

**A Quantitative Analysis of Juvenile
Delinquency Trends among school going
adolescents in a select sample of Secondary
Schools in Chatsworth, Durban**

by

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Declaration

I declare that the thesis titled “*A Quantitative Analysis of Juvenile Delinquency Trends among school going adolescents in a select sample of Secondary Schools in Chatsworth, Durban*”, is my own work both in conception and in execution. All the sources that I have made use of or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

B. A Marimuthu

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I wish to express my sincere gratitude to those key people who were instrumental in making this study possible:

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this Dissertation to my beloved baby sister *Skylar Arabella*, as a young child growing up in Chatsworth and soon to be a young adolescent.

“Love the Journey and the World will be your Playground”

Abstract:

This quantitative study explores juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in a select sample of schools. The study conducted in Chatsworth, Durban (Kwa Zulu-Natal) was developed as an exclusively Indian Township in the 1960's but since the 1990s more and more Africans moved into the area. Nonetheless Chatsworth remains predominantly 'Indian' in terms of its demography and character. Permission and ethical approval for this study were obtained from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal- Howard College Campus. The study consisted of a sample of 750 respondents randomly selected from two secondary schools in Chatsworth. A non-probability sampling method was followed. The main aim of this exploratory study was to understand trends in juvenile delinquency among adolescents in the area of Chatsworth through a quantitative lens. The study was carried out through coded self-administered questionnaires, administered to Grade 8,9,10, and 11 learners with the assistance of the educators at the identified schools during the Life-Orientation class periods. This study revealed that there were significant correlations between gender (male and female) and modes of punishment; norm violations; regulation violations; and malicious damage to property, followed by age (13-18 years) and modes of punishment; norm violations, and regulation violations, race (African, Indian, Coloured, White, Other) and modes of punishment; norm violations and regulation violations, and lastly religion (Christian, Hindu, Islam and Nazareth) and modes of punishment; regulation violations and malicious damage to property. The findings in this study forms a critical empirical study for future research in the field of juvenile delinquency/offending.

Okucashuniwe (Isizulu)

Lolu locwaningo luveza kabanzi ngezinhlobo enzidumile ezingezinhle ezenziwa izingane ngesikhathi zisesigabeni esithile sokukhula ezisahamba isikole, leziwe ngesibalo esikhethekile. Lolucwaningo lwenziwe endaweni yaseChatsworth eThekwini KwaZulu Natal eyaqalwa abomdabu waseNdiya ngezikhathi zawo-1960 kodwa kusuka ngabo-1990 iningi labantu abamnyama nalo laqala langena kulendawo . kepha iChatsworth yaqhubeka yabuswa abomdabu waseNdiya ngokwezibalo zabant . Imvumo nelungelo lokwenza lolucwaningo yatholakala eNyuvesi yakwaZulu Natal esikhungweni saseHoward College ngaphansi kwe(Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee) .lolucwaningo luphethe isisalo sabangama-750 abaphendule ngokungakhethekile kwizikole ezimbili zamabanga aphakeme endaweni yase Chatsworth, ukuthathwa kwalezi zibalo kwenziwe ngaphandle kokulandela indlela ethile. Inhloso yalolu cwaningo kwakuwukuqonda izinhobo ezidumile zokuganga phakathi kwezingane esigabeni esithile sokukhula endaweni yaseChatsworth.

Ucwaningo lwaqhubeka ngokuthi ababekulo baziphendulele uhlu lwemibuzo. abafundi bamabanga 8,9,10 kanye 11 bona basizwa ngothisha babo ezikoleni ngesikhathi sesifundo iLife Orientation. Lolucwaningo luveza indlela ethile ngokuhambisana phakathi ubulili(owesilisa noma owesifazane), iminyaka(13-18), uhlanga(lwabamnyama , lwabaseNdiya, lwabebala kanye nolwabamhlophe) kanye neNkolo (eyabachristu, eyamaHindu, eyeIslam kanye neyamaNazarertha) uma kuza kwindlela yokupanisha, ukuphula imithetho , ukuphula izilandelo ukulimazwa kempahla kabi.Izimpendulo zalolu cwaningo zenza ubufakazi obuphathekayo obuyosiza kolunye ucwaningo lwaloluhlobo ngokuzayo olobe luphathelele nokuganga kwezingane esigabeni esithize sokukhula.

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Chapter One:

Orientation to the Research

1.1.Introduction

Juvenile delinquency has been and still is a social problem across many countries, it is a problem that affects and shakes the very fabric of society (Siegel, Welsh & Senna 2003:9). Although reliable statistical data for rates of juvenile delinquency in most countries across the globe is a challenge the World Youth Report of 2003, maintains that in almost all parts of the world, except the United States of America, rates of youth crime rose in the 1990s. In Western Europe, one of the few regions for which data are available, arrests of juvenile delinquents and under-age offenders increased by an average of around 50 per cent between the mid-1980s and the late 1990s. Countries in transition have also witnessed a dramatic rise in delinquency rates; since 1995, Juvenile crime levels in many countries in Eastern Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States have increased by more than 30 per cent (World Youth Report, 2003). Bezuidenhout and Tshiwula (2004:6) maintain that in some countries youth offending accounts for 60 to 70 percent of all recorded crimes. Commensurate with the preceding comment Steinberg, (2008) argues that between 60-80 percent of adolescents and pre-adolescents engage in some form of juvenile delinquent acts.

Booyens (2003) agrees that “...*South Africa is experiencing unprecedented levels of children and youths being arrested and convicted of crimes*”.

The unprecedented levels of juvenile delinquency, especially where learners are either victims or perpetrators, have in recent years become a matter of concern for South African

educators, policy makers and civil society at large. Knowing why young people commit crimes is as important as knowing how many youth or adolescents commit crimes. In this regard researchers such as Bartollas, (2000) have identified several important insights into adolescence and problem behaviour. Bartollas contends that high- risk adolescents often experience multiple difficulties. They live in economically stressed families and communities; more often than not they have histories of being victims of physical and sexual abuse, typically have education and vocational deficits, and are prone to becoming involved in alcohol and other drug abuse.

1.2.Rationale for this study

Explanations of juvenile delinquency have been the interest of criminologists throughout history. Criminologists have devoted their attention to basic questions about the nature of youth crime: for example who commits delinquent acts? How much delinquency occurs each year? Is the rate of delinquent activity increasing or decreasing? How should delinquency be defined? (Siegel & Senna 1988:9). Desai (2000) in his research on the community of Chatsworth shows that after the forced relocation of Indian families from Clairwood to Chatsworth many families suffered severe social hardships and marital discord. This resulted in many women opting to be single mothers, consequently being ostracized by the family and the community, rather than put up with the abuse and exploitation of their male partners. Single parent families are common in Chatsworth and adolescents from single-parent families are more to behavioural problems because they are inclined to a lack of economic security and sufficient time with parents (Blanchette & Brown, 2006). Adolescents from single-parent families are more susceptible to acts of juvenile delinquency than adolescents from two-parent families (Anderson & Stavrou, 2001). Juvenile acts such as, using drugs, becoming gang members, being expelled from school and not completing their schooling career, and becoming juvenile murderers. Single parenthood without doubt reduces the quantity of time a child has in communication with someone who is attentive to the child's needs, including the provision of ethical and moral guidance as well as discipline (Wright & Wright, 1994).

Van Zyl; Malan; Marais; Oliver & Riordan (1994) argue that alcohol and drug abuse has escalated to alarming proportions, poverty, broken homes and broken family units, in South

Africa, have escalated to alarming proportions. They further maintain that social relations that guarantee a constant process of socialization are collapsing; standards of living are becoming more diverse and less predictable. The reformation of the labour market, the extension of the maturity gap (the period of dependence of young adults on the family) and, debatably, the more limited prospects to becoming independent adults are all changes influencing relationships with family and friends, educational opportunities and choices, labour market participation, leisure activities and lifestyles. There are also new pressures on young people experiencing the transition from childhood to independence. These pressures include; Rapid population growth, the unavailability of proper housing and support services, poverty, unemployment and underemployment among youth, the decrease in the authority of local communities, overcrowding in poor urban areas, the disintegration of the family, and ineffective educational systems. Youth at the present time, despite gender, social origin or country of residence, are subject to individual risks but are also being offered with new individual opportunities, some valuable and some potentially harmful. According to Huff (1992) the economic and social distress of the youth draws them into gangsterism; to commit various offences such as abusing drugs and alcohol, and the use of violence against their peers.

McLaughlin and Muncie (2005) contend that most historians agree that delinquency was first identified as a major social problem in the early nineteenth century. For them social surveys and empirical investigations permitted a problem to be identified although they presupposed existing conceptions of how youth should behave, what relation should exist between different age groups, and what should be the appropriate role of the family. Similarly in the 21st century juvenile delinquency continues to contribute to social problems internationally. The United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child (UNCROC) chairman Professor Jaap Doek told a conference ,on child justice in Pretoria, there was a real concern in many countries over the "juvenile delinquency phenomenon"(IOL News, 2006). Professor Doek further maintained "Crimes (committed by child offenders) are increasing, becoming more violent and are happening at an earlier age. Even in South Africa (IOL News, 2006) juvenile delinquency is a growing trend, with South Africa ill-equipped to appropriately deal with children who are in trouble with the law.

Writing about the Chatsworth context Newspaper reports (Mail and Guardian, 2006; Chatsworth Tabloid, 2006) have highlighted challenges that adolescents in Chatsworth in Kwa-Zulu Natal are faced with. Kalpesh Ramcharan (Mail and Guardian, 2006) posits that “There are so many young people in Chatsworth who come from dysfunctional families with no proper role-models, no guidance. According to Clark (2008) the ‘youth problem’ is not only due to failed parenting or a subculture of juvenile delinquency against social integration, but a reaction to the structural dislocation and material inequality that has produced long-term precariousness’ further social problem faced by adolescents in Chatsworth is the permeation of “sugars” (See Chapter 2, paragraph 2.9.4). The South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use has confirmed that mandrax as the previously dominant drug of choice in Chatsworth has been rejected and replaced by “sugars” by the next generation of drug abusers (Chatsworth Tabloid, 2006).

A community leader and campaigner, fighting against the various social issues within the Chatsworth community said “residents of Chatsworth are living in fear due to the delinquent behaviour of youth in Chatsworth. Delinquent acts such as absconding from school, engaging in unprotected sex, prostitution, drugs and unsavoury activities pose a huge problem within the community”. Govender believes that “with the help of the municipality and the community, we can take ownership of the situation to combat these illicit activities which are taking place at our doorstep” (Chatsworth Rising Sun, 2012).

According to the South African Police Services Annual Report (2010/2011) crime has increased within the area of Chatsworth. A ‘youth problem’ has been reported ever since the establishment of Chatsworth, there is something distinctive about the contemporary moment, Juvenile delinquency has been of interest to local government, and Non-Governmental Organisations ever since the increase of social challenges affecting the youth of Chatsworth. According to a Chatsworth Live newspaper report (2007) activists involved in the drug war in the south Durban township of Chatsworth say the rise in the abuse of drugs such as rock and sugars has led to an increase in antisocial behaviour among the youth there (Chatsworth Live, 11 September 2007). One such example is the Kwa-Zulu Natal (KZN) flying squad Narcotics task team set up by the KZN Premier’s office in the community of Chatsworth where the researcher resides.

Against this backdrop it became important to the researcher to gain a quantitative understanding of trends in juvenile delinquency among learners in Chatsworth. The most appropriate way of doing so seemed to be through gaining learner accounts of the trends.

Chatsworth is a historically working class township¹ established as a consequence of South Africa's 1950 Group Areas Act². It had few amenities for adolescents' which was fertile ground for breeding social problems such as poverty, crime and HIV/AIDS. Chatsworth was a community of social concern soon after its establishment. As early as 1969 Meer wrote that in Chatsworth there were 'practically' no recreational areas – no club houses, or playgrounds for children...' (Meer, 1969:94 cited in Desai & Vahed, 2013). This meant that children and adolescents did not have organised recreational facilities hence 'promoting' problems such as juvenile delinquency, 'hooliganism' and drug abuse (Rowley, 1980:21).

The Chatsworth Anti-Drug Forum a Non-Governmental offers counselling and medical treatment to drug users and is run by volunteers. They have seen almost 2500 addicts since April last year. The Forum works with a number of rehabilitation centres, as it offers a day clinic only, but has also developed its own model of treatment and rehabilitation, which the Forum hopes can be replicated elsewhere. Talking about the addictive nature of sugars, the co-ordinator of the CADF, Sam Pillay, said that "the relapse rate for addicts who go into rehab is very high because of the nature and prevalence of the drug" (Tribune Herald, 3 June 2007).

1.3.Objectives of the study

- To understand trends of juvenile delinquency among school going adolescents in Chatsworth.
- To identify gendered patterns of juvenile delinquency in the identified sample. .

¹ In South Africa, the term 'township' and location usually refers to the (often underdeveloped) urban living areas that, from the late 19th century until the end of apartheid, were reserved for non-whites (blacks Africans, Coloureds and Indians). Townships were usually built on the periphery of towns and cities (Pettman, C 1913).

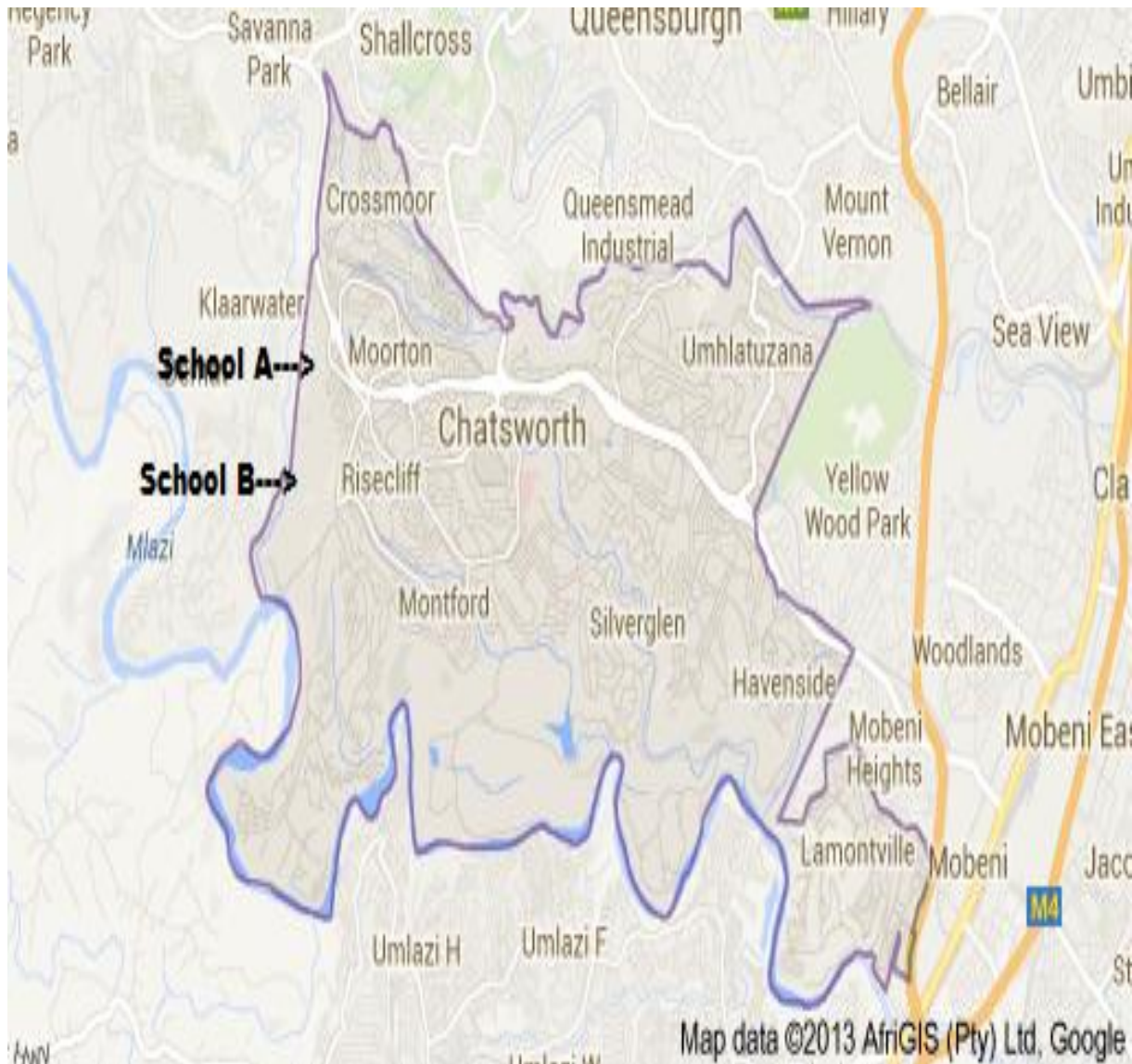
² On the 27 April 1950, the Apartheid government passed the Group Areas Act. This Act enforced the segregation of the different races to specific areas within the urban locale. It also restricted ownership and the occupation of land to a specific statutory group. This meant that Blacks could not own or occupy land in White areas. (Groups Areas Act, Act No 41 of 1950 (online), available at: disa.ukzn.ac.za [Accessed 1 December 2013]).

- To contribute to the existing body of knowledge on juvenile delinquency within Chatsworth.

1.4.Key Questions to be asked

- What are the juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in the Chatsworth community?
- What are the gendered patterns of juvenile delinquency among school going adolescents.

1.5. Demarcation for Study: Chatsworth



This study is located in Chatsworth, Kwa-Zulu Natal (See map above). Chatsworth lies 26 km to the south of Durban and covers 2000 hectares. Chatsworth was established as a result of the Group Areas Act No. 41 which was passed in 1950 in order to implement the policy of racial segregation. This act replaced a large number of Indian and Coloured, neighbourhoods with a smaller number of larger townships. Chatsworth was established to accommodate for the forced removal of masses of Indian people in the lower and middle-income groups living in Durban. Tens of thousands of Indians were forced to give up their lives in the areas they had called home and were packed off to the outer reaches of Durban (Desai, 2000). Up to 1980, 22000 houses had been built in Chatsworth, designed to accommodate 160 000 people (Durban South Central Council Report A, 1999). With the abolishment of The Group Areas

Act in 1991, an increasing number of African and Coloured people moved into Chatsworth. Most of this group of people are concentrated in informal settlements that have mushroomed in vacant and unused spaces in Chatsworth. There has been a mass influx of people into Chatsworth in recent years and this has resulted in Chatsworth having an ethnically diverse population. This has also resulted in severe overcrowding in the area. Chatsworth started off as a low- income area and although people in some areas have become more economically affluent, it remains a working class society with working class ethics. Many of the homeowners have built granny flats on their already small properties and sub-let them to supplement income. This not only reduces living space, but also adds to the overcrowding and social ills in Chatsworth. The unemployment rate in Chatsworth is over 50% and historically a large number of men and women in Chatsworth found work in clothing and textiles industries (Desai, 2000).

1.6. Definitions of significant terms:

1.6.1. Juvenile delinquent

Juvenile stems from the Latin word *juveniles* which mean *young*. Delinquent originates from Latin which means to *fail*. Juvenile delinquency describes a juvenile who has committed a criminal act (Romig, Oeland & Romig 1989:1). The concept denotes a child who has been officially acted upon by courts (Mqadi 1994:22).

1.6.1.1 Criminological definition juvenile delinquency

The criminological definition of juvenile delinquency depends on the interest of the group or the individual dealing with juvenile misconduct at any given time or place. It comprises of cases of children alleged to have committed an offence that if committed by an adult would be a crime (Whitehead & Lab 1990:5). In South Africa such definitions rely on the juvenile justice system to determine which action is viewed delinquent. Cronje, Van der Walt, Retief and Naude (1982:30-31) view juvenile delinquency as an anti-social act by a non-adult not necessarily forbidden by law but not beneficial to the general welfare of the community. The

criminological definition is broader and includes not only contravention of existing laws but also all forms of anti-social behaviour.

1.6.1.2. Juridical definition juvenile delinquency

Whitehead and Lab (1990:2-3) delineates an activity as illegal in their definition, regardless of the age of the offender, except for the label "juvenile" which is imposed. Juvenile delinquency is defined as any action by someone designated a juvenile (non-adult) that would make such a young person subject to action by a court of law (Van der Walt *et al.*1982:30).

1.6.2. Status-offence

Status-offence definitions of juvenile delinquency delineate juvenile delinquency from "unlawful" acts that are committed by persons of a particular status, namely a juvenile. Actions which fall under status-offence definitions include truancy, smoking, entering a bar or any place where liquor is sold, to mention a few (Whitehead & Lab 1990:5).

1.6.3. Adolescent^{3*}

According to Rogers (1981) the term adolescence comes from the Latin verb '*adolescere*' meaning "to grow into maturity" and may also be defined by chronological age. . Adolescence is a process rather than a time period, a process of achieving the attitudes and beliefs needed for effective participation in society. An "adolescent" refers to any individual aged between 10-19 years.

1.6.4 Learner*

A person who is learning: student, pupil, apprentice, or trainee (Dictionary.com, 2010).

1.6.5 Youth*

Youth is the time of life when one is young, but often means the time between childhood and

^{3*} The terms adolescent; learner; youth; young person, child/children or juvenile will be used interchangeably throughout the thesis.

adulthood (maturity) (Dictionary.com, 2010).

1.7. Profile of a juvenile delinquent

1.7.1. Age of juvenile delinquent

The age of juvenile offenders differs from country to country. Glanz (1994:9) gives the age of less than 20 years as that of a juvenile in South Africa. Cloete and Stevens (1990:62) say that normally a juvenile offender falls into the age group 7-18 years and in special cases between 18-21 years. In both international and national law, the definition of a juvenile is directly or indirectly related to age. The term “juvenile”, however, may differ from that of a “child”. The Constitution of South Africa, in section 28, defines a child as a person who is below the age of 18. The present Correctional Services Act 8 of 1959 defines a juvenile as a person under the age of 21 years (South African Law Commission, 1997).

1.7.2. Who are juvenile delinquents?

According to Conklin (1999:559), a juvenile delinquent is a person who is below the legally specified age 18 in (South Africa), who has been adjudged by a juvenile court to have violated the law or committed a juvenile status offence. Examples of status offences are truancy and running away from home. Juveniles are thought to still have the potential of being rehabilitated and this is apparently why the juvenile system provides lesser punishment for them. Juveniles commit crimes knowing that the justice system will be lenient to them. They engage in what Cohen (in Siegel, 1995:195) calls "short-run hedonism", which means that they live for today, and tomorrow takes care of itself. Collin and Beham (1981:108) suggest that high rates of delinquency are associated with low family cohesiveness, high parental conflict, large family size, incomplete families and low social class. Poor people see themselves as unfairly dealt with by society that articulates its value. By committing crime they repudiate society's view of themselves and at the same time society's standards in general.

1.7.3. Crimes committed by juveniles

Smart and Klein (cited in Shoemaker 1996:229) believe that there are differences between the crimes committed by juvenile males and those committed by juvenile females. There is however, still controversy regarding the increased involvement of females in crime and delinquency. Studies by Adler (1975), Simon (1975), Steffensmeier and Steffensmeier (1980) (cited in Shoemaker 1996:104), indicate that female rates of delinquency are still lower than male rates probably because of the fact that females spend more time indoors. These authors like Bartollas (1991:73) contend that females are involved primarily in property crimes. According to Bartollas (1991:74), males are more likely to be arrested for possession of stolen property, vandalism, weapon offences and assault. Cloete and Stevens (1996:64) in their work on what constitutes juvenile delinquency include crimes against personal relations committed by males, citing physical built as the reason. They argue that because males are physically stronger than females, they find it easier to express their emotions through aggression than is the case with females. Males have more opportunities of committing property crimes like housebreaking, theft of motor vehicles and robbery because they spend more time outdoors (Bartollas 1991:34).

1.8. Research Methodology

Research methodology is the operational framework within which facts are placed so that their meaning may be clearly understood. It refers to techniques and procedures for carrying out an enquiry and in particular, to the study of particular methods used by the researcher (Vito, Latessa & Wilson 1983:3).

Since research methods are of utmost importance in any scientific inquiry, for the purposes of this research, the researcher ensured the following phases:

Scientific sampling procedure

- (a) Collection of data.
- (b) Systematising and processing which allows the researcher to round off, logically and scientifically classify so that the explanation will clearly come through.

(c) Explanation of data (Van der Walt et al 1982:168).

The method of research that the researcher chooses should not lead to bias and his/her research should not be forced into such a method for the sake of methodological design (Van der Westhuizen 1982:3).

1.8.1 Research design

In order to establish trends the quantitative approach is most appropriate, therefore this study adopted a quantitative approach rather than a qualitative. The researcher applied the quantitative approach by recognizing and isolating specific variables contained within the study framework, in order to seek correlations, relationships and causality, and also attempted to control the environment in which the data was collected to avoid the risk of variables, other than the one being studied, accounting for the relationship identified.

1.8.2. Sampling

A non-probability sampling method by means of target sampling (Strydom 2005:201-203) was followed. Two schools in Chatsworth were included in the study. The grade 8, 9, 10 and 11 learners of each school were included in the study. Participation was voluntary, and thereafter permission of parents was sought (see annexure F) and school principals also acquiesced to the learners' participation (see annexure C and D). A total of 750 learners participated in the study. The grade 12 learners were excluded from the study due to the pressure of completion of their final year curriculum and examination preparation.

1.8.3. Instrument

Questionnaires' were used as an instrument for data-collection. The term "questionnaire" refers to a list of questions to be answered by a survey respondent. The term is restricted to a self-administered instrument as opposed to an interview. Questionnaires are thus forms containing questions to be answered by the respondent himself (Bailey, 1987:469-470). For

the purpose of this study existing questionnaires⁴ was adapted and utilized to resonate with the objectives of this study (See Annexure A). Sekeran (1992) regards it as an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variable of interest. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:207), questionnaire writing involves deciding what variables to measure and how to accurately and adequately measure the variables. The researcher used closed and fixed alternative questions which are usually quiet easy to convert to the numerical format required for the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program.

1.8.4. Research Procedures

The following procedures were followed during the research process:

- All the potential role players were informed of the planned study.
- Permission and ethical approval for this study were obtained from the following bodies:
 - The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal- Howard College Campus (See Annexure G)
 - Principals of the two research schools (See Annexure B)
 - Parents of learners in the research schools.
 - All Learners who participated in the study.
- Data was analysed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) program.

1.8.5. Ethical aspects

⁴ Adapted from an Attitudes and Belief Assessments, Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/ncipc/pub-res/pdf/yv/cdc_yv_seci.pdf, and a self-reported Delinquency Survey (Elliot, D.S. & Ageton, S.S. (1980). Youth Survey Project Report No. 4A. The Social Correlates of Delinquents in a National Youth Panel (Revised). Boulder, CO: Behavioral Research Institute).

Due to the fact that the study was conducted on minors, permission and approval to conduct the study was obtained from the targeted schools' principals and parents. The following ethical issues, as described by Neuman (2006:13) and Strydom (2005b:58-67), were adhered to during the research process: avoidance of harm, informed consent, deception of subjects and/or respondents, violation of privacy/anonymity, confidentiality, actions and competence of researchers, cooperation with contributors, release or publication of the findings, and debriefing of respondents. The professional code of ethics and ethical decision-making was followed (Strydom, 2005b: 67-68).

- Ethical permission was obtained from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of KwaZulu- Natal (Howard College Campus). The study was approved and the ethical number, HSS/0554/012M was allocated to the study (See Annexure G).
- Verbal and written consent was obtained from the participating schools' (see annexure D and E), and parents and participants gave written consent. The participants and parents' consent forms were too many to attach, so the template is included respectively as an example instead (see annexure E and F).

1.8.6. Data analysis:

The data was analysed using SPSS (Version 21). Pearson correlation statistical technique was employed to establish correlations/ relationships between the various independent variables (in this instance demographic detail) with the 24 items on the questionnaire. The computed correlation coefficients (r) were interpreted either at 0.01 or 0.05 significant levels, as indicated in the respective tables (See Chapter 5). To reinforce the quantitative aspect of the research, descriptive statistics which depicts frequencies and percentages supported by bar diagrams were derived using Microsoft Excel programme.

1.9. Limitations of the study

It is necessary to point out the limitations and problems encountered by the researcher during the course of investigation. This will provide subsequent researchers with possible pitfalls

equipping them better with the ideas of avoiding similar pitfalls. The most salient limitations are:

- South African literature on juvenile delinquency seems to be somewhat scanty. One comprehensive self-reported survey on juvenile delinquency is available in South Africa, namely that of Glanz (1990). The effect of this limitation was that the researcher had to rely mostly on foreign studies for the compilation of a delinquency check list.
- The researcher was only focusing on demographic variables such as gender, age, race and religion. However, there were other variables that might affect the level of juvenile delinquency among adolescents. For example, socio-economic status, parent-child attachment styles, family structure and size, peer pressure, neighbourhood and more.

1.10. Structure of dissertation:

Chapter one introduces the topic and gives definitions of significant terms used in the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions to be asked as well as a brief discussion of methodology and research design.

Chapter two presents critical debates and research findings accessed through scanning the literature landscape. Some of the specific sections include reviews of relevant international and national legislation on and for juveniles, the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency in South Africa; and the possible risk factors of juvenile delinquency.

Chapter three presents an analysis of the theoretical framework on juvenile delinquency.

Chapter four explains the research methodology and design, discussing elements such as units of analysis, sampling size and selection, research instruments, data collection procedure and analysis and ethical considerations for the research. This chapter also discusses in detail the procedures that were followed when collecting data.

Chapter five concentrates on data analysis and interpretation, while **Chapter six** reports the most important findings, conclusions and recommendations emanating from the present investigation, followed by a bibliography and the annexures.

1.11 Conclusion:

This chapter mainly provided an overview of the statement of the research problem, definitions of crucial concepts, and an outline of the research methodology such as the research design; sampling; instrument; ethical aspects and data analysis, limitations of the study and the structure of the dissertation followed.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Juvenile delinquency has varied meanings. For Shoemaker (1990:3) delinquency is illegal acts committed by adolescents under the age of 18 years and the adolescents committing them are referred to as delinquents.

Delinquent behaviour has been the interest of criminologists throughout history (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2008; Bartollas 2000; Sanders 1981; Siegel & Senna 1988). Schmallegger & Bartollas (2008) contend that adolescents commit delinquent acts almost on a daily basis. This delinquent behaviour involves all kinds of activities and the juveniles come from all backgrounds.

According to Glanz (1996) the criminal career of such adolescents begins during adolescence and reaches its pinnacle during their mid-twenties.

2.2. Youth Culture

The concept of a “youth culture” was developed from the psychological term “adolescence” which implies youthful behaviour that lies in physical bodily changes and emotional upheavals surrounding the onset of puberty (Muncie 2004:156). Youth culture is predominantly envisaged as a subculture, a term that has not existed in the literature of the social sciences for some ages. Subculture can be defined as a subdivision of the national culture, serene of a permutation of factorable social situations such as class status, ethnic-background, regional and rural or urban residence. Such factors may comprise religious affiliation. Put together, all these forms a functional unison which has an integrated impact on the participating individual (Gordon, 1947).

The youth subculture represents a separate culture in society (Rice, 1996). The representatives of the subculture may create the antithesis to elements of the central or dominant values while still remaining within the generously proportioned cultural system. A subculture may imply that there is a huddle of value judgments, or a social value system, which is both apart from and a part of the central value system. Taking from the perspective of the dominant culture, the values of the subculture prevent total incorporation, and occasionally cause or open covert conflicts. Some of the principles which are apart from those of the dominant culture are erudite by the participants in the subculture, and these values differ in quantity and quality. A subculture of the adolescent then is entirely different from the parent culture. Some of the values of the subculture may be more than different from the large culture; they may be in conflict or at wide variance with the latter (Fasick,

1984). Mostly the participants of the subculture generally engage in felonious activities, which mean that the adolescents who affiliate to the subculture are somewhat dysfunctional and also adversative to the broader social system. The subculture that is only different is a tolerated digression (Knudten & Schafer 1970).

As indicated already, a subculture like any culture is composed of values, conduct norms, social situations, role definitions and performances. In view of sharing, transmission, and learning of values, there is a substantial motive to speak about the youth subculture in South Africa. The dichotomy between adolescents in developed and developing countries is becoming less pronounced with urbanization, globalisation and the emergence of a global media-driven youth culture.

After the 1994 elections of the democratic government in South Africa, many changes in the youth culture occurred. Among the changes was the benefit from the freedom of speech which afforded the youth the opportunity of expressing their feelings about the life they are living and also an uncomplicated emersion of youth culture due to highly developed technology (television and radio, computers, cellular phones and the internet). (Knudten & Schafer 1970).The concern with the freedom of speech and advancement in technology is that adolescents in this country could get out of control and blame it on these developments that they are exposed to. (Kenston 1965:191-222).

The impact of youth culture on juvenile delinquency and sexual behavior is debatable. Drinking alcohol is normative for adolescents in the United States, with more than 70% of high school students reporting ever having had a drink (Parsons, 1954). Similarly, about 2/3 of teenagers have engaged in sexual intercourse by the time they leave high school. Because they are ubiquitous in adolescence, many researchers include drinking and having sex as aspects of youth culture (Fasick, 1984). Engaging in these activities can definitely have harmful consequences for adolescents, although the majority of adolescents who engage in these risky behaviors do not suffer long-term consequences. The possibilities of addiction, pregnancy, incarceration, and other negative outcomes are some potentially negative effects of participation in youth culture (Coleman, 1961).

2.3. The Nature of Juvenile Delinquency in South Africa

According to Eldefonso, "truancy, incorrigibility, delinquency, are but symptomatic pictures of underlying conditions, the roots of which may be found in the family relationships, the school adjustments, the environmental background of the child or in some psychological or physiological aspect of the individual's personality" (1973:6). Based on this one can say that delinquency is a symptom not a disease. A combination of factors, some of which may be found in the environment of the child and others within the child himself or herself, often results in delinquency. There has been an alarming corrosion of standards in relation to juvenile delinquency in recent years, because such behaviour can no longer be defined simply through actions like 'tipping over the outhouse' at rural schools or 'throwing rocks at streetlights', or 'soaping windows on Guy Fawkes' (Booyens, 2003).

Statistics from Child line show rape and murder committed at fifteen or sixteen as a common phenomenon (Redpath, 2003). Studies in the United States (Snyder, 2001), reported that shoplifting, auto theft, burglary or hold-ups in the early to mid-teens is prevalent. Shoemaker argues that, "runaways", by the thousands who, rather than return home when it is dark and their lunch money is gone, may well get on a career of drugs and prostitution. Sexual activity now extends into pre-teen years in some instances and sexual promiscuity and illegal pregnancies have become the norm among some segments of the youth population" (1990:5). Truancy, dropping out of school, street vagrancy and a general scorn for rules and authority are all too widely spread. The adolescent crime problem is solemn (Tshiwula, 1998). According to Shoemaker, some of the prevailing social conditions and circumstances today that may be conducive to juvenile delinquency may be exacerbated in the future with an even more pessimistic result. Such conditions might include a futile secondary education system, extensive unemployment and underemployment among some minority groups, the continued trend in disintegration of a stable family life, the dysfunctional aspects of the mass media with the vivid contrasts in fiscal life-styles, the easy availability of drugs and the potential for vast profits in drugs and the continued decline in respect for authority and social order (1990:7). The range of activities that can be considered delinquent is wide and varied. Delinquency can be categorized as follows: on the most serious end of the scale are those that violate the criminal law and on the least serious end are youth status offenses. According to Sanders, "serious criminal offenses are the least common but most disreputable types of

delinquent activities committed by some adolescents. These include violent crimes such as murder; rape; robbery and assault" (1981:3).

Petty offences by adolescents are a far more common type of violation of the criminal law. These include smoking of marijuana, shoplifting and malicious mischief. Most of these offences go undetected and those that are exposed usually do not result in arrests. When such delinquents are caught, they are sent home instead of being arrested. Carney asserts that, "a juvenile is never arrested. He is taken into provisional custody; this means that delinquent behaviour, although it may invoke breaches of the penal code, does not constitute criminality" (1977:178).

2.4. The Extent of Juvenile Delinquency in South Africa

Crime statistics, collected and released by the South African Police Services provide decreased levels of crime and juvenile delinquency in the country. This argument is against the background of official crime statistics never seeming to match the personal experiences of citizens or their fear of crime, and most of the time crime statistics are often unsurprisingly, interpreted to serve political purposes (Nedcor ISS, 1998).

Nonetheless adolescents in South Africa are becoming more involved in acts of delinquency, both as perpetrators and as victims. Consulted literature Stevens and Cloete (1996) reveals that lately the average age of people committing crime is reducing; whereas it was 22 years of age in 1988, in 1990 it had dropped to 17 years. In South African townships especially in the Western Cape gangsterism, as a result of youth marginalisation, has added a new sub-culture and dimension to youth violence and crime (Nott et al, 1990). Other forms of violence that have been found to increase among the adolescents are domestic violence, rape and sexual crimes (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2003). In 2006/2007 the Department of Correctional Services (DCS) reported the custody of 25,827 adolescents. Clan William reports on a shocking tale of two children in the Western Cape, one twelve years and the other seven years, accused of murdering their classmate who was 8 years old for R5 he owed them (National Youth Commission 1997; www.dcs.gov.za/WebStatistics/totcrime.aspx).

2.5. Juvenile Crime Statistics in South Africa from 1911 to the 1980's:

In 1911 the six rehabilitation institutions in the Union of South Africa housed 271 juveniles. By 1918 the number of juvenile delinquents increased to 849. In 1919 a slight decrease took place and 813 juveniles were detained in the six institutions. In 1921 the figures increased to 1046 and increased to a greater extent in 1936 when they reached a total of 1055. In the years between 1911 and 1936 the number of detainees remained below 900 (Grobler, 1941:60).

In 1920, the 13 672 juveniles that were in prison were accountable for 11.9% of the prisons population. The number of detainees remained the same until 1923 when it amplified to 15 241 which was greater than 11 %. In 1933, 21 526 detainees of the prisons inhabitants were juveniles. However, the numbers decreased in 1934 owing to policy changes and the reclassification of certain crimes related to vehicle and stock theft.

From 1931, juveniles under the age of 15 who committed crimes were 0, 1% of the prison population and totalled 611. Twenty- four cases involved serious crimes. The age group 15 to 19 years made up 3, 1% of the prison population and accounted for 5 838 offences of which 318 or 0, 17% were serious offences (Albertyn 1935:13).

In 1935 an Inter Departmental Committee on Destitute, Neglected, Maladjusted and Delinquent Children surveyed 33 centres in the Union of South Africa. Sentencing in 6000 cases reflects the following magnitude of the types of punishment: 23% warnings; 24% canings; 17% fines; 10 % suspended sentences and 4% imprisonments (Grobler 1941:71).

In 1937 the juvenile crime figures for the Johannesburg court showed that 43 out of 883 convictions were for liquor- or alcohol- related offences. In 1938 successful convictions increased and 94 juveniles were convicted in the 1 230 cases heard. Kieser (1952:86) attributes in juvenile crimes worldwide to World War II. In his opinion, the increase in crime was a potential threat to society and continued to steadily increase to a point which ultimately leads to a society of hoodlums. This view contrasts with those of Venter (1954:2). According to Venter (1954:3) there was a decrease in juvenile crime (7- to 16 year- olds) during World War II, followed by steady increases after the war. Among young adults (17 to 20 years of age) criminal incidents increased from 421, 1 cases per 10 000 in 1938 to 465, 9 per 10 000 in 1954. According to Venter, the minor juvenile crime rates during World War II can be attributed to two factors: firstly, the authorities were paying more attention to the war efforts and, secondly, the police force had been reduced, as many of its members had gone to war (Venter 1954:7).

After 1949 crime figures among white young adults increased intensely, mainly on account of a change in legislation. In 1949, Offence 087, which dealt with driver's license legislation, was declared a serious offence (Venter 1954:51). In 1954 white young adult males were responsible for 40 % of all offences related to vehicle law and traffic regulations. Indian young adults were responsible for 26, 6% of these offences. Colored youth were the main perpetrators of economic crimes, being found responsible for 23, 2% of these crimes, while black youth were responsible for the most crimes against the person at 12, 1%. Offences related to the misuse of drugs and alcohol occurred among all race groups and fell within the top three crime categories.

A study conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC, 1975) regarding the conviction rates of juvenile offenders aged 7 to 20 years for the period 1969 to 1970 shows the following rates per 10 000 of the groups population: whites 69; Indians 83; blacks 125; colored's 390. All these juveniles were mainly convicted for economic offences in the following proportions to all offences per group: blacks 52, 6%, colored's 47, 6%, Indians fractionally less at 46, 2% and whites 41, 2%. The difference in rates of conviction is credited to social, economic and other circumstances rather than intrinsic factors. Rip (HSRC 1975:18) attributed the high rate of juvenile crime among coloured adolescents, largely as a result of disorganized urbanization within the colored communities, meaning that the areas in which colored people lived did not have the infrastructure and facilities of the white areas, which can be estimated as increasing the crime risk factors.

2.6. Juvenile Delinquency in South Africa from 1990 to 1999:

According to the Central Statistical Service (Now Statistics South Africa), the total number of crimes committed by youths under the age of 21 between 1 July 1990 and 30 June 1991⁵ was a sum of 95 398. Amongst these adolescents, 11 of every 1000 individuals aged 7 to 20 years were found guilty of a serious offence (Moore 1994:68). Accompanied by political turmoil of these years, other forms of related violence also impacted negatively on South African adolescents, with about 11 000 individuals falling victim to the violence between 1990 and

⁵ The period of 1990-1994 was characterised by unprecedented intra and inter-community conflict often fanned by so-called "third force" activity sponsored by the state. The pervasive nature of this violence, and the systematic implementation of the apartheid system, has undermined the moral, interpersonal and social fabric of South African society (Hamber & Lewis, 1997).

1993. This, in turn, resulted in 50 000 children being displaced, 2 000 being physically traumatized and a further 7 000 being abandoned.

By September 1999, the number of 2 026 awaiting trial prisoners were adolescents, with a further 1 375 adolescents serving prison sentences. Figures from the Inspecting Judges Report (Annual Report 2006) show that for the year 30 April 2004 to 1 May 2005 there were 9 494 sentenced juveniles (from ages 18-21 years) that were incarcerated in South African prisons. In the same period there were 9 079 juveniles awaiting trial. The report also indicates that 1 137 adolescents (under the age of 18 years) were sentenced and 1 217 were not sentenced or awaiting trial (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2008).

2.7. International Legislation Protecting Rights of Juveniles

While there is a long history of developments in child justice before the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC), the UNCRC and related international instruments provide the leading international frameworks within which children in conflict with the law should be managed (United Nations, 1990a). Prominent in this regard are the *United Nations Standard Minimum Rules on the Administration of Juvenile Justice (Beijing Rules)*; the *United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (UN JDL Rules)* and the *United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines)*. All of these will be discussed below.

2.7.1. United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice ("The Beijing Rules")

The United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (Beijing Rules) was adopted by general Assembly resolution 40/33 of 29 November 1985.

In applying these rules, member States should

- Seek, in conformity with their respective general interests, to further the well-being of the juvenile and her or his family (United Nations, 1990b).

- Attempt to develop conditions that will ensure for the juvenile a meaningful life in the community, which, during that period in life when she or he is most susceptible to deviant behaviour (United Nations, 1990b).
- Promote a process of personal development and education that is as free from crime and delinquency as possible (United Nations, 1990b).
- Ensure that sufficient attention be given to positive measures that involve the full recruitment of all possible resources, including the family, volunteers and other community groups, as well as schools and other community institutions, for the purpose of promoting the well-being of the juvenile, with a vision of reducing the need for intervention under the law, and of effectively, fairly and humanely dealing with the juvenile in conflict with the law (United Nations, 1990b).
- Ensure that Juvenile justice is conceived as an integral part of the national development process of each country, within an all-inclusive framework of social justice for all juveniles, thus, at the same time, contributing to the protection of the young and the safeguarding of peaceful order in society (United Nations, 1990b).
- Implement the rules in the context of economic, social and cultural conditions prevailing in each Member State (United Nations, 1990b).
- Thoroughly developed and coordinated juvenile justice services with an analysis to improving and sustaining the competence of personnel involved in the services, including their methods, approaches and attitudes (United Nations, 1990b).

The care measures listed above should be used in a way that promotes juvenile welfare, before the onset of delinquency.

2.7.2. The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (Un Jdl Rules):

The United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty was Adopted by General Assembly resolution 45/113 of 14 December 1990. In the application of these rules, the following guiding principles have been taken into account:

The juvenile justice system should:

- Maintain and sustain the rights and safety and promote the physical and mental well-being of juveniles. Imprisonment should be used as a last resort (United Nations, 1990c).
- Deprive juveniles of their liberty in accordance with the principles and procedures set forth in the United Nations Rules for the Protection of Juveniles Deprived of their Liberty (Un Jdl Rules) these Rules and in the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (The Beijing Rules). Deprivation of the freedom of a juvenile should be a disposition of last resort and for the minimum necessary period and should be limited to exceptional cases. The duration of the sanction should be determined by the judicial authority, without excluding the possibility of his or her early release (United Nations, 1990c).

The Rules are intended to establish minimum standards accepted by the United Nations for the protection of juveniles deprived of their liberty in all forms, consistent with human rights and fundamental freedoms, and with a view to neutralize the detrimental effects of all types of detention and to nurturing integration in society (United Nations, 1990c).

The Rules should be applied impartially, without discrimination of any kind as to race, colour, sex, age, language, religion, nationality, political or other opinion, cultural beliefs or practices, property, birth or family status, ethnic or social origin, and disability. The religious and cultural beliefs, practices and moral concepts of the juvenile should be respected (United Nations, 1990c).

The Rules are designed to serve as suitable standards of reference and to provide encouragement and guidance to professionals involved in the management of the juvenile justice system (United Nations, 1990c).

The Rules should be made readily available to juvenile justice personnel in their national languages. Juveniles who are not fluent in the language spoken by the personnel of the detention facility should have the right to the services of an interpreter free of charge whenever necessary, in particular during medical examinations and disciplinary proceedings (United Nations, 1990c).

Where appropriate, States should incorporate the Rules into their legislation or amend it accordingly and provide effective solutions for their breach, including compensation when injuries are inflicted on juveniles. States should also monitor the application of the Rules (United Nations, 1990c).

The competent authorities should continuously search for an increase in the awareness of the public that the care of detained juveniles and preparation for their return to society is a social service of great importance, and to this end active steps should be taken to foster open contacts between the juveniles and the local community (United Nations, 1990c).

Nothing in the Rules should be interpreted as prohibiting the application of the relevant United Nations and human rights instruments and standards, recognized by the international community, that are more conducive to ensuring the rights, care and protection of juveniles, children and all young persons (United Nations, 1990c).

2.7.3. The United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines):

The United Nations Guidelines for the Prevention of Juvenile Delinquency (The Riyadh Guidelines) was implemented and announced by General Assembly resolution 45/112 of 14 December 1990: the objectives of these Guidelines were to prevent juvenile delinquency it is an essential part of crime prevention in society and to develop non criminogenic attitudes among young people by engaging in lawful, socially useful activities and implementing a humanistic approach towards society and point of view on life. Therefore, the successful prevention of juvenile delinquency requires efforts on the part of the entire society to ensure the harmonious development of adolescents, with respect for and promotion of their personality from early childhood (United Nations. 1990d).

For the purpose of the present Guidelines, for young people to have an active role and partnership within society, the child centred approach should be practised and they should not be considered as mere objects of socialization and control. According to the implementation of the present Guidelines, the well-being of the young persons from their early childhood should be the focus of any preventative method in accordance with legal systems (United Nations. 1990d).

The avoidance of criminalizing and penalizing a child for behaviour that does not cause serious damage to the development of the child or harm to others, the need for and importance of progressive delinquency prevention policies and the methodical study and the expansion of measures should be recognized. Such policies and measures should involve:

- (a) The provision of opportunities, in particular educational opportunities, to meet the varying needs of adolescents and to serve as a supportive structure for safeguarding the personal development of all adolescents, particularly those who are evidently endangered or at social risk and are in need of special care and protection;
- (b) Specialized philosophies and approaches for delinquency prevention, on the basis of laws, processes, institutions, facilities and a service delivery network aimed at reducing the motivation, need and opportunity for, or conditions giving rise to, the commission of infractions;
- (c) Official intervention to be followed primarily in the overall interest of the adolescent and guided by fairness and equity;
- (d) Safeguarding the well-being, development, rights and interests of all adolescents;
- (e) Consideration that youthful behaviour or conduct that does not conform to overall social norms and values is often part of the maturation and growth process and tends to disappear spontaneously in most individuals with the changeover to adulthood;
- (f) Awareness that, in the principal opinion of experts, labelling an adolescent as "deviant", "delinquent" or "pre-delinquent" often contributes to the development of a consistent pattern of undesirable behaviour by adolescents (United Nations, 1990d)

Community-based services and programmes should be developed for the prevention of juvenile delinquency, particularly where no organization has yet been established. Formal

organizations of social control should only be utilized as a means of last resort. The wide range of issues and rights contained in the provision not only create practical protections and safeguards for all adolescents in conflict with the law, but also recognises that each child is an individual and should be treated and managed accordingly within the criminal justice system (United Nations. 1990d).

2.8. National Legislation for Juvenile Delinquency:

2.8.1. The South African Constitution:

The South African Constitution of 1996 has a dedicated a section on children's rights. Section 28 constitutes a 'mini-charter' of children's rights and covers diverse issues such as civil and political rights, including the rights to a name and nationality (Section 28(1)(a)); socio-economic rights, for instance the right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care services and social services (section 28(1)(c)); child justice (section 28(1)(g)); and it establishes the best interests of the child principle (Section 28(1) of the South African Constitution). Section 28(2) requires that the best interests of the child be of supreme importance in every decision taken in relation to a child. Section 28(1) (g) sets out clear principles relating to the detention of children, including that detention should be a measure of last resort and used for the shortest appropriate period of time. Further, children should be kept separately from adults in detention and treated in a manner, and kept in conditions that take account of the child's age (Section 28(2) of the South African Constitution). Of relevance to child justice is section 35 of the Constitution which deals with the rights of arrested and detained persons and although not limited to children, applies equally to them as it does to adults. Some of the rights contained in section 35 include the right to remain silent, the right to a fair and speedy trial, and the right to a legal representative and if an accused cannot afford one, the right to be assigned one by the State if substantial injustice would otherwise result (Section 35(3) of the South African Constitution).

2.8.2. Age and Criminal Capacity:

In South Africa, the minimum age of criminal capacity is determined by the *doli capax/doli incapax*-rule. Given this rule a child below the age of seven years, is presumed to lack criminal capacity (Skelton 1996). Furthermore, the rule argues that children between the ages 7 and 14 years are presumed *doli incapax* unless proven otherwise. To illustrate further, those children under 14 but over 7 years older, are deemed to lack criminal capacity unless the State proves that the child in question can distinguish between right and wrong and knows the wrongfulness of offending at the time of commission of the offence. Though such hypothesis were designed in order to protect children, legal practitioners have noted that it is all too easily denied, and that it does not in fact present a barrier to the prosecution and conviction of young people. For instance, mothers of children are asked to indicate whether their children understand the difference between right and wrong. An answer in the affirmative is often considered sufficient grounds to deny the hypothesis of *doli incapax*. Furthermore, the courts have noted that caution should be exercised where the accused are illiterate, unsophisticated, and more so when they are children with limited grasp of proceeding" (Skelton 1996; South African Law Commission 1996).

However, Snyman (2002:177) points out that in practice a short cut is usually taken by asking whether a child was aware that what she/he was doing was wrong. Such a formulation of the test has been criticised and unacceptable for the following reasons:

- a) Firstly, the formulation confuses completely the different requirements for liability, namely criminal capacity and awareness of unlawfulness.
- b) Secondly, the traditional test employed by the courts involves only one aspect of the accused knowledge, namely his knowledge of the wrongfulness of the act. His or her knowledge of the factual nature and consequences is equally important.
- c) Thirdly, the traditional formulation contains no reference to the accused ability to act in accordance with his or her appreciation of wrong and right Snyman (2002:177).

Badenhorst (2006:50) expresses an opinion that Skelton (1996:180) is of the view that the minimum age of 7 years is unacceptably low, should South Africa wish to retain the *doli incapax* hypothesis, then better safeguards should be adopted so that the hypothesis will be

more difficult to deny. With regard to the issue of the minimum age of criminal capacity The Child Justice Bill, 2002 was introduced into Parliament in August 2002 (Badenhorst 2006:50; Ondogo 2003:1; Sloth-Nielsen 2003:175). The Child Justice Bill 2002 proposed the age of 10 years as the minimum age for criminal capacity. On 26 February 2003 both the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation and the Child Justice Alliance made submissions to the Portfolio Committee (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2003:1) that they support the raising of the minimum age of criminal capacity to 10 years and the retention of the *doli incapax* hypothesis. The Community Law Centre, the Child Justice Alliance and the South African Catholic Bishops are among the organisations that objected to the 10 year proposal saying it is still too low. They had rather intensified calls to Parliament to increase the age at which a child can be held responsible for criminal conduct to 12 years. It also needs to be noted that the United Nations criticised countries that fix their minimum age of criminal capacity at less than 12 years. Calls to raise the age of criminal accountability, liability and responsibility is supported by the fact that there are other countries where it is set even higher than 12 years as is the case in Italy where the age of criminal capacity is 14 years and in the Philippines it is set at 15 years (Mail & Guardian 2008).

Nevertheless, the minimum age of prosecution set by the Bill in South Africa is 10 years which means that no child under the age of 10 years can be held criminal liable for his or her actions. A child who commits an offence while under the age of 14 years is presumed not to have had the capacity to appreciate the difference between right and wrong, unless the criminal capacity is proved in accordance with section 56 (Child Justice Bill 2002:7).

2.8.3. The Child Justice Act 75 of 2008:

2.8.3.1. Definitions:

The Act introduces some of the following definitions to the Child Justice subject:

- “**appropriate adult** means any member of a child’s family, including a sibling who is 16 years or older, or care-giver referred to in section 1 of the Children’s Act” – this category of role-players has been added to allow more options for people other than parents or guardians

to assist the child during the proceedings and into whose care the child can be placed (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**child** means any person under the age of 18 and, in certain circumstances, means a person who is 18 years or older but under the age of 21 years whose matter is dealt with in terms of section 4(2)” – this means that the Child Justice Act can apply to persons 18 or older but under 21 years if they had committed an offence when they were under the age of 18 (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**child and youth care centre** means a child and youth care centre referred to in section 191 of the Children’s Act” – this is a single concept that includes the former places of safety, secure care facilities, schools of industries and institutions (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**child justice court** means any court provided for in the Criminal Procedure Act, dealing with a bail application, plea, trial or sentencing of a child” – this means that even a High Court applying the provisions of the Child Justice Act is a child justice court (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**independent observer** for purposes of section 65(6), means a representative from a community or organisation, or community police forum, who is not in the full-time employ of the State and whose name appears on a prescribed list for this purpose, which is to be kept by the magistrate of every district” – this is a person who can assist the child in the child justice court in the absence of the child’s parent, guardian or other responsible adult (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**preliminary inquiry** is an informal pre-trial procedure which is inquisitorial in nature and may be held in a court or any other suitable place” – this is the child’s first appearance in court and must take place before a lower court (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**restorative justice** means an approach to justice that aims to involve the child offender, the victim, the families concerned and community members to collectively identify and address harms, needs and obligations through accepting responsibility, making restitution, taking measures to prevent a recurrence of the incident and promoting reconciliation” – while

there are many definitions of restorative justice, this is the restorative justice definition that applies to the restorative justice procedures in the Act (Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

- “**suitable person** means a person with standing in the community who has a special relationship with the child, identified by the probation officer to act in the best interests of the child” – in terms of the Act such persons can be appointed to monitor the child’s compliance with a recreation order, for example, community service.(Child Justice Act 75, 2008).

2.8.3.2. Key role-players in the Child Justice Act:

A child in conflict with the law will encounter the following key role-players:

- **Police official** who is defined as a member of the South African Police Service (SAPS) or of a municipal police service established in terms of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).
- **Probation officer** who is defined as a person who has been appointed as a probation officer under section 2 of the Probation Services Act 116 of 1991. Currently probation officers are qualified social workers (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).
- **Prosecutor** is a person appointed in terms of the National Prosecuting Authority Act 32 of 1998 to investigate and prosecute crimes (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).
- **Inquiry magistrate** who is the judicial officer presiding at a preliminary inquiry (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).
- **Presiding officer** is the inquiry magistrate or judicial officer presiding at the child justice court (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).

- **Diversion service provider** means a service provider accredited to render diversion services (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004).

2.8.3.3. Scope and Application of the Child Justice Act 75 of 2008:

The Child Justice Act 75 Of 2008 is intended to apply to children who come into conflict with the law. This seems simple, but is quite complex. On the one hand the upper age of a child is 18 years of age according to section 28(3) of the Constitution. Therefore once a child turns 18 years of age, he or she is an adult. However, the Act recognises that in certain instances it would be fair to apply the Act to persons older than 18 years.

On the other hand, there is a minimum age of criminal capacity below which children are not considered to be criminally liable and they cannot be arrested or prosecuted. So there are 3 categories of children and persons that the Act applies to:

1. Children below 10 years at the time of the commission of the offence – the reason for the Act applying to children who are not criminally liable is that section 9 sets out procedures that apply to children under 10 years of age who have committed a crime. These include referral to a children’s court or counselling if necessary (Gallinetti, 2009).
2. Children aged 10 years and older but younger than 18 years at the time of arrest or when the summons or written notice was served on them – these are the children who the Act specifically targets and who the Act aims to protect. The reason that it doesn’t apply to children who are aged 10 years and older but younger than 18 years at the time of the commission of the offence is that the Act is not intended to apply, for example, to someone who committed an offence at 17 years of age but who was only arrested at 27 years of age. The procedures in the Act are intended to protect children who are actually in the criminal justice system (Gallinetti, 2009).
3. Adolescents who are 18 years or older but under 21 years of age and who committed an offence when under 18 years of age – this provision recognises that 18 to 21 year olds are still young and can benefit from the procedures in the Act. However, the

National Director of Public Prosecutions will issue orders on how this section is to be applied in practice (Gallinetti, 2009).

2.8.3.4. Objectives of Child Justice Act 75 of 2008:

The objectives of this Act are to—

- (a) protect the rights of children as provided for in the Constitution;
- (b) Promote the spirit of *ubuntu* in the child justice system through—
 - nurturing children’s sense of dignity and worth;
 - reinforcing children’s respect for human rights and the fundamental freedoms of others by holding children accountable for their actions and safe-guarding the interests of victims and the community;
 - supporting reconciliation by means of a restorative justice response; and
 - involving parents, families, victims and, where appropriate, other members of the community affected by the crime in procedures in terms of this Act in order to encourage the reintegration of children;
- (c) provide for the special treatment of children in a child justice system designed to break the cycle of crime, which will contribute to safer communities, and encourage these children to become law-abiding citizens and productive adults;
- (d) prevent children from being exposed to the unpleasant effects of the formal criminal justice system by using, where appropriate, processes, procedures, mechanisms, services or options more suitable to the needs of children and in accordance with the Constitution, including the use of diversion; and
- (e) Promote co-operation between government departments, and between government departments and the non-governmental sector and civil society, to ensure an integrated and holistic approach in the implementation of this Act.

2.8.3.5. Juvenile Justice for the various categories of children who come into Conflict with the Law:

The South African juvenile justice provides for the procedural management of children in conflict with the law for example:

- If a child, under the age of 10 years, who is alleged to have committed an offence must be referred to a probation officer to be dealt with in terms of section 9 of the Child Justice Act 75 of 2008 (Muntingh, 2007).
- Every child who is 10 years or older (including persons between 18 and 21 years alleged to have committed an offence while under 18 years of age), and who is required to appear at an initial inquiry in respect of that offence must, before his or her first appearance at the initial inquiry, be assessed by a probation officer, unless assessment is dispensed with in terms of section 41(3) or 47(5) of the Child Justice Act 75 of 2008 (Muntingh, 2007).
- Also an initial inquiry must be held in respect of each child after assessment except where he or she has been diverted in accordance with the provisions of Chapter 6 of the Act or where the matter involves a child who is 10 years or older but under the age of 14 years where criminal capacity is not likely to be proved; or where the case has been withdrawn. All of these children are eligible to be considered for diversion either before the initial inquiry (depending on the nature of the offence) or at the initial inquiry (Muntingh, 2007).
- Should a child not be diverted at the preliminary inquiry the matter must be referred to a child justice court for plea and trial. However, before the case is concluded the child justice court may nevertheless consider diverting the child (Muntingh, 2007).

2.8.4. Correctional Services Amendment Act 14 of 1996:

The aim of this amendment was to make provision for the holding of juveniles over the age of 14 years but less than 18 years who are charged with serious offences while they are awaiting trial in prison. Juveniles alleged to have committed murder, rape, armed robbery, robbery of motor vehicle, serious assault, assault of a sexual nature, kidnapping, illicit transportation or supply of drugs and any conspiracy, provocation or attempt to commit any of these offences may be held in accordance with this Act. These juveniles can be held if the magistrate has reason to believe that their detention is necessary and in the interests of justice

and there is no secure place of safety within a reasonable distance from the court. In applying this Act a magistrate must determine whether the detention of a juvenile is necessary and in the interest of justice by firstly, assessing the risk of the juvenile absconding; secondly, the risk of harm to other juveniles in the place of safety; and thirdly, the likelihood of the juvenile committing further offences.

The 1996 amendment is pertinent only to children over the age of 14 years but younger than 18 years. Those younger than 14 years can still be held in prison or police cells for a period not exceeding 24 hours before being released into the care of a parent or guardian or other suitable person, or transferred to a place of safety (Correctional Services Amendment Act 14, 1996).

2.9. Risk Factors for Juvenile Delinquency

According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:137) there should be a great investment made in the future of the adolescent. If this be the case, crime prevention best begins with the youth because the country will be led by the present day youth when the adults settle for retirement or any other circumstances occur. However, in order for crime prevention to be successful the causes and experience associated with crime must be identified.

The exact causes of juvenile delinquency have been a concern among criminologists for centuries. In understanding the causes of juvenile delinquency, perhaps one should not lose sight of the fact that many adolescents growing up in poor communities and unstable homes do not offend or come into conflict with the law. However, the opposite is equally true. It is against this background that the remaining chapter will examine factors such as family; school; peer group; drugs; and gangs that contribute juvenile delinquency.

2.9.1. The Family and Juvenile Delinquency

(Roberts 1981:536; Quinsey, Skilling, Lalumiere, and Craig 2004:80) argue that the family plays a critical role in promoting or controlling delinquent behaviour. Therefore the family is regarded as the first socialising agent in the life of the child that plays a major role in shaping a child's attitude towards other institutions (schools, religion, and marriage) in society (Roberts 1981:536). Because a child belongs to, first and foremost the family, who provides shelter, protection from undesired intrusions and material well-being for its members it is one of the most critical aspects of socialisation in the development of moral values in children. Moral education, or the training of the individual towards the "good", involves a number of things, including rules, that is the dos and don'ts, and the development of good habits (Benett 1993:11). Wyatt and Carlo (2002) contend that adolescents who have developed higher levels of pro-social moral reasoning, such as functioning according to empathetic motives and internalizing values that would lead youth to act in ways to benefit others and society, are less likely to engage in aggressive behaviour and juvenile delinquency. The family teaches moral values and an individual uses the family as a part of an entry to many other institutions in the community, such as religious fellowship and marriage partners. According to many researchers the family⁶ plays a critical role in the unfolding of juvenile delinquency.

Patterson, Dishion, and Bank (1984) argue that the family context and interactions within it are both directly and indirectly related to the development of antisocial behaviour and it may be relevant to note that the HIV, urbanisation and migrant worker contexts may have altered the traditional role of families⁷.

Children in families that are characterized by insecurity and parental conflict are likely to suffer more negative consequences than those from stable homes. To this end Gottfredson and Hirschi (1994:150) argue ineffective childrearing may contribute to adolescents having low self-control and being more attracted to delinquency than are youth with greater self-

⁶ Family life in South Africa has never been simple to describe or understand. The concept of the nuclear family has never accurately captured the norm of all South African families. Thus when we speak of South African families, we talk not only of the nuclear family, but also of extended families, as well as caregivers or guardians. In South Africa, the 'typical' child is raised by their mother in a single-parent household. Most children also live in house-holds with unemployed adults (Holborn & Eddy, 2011).

⁷ Many South African children are not growing up in safe and secure families. Some are affected by poverty, while others are burdened by the effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. This pandemic has resulted in an epidemic of orphan hood and child-headed households, which has left many children having to fend for themselves and as a result this alters traditional roles of families (Holborn & Eddy, 2011).

control. Similarly Barlow & Ferdinand (1992:156; Regoli & Hewitt 2006: 294) add that parental conflict is at the root of poor parenting, low levels of supervisions, ineffective discipline, and parental rejection, and is closely related to delinquency. In some cases as a result of such quarrels between parents, children deem it necessary to choose one parent over the other. When the turmoil takes its toll, parents lose any desire to supervise and guide their children, so that means children are left to follow their whims and preferences. It has also been predicted that weak parental involvement, and particularly weak fatherly involvement, is strongly related to juvenile delinquency (Loeber & Stotchammer- Loeber 1986:41-43).

2.9.1.1. Family disruption

Divorce death, debilitating illness, illegitimacy, abandonment may lead to family disruption. Consequently for example divorce may be accompanied by family conflict “Sometimes as a result of the divorce one parent may be responsible for raising their child/ren, argues that single parenting⁸, as a consequence of divorce and the very process of going through divorce produces unpleasant consequences for children in the family. Furthermore, divorce may produce “family wars” in which relatives and friends pick sides and attempt to “win” by attacking the former spouse. As a result, children are caught in the middle. Children are often defined as “victims” of or expected to accept new definitions of the former spouse. Such situations produces stress for children and may lead to various situations such as decreased self-control, increased rates of psychological disturbances, drug use and or gang affiliation. (Davidson 1990: 40-44; Barlow and Ferdinand 1992:156).

In one way or another family disruption results in one parent, usually the mother, being the one left with the duty or burden of childrearing and taking care of the children. A mother left

⁸ According to Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:59) the incident of single parent families is evident in South Africa where some mothers are employed a distance from home and spend many hours travelling. These working mothers leave home early in the morning and return late in the afternoon or evening, others may stay in town during the week to remain close to their work place. They often visit their families one weekend per month. In some households guardians such as grandparents or older brothers and sisters substitute such parents and look after the younger children. It should be mentioned that it is common for children and young people to be reared by relatives other than the mother or father. Such relatives include grandparents, aunts, or uncles. Thus is partly due to the former policy of separate development, where the majority of black South Africans were confined to living in defined “homelands” mostly in rural times. While the father at times or the mother, would seek for work in urban areas would leave children in the care of relatives; surprisingly enough even when South Africa has attained democracy this is still the case (Wedge, Boswell, & Dissel, 2000).

alone with children may end up looking for work. Inevitably this will result in children having a part-time mother and no father at all. Under such circumstances children are deprived of adequate family-based socialisation and such children may choose the path of delinquency (Barlow and Ferdinand 1992:156). According to Turner and Peck (2002:72) the incidence of the absence of a father figure may result in community disintegration and crime, especially juvenile delinquency, which continues to increase.

Barlow and Ferdinand (1992:158) maintain that juvenile delinquency may be prevented if the family is tied together as the foundation for sound development where parent and child relationships are solid. They claim if that happens the child in turn will avoid engaging in destructive activities because of the bond that exists between him or her and the parents.

2.9.1.2. Parental discipline

(Glueck 1959, Rogers 1981 and Loeber and Stouthammer-Loeber 1986:152) perceive parental disciplinary style or approach also as a cause of juvenile delinquency. They argue that extreme sternness, leniency, and inconsistent disciplinary approaches are largely associated with delinquency. For them families of aggressive children support the use of hostile and aggressive behaviour in their children by unconsciously reinforcing aggressive behaviour and by not adequately reinforcing pro-social behaviour. Equally important is monitoring (i.e., knowing where the child is, who the child is with, what the child is doing, or when the child will be home) because as adolescents become older they are increasingly likely to spend unsupervised time with their friends (Patterson 1982; Quinsey *et al.* 2004:82).

According to the study conducted by Chaiken (2000:17) the lack of adult supervision is the probable cause of violence during the hours immediately before and after school found that the vast majority of boys (75%) spend quite a number of after school hours without the supervision of parents. By comparison, it has been realised that those boys who are likely to be supervised by the adults stand less chances of drifting into delinquency, while those who are not being supervised by their parents will drift more often than not into delinquency.

2.9.1.3 Parental style, monitoring and support

The nature and quality of relationships shared between an adolescent and their parent can have a major influence on the decisions they make as individual. Adolescents' whose parents provide a warm, loving, and nurturing environment are less likely to engage in delinquent behaviour (Cox, 2007). For example, a review of more than twenty studies demonstrated that parent-child connectedness (support, closeness, and parental warmth) decrease the risk of adolescent pregnancy by influencing adolescent sexual and contraceptive behaviours (Miller et al., 2001). However, overly strict and authoritarian parenting style is associated with a greater risk of teen pregnancy (Miller, 1998). This could account for the association between poor or distant parent-child relationships and risky adolescent behaviour (Feldman & Brown, 1993). Adolescents who describe their relationships with their parents as coercive or conflictual, for example, are more likely to be involved with deviant peer groups, and the peers become most important and influential. Conversely, adolescents whose parents have more authoritative parenting styles are more likely to belong to a peer group that supports both adolescent and parent norms (Perrino et al., 2000). Parental practices impact both the emotional and social development of adolescents. Studies have shown that parental regulation through house rules, supervision and monitoring can positively impact on their adolescents' behaviour (Cohen, Farley, Taylor, Martin & Schuster, 2002; Huebner & Howell, 2003).

2.9.1.4. The family socio-economic status

The family's socio-economic status is one of the strongest suggestions of youth violence, with the effects of low socio-economic status tending to be more marked in communities characterised by high residential mobility and low levels of cohesion (Lipsey & Derzon 1998). In South Africa, according to Pelser & De Kock (2000), the high levels of poverty and unemployment the massive and on-going urbanization process, are associated with a breakdown in traditional understanding, relationships and family social support networks. Foster (2004: 441) argues that in the absence of traditional social support networks, peer group influence has the potential for becoming an increasingly important frame of reference

for the youth which unfortunately is likely to be associated with more extreme attitudes to a range of social behaviour, including violence.

2.9.2. Peer Groups and Juvenile Delinquency

Peer group pressure usually manifests itself in a school setting where adolescents with different backgrounds are characterized together. Regoli & Hewitt (1991:213) claim that these adolescents, of probably the same age, manifest their own culture, language, symbols and values distinctively, unlike those of younger children and adults, a lack of social and ethical standards within the group, due to a conflict of ideas. Parents typically want to retain the same norms they were raised with as children. They are resistant to adapt to the new changes and they would rather want to slow down the change as much as they can, but by so doing they create conflict between themselves and their children (Wenz-Gross; Siperstein; Untoh & Widman, 1997). The major goal of the peer group is to maintain sovereignty or control over its territory; hence, that result in the need for developing a particular division of rules and norms. In a nut-shell the concept sovereignty implies control over a physical territory established as “gang turf”. Those who live within the boundaries of such territory and fall within a certain age category established by the group, are candidates for group or gang membership or subjection to the power of the gang (Kratcoski & Kratcoski 1990:99).

Adolescents soon discover that the norms and values parents want to inculcate in them. However, the parents do not provide them with a sense of worth or accomplishment as adolescents. Thus, the adolescent begins to question parental norms and values. Peers who are experiencing the same problems begin to assume a crucial role in the socialisation process. They possess the power to make the adolescent feel worthwhile and important (Gottfredson, 1987). They also have some questions about how to adapt to the lack of social and ethical standards and conditions of adolescence, how to feel more like a grown-up, worthwhile. Wanting to be accepted and to feel worthwhile and more grown-up, many youngsters deviate from society’s current system of rules and values rather and engage in delinquent activities which deduces status on an individual among the delinquent group (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:214).

It is important to take cognisance of the fact that it is not only the question of parental values and norms that may cause a child to deviate from the family institutions to the peer group. Children in some ways face oppression by parents from birth until the time they leave home as adults themselves. Children often find themselves occupying the bottom of the social and power ladder. They are consistently instructed to “go find something to do”; “go play with your friends”, or “go read a book” (Brendtro & Lindgren, 1988). Parents actually and unconsciously tell children to they are searching for, which parents had partly failed to provide. Like adults, children enjoy what it feels like to be respected (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:214).

Parents are often also responsible for pushing their adolescents into peer group relationships that they sometimes condemn. The irony of this process is that when children do begin to spend a greater amount of time with their friends, parents try to pull them back. At this point, parents are likely to complain that their children are spending too much time with their friends, never realising that this is exactly what they themselves prepared the children for (Rowe, 1994). Furthermore, as a result of criminogenic elements that juveniles are exposed to within the family, groups will be formed. Actually the tendencies of juveniles to form groups appear to be a natural occurrence that usually has a positive effect on the socialisation process (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:214-215).

2.9.3. School and Juvenile Delinquency

Barlow and Ferdinand (1992:161) claim that along with families and peer groups, the school also play a crucial role in as far as delinquency is concerned. Much of delinquency occurs in or around the school. Adolescents spend much of their waking hours at school; hence most of their unconventional activities are committed in or around the school setting. Cloete and Stevens (1990:75) are adamant that a variety of factors, present in certain circumstances or at particular moments, may exert such a negative influence that it may lead a juvenile to crime because of a strong possibility that such adolescents may fall prey to it. Factors such as; prevailing cultural values, housing conditions and the physical environment, unhealthy family relations and/or conditions, lack of infrastructure necessary for personal development,

unsatisfactory economic circumstances, factors relating to social transformation and change, school related factors, especially the inability to achieve success at school or at other educational institutions. The US Task Force Report on Juvenile Delinquency (1967:51) exposed poor academic performance as a probable cause of involvement in delinquent acts (Siegel & Senna 1988:302-303). The US Task Force Report (1967) further revealed that under-achievement in scholastic performance showed a direct link with delinquent behaviour. Jerse and Fakouri (1978:108-109) discovered that academic insufficiency leading to early school leaving and ultimate antisocial or deviant behaviour shows a direct association with poor performance measured in terms of scores on standardised tests of basic skills, failure rates, teacher ratings and other academic measures. Similarly, researchers also offer the possibility "...that [an] observed relationship between school failure and delinquency is actually the result of another underlying social problem" (e.g. a turbulent or confused family life at home).

2.9.3.1. The school's failure in child socialisation

The school provides a much more complex socialisation setting than the family does, since more diverse forces interact and pull against each other. Hence, it is assumed that school is the first location of socialisation away from the family unit where a child can be exposed to ideas that are inconsistent with those learned at home. Furthermore, the school provides abundant ground for the making of choices of behaviour and establishment of companionship without any intervention by and dependence on parents (Kratcoski & Kratcoski 1990:146). Most American schools systems, as agents, of socialisation have been criticized for their apparent inability in many instances, to join the conflicting elements presented to by the community, to serve as the location of peer culture formation, and to produce a socially acceptable citizen (Kratcoski & Kratcoski 1990:146).

It is evident that the enforcement of discipline is recognised as a pressing social interaction problem. Most of the post-democracy schools in South Africa are characterised by a lack of

discipline. In fact, violence appears to be escalating in schools, aggravating the existing lack of discipline and impacting extremely negatively on learners (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2003:62).

Young black high school learners during the regime of apartheid in South Africa were a barometer of regular marginalisation and helplessness. Most schools were oppressive, but also became sites of a highly politicised struggle, a vehicle through which young people could declare their chance and role in society (Frank, 2006). By that it was seen as noble to be on the wrong side of the law. Violence was socially approved in the name of liberation. When some youngsters who had dropped out of school and returned to school during the transition to democracy, realized that there is no change that had taken place, they decide to go back home, to the street. As a result juvenile delinquency continues to escalate in South Africa (Bezuidenhout& Joubert 2003:145).

2.9.4. Drugs and Juvenile Delinquency

In most Indian neighborhoods, but more especially in the working class townships of Chatsworth and Phoenix, the problem of substance abuse has risen significantly over the last two decades for a range of reasons. While unemployment is one of the major contributors to the problem, the ready availability of numerous types of new drugs and their varying concoctions, has become an enticement to many youth who begin consumption through experimentation, gradually developing a dependence upon it (Singh, 2013). In South Africa, younger and younger children are experimenting with the use of a substance for the first time. According to Bartollas (1997:328) it is evident that drug and alcohol abuse, along with juvenile delinquency, are two of the most serious problems that adolescents are faced with. It has also been found that there is a quicker or easier spread of HIV/Aids within the population of drug users. The adolescent who engaged themselves in the habit of substance abuse sometimes prefers substances that are not costly, like beer and marijuana. Crime can be committed as a result of the effect of drugs and also for “victimless” crime. This does not

mean there is no one who is ever hurt but, rather, that participants consider themselves willingly involved and there is rarely anyone who claims to have been victimised.

Most recently the infiltration of “sugars” has made its presence known among the adolescents of Chatsworth in particular. The ease with which the accessibility and availability of “sugars” has overwhelmed the market is predictable, given the well-established drug networks already in existence. “Sugars”, is the township euphemism for a mixture of residual heroin and cocaine “cut” (packed to give bulk) with anything from rat poison to household detergents and baby powder, it is a cheap addictive drug that has swept the youth of Chatsworth into a social mayhem (Mail & Guardian, 21 April 2006). The effects of the drug have hastened the devastation of the social and moral fabric of the community and have led to the further breakdown of parental control within families and households. “Sugars” is being sold in the school grounds, on street corners, in residential drug dens and in the taxis. Youth as young as 10 years of age are known to be “using” and peddling the drug (Pattundeen, 2008).

According to the South African Institute of Race Relations (Holborn & Eddy, 2011), the abuse of alcohol and drugs has a negative effect on adolescents, and that it is likely to contribute to victimization rates, juvenile delinquency rates, school drop-out rates, and mental health problems. For example, a study of just over 1 500 Grade 8-10 pupils in Cape Town found that those who reported using ‘tik’ had higher rates of aggression, depression, and generic mental health problems. It may also be that mental health problems such as depression are causing adolescents to use drugs and alcohol.

Many theorists (Merton, 1957; Jones, 1960) continue to debate whether drugs cause delinquency, or delinquency leads to drug abuse, or some other factors precede both delinquency and the onset of drug use (Bartollas 1997:340). The extensive work with the National Youth Survey suggests that the use of alcohol and marijuana precedes serious delinquent acts. Other studies suggest that “conduct” problems and impulsivity often precede not only the development of delinquency but also alcohol and drug abuse problems (Giancola & Parker 2001;). It has been indicated tents with a diagnosis of conduct disorders are at an increased risk for both juvenile delinquency and substance use disorders and that the risk for

both types of behaviour is arbitrated through genetic and psychosocial risk factors associated with early externalizing disorders (Biederman, Mick, Faraone, & Burback 2001).

Dependency on drugs or alcohol is expensive and may drive people to crime if they have no other means of supporting their habit. It may also directly contribute to violent crime if taken in excess, especially if taken in a group context where there is a strong social pressure to conform to the group rules (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2003:56). To add to that, people under the influence of alcohol or drugs often behave in an irresponsible and reckless manner. Such behaviours may lead them to commit serious crimes. It has been pointed out that the use of drugs in itself does not necessarily initiate criminal careers. However, it may intensify and perpetuate them (Rhoca-Silva & Stahmer 1997:01).

There are theories which suggest that the bleak economic situation in the family has created a generation of adolescents who experience doubts, hopelessness, and uncertainty on an everyday basis. This hopelessness, position, has encouraged them to find ways to seek solace and relief from their pain. Drug and alcohol abuse had been seen as capable of immediately fixing their hopelessness though in the long run creates other problems (Rhoca-Silva & Stahmer 1997). Barlow and Ferdinand (1992:103) hypothesize that if a child spends some time with peers whose attitudes and behaviour favour marijuana use, that child is more likely to use marijuana than a child who spends a lot of time with friends who frown on its use and are non-users themselves. It is concluded, therefore, that through association with other users, the child will also learn the techniques of marijuana use and the deviant values and attitudes that support it. There are two basic pathways possible for substance abusing adolescents. Some maybe only substance abusers and are not involved in other delinquent activities. Those offenders may cease from substance abuse during their adolescence or may continue to use drugs as adults. Alternatively, substance abusing adolescents may also participate in other delinquent acts. These adolescents too, may cease from one or both types of activity during adolescent or continue to be in one or both as adults. There is some evidence that drug addicts, like those with a history of delinquency and criminality, sometimes have a turning point, or change, when they walk away from drug use. Those who are deeply deep-rooted in the drug world as adolescents and continue on in their adult years find it particularly difficult to give up drugs. Those who are to stay straight, life typically must have had a religious

experience or may have had an extremely positive experience in a therapeutic community for drug addicts (Bartollas 1997).

2.9.5. Gangs and Delinquency

South Africa is facing probably one of the greatest challenges in its history other than apartheid, namely crime. Violent crime manifests itself in various forms throughout the country and in the Western Cape gangsterism is the problem. From October 1, 1994 to March 30, 1995 in the six magisterial districts of Mitchell's Plain, Manenberg, Phillipi, Bishop Lavis, Bellville South and Elsies River which make up the Cape Flats, a total of 253 murders occurred. Half of these and nearly half the attempted murder charges recorded by the police were gang related. This predominance of gangster crimes characterizes crime in several communities of the Western Cape. In Manenberg, the heart of the Cape Flats gangland, there were 44 murders, 28 of which (or 63%) were as a result of gang violence. In the same area nearly half the 99 attempted murder charges were gang related (Kinnes, 1995). According to Pinnock's study on Cape Town gangs in 1980s he argues that coloured gangs exist as a means of survival in and resistance to the socio-economic and political forces that reproduce poverty in the racial ghettos of the Cape Flats: "Ganging is primarily survival technique, and it is obvious that as long as the city is party of the socio-economic system which produces poverty, no amount of policing with stop the ghetto brotherhoods" (1980:99).

Barlow and Ferdinand (1992:86) assert that gangs originate in a variety of ways. Adolescents cluster during adolescence to find answers too many new and urgent questions such as: How do their changing appearance and stature compare with that of others? What sense can they make of their new experience and discoveries? Which peers can they trust with their closest secrets without being ridiculed? Adolescent cliques regularly form on the basis of a need for mutual confirmation. They form and change in terms of adolescent sudden craze. To add more to this discussion, Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1990:94) postulate that gangs develop from spontaneous play groups, when threats from youthful enemies lead them to protect their territory through mutual support. Groups that evolve into gangs develop a formalised structure with defined leadership status, division of labour, distinctive style of dress and well defined goals. It is also important to note that not all gangs are posing a danger to the society, although they may put their members at risk of law breaking. Gang membership and gang

related crimes are primarily a youth problem (Rogers, 1981). Acquiring membership in a gang, especially at an early age, is strongly associated with future criminal activity. Many gangs exist for crime which is often committed to control the local drug market (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2003:67).

Pinnock (1996), his writing on gangs in the Western Cape, argues that one of the reasons why the youth easily identify with street gangs is that the associations fulfil the need for a rite of passage from childhood to adolescence and adulthood. He argues that the traditional society provided support and a sense of direction to young people graduating to adulthood. Youth were made to feel accepted and important in the society, goals were set which motivated and challenged them to strive for social acceptance. If they failed, the community intervened to restore harmony. In the urban context, however, the importance of ritual has been submerged in the struggle for survival and young people devise their own rites of passage.

Gang sometimes plays an important role in solving some of the problems that adolescents face in the impersonal competitive world. In the absence of better ways of resolving self-worth and status issues, they turn to violence and organise themselves in terms of their ability to intimidate and pressurize one another. Where other more peaceful methods are available; the adolescent are likely to be involved in such activities and may not get involved in criminal activities (Thornberry, 1998). When these are unavailable, as for many lower or working class youngsters, they are left with little choice but to form their own clichés, if they want to think of themselves as worthy individuals (Barlow & Ferdinand 1992:88). This is the reason Cloward and Ohlin (1960) advance a view that delinquent behaviour is a search for solutions to the problem of adjustment that arises when lower class youths must face and recognize a discrepancy between their aspirations and the opportunities open to them for achieving their goals. Kratcoski & Kratcoski (1990:97) holds a similar view.

Although there may be many other contributing factors that may lead to delinquency and among most of the working class youngsters had to be blamed; though it is the environment, that some of the youngsters find themselves in that may be held responsible for the development of gangs (Glanz & Schurink, 1993).

It has been predicted that most of the time of the children from such a background are often unwilling to sit quietly in class, to listen dutifully to their teachers, and to do their homework

regularly. Instead they are unruly and approach the learning experience reluctantly. They perform poorly at their schools work and earn their teachers and classmates scorn. They develop a poor reputation in the eyes of their classmates, and in turn, working class children cliques think make more sense to them (Barlow & Ferdinand 1992:88).

2.10. Conclusion:

This chapter provided reviews of relevant international and national legislation on and for juveniles and juvenile delinquency; the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency in South Africa; and the possible risk factors of juvenile delinquency among adolescents.

Chapter Three:

Theoretical Explanations of Juvenile Delinquency

3.1 Introduction

Bezuidenhout and Joubert (2003:80) opine that a primary aim in the field of criminology is to explain the commission of crime and criminal behaviour. Such explanations attempt to address the question of why crime occurs and, based on these explanations, to predict the onset of criminal behaviour (Barlow & Ferdinand 1992:13). In an endeavour to explain youth misconduct, various theories have been developed (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2003:80). Some theories are called macro-theories, which are concerned with large-scale phenomena such as social change or the economic and political organization of the society. Other theories are called micro-theories, which focus on the ways in which individuals interact with others and

with their immediate groups. To add more to that, generally theories are meant to explain a broad array of facts and are not restricted to time or place (Barlow & Ferdinand 1992:14)

Maderthaner (2005) expands on this argument by maintaining that different theories on tentative explanations for the causes of youth offending have been developed over time. Since the study of delinquency is essentially interdisciplinary, theoretical explanations on the causes of these phenomena reflect different avenues of inquiry, including biology, psychology, sociology and criminology.

Given that this study focusses on trends in delinquent behaviour, this chapter will provide explanations of the following theories that relate to this study: The Social disorganization by Mark and Shaw; Differential Association Theory by Edwin Sutherland; Social Bond Theory by Travis Hirsch and the Differential Opportunity Structure Theory by Cloward and Ohlin.

3.2 Social Disorganisation Theory

The social disorganisation approach has dominated sociological explanation of crime, with its origin in the Chicago school and work of Shaw and Mckay. This approach has emphasized the importance of social rules in the maintenance of social organization (Burke, 2005). It has actually directed its attention towards the problems encountered by groups, small geographical areas, and even the whole society where there is a breakdown or disturbance in the rules that guide social behaviour. In the actual sense of the word, social disorganization occurs when rules can no longer maintain the smooth functioning of the society (Vetter & Silverman 1986:297).

The generic assumption of social disorganization as an explanation of delinquency revolves around the notion that delinquency is primarily the result of a disturbance of institutional, community-based controls (Bartollas, 2000). It is postulated that individuals who live in such

situation are not necessarily “themselves” and they are personally disoriented. Furthermore, disorganisation of the community-based institution is often caused by rapid industrialisation, urbanization and immigration processes. There is also another assumption which claims that when community or society is disorganised that result into the development of criminal values and traditions (Shoemaker 1990:82).

Siegel (2001:192-193) postulate that social disorganisation theory pays more attention to the social environment and specifically, urban conditions that affect crime rate. Furthermore, these theories center around three variables: poverty, residential mobility and racial heterogeneity. These factors according to theories generate social disorganisation, which, in turn contribute to crime. Squatter camps, for example, in South Africa display such indication of social disorganisation. Housing structures are dilapidated, many residents are unemployed and single or no parent households occur partly due to HIV/Aids pandemic (Joubert, 2003).

3.2.1 The work of Shaw & McKay

The social disorganisation theories explain the distribution of delinquency and the importance of family influence on the prevalence on this kind of deviant behaviour. The connection between social disorganisation and delinquency is associated with the writings of Shaw and McKay (1969). Both these theorists constructed the *concentric zone model* which, according to this schema, the city of Chicago is divided into five zones or circles (Vetter & Silverman 1986:300). In their investigation of relationship between delinquency and conditions of social disorganisation they found the highest concentration of delinquency in zone 1 and 2. They also discovered that delinquent rates declined in a *gradient pattern* from the center of the city towards zone five. In some areas the highest rate of delinquency can be attributed to high population, economic dependence and high rate of school truancy (Kratcoski & Kratcoski 1979:79). They further discovered that delinquency remained high in specific areas of Chicago, despite the changes in ethnic and racial composition of the population. That discovery led them to conclude that delinquency producing factors are inherent in the nature of the community. Furthermore, Shaw and McKay (1969) purport that the differences in areas where there is high rate of delinquency versus the areas of low rate of delinquencies that can on its own also be attributed to differences in norms, social values, and attitudes to

which children are exposed. It has also been envisaged that in areas where there is low rate of delinquency there is uniform acceptance of conventional values, conformity to the law, education, and other related matters. In such areas formal association exerts pressure on children to keep them engaged in conventional activities (Vetter & Silverman 1986:42).

Shaw and McKay also discovered that children living in high delinquency areas are exposed to a wide variety of norms and standards of behaviour. In such areas there appears to be a competition between conventional standards and deviant values. Here it is evident that a youngster may be exposed to institutions such as the school and church which expose conventional values and at the same time come into contact with the group that had already engaged in unconventional or criminal activities (Empey et al, 1999).

Reid (1982:133-134) draws attention to very important correlations made by Shaw and McKay:

- a) Community characteristics and the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency confirmed a positive relationship between economic status of families; family mobility within the community, and the heterogeneity of families.
- b) Unemployment, poverty and heterogeneity of the family are likely to result in weak control which, in turn, may precipitate higher rates of delinquent acts.

3.2.1.1 Evaluation of Social Disorganisation Theory

The contributions of Shaw and McKay (1969) are not immune to criticism. Here are some of the flaws noted in this theory: it has overlooked the importance of the fact that the police are distributed unequally among different sectors of the city. That is, there is focused police patrolling in the central city areas than in suburban communities. It seems to ignore the fact that some people are not likely to report crime to the police. There is also evidence that the rates of delinquency among black people were very high only during the period of migration to urban settings, but once adjusted, they declined (Vetter & Silverman 1986:302; Shoemaker 1990:89; and Adler, Muller, & Laufer 1995:121).

3.3 Differential Association Theory

This theory was developed by Edwin H. Sutherland, from which he had shown some differences from earlier theories in a number of ways, some of which are given here below. He highlights the fact that social disorganisation and anomie theories to name a few, did not properly explain the behaviour of individuals. His focus was not directed at an association among people, but rather revolved around a connection of ideas and behaviour (Netter 1984:239). He proposed specific statements (or principles), which form the major component of his theory (Shoemaker 1990:149; and Adler *et al.* 1995:124).

Bartollas (2000:137), De Keseredy and Schwartz (1996:225), Cullen and Agnew (2003:132) and Carrabine *et al.* (2004:56) provide a concise overview of Sutherland's differential association theory. This is done by using the nine propositions implemented by Sutherland:

Proposition 1: Criminal behaviour is learned, not inherited. To be precise, people do not commit crime because of inborn predispositions. Instead, they utilise previously acquired experiences in the commission of crime and delinquency (Brown *et al.*, 2001:325).

Proposition 2: Criminal behaviour is learned through interaction with other persons in a process of communication, which can be verbal or non-verbal; direct or indirect. Joubert (2003:91) explains "*People actively learn as they interact with other individuals who serve as teachers and guides to crime – thus criminality cannot occur without the aid of others*".

Proposition 3: The principal of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal groups. This statement allows for the influences of impersonal, mass media influences on behaviour, but it stresses the overwhelming importance of personal relationship on norms and actions. In this regard, Binder *et al.* (2001:178) claim that in order to look for the source of criminal behaviour; one must look at the socialising experiences of an individual.

Proposition 4: When criminal behaviour is learned, the learning includes techniques of committing crime, which are sometimes very complicated or simple; and the specific

direction of motives, drives, rationalization, and attitudes. Thus, the learning of criminal behaviour involves not only how the behaviour is committed, but also why it is to be done.

Proposition 5: The specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favourable or unfavourable; *definitions* in this statement refer to attitudes toward the law. Here it is also recognized that attitudes are not consistently favourable or unfavourable but are most often mixed and conflicting for an individual.

Proposition 6: A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law. This statement represents the differential association principle- the „heart“ of the theory. It refers both to criminal and anti-criminal association and has to do with counteracting forces. When people become criminals they do so because of contacts with criminal patterns and also because of isolation from anti-criminal patterns.

Proposition 7: Differential association may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity. These terms exhibit an effort to qualify the effect of definitions concerning the law or behaviour. Priority indicates that associations formed in early childhood may take precedence in influence over later association or, actually, to the power of influence one person or group may have over another.

Proposition 8: The process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anti-criminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning. The learning of criminal behaviour is complex and is not restricted to mere imitation. Criminal behaviour may differ from non-criminal behaviour, but the learning process through which the respective behaviours are acquired is the same.

Proposition 9: While criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those needs and values, since non-criminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values. Theft and honest labour have the same goal-making money to obtain some measure of happiness and satisfaction in life. It is thus, important to take a note of the fact that the goals of delinquent and non-delinquents are often the same although means are different.

3.3.1 Evaluation of the Differential Association Theory

It is evident from various writings that the theory of Sutherland was never immune to criticism, although it has made a significant contribution towards the understanding of juvenile delinquency (Shoemaker 1990:155-161; Vetter & Silverman 1986: 340; Adler *et al.* 1995:125; Regoli & Hewitt 1991:94-95). There are for example, some of the sharpest attacks that focused on the contention that criminal behaviour is learned. The gist of the statement adds nothing new to the understanding of criminality, and that it downplays influences of individualistic factors. In a nutshell, differential association theory may serve a better explanation of why people do commit acts of delinquency rather than why they do not commit offences (De Keseredy & Schwartz 1996:226). Another criticism focuses on the time sequence that is proposed: which comes first, differential association or delinquency? Some criminologists believe delinquency occurs first; only later do delinquents select other delinquents as associates. Sutherland, though, insists that associates are chosen first, and then they socialize each other into becoming delinquents (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:95). Another criticism of differential association theory is that it is too general and fail account for certain types of crime with unique features such as those committed under provocation or pressure circumstance. Despite the criticisms of Edwin Sutherland's theory, it offers a reasonable explanation of individual delinquency within an environmental context, although the numerous critical comments concerning its scope and logic cannot be ignored (Vetter & Silverman 1986:340).

3.4. Theory of Differential Opportunity-Structure:

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) suggested that lower-class male delinquents are goal-oriented beings; who are able to rationally assess their economic situation and to plan for their future accordingly. Furthermore, they also propounded that the *opportunity* to commit illegal acts is distributed evenly throughout society, just as opportunities are to engage in conformist behaviour (Brown et al, 2001). Essentially, Cloward and Ohlin argued that lower-class gang delinquency occurs in their criminal, drug-oriented or retreatist (Schoemaker 1990:125-126; Regoli and Hewitt 1991:107).

The first kind of delinquent subculture is appropriately called the *criminal subculture*. This type of delinquent subculture emerges when there is a presence of organised, adult criminal activity in a lower-class neighbourhood. There are illegitimate opportunities to become reasonably wealthy because the community has (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:107): adult role models (successful adult criminals). Integration of age levels, so younger people learn from the older people how to commit offences and how to handle them when they get caught. Cooperation between offenders and supposedly legitimate people in the community such as lawyers, prosecutors, politicians' etc. control of delinquency by adult criminals, who make them decrease unnecessary violence in favour of strictly money-making offences (Tierney, 1996).

The second type of delinquent subculture involves *conflict*, where violence will be predominant. Here, the violence is not characterized as stemming primarily from psychopathic personalities or from reaction formation. The emergence of violence can be attributed to the absence of a stable system of social control which can be induced by either adult criminal or conventional adult models (Anderson & Dyson, 2003). Adolescents use violence as a means of obtaining some kind of status and success not because non-violent, theft oriented avenues of success are not available to them. Because they are there is no integration of different age levels, because older offenders have no impressive knowledge to pass on to younger ones. In addition, there is little cooperation between offenders and legitimate members of the community because people like lawyers and politicians do not stand to gain by assisting adult criminals who are object failures. Also, on the other hand, adult criminals have neither the ability nor the inclination to make delinquents reduce their violent activities. The dearth of legitimate and illegitimate opportunities frustrates some other boys and they easily turn to violence (Regoli & Hewitt 1991:107).

The third type of delinquent subculture is called *retreatist*. Those juveniles who subscribe to this type are described as "double failures" in the sense that they cannot succeed in either conventional or criminal world and they turn either to alcohol or drug abuse (Moyer, 2001). It is important to note that not all double failures are members of retreatist or subculture. Some scale down their aspirations and become "corner boys" as Cohen once suggested. The response portrayed by the boys to the situation is being guided by their associations and

circumstances that they are exposed to. Schrang (1971) explains in his critique of differential opportunity theory that Cloward and Ohlin have been criticized for their failure to define key concepts such as “double failure, perception of opportunity, elimination of guilt, and denial of legitimacy” in terms that permit them to be tested empirically or relating to existing research. They are also criticized for their failure to clearly and specifically describe the point at which a collectively becomes a gang (Vetter & Silverman 1986:324).

According to Shoemaker (1990:133); Vetter and Silverman (1986:324); Short and Strodbeck (1965) indicate in their research that juveniles engage in a wide variety of delinquent and non-delinquent activities. The gang behaviour is envisaged as versatile rather than specialized, and that specialization, when it occurs, tends to be limited to cliques that forms within gangs; for example “semi-professional theft” such as burglary, auto striping, shop-lifting etc. Short and Strodbeck (1965) also suggest that sometimes that there may be a “parent delinquent sub-culture” which characterizes all gangs in general. Cloward and Ohlin have been criticized for propounding a theory which is class-oriented. If their theory can be accepted as is, how can middle-class delinquency are explained. Anyway, despite the shortcomings, of this theory, it is important to note that it has identified some of the reasons why lower-class youngster may become alienated and eventually land up in the “rough” that is delinquency.

3.5 The Social Bond Theory

Travis Hirschi (1969) could perhaps be regarded as the most productive and successful exponent of social control theory. However, he does not appear to be the most prominent voice in regard to the relationship between social control and juvenile delinquency (Adler *et al.* 1995:161).

As far back as 1957, Jackson Toby thought that the term *individual commitment* would be the most “...powerful determining force for the social control of behaviour” (Adler *et al.* 1995:161). That observation or finding has been substantially supported by Scott Brair and Irving Piliavin (1965) who both jibe that *commitment* and *conformity* by a child through: (a) his or her (positive) relationships with adult authority figures (e.g. parents, school teachers, church ministers, etc.), (b) with friends, and (c) a Christian “...belief in God”, (c) affection

for those peers who display conformist behaviour in social life and who assert a positive influence (through example and interaction) on other young people, (d) occupational aspirations (i.e. to acknowledge the investment in one's own future and the ultimate process of self-actualisation, (e) attachment to parents (i.e. acknowledging the power of parental discipline), (f) a desire to achieve the highest degree of success at school and, lastly, (g) fear of material deprivations and punishments associated with arrest, would counter juvenile delinquency (Ellis & Walsh 2000). *Individual motivation* (a desire to nurture valuables, etc.) plays an equally important role in the process of control. Hirschi distinguished himself from Toby, in the sense that he was not so much interested in what sources causes a juvenile to engage in deviant acts, than “...*why people do not commit such acts*” (Adler *et al.* 1995:162-162), simply because social control theory explains conformity and adherence to rules and prescriptions; *not deviant acts*.

Hirschi's *social bond* theory is, therefore, not geared towards determining “why children commit crime”. Hirschi's approaches the issue of juvenile delinquency from a different angle by means of trying to establish why conformists (i.e. those people who acknowledge and adhere to the formal rules and prescriptions and act accordingly as law-abiding citizens) *do not violate the law or engage in minor transgressions* (Bartollas, 2000). According to Travis Hirschi, people “...do not break laws to the extent that they have internalised law abiding norms or developed social bonds... humans, like other animals will violate rules if those rules have not been socially indoctrinated (inculcated through a proper socialization process) as part of moral code” in them (Brown *et al.* 1996:309). Hirschi (1969), quoted by these authors, explains this event by referring to a chicken that gets corn from the neighbour's barnyard: the chicken knows nothing about moral law (“thou shall not steal”); it instinctively eats the corn irrespective of whether it knows who the owner of the corn is. There is no real motivation to commit a crime. Hirschi (2002) maintains that weakened or broken social bonds will lead to a decline in conformity and eventually surrender to deviant impulses. The weaker the one (ties with parents or the social order), the stronger the other one (juvenile delinquency). Social bonds will not reduce the motivation to commit crime, but only reduce the probability to become susceptible to such motivations.

3.5.1. Elements of social bonding

Hirschi (1969) identifies four different elements of social bonding (Adler *et al.* 1995:162-163; Bartollas 2000:149-150; Brown, Tate, Vik, Haas, & Aarons 1996:309-311; Maguire, Morgan, & Reiner 2000:350-353):

- **Attachment**, which includes attachment to (a) parents, (b) school, and (c) peers. Hirschi opines that a child who has formed a significant attachment to a parent is unlikely to participate in deviant acts out of fear of damaging the relationship with his or her parent(s) (Joubert, 2002). The strength between a child and his or her parents depends on the depth and quality of the interaction between the two entities. This bond is strengthened through: (i) the amount of time the child spends with his or her parents, (ii) the intimacy of communication between them, i.e. between parent and the child. *Sensitivity* to the opinions of others (e.g. teachers) forms the gist of the matter as far as this element of bonding (attachment) is concerned, especially as it relates to the *essence of internalisation (learning) of norms (laws and regulations) and to the conscience or superego* (Wells and Rankin 1998). To the extent that an individual cares about what others think of him or her, he or she is controlled. Hirschi empirically tested the *opinions of an adolescent about conventional others* (teachers) through the following variables (Adler *et al.* 1995:162):

“Do you care what teachers think of you?”

- (a) I care a lot.
- (b) I care some.
- (c) I do not care much.

The inability to function well in school: academic incompetence leads to poor school performance which, in turn, leads to a dislike of administrators. This chain of events may lead to juvenile delinquency. On the other hand, attachment to school is facilitated through a youngster’s appreciation for his or her school as well as the education system itself, perceptions of how he or she is received by teachers and peers and, lastly, the level of achievement in class. Attachment to parents and peers usually dominates attachment to school and thus indicates the best predictors of conformity (Brown et al, 2000).

- **Commitment** is based on the assumption that people (also youngsters) are *rational*; they will contemplate the consequences of actions before acting. An individual is committed to the degree that he or she is willing to invest time, energy, and himself or herself to conventional activities, such as educational goals, property, or reputation, and other valued conditions which discourage delinquent behaviour (Williams & Mc Shane 1999; Carrabine et al 2004). Hirschi (2002) contends that if juveniles are committed to conventional values and activities, they develop a stake in conformity and will refrain from delinquent behaviour.
- **Involvement** this is another element which had also played a part toward the achievement of society goals that are social conventional orders. This element focuses attention on the types of activities that occupy the individual's day, and assumes that individuals that engage in conventional activities may be too busy to find time to pursue deviant behaviour (Hirshi, 2002). In a society there are structures such as schools for example which have extracurricular activities such as school plays, clubs, athletic events, etc. Involvement in any or all of these structures may curtail an individual from engaging in delinquent activities. Hirschi (2002) contends that a person involved in conventional activities is tied to appointments, deadlines, working hours, plans, and the like. Directed or motivated by all these involvements a person may not have time to for engaging in delinquent acts (De Keseredy & Schwartz 1996).
- **Belief** Hirschi's control theory postulates that, although people have been socialized into a common set of beliefs- respect for the law and social norms, delinquency is likely to develop due to their ineffectiveness of such beliefs if they happen to be ineffective Yablonsky (2000). .

3.5.2 The evaluation of the Social Bond Theory

According to Bartollas (2000:154), Travis Hirschi's theory has provided valuable insights into delinquent behaviour. It has considered the importance of the intra-family relationship as the one that can contribute towards shaping the youngster to conformity. However, this

theory has been criticised for its neglect of the origin of social bonds and their varying strengths. Control theory asserts that deviant behaviour is a consequence of weak bonds with the conventional order. To attribute behaviour, either deviance or conformity, to the strength of social bonds is only a partial answer. If social bonds are responsible for the behaviour, the obvious concern is to understand those bonds. If, as Hirschi claims, there is variation in the strength of bonds, it becomes essential to account for such differences (Maguire *et al.* 2000:354).

3.6. Conclusion

In this chapter a brief discussion of theories were included, as a means of explaining juvenile delinquency. Four theories were chosen based on the ability to adequately enlighten the reader with regards to juvenile delinquents and their progression towards juvenile delinquency.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology and Design

4.1. Introduction

Research methodology is concerned with the researcher's definitive goals and the general plan the researcher formulates for achieving these goals. According to Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:39), research methodology includes conceptualization: construction of variables, purposes and structures, as well as disadvantages of different types of the research design, the logic of causal inferences and sampling theory. This chapter discusses the research methodology and the design of the study. This includes research methods, method used to analyse the data, and procedures used to ensure reliability and ethical considerations.

4.2. The relevance of reviewing the literature

The literature, on juvenile delinquency, reviewed provided extensive information about juvenile delinquency and a deeper understanding of the concepts of juvenile delinquency. Before any attempt was made to construct a questionnaire, the in-depth literature surveyed as indicated in Chapter two, facilitated the process. Thorough and critical engagement with relevant literature informed the theoretical and intellectual foundation upon which the empirical study was built.

Another reason for conducting a literature review was to ensure that no critical issues relating to juvenile delinquency are ignored. In most research, it is possible that some of the critical issues are never brought out in the questionnaires, either because the researcher does not articulate them or are unaware of their impact, or because the issues seem obvious to the researcher that they are not stated. If, there were issues that are not identified during the administration of questionnaires but that influence the problem critically, then doing research without considering them would be an exercise in futility (Sekeran, 1992:37). Such errors were avoided in this investigation of juvenile delinquency trends among secondary school going adolescents

4.3. Sampling design

Non probability sampling techniques are employed for situations in which sampling would be prohibitively expensive and when precise representativeness is not necessary (Babbie, 1990:97). Non probability sampling is non-random and is useful in pilot surveys. Its obvious disadvantage is that no representativeness of the sample can be claimed. It is less expensive and may be carried on a spur-of-the moment basis (Bailey, 1987:92).

4.3.1. Characteristics of non-probability sampling

Bailey (1987), points out the following characteristics of non-probability sampling:

- Every person who meets the criteria is asked to participate. In this study, for example, all the grade 8-11 school learners who attended the two designated secondary schools were asked to participate in the study.
- It is a less complicated and more economical procedure than random sampling.
- The researcher's judgment is used to select individual subjects who meet the eligibility criteria.

4.3.2 Sample

The following section describes the procedures that were employed in applying the non-probability sampling technique and the rationale for choosing this technique. The participants were male and female grade eight, nine, ten and eleven learners in two secondary schools in Chatsworth. These participants were recommended by the principals of the respective schools. Every learner from each of the grades was then invited to participate. The 750 learners who were present on the day the questionnaires were administered formed the final sample.

Kidder and Judd (1986) define a sample as a process of selecting some of the elements with the aim of finding out something about the population from which they are taken. Simon and Burstein (1992) define a sample as a collection of observation for which you have data with you from which you are going to work. Sekeran (1992) defines it as a subject or subgroup of the population confirms this definition. Sampling is used as a process of selecting sufficient number of elements from the population so that by studying the properties or the characteristics of the sample of subjects, the researcher would be able to generalize the properties or characteristics to the population elements (Sekeran 1992:369).

Sampling techniques are used when it is impossible to measure the entire population representing the phenomenon under study. If the sample is large enough and scientifically selected, it represents theoretically the population from which it is drawn (Reid, 1982:74-75). In the present study sampling techniques were employed for the following reasons:

- (a) Interviewing or administering questionnaires to all learners from all given secondary schools would require a large staff component.

- (b) By selecting a representative sample of learners from sampled secondary schools, greater response rate and, greater co-operation could be achieved than it would have been in a full population survey (Babbie, 1990:65-66; Bailey, 1987:84).

The researcher visited the two secondary schools in Chatsworth and gained permission (See Annexure B) from the principals to administer the questionnaires to the grade 8; 9; 10 and 11 learners. Table 1 below shows the breakdown of the participants per school.

School	Total Population	Sample Population
Asoka Secondary	695	417
Risecliff Secondary	725	333
Total	1420	750 (N)

Table 1: Sampling distribution of the final questionnaire

4.4 Data collection

The term method in this inquiry is used to refer to ways in which evidence is obtained and manipulated, or, more conventionally, to techniques of data collection and analysis (Blaikie, 2000). In this study, questionnaires were used to obtain data relevant to the study's objectives and research questions. The purpose of the study was to understand trends of juvenile delinquency among school going adolescents in a select sample of schools in Chatsworth. The researcher approached learners recommended by the principals of the schools. Every learner who was willing to participate in the study required parental/guardian consent (See Annexure F) from their parent/guardian before completing the questionnaire, since the participants were under the age of eighteen. An informed consent form also needed to be completed by the learner for their voluntary participation in the study (See Annexure E). The questionnaires were handed to learners, as a class unit, by their Life Orientation (L.O.) educators during their Life Orientation (L.O.) periods and each learner took almost 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. . The researcher was available at the school to attend to any query.

4.4.1. Data collection instrument

Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:89) identify three basic techniques for gathering data, namely direct observation, learning from recorded sources and communication with others about what they have observed or experienced. Communication with others about what they have observed or experienced involves the use of questionnaires. In the present study questionnaires were used as a tool to gather data. The term "questionnaire" refers to a list of questions to be answered by a survey respondent. The term is restricted to a self-administered instrument as opposed to an interview. Questionnaires are thus forms containing questions to be answered by the respondent himself (Bailey, 1987:469-470). Sekeran (1992) regards it as an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variable of interest. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:207), questionnaire writing involves deciding what variables to measure and how to accurately and adequately measure the variables. The researcher used closed or fixed alternative questions.

The closed or fixed-alternative questions were considered to be a suitable since according to Schultz (1982:44), the fixed alternative question limits a person's answer to a fixed number of alternatives. Haralambos (1985:511) defines closed or fixed choice questions as those questions that require a choice between a number of given answers. O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:210) also define closed-ended questions as those questions that ask the respondents to choose from a list of responses.

4.4.1.1 Characteristics of a questionnaire

Ackroyd and Hughes (1981) state that the following aspects characterise a questionnaire:

- A questionnaire is practical
- Large amounts of information can be collected from large number of people in a short period of time and in a relatively cost effective way.
- The questionnaire can be carried out by the researcher or by a number of people with limited affect to it validity and reliability

- The results of the questionnaires can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package.
- The results can be analysed more “scientifically” and objectively than other forms of research.
- The data has been quantified, it can be used to compare and contrast other research and may be used to measure change.

Based on the above list of characteristics the questionnaire was the most relevant data generating tool to use in this study.

4.4.1.2. Structure of the questionnaire

The format of the questionnaire (See Annexure A) was drawn after consulting a variety of sources. The questionnaire was divided into 8 sections which consist of 25 items that span a wide range of delinquent acts which comprised of closed questions, attempted to determine juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in Chatsworth.

Section A: demographic particulars

- Gender
- Age
- Race
- Religious group

Section B: Discipline Methods/Practices

According to Glueck & Glueck, 1950, Nye, 1958; McCord et al., 1959) disciplinary practices of parents are important in guiding children toward a clear conception of differences of right and wrong; wrong disciplinary practices have serious consequences in the development of child's personality; and some forms of discipline (inconsistent, erratic, physical) lead to certain types of juvenile delinquent acts. The discipline methods are the following:

- Physical punishment with a stick

- Refusal of permission to visit a friend or watch TV
- Scolding (verbal warnings)

Section C: Norm Violations

According to Glanz (1990a) norm violations are actually status offences and only lead to welfare intervention if repeatedly committed. Norm violations can also refer to delinquent acts which are not necessarily forbidden by law but their nature affects the well-being of the juvenile and detrimental to society. Delinquent acts included under norm violations are the following:

- Staying away from school without a valid excuse
- Sleeping out of home without permission
- Objecting to discipline from parents or teachers

Section D: Regulation Violations

Regulation violations refer laws promulgated by the state to regulate behaviours of members of society. Violations of these regulations lead to official action by law enforcement agencies. There are a variety of these regulations but only those that are within the abilities of young persons to commit are included. Therefore delinquent acts included under regulation violations are the following:

- Driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence
- Entering a bar or bottle store or any other place where alcohol is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old.
- Watching a video or film which is reserved for "adults only" without parental permission.
- Drinking of beer, wine or hard liquor without parental permission

Section E: Alcohol and Drug Abuse

Adolescents who use alcohol and drugs become involved in the juvenile justice process in a number of ways. For a young person alcohol and drug use are illegal activities as are the dealing in these substances. The delinquent acts under alcohol and drug abuse for this present study consist of the following:

- Inhaling glue or petrol to get a “kick”
- Taking Mandrax or dagga or any other drug to get a “kick”.
- Drank alcoholic beverages in their life time without parental permission

Section F: Violence

No society approves of violence, especially not violence intended to harm its members. All acts of violence are serious offences and as construed in this study violent acts are those that lead to official action. Three delinquency items are constructed for violence in this present study that is:

- Taking part in a fist fight
- Injuring somebody with a weapon like stick, knife or stone.
- Bullying someone just to see how that person reacts when threatened

Section G: Theft

By definition, common theft is the unlawful, intentional taking or removal of a movable object that belongs to someone else (Van Rooyen and Snyman, 1982:99). The following Delinquent acts are included under theft:

- Taking things from a shop or elsewhere without paying for them.
- Avoid paying in a bus or taxi by sneaking in

Section H: Malicious Damage to property

Malicious damage of property is ascribed to many conflicting situations in which adolescents find themselves. Strain theorists (Cohen, 1955; Cloward & Ohlin, 1960) ascribe it to non-utilitarian, malicious and conflict character of the delinquent subculture. The following delinquent acts are selected to constitute for malicious damage to property:

- Destroying school property
- Setting fire on property belonging to someone else.

The questionnaire which consisted of four demographic items and twenty delinquency items made up of closed questions or fixed alternatives, attempted to to understand trends of juvenile delinquency among school going adolescents in a select sample of schools in Chatsworth.

4.4.2. Questionnaire reliability and validity

4.4.2.1. Reliability

Carmines and Zeller (1979:11) say that reliability concerns the extent to which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials. Put otherwise, reliability is a tendency toward consistency found in repeated measurements of the same phenomenon. The more consistent the results given by repeated measurements, the higher the reliability of the measuring procedure: conversely the less consistent the results, the lower the reliability (Cozby 2001). To ensure reliability of this research study the researcher applied the preceding principles.

4.4.2.2. Validity

According to Joppe (2000) validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are. In other words, does the research instrument allow you to hit "the bull's eye" of your research object? Researchers generally determine validity by asking a series of questions, and will often look for the answers in the research of others. Huizinga and Elliott (1986:308) define validity of a measuring instrument as any evidence which indicates that it measures what it is intended to measure. In this aspect the question of definition and operationalization of concepts becomes important. For example, in this study the concept of "delinquency" has to be defined and the measuring instrument has to measure the proposed operational definitions. The researcher ensured validity of this study by applying Babbie (1990) and Elliott's (1986) principles.

4.4.3. Piloting the questionnaire

In order ascertain whether the questionnaire would achieve its intended objective, a pilot study was conducted with ten grade 12 learners, since grade 12 learners were not part of the study. Cozby (1989:113) defines a pilot study as a mini experiment in which the investigator tests the procedures with a small number of subjects. The results of the pilot study are not included in the actual data analysis. By piloting the questionnaire the researcher was able to ascertain which questions were to be omitted and what changes were to be made in the final version. By conducting a pilot study, the researcher was also able to gauge whether the subjects would understand the instructions and if there were any corrections to be done before the full scale inquiry was conducted. The other reason for the pilot study was to determine the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire as a measuring instrument. In the end the responses generated from the pilot study confirmed that the questionnaire was indeed a useful instrument for the inquiry (Champion 2000).

4.5 Data analysis techniques

This research uses quantitative data analysis techniques to analyze the data. The quantitative data analysis techniques used by the researcher are descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The former and the latter were utilized to understand the data and to assess the relationship between the biographical data, of learners in relation to juvenile delinquency trends. This analysis enabled the researcher to understand the basic characteristics of the data

collected. Inferential statistics was used to make inferences from the data to more general conditions.

4.5.1. Characteristics of quantitative research

This study utilized a quantitative methodology. Quantitative researchers try to recognize and isolate specific variables contained within the study framework, seek correlation, relationships and causality, and attempt to control the environment in which the data is collected to avoid the risk of variables, other than the one being study, accounting for the relationships identified (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, quantitative research has the following characteristics (Babbie, 2010):

- The data is usually gathered using more structured research instruments.
- The results are based on larger sample sizes that are representative of the population.
- The research study can usually be replicated or repeated, given its high reliability.
- Researcher has a clearly defined research question to which objective answers are sought.
- All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected.
- Data are in the form of numbers and statistics.
- Project can be used to generalize concepts more widely, predict future results, or investigate causal relationships.
- Researcher uses tools, such as questionnaires or equipment to collect numerical data.

4.5.2 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics analyze data and permits the researcher to describe meaningfully a set of figures with a small number of indices. If such indices are calculated for a sample drawn from a population, they are referred as parameters (Gay and Diehl, 1992:462). According to <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net>, descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Together with simple graphics analysis, they form the basis of virtually every quantitative analysis of data.

4.5.2.1.Frequency and percentages

Frequency and percentages were utilized as the descriptive statistics in the study (See Chapter Five). According to Cozby (1989:64) a frequency indicates the number of subjects who receive each possible score on a variable. One of the most common ways to describe a single variable is with a frequency distribution. However, a frequency also refers to the number of times various sub-categories of a certain phenomenon occur, from which the percentage of the occurrence of the subcategories can be easily calculated (Sekeran, 1992:259). According to Allen (1990:883) a percentage is defined as a rate or proportion per cent. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1999:330) a percent reports the number of units as a proportion of 100. Frequency and percentages are used to explain the following characteristics of the biographical data in this study, which are: sex, age, grade, and race.

The bar graphs and circle/pie graphs are also used to present percentages from the questionnaire responses. Bar graphs are a particularly effective and simple way of presenting data. According to O' Sullivan and Rassel (1999:324), a bar graph shows the variable along one axis and the frequency of cases along the other and the bars in the bar graph should be of the same width for all categories. Bar graphs are used to present percentage distributions for variables.

A circle graph also called a pie chart is a representation of a complete circle indicating a quantity that is sliced into a number of wedges. This graph conveys what population of the whole is accounted for by each component and facilitates visual comparisons among parts of the whole. The sizes of the "piece of pie" reflect the proportions listed for each piece (O'Sullivan and Rassel, 1999:324). Finally, the circle represents 100 percent of the quantity of the resource of the other factor displayed.

4.5.2.2.Inferential Statistics

The inferential statistics used in this study is the cross-tabulations and the Pearson's Correlation Matrix. According to Gay and Diehl (1992:496) inferential statistics are concerned with determining how likely it is that results based on samples are the same result that would have been obtained for the entire population. Sekeran (1992:259) outlined that these types of statistics help the researcher when he/she wants to know how the variables

relate to each other, when they are differences between two or more groups, and the like. The cross-tabulation assisted the researcher in analyzing the relationship between the independent and dependent variables i.e. between defined problems and factors contributing to those problems. As far as correlation is concerned, in probability theory and statistics, correlation, also called correlation coefficient, indicates the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two random variables (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation>).

4.5.3. Characteristics of an exploratory descriptive research design

According to Uys and Basson (1991:38), an exploratory descriptive research design has the following characteristics:

- It is a flexible research design that provides an opportunity to examine all aspects of the problem being studied.
- It strives to develop new knowledge.
- The data may lead to suggestions of hypotheses for future studies.
- It is usually a field study in a natural setting.

4.6. Conclusion

This Chapter provided a clear in-depth explanation of the rigorous research design, methodology and approach used in this study to understand juvenile delinquent trends among school going adolescents in a select sample of secondary schools in Chatsworth. The objectives of the study were reiterated to show the synergy with the research method used. It explained why the questionnaire was used. The sampling design and the technique used to collect data were further elaborated on. Finally in this Chapter, the focus is placed on quantitative methods in data analysis. This Chapter lays the foundation for Chapter four where the results are presented and analyzed in detail.

Chapter Five

Data Analysis and Interpretation

5.1. Introduction

The results of the data generated through a rigorous and extensive self-administered questionnaire (discussed in chapter 4) is presented in detail in this Chapter. During the discussions in these findings, the researcher refers to the literature review in Chapter two to substantiate the findings (Tables 5.1-5.25 and Figures 5.1-5.24). The questionnaire (See Annexure A) was administered to 750 learners at two Secondary schools in Chatsworth. For purposes of anonymity the names of the schools will not be disclosed.

It took the researcher approximately two months to conduct the fieldwork at the two secondary schools in Chatsworth. The data was analysed using SPSS (Version 21). Pearson correlation statistical technique was employed to establish correlations/ relationships between the various independent variables (in this instance demographic detail) with the 24 items on the questionnaire. The computed correlation coefficients (r) were interpreted either at 0.01 or 0.05 significant levels, as indicated in the respective tables. To reinforce the quantitative aspect of the research, descriptive statistics which depicts frequencies and percentages supported by bar diagrams were derived using Microsoft Excel programme.

5.2. Biographical Profile of participants

The process of selecting the participants was discussed in detail in Chapter four (paragraph 4.3.3). All 750 (N) (100%) participants in this study reside in the geographical area Chatsworth and townships bordering Chatsworth (refer to map in Chapter one, paragraph 1.5). The demographic details of participants (school learners) include the following independent variables: gender, age, race and religion. In analysing the data, the characteristics of the sample are depicted using pie charts/bar graphs and tables which are discussed in detail in this Chapter. This chapter commences with a table (See Table 5.1) below depicting demographics of the participants' and a brief discussion thereafter.

Table 5.1: Frequency distribution of demographic characteristics of the sample (N=750)

		Frequency (N=750)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	377	50.3%
	Female	373	49.7%
	Total	750	100.0%
Age	13 years	126	16.8%
	14 years	271	36.1%
	15 years	212	28.3%
	16 years	98	13.1%

	17 years	32	4.3%
	18 years	4	0.5%
	Above 18	7	0.9%
	Total	750	100.0%
Race	African	358	47.7%
	Indian	344	45.9%
	Coloured	38	5.1%
	White	8	1.1%
	Other	2	0.3%
	Total	750	100.0%
Religious Group	Christianity	514	69.8%
	Hinduism	164	22.3%
	Islam	44	6.0%
	Nazareth	14	1.9%
	Total	736	100.0%

The results above (Table 5.1) demonstrate an almost equal distribution between the sexes, 50.3 % (N=377) males and 49.7% (N=373) females. Fifty two point nine percent (52.9%) (N=397) of participants are between 13-14 years, 41.4% (N=310) are between 15-16 years old, 4.8 % (N=36%) are between age 17-18 years, and 0.9% (N=7) are above 18 years old. The race distribution is as follows: 47.7% (N= 358) Africans, 45.9% (N=344) Indians, 5.1% (N=38) Coloureds, 1.1% (N=8) Whites and 0.3% (N=2) not specified. In terms of religion Christianity is the dominate religion 69.8% (N=514), Hinduism 22.3% (N=164), Islam 6% (N=44), and Nazareth 1.9% (N=14). This discussion is followed by interpretations of the independent variables against significant delinquency items.

5.3. Discussions of Gender and juvenile delinquency trends:

For analysis of gender differences Pearson correlations coefficients (r) for males (N=377) and females (N=373) are calculated for all delinquent items as per the research questionnaire administered (See Annexure A). For further clarification on male and female differences on juvenile delinquency bar graphs are presented with the aim of displaying the trends of juvenile delinquent acts among school going adolescents in Chatsworth. Bar graphs are presented for each delinquency item. Presented in tables are correlations for each delinquency item and in some instances the level of significance is $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$.

5.3.1. Gender Differences: Modes of Discipline

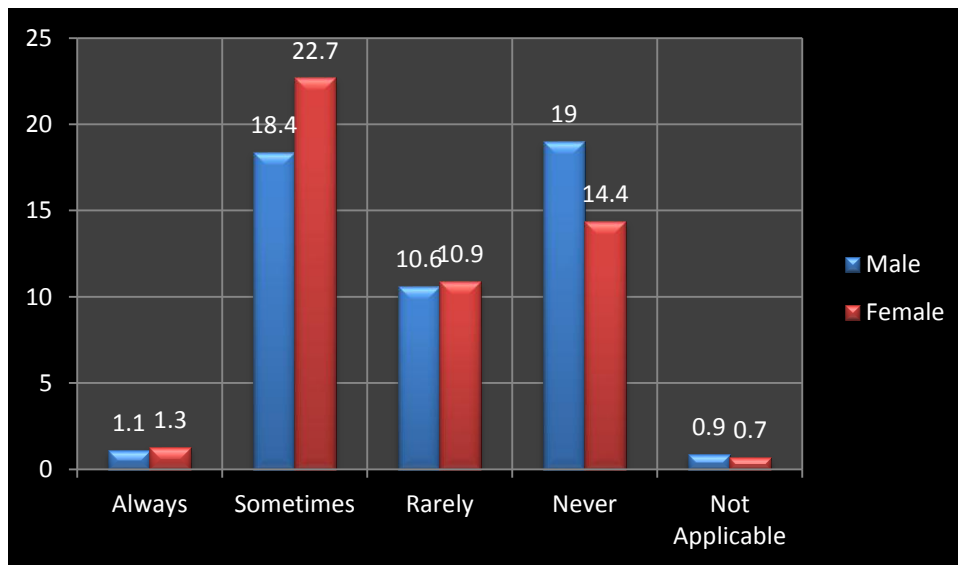
Table 5.2: Correlation: Gender vs. Frequency of physical punishment

	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.105**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004
N	744

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.2 above displays a small significant negative correlation between gender and frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian ($r = -0.105$, $N = 744$, $p < 0.01$). Thus one can conclude that parents/guardians continue using some form of physical punishment towards adolescents, irrespective of the adolescents' gender. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.105$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian. This means that there is a reduction in the frequency and use of physical punishment by parents/ guardians. One possible reason for this reduction in this mode of discipline could be that parents/guardians are using other forms of punishment, for example, parents withdraws privileges from adolescents' for example, TV viewing deprivations, the use of computers; video games or cell phones, parents restricts their adolescents' movement outside of the home, such as visiting friends or attending parties and parents/guardians may use counselling towards their children. Other reasons could be status of corporal punishment in South Africa, parents are more aware of the child protection instruments such as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC).

Figure 5.1: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of physical punishment



An examination shown in Figure 5.1 above reveals that more females (1.3%) than males (1.1%) are always punished physically, and (22.7%) females as compared to males (18.4%) who are sometimes punished with a stick or any other object. Aside from the likelihood and frequency of physical punishment experience, research evidence also illustrates gender differences in the types of punishment adolescents’ receive. For example, girls are given lighter physical punishment such as smacking, pinching or increased household chores, while boys are hit with an object or beaten with a wooden stick and are more likely to receive severe corporal punishment (Millichamp *et al.*, 2006).

5.3.2 Gender Differences: Norm Violations

Table 5.3: Correlation: Gender vs. frequency of sleeping-out of home

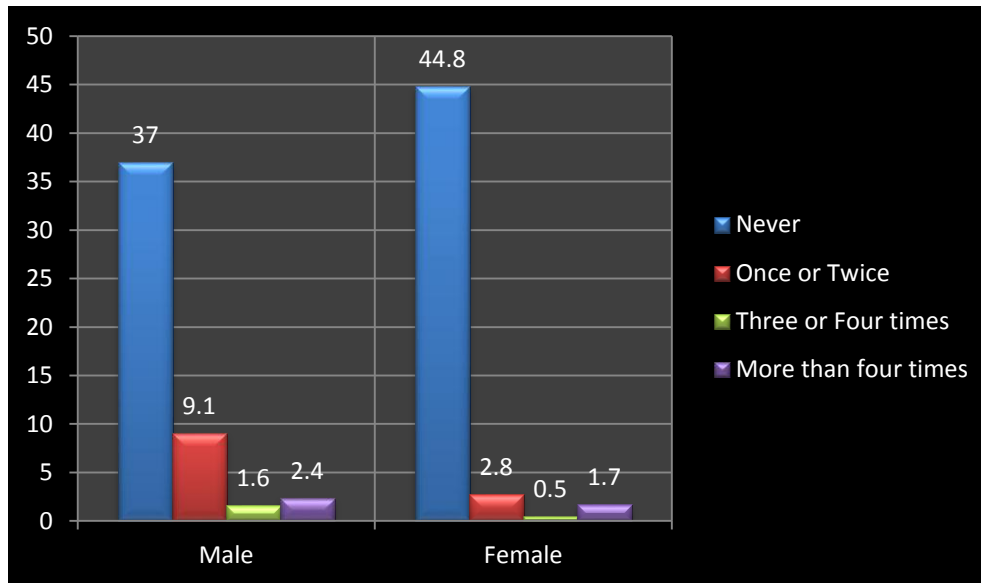
	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.147**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	748

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.3 above demonstrates a small ($r = -0.147$, $N=748$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative relationship exists between gender and the frequency of violating norms such as sleeping out

of home without parental permission. The results also indicate that sleeping out of home without parental permission is not gendered. Both males and females slept out of home without parental permission. Nevertheless, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.147$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission. There is a reduction in the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission by respondents. This is possibly either because more adolescents are seeking parental permission or adolescents are accepting parent's decisions not to sleep out of home without their permission, instead of rebelling against them. Bennet, (1993) asserts that moral education, or the training of the individual towards the "good", involves a number of things, including rules, that is the dos and don'ts, and the development of good habits.

Figure 5.2: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of sleeping out of home



According to Figure 5.2 above more males (9.1%) than females (2.8%) have slept out of home once or twice and more males (2.4%) than females (1.7%) have more than four times slept out of home without parental permission. Even though more males than females have slept out of home without parental permission, results suggest that females too have violated norms by sleeping out of home without parental permission which is usually common among males. Research has shown that females are either treated more strictly or equally to males, but females are not given much freedom by parents while males are given more freedom (Jung, 2013).

5.3.3 (a) Gender Differences: Regulation Violations

Table 5.4: Correlation: Gender vs. frequency of unlicensed driving

	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.392 **
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	741

** $p < 0.01$

According to Table 5.4 above there is a moderate ($r = -0.392$, $N = 741$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative correlation between gender and the frequency of driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence. This indicates that respondents violate regulations such as driving a motor

vehicle without a driver's licence irrespective of gender. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.392$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence. There is a reduction in the frequency of violating regulations such as driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence by participants. This could possibly be because parents are stricter with allowing unlicensed adolescents to drive or policing and roadblocks in these areas have become stricter and more vigilant. Parental practices impact both the emotional and social development of adolescents. Studies have shown that parental regulation through house rules, supervision and monitoring can have a positive impact on adolescents' behaviour (Cohen, Farley, Taylor, Martin & Schuster, 2002; Huebner & Howell, 2003),

Figure 5.3: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of driving unlicensed

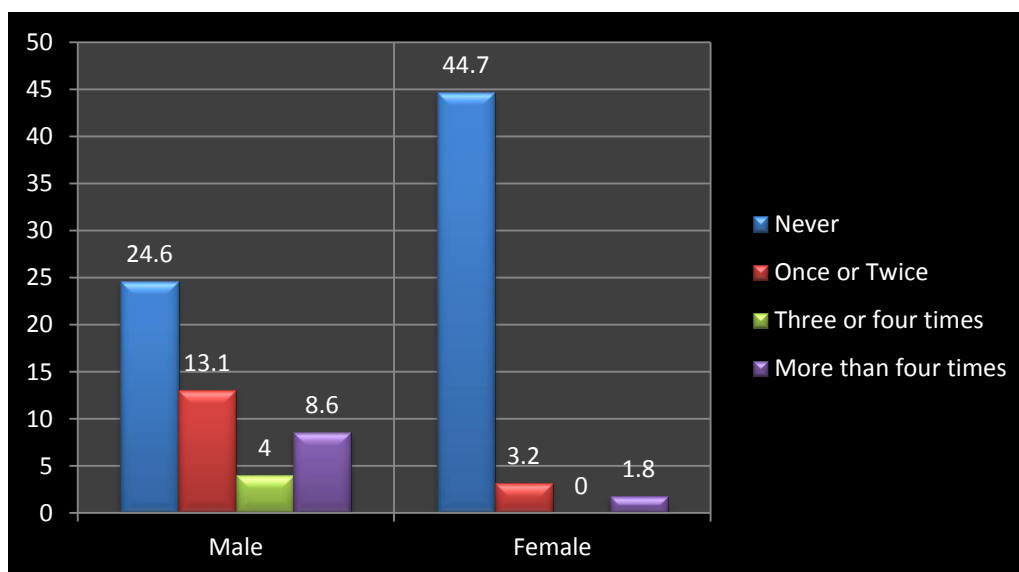


Figure 5.3 above shows that more males (13.1%) than females (3.2%) have driven a motor vehicle once or twice without a driver's licence, and more males (8.6%) than females (1.8%) have more than four times driven a motor vehicle without a driver's license. Although more males than females have driven a motor vehicle without a driver's license the results suggest

that females too are violating regulations by driving unlicensed which is generally common among males.

(b) Gender Differences: Regulation Violations

Table 5.5: Correlation: Gender vs. frequency of entering a bar/bottle store

	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.264 **
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	744

** $p < 0.01$

In Table 5.5 above a small ($r = -0.264$, $N = 744$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative relationship exists between gender and the frequency of entering a bar or bottle store or any place where alcohol is being sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. This indicates that respondents irrespective of gender enter a bar or bottle store or any other place where alcohol is sold, under the prescribed age of 18 years old. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.264$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of entering a bar or bottle store. There is a reduction in the frequency of violating regulations by entering a bar or bottle store being under the age of 18 years old by participants. One possible reason is that entrance to these places is more controlled. Another reason is the possibility of adolescents accessing alcohol from taverns or Shebeens where access is far less controlled. According to the National Research Council (NRC) and Institute of Medicine's (IOM) recent report (2004) on underage drinking included environmental interventions intended to reduce commercial and social availability of alcohol and/or reduce driving while intoxicated. They use a variety of strategies, including server training and compliance checks in places that sell alcohol; deterring adults from purchasing alcohol for minors or providing alcohol to minors; restricting drinking in public places and preventing underage drinking parties; enforcing penalties for the use of false IDs, driving while intoxicated, and violating zero-tolerance laws; and raising public awareness of policies and sanctions (Bonnie & O'Connell, 2004).

Figure 5.4: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of entering a bar or bottle store.

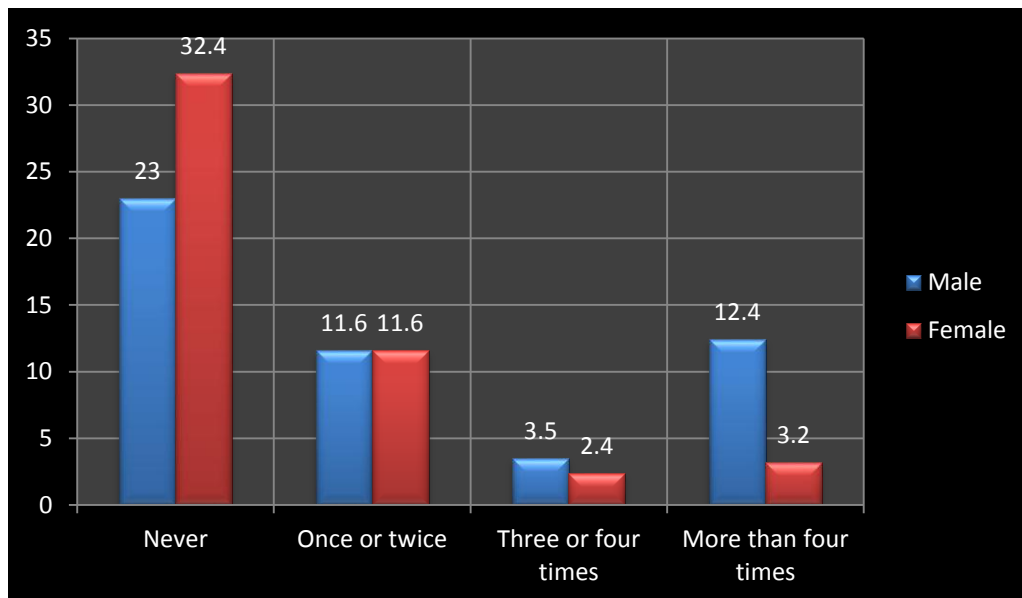


Figure 5.4 above reveals that both males and females (11.6%) have entered a bar or bottle store once or twice. More males than females have entered the bar or bottle store three or four times (3.5%) and more than four times (12.4%) being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. Overall although more males than females have entered bars or bottle stores the results suggest that females too are entering these places which historically were largely a male practice.

(c) Gender Differences: Regulation Violations

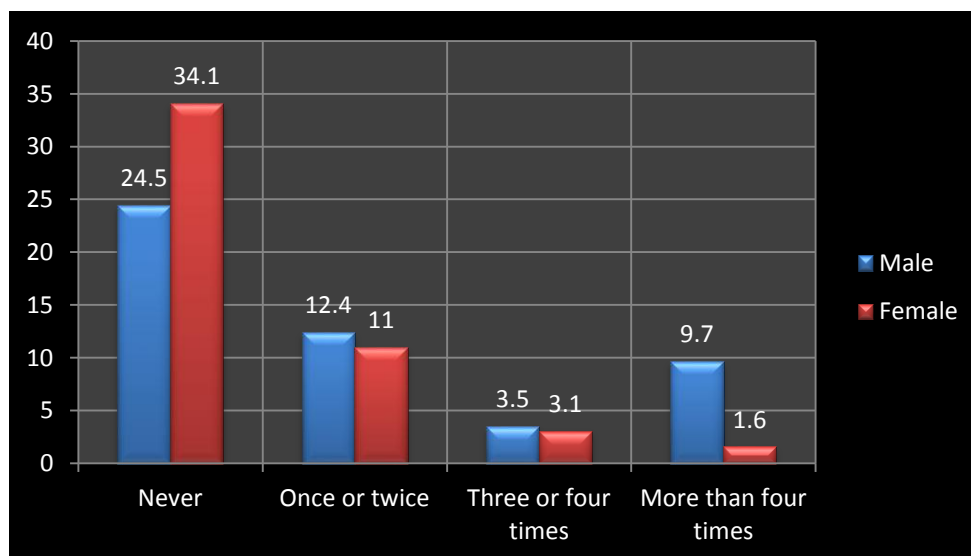
Table 5.6: Correlation: Gender vs. frequency of watching a film/video not reserved for children

	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.261**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	739

** $p < 0.01$

There is a small ($r = -0.261$, $N = 739$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative correlation indicated in Table 5.6 above between gender and the frequency of watching a video of film reserved for “adults only” without permission from parents or guardians. This indicates that respondents violate regulations such as watching a video/film reserved for “adults only” without parental permission irrespective of gender. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.261$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of watching a video or film reserved for adults only. There is a reduction in the frequency of violating regulations and by watching a video/film that is reserved for “adults only” without parental permission by respondents. One possibility for this reduction is the increase in access to social media entertainment such as Facebook, YouTube and Twitter.

Figure 5.5: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of watching a video/film not reserved for children



According to Figure 5.5 above more males (12.4%) than females (11%) have once or twice watched an “adults” only film without parental permission, followed by (3.5%) males and (3.1%) females has watched an “adults only” film three or four times. Lastly, again more males (9.7%) than (1.6%) females watched a film reserved for “adults only” more than four times. Even though more males than females have watched an “adults only” film without

parental permission results suggest that females too violate regulations which are mostly common among male adolescents.

5.3.4 Gender Differences: Malicious damage to property

Table 5.7: Correlation: Gender vs. frequency of vandalism.

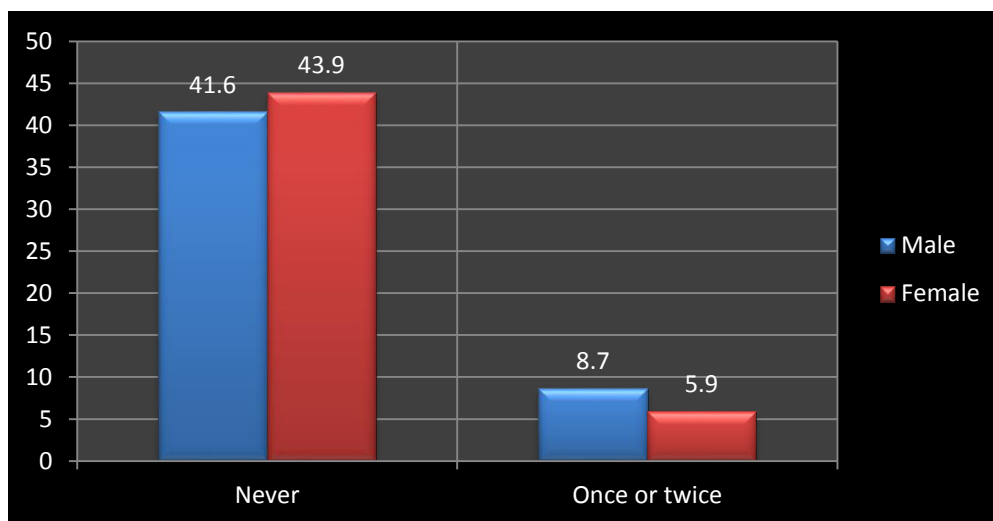
	Gender
Pearson Correlation	-0.077 *
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.034
N	750

* $p < 0.05$

There is a small ($r = -0.077$, $N = 750$, $p < 0.05$) significant negative correlation shown in Table 5.7 above between gender and the frequency of vandalizing property belonging to the school. This indicates that respondents engage in malicious damage to property such as vandalizing school property irrespective of gender. However, the small negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.077$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of vandalizing school property. This means that there is a reduction in the frequency of engaging in malicious damage. One possible reason could be that teachers are monitoring students and learners are aware of the actions that will be taken if found guilty of vandalizing school property. School vandalism is not only a school problem but also a community problem. Factors that are often beyond the control of the school, such as poverty, unemployment, disintegration of family life, inability or unwillingness of government to clamp down on vandals, and availability of drugs and alcohol, are considered the most important causes of vandalism (Douglas & McCart, 1999). The co-operation of education leaders, government, legislators and community leaders is essential in order to combat learner vandalism and to create a safe school environment that promotes teaching and learning. The socio-economic and social upliftment of the community is also essential. Educators must play a leading role in combating learner vandalism, because they not only have access to learners during their important formative years, but are also often the only conservative factor in the lives of the youth who grow up in homes/neighbourhoods in which crime reigns supreme.

The modern community often demands that schools accept responsibility for education that belongs mainly in the parental home (Stout, 2002).

Figure 5.6: Cross Tabulation by Gender and frequency of vandalism.



In Figure 5.6 above, more males (8.7%) than females (5.9%) have once or twice vandalized property belonging to school. Although, with malicious damage to property probably because of its close association with aggression, boys excel, results suggest that females too are vandalizing school property which is more often performed by males.

5.4 Discussions of Age and juvenile delinquency trends

For analysis of age differences Pearson correlations with the age categories are calculated for all delinquency items. For further clarification on age differences in juvenile delinquency are presented in bar graph with the aim of displaying the trends of juvenile delinquent acts among school going adolescents in Chatsworth. Bar graphs are presented for each delinquency item. Presented in tables are correlations for each delinquency item and in some instances the level of significance is $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$.

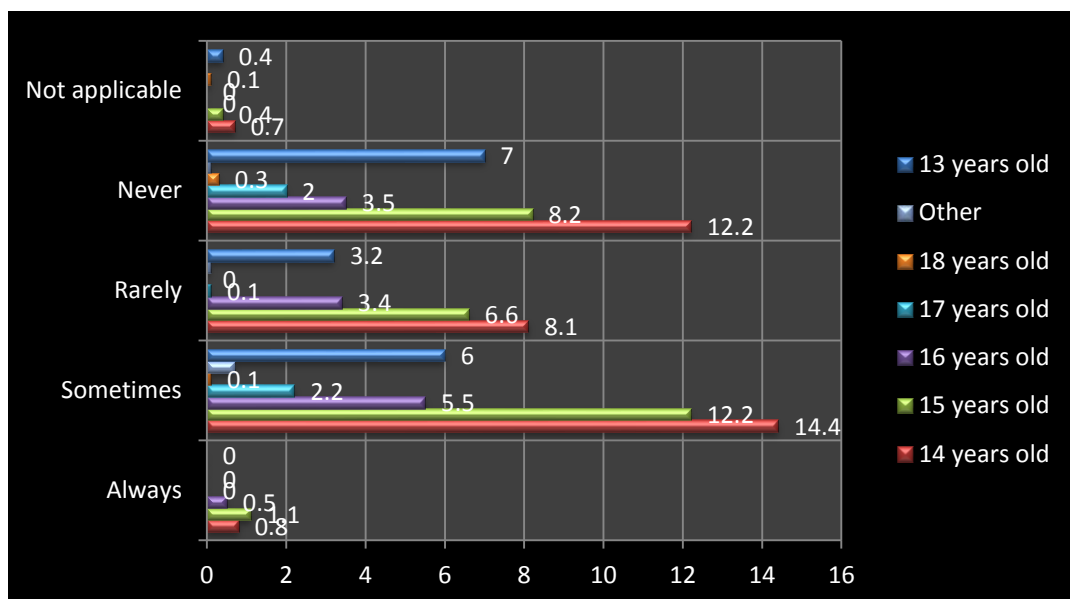
5.4.1. (a) Age differences: Modes of discipline**Table 5.8: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of physical punishment**

	Age
Pearson Correlation	-0.085 [*]
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02
N	744

* $p < 0.05$

Table 5.8 above presents a small ($r = -0.085$, $n = 744$, $p < 0.05$) negative correlation between age and the frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian. Thus one can conclude that parents/guardians continue using some form of physical punishment towards adolescents, irrespective of their age. Conversely, the small negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.085$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between age and the frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian. There is a reduction in the frequency and use of physical punishment by parents/ guardians. This reduction in punishment could be because parents/guardians are using some other forms of punishment, parents withdraws privileges from adolescents' for example, TV viewing deprivations, the use of computers; video games or cell phones, parents restricts their adolescents' movement outside of the home, such as visiting friends or attending parties and parents/guardians may use counselling towards their children. As an adolescent becomes older monitoring is equally important (i.e., knowing where the child is, who the child is with, what TV programs the child is viewing what the child is doing, or when the child will be home) (Patterson 1982; Quinsey *et al.* 2004:82).

Figure 5.7: Cross tabulation by Age and frequency of physical punishment



In Figure 5.7 above, more 14 year olds (14.4%) are sometimes physically punished, and 8.1% 14 year olds and 6.6% 15 year olds are rarely physically punished with a stick or any other object.

(b) Age differences: Modes of discipline

Table 5.9: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of refused permission to visit a friend/ watch TV.

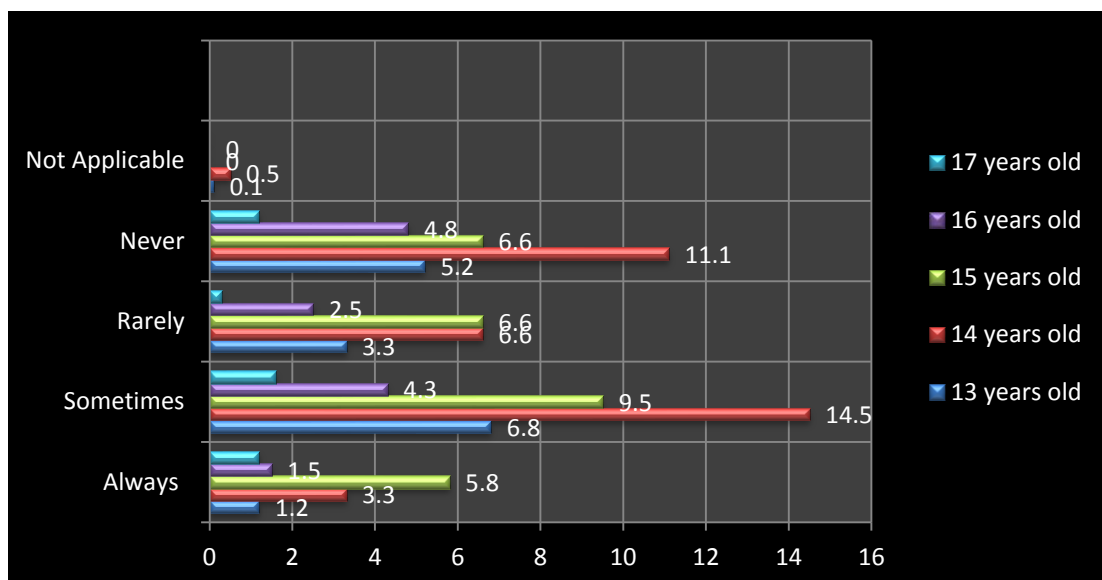
	Age
Pearson Correlation	-0.075*
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.04
N	747

* $p < 0.05$

In Table 5.9 above there is a small ($r = -0.075$, $N = 747$, $p < 0.05$) significant negative correlation between age and the frequency of being refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV. This is indicative that parents/guardians continue refusing permission on visiting friends or viewing of television towards their children as a mode of discipline, irrespective of the age of the child. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.075$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between age and the frequency of refusing permission to visit a friend

or watch TV by the respondents parent or guardian. There is a reduction in the frequency and the mode of discipline used by parents/ guardians. This reduction in this mode of discipline could be attributed to parents/guardians using some other forms of discipline, for example, scolding, verbal reprimand or counselling their adolescents'. According to Gioia, 2013 there are many acceptable methods of discipline, such as positive reinforcement, actions and consequence, and time out or grounding. Children do not learn appropriate behavior through being disciplined with physical violence. Violence may sound like a strong word for "spanking," but if a small child is being hit or smacked by an individual much larger and stronger, the child has no defense and is very much the victim of violence. By the time the same child reaches his teens, he may be the bigger and stronger one. In order to continue the practice of disciplining with physical force, the spanking will escalate to punching, kicking and beating, accompanied by verbal abuse. Such forms of physical force will have extremely negative, long-lasting effect on the adolescents' mental and emotional well-being.

Figure 5.8: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of refused permission to visit a friend/watch TV.



According to Figure 5.8 represented above more 14 years olds (14.5%) and are sometimes refused permission to visit friends or watch TV, and 6.6% 15 years olds are rarely refused

permission. And 1.2% accounts for 13 year olds always been refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV, followed by 14 year olds (3.3%) and 15 year olds (5.8%).

(c) Age differences: Modes of discipline

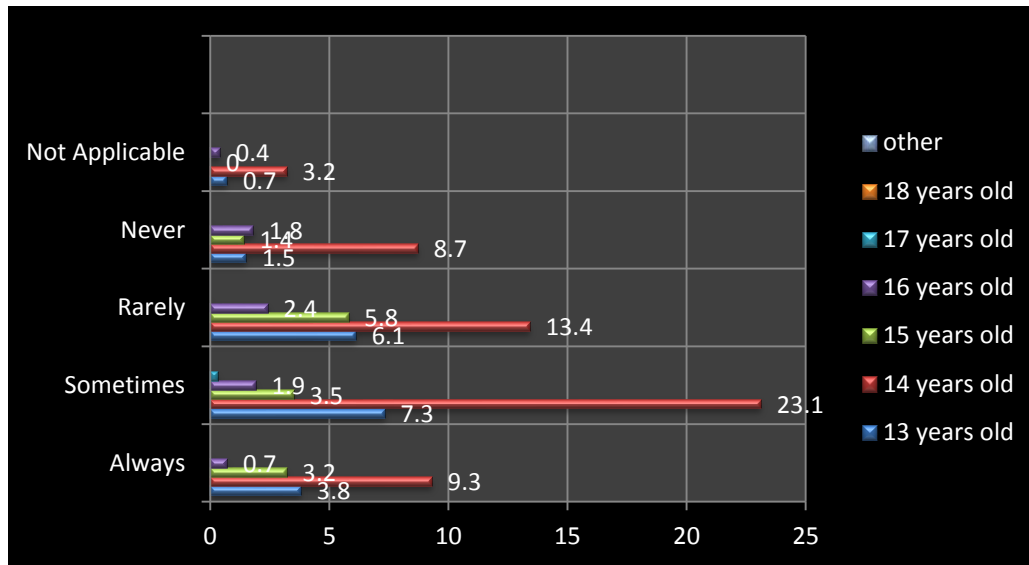
Table 5.10: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of scolding.

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.111**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003
N	739

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.10 above denotes a small ($r = 0.111$, $N = 739$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation between age and the frequency of being scolded. This would indicate that parents/guardians continue using other modes of discipline such as scolding, towards their adolescent, irrespective of their age. Thus, the small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.111$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of scolding. As a result scolding has a positive influence on the adolescents' behaviour. In other words as scolding by parents/guardians increases there will be an increase in the improvement of the adolescents' behaviour. Scolding involves reproofing or criticizing a child's negative behaviour and/or actions. Some research suggests that scolding is counter-productive because parental attention (including negative attention) tends to reinforce behaviour (Kazdin, 2009).

Figure 5.9: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of scolding



According to Figure 5.9 displayed above, more 14 year olds (23.1%) have sometimes been scolded and 13.4% 15 year olds. While (7.3%) among the 14 year olds, (6.1%) 15 year olds and (3.8%) 13 year olds are always scolded.

5.4.2 (a) Age Differences: Norm Violations

Table 5.11: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of absenteeism from school

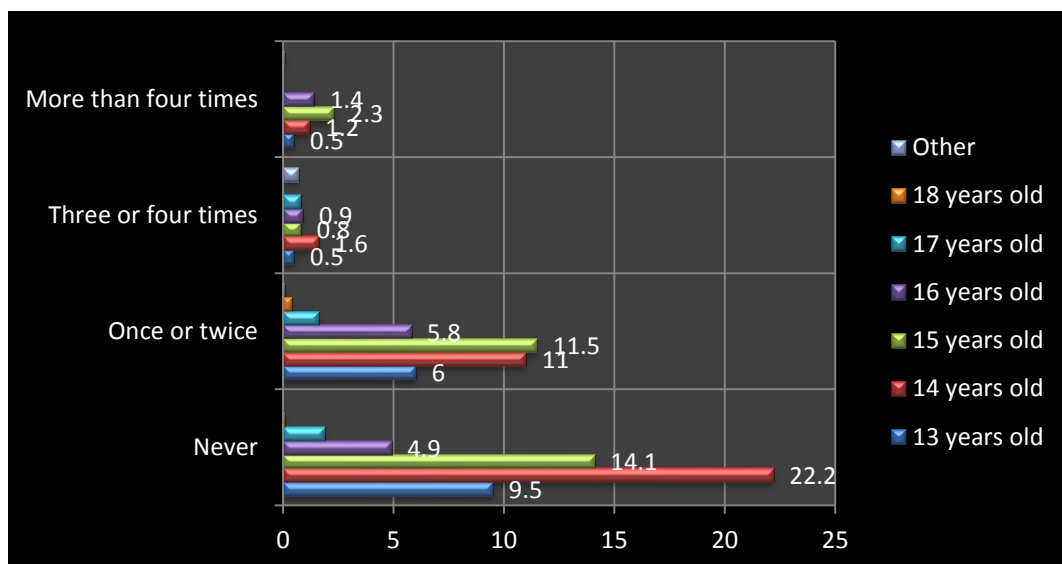
	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.196**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	739

** $p < 0.01$

There is a small ($r = 0.196$, $N = 739$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation demonstrated in Table 5.11 above between age and the frequency of staying away from school without a valid excuse. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.196$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of staying away from school without a valid

excuse. Hence, parents who allow adolescents to stay away from school for no reason has a positive influence on the adolescents' being absent from school. Hence, as parents allow for their adolescents to stay away from school at any time increases the adolescents' rate of staying away from school without a valid excuse also increases.

Figure 5.10: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of absenteeism from school



In Figure 5.10 above more 15 year olds (11.5%) have stayed away from school once or twice without a valid excuse, followed by 14 year olds (11%) and 13 year olds (6%). While more 14 year olds (1.6%) have three or four times stayed away from school without a valid excuse, and more 15 year olds (2.3%) have stayed away from school more than four times without a valid excuse.

(b) Age Differences: Norm Violations

Table 5.12: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of sleeping out of home

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.294**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	748

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.12 above exhibits a small ($r = 0.294$, $N = 748$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation between age and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.294$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission. As a result parents that don't set curfew limits when their adolescents' are away from home has a positive influence on their adolescents sleeping out of home without parental permission. Therefore, the parents allow for their adolescents to go out without a curfew there will be in an increase sleeping away out of home without parental permission. Adolescents have a higher tolerance of nocturnal risks, or more denial of them, therefore a curfew is safety limit that moderates exposure to late night dangers. It is essential for parents to set curfews for their adolescents because a curfew not only protects an adolescent from exposure to late night risks, but it also protects him/her from responsibility. It relieves the young person from having to make a social decision about when to leave the party because the time of return has already been decided (Pickhardt, 2011).

Figure 5.11: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of sleeping out of home

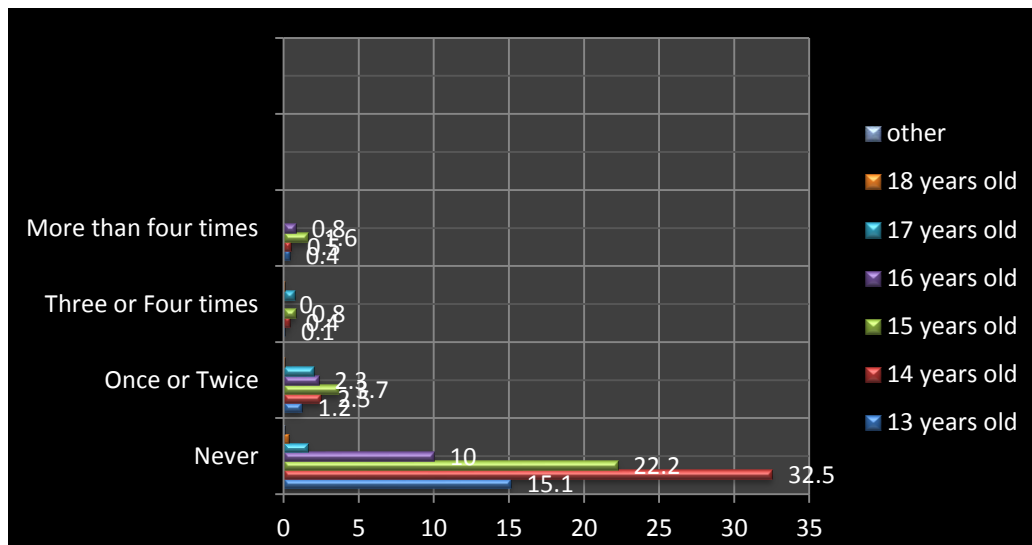


Figure 5.11 above reveals that more 15 year olds (3.7%) have once or twice slept out of home without permission, while 0.8% of 15 year olds have slept out of home three or four times without parental permission, and again more 15 year olds (0.8%) have more than four times slept out of home without parental permission.

(c) Age Differences: Norm Violations

Table 5.13: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of objecting to discipline

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.135**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	729

** $p < 0.01$

There is a small ($r = 0.135$, $N = 729$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation evident in Table 5.13 above between age and the frequency of objecting to discipline from parents or teachers. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.135$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of objecting to discipline. For this reason, parents or

guardians that are not consistent in their modes of discipline towards their adolescent have a positive influence the adolescent objecting to discipline. As the inconsistency of discipline modes increases, the objecting of discipline from parents or teachers increases. Inconsistent discipline is one parenting behaviour that leads to maladaptive outcomes for children. Inconsistency is typically multi-determined in families and is caused by factors such as marital discord, parent psychopathology, and neighbourhood disadvantage (Berg-Nielsen, Vikan, & Dahl, 2002; Davies, Sturge-Apple, & Cummings, 2004; Hill, 2002). Inconsistent discipline is defined as unpredictable parental punishment for similar incidents of child misbehaviour or termination of discipline due to lack of energy to follow through or in response to coercive behaviour by the child. Numerous studies have indicated a positive relation between inconsistent discipline and overt aggressive behaviour in children (Gardner, 1989; Grant, et al., 2005; Stormshak et al., 2000).

Figure 5.12: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of objecting to discipline

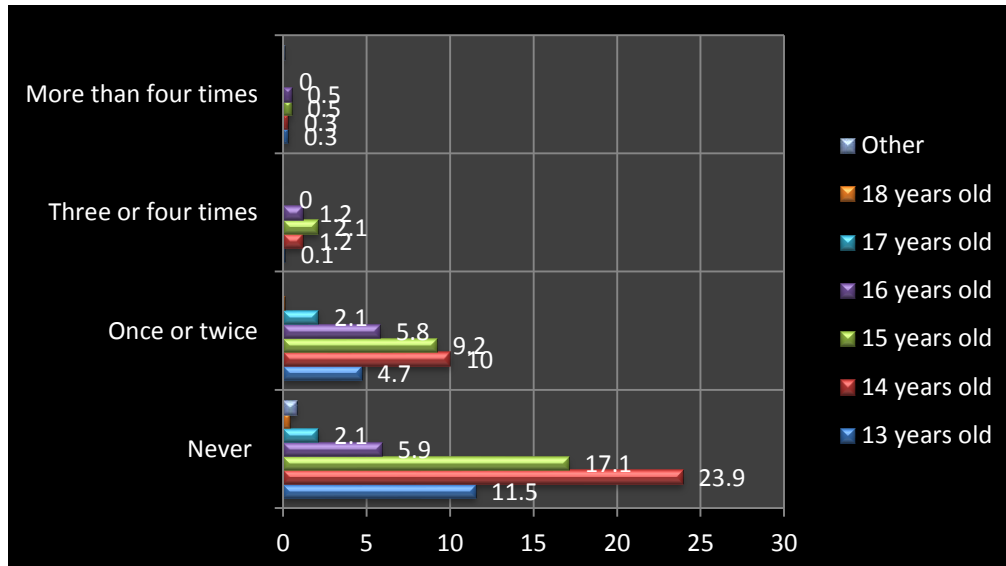


Figure 5.12 above exhibits that more 14 year olds (10%) have once or twice objected to discipline from parents or teachers. And (2.1%) 15 year olds objected to discipline from parents or teachers three or four times.

5.4.3 (a) Age differences: Regulation Violation

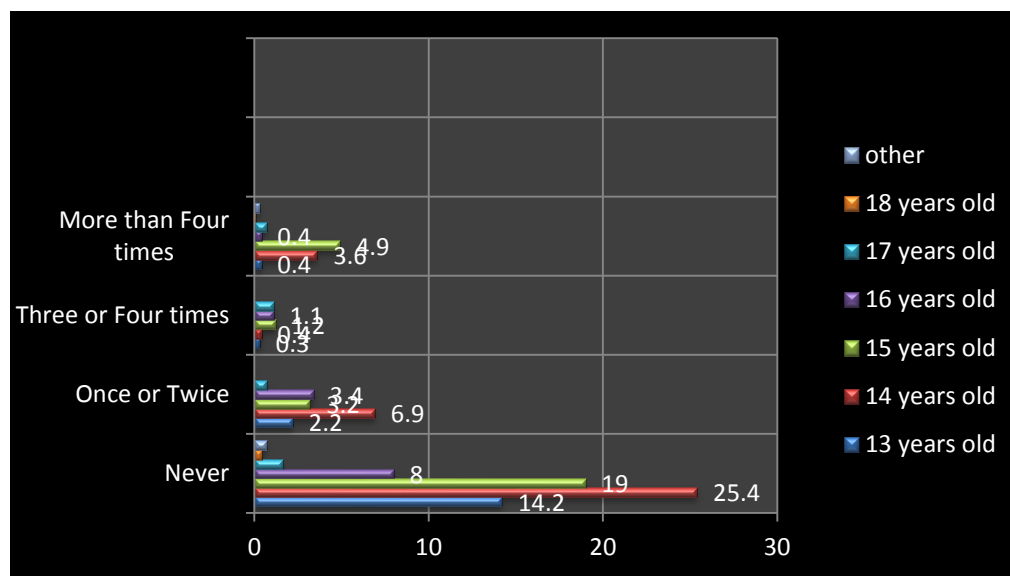
Table 5.14: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of driving unlicensed

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.168**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	741

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.14 above demonstrates a small ($r = 0.168$, $N = 741$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation exists between age and the frequency of driving a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.168$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of driving unlicensed. Thus, parents that do not make their adolescents aware of the consequences when a regulation is violated this may have a positive influence on the adolescent driving without a driver’s licence. Parents play a major role on adolescents violating regulations such as driving without a driver’s license. Therefore parents need to restrict their adolescents’ from engaging in risky behaviour and set very clear rules about driving unlicensed (Wagner, 2005).

Figure 5.13: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of driving unlicensed



According to Figure 5.13 above more 14 year olds (6.9%) have once or twice driven a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence, and 1.2% 15 year olds have driven a motor vehicle three or

four times without a driver’s licence. And more 15 year olds (4.9%) have driven a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence more than four times.

(b) Age differences: Regulation Violations

Table 5.15: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of entering a bar or bottle store

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.184**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	744

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.15 above represents a small ($r=0.184$, $N= 744$, $p<0.01$) significant positive correlation between age and the frequency of entering a bar or bottle store or any place where liquor is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.184$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of scolding. As a result adolescents who are unsupervised by their parents or guardians may have positive influence on the adolescents visiting bars or bottle stores being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. In other words as unsupervision by parents/guardians increases the visiting of places not suitable for adolescents’ increases. According to Barlow & Ferdinand (1992:156) and Regoli & Hewitt (2006: 294) low levels of supervisions causes children to follow their whims and preferences.

Figure 5.14: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of entering a bar or bottle store

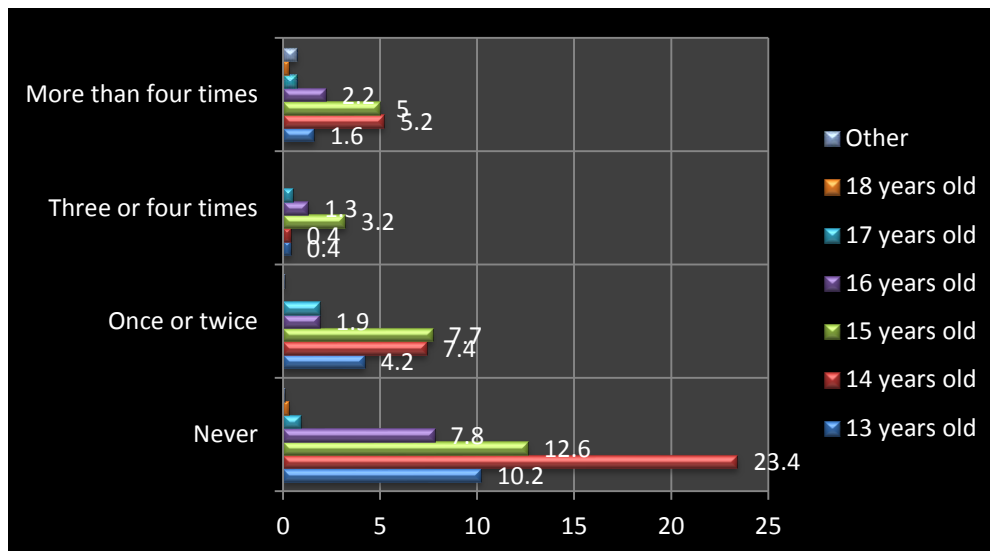


Figure 5.14 above demonstrates that more 15 year olds (7.7%) has entered a bar or bottle store once or twice, and (3.2%) 15 year olds have three or four times entered a bar or bottle store where liquor is sold under the prescribed age of 18 years old. However, 5.2% 14 year olds entered a bar or bottle store where liquor is sold under the prescribed age of 18 years old more than four times.

(c) Age differences: Regulation Violations

Table 5.16: Correlation: Age vs. frequency of watching a video/film not reserved for children

	Age
Pearson Correlation	0.266**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	739

** $p < 0.01$

There is a small ($r=0.266$, $N=739$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation shown in Table 5.16 above between age and the frequency of watching a video or film reserved for “adults only” without parent or guardian permission. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r=$

0.266) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of violating regulations such as watching a film/video reserved for “adults only” by adolescents, irrespective of their age. Hence, parents that allow adolescents to watch films/videos not reserved for adolescents in their parents has a positive influence on the adolescents’ watching a film/video reserved for “adults only” without parental permission. In other words parents that don’t monitor what their adolescents are viewing increases the chances of adolescents watching films/videos reserved for “adults only” without parental permission. The nature and quality of relationships shared between an adolescent and their parent can have a major influence on the decisions they make as individual. Adolescents’ whose parents provide a warm, loving, and nurturing environment are less likely to engage in delinquent behavior (Cox, 2007).

Figure 5.15: Cross Tabulation by Age and frequency of watching a video/film not reserved for children.

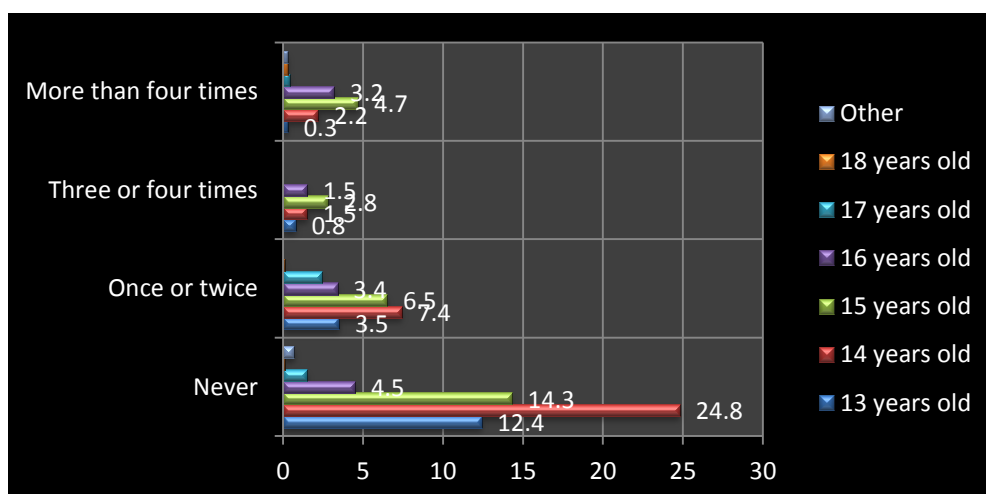


Figure 5.15 above shows that more 14 year olds (7.4%) have watched a video/film reserved for “adults only” once or twice, and more 15 year olds (2.8%) watched a video/film reserved for “adults only” without parental permission three or four times.

5.5 Discussions of Race and juvenile delinquency trends

Chatsworth was developed as an exclusively Indian Township but since the 1990s more and more Africans have moved into the area, though it remains predominantly ‘Indian’ in terms of its demography and character. Most Africans are concentrated in informal settlements that have mushroomed in unused spaces (Desai & Vahed, 2013). For analysis of race differences Pearson correlations with the race categories are calculated for all significant delinquency items. For further clarification on race differences bar graphs are presented below with the aim of displaying the trends of juvenile delinquent acts among school going adolescents in Chatsworth. Bar graphs are presented for each delinquency item. Presented in tables are correlations for each delinquency item and in some instances the level of significance is $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$.

5.5.1. (a) Race Differences: Modes of discipline

Table 5.17: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of physical punishment

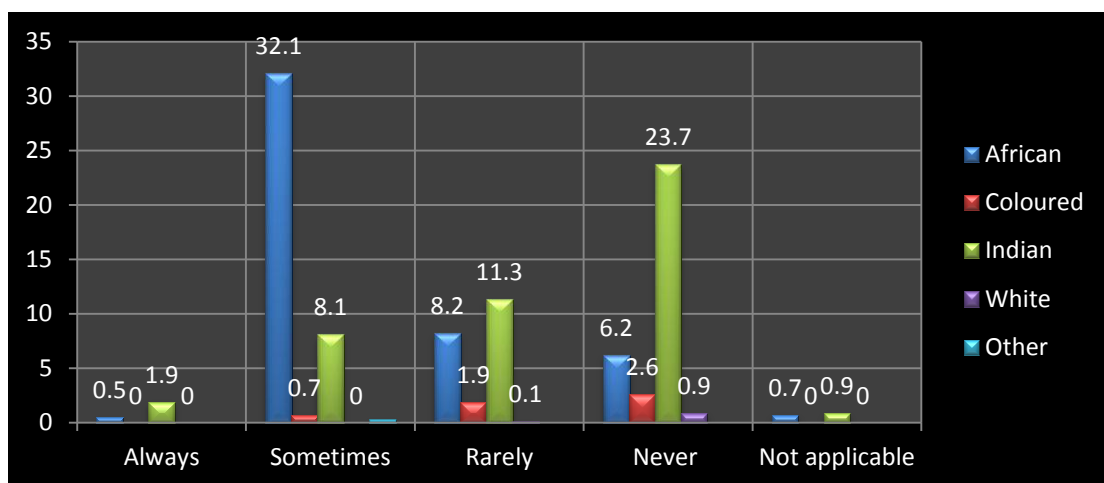
	Race
Pearson Correlation	0.428**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	744

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.17 above displays a moderate ($r=0.428$, $N=744$, $p < 0.01$) significant positive correlation between race and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parent or guardian. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.428$.) is indicative

of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parent or guardian irrespective of their race. As a result parents/guardians using physical punishment on adolescents' as a mode of discipline have a positive influence on the adolescents' behaviour. Therefore, an increase in the use of physical punishment by parents/guardians will have an increase in the improvement of the adolescents' behaviour.

Figure 5.16: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of physical punishment.



In Figure 5.16 above more Africans (32.1%) has sometimes been physically punished as compared to (8.1%) Indians. However, more Indians (11.3%) have rarely been physically punished with a stick or any other object.

(b) Race Differences: Modes of discipline

Table 5.18: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV.

	Race
Pearson Correlation	0.088*
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016
N	747

* $p < 0.05$

Table 5.18 above shows a small ($r=0.088$, $N=747$, $p < 0.05$) significant positive relationship between race and the frequency of being refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.088$.) is indicative of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of being refused permission to visit friends or watch TV, irrespective of their race. Consequently, parents that refuse permission to visit friends or watch TV as a mode of discipline has a positive influence on the adolescents' on adolescents obeying restrictions set by their parents. In other words the more parents refuse permission of adolescents visiting friends or watching TV there will be an increase in adolescents obeying restrictions as from of discipline.

Figure 5.17: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV.

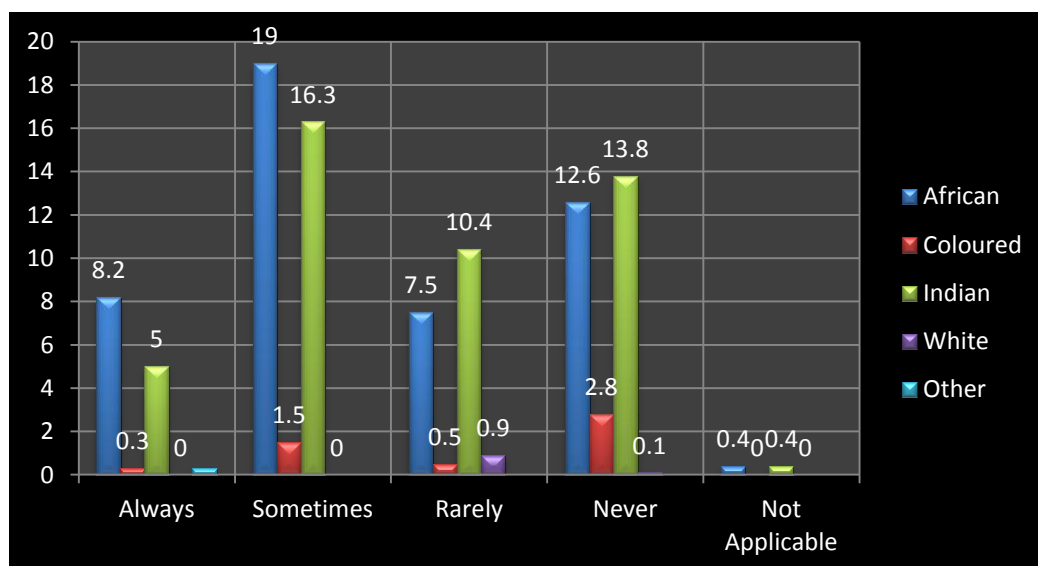


Figure 20 above exhibits more Africans (19%) than Indians (16.3%) have “sometimes” been refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV. However, (10.4%) Indians compared to (7.5%) Africans have rarely been refused permission to visit a friend or watch TV.

5.5.2 (a) Race Differences: Norm Violations

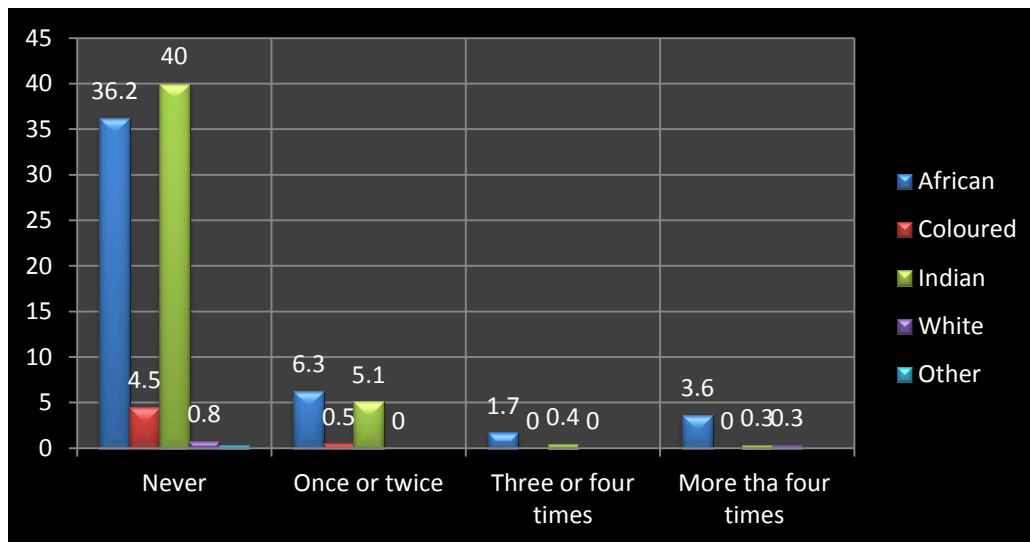
Table 5.19: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of sleeping out of home.

	Race
Pearson Correlation	-0.178**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	748

** $p < 0.01$

A small ($r = -0.178$, $N = 748$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative correlation shown in Figure 5.19 above exists between race and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission. Thus one can conclude that adolescents sleep out of home without parental permission, irrespective of their race. On the other hand, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.178$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission. There is a reduction in the frequency and sleeping out of home without parental permission. One possible reason for this reduction is that parents are more in control of their adolescents' whereabouts and advising them about them about the consequences of violating norms.

Figure 5.18: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of sleeping out of home



According to Figure 5.18 above, more Africans 6.3% as compared to Indians 5.1% have slept out of home once or twice without parental permission, and more Africans (3.6%) have more than four times slept out of home without parental permission.

(b) Race Differences: Norm Violations

Table 5.20: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of objecting to discipline

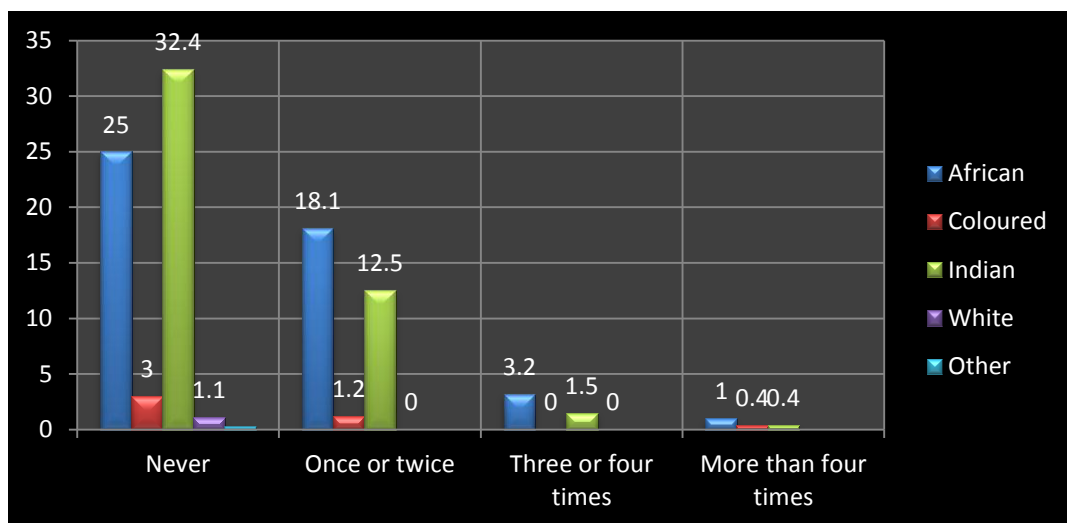
	Race
Pearson Correlation	-0.175**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	729

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.20 above reveals a small ($r = -0.175$, $N=729$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative relationship exists between race and the frequency of objecting discipline from parents or teachers. Thus one can conclude that, adolescents object to discipline from their parents/guardians, irrespective of their race. However, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.175$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of objecting to discipline. There is a reduction in the frequency of adolescents' objecting to discipline. One possible reason for this reduction of objecting to discipline from parents or teachers could be

that parents/teachers are using strict forms of discipline and are making adolescents aware of their norm violations.

Figure 5.19: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of objecting to discipline



In Figure 5.19 above, more Africans (18.1%) than Indians (12.5%) have objected to discipline once or twice from their parents or teachers, while (3.2%) Africans and (1.5%) Indians have three or four times objected to discipline.

5.5.3 (a) Race Differences: Regulation violations

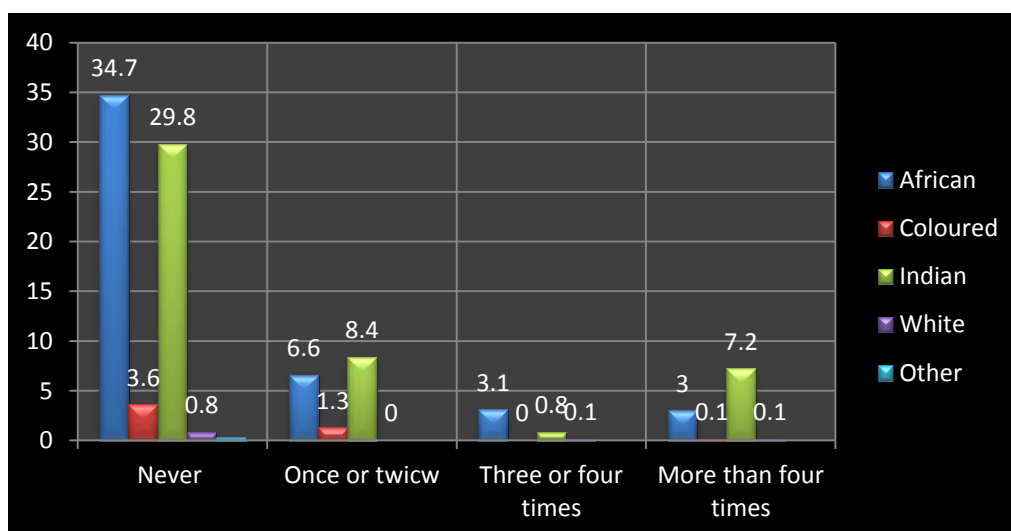
Table 5.21: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of driving unlicensed.

	Race
Pearson Correlation	0.103**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.005
N	741

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.21 above displays a small ($r= 0.103$, $N=741$, $p<0.01$) significant positive relationship between race and the frequency of driving a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.103$) is indicative of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of driving unlicensed, irrespective of their race. This means parents that are making adolescents aware of regulation violations such as driving a motor vehicle without a driver’s license which may have a positive influence on the adolescents’ driving unlicensed. In other words the more parents educate their adolescents about violating regulations and about the dangers of driving a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence this would influence the adolescent not to drive unlicensed.

Figure 5.20: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of driving unlicensed



In Figure 5.20 above, more Indians (8.4%) than Africans (6.6%) has driven a motor vehicle once or twice without a driver’s license, while more Africans (3.1%) than Indian (0.8%) has driven a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence three or four times. However, more Indians (7.2%) than (3%) Africans has more than four times driven a motor vehicle without a driver’s licence.

(b) Race Differences: Regulation violations

Table 5.22: Correlation: Race vs. frequency of watching a video/film not reserved for children

	Race
Pearson Correlation	-0.144**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	739

** $p < 0.01$

There is a small ($r = -0.144$, $N = 739$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative relationship evident in Table 5.22 above between race and frequency of watching a video or film reserved for “adults only” without permission from parents or guardians. Thus one can conclude that, adolescents watch films/videos reserved for “adults only” irrespective of their race. Conversely, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.144$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of watching films/videos reserved for “adults only” without parental permission. There is a reduction in the frequency of adolescents’ watching films/videos not reserved for them. One possible reason for this reduction of watching adults’ films/videos by adolescents could be that parents are supervising the content of the material watched by their adolescents.

Figure 5.21: Cross Tabulation by Race and frequency of watching a video/film not reserved for children

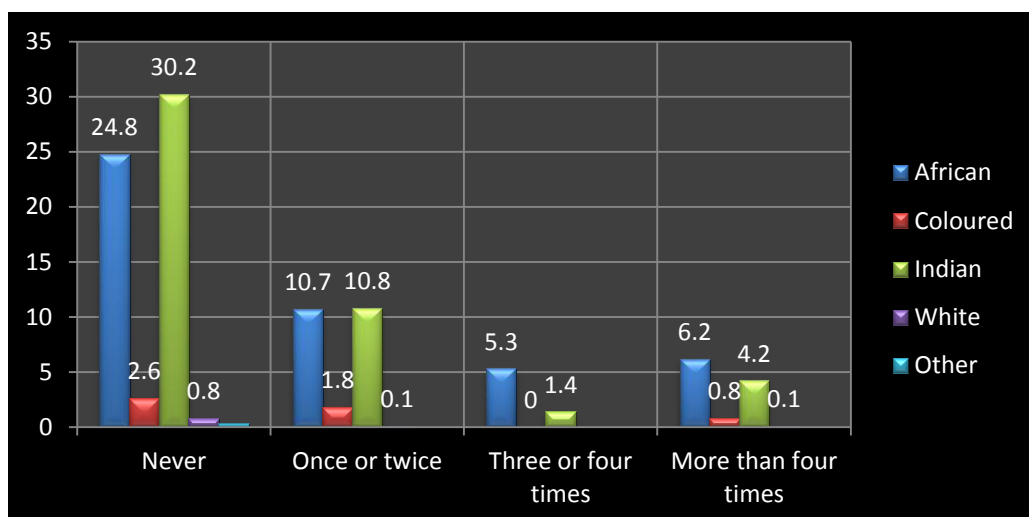


Figure 5.21 above displays an almost equal percentage of Indians (10.8%) and Africans (10.7%) have viewed videos and films reserved for “adults only” once or twice. And more Africans (5.3%) than Indians (1.4%) have three or four times viewed videos and films reserved for “adults only” without parental permission.

5.6 Discussions of Religion and juvenile delinquency trends:

For analysis of religion differences Pearson correlations with the religion categories are calculated for all significant delinquency items. For further clarification on religion differences bar graphs are presented below with the aim of displaying the trends of juvenile delinquent acts among school going adolescents in Chatsworth. Bar graphs are presented for each delinquency item. Presented in tables are correlations for each delinquency item and in some instances the level of significance is $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$.

5.6.1 Religion differences: Modes of discipline

Table 5.23: Correlation: Religion vs. frequency of physical punishment

	Religion
Pearson Correlation	-0.114**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002
N	731

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.23 above represents a small ($r = -0.114$, $N=731$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative correlation between religion and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parents or guardians. As a result, parents/guardians still use physical punishment as a mode of discipline, irrespective of the adolescents’ religion. Nevertheless, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.114$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency of physical punishment by parents or guardians. There is a reduction in the frequency of physical punishment by parents/guardians. One possible reason for this reduction of physical punishment could be that parents/guardians are using other modes of punishment such as scolding and restrictions.

Figure 5.22: Cross Tabulation by Religion and frequency of physical punishment

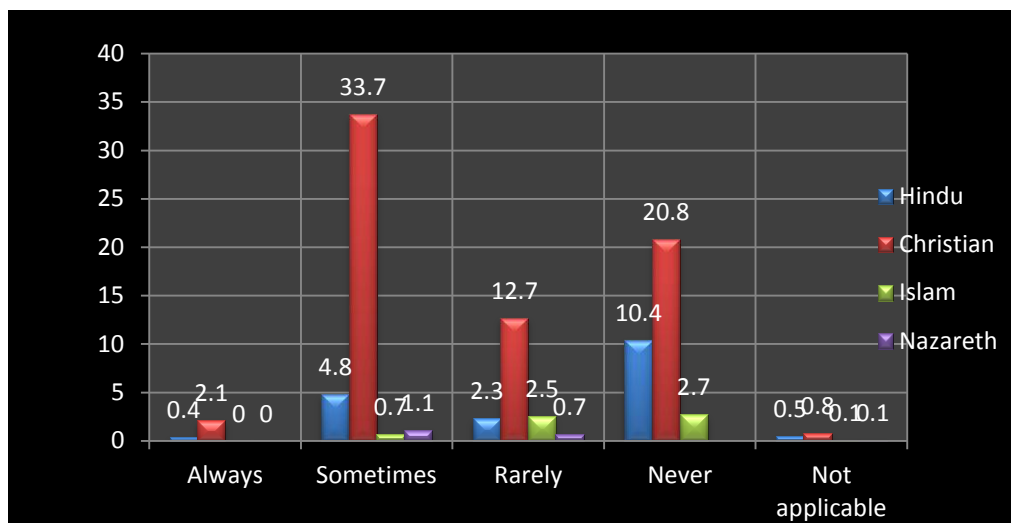


Figure 5.22 above exhibits that more Christians (33.7%) have “sometimes’ been punished with a stick or any other object in the “rarely” category, there are (12.7%) of Christians and (2.3%) of Hindus who are rarely punished with a stick or other object.

5.6.2 Religion differences: Regulation Violations

Table 5.24: Correlation: Religion vs. frequency of entering a bar or bottle store

	Religion
Pearson Correlation	-0.188**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
N	730

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5.24 above shows a small($r = -0.188$, $N = 730$, $p < 0.01$) significant negative relationship exists between religion and the frequency of entering a bar or bottle store or any place where alcohol is being sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. Thus one can conclude that, adolescents violate regulations such as entering a place not suitable for adolescents, irrespective of their religion. On the other hand, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.188$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency entering a bar or bottle store. There is a reduction in the frequency of adolescents’ entering a bar or bottle store being under the prescribed age of 18 years old. One possible reason for this

reduction of violating regulations could be that bar/bottle store owners are aware of the penalties they will face if they sell alcohol to underage adolescents’.

Figure 5.23: Cross Tabulation by Religion and frequency of entering a bar or bottle store.

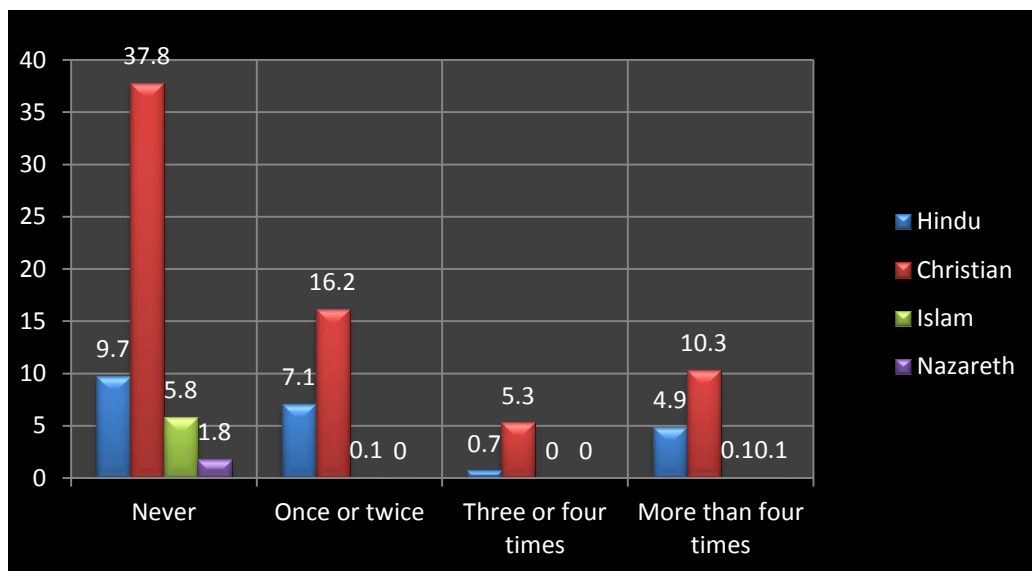


Figure 5.23 above reveals that more Christians (16.2%) than Hindus (7.1%) have once or twice entered a bar or bottle store where liquor is sold under the prescribed age of 18 years old. And (5.3%) of Christians have three or four times entered a bar or bottle store where liquor is sold under the prescribed age of 18 years old. However, (10.3%) of Christians, (3.3%) and (4.9%) of Hindu respondents have more than four times entered a bar or bottle store where liquor is sold under the prescribed age of 18 years old.

5.6.3 Religion differences: Malicious damage to property

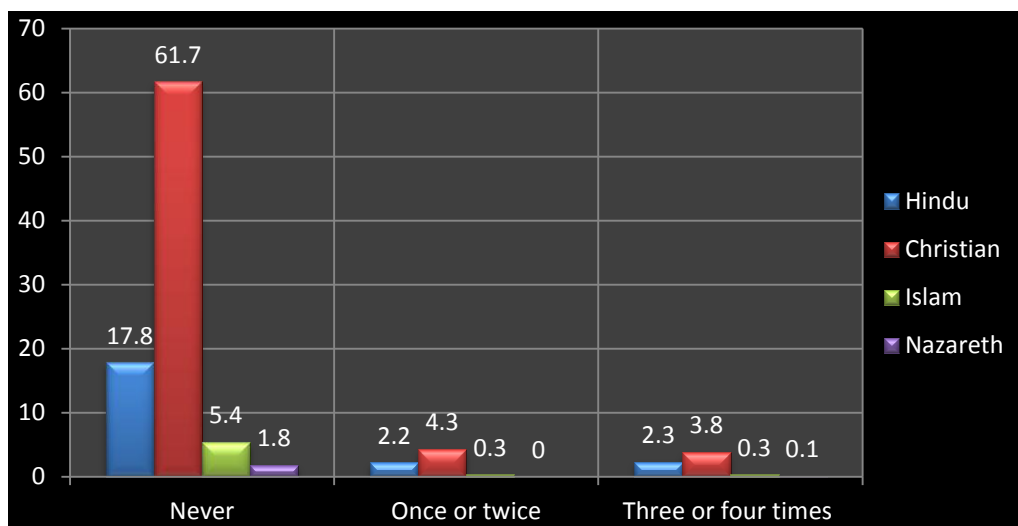
Table 5.25: Correlation: Religion vs. frequency of arson

	Religion
Pearson Correlation	-0.082*
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.027
N	736

* $p < 0.05$

There is a small ($r = -0.082$, $N = 736$, $p < 0.05$) significant negative relationship shown in Table 5.25 above between religion and the frequency of setting fire on property (arson) belonging to someone else. Therefore, adolescents commit malicious damage to property, in this case arson, irrespective of their religion. Though, the negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.082$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency of arson. There is a reduction in the frequency of adolescents' damaging property belonging to someone else. One possible reason for this reduction of arson could be that adolescents understand the seriousness of causing malicious damage to property belonging to someone else.

Figure 5.24: Cross Tabulation by Religion and frequency of arson.



In figure 5.24 above more Christians (4.3%) than Hindus (2.2%) have once or twice set fire on property belonging to someone else. And more Christians (3.8%) as compared to Hindus (2.3%) and (0.3%) of the Islam religion have set fire on property belonging to someone else three or four times.

5.7 Conclusion:

In this chapter the results were presented, analysed and interpreted in detail using Pearson correlations to establish correlations/ relationships between the various independent variables

(gender, age, race and religion. As well as descriptive statistics which depicted frequencies and percentages were supported by bar diagrams.

Chapter Six:

Results, Discussion and Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aimed to analyse the statistical results of juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in terms of age (13-18 years old), sex (males and females), racial groups (African, Indian, Coloured, White and other) and religious groups (Christianity, Hinduism, Islam and Nazareth). Limitations of study, recommendations of study and conclusions were included as well.

6.2 Discussions of the most important findings

The most important findings discussed in this section include sex, age, race and religion factors with the following significant delinquency categories': Modes of punishment; norm violations; regulation violations; regulation violations and malicious damage to property. However, in this study alcohol and drug use; violence and theft was not significant to juvenile delinquency among adolescents'. Following is a discussion of each of them with significant juvenile delinquent acts.

6.2.1 Gender and Juvenile Delinquency

Presently the different rates of delinquent activity for males and females is one of the most thoroughly documented and most widely accepted in the field of juvenile criminology (Hindelang, 1979; Walklate, 1995; Hood-Williams, 2001; Morash, 2005) This view had

historically been reinforced by traditional (Healy & Bronner, 1926; Burt, 1925; Thomas; 1923) and classical (Beccaria, 1738; Bentham, 1748; Lombroso 1835 cited in Walklate, 2007) researchers who were satisfied with official statistical data which supported the traditional perception that delinquency rates for males are higher than those of females. Newburn, (2002) contends that when gender is considered as a risk factor, there should be a focus on characteristics associated with the young, such as rebelliousness, impulsiveness and deceitfulness. He adds that although females do not necessarily experience these to a lesser extent, males are more exposed to criminogenic factors than females. In furthering this notion (Shaw & Tshiwula, 2002) argue that for instance, males generally live in a wider geographical area than females, spend more time outside the home, have greater freedom of physical movement and engage less in adult role activity compared to young females, and therefore also become engaged in delinquent activities. Young males also tend to act more aggressively than young females, with the result that some become involved in violent crime such as assault, rape and malicious damage to property (Smith, 2002).

In this study statistical data confirms a significant relationship between gender and juvenile delinquency trends among adolescents'. The Pearson Correlations indicate that juvenile delinquency acts reveal a negative or positive relationship between gender and juvenile delinquency.

- With respect to gender and modes of discipline there was a negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.105$) which is indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian.
- Gender and norm violations results indicated that sleeping out of home without parental permission is not gendered. Both males and females slept out of home without parental permission. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.147$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission.
- Gender and regulation violations such as driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence indicated that respondents violate regulations regardless of gender. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.392$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence.

- Gender and regulation violations such as entering a bar or bottle store being under the prescribed age of 18 years old indicates that respondents irrespective of gender enter a bar or bottle store. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.264$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of entering a bar or bottle store.
- Gender and regulation violations such as watching a video/film reserved for “adults only” without parental permission indicates that respondents violate regulations irrespective of gender. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.261$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of watching a video or film reserved for adults only.
- Gender and malicious damage to property such as vandalizing school property indicates that respondents engage in malicious damage to property such as vandalizing school property irrespective of gender. The small negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.077$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between gender and the frequency of vandalizing school property.

However, the altering roles of females in society and the differential handling of female juvenile delinquents by the criminal justice system play a part in accounting for the increase in female juvenile delinquency (Blanchette & Brown, 2006).

6.2.2 Age and Juvenile Delinquency

One of the most relentless conditions associated with the risk of committing crime is being young or belonging to a particular gender. According to Hirschi and Gottfredson (1983), for instance, argue that everywhere age is correlated with crime regardless of race, gender, social class or any other social variable. This means that people will commit less crime with increase in age, regardless of reasons for originally engaging in anti –social behavior (Potgieter, Mqadi, & Khoza, 1992). In South Africa 44% of the total population are less than 20 years of age (Shaw & Tshiwula, 2002). The present study regards age as an important variable in the involvement in delinquency because of the sample consists of persons in their adolescence stage whose socio psychological make-up is such that they are most vulnerable to deviant temptations.

In this study statistical data confirms a significant relationship between age and juvenile delinquency trends among adolescents'. The Pearson Correlations indicate that juvenile delinquency acts reveal a negative or positive relationship between age and juvenile delinquency.

- The research finding between age and modes of discipline shows a small significant negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.085$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between age and the frequency of punishment with a stick or any other object by parent or guardian.
- Age and modes of punishment such as refusing permission on visiting friends or viewing of television towards their children indicates that irrespective of the age of the adolescent is refused permission to watch TV or visit a friend. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.075$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between age and the frequency of refusing permission to visit a friend or watch TV by the respondents parent or guardian.
- Age and modes of punishment such as scolding indicate that parents/guardians continue using other modes of discipline such as scolding, towards their adolescent, irrespective of their age. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.111$) was indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of scolding.
- Age and norm violation such as staying away from school without a valid excuse indicates adolescents stay away from school regardless of age. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.196$) was indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of staying away from school without a valid excuse.
- Age and norm violation such as sleeping out of home without parental permission indicates that adolescents of all ages sleep out of home without parental permission. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r = 0.294$) is indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission.
- Age and norm violation such as objecting to discipline from parents or teachers indicates that adolescents of all ages object to discipline. The small positive

correlation coefficient ($r= 0.135$) was indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of objecting to discipline.

- Age and regulation violation such as driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence indicates that adolescents from all age groups violate this regulation. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.168$) was indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of driving unlicensed.
- Age and regulation violation such as entering a bar or bottle store indicates irrespective of age, adolescents enter a bar or bottle store or any place where liquor is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old.
- Age and regulation violation such as watching a video or film reserved for "adults only" indicates that adolescents' from all age groups watch a video/film reserved for adults only without parental permission. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.266$) was indicative of a positive relationship between age and the frequency of violating regulations such as watching a film/video reserved for "adults only".

Counter arguments (Farrington, 1986; Baldwin, 1985; Greenberg, 1977) suggest that age is an important detriment of crime and there are factors such as life-style, economic situation and peer group influence, that are directly associated with age. The disputation is that age, next to gender, is the best predictor of involvement in all forms of juvenile delinquency behaviour, so much so that criminality is perceived as being synonymous with youth. Put, otherwise, adolescence is a period that is mostly associated with deviance and its significance cannot be over looked in the study of crime.

6.2.3 Race and Juvenile Delinquency

According to Filley et al (2001), there are no actual criteria for racial groupings. Many individuals have mixed racial backgrounds that confound analysis. Racial differences the rates of crime diminish when socioeconomic status is considered. The same situation exists among the different cultural groups in South Africa who have mixed racial backgrounds and, because of the political policy before 1994, live in substandard socioeconomic areas. In South Africa Demombynes and Ozler (cited in Bhorat & Oosthuizen, 2006) analysed inequality in relation to racial groups and crime involvement. They found that most of the correlation

between burglary and inequality could be attributed to inequality within racial groups. On the other hand, there was no correlation between violent crime and inequality between racial groups. Although the elasticity of property crime with respect to inequality between groups was positive and significant.

In this study statistical data confirms a significant relationship between race and juvenile delinquency trends among adolescents'. The Pearson Correlations indicate that juvenile delinquency acts reveal a negative or positive relationship between race and juvenile delinquency.

- The research finding indicates a significant positive correlation between race and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parent or guardian. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.428.$) was indicative of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parent or guardian irrespective of their race.
- Race and modes of punishment such as refusal of permission to watch TV or visit friends indicates that adolescents from different race groups are is disciplined with this mode of punishment by parents/guardians. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.088.$) was indicative of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of being refused permission to visit friends or watch TV.
- Race and norm violations such as sleeping out of home without parental permission indicates adolescents sleep out of home irrespective of their race. The negative correlation coefficient ($r= -0.178$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of sleeping out of home without parental permission.
- Race and norm violation such as objecting to discipline from parents or teachers indicates adolescents of all races object to discipline from parents or teachers. The negative correlation coefficient ($r= -0.175$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of objecting to discipline.
- Race and regulation violation such as driving a motor vehicle without a license indicates adolescents violate this regulation irrespective of their race. The small positive correlation coefficient ($r= 0.103$) was indicative of a positive relationship between race and the frequency of driving unlicensed.

Race and regulation violation such as frequency of watching a video/film reserved for “adults only” indicates adolescents of all race groups watch “adults only” videos/films without parental permission. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.144$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between race and the frequency of watching films/videos reserved for “adults only” without parental permission.

6.2.4 Religion and Juvenile Delinquency

The relationship between religiousness and juvenile delinquency has long been a subject of interest among sociologists and church professionals. Arguments centre around the contention whether religion promotes social control; encourages development of moral values; and encourages acceptance of social norms and values (Elifson, Peterson & Hadaway; 1983).

In this study statistical data confirms a significant relationship between religion and juvenile delinquency trends among adolescents'. The Pearson Correlations indicate that juvenile delinquency acts reveal a negative or positive relationship between religion and juvenile delinquency.

- There was a significant negative correlation between religion and the frequency of being punished with a stick or any other object by their parents or guardians irrespective of the adolescents' religion. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.114$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency of physical punishment by parents or guardians.
- Religion and regulation violation such as entering a bar or bottle store or any place where alcohol is being sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years old indicates adolescents violate this regulation irrespective of their religion. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.188$) is indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency entering a bar or bottle store.
- Religion and malicious damage to property such as arson shows that adolescents commit malicious damage to property, irrespective of their religion. The negative correlation coefficient ($r = -0.082$) was indicative of an inverse relationship between religion and the frequency of arson.

Conflicting empirical results have been characteristic of religion and delinquency relationship. Other researchers (Travers & Davis, 1961; Rhodes & Reiss, 1970) indicate that involvement in formal religious activities is positively related to non-delinquent activities, whilst others (Kvaraceus, 1944; Hirschi & Stark, 1969) report virtually no relationship between religion and delinquency.

6.3 Recommendations for further research

Emanating from the findings the researcher makes the following broad recommendations:

- Future researchers given the methodological challenges experienced during the data collection process) to ensure adequate time and realistic methods when accessing children as participants given the gatekeeping and ethical issues that must be considered. Educators, parents and communities to pay greater attention not only to what youth are doing that could constitute anti-social behaviour but also what they are not doing that constitutes anti-social behaviour.
- That all role-players to co-ordinate workshops with youth encouraging positive behaviour.
- That all role-players to create forums where youth are given “voice” to express their psycho-social needs and that the state and civil societies create conducive spaces for healthy psycho-social spaces.
- That the Department of social development, SAPS and Department of education to collaborate on supporting youth before they engage in anti-social behaviour.
- In addition, other variables have to be taken into account such as socio-economic status, parent-child attachment styles, parental behaviour, family size, urban or rural area, peer pressure, neighbourhood and more for gaining a better understanding on the associations between these variables and juvenile delinquency among adolescents’.

6.4 Conclusion

This study revealed that there were no significant correlations between adolescents gender, age, race and religion and delinquency acts such as alcohol and drug use, violence and theft. However, there were significant correlations between gender (male and female) and modes of

punishment; norm violations; regulation violations; and malicious damage to property, followed by age (13-18 years) and modes of punishment; norm violations, and regulation violations, race (African, Indian, Coloured, White, Other) and modes of punishment; norm violations and regulation violations, and lastly religion (Christian, Hindu, Islam and Nazareth) and modes of punishment; regulation violations and malicious damage to property. This study forms a critical empirical study for future research.

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ANNEXURE A

SELF-ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS:

- Please fill in the following particulars as accurately as possible by means of a cross (X) in the appropriate block. Numbers appearing in blocks have no specific meaning or value; they are only necessary for quantification purpose.
- There is NO right or wrong answers here. Only your honest responses to all the questions that best reflect your personal opinion or past experience is required here.
- The information provided by the participant will be strictly held confidential and shall not be disclosed to any unauthorized person or organization.
- Any participant will also have the right to a copy of the study report on request.
- Your anonymity as an individual will be maintained at all costs.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

1. Gender?

1- Male	
2- Female	

2. Age?

1- 13 years	
2- 14 years	
3- 15 years	
4- 16 years	
5- 17 years	
6- 18 years	
7- other	

3. Race?

1- African	
2- Coloured	
3- Indian	
4- White	

5- Other	
----------	--

4. Religious group?

1- Hindu	
2- Christian	
3- Islam	
4- Nazareth	

SECTION B: DISCIPLINE METHODS/PRACTICES

How often does your parents or guardian who punishes you in any of the following methods?

5. How often have you been punished with a stick or any other object by your parent or guardian?

1- Always	
2- Sometimes	
3- Rarely	
4- Never	
5- Not applicable	

6. How often have you been refused permission to visit your friends or watch TV?

1- Always	
2- Sometimes	
3- Rarely	
4- Never	
5- Not applicable	

7. How often have you been scolded?

1- Always	
2- Sometimes	
3- Rarely	
4- Never	
5- Not applicable	

SECTION C: NORM VIOLATIONS

Young person's engage in activities that reflect conflict of growing up.

8. How often have you stayed away from school without a valid excuse

1- Never	
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2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

9. How often have you slept-out of home without parental permission?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

10. How often have you objected to discipline from your parents or teachers?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

SECTION D: REGUALTION VIOLATIONS

Certain regulations are not always observed by young persons.

11. Have you ever driven a motor vehicle without a driver's licence?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

12. Have you ever entered a bar or bottle store or any place where liquor is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

13. Have you ever watched a video or film reserved for 'adults only' without permission from parent(s) or guardian?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	

4- More than four times	
-------------------------	--

14. Have you ever drank beer, wine or hard liquor (brandy or spirits) without your parental permission?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

SECTION E: ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE

Young persons like to experience with strange things and those that reflect a teenage culture.

15. How often have you inhaled glue, petrol or benzine in order for him/her to get a “kick”?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

16. Have you ever taken a pill, mandrax or dagga or any drug in order for him/her to get a “kick”?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

17. On how many occasions (if any) have you had any alcoholic beverage to drink in your lifetime?
(Mark one box in each row)

	Number of occasions						
	0	1-2	3-5	6-9	10-19	20-39	40 +
1- In your lifetime							

SECTION F: VIOLENCE

Young person's sometimes solve their problems through violent means.

18. Have you ever taken part in a fist fight?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

19. Have you injured somebody with a weapon like stone, knife or stick?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

20. Have you bullied somebody just to see how that person reacts when threatened?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

SECTION G: THEFT

Young person's sometimes take things that do not belong to them.

21. Have you ever taken things from a shop or elsewhere without paying for them?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

22. Have you ever avoided paying in a taxi or bus by sneaking in?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

SECTION H: MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY

23. Have you ever destroyed property belonging to the school?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

24. Have you ever set fire on the property (arson) belonging to someone else?

1- Never	
2- Once or twice	
3- Three or four times	
4- More than four times	

Thank you very much for your willingness to participate in this very important study!!!!

ANNEXURE B: LETTER OF PERMISSION

University of KwaZulu – Natal

Department of Criminology

And Forensic Studies

Durban

August 2013

The Principal

RE: Request to administer Questionnaires to learners

It is a great pleasure to inform you that I am a registered student at the University of KwaZulu - Natal, Howard College for a Master's Degree in Criminology. Currently I am conducting an empirical research for the fulfillment of my degree programme. The topic that I have selected is "*A Quantitative Analysis of Juvenile Delinquency Trends among school-going adolescents in a select sample of Secondary Schools in Chatsworth, Durban*". The aim of my study is to determine juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in Chatsworth. It is envisaged that this study would therefore be beneficial to the institution and the community, and feedback would be provided on completion of the study. Permission is therefore requested to undertake the research at the facility. Confidentiality would be maintained at all times and subjects would have to consent to participate in the study.

Please note that I envisage the inclusion of Grade 8, 9, 10 and 11 pupils only in the final sample. The ultimate size of the sample will depend on accurate sampling estimates, i.e. the exact number of pupils registered in each grade (8, 9, 10 &, 11).

Your co-operation is highly appreciated.

Bonita Marimuthu (Researcher)

Dr. N. Gopal (Supervisor)

ANNEXURE D: LETTER OF APPROVAL FROM SCHOOL B



**ANNEXURE E
INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

Dear Participant,

I am a Masters student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am collecting data for my research study on *“A Quantitative Analysis on Juvenile Delinquency Trends among school going adolescents in a select sample of Secondary Schools in Chatsworth, Durban.”*

The objectives of this study are:

- To understand school going adolescents trends in juvenile delinquency within Chatsworth.
- To identify gendered patterns of juvenile delinquency trends among adolescents within Chatsworth.
- To determine the types of juvenile delinquency trends/acts prevalent among school going adolescents in Chatsworth.
- To contribute to the existing body of knowledge on juvenile delinquency within Chatsworth.

Please Note:

- Participation in this study is entirely voluntary.
- You will remain completely anonymous.

- You have the right to withdraw your participation from the study at any time.
- The data that you provide will be made available to you should you so wish

(Please indicate your answer with an X)

1. Have you been adequately informed about the research?
2. Do you understand that your identity and answers will not be appear in any Reports or publications arising from this study
3. Do you understand that you are free to refuse to answer any questions?
4. Do you understand that you may withdraw from the study at any time, without giving any reasons?
5. Do you understand that any information that you provide will be treated as confidential?
6. Do you agree to take part in the study?

Yes	No

Thank you for your co-operation and time

Should you have any further questions, please feel free to contact me Bonita Marimuthu at 207517376@stu.ukzn.ac.za, my Supervisor Dr Nirmala Gopal on 031 260 7984.

If you wish to obtain information on your rights as a participant, please contact Ms Phumelele Ximba, Research Office, UKZN, on 031 260 3587

I..... (Signature of participant) on the /.... /..... (Date) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research study, and I consent in participating in the research study.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the research study at any time, should I desire.

Signature of Student/Researcher: Date:.....

Signature of Supervisor: Date:



ANNEXURE F

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (For parents of participants)

Dear Parent

RE: Permission for your child's participation in completing a questionnaire on juvenile delinquency trends among school going adolescents in Chatsworth, Durban.

I am a Masters Research student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am collecting data for my research study on *“A Quantitative Analysis on Juvenile Delinquency Trends among school going adolescents in a select sample of Secondary Schools in Chatsworth, Durban.* This study is being carried out under the supervision of Dr N.Gopal , lecturer in the School of Criminology and Forensic Studies. I undertake that any information provided by your child will remain confidential and anonymous. This information may be useful to the Chatsworth community to gain a full understanding of the prevalent juvenile delinquency trends among youth in Chatsworth; this may prevent juvenile delinquency in Chatsworth for the future generation.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would agree to your child's participation in the study. If you are not agreeable to this, please return form with a written decision. Your child will not be inconvenienced in any way, or put under any pressure to participate. Thank you for your consideration in this matter, and for taking the time to read this letter.

Should you require further clarification please feel at liberty to contact me Miss Marimuthu on 207517376@stu.ukzn.ac.za or Supervisor Dr N. Gopal on 031 2607896.

I..... (Signature of Parent),on the/...../....., hereby confirm that i understand the contents of this document and the nature of this research study, and i consent my child's participation in this research study.

Signature of student/researcher: Date:.....

Signature of supervisor: Date:

Annexure G



24 October 2012

Ms BA Marimuthu 207517376
School of Applied Human Sciences – Criminology
Howard College Campus

Dear Ms Marimuthu

Protocol reference number: HSS/0554/012M

Project title: Perceived causes of juvenile delinquency amongst Indian youths: A case study review in Chatsworth, Durban

Full approval notification

This letter serves to notify you that your application in connection with the above has now been granted full approval following your response to queries raised by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol

Yours faithfully

.....
Professor Steven Collings (Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

cc Supervisor Dr Jean Steyn
cc Co-Supervisor Dr Nirmala Gopal
cc Academic leader Professor JH Buitendach
cc School Admin. Mr Mondli Ngubane

Professor S Collings (Chair)
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Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

