a role model in the community, but a negative one, someone who is not a good example for the child, but the child takes him as a role model" (P2).

"The biggest problem is alcohol and drugs, that is the problem in most of my cases, then there is also coping mechanism. I think the children struggle to cope with their circumstances, resulting that they go and seek refuge in alcohol and drugs. This leads to crime, and that is the big factor" (P3).

"It is usually alcohol abuse and children who becomes drop-outs at an early stage. There are many parents who are negligent and who do not set an example for their
children by being drunk on the street. It seems like a type of sick community, and how do you expect a healthy individual to grow from a sick community?” (P1)

My area wat ek bedien is daar regtig gemeenskappe waar byvoorbeeld misdaad baie voorkom. En die kinders word bloot gestel hieraan want misdaad is in sommige plek ‘n norm (P 2)

“Crime rates are very high in the communities where I deliver services. Children are exposed to this, as it becomes a norm in some communities” (P2)

Die seun het altyd vir my gesê as ek hom vra hoekom, dan sê hy ek het dit gaan doen omdat ek tik (Pleegmoeder).

“When I asked the boy why he did it, he always told me he will do it because he uses tik” (Foster care mother).

“My kinders wat nog in die huis is drink ook...maar dis mos daarom naweke (Ouma).

“My children that are still staying with me also use alcohol, but just over weekends” (Grandmother).

Hy raak gou kwaad, maar hy word gou ook vrede. En hy het daai wat hy soms ‘n mens verskree, maar dis mos maar nou as gevolg van die drugs. Hy tik en dan is dit mos nou nog die pille ook (Biologiese moeder).

“He gets angry quickly, but does not stay angry for a long period. And he likes to yell at us, but it’s because of the drugs. He uses methamphetamine and pills (mandrax)” (Biological mother).

Die mense drink mnr. En dan is dit nou nog die probleem van die tik wat ook nou kop uit steek. (Biologiese vader).

“The people abuse alcohol sir, and then there is the problem of “tik” (methamphetamine) which are becoming a big problem” (Biological father).
Further supporting these views are an inquiry by Yabiku, Kulis, Marsiglia, Lewin, Nieri & Hussaini (2007) which suggested that substance abuse becomes a validated behaviour and emerges as a viable option or coping mechanism for hunger, crime, violence, family issues, health issues, and substandard living conditions in socially disorganized communities where adolescents observe adults misusing drugs and alcohol. Similar to life skills intervention, mentoring considers parenting and, more specifically, the lack of positive role models to play an important role in child offending. Parents are the most profound influence in the socialisation of children (Beam, Chen & Greenberger (2002).

4.3.2.4 Sub-theme 2.4: Lack of supportive resources and recreational activities

Probation officers indicated that the community lacks supportive resources and recreational facilities that can provide positive leisure activities.

"There is a lack of resources...like schools for children with special needs or children with behavioural problems" (P2).

"There are not many resources like recreational facilities for the youth or programs that can keep them busy. Alcohol and drugs are a norm in our communities" (P4).

"Daar is ‘n gebrek aan hulpbronne ...dinge soos die gebrek aan ‘n nywerheids skool of plek waarheen ons kinders met gedrags probleme kan neem (P2).

"Daar is nie veel hulpbronne nie, byvoorbeeld, ontspannings-geriewe of programme wat jongmense besig hou of bou. En alkohol en dwelms is maar ‘n norm in ons gemeenskappe (P 4)."

"Daar is nie eens speelparke of plekke waar hulle ontspan nie. So dit is nou net hierdie spaza shops waarna toe hulle gaan om games te speel en dis daar waar die probleme begin, want daar maak hulle nou plannetjies en in meeste gevalle is dit ook hierdie winkels wat in gebreek word (P2)."
“There are not even playgrounds where the children can go play. Leaving us only the spaza shops where they go to play games, and it’s at these shops the problems starts (P3).

Daar is ook nie gesonde ontspannings geriewe vir ons se kinders en...en dit het nogal ook ‘n impak...want kinders gaan sit op winkels se stoepes of op straat hoekes en...dis maar waar die goed begin. Kom ek sê ook vir jou hier is ‘n groot probleem met kinders op die straat, en dit maak ook die kind meer geneig tot misdaad, baie van my gevalle in die laaste jaar of twee is juus van hierdie kinders wat so op die straat dwaal (P3).

“There are no safe recreational facilities for our children...and it has an impact...because children while away, on the doorsteps of shops or on street corners...this is where it starts. We have a big problem with children on the street, and it makes the child more vulnerable to become involve in crime...because most of my cases in the last year or two were children who were on the street” (P3).

The above views correlates with literature which argues that an important factor appearing to have a great influence on antisocial and delinquent behaviour in the communities are community disadvantages/lack of resources (DeCoster, Heimer & Wittrock, 2006; Ingoldsby & Shaw, 2002; Lynam, Caspi, Moffitt, Wilkström, Loeber & Novack, 2000). Both the parents and probation participants indicated that the community in which youth and young adults live have an influence on their criminal behaviour (Loeber & Farrington, 2000; Osgood & Chambers, 2000; van der Merwe & Dawes, 2007). In particular, neighbourhood disadvantage (commonly referred to as community disadvantages). For example, DeCoster and colleagues (2006) reported that living in disadvantaged communities resulted in an increased likelihood of youth violence from grades seven through to twelve.
4.3.2.5 Sub-theme 2.5: Economic conditions

Most parents struggling for survival seemed to contribute to the specific children’s involvement in crime as indicated in the quotes either by their absence at home or by lack of willingness to be involved in control of children. There are parents who do not have financial problems and who give too much pocket money and too little attention to children:

Hierdie ouers is seisoen werkers, so hulle verdien maar min en is meestal afhanklik van staats toelaes... seisoenale werk, wat maar is vanaf September to Desember of Januarie. So daar is baie armoede, en ek dink die feit dat meeste ouers of ongeskoold of swak geskoold is dra ook by hier toe (P2).

“Most parents have seasonal jobs, and do not earn much and are therefore mostly dependant on social grants...Seasonal work starts only from September to December or January. Resulting in high poverty level, and I also think that the fact that most parents are not educated or have a low level of education contribute to this problem” (P2).

Werkloosheid is ‘n groot probleem...daar is gesinne waar byvoorbeeld die ouers heetemal afhanklik is van staatstoelaes gedurende sekere tye van die jaar want hulle is seisoen werkers (P4).

“Unemployment remains a big problem...for example; in certain families the parents are totally dependent on social grants for a certain period of the year because they are seasonal workers” (P4).

Daar is ook die kinders wat uit die so genaamde elite gesinne kom waar die ouers goeie salarisse verdien. En hierdie ouers gee weer baie sakgeld maar min tyd aan kinders (P 2).

“There are also those children who comes from the so called elite families, where parents receive good salaries. These parents give they children a lot of pocket money, while there is a lack of spending time together” (P2).

... ek dink hulle oorlewings stryd is maar van so aard dat hulle net die kans om nog oor sulke dinge te worry nie. Hulle moet elke dag sorg dat hulle na die boere se lande toe gaan vir ’n stukkie brood elke dag...so daar is nie tyd om aan hierdie probleem regtig aandag te gegee nie... werkloosheid...meeste ouers is afhanklik van seisoen werk, so armoede is maar hoog (P3).
“I think their struggle to survive are of such a nature that they cannot afford to worry about these problems. They focus are on getting to the farm for work to be able to earn money for bread every day...so there is not really time to focus on these problems...unemployment...most parents are depending on seasonal work, which is the cause of a lot of poverty” (P3).

Only the grandmother participant referred to economic conditions:

Meestal maar my pensioen wat vir ons moet dra...en as my kinders mos werk help hulle ook darem... meeste werk mos maar op die boere se plase...wanneer daar ook werk is (Ouma).

“We are mostly dependent on my pension. When my children have an income, they also assist me...most of them work on the farms...during seasonal time when there is work” (grandmother).

Youths residing in poverty are more likely to socialize with older peers for risk engagement activities, resulting in excessive levels of arrest (Bingenheimer, Brennan & Earls, 2005)

4.3.3 Theme 3: Profile of juveniles

Probation officer participants noted that the children’s characteristics and unattended early behavioural problems contribute to their involvement in crime.

Daar is twee tipe kinders. Jy kry die groepie wat maklik kan praat en ook manupileer. Die tweede groepie is die stil kinders, wat nie maklik kan praat of hulle self uitdruk nie, en hulle is ook die kinders wat onder groeps druk staan...kinders wat nie maklik hulle self kan uit druk of hulle gevoelens deel nie, so hulle is ook soms moeilik om te verstaan...hulle tree baie impulsief op. Met die gevolg dat hulle nie die implikasies van die misdaad self besef nie. Ek het byvoorbeeld nou al ’n geval gehad waar kinders by misdaad betrokke geraak het maar hulle het nie besef dit was ’n misdaad nie (P2).

“There are two types of children. The first group can talk and manipulate while the second group don’t talk or cannot express themselves. The second group are also...
those who are affected by peer pressure...children who cannot express themselves easily, are not easily understood by others...they also act very impulsively. Thus, not always realizing the implications of their actions. For example, I recently had a case where children were involved in crime but never realized that it was a crime” (P2).

Dis kinders wat gou kwaad raak. Hulle...hulle het vlambare tempramente...Daar is kinders wat al in pleegsorg geplaas is weens die ouers se nalatigheid of drank misbruik... baie is gevalle wat aangemeld is maar daar was net nie behoortlik op gevolg nie of aandag gegee nie. So... die kind gee nou al probleme op nege jaar... nou het daar niks gebeur nie, of die ouers meld dit nie aan nie (P3).

"Mostly, children who get angry easily...have very short tempers...Then there are children who were placed in foster care due to neglect or alcohol abuse by the parents...most of them were reported to a social worker at a previous stage, but did not receive much attention. Sometimes the child has been giving problems since nine years, but it was never given attention to or the parent never reported the case " (P3).

Hulle sukkel verskriklik op skool...die ander ding is emosionele volwassenheid en besluitnemings vaardighede. Hulle assosieer met verkeerde vriende en daar kom groepsdruk weer (P4).

“They struggle a lot at school, the other problem is emotional maturity and decision making skills. They associate with the wrong friends which lead to peer pressure” (P4).

Hulle is swak geskoold. Hulle is “drop-outs” ...die meeste is ook kinders tussen 10-18 jaar so hulle is adolessente (P3).

“They are poor educated or drop-outs. Most of them are between the ages of 10-18 years, so they are adolescents.” (P3).

Several individual-specific characteristics are associated with delinquency. Tremblay and LeMarquand (2001) state that aggression before the age of thirteen is the best social behaviour characteristic to predict delinquent behaviour. In addition, research suggested that there is a positive relationship between hyperactivity, concentration or attention problems, impulsivity and risk taking and later violent behaviour (Hawkins, 1998).
Parents/ caregivers mentioned the lack of communication, withdrawal and stubbornness of children:

*Hy was stil, hy praat nie veel nie. En dan kan ‘n mens nie dink hoekom sal so kind nou gaan inbreek en steel van ander mense nie. En praat jy met hom, smile hy net, hy is nou nie ‘n aggresiewe mense nie… dis hoe hy is* (Pleegmoeder).

*“He doesn’t talk much. And one cannot imagine this type of child going out to steal from other people. And if you talk to him, he just smiles, he is not very aggressive, that’s how he is”* (Foster care mother).

*Hy het ‘n baie oop persoonlikheid, en is baie lieflik. … Hy raak gou kwaad, maar hy word gou ook vrede. En hy het daai wat hy soms ‘n mens verskree, maar dis mos maar nou as gevolg van die drugs… Hy is eintlik ‘n “mommy’s baby” kan jy maar sê* (Biologiese moeder).

*“He has a very open personality, and is a lovely person. He gets angry quickly, but it only last for a short period of time. He also likes to yell at us, but it is because of the drugs … He is actually a mommy’s baby”* (Biological mother).

*Hy praat mos nie mnr. En hy is baie hard gebak, hy luister nie. Hy is nie ‘n kind wat hoor nie… hy luister niemand nie…hy wil nie skool toe nie en weet mnr. So baie mense het al met hom gepraat…by die skool en van my kerk mense…maar hy hoor nie…* (Ouma).

*“He does not talk much, sir. And he is very stubborn, he doesn’t listen to me, or anyone else. He do not go to school, and a lot of people have tried to talk to him, at school and church, without any success”* (Grandmother).

*Hy is maar ‘n man wat nie veel praat nie…as hy wil ‘n ding doen of sê dan doen hy dit…eintlik is hy maar baie hardkoppig…by die huis weet jy nie regtig van hom nie…want hy bly op die straat. (Biologiese vader).*

*“This boy does not talk much, if he wants to do or say something, he just does it. He is actually very stubborn. He does not interact with us at home, he is mostly on the street.”* (Biological father).

Literature indicates that communication is a significant facet of parent adolescent attachment. For example, if parent adolescent communication is negative, children are likely to encounter
greater difficulties when growing up. It is through the process of communication that a child develops his or her patterns of cognition, knowledge, and attitude towards the external world. It has been assumed that a child learns to regulate his or her emotions through specific cognitions, which in turn are developed as a result of healthy parent child interactions (Garnefski, Rieffe, Jellesma, Terwogt & Kraaij, 2007). Studies on parent adolescent communication reported that parental communication has a strong relationship to the well-being of the adolescent (Greenberg, Siegel, & Leitch, 1983), and the lack of closeness with parents (Kandel & Davies, 1982; Parker, Tuplin & Brown, 1979) or a lower level of parental influence (Chrispin, 1998) correlates with a higher degree of behavioural problems in adolescents.

4.3.4 Theme 4: Effect of intervention programmes

Probation officers were not optimistic about the effect of intervention programmes unless all parties involved are committed to the process. The lack of parental involvement in the programmes, as well as good cooperation between different role players in the intervention programme are limitations of the program.

"Parents must be involved in the programs, the children and the community needs to be involved in the programs. If the child does not get the support from his parents, the program cannot be a success. For example, the home base care program, where children are placed at home through a court order. Some of the requirements here is that children should spend a certain amount of time with the family, but it does not happen. So the program can serve it purpose."
These programs are a partnership between the child, the parents, the social worker, and other role players. And if one of these partners don’t give his cooperation, the program cannot be a success” (P2).

Mmari, Blum, Teufel-Shone, (2010) found that community members characterized parent involvement, particularly parent-child communication and support, as the most important positive influence on youth delinquency outcomes. Other studies have found that parental neglect and parental absence contributed negatively to youth delinquency (Morris, Wood, & Dunaway 2007).

Die polisie, ek wil nou nie sleg praat nie. Maar wanneer ‘n kind in misdaad betrokke raak moet die kind binne ‘n sekere tydperk voor die probation officer gebring word vir assessering, maar daar gaan soms maande verby voordat daai kind voor die probation officer gebring word vir assessering. Soms gaan daar maande verby voordat die voorlopige ondersoek gedoen word. So met ander woorde terwyl hierdie kind nog nie voor die hof gebring was nie of geassesseer was nie het die kind in tussen alweer by misdaad betrokke geword. Hulle se optrede maak dat… ek weet nie...hmm... ek weet nie hoe om dit nou regtig te stel nie (P3).

“The Police, I don’t want to badmouth anyone. A child must be brought before a probation officer with in a certain period after being arrested, but sometimes months go by before the child are brought before a probation officer for assessment. And sometimes months go by before an investigation are under taken. So in other words, while the child is awaiting trial, or assessment, the child commits another crimes. Their conduct leads to…I don’t know how to put it” (P3).

A probation officer must see every arrested child within 48 hours after the arrest in order to ensure the best interest of the child according to the Program Outcome Standards developed by the Department of Social Development of South Africa (South Africa, Department of Social Development; Muntingh & Ehlers, 2006). Not acting in accordance with these service standards does not only have a negative impact on the outcome of services delivered, but increases the chances for reoffending.
Na drie maande voel hy dat hy sy straf uit gedien het, dan gaan hulle weer terug na hulle se maatjies. Maar jy sien wat gebeur neh, daar word met die ouers gepraat en gesê moenie toelaat dat die kind weer in sy ou vriende-kringe betrokke word nie, maar dit gebeur nie, daarin is toeg sig nie. Ek het regtig nie 'n probleem met die hof self nie, soos ek gesê het dis net soms die polisie wat prosesse vertraag en dit veroorsaak nogals problem (P2).

“After three months he feels that he has served his sentence, and then goes back to his old friends. But what is happening is that, parents are requested to talk to their children and motivate them not to go back to these old friends, but it does not happen, there is no supervision. I don’t have any problem with the court, as I have said, it’s just sometimes the police who delays processes and this creates problems” (P2).

Ek kan nie vir jou sê hoeveel programme ons het met die kinders, terapeutiese kampe… ons het verskillende programme. Dit lyk asof dit nie ingaan nie. En ek dink nou maar dis al die dwelm gebruik, want dit het mos ook maar ‘n effek… en hy sê vir my as ons maatjies bymekaar is dan lag ons vir julle. Maar hulle kom na die programme toe en neem deel, hulle geniet dit…regtig. Hulle sal ook sê ons weet ons moet programme bywoon want dan gaan ons ligter strawwe kry. Maar die impak…en die probleem is mos nou hulle gaan terug huis toe…hmm… en daar is nie ‘n opvolg nie (P3).

“I cannot tell you how much programs we have with these children, therapeutic camps, we have a lot of programs. It just seems that these programs do not have an impact. And I think it maybe the drug abuse, because it does have an impact. Sometimes they tell me that when they are together as friends, they laugh at us. They will also tell you that they know that they have to attend programs otherwise they will get heavier sentences. But the impact of these programs...and the problem is they go home after the program, and there is no follow-up at home” (P3).

Waarmee ek ‘n probleem het is die samewerking tussen verskillende programme in die department self, byvoorbeeld baie van ons se kinders is reeds met die stelsel bekend. Jy sal kry hulle het alreeds probleem gedrag gegee voorheen en die maatskaplike werker het hulle gesien. Maar dis hier waar die ding in kom, elkeen doen net wat van hom verwag word, niemand wil holisties saam werk nie, byvoorbeeld die generic maatskaplike werker, die probation officer en die ontwikkelings beampte, elkeen doen net sy stukkie. (P4).

“What I have a problem with is the cooperation between different programs within the department, for example, most of the children are already, at an earlier stage, a client of the department. They have already displayed behavioural problems at an earlier stage and made contact with a social worker. And it’s here where the problem is,
everyone just do what is expected from him, no one are willing to work together holistically. For example, the generic social worker... probation officer and development officer focus only on what is expected from them” (P4).

Daar is groot gevalle ladings... en daar is net nie genoeg hulpbronne nie soos...plekke waarheen ons hierdie kinders kan verwys waar hierdie gedrag kan beheer word (P4).

“There are big caseloads, and there are not enough resources like institutions where these children could be referred to which are equipped to control these kind of behaviour” (P4).

Parents that commented seemed not to be involved in the rehabilitation programmes and the biological mother thought that there should be more programmes:

Hulle doen ook nie veel nie. … Hulle bied net programme aan. Dis nie vir my genoeg nie (Biologiese moeder).

“They don’t do much. They just focus on programs. It is not enough for me” (Biological mother).

Maatskaplike werker het mos darem ook gekom, saam met ons gesels en met hom...maar ek kan nie kla van hulle nie mnr...Dis mos maar nou net ek kan nie altyd by die vergaderings uit kom wantoe hulle vra nie want daar is mos nie altyd vervoer nie en ek voel ook nie elke dag gesond nie (Ouma).

“The social worker came to us and talked to us and to him. I cannot complain about them, sir. It’s just that I cannot always go to meetings where they request my presence, because I don’t always have transport and I am also not healthy” (Grandmother).

Referring to the feedback from his child on the effect of the intervention programmes, a father comments:

Saans as ek by die huis kom dan is hy op straat...so jy kry nie kans om met hom te praat nie (Biologiese vader).

“When I arrive at home at night, he is still on the street, so there is no time to talk to him.” (Biological father).
Research on the effectiveness of child diversion programs as well as which programs work best for particular profiles of child offenders, especially in a South African context, are limited (Steyn, 2010). Interesting findings of an evaluation study of the success of diversion programs by Mutingh (2001) were that:

- A great number of juvenile offenders took part in diversion programs because of a court order binding them to, and out of fear for imprisonment
- A lot of the juvenile offenders’ regard diversion programs as a second chance whereby they can avoid formal sentence and a criminal record

4.4 CONCLUSION:
Comments by probation officer participants indicated the interplay between familial and community factors, with strong emphasis on the role of family guidance and control, and the involvement in drugs and alcohol by juvenile offenders. Parents/caregivers confirmed lack of control and placed emphasis on the role of peer dependence and the involvement in alcohol and drugs.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the researcher discusses the goal and objectives, give a conclusion of the chapters and the findings, as well as recommendations to the Department of Social Development, Policy developers and future research.

The researcher has started the research by a research question: What are the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa? The research goal derives from the research question. The goal of this study was to determine the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa. The objectives to attain the goal were to:

- Explore the psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Describe the psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa;
- Make recommendations for interventions through probation services by probation officers and the Department of Social Development in the Northern Cape, South Africa.

These objectives of the study were accomplished. The first objective, which is the exploration of the psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency, was achieved during the research process as described in chapter three of this document. The second goal, which encompasses the description of these psychosocial factors, was the focus of chapter
four of this document. This chapter includes the empirical findings, which comprises of four themes, eight sub-themes and two categories, where the perceptions and experiences of the participants were explicated by quotations. This is very important when the social paradigm of the research, social constructivism, is considered because language, the individual experiences and the context are of importance. The last objective, which were to give recommendations to the probation officers of the Department of Social Development, is discussed in this chapter.

5.2 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This section of the chapter focuses on a summary and conclusions on the different chapters and empirical findings.

5.2.1 Chapter One

Chapter one focuses on an introduction and orientation to the study. The phenomenon juvenile delinquency was briefly discussed, as well as the psychosocial paradigm and relevant theories as orientation to the study.

This chapter included a background of the study, the research problem, goal, objectives and a summary of the research methodology. The qualitative research approach was considered an appropriate approach to address the research problem and adequately work towards the research goal and objectives. Chapter one includes an orientation to the reader on the research methodology, which was followed during the implementation of the study. Purposive sampling, individual semi-structured interviews as means of data collection and thematic analysis as a method of data analysis, as well as strategies to ensure trustworthiness and the ethical considerations of the study were also included in chapter one.
In conclusion, the researcher deduced that the chapter was a good introduction to the reader as orientation to juvenile delinquency, the goal and objectives, as well as the qualitative research approach. The social constructivist paradigm is relevant to this research as the researcher wanted to explore and describe juvenile delinquency from the perspectives of the probation officers and parents in the context of the ZFM region. Purposive sampling of participants who can give their personal experiences in the context of juvenile delinquency was successfully implemented when social constructivism is considered.

5.2.2 Chapter 2

Chapter two was a review of literature relevant to the research topic. The researcher however worked inductive and has done this chapter after the findings were done in order to conform to the social constructivist paradigm. The researcher discussed different theories concerning the causation of juvenile delinquency, which mainly consisted of risk and protective factors. These factors included individual, familial, school and community factors. An overview of the approaches to diversion programs were also discussed. The researcher concluded that the literature reviewed in this chapter compliment and has provided depth to the findings and literature in chapter four.

5.2.3 Chapter 3

Chapter three provided an in-depth account of the research methodology that was implemented during the study. The chapter included the research problem, goal and research objectives as points of reference for the research methodology. The study’s population was all the parents of juvenile delinquents convicted of a crime in the past year, as well as all...
probation officers from the Department of Social Development, ZFM Region, in the Northern Cape. The parents of juveniles and probation officers who took part in the study were recruited by means of purposive sampling. Data collection was done using face-to-face semi-structured interviews with the aid of an interview guide. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed into themes, sub-themes and categories. Trustworthiness was ensured by using credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability and reflexivity. In conclusion, this chapter provided a detailed account of the research methodology and the implementation thereof. The research approach and the research design and methodology were effectively used to provide detailed information, which could be utilised in the data analysis process.

5.2.4 Chapter 4

Chapter four comprised the research findings. The biographical profile of the parents of the juvenile delinquents, generated from the interviews, were presented. The themes, sub-themes and categories with the focus on the quotations as voices of the participants, as influenced by their personal context, were explicated, compared and contrasted with existing literature. Reference was made to the previous literature in the document where similarities were found. Four themes, eight sub-themes and two categories were generated from the data obtained, this information was discussed in detail in chapter four. The researcher discusses the summary and conclusions on the findings in the following section as these represent the essence of the voices of the participants.
5.2.5 Summary and conclusions on the empirical findings of the research

The summary and conclusions on the findings of the research are presented under each theme of the study.

5.2.5.1 Theme 1: Family relationships and family dynamics

The family composition and family dynamics of juvenile delinquents were identified as key risk or protective factors, especially by probation officers. Households with single parents were emphasized as a strong risk factor by both parents of juvenile delinquents and probation officers. Absent fathers and the lack of positive role models contributed to the risk for delinquent behaviour in children. The quality of parent-child relationships, as well as the emotional insecurity amongst family members were strongly emphasized by probation officers as contributing risk factors in juvenile delinquency. Probation officers linked the lack of emotional security to the inability of parents to maintain discipline in their respective families. According to the experience of probation officers, parents are either too strict, too accommodating, or inconsistent in disciplining their children.

Most parents also indicated a general lack of close family relationships, emotional insecurity, lack of parental involvement, the lack of communication and in some cases even child abuse as contributing factors to juvenile delinquency in their contexts. Parents acknowledges that they have an inability to control their children.

5.2.5.2 Theme 2: Influence of the external family environment

The influence of the external family environment was emphasized as either a strong protective or risk factor concerning juvenile delinquency. Probation officers indicated that peer influences and dependence supersedes the guidance of parents. Both parents and
Probation officers indicated that the issue of peer pressure are a strong predictor for juvenile delinquency. Some parents mentioned that their children’s association with deviant peers have led to their children’s underperformance at school and in some cases the children was even expelled from school. One of the parents defended the child’s behaviour and blamed the school and social workers for not acting preventatively. Both parents and probation officers identified the availability of alcohol and other drugs as a negative contributing factor for juvenile delinquency. The lack of resources such as recreational activities or facilities and permanent job opportunities for parents in the ZFM region were emphasized. Probation officers mentioned that there is a lack of resources, which can be used by them in intervention with these children such as schools for children with behavioural problems, which in turn may have a negative impact on the effectiveness of intervention services.

5.2.5.3 Theme 3: Profile of juveniles

Probation officers indicated several individual characteristics of juvenile delinquents, as well as some unattended behavioural issues in their past, which may have contributed to the delinquent behaviour. Juvenile delinquents were mostly described as children who cannot express themselves easily, who are easily affected by peer pressure and who acts very impulsively. Other important characters identified by both probation officers and parents are that these children mostly struggle to perform at school, are school “drop outs” and have poor decision making skills.

5.2.5.4 Theme 4: Effect of intervention programmes

Active parental involvement in diversion officers were emphasized by most probation officers. They indicated that the lack of parental involvement has a negative impact on the effectiveness of diversion programmes. Reasons from parents why they are not involved
include for example the availability of time due to other responsibilities. Another important factor that was emphasized were the period that lapsed between the time of the offence and when the child are assessed by a probation officer. Probation officers complained that too much time lapsed before the child are assessed and brought before a court of law. This creates the opportunity for reoffending.

It seems that there is not enough research on the effectiveness of child diversion programs, especially in a South-African context. Probation officers also questioned the reasons why children attend diversion programmes, as these might not be the right reasons.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher focuses on recommendations for the Department of Social Development in the Northern Cape, as indicated in objective four. However, recommendations concerning policy and research are included in the following discussion.

5.3.1 Recommendations for the Department of Social Development

The researcher deems it necessary to make specific recommendations to the Department of Social Development, especially in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape as the research was context based due to the social constructivist paradigm and the researcher has identified the problem specifically for the region. The recommendations include:

- Development of programs to assist single parents, specifically single mothers with juvenile delinquents as part of the diversion process. These programs should take into consideration the specific dynamics of the region in which they are presented.
Development of a mentoring program for juvenile delinquents, especially boys without fathers, to create a space where they can receive positive guidance and support in a non-discriminative environment.

The appointment and active involvement of youth workers in the region as preventative measure but also to contribute to better services to the juvenile delinquents.

Evaluation of healthy recreational facilities and programs for children and youth. This can be done in with the Department of Local Government.

Assess the availability of other supportive resources for example a school for children with special educational needs and industrial schools in order to extend the resources base of probation officers and generic social workers in services to the juvenile delinquents and their parents.

Create a platform for consultation between all stakeholders in the diversion process, in order to evaluate the process and address issues of concern to all parties.

Multi-disciplinary teams involved in services to juvenile delinquents should be formed with designated people for example in the police, teachers, youth officers, probation officers and social workers. These teams should meet on a regular basis and plan not only for services to juvenile delinquents and their families but also do preventative work.
More intensive programs to combat alcohol and drug abuse, with special focus on the availability of alcohol and drugs to minors. Community workers should be appointed in the area to do community development and prevention.

The implementation of parental and family preservation programs as part of the diversion process by the case managers/probation officers, with specific focus on the parent-child relationship.

5.3.2 Recommendations for policy

Policies should be developed to ensure that both parents of juvenile delinquents, charged with committing a crime, actively participate in the diversion process through parental programs and family preservation programs. This should be done by a court order.

Changing of policy with regards to the admission requirements for rehabilitation for juvenile delinquents who have criminal cases against them, in order to give them access to these service while on probation or while having criminal cases against them.

5.3.3 Recommendations for future research on juvenile delinquency

It is clear that this research was only focused on a small group within the ZFM region in the Northern Cape but that more research is necessary when considering the magnitude of the phenomenon juvenile delinquency and the psycho-social factors contributing or complicating the phenomenon. The researcher therefore recommends that:
More qualitative studies, on a larger scale that include juvenile delinquents should be done in various contexts and regions as these will produce more inclusive insightful results in order to understand and provide efficient services to juvenile delinquents.

More qualitative studies can also be done with parents and probations officers or youth workers in various contexts and regions for better comprehension of juvenile delinquency and risk or protective factors, which can be included in services and/or policy.

Comparative studies between different communities or areas in South Africa should be conducted in order to accommodate the unique social and economic conditions of different areas.

The researcher also recommends quantitative studies on this subject to generate more statistical data and more generalised findings. These studies can be done with all the professionals working with juvenile delinquents for example, teachers, social workers, youth workers, police officials and correctional services. The parents and juvenile delinquents can also be included.

Participatory action research is proposed in the communities in order to address issues for example recreation, unemployment, substance abuse and crime in the specific areas. This can be implemented in community projects to enhance the services in the area.

Program evaluation can be done with existing programmes in order to establish the problems and success in implementation of these programmes.
5.4 CONCLUSION

Through a qualitative research approach, the researcher were able to answer the research question and therefore reached the goal of the research. The findings of the study proved that the juvenile delinquency and issues related to it, are complex and inter-related. It also indicated that juvenile delinquency should be looked at in the context where it appears, as the social and economic conditions differ from community to community and that these factors are important risk or protective factors. A broader vision all too often is conceptualised within simplistic interpretations, and creates the opportunity to miss smaller, but important aspects.

Based on the research findings, a number of recommendations were made to the Department of Social Development in the Northern-Cape, as well as to policy makers and future research. Finally, the researcher hopes that through this study, he could make a positive contribution to the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency, especially in the ZFM-region, Northern-Cape and that the study can positively contribute to the practice task of both probation officers and generic social workers in general.
REFFERENCE LIST


[2013, June, 20]


**PERSONAL COMMUNICATIONS:**

Bezuidenhoudt, K.M. 2014 Probation Officer: Department of Social Development, Keimoes. Interview on 20 October 2014 about local statistics and crime prevalence’s with regards to juvenile crime tendencies and rates.


**LEGISLATION AND POLICY:**


Annexure A: Information sheet

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-959, Fax: 27 21-959
E-mail:

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa

What is this study about?
This is a research project being conducted by Mr. Nataniel van Staden at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you work directly with juvenile delinquents or are a parent/caregiver of a juvenile delinquent in the ZFM area. The purpose of this research project is to seek more knowledge on the psycho-social contributing factors of the phenomena the ZFM district, Northern Cape, South Africa.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?
You will be asked to participate in this research project through interviews where question will be asked, in your view, of what the causes of juvenile delinquency may be. Interviews will be conducted by the researcher, Mr. van Staden. All questions will only seek to understand the causes of the phenomena and will be asked in such a way that the participant may give his/her view regarding the contributing factors of juvenile delinquency. All interviews will be one-on-one, and will be, with the approval of the participants, recorded. Participants may be requested for more than one interview.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?
The researchers undertake to protect your identity and the nature of your contribution. To ensure your anonymity, all surveys are anonymous and will not contain information that may personally identify you and the following procedures will be followed: (1) your name will not be included on the surveys and other collected data; (2) a code will be placed on the survey and other collected data; (3) through the use of an identification key, the researcher will be able to link your survey to your identity; and (4) only the researcher will have access to the identification key.
To ensure your confidentiality, all data collected, including, notes, recordings will be kept in a locked filling cabinet, using identification codes only on data forms, and using password-protected computer files.

If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.
[If there is a possibility that you will collect information on child abuse or neglect, abuse or neglect of disabled or other vulnerable adults that may need to be disclosed to comply with legal requirements or professional standards, the possibility of such disclosure must be included in the consent form. See the following example, and modify it to include all applicable types of information.]

Please note that, in accordance with legal requirements and/or professional standards, we 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. In this event, we will inform you that we have to break confidentiality to fulfil our legal responsibility to report to the designated authorities.

What are the risks of this research?
There may be some risks from participating in this research study. These risk are mainly of a psychological and emotional nature as all human interactions and talking about self or others carry some amount of risks. We will nevertheless minimise such risks and act promptly to assist you if you experience any discomfort, psychological or otherwise during the process of your participation in this study. Where necessary, an appropriate referral will be made to a suitable professional for further assistance or intervention.

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 the dynamics of the psycho-social factors contributing to juvenile delinquency and may, in the future, assist other professionals such as Probation officers and social workers in dealing better with this social problem of juvenile delinquency.

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 Mr. Nataniel van Staden of the Social work department at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Mr. van Staden at: Main street, 161, Keimoes, or on the following numbers: 054 461 2693/ 0747341614. 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:
Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: Prof José Frantz
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17
Bellville 7535
chs-deansoffice@uwc.ac.za

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape’s Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.
CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: Psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM region in the Northern Cape, South Africa

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant's name…………………………
Participant's signature…………………………
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 co-ordinator:

Dr N Henderson (Supervisor)
Social Work Department
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag x17
Bellville
7535
Telephone: (021) 959 2843
Cell: 0725397433
Fax: (021) 959 2845
Email: nhenderson@uwc.ac.za
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Question: What do you think/ perceive are the factors that contribute to Juvenile Delinquency in the ZFM region?

Themes to probe

1. Family factors
   - Relationships
   - Family composition
   - Norms and values
   - Parental Styles
   - Single Parents
   - Relationships family/parents with community
   - Employment
   - Involvement at home
   - Substance abuse

2. Community
   - Exposure to violence
   - Gangs
   - Culture
   - Resources/economic conditions
   - Substance abuse
   - School environment
   - Other social support systems

What do you think are the Personal/individual factors that contribute to Juvenile delinquency?

Themes to probe

   Individual characteristics
   - Problem Behaviour
   - Personal Skills: decision-making, communication, etc.
Personal trauma/stress: depression, death, other losses etc.
School attendance
Relationships of parents

**What are your view on the role of government in terms of Juvenile Delinquency?**

**Themes to Probe**

The Juvenile Justice System & its effectiveness concerning reoffending
Probation services & its effectiveness with