

**A criminological perspective of
juvenile crime at Emondlo**

by

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BA (Hons) Unisa**

**A Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Arts in
fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of
*Magister Artium***

**In the Department of Criminal Justice
University of Zululand**

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Date of submission: January 1997

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late grandfather Gilson Mkhize Buthelezi, my mother Elsinah, to my wife Joyce, to my brothers and sisters and to my loving children.

Isethulo

Lomsebenzi ngiwethula kumkhulu wami ongasekho uGilson Mkhize Buthelezi, kumama uElsinah, nonkosikazi uJoyce, kudadewethu nomfowethu nakubantwana bami abathandekayo.

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DECLARATION

I, GIBSON MANDLAKAYISE BUTHELEZI, DECLARE THAT THE M.A.-DISSERTATION: "A CRIMINOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE OF JUVENILE CRIME AT EMONDLO" REPRESENTS MY OWN WORK BOTH IN CONCEPTION AND EXECUTION AND THAT ALL THE SOURCES THAT I HAVE CONSULTED AND QUOTED, HAVE BEEN ACKNOWLEDGED BY MEANS OF COMPLETE REFERENCES.



.....
G. M. BUTHELEZI

Acknowledgments

I wish to express my gratitude to the following:

- My supervisor Dr L.P. Mqadi of the Department of Criminal Justice, University of Zululand who tirelessly guided me throughout my research and whose expertise has made this investigation a success.
- My co-supervisor, Mr V.I. Khoza of the Department of Criminal Justice, who helped me in the explanation of juvenile criminality in relation to theoretical perspective.
- Mrs D.A. Rosselloty for excellent skill and efficiency in typing the report.
- The fieldworkers, namely: Rev. P.M. Moloi and Mrs Moloi for their assistance in the distribution and collection of questionnaires.
- Miss T. Zondi for supplying me with relevant overseas study materials.
- My mother Elsinah N. Buthelezi for encouraging me up to this stage of my educational career.
- Last but not least, my warm thanks and loving appreciation to my wife Joyce Sizakele and two sons and one daughter for their unfailing moral support and understanding throughout the difficult times of my study.

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Summary

This study is based on the problem of juvenile crime in Emondlo. Statistics show that between September 1991 to end of August 1992, three hundred and seven (307) male juvenile offenders were arrested at Emondlo Township. This is against only 18 female offenders who were arrested during the same period. The investigation aims primarily at describing and explaining attitudes of residents to the aetiology of juvenile delinquency. It explores the attitudes of respondents towards the family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

This study engendered the following findings:

- gender does not influence the attitudes of respondents towards family on delinquency.
- gender has a significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.
- gender has no significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.
- gender has no significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.
- marital status has no significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in family influence on delinquency.
- marital status has significant difference towards the attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.
- marital status has no significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.

- marital status has no significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.
- language groups have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in family influence on delinquency.
- language groups have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.
- language groups have no significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.
- language groups have no significant difference towards the attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.
- occupational categories have significant differences towards attitudes of respondents in family influence on delinquency.
- occupational categories have significant differences towards attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.
- occupational categories have significant differences towards attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.
- occupational categories have significant differences towards attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.
- age group is related to the attitude of respondents towards family influence on delinquency.
- age group is significantly related to the attitude of respondents towards school influence on delinquency.

- age group is not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency.
- age group is significantly related to peer group influence on delinquency.
- educational qualifications towards the attitudes of respondents are not significantly related to family influence on delinquency.
- educational qualifications towards the attitudes of respondents are significantly related to school influence on delinquency.
- educational qualifications towards the attitudes of respondents are not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency.
- educational qualifications towards attitudes of respondents are significantly related to peer group influence on delinquency.

Recommendations are based on the role of the family, school, leisure time and peer group influence in crime prevention.

Iqoqo

Lolucwaningo luqondene nenkinga yobugebengu obenziwa intsha Emondlo. Izibalo zikhomba ukuthi kusukela kuSeptemba 1991 kuya ku-Agasti 1992, ziwu 307 izelelesi zesilisa eziseyizingane elokishini laseMondlo ezaboshwayo. Kanti izelelesi zesifazane ezaboshwa ngesikhathi esifanayo ziwu 18. Ucwaningo lujonge ekubaluleni nasekuchazeni imizwa yezakhamuzi mayelana nokwanda kobuhlongandlebe. Lolucwaningo luphenya imizwa noma imibono yabantu mayelana neqhaza lomndeni, lesikole, ezikaqedisizungu kanye neqembu lentsha elikhula ndawonye ekugqugquzeleni ubugebengu.

Lolucwaningo luveze lemibono:

- Ubulili abunamthelela emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Ubulili benza umehluko omkhulu emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lesikole ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Ubulili abunamthelela emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Ubulili abunamthelela emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lamaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Isimo somshado asiwenzi umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Isimo somshado asinawo umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lesikole ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Isimo somshado asiwenzi umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.

- Isimo somshado asiwenzi umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lamaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izilimi zenza umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izilimi zenza umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lesikole ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izilimi azenzi mehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izilimi azenzi mehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana namaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izikhundla zenza umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izikhundla zenza omkhulu umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lesikole ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izikhundla zenza omkhulu umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izikhundla zenza omkhulu umehluko emibonweni yabantu mayelana neqhaza lamaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Iminyaka iyahambisana nemibono mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Iminyaka iyahambisana nemibono mayelana neqhaza lesikole ekwenzeni ubugebengu.

- Iminyaka ayihambisani nemibono mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Iminyaka iyahambisana nemibono mayelana neqhaza lamaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izinga lemfundo alihambisani nemibono mayelana neqhaza lomndeni ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izinga lemfundo alihambisani nemibono mayelana neqhaza lezikaqedisizungu ekwenzeni ubugebengu.
- Izinga lemfundo liyahambisana nemibono mayelana neqhaza lamaqembu akhula ndawonye ekwenzeni ubugebengu.

Izincomo zibhekele kakhulu eqhazeni elingabanjwa umndeni, isikole, ezikaqedisizungu kanye neqembu labantu abakhula ndawonye ekuvimbeni ubugebengu.

Chapter 1

General orientation to the study

1.1 General Introduction

Juvenile crime is not a twentieth century problem but one which has plagued communities for many centuries. In recent years, however, it has increased in scope and severity and there are signs that if legal systems do not reorganize their strategies, they are bound to lose the battle (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:25).

Research in general shows that most offenders in our criminal population are relatively young persons and criminals begin their careers at a relatively young age (Graham, 1989:17). Studies (Greenberg, 1977:189; Baldwin, 1985:1326-1329; Mqadi, 1994:184-196) have shown a curvilinear relationship between age and delinquency. Giallombardo (1966:54-57) notes that delinquency begins at a very early age and takes the form of a variety of deviant activities such as petty theft and common assault. At late adolescence these petty offences are replaced by serious offences such as robbery, rape, serious assault and homicide.

The family is undoubtedly one of the most important factors in shaping of juvenile crimes. The family is the medium through which the manifold influences of the society reaches its younger members; the thoughts, character and educational methods of the family members directly influence the young. Family factors contributing to juvenile crime are complicated. Some deviate because of a loss of one parent or both and a lack of family affection, others because of poor upbringing and still others because of family financial difficulties (Guanghan, Jianzhong & Zhenru, 1986:27).

The idea that many schools are delinquency-producing agencies is fundamentally based on two types of accusations: (1) the school's failure as a socialization agency – this refers to the school's inability to inculcate upon

students the necessary social skills that enable them to interact especially with peers and adults and (2) failure in academic subject may produce a situation in which students are frustrated and they (pupils) may turn into delinquent conduct (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:146; Graham, 1988:5).

Leisure schemes and patterns of leisure activities vary from one person to another. The individual can decide how he wants to utilize this uncommitted free time, for example, he may spend it in idleness or sports. Lack of sufficient recreational facilities could produce frustration amongst juveniles who want to take part in various sports. The non-involvement of juveniles in an organized recreational activity may be a recipe for misconduct. (Hendry, 1978:107; Garton & Cartmel, 1986:5).

The peer group may be viewed as an informal network of individuals of approximately the same age. Peers are thus individuals with whom a youth shares common problems and experiences. The peer group is a convenient structure which is suitable for needs of emotionally disturbed children who are unable to meet the demands required for participation in normal groups. The peer group is a crime predisposing factor as it creates opportunities outside family situation for children to commit crime (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:70; Corsano, 1985:121-173).

Theories on juvenile crime have a long time reflected the opinions of social practitioners and attitudes of community members towards delinquency. Lay opinions in the study of juvenile crime are important, Hollin and Howells (1987:203-210) maintain that views about delinquency causation extend beyond opinions of experts to those of lay persons. The public would view juvenile crime as a product of the failure of the family and school as control institutions and laxity of society in controlling the youth. Such views cannot be ignored and have implications for policy-making and juvenile crime control in general. If today's youth are defective the community will experience the consequences, both now and in the generations ahead (Martin & Fitzpatrick, 1965:3-4). The criminal behaviour of youngsters involve all types of activities and is also committed by youth from all social backgrounds.

Juvenile criminality is a pervasive problem in Emondlo. The statistics given below indicate the extent of juvenile delinquency in Emondlo. Juveniles indicated below were less than 20 years but above 14 years of age.

Table 1.1 Extent of juvenile delinquency in Emondlo September 1991 to August 1992

Months	Male	Female
1991 September	34	—
October	23	4
November	34	3
December	20	0
1992 January	23	3
February	29	1
March	29	0
April	23	1
May	20	2
June	24	1
July	23	1
August	<u>25</u>	<u>2</u>
	<u>307</u>	<u>18</u>

Table 1.1 indicates that between September 1991 to the end of August 1992, 307 male juvenile offenders were arrested at Emondlo Township. This is against only 18 female offenders who were arrested during the same period. Such statistics indicate that an average of 26 juvenile offenders are arrested each month for any offence at Emondlo.

The problem of juvenile crime touches the life of all people – rich and poor, powerful and powerless. The problem of juvenile crime has not only existed but it is a source of concern amongst the adult sector in this area. The increase in arrest statistics has led the general public to believe that juvenile crime is a pressing social problem and is of such proportion that it is unprecedented in the history of this region.

The augmented juvenile crime has created new views or attitudes which have affected most members of the community, particularly the police and social workers who, amongst other things, are responsible for combating crime. The general notion is that social factors contribute to juvenile crime. Social structures such as family, school, peer groups and leisure activities determine success or failure of the juveniles.

The present investigation is centred on a criminological perspective of juvenile crime in Emondlo. For a comprehensive understanding of this issue, the following aspects are analyzed:

- attitudes of the public towards the cause of juvenile crime with special reference to family, school, leisure activities and peer groups.
- preventive measures of delinquency that have the support of the public.

1.2 Rationale for the study

The rationale for undertaking such a study is based on the following:

- (a) The researcher has studied juvenile crime in Ulundi and that has engendered an unprecedented interest on his part to study about juveniles. The study on juvenile crime in Ulundi was a partial fulfilment of requirements for honours BA degree in 1992. It would be to the interest of residents in Emondlo to carry out a similar investigation on juvenile crime in the area.
- (b) Besides the fact that juvenile crime is a problem amongst residents in Emondlo, it is noted that no research was ever carried out in the area.

It is hoped that this study will help establish views of residents about the causes of juvenile crime and to propose preventative measures. The result of the investigation could contribute to existing literature on crime in general and on juvenile crime in particular.

- (c) The feasibility of undertaking the study of juvenile delinquency at Emondlo is made possible by juvenile arrest figures and the preparedness of public in assisting the researcher to obtain the necessary data.

1.3 Aims of the study

The aims of the present study are as follows:

- To establish views or attitudes of residents of the area on what they regard as contributory to juvenile crime with special reference to family, school, leisure time and influence of peer groups; and
- To establish and propose preventative measures with a view to control juveniles offending in Emondlo.

1.4 Hypotheses

McGuigan (1968:35) defines a hypothesis as a tentative solution to a problem, whereas Cilliers (1973:36) defines it (hypothesis) as a theoretical proposition, which if it's confirmed by the research, acquires the status accorded to scientific statements, laws or scientificness.

Brown and Ghiselli (1955:138) define the hypothesis as a "... proposition about factual and conceptual elements and their relationship that project beyond known facts and experience for the purpose of further experience."

Webster, 1968 (Bailey, 1987:41) defines a hypothesis as a tentative assumption made in order to draw out and test it's logical or empirical consequences. Bailey (1987:41) defines a hypothesis as a tentative explanation for which evidence for testing is at least potentially available. In this study a hypothesis is regarded as a tentative intelligent opinion or guess postulated for the purpose of directing one's reasoning toward the solution of the problem. To carry out the aims of study the following hypotheses have been formulated.

Hypothesis 1

There are significant differences between male and female respondents in their attitudes towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 2

Age of respondents is related to the attitudes towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 3

There are significant differences amongst language groups towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Hypotheses 4

Educational qualifications of respondents are related to the attitude towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 5

There are significant differences amongst marital status categories of respondents towards the influence of family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 6

There are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards the influence of family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

Criminological research, using its research methods aims at establishing reliable and valid pronouncements. To achieve this the investigator has got to define his field of study and groups being investigated, both qualitatively and quantitatively. This implies delimitation of investigation. Van der Westhuizen (1982:39) says that "... the rationale for such delimitation or reductions are perhaps that he (researcher) lacks the means or the time to analyse all cases or that he is interested in only certain sub-groups within the global group.

1.5.1 Areal delimitation

The study is confined to Emondlo Township. This township is situated in the Northern part of KwaZulu-Natal approximately 40km from Vryheid.

1.5.2 Qualitative delimitation

In qualitative delimitation the nominal reduction of the research group is effected, i.e. the group is refined in respect of certain characteristics which are present or absent in each member (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:39). For the purpose of this research, only a representative of residents of Emondlo township is included.

1.5.3 Quantitative delimitation

The research includes the research group, namely members of the community of Emondlo township. A sample of research group is taken and not necessarily proportionate to the total universe. To include the total population in this

research would be totally unrealistic. Such an approach to this research is justified in that according to Van der Westhuizen (1982:39) it is not the size of the sample in relation to the total population which determines reliability and validity of a research, but whether the sample is a reasonably true representative of the population.

1.6 Research methodology

Research methodology refers to techniques and procedures for carrying out an investigation and in particular methods used by the researcher (Van der Walt, Cronje & Smit, 1982:159). Research methodology aims at studying research methods and techniques, facilitation of tasks of the research in sampling, definition of terms, explanation of research procedures and systematization of findings and report verifying. Vito, Latessa and Wilson (1988:3) view research methodology as a technique for finding out what has taken place. It is a procedure for carrying out an inquiry.

Research methodology aims at the following:

- Studying of research procedures and setting of standards;
- Selection of suitable research procedures and techniques; and
- Facilitating the task of the researcher in the selection of subjects, clarification of terms, explication of empirical findings and verifying reports (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:160)

1.6.1 Research methods

The goal of every research is based on the assumption that all behaviours and events are orderly and that they are effects which have discoverable causes. Research is thus a formal, intensive, systematic application of the scientific method of the study problems; a systematic attempt to provide answers to questions; and a search for truth (Dreyer, 1983:31).

According to van der Walt *et al.* (1982:168-169) a method of research is a way of planned, verifying and systematising action that serves as a method of work with the use of what is scientifically known to form a science. Therefore, the scientists predict and control the phenomenon and the aim in research cannot be reached unless the scientists use research methods. These research methods are of importance in an investigation because through their use the researcher can realize the phases of the research process which is the collection of data, systematization, processing and explanation. Van der Walt *et al.* (1982:169) state that there are three scientific methods at disposal of the criminologist, namely, case analysis, mass observation and analytical methods.

1.6.1.1 The method of case analysis

Case analysis method in criminological research is used if the researcher regards a phenomenon, like delinquency, as an individual-human phenomenon. The idea of a "case" in criminology refers to an individual delinquent. The assumption on which case analysis rests in criminology is that crime is an individual-human phenomenon and the individual should be the point of departure.

In social science, generally a "case" need not be an individual human being. A community may be taken as a case, whereupon a comprehensive description of its peculiar components may be studied with the aim of learning about its history, religious, political and racial make-up (Babbie, 1989:32-33; Mqadi, 1994:38).

The case analysis method is used when one regards crime as an individual human phenomenon. The perceptible particulars of a case are studied with the aim of demonstrating the structural or functional factors responsible for its existence (descriptive); determination of its relation to other factors (explanatory); gaining new knowledge and testing the validity of existing knowledge or hypothesis. The case analysis method could, therefore, be regarded as a particularistic method (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:170).

1.6.1.2 The method of mass observation

According to van der Walt *et al.* (1982:172-174) the method of mass observation is used when the researcher regards crime as a mass phenomenon. This method is also known as the statistical method. Quetelet was the first person to use statistics and realized that crime can, through statistics be measured and controlled (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:124).

The value of crime statistics in research lies, firstly, on the description and trends of crime. Secondly, it enables the researcher to undertake comparative studies and, thirdly, through crime statistics, researchers can predict and symbolically control crime, provide legislators with facts for policy formulations and provide a basis through which the courts, police and correctional institutions can upgrade their services. Thus, the method of mass observation is also particularistic and involves designing research, describing collected data and making decisions upon collected data (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:151; Mqadi, 1994:39).

1.6.1.3 The analytical method

This method is used when the researcher sees crime as a combination of individual human and social phenomenon. This method is "unrelated" and thus known as a non-particularistic method. Under the analytical method, the case analysis and mass observation methods are synthesised in which case they lose their status as methods and become techniques of analytical method (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:174-175).

Whilst the method of mass observation is used to explain and apply the findings in the analytical method inferences about a population are made from the analyzed samples (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:105).

Leedy (1980:173) says that in the analytical method, quantitative data are analyzed by means of statistical tools for the purpose of probing so that researchers may infer certain meanings which lie hidden within these data.

Further, in the analytical method, the researcher is concerned with problems of estimation and testing of statistically based hypotheses.

In the analytical method statistics have the following functions:

- * determination of the centre of the data being measured;
- * determination of the diversity of data;
- * determining how closely or distantly certain characteristics of the data are related and
- * determining the degree to which facts may have occurred by mere chance or if there is a probability of it being influenced by some other force (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:106; Mqadi, 1994:40).

Van der Westhuizen (1982:3-4) identifies four general functions of the analytical method, namely:

(a) **Goal achievement function**

The analytical method is goal-directed and through relevant techniques provides for descriptive, explanatory and applicative investigations.

(b) **Adaptive function**

Through the use of the analytical method the investigator can lay down a meaningful relationship between a fact and a theory.

(c) **Intergrative function**

It enables the investigator to be neutral and to study phenomenon on both group and individual human level.

(d) **Pattern maintenance function.** The analytical method respects recognised methodological principles and yet leaves room for change refinement and innovation (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:4)

The analytical method is used in the present study to describe responses made by various residents of Emondlo Township. These respondents' responses will

be explained with a view to gaining knowledge and insight into them and for the purpose of predicting and controlling juvenile crime in the area.

1.6.2 Research techniques

Johnson (1956:192) states that techniques in research are different from methods. Techniques are aids, used or developed by the investigator to enable him to observe a phenomenon that cannot be observed satisfactorily by senses alone.

Also, Suchman (1967:320) views research techniques as basical tools that must be evaluated in terms of how well they do the job for which they have been constructed.

Techniques used in research are chosen or designed by the investigator with the sole purpose of securing the required data. This means that techniques used must be reliable, i.e. they must produce the same measurement upon repeated use, and valid, i.e. the results the techniques produce must be applicable to other populations under the same or different conditions. Techniques in research are then subsidiary to research methods. Different types of techniques can be used jointly and supplement each other. The following techniques are used in this study.

1.6.2.1 The documentary study technique

According to Leedy (1980:69) the documentary study technique is otherwise known as the literature study technique. Thus technique is important for any investigation, for the researcher must be aware of the activities of others before him.

Documentary sources include reports, articles in periodicals, books, diaries, biographies, autobiographies and other unpublished materials (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:212-214):

The purpose of literature study in an investigation is as follows:

- (a) To reveal similar investigations and show how collateral research has handled them.
- (b) To suggest a method or technique of dealing with the investigation.
- (c) Reveals sources of data which the researcher may not have known existed.
- (d) Enables the researcher to see his study in historical and associative perspective in relation to a more primitive attack on the problem.
- (e) Introduces the researcher to significant research personalities whose research efforts he may have had no knowledge of.
- (f) Provides new ideas and assists in evaluating ideas of others. (Leedy, 1985:69).

In the theoretical part of this research, the researcher makes use of this technique to a very large extent, and for this purpose all books, articles, etc. that have been consulted are accounted for in the bibliography.

However, the following categories of documents were consulted extensively with the aim of understanding various approaches to the problem of crime.

(A) Official documents

Official documents are primary sources that include acts of Parliament, official reports, annual reports, maps, police dockets, etc.

In the present study police dockets were consulted with a view to establish the extent of juvenile criminality for the period 1991/1992. (cf. table 1.1)

South African Criminal Procedure Act of 1977 was also studied with a view to establish legal provision for juvenile offenders.

The files consisting of the list of houses within Emondlo Township were acquired from superintendent's office. From these official documents the researcher was able to secure number of residential houses within Emondlo Township. It is from these that the sample was drawn (cf. table 1.2).

(B) Books and periodicals

Books and periodicals are secondary sources which include technical journals and literature that contain reports on related research projects. The periodicals enable the researcher to see how other researchers have dealt with the problem of juvenile offenders.

(a) Research methodology

- (i) Babbie, E. 1990. *Survey Research Methods, 2nd edition*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- (ii) Bailey, K.D. 1987. *Methods of Social Research, 3rd edition*. New York: McMillan.
- (iii) Leedy, P.D. 1980. *Practical Research, planning and design*. New York. McMillan Publishing Company.
- (iv) Fitzgerald, J.D. and Cox, C.M. 1987. *Research Methods in Criminal Justice: an introduction*. Chicago. Nelson Hall.

(b) Theoretical foundations

For theoretical foundations of the study many sources were widely consulted. These sources are used to explain the problem of juvenile crime in theoretical perspective. The following few proved to be relevant and indispensable to the study.

- (i) Hirschi, T. 1969. *Causes of delinquency*. Berkeley, California: University of California Press.
- (ii) Griffin, B.S. & Griffin, S.G. 1978. *Juvenile delinquency in perspective*. London: Harper & Row Publishers, New York.
- (iii) Graham, J. 1989. *Families parenting skills and delinquency*. House office research and planning unit research bulletin Vol. 26: 17-21.

1.6.2.2 Data Collection techniques

Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:89) identify three techniques for gathering information, namely, direct observation, communication with others about what they have observed and learning from recorded sources.

(A) Questionnaire

A questionnaire as a means of data collection was used in this investigation. Schnetler, Dixon, Stoker and Herbert, (1989:44) point out that a questionnaire is an important instrument for data collection. The questionnaire is used in the collection of data on beliefs, values, behavioural patterns, etc. Huysamen (1994:128) shows that questionnaires may be used to obtain the following information from respondents: biographical particulars (the age, educational qualifications) typical behaviour, opinions, beliefs and convictions. This technique is used to establish the views or attitudes of residents on what they regard as causes of juvenile crime in Emondlo. Structured questions are contained in the questionnaires.

The format of the questionnaire was drawn after consulting a variety of sources. The questionnaire was divided into the following sections:

Section A

Personal particulars

- * gender
- * age
- * home language
- * educational qualifications
- * marital status
- * occupation

Section B

The role of the family

- * Father criminal
- * Both parents criminals
- * Stepmother
- * Mother absence
- * Mother criminal
- * Father absence
- * Family size
- * Stepfather
- * Family conflict

Section C

The role of school

- * Poor school performance
- * Corporal punishment/school
- * Truancy
- * Pupil/teacher relationship
- * Teacher failure to teach
- * Teacher failure to identify
- * School curriculae
- * Labelled delinquent children
- * Teacher lax discipline

Section D

The role of leisure time

- * Community recreational facilities
- * Emondlo recreational facilities
- * Non-involvement in organized recreation
- * Non-participation in decision making.

Section E

The influence of peer groups.

- * Peer group influence
- * Peer group-related crimes
- * Unisex influence
- * Peer group mechanisms
- * Peer group opportunities
- * Peer group as agent of socialization
(cf. annexure A)

(B) Field workers

Field workers were employed on a temporary basis to assist with the distribution and collection of questionnaires amongst respondents. Field workers were rightly trained and informed about their duties and responsibilities. They were specifically trained in terms of any irregularities such as assisting and interpreting the nature and extent of the statements contained in the questionnaire. They were also informed about the distribution of the sample in the area. All field workers had done or passed Std X.

1.6.2.3 Sampling techniques

Schnetler *et al.* (1989:117) states that social research often requires a sample to be taken from populations for which it is sometimes difficult or impossible to compile lists for purpose of sampling.

A sample is a subset of the population and sampling is a technique of selecting a subset in a way that maximises the likelihood that it will serve as an adequate representative of the population as a whole (Weiss, 1968:220).

Also, van der Walt *et al.* (1982:40) views a sample as the numerical reduction of the universe or population; a partial collection of the universe or population; and a valid representation of the universe or population.

A sample consists of selected elements from a population that will be observed in order to learn something about the entire population (Fitzgerald & Cox, 1987:71).

(A) Probability sampling

Huysamen (1994:37) says that probability sampling encompasses random sampling, stratified samples, systematic samples and cluster samples. The non-probability samples include purposive samples, quota samples and snowball samples. With regard to probability samples the possibility that only element in population will be included in a sample can be determined.

Probability sampling allows the researcher to specify the probability that any given unit in the population will be included in the sample. Probability sampling rests on the assumptions that, firstly, human populations like adolescents are heterogeneous with variations such as sex, age, standard education and different family structures. Secondly, selecting respondents: for the study by chance can lead to conscious and unconscious bias. Lastly, the representativeness of the sample should be limited to those characteristics that are relevant to the substantive interests of the study (Mqadi, 1984:44-45; Babbie, 1989:70-71).

Probability sampling therefore is regarded as the logical sampling technique for the present study and was carried out with a view to ensuring that all units had an equal chance of being selected.

A cluster sampling is used in this investigation and it is performed in more than one phase. A list of houses from the Superintendent's office in Emondlo was acquired. It is observed that there are four distinct sections in the area. House numbers of the four sections range as follows:

Section A	A 0001 - A 2500
Section B	B 0001 - B 2700
Section C	C 0001 - C 1500
Section D	D 0001 - D 1800

Phase one (1)

Sections A B C and D are taken as clusters in this section.

Phase two (2)

From each cluster a random sample is selected by picking up every 15th household of 8 500. Thus 570 units were to be included in the investigation.

(B) Non-probability sampling

Conversely, in non-probability sampling, this possibility is so far as does exceed zero cannot be specified. Some elements have no chance (i.e. have a probability of zero.)

Non-probability sampling techniques are employed for situations in which sampling would be prohibitively expensive and when precise representativeness is not necessary (Babbie, 1989:97; Mqadi, 1994:45).

Non-probability sampling is non-random and is useful in pilot surveys. The non-probability sample's 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).

As will be explained later, non-probability sampling is used in the study for conducting a pilot survey with the aim of conducting pretests.

1.6.2.3.1 Statistical analysis of research group

Following is a statistical description of the respondents who have been included in this investigation. This tabular presentation of data pertaining to the demographic characteristics of respondents is merely intended to give general description of the composition of the sample group as a whole. The following demographic (independent) variables relating to the characteristics of the sampling group, will be analysed and described:

- * Gender
- * Marital status
- * Language group
- * Occupation
- * Educational qualification
- * Age category

Table 1.2 Frequency distribution of respondents

Sex	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Male	334	61.7
Female	207	38.3
TOTAL:	541	100.0

Marital Status	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Married	145	26.8
Divorced	29	5.4
Living together	63	11.6
Widow/Widower	33	6.1
Single	271	50.1
TOTAL:	541	100.0

Occupation	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Employer	28	5.2
Self-employed	45	8.3
Employee	244	45.1
Temporarily unemployed	39	7.2
Student	153	28.3
Housewife	9	1.7
Pensioner	14	2.6
Disabled	9	1.7
TOTAL:	541	100.0

Education	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Standard 6	43	7.9
Standard 7	33	6.1
Standard 8	87	16.1
Standard 9	48	8.9
Standard 10	187	34.6
Diploma	77	14.2
Degree	66	12.2
TOTAL:	541	100.0

Age Category	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
18-24	151	27.9
25-34	162	29.9
35-44	99	18.3
45-54	67	12.4
55-64	41	7.6
65+	21	3.9
TOTAL:	541	100.0

Language Group	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Zulu	432	79.9
Tsonga	40	7.4
Sotho	19	3.5
Swazi	33	6.1
Venda	14	2.6
Other	3	0.6
TOTAL:	541	100.0

1.6.3 Measurement and scaling

Bailey (1987:60) states that measurement process forms an integral part of social research and generally entails the assignment of numbers to concepts or variables (statements).

Stevens (1951:22) defines measurement as an assignment of numbers, in terms of fixed rules, to individuals to reflect differences between in some or other characteristics or attributes.

Zeller and Carmines (Riley, 1963:23) offer a more appropriate social science oriented definition of measurement, namely: "... the process of linking abstract concepts to empirical indicants." This process includes both an explicit organised plan for classified and quantifying particular data (indicants) in terms of the general concept in the researcher's mind. The advantage of this definition is that measurement is viewed as a process involving both theoretical as well as empirical considerations when conducting research.

Van der Westhuizen (1977:87) regards scaling as the construction of some sort of measuring scale. A scale (like attitude scaling) is the operational rule that is used in a measurement. When a researcher is interested in the contents or processes of people's minds they should be asked to respond (react) to stimuli (e.g. a set of variables) presented to them (e.g. by means of questionnaires). It is the peculiar problems involved in constructing scales to measure the contents of people's minds that make scaling so important in social science. The mere presence of a human being (respondent) in a scientific measurement should not be singled out as being the primary source of the researcher's interest in scaling. Respondent's responses should rather be of interest to the researcher, especially the accumulations of variations in reactions to stimuli within or among persons (sample group) under changing conditions (Simon & Burstein, 1985:206-207).

Bailey (1982:497) shows that scaling also implies an item or set of items (or statements) for measuring some characteristics or property such as an attitude.

There are four scaling methods at the disposal of the researcher, namely: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.

A nominal scale is also used for the coding of closed-end questions such as asking respondents their gender (male or female) marital status (single, married, widowed or divorced, etc.)

Schnetler *et al.* (1989:68) points out that the scale involves the respondent in choosing between a number of categories of response, giving an indication of the degree of agreement or disagreement with the attitude being measured. The categories have allotted scores (numerical values) and the respondent's attitude is measured by the total score, which is the sum of the scores of the categories that he selects for each item.

Babbie (1989:405) also shows that in a Likert-type scale, a respondent is presented with a statement or statements in the questionnaire and is asked to indicate whether he or she "strongly agrees", "agrees", is, "undecided", "disagrees" or "strongly disagrees". Modifications of the wording of the response categories is permissible, for example, "always", "often", "undecided", "sometimes", or "never", "very good", "good", "undecided", "poor" or "very poor".

Sherif and Sherif (Warren & Johoda, 1979:396-397) are of the opinion that the aforementioned allocation of response categories is of remarkable importance in operational measuring of attitudes of acceptance, non-commitment and rejection.

Sherif, Sherif and Nebergal (1965:233) concluded that the inclusion of the undecided category enables the Likert-type scale to define those positions where respondents may choose not to respond negatively or positively: "... while he is not forced by the research procedures to evaluate every position". Following is an example of the process of calibration, accommodating the latitude of acceptance, accommodating the latitude of acceptance/rejection/ non-commitment.

Strongly agree	}	latitude of
Agree	}	acceptance
Undecided	}	latitude of non-commitment
Disagree	}	latitude of
Strongly disagree	}	rejection

For the purpose of this investigation, numerical values have been allocated to each response category, namely 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. This continuum represents an ordinal scale. Scores of positively worded items were allocated 5, 4, 3 downward.

The Likert-type scale had been widely used in attitude measurement. Following are examples of such investigations.

- Bublitz, E.G. 1972. *An analysis of cynicism within law enforcement*.
Unpublished Ph.D. thesis Michigan: University of Utah.
- Holzman, H. 1980. *Organisational and professional cynicism amongst police*.
Unpublished Ph.D. thesis Michigan: St John's
University.

It is noted that the Likert-type scale has both advantages and disadvantages.

The advantages of the Likert-type scale are:

- * The flexibility of the scale and ease with which it is compiled, administered and checked.
- * The wide range of constructs that the scale can measure, varying from highly abstract to most specific.
- * Factor analysis can be linked to it giving rise to multidimensional scales.

The main disadvantage of the Likert scale is that it is not an interval scale and therefore no conclusion can be drawn regarding the significance of distances between the scale positions, Schnetler *et al.* (1989:70). A Likert-type scale is

used as an ordinal measuring instrument in this investigation to measure the attitudes of respondents in relation to family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency. A respondent is presented with a statement in the questionnaire and is asked to indicate to what extent he agrees or disagrees with the statement. The calibration which accommodates the latitude of acceptance or rejection or non-commitment in the questionnaire is as follows: "undoubtedly", "to a large extent", "undecided", "to a lesser extent" and "not at all".

1.6.4 Pretesting of a measuring instrument

Bailey (1987:148-150) states that pretesting is the final stage in questionnaire construction and should, therefore, be regarded as the most important rounding-off phase. The questionnaire is usually administered to a few respondents with the aim of identifying its flaws and weakness for correction prior to the administration of the final product.

In the present study a pretest was conducted. However, before a pretesting was conducted, the two questionnaires were sent to "competent judges" for their criticism, comments and suggestions. Thereafter, a pretest sample of 50 respondents per questionnaire was chosen and each respondent was supplied with a preliminary questionnaire with a request to fill it out. These respondents were encouraged to discuss any problem they might encounter. The respondents selected for inclusion in the pretest procedure do not form part of the final investigations. The pretest was conducted to persons residing within Emondlo and who disclosed characteristics similar to those of respondents included in the final investigation in terms of their age, marital status, educational qualifications, occupation, gender and home language.

1.6.5 Statistical processing of data

Schneidler *et al.* (1989:217) points out that there are two broad classes of statistical techniques, namely, descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics describes what the data look like, where their centre is, how are they related to another of the same data. Descriptive statistics are used

when the researcher intends to describe the external characteristics of the phenomena. They include the frequency distributions, means, standard deviations and graphs.

Another function of the statistics is to infer. Statistics takes a small sample of a population and from these samples makes inferences as to statistical characteristics of the population in general. The general inference to be tested is that some phenomenon that is true for a sample is also true for the population from which the sample was drawn. The usual case is that our goal is to gain information of some sort about the population, but unfortunately we have information only about the sample from which the population is drawn rather than from the population itself. However, inferential statistics enable us to make accurate inferences about population itself on the basis of our sample data. Slightly different types of inference are estimation and prediction (Bailey, 1987:381; Leedy, 1989:260).

The inferential statistics has two principal functions

- (i) to estimate or predict a population parameter from random sample.
- (ii) to test statistically based hypotheses.

Leedy (1989:280) points out that the estimate of whatever kind, assumes that the sample is random and representative of the total population. In this study statistics is used to draw inferences from differences and relationship on independent and dependent variables.

(A) F-test statistics

The F-test statistic is used to test for significant differences between independent and dependent variables. For differences F-test statistics computed as follows was used

$$F = \frac{MS_{bg}}{MS_{WG}}$$

Table 1.3 is statistical results yielded by F-test statistic.

Table 1.3 Statistical results of differences in family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency: F Values

Family influence	Gender difference	Marital difference	Language difference	Occupation difference
Father criminal	1,04	2,41*	0,72	3,91*
Stepmother	0,23	0,10	0,78	2,14*
Both parents criminals	0,67	5,68*	3,63*	2,26*
Father absence	0,77	2,23	0,60	4,26*
Mother criminal	1,73	0,89	1,21	3,19*
Family size	2,23	2,05	0,83	2,06*
Stepfather	1,49	5,39*	4,20*	1,23
Mother absence	0,20	2,72	0,41	1,40
Family conflict	0,11	1,90	2,56*	2,71*

*p ≤ 0,05

School influence	Gender difference	Marital difference	Language difference	Occupation difference
Poor school performance	5,05*	4,94*	3,01*	1,97
Corporal punishment	1,17	3,35*	0,89	1,62
Truancy school	0,17	1,62	1,48	3,52*
Pupil/Teacher relationship	4,10*	0,57	3,07*	1,56
Poor teaching	2,43	3,43*	4,48*	2,40*
Teacher failure identify	0,23	1,32	0,53	2,41*
School curriculae	0,24	0,55	1,84	1,23
Labelled delinquent children	0,45	0,90	1,60	1,27
Teacher's lax discipline	0,75	0,90	0,98	4,10*

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 1.3 (continued) ...

Leisure time influence	Gender difference	Marital difference	Language difference	Occupation difference
Community recreational facilities	1,01	0,95	1,33	2,26*
Emondlo recreational facilities	1,26	0,35	0,93	2,48*
Non-involvement in organized recreation	0,35	0,33	0,31	2,54*
Non-participation in decision making	0,05	0,54	1,48	2,68*

*p ≤ 0,05

Peer group influence	Gender difference	Marital difference	Language difference	Occupation difference
Peer group influence on delinquency	0,57	0,76	1,52	1,76
Group related crime	0,60	6,48*	1,35	3,87*
Peer group unisex	5,80*	3,33*	0,58	2,13*
Peer group mechanisms	0,10	2,23	1,47	1,65
Peer group opposition	0,55	0,70	0,37	1,75
Peer group socialization	0,03	2,26	0,76	1,38

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 1.3 is a composite of F values and it shows differences among independent and dependent variables. Figures indicated with * shows that there are significant differences between independent and dependent variables.

(B) **Spearman Rank-order correlation coefficient (RHO)**

For relationship between independent and dependant variables the Spearman Rank-order correlation coefficient (RHO) was used. The probability of less than or equal to 0,05 depicts a significant correlation at the 5 percent level. The calculation is done with SAS computed program as follows:

$$R = \frac{N \sum \chi \gamma - (\sum \chi)(\sum \gamma)}{\sqrt{N \sum \chi^2 - (\sum \chi)^2} \sqrt{N \sum \gamma^2 - (\sum \gamma)^2}}$$

N = Number of pairs of values $\sum \chi \gamma$ = the sum of the cross products of paired scores.

Table 1.4 consists of composite of correlations where the Spearman Rank-order correlation is used.

Table 1.4 Statistical results on the relationship between age, educational qualifications and delinquency: RHO-values

Family influence	Age group	Educational qualifications
Father criminal	0,12490*	0,04911
Stepmother	0,18252*	0,00461
Both parents criminals	0,03379	0,00638
Father absence	0,05284	-0,05378
Mother criminal	0,01827	0,02849
Family size	0,06297	0,03425
Stepfather	0,00211	-0,11333
Mother absence	0,08391	0,03708
Family conflict	0,12789*	0,07812

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 1.4 (continued) ...

School influence	Age group	Educational qualifications
Poor school performance	0,17469*	0,04294
Corporal punishment	0,13760*	0,03737
Truancy school	-0,08257	-0,15989*
Pupil/Teacher relationship	-0,03996	-0,04412
Poor teaching	0,12307*	0,06705
Teacher failure identify	0,04703	0,04396
School curriculae	0,04421	0,04972
Labelled delinquent children	-0,07283	0,00377
Teacher's lax discipline	-0,09865	0,15148*

*p ≤ 0,05

Leisure time influence	Age group	Educational qualifications
Community recreational facilities	-0,05125	-0,00414
Emondlo recreational facilities	-0,05538	-0,05470
Non-involvement in organized recreation	0,05273	0,06650
Non-participation in decision making	0,00818	0,03857

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 1.4 (continued) ...

Peer group influence	Age group	Educational qualifications
Peer group influence on delinquency	0,02860	0,00368
Group related crime	0,01276	0,03779
Peer group unisex	-0,15057*	-0,17811*
Peer group mechanisms	-0,13616*	-0,08145
Peer group opposition	-0,07238	-0,07161
Peer group socialization	-0,00013	0,00286

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 1.4 is a composite of RHO values and it shows relationship amongst independent and dependent variables. Figures indicated with * shows that there are significant relationships between independent and dependent variables.

(C) Reliability of items: internal consistency

Cronbach's Alpha individual item analysis has been referred to as a technique of testing internal consistency of items. Following is the statistical results yielded by the means of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of the final survey (Table 1.5 is a composite table engendered by Cronbach's Alpha individual item analysis).

Table 1.5 **Statistical values: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha**
Raw variables: 0,83507
Standard variables: 0,851698

Variable	Raw Variable	Standard Variable
V.7 Father criminal	0,833355	0,850472
V.8 Stepmother	0,829873	0,847659
V.9 Both parents criminals	0,833965	0,851233
V.10 Father absence	0,824297	0,843003
V.11 Mother criminal	0,829662	0,847092
V.12 Family size	0,826000	0,844229
V.13 Stepfather	0,826614	0,844885
V.14 Mother absent	0,824542	0,842943
V.15 Family conflict	0,826502	0,844078
V.16 Poor school performance	0,822884	0,842130
V.17 Corporal punishment	0,825245	0,843937
V.18 Truancy school	0,830035	0,847478
V.19 Pupil/Teacher relationship	0,825089	0,843622
V.20 Teacher failure/teach	0,826839	0,845363
V.21 Teacher failure to identify	0,825416	0,843390
V.22 School curriculae	0,924600	0,842610
V.23 Labelled delinquent children	0,827669	0,845226
V.24 Teacher lax discipline	0,827743	0,844960
V.25 Community recreational facility	0,829773	8,846839
V.26 Emondlo lack of recreational facility	0,828213	0,845460
V.27 Non-involvement in organized recreation	0,820019	0,847383
V.28 Non-participation in decisions	0,825789	0,843712
V.29 Peer group influence on delinquency	0,830241	0,847274
V.30 Group related crime	0,831669	0,848529
V.31 Peer group unisex influence	0,831746	0,848604
V.32 Peer groups mechanism	0,833613	0,850852
V.33 Peer group opportunities	0,833020	0,850276
V.34 Peer group agent of socialization	0,832407	0,849646

1.7 Definition of concepts

In a research undertaking as a researcher, one has to define scientifically all the concepts we are working with. All definitions must be true, unambiguous, must contain no contradictions, must not be tautological (van der Westhuizen, 1982:22).

Concepts are mental abstractions representing mental constructions of reality. Concepts are abstracted from the physical mental world (Hy, Feig & Regoli; 1983:2).

Thus definition of concepts in criminological research denotes making finer distinctions between terms, promotes conformity as far as possible to what is generally accepted and realization that, "... without proper definitions we shall end up with a Babel-like confusion (van der Westhuizen 1982:22). The following terms are defined with a view to eliminating any possible distortion that might prevail.

1.7.1 Juvenile delinquency

In the definition of the concept juvenile delinquent, it is necessary to differentiate between the criminological and juridical definition.

1.7.1.1 Criminological definition

In a non-legal sense an offence is any antisocial act, misconduct or deviant behaviour which is harmful and detrimental to the healthy, normal existence of the individual, his next of kin and community, and which is in conflict with the interests, norms and customs of community when the offence is committed by a person younger than 21 years, it is known as juvenile delinquency. The criminological definition, thus, includes the legal definition and it is more comprehensive than pure juridical definition.

The concepts of juvenile delinquent and juvenile offender are used interchangeably. The concept refers to the non-adult who violates the norms set by a group. A juvenile can be considered an offender or delinquent if, for example, he adopts a certain form of behaviour, a particular hair style, runs away from home and associates with undesirable persons and his actions are not approved by those in authority (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979:2).

Criminologically, the definition of the juvenile delinquent fits the criminological definition of crime in general. A juvenile delinquent is viewed as a non-adult who has committed an antisocial act 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 antisocial behaviour (Mannheim, 1965:5; van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:30-31).

1.7.1.2 Juridical definition

Juridically, a juvenile delinquent is anyone who is designated as a juvenile (non-adult) whose actions are subject to court action. This means that a juvenile delinquent is a person designated a juvenile who has committed an unlawful act, found guilty in a court of law and sentenced (van der Walt *et al.*, 1982:30).

The question of age in designating of a juvenile delinquent is important. The South African criminal law provides that a person between 0-7 years is *doli incapax*. A person above the age of 7 years but below age of 14 years is *doli incapax*, but this is rebuttable. The concept juvenile delinquent, juridically, will mean that a person below the age of 21 who is guilty of unlawful act, whose offence, because of his youth, is heard by a juvenile court magistrate. In this study juvenile delinquent refers to those juvenile offenders who were arrested by police and who were between 7-20 years of age.

According to Cloete and Conradie (1983:2) crime is an act which is prohibited by law or the omission of an act which is dictated by law. The law thus stipulates that certain forms of undesirable behaviour are punishable and therefore are an offence. When these offences are committed by persons younger than 21

years, their offences are regarded as juvenile delinquency or juvenile crime. In this discussion focus is on crimes committed by juveniles or children and for which they are arrested by police.

1.7.3 Status offence

Behaviours that are forbidden by law for juveniles but permissible for adults are called status offences. They include acts such as truancy, running away, smoking, drinking, violating curfew. The status offences are sometimes referred to as incorrigibility, immorality, idleness, beyond control or wayward. Legislation commonly refers to children who commit status offences as "persons in need of supervision" (Thornton, Voigt & Doerner, 1987:16). The flavour of status offences provisions can be detected from partial list of conditions which are identified as comprising delinquency in these laws. For example, these statutes award juvenile courts the jurisdiction over children who engage in immoral or indecent behaviour, exhibit immoral conduct around schools, engage in illegal occupations, knowingly associate with immoral persons, grow up in idleness or crime, patronage visit policy shops, gaming houses, wander streets at night, habitually wander about railroad yards or tracks, are incorrigible or deport themselves so as to injure themselves or others (Gibbons, 1981:19-20).

1.7.4 Attitude

Van Heerden (1986:93) points out that attitudes are usually manifested when one is either for or against a referent. He also makes a point that the nature of attitude is determined by direction (for or against) its degree of positivity or negativity towards the referent, its content, stability and duration. Kerlinger (1973:495;496) refers to an attitude as an organized predisposition to think, feel, perceive and behave towards a referent or cognitive object. Lewis and Salem (1981:412) argue that personal victimization experience, fear of crime and perception of crime as a problem in neighbourhoods are factors that determined an individuals attitude towards crime.

1.8 Presentation of investigation

The investigation is presented in the following sequence.

Chapter 1

General orientation to the study.

Chapter 2

Literature review regarding explanation of family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency.

Chapter 3

Attitudes towards the family as a delinquency-producing institution.

Chapter 4

Attitudes towards school as a delinquency-producing institution.

Chapter 5

Attitudes towards leisure time and peer groups as delinquency-producing institutions.

Chapter 6

Findings and recommendations.

1.9 Summary

Preceding information serves as an introductory to the problem of juvenile delinquency in Emondlo. Juvenile criminality is a pervasive problem in the area. Given statistics of juvenile arrested between September, 1991 and August, 1992 it is abundantly clear that juvenile crime is a source of concern amongst community members in the area. The investigation aims primarily at describing and explaining attitudes of residents to the aetiology of juvenile delinquency. The hypotheses are related to family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

To reach the desired goal the following research techniques are employed:

- Firstly, the literature study technique is used mainly for designing the research methodology and establishing theoretical foundations of the study.
- Secondly, sampling techniques are used to enable the study to reveal scientifically based generalizations. The non-probability sampling technique was used for the final survey.
- Thirdly, questionnaire as a means of data collection technique was used in this investigation. This technique is used to establish the views or attitudes of residents on what they regard as causes of juvenile crime in Emondlo.
- Fourthly, statistical techniques are used to test internal consistency of items through the Cronbach's Correlation Coefficient Alpha. Further, for statistical analysis of data the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (RHO) and F-Test statistics are used.

Chapter 2

Explanation of juvenile delinquency with special reference to family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency

2.1 Introduction

The influence of family members and environment is frequently decisive in shaping the child's life. The way in which parents bring up their children has a direct influence on latter's growth and hence on delinquency (Shugiao, 1986:9). Family factors contributing to juvenile delinquency include family as a socialization agency, family size and order of birth; criminal behaviour by parents; family structure; parental affection and rejection, parental discipline, relationship between parents and socio-economic status of the family.

The school also has a considerable effect on the development of the child and hence on delinquency. School factors attributed to juvenile delinquency amongst others include: school failure in socialization of a child; relevance of school curriculum, discipline, sanctions, rewards and rule enforcement; student failure in academic endeavour, tracking and marginalization; truancy and relationship between teacher and pupil.

Recreation and leisure interest and activities are likely to vary from one person to another. These activities may influence the psychological and moral development of an individual either positively or negatively (York, 1990:10). The role of leisure time as a delinquency producing institution involves: leisure time activities and adolescence; interplay between school and leisure time and abuse of drugs.

An individual is in constant need for comradeship from his birth to death. Nearly all youngsters are members of a peer group which occupies a large portion of their free time. The influence of peer group as a delinquency

producing institution include: the development of peer group and its criminological influence; parent/child relationship as prototype for child peer group interaction; peer relations and child deviance. This investigation is centred around the role of the family, school, leisure time and peer groups as aetiologies of juvenile delinquency.

An exposition of family, school, leisure time and peer group factors would serve to establish the basis of public attitudes toward their influence on deviant behaviour. Studies (Banks, Maloney & Willcock, 1975:228-240) have demonstrated the value of lay explanation to the aetiology of crime. In addition to that public attitude or opinion in previous research has shown to vary in terms of age, sex, marital status, occupation, racial group and educational qualification of respondents.

In subsequent chapters the focus is on lay explanation of causes of juvenile delinquency with special reference to the family, school, leisure time and peer group influence.

2.2 Family

Hill (1949:34) maintains that, "The modern family lives in a great state of tension because it is the great burden carrier of social order. In a society of rapid social change, problems outnumber solutions and resulting uncertainties are absorbed by members of society, who are the most part also members of families. Because the family is the bottleneck through which all troubles pass, no other association so reflects the strains and stresses of life". This section focuses on the family as a delinquency producing institution.

2.2.1 Family as a socialization agency

The family may be considered as one of the primary institutions in the socialization of the child. The family provides role models, attitudes and values which a child can emulate. The family is largely responsible for preparation of the youth and the society receives them as final product. The society must then

provide a meaningful place for its members (Hagan, 1987:167). Nye (1958:6) says that through internalized control the family internalizes mores, norms and values and consequently develops the conscience of the child.

A child's first experience of the community life begins therefore in the family and nature of this experience assists in determining if a child will ultimately exhibit normal or antisocial behaviour. In the family the child learns his basic ideals and sense of right or wrong. Sutherland in his differential association theory (1949:234) shows that most learning experiences come from primary institutions such as the family, peers and religious institutions. The child first experiences social interactions and becomes conscious of standards, goals, values and formulation of judgement in family context (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:244; Vedder, 1979:60).

Discipline has an important role in the socialization of the child and it is associated with social control which is primarily observed in the family. Nye (1958:6) has suggested that internal controls initially evolve from the parent's direct controls, such as the supervision of leisure, of companions and of the type of activities children engage in, and the infliction of punishment for infractions of parental rules, and are viewed as being enforced more strictly and consistently for non-delinquents than for delinquents. Parents are thus more responsible for the behaviour of their children. When parents accept the responsibility for the supervision of their children, they also contribute to their children's moral and educational development (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:244).

When children observe the interactions of their parents, they internalize notions about how a father treats a mother and a mother should treat a father; what the role of the child is in family setting, how to react and relate to others and thus refers to both acquaintances and strangers. An effective socialization process is believed to be an inhibitor to delinquent behaviour and delinquent activity is often attributed to an ineffective socialization process (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:248; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:114).

2.2.2 Family size and order of birth

Graham (1989:17) points out that research conducted on the causes of juvenile delinquency amongst different social and ethnic groups has consistently revealed that children who begin offending at an early age and who become serious offenders tend to come from large families. The effect here is not due to size alone but to the greater stresses and increased risk of family discord to which large families are exposed to.

Berman (1986:36) reveals that families with many children, parents are often unable to control the children effectively. Undoubtedly, large families are also associated with a low interaction between parents and their children. Hirschi (1969:69) in his social control theory, reveals that when parental achievement is strong, parental values (presumed to be antisocial) are readily accepted. If a child is not attached to parental values he will not learn or have moral values and will not develop a conscience or the superego. The superego is the individual inner restraints, derived from societal norms and fear of sanctions.

The order of birth may have some significance in predisposing juvenile into delinquency. Glueck and Glueck (1966:127) report that lone children, first children are least inclined to become delinquent. They point out that there is a tendency for in-betweens to show danger signs such as temper tantrums and obscenity. However, unlike the rotten "apple in the barrel" the delinquency of sibling does not have the tendency to spread to other siblings (Vedder, 1979:65; Glueck & Glueck, 1966:127).

Therefore, though no scientific evidence exists which proves that large family size and order of birth are the direct causes of criminal behaviour, studies (Graham, 1989:17; Berman, 1986:36; Glueck & Glueck, 1966:127) show that large family size and order of birth are associated with criminal behaviour.

2.2.3 Criminal behaviour by parents

A family where parents or other members are criminals will influence children with bad habits and traits that may lead them into crimes. Graham (1989:17) maintains that the family factor most consistently associated with delinquency is having parents who have criminal records. In this regard Sutherland's theory of differential association is much applicable and his theory reveals that criminal behaviour is learned. Criminal behaviour is learned by interaction through communication and mainly in intricate personal groups. The learning of criminal behaviour includes the criminal techniques and direction of motives, drives, rationalizations and attitudes. In terms of this theory whether someone will become a criminal or not is determined by the duration, frequency, priorities and intensity of his contacts with law violating behaviour (Sutherland, 1949:234; Sutherland & Cressey, 1974:5-76).

Glueck and Glueck (1966:107-108) believe that male delinquents are to a greater extent than non-delinquents the sons of delinquent fathers. They also show that investigation into characteristics of sons of criminalistic mothers shows that youngsters having trends towards phantancy or having receptive inclination are more likely to develop antisocial behaviour than are children of non-delinquent.

Reiss (1951:197) says that family has an important role in keeping youth from becoming entangled with juvenile justice. Within the family the child may identify with parental non-criminal roles. Reiss (1951:197) viewed delinquency as the failure of primary group relationships to exercise social controls or to provide non-delinquent roles which a child could identify with.

2.2.4 Family structure

Family structure has a relatively big influence on juvenile crime. The broken home has for decades been considered to be a major factor in the causation of juvenile crime. Austin (1978:585) says that a positive association exists

between broken homes and crime. Broken homes are associated with some forms of delinquency (Johnson, 1986:65)

A common distinction is drawn between the home broken by divorce and home broken by the death of a parent. The home broken by divorce, being characterized by conflict and tension, more negatively affects children living in it than a home broken by death. It is thought that discord prior to separation rather than separation itself is decisive. However, separation itself may exacerbate family discord, particularly in short term (Graham, 1989:18; Griffin & Griffin, 1978:248-249; Free, 1991:111). Vedder (1966:66) points out that children from divorced families are deprived of normal home and their loyalties are confused. It is against this background that they easily become delinquents.

Graham (1989:18) reveals that mother-alone families suffer a remarkable relative disadvantage and consequently children from such families, are more vulnerable to social maladjustment than children brought up in stable two-parent families. In this regard Miller's lower class culture theory is much appropriate and this theory discloses that "female-led household" which through its own structure, fails to provide modes and models of conventional behaviour for its adolescent males.

The death of a mother or absence of a mother is also a great shock to children and they are immediately more affected by it than by the father's absence. Although material care may continue, the children forfeit their daily regular maternal attention and face the danger of being neglected (Free, 1991:132). Graham (1989:19) also reveals that when a parent from an incomplete family remarries from or to the other incomplete families their children are likely to be mistreated by stepfathers or stepmothers. Therefore, children who are raised by step-parents are vulnerable to delinquent behaviour (Guanghan *et al.*, 1986:31; Vedder, 1979:64).

The theory of social disorganization brings breakdown to family structure. Studies (Hagan, 1987:151) show that social disorganization affected social control – social control being necessary for monitoring balance between wants

and needs of individuals. Thomas (Hagan, 1987:151) identified four requirements necessary for individuals to pursue their wishes, namely, security, new experience, response and recognition. To control all these wants between individuals, the society has instruments and institutions of social control; the family being the primary source of norms and values. Thomas (Hagan, 1987:151) noted that the modern urban societies break the structure of the family by allowing girls to move away from home in search of wealth. Values such as purity and virginity for females and consequently disorganization and decline of family control results in delinquent behaviour (Hagan, 1987:151).

2.2.5 Parental affection and rejection

Psychologists as well as sociologists believe that open rejection and hostility may promote juvenile delinquency. Hostility and rejection make it difficult for youngsters to accept parents as role models from whom to learn appropriate behaviour patterns. The child in such a situation, may not learn or develop the inner controls needed to avoid delinquency or develop a positive image of himself as a person (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:250). The child who is neglected usually does not find love and affection at home. Glueck and Glueck (1966:107-108) reported a relationship between hostile, rejecting fathers and delinquent behaviour in their family.

In this regard Nye's social control theory is much appropriate and this theory reveals that affection and rejection from parents play a major role in the control of delinquency and indirect control can be exercised only when there is affectional relationship to the conforming child. Where there is rejection between the child and the parent, indirect control cannot be exercised (Nye, 1958:6).

The development of parent-child relationships as far as affection and rejection is concerned takes place as follows:

- (a) Complete acceptance occurs when relationship changes from dependency to affectionate more independent status, and the parent is seen as experienced friend.
- (b) Partial rejection occurs when the child frees himself from parents but does not develop active hatred. "Neither does he have affection or respect, nor positive or negative feelings; strikes a rough balance, thus forming an indifferent or somewhat ambivalent relationship." (Nye, 1958:7).
- (c) Complete rejection develops when the adolescent develops an active dislike of the parent.

2.2.6 Parental discipline

The mechanisms used within families for controlling youthful behaviour can have significant effect on the activities of children. Parents have the task of preparing their children for an orderly life, in a broader social context with all interpersonal relationships this involves. The organization of the family and the society are based on a system of norms and values which are often expressed and maintained. Guanghai *et al.* (1986:32-34) show that norms and values transmitted to a person at a childhood stage determine how his life will be organized.

In this regard Nye's social control theory is much appropriate and in terms of this theory parents exercise direct control by keeping children indoors, promising and delivering punishment and by denying children certain privileges for infraction of parental rules. Direct control can be effective in securing conformity but limited in that "... it is effective only when the child can expect to be detected in the delinquent act; it is actually with physical limits of the home; or otherwise under the surveillance of adults" (Nye, 1958:7-8).

In addition to that the social control theory has elicited wide response from researchers especially on sex differentials. Mqadi (1994:326-328) contended

that sex differentials in delinquency reflect variations in ties to the social bond. His findings revealed that whilst girls reported less involvement in self-reported delinquency than boys, they also reported more experience of family controls than boys. This could be ascribed to the fact that parents tend to display more religious, supervision, discipline and affectional concern over girls than over boys.

2.2.7 Relationship between parents

The intact but tense and unhappy home, may predispose youth, exposed to such conditions into delinquency. The fighting, bickering and unhappiness in the family may be a prime factor in the production of juvenile delinquency. Trojanowicz (1973:68) points out that the tension that exists in many intact families of delinquent results from hostility, hatred and bickering. Disruptive, quarrelsome and tension producing relationship between parents may affect the entire family.

If the family is unstable and parents are involved in regular conflict and have difficulty in getting along, it may be difficult to exert positive influence on their children. Families characterized by tension and hostility are good breeding grounds for future delinquents (Trojanowicz, 1973:69).

Merton's anomie theory may be applied to the family situation. The anomie situation exists within a family when there is a lack of value consensus. Families characterized by constant disruption have limited opportunities to achieve their goals through acceptable means, so they react by seeking success through illegitimate means (Merton, 1938:672-682).

Burfeid (1984:26) claimed that "family anomie helps explain the individual malfunctioning of individual controls and delinquency proneness where there is evidence of family value confusion and ambiguity, the youngster is often forced to find his way by a process of trial and error." He also found that family anomie had an important, positive association with delinquency proneness. Identifications with parents and a child's feeling of powerlessness also were

themselves connected to delinquency. Children from tense and unhappy families are gripped by sense of uncertainty because of lack of guidance from their parents. Sometimes the quarrelsome assume the form of harsh and hurtful words.

2.2.8 Socio-economic status of the family

The socio-economic status of the family is closely associated with delinquency.

The socio-economic position of the family is important to the degree that it determines the class into which a child is born and thereby opportunities which will be available to him later.

The family which is subjected to poor socio-economic position may facilitate anomie situation for children because parents may be unable to provide access opportunities, and they may put more pressure for high achievement on their children. The condition of anomie is present in a society when disjunction is to be found between culturally prescribed goals and socially prescribed means, "if compensatory projection of parental ambition onto children is widespread amongst the lower class, then it is precisely those parents least able to provide free access to opportunities for their children the 'failures' and 'frustrates' who exert pressure upon their children for high achievement (Burfeid, 1984:26-27).

Studies (Berman, 1986:37-38) have revealed that most delinquents come from homes with multiple problems. Not only are homes characterized by parental and family problems, but financial problems are frequently evident. He also shows that juveniles who are committed to institutions come from low-income or poverty-stricken backgrounds. Guangan *et al.* (1986:35) have shown that a high proportion of delinquents grew up in indigent families. These findings might well lend support to the commonly held notion that poverty as such is a cause of crime. Nye, Short and Olsen (1978:80-91) show that a higher frequency of criminality, particularly of more serious crime, are found in lowest social strata.

2.3 School

The school is an important medium in the transmission of social norms and values from one generation to the next. The school may be regarded as a mechanism intended to help children to activate and develop their potential. Numerous factors, however, within school environment could also predispose a pupil into delinquent behaviour (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:256). This section deals with the school as a delinquency-producing institution.

2.3.1 School failure in socialization

Apart from family, the school is one of the principal and constant agents in socialization of the child. A large share of the youth waking hours are occupied by school or school-related activities. The school may provide much more socializing environment than the family does. In school situation the child is exposed to influences which are different from those acquired at home (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:146; Thornton *et al.*, 1987:217-231).

The goal of education is to create educated, responsible and well adjusted citizens. The school may be expected to train youngsters for success in specific work roles and provide marketable skills. However, a student with problems experienced from unstable home situation, traumatic divorce and unhealthy relationships with step-parents may not be positively socialized at school and they become delinquent (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:146).

In this regard Merton's anomie theory could be applicable in so far as the student aspiration to be educated is concerned, however, as a result of unstable home situation the student has limited opportunities to attain his goals through acceptable means. Subsequently, the student takes a recourse in seeking success through unacceptable means (Shoemaker, 1984:89-91).

The school makes a variety of demands on the child and sets standards which the child is expected to conform to. Lawrence (1985:69) points out that schools are expected to prepare students for vocational roles. The school develops the

child academically and culturally by promoting needs for achievement and it also supplies instruction and experience in social relationships.

Vedder (1979:82) shows that children at school are exposed to learning routines which they may like or dislike. In school the child comes into contact with new environment and he has to make acquaintances with various individuals whose personalities, attitudes, values and general background differ from his own. He also reveals that schools fail to recognize various backgrounds from which children come from and to take into consideration their educational activities, some children may rebel against the school itself and may become delinquents. The school teaches the child how to get on with his fellow men as part of socialization process. The trend toward deviancy may develop, if forces, brought into school from the family or neighbourhood, overcome the efforts exerted by school for positive socialization (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:146; Griffin & Griffin, 1978:256).

2.3.2 The relevance of school curriculum

Griffin and Griffin (1978:256-257) reveal that schools function in diverse environments as regards not only individual potential of pupil, but also social background and environment. Juveniles who have been exposed to lower class families may experience poor socialization process and they find it difficult to compete with those from middle class. They also showed that schools may organize the curriculum so that college-bound or middle class students are effectively handled. The student from low socio-economic milieu may experience frustration and eventually delinquency.

In this regard, Cohen's middle class measuring rod theory is much appropriate and it reveals that middle class values predominate in school environment and the lower class youth finds himself "measured" and "evaluated" by means of middle class standards. The youth from lower class is not equipped with skills that deal with competitive struggle that occurs in middle class institutions. The lower class youth initially aspires to the standards of success but his repeated failures in school system academically may lead him to reject the school and

system of values it represents. The lower class youth may consequently turn into delinquency (Shoemaker, 1984:104; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:54; Trojanowicz, 1973:39).

Toby (1957:516) noted that in this respect the class position of the family dictates to a large degree the extent to which a child would have a stake in conformity and, consequently, the rate to which the controls are effective. For example, a child from a well-to-do family; a family that pays deference to education; and a family that can display achievement, is more likely to conform than would a child from emotionally and socially unsuccessful family.

Hirschi (1969:192-196) views belief in family values, norms and regulations as fateful elements of bond. Hindelang (1976:483) says "control theory postulates that delinquent behaviour does not result from beliefs which require delinquency but instead delinquency is made possible by absence of beliefs that forbid delinquency." This means that a child who is unconcerned about the opinions of parents and teachers; a child who tells lies; and a child who does not believe in values held by his parents, is unlikely to feel that the demands of law are binding on his conduct (Mqadi, 1994:110).

Youth (students) may aspire to become either skilled or unskilled workers and not college graduates. It is frustrating for low class children to take school subjects for which they have neither aptitude or interest (Graham, 1988:28; Griffin & Griffin, 1978:256-257). What may be more crucial than curriculum content is its balance, range, flexibility and most significantly how it is taught and assessed. The greatest problem for a child of low intelligence is to assert himself in learning situation. Graham (1988:28) pointed out that large classes prevent the teacher from supporting and guiding a child adequately and thus the child may become a delinquent.

2.3.3 Discipline, sanctions, rewards and rule enforcement in school

Discipline is a significant factor in shaping man's life and it is inevitable that all children need a certain amount of discipline. Discipline is an important control

mechanism in the socialization process of a child. Problems with discipline emanate from the application of various disciplinary approaches, of which overstrict, overindulgent and inconsistent are but a few. These disciplinary approaches are counterproductive and they could engender juvenile delinquency (Graham, 1988:32; Cloete & Conradie, 1983:14).

Although different schools adopted various kinds of sanctions to others, there is very little empirical evidence to suggest that any particular form of sanction is more effective than other (Graham, 1988:32; Vedder, 1979:81-83). It is important to balance admonishment with use of praise and encouragement whenever it is practicable. Graham (1988:32) shows that little empirical research was made to determine the relationship between rewards and various kinds of behaviour. He indicated that the general notion is that informal and verbal praise are associated with non-delinquent behaviour. Lawrence (1985:88) argued that reward systems are more effective in producing good behaviour.

In this regard Burgess and Arker's theory is relevant and it maintains that deviant behaviour results from a conditioning process in which rewards and punishments shape the behaviour that follows. The behaviour may be weakened by aversive stimuli or positive punishment, as well as by loss of reward, or negative punishment. People learn from others who are important in reinforcing behaviour as serving as cues for behaviour (Arkers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce & Radosevich, 1979:637-638).

Graham (1988:33) has attempted to classify and categorize various kinds of school rules. Basically, school rules are of two kinds: formal and informal. However, violations of both formal and informal rules may elicit similar sanctions or punishments.

2.3.4 Student's failure in academic attempts, tracking (grouping) and marginalization

Failure at school is believed to be associated with juvenile misbehaviour. The general belief is that school failure may lead to self-accusation which a youth

can resolve in two ways: physically withdrawing from school by avoiding school activities or overly rejecting the unattainable educational standards by engaging in deviant behaviour. Chronic failure at school could interfere with development of self-discipline (Karr-Kidwell, 1986:83-84; Lawrence, 1985:71-72).

In this regard Merton's anomie theory is appropriate in school situation. Chronic failures at school still endeavour to achieve the goals (success) contained in fundamental relations, but use unacceptable means for doing so. They will, for example, still pursue academic success as a cultural goal, but no longer by way of conscientious study as the socially prescribed means, but by way of dishonest practices in tests and examinations (Cloete & Conradie, 1982:61).

Tracking involves separating students into groups called tracks at time of entrance into junior or senior high school. In terms of tracking system, students are assigned to different tracks (groups) and they are offered course schedules that are considered suitable for their needs. The students generally attend classes almost exclusively with those who are allocated to the same track (Thornton *et al.*, 1987:226; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:152; Lawrence, 1985:71-72; Griffin & Griffin, 1978:257). Kelly (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:152) views tracking as a chief delinquency-producing variable within school and he uses the term status "degradation ceremonies" to indicate the manner in which certain students are informed that they are not college material. When students are allocated to tracks where they are not expected to achieve they begin to meet these expectations. They become completely marginalized (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:152; Thornton *et al.*, 1987:220).

In this regard labelling theory is appropriate and this theory is based on the fact that persons are categorized negatively because they behave incorrectly, and it transfers a negative, symbolic and stigmatizing label onto them (Matza, 1969:156-157; Lemert, 1972:67, 69).

2.3.5 Truancy

A number of absences at school necessary to define the child a truant varies from place to place. Various schools have their own disciplinary and investigatory procedures for a determination of truancy. Griffin and Griffin (1978:260) say truancy means the unauthorized absence of a child from school. The child may be absent from school with or without the knowledge of parents. Conventionally, the child who is absent from school without parental knowledge is referred to as a truant.

Shugiao (1986:17) points out that truant students are a big headache to schools. Even if brought back to school they still cannot be expected to behave, the schools are sometimes relieved that they stay away. The chronic truant may become involved in a variety of delinquent activities such as drug abuse (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:252; Thornton *et al.*, 1987:221).

A social control theorist, Hirschi (1969:16) identified four elements of bond, namely, attachment, involvement, commitment and belief. He maintains that when these bonds between an individual and society become weak delinquency is likely to occur. In terms of this theory a child who is involved in time consuming work, in school-related activities will have little time for delinquency. He also shows that commitment to education and high status occupation are linked to time spent on school-related work which builds stakes in future goals that deter delinquent behaviour.

According to Toby (1957:516) a "stake in conformity" is promised by the family when it teaches its members the value of conformity to conventional norms. For example, the family would encourage youth to aspire for high status occupation by staying longer at school. The promise would be a comfortable life and good paying job in later years. Such a child would have reason for being at school; a stake in conformity (Mqadi, 1994:110).

2.3.6 The teacher-pupil relationship

Education depends to a large extent on sound human relationship between teacher and pupil. Where a teacher is unable to communicate with pupil properly, poor scholastic progress and deviant behaviour may develop. The relationship between the teacher and child is essentially important in that it assists the maladjusted children. The mutual trust between teacher and pupil is formed by the teacher's acceptance of the child as he is. The school personnel may respond to student in a manner that may either drive the student to deviant behaviour or may encourage him to conform to acceptable behaviour (Cloete & Conradie, 1983:55; Lawrence, 1985:87).

Graham (1988:30) argued that the teacher who exercises strict authority may elicit resentment from pupils. The teacher's action may be regarded by pupils as provocative. A social control theorist, Hirschi, also showed that attachment to school includes attachment to teachers. Attachment of an individual to significant others such as teachers provides constraints on deviant behaviour (Hirschi, 1969:192-196).

Cloete and Conradie (1983:63) in relation to alienation theory, reveal that the element of alienation is also applicable at school situation. They reveal that the element of alienation refers to lack of solidarity with the other important people in one's life and is based on the fact that one does not share their views, interests and tastes. A child who is alienated from teachers or school-related activities is likely to indulge in deviant behaviour.

Unjust or ill-considered punishment may leave permanent scars on a child's personality. The reaction of the teacher to deviant pupils or deviant acts may inadvertently provoke and intensify involvement in deviant behaviour. The attitude of the teacher and behaviour explanations tend to influence the child. The teacher who humiliates some pupils in front of the class does them irreparable harm. The child (pupil) could subsequently adopt delinquent conduct.

2.4 Leisure time activities

Leisure is popularly regarded as free time and an individual exercises choice about use of his time as opposed to the time spent at work or in school. Gray (1988:2) reveals that lack of recreational centres in communities could promote frustration and possibly delinquency amongst youngsters. This section focuses on leisure time influence on delinquency.

2.4.1 Leisure time activities and adolescence

Adolescence is a peak time of leisure needs. Young people have more leisure and possibly less accountability than any other time in their lives. But those under sixteen years of age are sometimes restricted by lack of recreational centres – provision of cheap recreational facilities to and from recreational facilities could produce frustrations among juveniles who want to take part in various sports.

The anomie theory is applicable in this regard. Merton (1938:672-682) in his anomie theory points out that when there is a disequilibrium between acceptable means that are available within the environment and goals that individuals have learned to aspire to in their environment, strain or frustration is produced. There is general agreement that lack of recreational centres in communities could promote frustration and possibly delinquency amongst the youngsters (Hendry, 1978:103).

Not surprisingly, one of the main areas of research has been on these adolescent people who remain outside all forms of available recreational facilities, to determine reason for their disassociation, with the hope of rendering more suitable and attractive facilities for them (Gray, 1988:2; Hendry, 1978:110). Hendry (1978:110) also shows that adolescents who do not participate in the available recreational activities are regarded as "unclubable". The adolescents may regard official recreational activities as too tamed or overorganized to satisfy their needs. It is against this background that delinquents are likely to be recruited.

2.4.2 Interplay between school and leisure time

Hendry (1978:127) argued that some sports have their genesis within school and that some sports may be available only at school. Additionally, the existing sports within the school could be viewed differently by various students. From the youngsters point of view the social life of the student in school may have definite fashioned features. Some students may prefer the sort of activities provided by enterprises for which school in normal circumstances is unable to provide. Some students may experience effects in activities themselves which are either pleasurable or otherwise – painful physical contact for instance. Perhaps, more importantly are social influences experienced by pupils within school sports (Hendry, 1978:127; Gray, 1988:2). In some schools students are expected to play for school clubs rather than the club of their own. This enforced participation in sport activities could engender juvenile discontent and misconduct (Hendry, 1978: Gray, 1988:2).

Pupils who reject or experience rejection within school could be less likely to be involved in leisure sport. These pupils may become alienated from their peers in school community. For these alienated pupils other social influences reinforce alternative behaviours which may orientate them towards delinquency. Hendry (1978:127) argues further that there are many sources of positive and negative reinforcement within the school and social milieu which continue to project pupils towards particular and different interests and involvements. Studies (Utz, 1986:36) show that commitment to school and its organizational goal is reinforced by participation in school activities and athletics. He also shows that such commitment serves as a deterrent to delinquency.

2.4.3 Leisure time and abuse of drugs

The use and abuse of alcohol and other drugs not only affects peoples lives, but also their leisure activities. Alcohol and other drugs are viewed as part of misuse of leisure time. During his free time, man uses and abuses alcohol and

other drugs either alone or in company of others. The use and abuse of drugs often clashes with law (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:252).

Studies (Shulman, 1961:495-502; Vedder, 1979:135; Griffin & Griffin, 1978:252) reveal that the use of drugs is associated with delinquency. Because of the expense involved in obtaining alcohol and other drugs, addiction to drugs may engender other forms of delinquency. The addict may steal in order to acquire the necessary funds to sustain the drug habit.

Drug addict usually withdraws from pursuing acceptable goals and means of achieving the goals. In this regard anomie theory is applicable. Merton's theory (Shoemaker, 1984:90; Burfeid, 1984:24) shows that when a person does not have a high regard for cultural goals and his behaviour is not conforming to social means for goal achievement, then such a person is a retreatist. The anomie theory also shows that with limited access to both legitimate and illegitimate problems on his part, a youth may become involved in retreatist subculture where the use of drugs and alcohol are encouraged.

Chronic addiction has an extremely noxious effect on the individual's job ability and performance. The individual who is addicted to drugs usually finds it impossible to keep his job. He often becomes workshy and unemployed. He constantly alters jobs until he becomes unemployed and possibly unfit for work. This engenders financial deprivations which sometimes compel the addict into criminal behaviour (Cloete & Conradie, 1983:70).

2.5 Peer group influence

The peer group is often developed spontaneously in areas where children converge and interact. Some peer groups develop in the area of residence – usually home block, family relationship and neighbourhood contact. The influence of peer groups on an individual juvenile could play a fateful role in predisposing him or her into delinquency. In this section attention is on peer group influence on delinquency.

2.5.1 The development of peer group and its criminological influence

The extent to which the class system of local communities determines the association of people in general and youthful groupings in particular has been the subject of general interests amongst social scientists. Adolescents usually intermingle, fraternize and establish informal but cohesive groups mainly along class lines. The norms of behaviour deemed socially acceptable in most communities are chiefly those established and supported by middle class communities. The juvenile from low class families may be frustrated by norms set by middle class and they may turn into delinquency (Shoemaker, 1984:103; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:54).

Cohen's theory shows that socialization in most communities stresses values and lifestyles of the middle class which are at variance with those found in lower class. The peer group provides the chance to act out hostilities and aggression which are caused by frustration amongst lower class youths. The class restriction of lower class may play an important role in predisposing them into misconduct (Shoemaker, 1984:103).

The development of anti-social peer groups may be attributed to anonymous impersonal urban life and delinquency areas. Studies (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:88) show that socially and physically deteriorated urban areas are marked by high delinquency rates and numerous peer groups. These peer groups are engaged in anti-social and criminal conduct. In terms of the ecological theory as propounded by Shaw and McKay (1969:140) there is a connection between social disorganization and delinquency rate.

The peer group is the convenient structure which is suitable for the needs of emotionally disturbed children who are unable to meet the demands required for participation in normal groups. The peer group is a crime-predisposing factor as it creates opportunities for misconduct. The peer group sometimes acquaints its members with methods and techniques of delinquency. Sutherland's differential association theory is appropriate in this regard. In terms of this theory the process of learning criminal behaviour involves all

mechanisms and techniques that are available in learning. The peer as an intimate, personal group communicates opinions, attitudes and values to its members. Sutherland's theory also shows that the principal part of learning takes place within the intimate, personal groups (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974:5-76).

The peer group may impress upon its members a rejection of rules and contempt for law and order. In his theory Sutherland further said that a person becomes a delinquent because of an excess definition favourable to the violations of law (Vedder, 1979:151; Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1990:91; Burfeid, 1984:19). Furthermore, the peer group may exert a controlling influence on adolescents when the groups engage in either legitimate or illegitimate activities. Reiss (1951:196) also noted whilst the peer group has an influence on behaviour conformity, deviant peer groups may serve to weaken existing conforming controls.

2.5.2 Parent-child relationship as prototype for child-peer group interaction

Traditional theories of social development such as Sutherland's differential association stressed the assumption that early childhood experience with parents forms the basis for later relationships. Psychologists such as Freud, Aichhorn, Friedlander in their theories have stressed that poor parent-child interactions are causes of behaviour disorder amongst children. Behaviourist such as Hans Eysenck's operant conditioning theory, on the other hand have included parents in their role as administrators of reinforcement and punishment. The mother-child interaction may be regarded as prototype of all later meaningful relationships. Poor parent-child interactions, undoubtedly, may enhance negative child-peer-group relationships (Shoemaker, 1984:51-53).

Although neither psychoanalytical nor behavioural approaches have adequately redressed the question of aetiology or cause of childhood disorder, both approaches remain significant. The general agreement is that children who have problems at home, decidedly, will experience problems with peers. The perception develops logically from hypothesis that peer relations emanate from

relations within nuclear family (Griffin & Griffin, 1978:217-239; Rubin & Ross, 1982:322-346; Asarnow, 1983:709-711).

2.5.3 Peer relations and child deviance

A child's relationship with his or her peers may vary remarkably. Children may have close friends, while others may be casual acquaintances and a few may even be adversaries. Rubin and Ross (1982:322-346) argued that social development investigations have shifted from the focus on parent-child relationship to an examination of young people as members of a peer group. They also show that peer groups serve as a crucial agent in the socialization process of a child.

Boggiano, Klinger and Main (1986:853-859) have suggested that children may be unable to gain peer acceptance because they have inadequate social skills. Adolescents focus their goals on peer group relations of acceptance because they are excluded from adult associations and economic structure of society, which excludes them from job markets (Greenberg, 1977:195). This state of affairs should create no problem as long as parents can provide support for maintaining peer relations. Youth whose parent's economic position make this support impossible may turn to delinquent behaviour.

Studies (Abramovitch, Carter, & Debra, 1985:217-228) reveal that early peer problems may give rise to adult problems. Peer rejections may predict later maladjustment. The adult who experienced peer group rejection may have marital problems and he may turn into abuse of alcohol and subsequently into crime. There appears, therefore, to be an association between problems in elementary school and social adjustment in adulthood. In adulthood such an individual may have difficulty in establishing intimate personal relationships. The continued isolation from positive peer contact has been linked with a number of serious adjustment problems in later adolescence and adulthood (Rubin & Ross, 1982:322-346; Asher, 1983:1427-1433).

Brody, Stoneman and Weatley (1984:1425-1442) demonstrate that peer adjustment problems in childhood are predictive of later adjustment. Studies (Cause, 1987:287-291) have shown that children with lower peer status show lower rates of peer contacts. The children with low peer status also demonstrate higher rates of negative peer and teacher contacts. These children are also associated with less attention to academic tasks than high peer status children. These children can easily turn to criminal behaviour (Asarnow, 1983:709-711; Asher, 1983:1427-1434).

2.6 Summary

Factors contributing to juvenile crime are complicated and focus on this section is on the roles of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency.

The family is regarded as a primary institution in the socialization of the child and it promotes role model, attitudes and values which can be mimicked by a child. In addition to that families where parents are criminals may influence a child with unacceptable behaviour. Sutherland's theory is appropriate and in terms of this theory criminal behaviour is learned mainly in intricate personal groups.

Parental rejection of a child makes it difficult for the youngster to accept parents as role models from whom to learn appropriate behaviour patterns. In addition to that the family characterized by constant conflict, misunderstanding and unhappiness could predispose a child into delinquency. The family which is subjected to poor socio-economic status position may facilitate anomie situation because parents may be unable to provide opportunities essential for success and consequently the child could resort to deviant behaviour.

Apart from the family, school is one of the principal and constant agents in the socialization of the child. A child with problems experienced from unstable situation, traumatic divorce and unhealthy relationships with step-parents may

not be positively socialized at school and may become delinquent. Furthermore, poor teacher/pupil relationship could predispose a child into delinquency. The teacher who humiliates some pupils in front of the class does them irreparable harm. The pupil may turn into misconduct. In addition to that, chronic truant may become involved in a variety of delinquent activities such as drug abuse. Leisure time activities can predispose juvenile into criminal behaviour. Alcohol and other drugs are viewed as part of misuse of leisure time. Lack of recreational facilities could promote frustration and possible delinquency amongst youngsters.

Finally, the role of the peer group and its criminological effects is dealt with. The peer group is a crime-predisposing factor and it creates opportunities for misconduct outside family context.

Chapter 3

Attitudes towards the family as a delinquency-producing institution

3.1 Introduction

Discussions on family influence have shown a conflicting view with regards to gender, marital status, language groups, occupation, age and educational qualifications.

This chapter examines studies which show public attitudes to causes of juvenile crime in general. The respondent's attitudes to the family as an aetiology of juvenile crime in Emondlo are examined.

Differences in relation to gender, marital status, language groups and occupation of respondents in family influence on delinquency are discussed. Relationships between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents with regards to family influence on delinquency are dealt with.

3.2 Research findings and analysis of data

Results of surveys in which questions are not framed in exactly the same way can rarely be strictly comparable. Hence, focus on previous studies in this discussion is on public attitudes to the aetiology of juvenile crime in general.

Hollin and Howells (1987:203) argue that explanations for crime have been advanced by different disciplines and that views about crime transcend academic theories into public opinions. In an investigation carried out by Louis Harris 1967 for joint commission on correctional manpower and training, one of the statements was that people become criminals because they are reared in broken homes. Less than 10 per cent of 1,000 adult respondents over 21 years

of age believed that broken homes were responsible for criminal behaviour (Banks, Maloney & Willock, 1975:238).

LeFlore (1988:629) pointed out that relationship between family and delinquent is a topic frequently discussed by lay persons and social scientists. Researchers in particular have focussed on this relationship by examining several family variables. LeFlore (1988:629) investigated the influence of some family variables (number of sibling in house, family intactness, number of persons in household) on delinquent behaviour. The sample of his study consisted of 198 youths: 68 official chronic and 130 official non-delinquents. The results indicated that most of the variables explained 49% of the variance between chronic delinquent and non-delinquent.

Larzelere and Patterson (1990:301) pointed out that parental management is another set of variables that may have a stronger and more proximal effect on delinquency. The parental variables that are mostly associated with delinquency include: parental discipline and rejection.

Loeber, Weissman and Reid (1983:1) found that eleven adolescent chronic offenders apprehended for assaultive crimes in the community were observed in their family homes. They found that assaultive adolescents, unlike their controls, ranked significantly among their own family members in terms of aversive behaviour.

Although studies cited above provide limited support for the role of the family as a causative of juvenile crime but the attitudes of the respondents to the aetiology of juvenile crime form the basis of this discussion. In this investigation questions about the family as an aetiology of juvenile crime relate to father criminal, step-mother child upbringing, both parents criminals, father absence, mother criminal, family size, mother absence, step-mother-child upbringing and family conflict.

Hypotheses of this discussion as indicated in chapter one section 1.4 will be tested with the use of inferential statistics as indicated in subsection 1.6.5.

3.2.1 Gender differences in family influence on delinquency

Banks *et al.* (1975:228-240) show that opinions of men and women with regards to the aetiology of juvenile crime were very much similar. However, Reuterman (1978:40) in comparing male and female respondents found no significant differences on the following family factors: lack of parental discipline, lack of parental control, and societal and cultural influences. Significant differences between male and female respondents were, however, found in relation to lack of parental supervision and miscellaneous house and family influences (Reuterman, 1978:40).

Canter (1982:149) also examines differences in family bonds as a possible explanation of sex differences in self-reported delinquent behaviour among a national probability sample of 1725 adolescents. It was hypothesised that girls would report significantly stronger family bonds and significantly lower delinquency than boys. The findings provided limited support for these hypotheses. The expected sex differences in self-reported delinquent behaviour were observed males report significantly greater involvement in all forms of delinquent behaviour. However, the expected sex differences in family bonds were not observed. Family bonds are modestly correlated with delinquency, but at comparable rates for males and females and with evidence of their greater association amongst males in most cases (Canter, 1982:149). This section examines gender differences in family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.1 Gender differences in family influence N = 541

Family influence abridged	Male N = 334		Female N = 207		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Father criminal	5,00	1,13	4,19	1,10	1,04
Stepmother	3,81	1,02	3,76	1,12	0,23
Both parents criminals	4,18	1,10	4,25	0,90	0,67
Father absence	3,82	1,20	3,91	1,08	0,77
Mother criminal	4,17	0,93	4,06	0,96	1,73
Family size	3,97	1,07	4,14	1,10	2,23
Stepfather	3,90	1,25	4,02	1,03	1,49
Mother absence	3,95	1,05	3,90	1,11	0,20
Family conflict	4,23	1,00	4,26	0,88	0,11

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.1 reveals that there are no gender significant differences in attitudes of residents of Emondlo with regards to family influence on delinquency. All F-Values are not significant at 0,05 level.

3.2.2 Marital status differences in family influence on delinquency

In an investigation carried out by Glanz (1989:7-8) it was revealed that marital status proved to be a significant factor with respondents who were married being more concerned about crime. In respect of white sample group (realized sample 1230), the respondents who were married tended to have more protection against crime than the rest of sample (regression coefficient = 0,543, significant at the 1% level).

It could be conjectured that married persons accumulate a greater number of, and more valuable, material possessions than unmarried persons, for which they feel protection necessary. Researchers such as Durbow, McCabe and Kaplan (1979:34-40) also demonstrate that reason for such concern amongst married people was that they have greater at stake in that they tend to have more investments in terms of property.

Notwithstanding the fact that these studies have no direct link to the explanation of family influence on delinquency, they however provide valuable information about different marital status categories towards crime. Included marital status categories in this section of the study are: married, divorced, living together, widowed and single. This section focuses on marital status differences in family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.2 Marital status differences in family influence on delinquency (N = 541)

Family Influence (abridged)	Married (N = 145)		Divorced (N = 29)		Living together (N = 63)		Widowed (N = 33)		Single (N = 271)		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Criminal father	4,32	0,91	4,31	0,66	4,17	0,02	4,15	1,00	4,00	1,20	2,41*
Stepmother	4,19	0,94	4,24	0,87	4,27	0,83	4,24	0,96	4,19	1,40	0,10
Both parents criminals	3,81	1,09	4,28	0,75	3,95	1,00	4,30	0,68	3,63	0,08	5,68*
Father absence	3,88	1,15	3,72	1,07	4,02	0,85	4,33	1,05	3,77	1,23	2,23
Mother criminal	4,16	0,93	4,17	0,76	3,92	0,77	4,21	0,60	4,14	1,03	0,89
Family size	4,03	1,12	4,24	0,87	4,11	0,78	4,12	1,02	3,81	1,30	2,05
Stepfather	3,91	1,05	4,14	0,79	4,29	0,71	4,42	0,66	3,77	1,18	5,39*
Mother absence	4,11	1,06	4,31	0,66	4,17	0,68	4,30	0,92	3,89	1,20	2,72*
Family conflict	3,97	0,99	4,07	0,80	4,16	0,65	4,30	0,81	3,89	1,15	1,90

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.2 reveals that with exception of criminal father, both parents criminals, stepfather-child upbringing and mother absence (F-Values = 2,41; 5,68; 5,39 and 2,72 respectively) no significant differences can be found amongst marital status categories of respondents in family influence on delinquency. The rest of the items indicate non-significant F-Values.

3.2.3 Language group differences in family influence on delinquency

Studies (Secret & Johnson, 1989:366-367) examined the connection between race and attitudes towards crime in the U.S.A. They look at racial differences in attitudes towards court harshness, use of wiretaps, support of gun control and government spending to crime and drug abuse. They found some significant differences between attitudes of blacks and whites in all dependent variables.

Investigation carried out by Glanz (1989:7-9) shows that there are more whites who are concerned about juvenile crime than blacks. She argues that such findings indirectly demonstrate that whites are more worried about the crime problem present in their communities than their black counterparts.

Austin (1978:487) discussion's on the influence of father absence on delinquency often show special concern for the relatively high rate of father absence amongst black Americans. However, for the four delinquent offences studied, father absence had detrimental effects only on whites, especially girls. The only significant effect amongst black girls was favourable to the father absence. He found that parental control has similar effects on delinquency and on relationship between father absence and delinquency for blacks and whites.

It appears that no studies were carried out to establish attitudes of variant language groups toward family influence on delinquency. Included language groups in this study are: Zulu, Ntsonga, Sotho, Swazi, Venda and other. This section focuses on language group differences in family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.3 Language group differences in family influence on delinquency (N = 541)

Family influence abridged	Zulu (N = 432)		Tsonga (N = 40)		Sotho (N = 19)		Swazi (N = 33)		Venda (N = 14)		Other (N = 3)		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Criminal father	4,09	1,15	4,22	0,77	4,26	0,73	4,42	0,75	4,14	0,66	4,33	0,58	0,72
Stepmother	4,21	1,06	4,18	0,90	3,95	1,03	4,12	1,02	4,42	0,51	5,00	0,00	0,78
Both parents criminals	3,72	1,07	4,15	0,92	4,00	0,82	4,09	0,97	4,38	0,84	2,67	1,53	3,63*
Father absence	3,84	1,20	3,75	0,98	4,15	0,60	3,97	1,13	4,14	0,77	4,00	1,00	0,60
Mother criminal	4,14	0,98	4,08	0,92	3,68	0,75	4,09	0,68	4,42	0,64	4,33	0,56	1,21
Family size	3,92	1,19	4,08	1,05	3,79	1,18	4,24	0,94	3,79	0,97	3,33	2,08	0,83
Stepfather	3,89	1,08	4,18	0,90	4,00	0,67	4,18	0,85	4,35	1,15	1,67	0,15	4,20*
Mother absence	4,00	1,12	4,10	1,00	4,21	0,71	4,06	0,93	4,29	0,61	3,67	1,15	0,41
Family conflict	3,91	1,07	4,20	0,80	4,10	0,66	4,21	0,82	4,14	0,50	4,00	1,53	2,56*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.3 reveals that, with the exception of both parents criminals, stepfather and family conflict variables (F-Values = 3,63 4,20 and 2,56 respectively) no significant differences can be found amongst language groups in family influence on delinquency. The rest of the items indicate non-significant F-Values.

3.2.4 Occupational differences in family influence on delinquency

Studies (Glanz, 1989:10) show that a significant number of respondents with better occupations are more worried about delinquency. She also argues that occupation and income are entwined and that both are significant factors in measuring the socio-economic status of an individual.

According to Biederman, Johnson and McIntyre (1967:304-305) research in America also reveals that reaction to juvenile offending adopted by people with better occupation is different from responses adopted by poorer people. He argues further that the reason for this could be that poor people have no adequate resources to secure expensive protective mechanisms against crime. He concluded by saying that people with better occupations are more worried about crime in their neighbourhood than poorer people (Biederman, *et al.*, 1967:304)

Banks *et al.* (1975:228;230) show that a sample of approximately 2000 were asked whether stealing was a serious offence. One third of the respondents thought that stealing was a serious offence. However, the proportion varied according to the socio-economic groups and level of education of respondents. Half of the respondents with better status (occupation) considered the offence of stealing to be more serious than other offences.

Reuterman (1978:42) carried out an investigation in a small mid-western town (approximately 10,000 population) located in the periphery of a large metropolitan area in the U.S.A. The town is largely middle class in terms of income and includes a relatively small minority population. He found that blue-collar persons are more likely than white-collar persons to identify a lack

of parental supervision as causative of delinquency. He found no significant differences between white-collar and blue-collar respondents with regard to lack of parental discipline, lack of parental control, miscellaneous home and family conditions (Reuterman, 1978:42).

The above studies show that they have no direct impact on aetiology of delinquency, however, they lay a good foundation for the explanation of occupational differences in family influence on delinquency. This is demonstrated by the fact that occupational categories are related to the crime problem. Included occupational categories in this section of the study are: employer, self-employed, employee, temporarily unemployed, housewife, pensioner and disabled people. This section examines occupational differences in family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.4 Occupation differences in family influence on delinquency (N = 541)

Family influence (abridged)	Employer N = 28		Self- employed N = 45		Employee N = 244		Temporarily unemployed N = 39		Student N = 153		Housewife N = 9		Pensioner N = 14		DA 9		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Criminal father	4,39	0,99	4,09	0,89	4,30	0,89	4,10	1,02	3,84	1,35	4,44	0,73	4,50	0,65	3,33	1,50	3,91*
Stepmother	4,10	0,92	4,11	0,91	3,73	1,02	4,05	0,91	3,66	1,17	3,67	1,00	4,14	0,66	3,44	1,33	2,14*
Both parents criminals	3,96	1,26	4,11	0,80	4,38	0,85	4,20	0,77	3,99	1,30	4,22	0,97	4,29	1,34	4,11	1,26	2,26*
Father absence	3,73	1,16	3,76	1,18	4,15	1,07	3,92	1,12	2,33	1,11	4,14	0,95	4,00	0,87	4,33	1,00	4,26*
Mother criminal	4,18	0,77	4,13	0,79	4,29	0,82	4,15	0,78	3,93	1,19	3,33	0,86	4,00	0,68	3,78	0,97	3,19*
Family size	4,18	0,94	3,84	1,26	3,86	1,18	4,23	0,81	4,00	1,24	3,00	1,32	4,29	0,73	4,44	1,01	2,06*
Stepfather	4,41	0,71	4,09	0,97	3,86	0,08	4,10	0,88	3,86	1,18	3,78	1,20	4,14	0,77	4,56	1,01	1,23
Mother absence	4,43	0,63	4,11	1,11	4,02	1,09	4,15	1,09	3,89	1,14	3,78	1,09	4,07	0,83	4,55	1,01	1,40
Family conflict	4,25	0,84	4,00	1,18	3,79	1,15	3,97	0,97	3,65	1,31	3,11	1,83	4,64	0,63	3,69	1,00	2,71*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.4 reveals that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards the influence of the family on delinquency. It is noted that all except two F-Values are significant at 0,05 level. The F-Values that are not significant relate to stepfather and mother absence. Findings in table 3.4 show that there are significant occupational differences toward family influence on delinquency.

3.2.5 Relationship between age groups with regard to family influence on delinquency

Studies (Banks *et al.*, 1975:228-231) reveal that respondents over 50 years of age favoured the decline in parental and school authority and decline in religion as aetiologies of juvenile crime. Reuterman (1978:41) shows that middle-age groups (36-50 and 51-65) are relatively more likely to regard a lack of parental supervision as a cause of delinquency. The younger group (< 31) and older group (> 65) are less likely to regard this as a causative factor. These results do not agree with Banks *et al.* (1975:228-231) who report that persons older than 50 are more likely to regard a general decline in parental authority as a causative factor in crime and delinquency. Reuterman (1978:41) also shows that persons younger than 50 years are more likely than older persons to believe that giving juveniles too much for nothing leads to delinquency.

It is noted that the studies above could serve as a good foundation for the explanation of relationship between age groups and family influence on delinquency. This is attributed to the fact that different age groups are somehow related to the crime problem. Included age categories in this section of the study are: 18-24; 24-34; 35-44; 45-54; 54-64; and 65 and above. This section is centred on relationship between age groups with regard to family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.5 Relationship between age groups with regard to family influence on delinquency

Family influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Criminal father	0,12390*	0,0036
Stepmother	0,18252*	0,0001
Both parents criminals	0,03379	0,4329
Father absence	0,05284	0,2198
Mother criminal	0,01827	0,6716
Family size	0,06297	0,1435
Stepfather	0,00211	0,9610
Mother absence	0,08391	0,0511
Family conflict	0,12789*	0,0029

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.5 indicates that relationship between age groups and attitudes of respondents range from very weak to weak (0,00211 to 0,18252). Further, in only three instances do rho reach the 0,05 level of significance, namely family conflict, stepmother and criminal father (0,12789; 0,18252 and 0,12490 respectively).

3.2.6 Relationship between educational qualifications and family influence on delinquency

Studies (Glanz, 1989:10) show that respondents with higher educational qualifications are more worried about the problem of crime compared to those with lower educational qualifications. She pointed out that educational qualification is one of the determinants of socio-economic status of an individual. It is also noted that a significant number of respondents with better educational levels employed a greater number of protective devices than those with lower educational levels.

Banks *et al.* (1975:228; 230) in their studies divided the respondents in accordance with the level of their qualifications as follows: (1) higher education (university, technical college, public and grammar school) and lower education (all others). They asked respondents whether stealing was a serious offence. The investigation reveals that one third of respondents showed that it was a serious offending and their responses varied according to their level of education.

At face value the studies as shown above might be viewed as if they have no direct impact in family influence on delinquency, but they show that educational qualifications are somewhat related to the crime problem. Hence, they are included in this investigation. In this investigation the sample registered their educational qualifications as Std 6, Std 7, Std 8, Std 9, Std 10, diploma and degree. This section focuses on relationship between educational qualifications and family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.6 Relationship between educational qualifications and family influence on delinquency

Family influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Father criminal	0,04911	0,2541
Stepmother	0,00461	0,9148
Both parents criminals	0,00638	0,8822
Father absence	-0,05378	0,2117
Mother criminal	0,02849	0,5085
Family size	0,03425	0,4267
Stepfather	-0,11333	0,0083
Mother absence	0,03708	0,3894
Family conflict	0,07812	0,0694

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 3.6 reveals very weak relationships between the educational qualifications of respondents and their attitudes towards the family influence on delinquency (0,00461 to 0,7812). None of the rho's reach the 0,05 level of significance.

3.3 Summary

In this section the influence of the family on delinquency is dealt with. Questions about the family as an aetiology of juvenile crime relate to father criminal, stepmother-child upbringing, both parents criminals, mother absence, mother criminal, father absence, family size, stepfather and family conflict.

Studies (Bank *et al.*, 1975:228-240; Reuterman, 1978:40) reveal conflicting views or opinions for men and women with regards to aetiologies of crime. Table 3.1 reveals that there are no significant gender differences in attitudes of residents in relation to family influence on delinquency.

Tables 3.2; 3.3 and 3.4 reveal that there are some significant differences amongst respondents with regards to marital status categories, language groups and occupation in family influence on delinquency.

Table 3.5 shows that relationship between age groups and attitudes of respondents range from very weak to weak (0,00211 to 0,18252). Furthermore, Table 3.6 discloses very weak relationship between educational qualifications of respondents and their attitudes towards the family on delinquency (0,00461 to 0,7812).

Chapter 4

Attitudes towards the school as a delinquency-producing institution

4.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter focus was on the family influence on delinquency. Apart from family influence on the child's development, school is an important institution in the child's life and in certain measures, perhaps, more involved than the family in causing crime. However, there is little available information regarding which factors within the school context are viewed by various categories of public as contributory to delinquency.

The present discussion explores the attitudes of the residents of Emondlo with regards to school as a cause of juvenile crime. Focus is on differences in gender, marital status, language groups and occupations of respondents towards school on delinquency. Relationships between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents are also dealt with.

4.2 Research findings and analysis of data

Reuterman and Cartwright (1976:70) showed that there are differences amongst agencies in the U.S.A. with regard to their views on delinquency causation. The agencies involved in their investigation include: school, welfare, mental health, police, sheriffs, district attorneys, court/probation institutions and parole. Reuterman and Cartwright (1976:78) found that schools are most likely to regard school-related factors as causative of delinquency. They appeared to recognize the fact that school personnel tend to have a negative view of "trouble makers" and delinquents.

Lawrence (1985:69) argues that schools are expected to prepare students for adult social and vocational roles. However, a number of studies suggest that

school experiences can lead to youthful misbehaviour and delinquency (Stincombe, 1964:15-20; Polk & Schafer, 1972:37). It is also noted from the studies that frustration caused by school failure could lead to avoidance of school activities and eventually to misbehaviour (Elliot & Voss, 1974:28-30).

Gold (1978:293) pointed out that delinquent behaviour is a defence against lowered self-esteem engendered by failure to perform successfully in the school setting. It is compounded by loss of other favoured roles in school setting. Gold (1978:293) remarks that: "The youth falls short of his aspirations for scholastic achievements ... He experiences few if any other success in school: He is not particularly popular or well-known among classmates and has no close friends; he does not excel in any extracurricular activities; and he has no special interest or hobby in school or elsewhere at which he can demonstrate particular competence. The consequence of these experiences is a derogated self-image; a feeling that one is not worth much and will not ever be. Delinquent behaviour, particularly disruptive behaviour in school, is a defence against self-derogation." (Gold, 1978:293).

Greenberg (1977:200) argues that students at school who were unpopular, and who have poor academic records, whether as a result of inability or disinterest are frustrated at school. To these students schooling brings no gratifications and promise for future pay-offs. These students often get into behavioural problems and feel intense hostility towards the school.

Banks *et al.* (1975:228-229) also presented their sample (2,846 informants) with statement which has a bearing on schools. Between 50 and 70 percent of respondents chose as causes, though not necessarily as main causes, "school teachers not having enough authority over their children".

Reuterman (1978:44) showed that there is a systematic variation amongst various segments of the public regarding views and delinquency causation. He argues further that the public seems to regard delinquency as emanating from multiplicity of causes.

The objective of this chapter is to examine the attitudes of the public towards school influence on delinquency. Information about the attitudes of the public towards school influence on delinquency are a sequel to these questions: poor school performance, corporal punishment at school, truancy, pupil-teacher relationship, teacher failure to identify, school curriculae, labelled delinquent children and teacher lax discipline. Subsequently, these questions are analyzed in terms of various categories of respondents namely, gender, marital status, occupation, language groups, age and educational qualifications of respondents.

4.2.1 Gender differences in school influence on delinquency

Furnham and Henderson (1983:115) show that females differed in their explanation of the cause of crime. They found that females preferred explanations which referred to the socialization in home and school.

In comparing male and female respondents in relation to fear of different types of crime, it was found that male respondents feared murder most, followed by property crimes and assault. Females, on the other hand, feared rape most, followed by murder and assault (Naude, 1989:15). The fact that males feared murder most could be attributed to their lifestyle and socialization which can result in their being more aggressive and violent than females as a result of which they are more exposed to provocation (Stafford & Galle, 1984:175).

By the same token the fact that women feared rape most, could be an indication of the high premium women place on violation of their person and reputation. The socialization process and high premium the community places on these qualities of women possibly also contribute to this perception (Warren, 1984:698). This section focuses on male and female differences in school influence on delinquency.

Table 4.1 Sex/Gender differences and school influence on delinquency
N = 51

School influence (abridged)	Male N = 334		Female N = 207		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Poor school performance	3,90	1,09	4,10	0,89	5,05*
Corporal punishment at school	3,77	1,25	3,88	1,10	1,17
Truancy school	4,02	1,25	4,07	1,08	0,17
Pupil-teacher relationship	4,00	1,05	4,18	0,91	4,10*
Teacher-failure to teach	3,89	1,16	4,05	1,08	2,43
Teacher-failure to identify	3,93	1,10	3,88	1,20	0,23
School curriculae *	3,92	1,08	3,97	1,09	0,24
Labelled delinquent children	4,01	1,10	4,08	1,02	0,45
Teacher lax discipline	4,22	1,01	4,14	0,98	0,75

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.1 indicates that, with the exception of poor school performance and pupil-teacher relationships (F-Values = 5,05 and 4,10 respectively) there are no significant gender differences in the opinion about the school influence on delinquency. The F-Values yielded by the rest of variables do not reach the 0,05 level of significance.

4.2.2 Marital status differences in school influence on delinquency

Studies (Glanz, 1989:9) have shown that married persons tended to participate in crime control endeavours more than those who are unmarried. Glanz (1989:7-8) observed that the sample of white respondents showed a variation between married and unmarried categories towards protection against crime.

Glanz (1989:9) also found that married Indian respondents (realized sample of 1439) tended to have more protection against crime compared to unmarried respondents.

On the other hand in respect of black respondents (realized sample of 1034) those who were living together had significantly more protection against crime than the rest of the sample.

In addition to that, marital status was also significant in the analysis relating to the Indian sample, with respondents who are living together being significantly more willing to participate in crime control than the rest of the sample (Glanz, 1989:10). The focus of this section is on marital status differences in school influence on delinquency.

Table 4.2 Marital status differences in school influence on delinquency (N = 541)

School Influence (abridged)	Married N = 145		Divorced N = 29		Living together N = 63		Widowed N = 33		Single N = 271		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Poor school performance	3,84	1,22	3,38	0,68	3,98	0,79	4,30	0,92	3,64	1,29	4,94*
Corporal punishment school	4,19	1,03	4,03	0,98	4,16	1,00	4,52	0,57	3,88	1,35	3,35*
Truancy school	4,02	0,95	3,83	0,97	4,02	0,99	4,42	0,94	4,09	1,04	1,62
Pupil-teacher relationship	3,89	1,18	3,90	0,86	3,98	1,00	4,21	0,82	3,95	1,19	0,57
Teacher-failure to teach	3,83	1,21	4,13	0,69	4,22	0,97	4,33	0,74	3,80	1,20	3,43*
Teacher-failure to identify	3,92	1,12	4,17	0,88	3,94	0,91	4,27	0,98	3,88	1,13	1,32
School curriculae	4,00	1,10	4,28	0,75	4,13	0,73	4,09	0,91	4,01	1,18	0,55
Labelled delinquency children	4,00	1,12	4,28	0,80	4,16	0,85	4,00	0,90	4,30	0,99	0,90
Teacher lax discipline	3,96	1,07	4,10	0,94	4,04	0,94	3,85	0,94	4,11	0,96	0,90

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 4.2 shows that, with the exception of poor school performance, corporal punishment at school and teacher failure to teach (F-Values = 4,94; 3,35 and 3.43 respectively) there are no significant differences towards the influence of school on delinquency. The rest of the items in the table yield insignificant F-Values ($p > 0,05$).

4.2.3 Language groups differences in school influence on delinquency

South Africa is a multiracial country in which, for many years, various population groups were segregated in terms of apartheid laws which the government started dismantling in 1990. The enforced segregation inadvertently engendered an awareness of different ethnicity amongst black South Africans.

Prior to this time largely unrepresentative police force often had the unenviable task of enforcing unpopular laws which affected black South Africans. Consequently, blacks as a group tend to see the criminal justice system as discriminatory. Hagan and Albonetti (1982:352) also reported that "... black Americans are considerably more likely than white Americans to perceive criminal injustice." Secret and Johnson (1989:362) show that victimization affects attitudes by making persons more fearful of crime in their neighbourhood. Another factor shaping attitudes towards crime is victimization blacks may perceive to be high within their communities (Secret & Johnson, 1989:362). The present study seeks to expand the research on racial differences in crime into various language groups in Emondlo. It focuses on the extent to which language groups differ in attitudes towards school influence on delinquency.

Table 4.3 Language group differences and school influence on delinquency (N = 514)

School Influence (abridged)	Zulu N = 432		Ntsonga N = 40		Sotho N = 19		Swazi N = 33		Venda N = 14		Other N = 3		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Poor school performance	3,78	1,23	3,96	0,90	4,00	0,94	4,00	1,03	4,36	1,00	1,67	1,54	3,01*
Corporal punishment at school	4,02	1,22	4,20	1,01	4,37	0,68	4,09	1,04	3,71	1,06	3,33	1,52	0,89
Truancy school	4,06	0,99	4,28	0,88	3,84	1,17	4,09	1,04	4,36	0,84	3,00	2,00	1,48
Pupil-teacher relationship	3,97	1,13	3,78	1,09	3,89	1,14	4,18	0,88	3,79	1,18	1,67	1,15	3,07*
Teacher-failure to teach	3,86	1,15	4,13	0,99	4,10	1,20	4,24	0,89	4,21	1,19	1,33	0,58	4,48*
Teacher-failure to identify	3,95	1,10	3,93	0,92	4,16	0,83	3,70	1,23	4,00	1,11	3,67	1,54	0,53
School curriculae	4,02	1,11	4,35	0,70	3,95	1,02	4,00	1,06	4,29	0,91	3,33	1,53	1,84
Labelled delinquency children	4,20	1,01	4,25	0,74	4,32	0,88	4,18	0,95	4,00	1,30	2,67	1,53	1,60
Teacher lax discipline	4,05	0,99	4,10	0,81	3,95	1,13	3,94	1,06	4,29	0,73	3,00	2,00	0,98

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.3 reveals that, with the exception of poor school performance, pupil-teacher relationship and failure of teacher to teach (F-Values = 3,01; 3,07 and 4,48 respectively) no significant differences can be found amongst different language groups in their opinion regarding school influence on delinquency. The rest of the items indicate non-significant F-Values.

4.2.4 Occupational differences in school influence on delinquency

In the preceding chapter it was shown that Reuteran (1978:44) differentiated between two socio-economic households, i.e. blue-collar and white-collar households. The distinction between two socio-economic households were based on the type of employment of the principal wage-earner. It is also noted that occupation and income of the principal wage-earner determine the people's choice of residence. Reuteran (1978:43) argued that residents may differ in a variety of attitudes, values, including their views on delinquency causation. However, he found no significant differences between white-collar and blue-collar households with regard to community influence, drug and alcohol and the problem in law enforcement and juvenile system (Reuteran, 1978:43).

Naude (1994:133) also showed that people with lower occupation in most cases reside in lower income residential areas. She also showed that a significant number of respondents who resided in lower income areas were concerned about the problem of crime. The respondent's opinion was that there was no proper control of crime. The focus of this section is on occupational differences in school influence on delinquency.

Table 4.4 Occupation differences in school influence on delinquency (N = 541)

School Influence (abridged)	Employer		Self- employed		Employee		T/Un- employed		Student		Housewife		Pensioner		Disabled		F Value
	N = 28 mean	SD	N = 45 mean	SD	N = 244 mean	SD	N = 39 mean	SD	N = 153 mean	SD	N = 9 mean	SD	N = 14 mean	SD	N = 19 mean	SD	
Poor school performance	4,36	0,78	4,80	1,15	3,91	0,97	4,41	0,85	3,97	1,12	3,78	1,09	3,86	0,95	3,88	1,05	1,97
Corporal punish- ment at school	,32	0,90	4,02	1,05	4,06	1,15	4,38	0,85	3,87	1,37	3,67	1,32	4,50	0,85	3,89	1,45	1,62
Truancy school	4,00	1,12	3,87	1,06	3,93	0,99	4,18	1,05	4,37	0,87	3,67	0,71	3,93	1,33	4,00	1,32	3,52*
Pupil- Teacher relationship	4,14	0,71	3,87	1,25	3,85	1,16	4,05	1,07	4,10	1,12	3,22	1,39	3,86	1,03	4,33	0,71	1,56
Teacher- failure to teach	4,07	0,86	3,89	1,05	3,93	1,05	4,07	1,29	3,76	1,33	3,00	1,11	4,43	0,65	4,67	0,50	2,40*
Teacher- failure to identify	4,25	0,93	3,89	1,11	3,91	1,00	3,97	1,18	3,94	1,17	2,78	1,30	4,50	0,52	3,89	1,45	2,41*
School curriculae	4,21	0,74	4,04	1,22	3,94	1,03	4,15	1,08	4,17	1,16	3,33	1,00	4,14	0,66	3,78	1,39	1,23
Labelled delinquency children	4,42	0,63	4,40	0,86	4,10	0,97	4,05	1,12	4,29	1,04	4,89	1,45	4,14	0,95	4,33	1,41	1,27
Teacher lax discipline	4,25	0,70	3,93	1,03	3,91	0,96	4,17	1,12	4,29	0,88	3,22	1,56	4,14	0,86	3,33	1,32	4,10*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.4 indicates that significant differences amongst different occupational categories could be found with items: truancy, teacher failure to teach, teacher failure to identify and teacher lax discipline (F-Values = 3,52; 2,40; 2,41 and 4,10 respectively). For the rest of the items the F-Values do not reach the expected levels of significance.

4.2.5 Relationship between age groups with regard to school influence on delinquency

Greenberg (1977:189) shows that much attention has been paid in research on the causes of delinquency to the role of such variables as class, sex and race. By comparison, the relationship between age and criminality or delinquency, though indicated in passing in numerous studies, has received little systematic attention.

Lewis and Salem (1986:2-3) show that age is one of the variables which has been used by dozens of scholars to explain variations in attitudes.

Glanz (1989:9) found that elderly persons have been regarded by offenders as "soft targets". She argues that elderly persons are more worried about crime problem than people of other ages. It is also stated that elderly persons have reported that concern about crime is their biggest problem ahead of health matters, income and housing problems.

Maxfield (1984:11) found that aged for example, show a high fear of crime against the person, whereas they are in fact more seldom the victims of such crimes than, for instance, young males who, despite their higher victimization rate, show a lower fear reaction to crime. This section focuses on relationship between age groups with regard to school influence on delinquency.

Table 4.5 Relationship between age groups with regard to school influence on delinquency

School influence (abridged)	Correlation coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Poor performance	0,17469*	0,0001
Corporal punishment at school	0,13760*	0,0013
Truancy school	-0,08257	0,0550
Pupil-teacher relationship	-0,03996	0,3536
Teacher-failure to teach	0,12307*	0,0041
Teacher-failure to identify	0,04703	0,2749
School curriculae	0,04421	0,3047
Labelled delinquent children	-0,07283	0,0906
Teacher's lax discipline	-0,09865	0,0217

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.5 indicates that the relationship between age categories and attitudes towards the school as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations (0,04 to 0,17). Further, in only three instances, namely, teacher failure to teach, corporal punishment and poor school performance do the rho reach a level of significance (0,12307, 0,13760 and 0,17469 respectively).

4.2.6 Relationship between educational qualifications in school influence on delinquency

In the preceding chapter it was shown that educational qualification was a significant predictor of the amount of protection employed by South Africans against crime (Glanz, 1989:10).

With regard to the white sample, respondents with a high educational level employed a greater number of protective devices than those with a low educational level (regression coefficient 0,194 significant at the 1% level) (Glanz, 1989:10).

The same trend was evident in respect of the black (regression coefficient = 0,215 significant at the 1% level) and Indian (regression coefficient = 0,208 significant at the 5% level) respondents (Glanz, 1989:10).

It could thus be said that educational level is a significant predictor of problem against crime, with those with higher education being in a position to choose and adopt greater protection mechanisms. This section focuses on relationship between educational qualifications and school influence on delinquency.

**Table 4.6 Relationship between educational qualifications in school
influence on delinquency**

School influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Poor performance	0,04294	0,3188
Corporal punishment at school	0,03737	0,3856
Truancy school	-0,15989*	0,0002
Pupil-teacher relationship	-0,04412	0,3057
Teacher-failure to teach	0,06705	0,1193
Teacher-failure to identify	0,04396	0,3074
School curriculae	0,04972	0,2483
Labelled delinquent discipline	0,00377	0,9302
Teacher lax discipline	0,15148*	0,0004

* $p \leq 0,05$

Statistics in table 4.6 indicate that the relationships range very weak to weak correlation coefficients. Further, in only two instances namely, truancy and teacher lax discipline do the rho reach a level of significance (-0,15989 and 0,15148 respectively).

4.3 Summary

The preceding discussion explores the attitudes of the residents of Emondlo in relation to school influence on delinquency. Questions about the school as a cause of juvenile crime relate to: poor school performance, corporal punishment, truancy, pupil-teacher relationship, teacher failure to teach, teacher failure identify, school curriculae, labelled delinquent children and teacher's lax discipline.

Studies (Reuterman, 1978:44) disclose that there are variations amongst various segments of public with regards to views on delinquency causation. The public seems to view delinquency as emanating from multiplicity of causes.

In this section of the study, variations in gender, marital status, language groups and occupation of respondents towards school influence on delinquency are dealt with. Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 indicate that there are some significant differences amongst these variables towards school influence on delinquency.

This section also explores relationship between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents in relation to school influence on delinquency. Table 4.5 indicates that the relationship between age categories and attitudes of respondents towards school as a contributory to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations. Statistics in table 4.6 indicate that the relationships range very weak to weak correlation coefficients.

Chapter 5

Attitudes towards leisure time and peer groups as delinquency-producing institutions

5.1 Introduction

The title of this chapter suggests an approach to the attitudes of the public towards leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency. The present study sought to establish possible relationship between leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency. Leisure time activities have become so common in the industrialised world, and they are within reach of virtually everyone. Leisure activities can entail all kinds of problems, tensions and temptations for the child and juvenile, especially if he has not learned how to spend his free time usefully; how to handle its various forms and when he cannot participate in healthy leisure time activities. This chapter explores variations in relation to gender, marital status, language group and occupation of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency. Relationship between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents towards leisure time activities is also discussed.

The development of antisocial peer groups may be attributed to anonymous impersonal urban life and its delinquency areas. Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1990:88) say that socially and physically deteriorated areas are marked by high delinquency rates and numerous peer groups. This chapter deals with variations in relation to gender, marital status, language group and occupation of respondents towards peer group influence on delinquency. Relationship between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents as regards peer group influence is also dealt with.

5.2 Research findings and analysis of data

A number of large polls have been conducted to establish popular opinion about crime in general. It is observed that a survey by Banks *et al.* (1975:228-240) has looked specifically at lay explanations for the causes of crime. However, studies suggest that, in general, practitioners in the field regard delinquency as developing from multiplicity of causes (Reuterman & Cartwright, 1976:67).

Banks *et al.* (1975:229) analyzed the role of spare time on delinquency in terms of age of informants, their sex, socio-economic status, level of education and living area. They pointed out that between 50 and 70 percent of respondents chose as aetiologies, though not necessarily as main causes, the likelihood of people doing boring jobs and not having enough to do in their spare time as more vulnerable to deviant behaviour.

Sudararajan, Sakthivelu & Poonalagappan (1990:10) say that recreation and leisure interests, activities and materials are likely to vary in different geographic regions and communities and at different times of the year. They also point out that these activities could predispose an individual into delinquency.

Bierman and Furman (1984:151) maintain that peers could inadvertently foster an inappropriate social behaviour. They also indicate that peer interactions play significant and unique roles in facilitating the development of appropriate assertiveness, altruistic behaviour, moral reasoning and other social competencies involving reciprocal give and take relationship (Hartup, 1979:22-26). Moreover, continued isolation from positive peer contact has been associated with a number of serious adjustment problems and eventually deviant behaviour.

Thornton *et al.* (1987:233) say that evidence suggests that delinquency is a group phenomenon in which small clique appears to predominate. Delinquents appear to prefer the social and moral support of other delinquents when they

engage in deviant activities. They also pointed out that peers sometimes influence others to commit criminal acts.

Bierman, Miller and Stabb (1987:194) state that peer rejected grade school children are often disruptive and aggressive socially. They also show that relative to their peer accepted or peer neglected classmates, rejected children are more likely to experience continued social problems, poor adjustment at school, loneliness, poor adult mental health and eventually misconduct.

The items used to measure the attitude towards peer group and leisure time influence are as follows: community recreational facilities, non-involvement in organized recreation and non-participation in decision affecting recreational activities. Questions relating to peer group influence are: peer group influence on delinquency, group-related crime, peer group unisex, peer group mechanisms, peer group opportunities to crime and peer group socialization.

5.2.1 Gender differences in leisure time influence on delinquency

Reuterman (1978:40) carried out an investigation in the U.S.A. and he presented male and female respondents with an item which enquire about the lack of recreational opportunities. He found no significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to lack of recreational opportunities.

Table 5.1 Sex/Gender differences on influence of leisure time on delinquency (N = 541)

Leisure time influence (abridged)	Male (N = 334)		Female (N = 207)		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Community recreational facilities	4,05	0,99	4,04	0,99	1,01
Emondlo recreational facilities	4,22	0,93	4,31	0,94	1,26
Non-involvement in organized recreation	4,19	1,04	4,21	0,89	0,35
Non-participation in decision-making	4,06	1,02	4,08	0,95	0,05

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.1 reveals that there are no significant differences in attitudes with regards to the gender influence on delinquency. All F-Values are not significant at 0,05 level.

5.2.2 Marital status differences in leisure time influence on delinquency

Studies (Utz, 1986:37) reveal that with regards to marital status and leisure time activities, parents are more concerned about the amount of television and other media accessible in child's life. Parents always endeavoured to confine their children from viewing television with pornography and other adventurous pictures. Parents usually want their children to use their free or leisure time more constructively. However, situation is likely to vary from one parent to another. This investigation focuses on marital status differences in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Table 5.2 Marital status differences in leisure time influence on delinquency**(N = 541)**

School influence (abridged)	Married N = 145		Divorced N = 29		Living together N = 63		Widowed N = 33		Single N = 271		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Community recreational facilities	4,19	0,97	4,38	0,82	4,27	0,97	4,03	0,92	4,30	0,92	0,95
Emondlo recreational facilities	4,15	0,91	4,06	0,75	4,25	0,86	4,24	0,79	4,23	1,08	0,35
Non-involvement in organized recreation	4,10	1,06	4,03	0,91	3,97	0,86	3,97	1,04	4,10	1,00	0,33
Non-participation in decision making	4,05	1,12	3,90	0,77	4,17	0,83	4,18	0,98	4,13	1,10	0,54

***p ≤ 0,05**

Table 5.2 shows that there are no significant differences amongst marital status categories of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency. It is noted from the table that all F-Values are not significant at 0,05 level.

5.2.3 Language group differences in leisure time influence on delinquency

Studies (Secret & Johnson, 1989:362) carried out in the U.S.A. give several reasons for expecting blacks to differ in their attitudes to the control of crime. One argument for expecting differences is based on the view that crime affects the quality of life within black and white communities differently, specifically issues of crime and crime control are more frequently abstract issues for whites, while for blacks crime is more a reality of their existence. These studies reveal different attitudes amongst blacks and whites towards crime problem, they also form a good foundation for the study of different language groups towards crime problem. This section of the study focuses on language group differences in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Table 5.3 Language group differences in leisure time influence on delinquency

(N = 541)

Leisure time influence (abridged)	Zulu N = 432		Tsonga N = 40		Sotho N = 19		Swazi N = 33		Venda N = 14		Other N = 3		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Community recreational facilities	4,26	0,93	4,48	0,68	4,00	1,20	4,24	0,97	4,21	0,70	3,33	2,08	1,33
Emondlo recreational facilities	4,18	1,01	4,22	0,83	4,47	0,77	4,15	1,03	4,64	0,50	4,33	1,15	0,93
Non-involvement in organised recreation	4,07	1,01	4,18	0,68	3,89	0,87	4,03	0,67	4,07	1,14	3,67	1,53	0,31
Non-participation in recreation	4,08	1,09	4,33	0,62	4,42	0,82	3,90	1,18	4,50	0,76	3,67	1,53	1,48

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.3 reveals that there are no significant differences amongst language groups with regards to leisure time influence on delinquency. It is noticed that all F-Values are not significant at 0,05 level.

5.2.4 Occupational differences in leisure time influence on delinquency

Studies (Reuterman, 1978:43) carried out in the U.S.A. reveal that two socio-economic levels were identified based on the type of employment of the principal wage earner. While such households may not differ in any significant degree in terms of income, the residents may well differ in a variety of attitudes and values, including their views of delinquency causation. In that investigation Reuterman (1978:43) also found no significant differences between blue-collar and white-collar households with regards to lack of recreational opportunities. In this section of the study focus is on occupational differences in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Table 5.4 Occupation differences in leisure time on delinquency

(N = 541)

Leisure time influence (abridged)	Employer N = 28		Self- employed N = 45		Employee N = 244		Temporarily unemployed N = 39		Student N = 153		Housewife N = 9		Pensioner N = 15		Disabled N = 15		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Community recreational facilities	4,50	0,58	4,18	0,78	4,20	0,97	4,46	0,82	4,33	0,90	3,44	1,51	4,36	0,63	3,78	1,64	2,26*
Emondlo recreational facilities	4,39	0,63	4,13	1,04	4,11	1,07	4,28	1,03	4,39	0,80	4,56	0,73	4,21	0,80	3,50	1,51	2,48*
Non- involvement in organized recreation	4,39	0,74	3,96	1,07	4,15	0,89	4,10	1,02	4,00	1,12	3,11	1,26	4,07	1,00	3,44	1,13	2,54*
Non- participation in decision making	4,32	0,61	3,87	1,01	4,14	0,98	4,21	1,17	4,14	1,16	3,00	1,32	4,36	0,74	3,44	1,33	2,68*

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.4 reveals that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories in leisure time influence on delinquency. It is noted from the table that all F-Values are significant at 0,05 level. Their F-Values are 2,26; 2,48; 2,54 and 2,68 respectively.

5.2.5 Relationship between age groups with regards to leisure time influence on delinquency

Opportunities of committing crime are not the same for age. This, however, does show that age is a cause of crime. Age is a neutral concept that receives its criminological significance when coupled with socio-psychological factors such as economy, education and emotions. Although not a "cause" of crime, age is important in determining the form and rate of crime. Young children under the age of 13 commit simple offenses such as petty thefts. As they grow older they engage in more serious offenses and the frequency of these crimes increase (Mqadi, 1994:185).

Studies (Reuterman, 1978:42) carried out in the U.S.A. disclose that every attempt was made to group respondents into group for age categories, younger than 36; 36-50; 51-65 and older than 65. In the same instances, however, it became necessary to combine adjacent groups in order to secure sufficiently high expected frequencies.

In the same study Reuterman (1978:43) also found that there are no significant differences amongst age groups with regards to lack of recreational opportunities and drug and alcohol abuse as well as problems in law enforcement and juvenile system. This section of the study focuses on age group differences in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Table 5.5 Relationship between age groups and leisure time influence on delinquency (N = 541)

Leisure time influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Community recreational facilities	-0,05125	0,2340
Emondlo recreational facilities	-0,05538	0,1984
Non-involvement in organized recreation	0,05273	0,2208
Non-participation in decision-making	-0,00818	0,8495

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.5 shows that age groups are not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency. It is noted from the table that no rho reach a level of significance at 0,05. It is also noted that some rho are negatively related. Notable of those negatively related are community recreational facilities, Emondlo lack of recreational facilities, non-participation in decisions on recreational facilities.

5.2.6 Relationship between educational qualifications and leisure time influence on delinquency

Glanz (1989:10) also showed variations amongst respondents with different educational backgrounds towards crime problem. It is noted, however, that no previous studies were carried out to determine the relationship between educational qualifications and leisure time influence on delinquency. This section focuses on relationship between educational qualifications and leisure time influence on delinquency.

Table 5.6 Relationship between educational qualifications and leisure time influence on delinquency (N = 541)

Leisure time influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Community recreational facilities	-0,00414	0,9235
Emondlo recreational facilities	-0,05470	0,2040
Non-involvement in organized recreation	0,06650	0,1224
Non-participation in decision-making	0,03857	-0,3706

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.6 shows that educational qualifications are not significantly related to leisure time on delinquency. No rho in the table reach a level of significance at 0,05. It is also noted that some rho are negatively related. Notable of those negatively related are community related facilities and Emondlo lack of recreational facilities. Their rho are -0,00414 and -0,05470 respectively.

5.2.7 Gender differences and peer groups influence on delinquency

In section 5.1 it was shown that Reuterman (1978:40) compared male and female respondents in relation to leisure time influence (lack of recreational opportunities) on delinquency.

Reuterman (1978:40) also found no significant differences amongst male and female respondents towards peer group influence on delinquency. This section of the study is centred on gender differences in peer groups influence on delinquency.

Table 5.7 Sex/Gender differences on peer group influence on delinquency**(N = 541)**

Peer group influence (abridged)	Male N = 334		Female N = 207		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Peer group influence on delinquency	4,24	0,85	4,28	0,87	0,57
Group related crime	4,25	0,94	4,31	0,92	0,60
Peer group unisex	4,32	0,92	4,11	1,03	5,80*
Peer group mechanisms	4,28	0,84	4,25	0,91	0,10
Peer group opposition	4,23	0,83	4,29	0,83	0,55
Peer group socialization	3,99	1,56	3,98	0,95	0,03

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.7 reveals that, with exception of peer group-related crime variable (F-Values = 5,80) no significant differences can be found between male and female respondents in peer group influence on delinquency. The rest of the items are non-significant F-Values.

Thus findings in table 5.7 contradict findings by Reuterman (1978:40) where he showed that there are no significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to peer group influence on delinquency.

5.2.8 Marital status differences in peer group influence on delinquency

A comparison of the incidence of broken homes among juvenile delinquents in terms of their group affiliation reveals that broken homes are pre-eminently a factor among gang members. Broken homes are thus, in all probability, partly responsible for a juvenile's seeking membership in a gang. Insufficient supervision and discipline and the desire to live the wider circle of the group can play a role here. Thus the significance of broken homes is not only that they are conducive to misconduct and delinquency but also that they tend to perpetuate such behaviour by fostering gang life (Cronje, van der Walt, Retief & Naude, 1982:250). Focus on this section of the study is on marital status differences in peer group influence on delinquency.

Table 5.8 Marital status differences in peer group influence on delinquency

(N = 541)											
Peer group influence (abridged)	Married N = 145		Divorced N = 29		Living together N = 63		Widowed N = 33		Single N = 271		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Peer group influence on delinquency	4,35	0,80	4,34	0,81	4,30	0,80	4,09	0,91	4,23	1,02	0,76
Group related crime	4,20	0,99	3,72	1,13	4,03	1,03	3,85	0,97	4,40	0,88	6,48*
Peer group unisex	4,24	0,85	3,86	1,02	4,11	0,97	4,15	0,83	4,37	0,82	3,33*
Peer group mechanisms	4,17	0,85	3,97	1,05	4,17	0,73	4,27	0,80	4,34	0,81	2,23
Peer group opposition	3,90	1,03	3,86	1,15	4,00	0,92	4,15	0,92	4,02	1,02	0,70
Peer group socialization	4,19	0,85	4,07	1,13	4,00	0,98	4,33	0,81	3,92	1,15	2,26

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.8 shows that, with exception of peer group-related crime and peer group unisex variables, (F-Value = 6,48; 3,33 respectively) no significant differences can be found amongst marital status categories in peer group influence on delinquency. The rest of items are non-significant F-Values.

5.2.9 Language group differences in peer groups influence on delinquency

Comparison of black tsotsi gangs with gangs in America reveals such an obvious resemblance that there is every probability of direct initiation by the blacks, based on what they read, see at the cinema or on television. The names of gangs and gang members, the nature of gang activities, the methods and techniques followed, are all often based on the model provided by the mass media. Note however, that initiation is not possible unless the nature of the community permits it (Cronje *et al.*, 1982:264). This section of the study focuses on language group differences in peer group influence on delinquency.

Table 5.9 Language group differences and peer group influence on delinquency

(N = 541)

Peer group influence (abridged)	Zulu N = 432		Tsonga N = 40		Sotho N = 19		Swazi N = 33		Venda N = 14		Other N = 3		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Peer group influence on delinquency	4,25	0,97	4,50	0,64	4,31	0,89	4,03	0,95	4,50	0,51	5,00	0,00	1,52
Group related crimes	4,25	0,99	4,38	0,74	4,31	1,06	3,94	1,00	4,21	0,67	3,33	1,53	1,35
Unisex influence	4,28	0,87	4,33	0,70	4,21	1,03	4,03	0,92	4,21	0,90	4,33	0,58	0,58
Peer group mechanisms	4,28	0,82	4,15	0,83	4,21	0,85	3,94	0,97	4,50	4,14	4,00	1,00	1,47
Peer group opposition	3,99	1,03	3,90	0,98	4,00	1,05	4,00	1,03	4,14	0,06	3,33	0,58	0,37
Peer group socialization	4,02	1,05	4,00	1,06	4,16	0,76	4,15	1,06	4,14	1,17	3,00	1,00	0,76

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.9 shows that there are no significant differences amongst language group in peer group influence on delinquency. All F-Values are not significant at 0,05 level.

5.2.10 Occupational differences in peer group influence on delinquency

In section 5.2.4 of this chapter it was shown that Reuterman (1978:43) found no significant differences between blue-collar and white-collar households with regard to leisure time influence on delinquency.

In the same investigation Reuterman (1978:43) also found no significant differences between blue-collar and white-collar households with regard to peer group influence on delinquency. This section focuses on occupational differences in peer group influence on delinquency.

Table 5.10 Occupation differences on peer group influence on delinquency

(N = 541)

Peer group Influence (abridged)	Employee N = 28		Self- employed N = 45		Employee N = 244		Temporary unemployed N = 39		Student N = 153		Housewife N = 9		Pensioner N = 14		Disabled N = 9		F Value
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	
Peer group Influence	4,18	0,86	4,33	0,83	4,38	0,78	4,33	0,86	4,12	1,13	3,67	1,11	4,36	0,74	4,11	1,36	1,76
Peer group related crime	4,07	0,98	4,29	0,84	4,30	0,96	4,10	1,11	4,32	0,95	2,89	0,93	4,07	0,73	3,56	0,88	3,87*
Unisex Influence	4,29	0,72	4,18	0,86	4,27	0,80	4,10	1,07	4,40	0,92	3,78	0,83	4,14	0,77	3,56	0,88	2,13*
Peer group mechanisims	4,14	0,60	4,20	0,92	4,22	0,80	4,15	0,90	4,40	0,84	4,00	0,71	4,21	0,89	3,67	1,11	1,65
Peer group opposition	3,96	1,10	4,15	0,93	3,98	0,92	3,97	0,97	3,99	1,17	4,00	1,00	4,14	0,77	2,88	1,16	1,75
Peer group socialization	4,07	0,66	4,22	0,95	4,05	0,96	4,28	1,00	3,88	1,27	3,89	0,78	4,36	0,84	3,67	0,87	1,38

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.10 shows that, with the exception of peer group-related crime and unisex influence (F-Values = 3,87 and 2,13 respectively) no significant differences amongst occupational categories in peer group influence on delinquency. The rest of the items indicate non-significant F-Values.

5.2.11 Relationship between age group and peer group influence on delinquency

In section 5.2.5 of this chapter it was shown that Reuterma (1978:43) found no significant differences amongst age groups with regards to leisure time influence on delinquency.

In the same investigation Reuterma (1978:42) also found no significant differences amongst age groups with regards to peer group influence on delinquency. Focus of this chapter is on relationship between age group and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Table 5.11 Relationship between age and peer group influence on delinquency

Peer group influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Peer group influence on delinquency	-0,02860	0,0592
Group-related crime	0,01276	0,7671
Peer group unisex	-0,15057*	0,0004
Peer group mechanisms	-0,13616*	0,0015
Peer group opportunities	-0,07238	0,0926
Peer group socialization	-0,00013	0,9977

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.11 indicates that the relationship between age categories and attitudes towards peer group as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations (0,00013 to 0,15057). Further, in only two instances, namely, peer group influence and peer groups mechanisms do the rho reach a level of significance (0,15057 and 0,13616 respectively). It is also noted that some rho are negatively related. Notable of those that are negatively related include: peer group unisex, peer group mechanisms, peer group opportunities and peer group socialization. Their correlation coefficients are -0,15057; -0,13616; -0,07238 and -0,00013 respectively.

5.2.12 Relationship between educational qualifications and peer group influence on delinquency

It is also observed that no previous studies were carried out to establish relationship between educational qualifications in peer group influence on delinquency. This section of the study focuses on relationship between educational qualifications and peer group influence on delinquency.

Table 5.12 Relationship between educational qualifications and peer group influence on delinquency

Peer group influence (abridged)	Correlation Coefficient	
	(rho)	(prob.)
Peer group influence on delinquency	0,00368	0,0481
Group-related crime	0,03779	0,3803
Peer group unisex	-0,17811*	0,0001
Peer group mechanisms	-0,08145	0,0583
Peer group opportunities	-0,07161	0,0961
Peer group socialization	0,00286	0,9471

*p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.12 indicates that the relationship between educational categories and attitudes towards peer group as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations (0,00286 to -0,17811). Further in only one instance, namely, group-related crime do the rho reach a level of significance (-0,17811). It is also noted that some rho are negatively related. Notable of those that are negatively related include: peer group-related crime, peer group mechanisms and peer group opportunities. Their correlation coefficients are -0,17811; -0,08145 and -0,07161 respectively.

5.3 Summary

The chapter sought to establish possible relationship between leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency. This discussion contains questions which have a bearing on leisure time and peer groups and are as follows: community recreational facilities, non-involvement in organized recreation and non-participation in decision affecting recreational activities. Questions relating to peer group influence are: peer group influence on delinquency, group-related crime, peer group unisex, peer group mechanisms, peer group opportunities to crime and peer group socialization.

Reuterman (1978:40) compared male and female respondents and he found no significant gender differences in relation to lack of recreational opportunities on delinquency. Table 5.1 also reveals that there are no significant gender differences in attitudes towards leisure time influence on delinquency.

Furthermore, there are no significant marital status categories and language group influence on delinquency (cf. tables 5.2 and 5.3). However, table 5.4 reveals that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories in leisure time influence on delinquency. All F-Values are significant at 0,05 level (cf. table 5.4).

There is no significant relationship between age groups and educational qualifications of respondents with regard to leisure time influence on delinquency (cf. tables 5.5 and 5.6).

Reuterman (1978:40) found no significant differences amongst male and female respondents towards peer group influence on delinquency. Table 5.7 reveals that, with exception of peer group-related crime variable no significant differences can be found between male and female respondents in peer group influence on delinquency. There are no significant differences amongst language group in peer group influence on delinquency (cf. table 5.9). However, table 5.10 shows that, with exception of peer group-related crime and unisex influence no significant differences amongst occupational categories in peer group influence on delinquency.

Table 5.11 indicates that the relationship between age categories and attitudes towards peer group as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak. The relationship between educational qualifications and attitudes towards peer group as contributory to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlation (cf. table 5.12).

Findings and recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The augmented juvenile criminality has necessitated the study of this nature to be embarked upon in order to come out with certain recommendations. The increase in arrest statistics has led the general public to view juvenile criminality as a threat to the prevailing peace in the area. Factors viewed as aetiologies of juvenile crime relate to family, school, leisure time and peer group influence.

The research methods and techniques selected for the achievement of the aims and testing of hypotheses (paragraph 1.6.1 and 1.6.2 cf.) are presented in chapter one. A questionnaire as a means of data collection was used in this investigation. This technique was used to establish the views or attitudes of residents on what they regard as causes of juvenile crime in Emondlo.

To this end, 541 respondents from 4 sections were included in the investigation. For statistical analyses, the following statistical analyses were used, namely, Cronbach's Correlation Coefficient Alpha for individual item analysis, the F-test statistic is used to test for significant differences between independent and dependant variables and Spearman Rank-order Correlation Coefficient for relationship between various ordinal data.

In Chapter 2 an explanation of juvenile delinquency with special reference to family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency is presented. Family factors contributing to juvenile delinquency amongst others include: family as a socialization agency, family size, criminal behaviour by parents, family structure, family relationships and socio-economic status of the family. School factors attributed to juvenile delinquency amongst others include school failure in socialization of a child,

relevance of school curriculum, student control, student failure and relationship between pupil and the teacher. The role of leisure time as a delinquency-producing institution is also explored. The influence of conventional peer group as a delinquency-producing institution is also dealt with. Socio-criminologically oriented theories appropriate to the explanation of delinquency in terms of these factors are also explored.

Statistical analyses of data are presented in chapters 3, 4 and 5. Chapter 6 summarises discussion on hypotheses testing and findings. It also details the limitations and problems of this study and concludes with recommendations.

6.2 Limitations and problems encountered with the study

Research ethics is seen as the branch of philosophy that reflects on right or wrong behaviour in scientific research (Dooley, 1984:347). In the social sciences such reflection is based on the utilitarian doctrine as study and research in these disciplines are directed towards human behaviour. This doctrine is used to establish logical grounds for research in order to strike a balance between the costs involved in the research and benefits of the research for human behaviour (Dooley, 1984:347; Groenewald, 1989:98-100; Leedy, 1992:130). For ethical reasons it is necessary for a researcher to indicate the limitations and problems encountered during the course of the investigation. This enables subsequent researchers to be conversant with information regarding possible pitfalls, thereby becoming better equipped with ideas of how the same can be avoided. The limitations of this study include the following:

(a) Lack of literature

There is a dearth of literature with regards to public attitude to the aetiology of juvenile crime. Very little material is written on public attitudes or views to the causes of juvenile crime in South Africa. The researcher made use of overseas literature on public attitude to crime.

(b) Lack of financial resources

Lack of financial assistance for this vitally important research caused the researcher to encounter numerous financial problems. The researcher could not:

- adequately compensate fieldworkers who assisted in distribution and collection of data.
- attend numerous Crimsa seminars and other similar structures on public attitudes to the aetiology of juvenile crime that could have improved the quality of this report.

(c) Unavailability of householders and defectiveness of questionnaires

In chapter one, page 15, it is stated that 570 households were to be included in the study. However, in the course of investigation it became impossible to acquire the participation of all intended participants. Fieldworkers reveal that some householders were not available during the survey. When the researcher processed the data on the computer it transpired that 6 questionnaires were defective. Nonetheless, co-operation of fieldworkers, local social workers and police made this investigation a success.

6.3 Testing of Hypotheses

Six hypotheses were formulated for statistical testing. These hypotheses are based on gender, age, marital status, occupation, language group and educational qualifications of respondents. The inferential statistics is used to test the hypotheses. F-test statistics is used to test for significant differences between independent and dependent variables (cf. paragraph 1.6.5 (A)). For

relationship between various ordinal data Spearman Rank-order Correlation Coefficient (Rho) is used (cf. paragraph 1.6.5 (B)).

Hypothesis 1: "There are significant differences between male and female respondents in their attitudes towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is not substantially confirmed.

Table 3.1 and 5.1 show no significant differences between male and female respondents in their attitudes towards the role of the family and leisure time activities on delinquency. Tables 4.1 and 5.7 however, reveal that there are some significant differences between male and female respondents in their attitudes towards the role of the school and of peer groups on delinquency.

In table 4.2 significant differences could only be found with two items: poor school performance (5,05) and pupil-teacher relationship (4,10). In table 5.7 significant differences could only be found with item: peer group unisex (5,80).

Hypothesis 2: "Age of respondents is related to attitudes towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is partially accepted.

Tables 3.5; 4.5 and 5.11 show some significant relationship amongst age groups of respondents in their attitudes towards the role of the family, school and peer group influence on delinquency. Table 5.5 however, reveals no significant relationship amongst age groups and leisure time influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 3: "There are significant differences amongst language groups towards the role of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is not substantially confirmed.

Tables 5.3 and 5.9 show no significant differences amongst language group in leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency. Tables 3.3 and 4.3 however, reveal some significant differences amongst language groups in relation to attitudes towards family and school influence on delinquency.

In table 3.3 significant differences could be established with items: both parents criminals, stepfather and mother absence (F-Values: 3,63; 4,20 and 2,56 respectively). In table 4.3 significant differences could be found with items: poor school performance, pupil-teacher relationship and teacher failure to teach (F-Values: 3,01; 3,07 and 4,48 respectively).

Hypothesis 4: "Educational qualifications of respondents are related to attitudes towards the influence of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is partially supported.

Tables 3.6 and 5.6 reveal no significant relationship amongst educational qualifications of respondents towards family and leisure time influence on delinquency. Tables 4.6 and 5.12 show some significant relationship amongst educational qualification of respondents towards school and peer groups influence on delinquency.

Items in table 4.6 which could be found to be significantly related are: truancy and teacher lax discipline (0,15989 and 0,15148 respectively). In table 5.12 item found to be significantly related is: peer group unisex (-0,17811).

Hypothesis 5: "There are significant differences amongst marital status categories towards the influence of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is partially supported.

Tables 3.2 and 4.2 reveal some significant differences in relation to their attitudes towards family and school influence on delinquency. Table 5.8 however, shows no significant differences amongst respondents towards leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency.

Hypothesis 6: "There are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards the influence of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer group influence on delinquency." This hypothesis is supported.

Tables 3.4; 4.4; 5.4 and 5.10 show some significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards the influence of the family, school, leisure time activities and peer groups influence on delinquency.

6.4 Most important findings of the study

There are numerous findings discovered by this investigation regarding the attitudes of the respondents, towards family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency. Responses are analyzed in terms of gender, marital status, language group occupation, age and educational qualifications of the respondents.

6.4.1 Gender differences

This study engendered an important finding regarding gender differences of respondents towards family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

(a) Gender differences and attitudes towards the family

Table 3.1 reveals that there are no significant gender differences in attitudes of residents of Emondlo with regards to family influence on delinquency. These findings, therefore, mean that gender does not influence attitudes of respondents towards family on delinquency.

These findings are in harmony with findings by Banks *et al.* (1975:228-240) in that no remarkable gender differences to the aetiology of juvenile crime could be found amongst residents in Emondlo. These findings are also in support of Reuterman's findings in relation to the following family factors: lack of parental discipline, lack of parental control and social and cultural influences (Reuterman, 1978:40). These findings, however, contradict findings by Reuterman (1978:40) who also found significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to lack of parental supervision and miscellaneous house and family influence.

(b) Gender differences and school

Statistical results in table 4.1 reveal that, with exception of poor school performance and teacher-pupil relationship (F-Values = 5,05 and 4,10 respectively), there are no significant differences in the opinion about school influence on delinquency. Therefore, gender has a significant difference towards attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.

These findings, therefore, support Furnham and Henderson (1983:115) who showed that females differed from males in their explanations of the school as an aetiology of juvenile crime.

(c) Gender differences and leisure time

Table 5.1 reveals that there are no significant gender differences in attitudes of respondents towards leisure time influence on delinquency. These findings, therefore, mean that gender has no significant difference towards attitude of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.

These findings are in harmony with findings by Banks *et al.* (1975:228) and Reuterman (1978:40) who established that there are no gender differences to the aetiology of juvenile crime. Their studies are based on lack of recreational facilities variable.

(d) Gender differences and peer group influence.

Table 5.7 reveals that, with the exception of peer group unisex variable (F-Value = 5,80) no significant differences can be found between male and female respondents in peer group influence on delinquency. Such findings denote that gender has no significant difference towards the attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.

Thus findings in table 5.7 contradict what was found by Reuterman (1978:40) where he showed that there are no significant differences between male and female respondents with regards to peer group influence on delinquency.

6.4.2 Marital status differences

This section focuses on marital status differences in family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

(a) Marital status differences and family influence

Statistical results in table 3.2 reveal that, with exception of father criminal, both parents criminals, stepfather and mother absence (F-Values = 2,41; 5,68; 5,39 and 2,72 respectively) no significant differences amongst marital status categories of respondents in family influence on delinquency.

These findings mean that marital status categories have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in family influence on delinquency. Glanz (1989:7-8) found that marital status proved to be a significant factor with respondents who were married being more concerned about crime.

(b) Marital status differences and school influence

Table 4.2 shows that, with exception of poor school performance, corporal punishment at school and teacher failure to teach (F-Values = 4,94; 3,35 and 3,43 respectively) there are no significant differences amongst respondents towards the influence of the school on delinquency.

These findings, therefore, denote that marital status categories have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.

(c) Marital status and leisure time influence

Statistical results in table 5.2 show that there are no significant differences amongst marital status categories in leisure time influence on delinquency. These findings, therefore, denote that marital status categories have no significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.

(d) Marital status and peer group influence

Table 5.8 shows that, with exception of peer group-related crime and peer group unisex variables (F-Values = 6,48 and 3,33 respectively), no significant differences can be found amongst marital status categories in peer group influence on delinquency.

These findings, therefore, show that marital status categories have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in peer group influence on delinquency.

6.4.3 Language group differences

Language group differences in family, school, leisure time activity and peer group influence on delinquency are dealt with in this section.

(a) Language group and family influence

Table 3.3 reveals that, with the exception of both parents criminals, stepfather and family conflict variables, no significant differences can be found amongst language groups in family influence on delinquency.

Thus, these findings show that language groups have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in family influence on delinquency.

(b) Language group and school influence

Statistical results in table 4.3 reveal that with exception of poor school performance, pupil-teacher relationship and teacher failure to teach (F-Values = 3,01; 3,07 and 4,48 respectively) no significant differences can be found amongst different language groups in their opinion on delinquency.

Thus, these findings show that language groups have significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in school influence on delinquency.

(c) Language group and leisure time influence

Table 5.3 reveals that there are no significant differences amongst language groups in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Thus, these findings show that language groups have no significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in leisure time influence on delinquency.

(d) Language group and peer group influence

Statistical results in table 5.9 show that there are no significant differences amongst language groups in peer group influence on delinquency.

Therefore, these findings show that language groups have no significant differences towards the attitudes of respondents in peer groups influence on delinquency.

6.4.4 Occupational differences

This section deals with occupational differences of respondents towards family, school, leisure time and peer groups influence on delinquency.

(a) Occupation and family influence

Table 3.4 reveals that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards the influence of family on delinquency. The F-Values that are not significant relate to stepfather and mother absence.

These findings, therefore, show that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories of the respondents towards family influence on delinquency.

(b) Occupation and school influence

Statistical results in table 4.4 indicate that significant differences amongst different occupational categories could be found with items: truancy, teacher failure to identify and teacher lax discipline. (F-Values = 3,52; 2,40; 2,41 and 4,10 respectively).

These findings, therefore, denote that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories towards school influence on delinquency.

(c) Occupation and leisure time influence

Table 5.4 reveals that there are significant differences amongst occupational categories in leisure time influence on delinquency.

Therefore, there are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards leisure time influence on delinquency.

(d) Occupation and peer group influence

Table 5.10 shows that, with the exception of peer group-related crime and unisex influence (F-Values = 3,89 and 2,13 respectively), no significant differences amongst occupational categories in peer group influence on delinquency.

Therefore, there are significant differences amongst occupational categories of respondents towards peer group influence on delinquency.

6.4.5 Age group relationship

This section deals with age group relationships towards family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

(a) Age group and family influence on delinquency

Table 3.5 indicates that relationship between age groups and attitudes of respondents range from weak to weak (0,00211 to 0,18252).

These findings, therefore, show that age group is related to the attitude of respondents towards family influence on delinquency. This study supports Reuterman (1978:41) who found that age of respondents is related to family influence on delinquency.

(b) Age group and school influence on delinquency

Table 4.5 indicates that the relationship between age categories and attitudes towards school as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlation (0,04 to 0,17).

Therefore, these findings mean that age group is related to the attitude of respondents towards school influence on delinquency.

(c) Age group and leisure time influence on delinquency

Table 5.5 shows that age groups are not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency.

Thus these findings show that age group is not related significantly to leisure time influence on delinquency. This study supports Reuterman (1978:42-43) who found that age groups have no significant relation to lack of recreational facilities.

(d) Age group and peer group influence on delinquency

Statistical results in table 5.11 indicate that the relationship between age categories and attitudes towards peer group as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations 0,00013 to 0,15057).

Therefore, these findings show that age groups are significantly related to peer group influence on delinquency. These findings contradict Reuterman's (1978:40) findings who found no association amongst age groups towards peer group influence.

6.4.6 Relationship between educational qualifications and delinquency

This section focuses on relationship of educational qualifications of respondents towards family, school, leisure time and peer group influence on delinquency.

(a) Educational qualifications and family influence on delinquency

Statistical results in table 3.6 reveal very weak relationships between educational qualifications of respondents and their attitudes towards family influence on delinquency (0,00461 to 0,7812) none of rho reach the 0,05 level of significance.

These findings, therefore, show that educational qualifications towards the attitudes of respondents are not significantly related to family influence on delinquency.

(b) Educational qualifications and school influence on delinquency

Statistics in table 4.6 indicate that the relationships range very weak to weak correlation coefficients. Further, in only two instances, namely, truancy and teacher lax discipline do the rho reach a level of significance.

This study, therefore, shows that educational qualifications towards the attitudes of respondents are significantly related to school influence on delinquency.

(c) Educational qualifications and leisure influence on delinquency

Table 5.6 shows that educational qualifications are not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency.

Therefore, these findings show that educational qualifications towards attitudes of respondents are not significantly related to leisure time influence on delinquency.

(d) Educational qualifications and peer group influence on delinquency

Table 5.12 indicates that the relationship between educational categories and attitudes towards peer group as a contributory factor to delinquency ranges between very weak to weak correlations (0,00286 to -0,17811).

These findings, therefore, show that educational qualifications towards attitudes of respondents are significantly related to peer group influence on delinquency.

6.5 Recommendations

There are systematic variations amongst various respondents regarding views of causation. The public generally seems to regard delinquency as emanating from multiplicity of causes. This means that programmes which emphasize only one aspect of the problem are unlikely to gain much support in any segment of the public. However, the following recommendations which relate to family, school, leisure time and peer group are made.

(a) The role of the family in crime prevention

In the past, theories on family's share in causing or preventing crime were based on assumption that there is a fundamental dichotomous difference between whole and broken homes, stable, divorced families, one parent and two parent families and families with and without juvenile delinquents. The assumption that these dichotomous contain one or more mutually exclusive factors is implausible. The quality of the family is a better criterion for determining its share in causing or preventing crime (Mushin, 1977:404-405).

This section deals specifically with the role of the family in preventing juvenile crime. Focus is on the way in which the family as a system positively prevent juvenile crime. Studies (Terblanche, 1985:56; Graham, 1989:19; Naude & Stevens, 1988:61) show that the home can influence the child for good and prevent the development of criminal tendencies if the following conditions prevail within family context.

- the child is helped in his development without having too much or too little done for him.
- the child is loved and knows that his parents want him.
- the child is part of the family, has fun with the family and really feels that he belongs to it.
- the child's faults are understood as a normal part of growing up and he is put right without being hurt, put to shame or confused.
- the child makes plans together with the family and helps them so that he feels that he is needed during his childhood.
- the child is at liberty to say what he feels and to talk of things without being ashamed or afraid.
- the members of the family stand together and help each other.
- the child is moderately and consistently disciplined from babyhood, there are limits set to his behaviour and he is helped to accept increasing responsibility.
- parental control over activities of their children.

- parental interest and involvement in activities of their children.
- guidance by parents regarding their role in respect of leadership, discipline and maintenance of authority.
- emotional problems in parent-child relationships are addressed.
- marriage advice and counselling on bad effect of large family size.

parental training programs which emphasize the need to respond effectively and constructively to antisocial and disruptive behaviour. (Graham, 1989:19; Naude & Stevens, 1988:61; Terblanche, 1985:56).

(b) The role of the school in prevention of crime

The school is in a strategic position to prevent crime because of its outstanding opportunity to influence the attitudes and behaviour of the juvenile; and it has the support of public opinion, the law and most parents (Caldwell, 1965:703). Next to home, the school is probably the most important part in a child's environment. Children between the ages of six and sixteen years spend more hours a day in school than elsewhere.

Sociologists, psychologists and criminologists see the school as vitally important in programmes for the prevention of juvenile crime because it is in contact with children for such a long period that it can teach new attitudes and values to its pupils (Katkin, Hyman & Kramer, 1976:381). The following measures are recommended for the prevention of juvenile crime within school context.

- Schools should increase the educational success chances of all students to reduce the negative consequences of school failure.

- Schools should develop means for generating and sustaining the commitment of youth to the educational system through increased opportunities for active involvement in classroom and extra curricular activities.
- Schools should make curriculum more relevant to the occupational market, particularly for the students who are not college bound.
- Schools should develop means for recommitting and reintegrating students who are failing academically and misbehaving in school and society.
- Schools should work at bringing about closer co-operation and co-ordination with parents and families (Lawrence, 1985:90; Amos & Wellford, 1967:148).

(c) The role of leisure time in crime prevention

Organized recreation may cultivate in the child skills such as athletics, arts and other ways of using leisure. It can, therefore, play an important part in juvenile crime prevention. Advocates of organized recreation as a means of preventing juvenile crime argue that juveniles participating in healthy recreational activities will not have time to commit crimes and will canalize their energy and interest into socially acceptable activities (Naude & Stevens, 1988:69-70).

The following measures are recommended for use of leisure time in crime prevention.

- Parents should be encouraged to participate in leisure time activities with their children.

- Recreation programmes should assume responsibility for all youth in the community, emphasizing outreach services involving recreation workers in order to recruit youth who might otherwise not be reached and for whom recreation may provide a deterrent for delinquency.
- Decision-making, planning and organization for recreation services should be shared with those for whom the programmes are intended.
- Individual needs rather than mass group programmes should be considered in recreation planning.
- Continual evaluation to determine whether youth are being diverted from delinquent acts should be part of all recreational programmes (Naude & Stevens, 1988:70).
- Creation of more recreational facilities in Emondlo Township and counselling services should be made available either as part of the recreation programme or on referral basis to agencies in the community.

(d) The role of peer groups in crime prevention

During adolescence the peer group begins to exert a marked influence on juvenile behaviour. Although this influence and that of friends are more important than that of parents, the parents importance decreases for juveniles as the process of individualization and strengthening of own value systems set in (Newman & Newman, 1979:246).

The conventional peer group can play an important role in the prevention of juvenile crime if it strengthens the positive characteristics of juvenile personality, e.g. enhancing the feeling of self-value and autonomy and by helping to build a positive self-image. This also prevents loneliness in the adolescent and gives him a feeling of belonging somewhere. If there is

conflict at home, the juvenile can find comfort and security in peer group (Newman & Newman, 1979:242).

The following measures are recommended:

- befriend the youngsters on the street.
- divert their energies into lawful activities.
- generate in the youngsters a respect for law.
- expansion of youth association programmes to anticipate the needs of juvenile offenders (Naude & Stevens, 1988:72).

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Annexure A

QUESTIONNAIRE

DEAR RESPONDENT

PLEASE NOTE THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS

- THIS QUESTIONNAIRE REQUIRES ONLY A FEW MINUTES OF YOUR VALUABLE TIME. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.
- YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS MUST NOT BE REFLECTED ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.
- ALL INFORMATION IS STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES BE DISCLOSED TO ANYBODY.
- PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS AS THEY APPLY TO YOU PERSONALLY BY MARKING A CROSS (X) IN AN APPROPRIATE OPEN SQUARE.
- AFTER COMPLETION, PLEASE HAND OVER THIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE PERSON ASSISTING YOU WITH ITS COMPLETION.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

Questionnaire No:

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SECTION A:**PERSONAL PARTICULARS****Q.1 WHAT IS YOUR SEX?**

MALE	1	
FEMALE	2	

Q.2 TO WHICH AGE CATEGORY BELOW, DO YOU BELONG?

18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	54-64	65 +	
1	2	3	4	5	6	

Q.3 YOUR HOME LANGUAGE?

ZULU	1	
TSONGA	2	
SOTHO	3	
SWAZI	4	
VENDA	5	
OTHER	6	

Q.4 YOUR HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS?

STANDARD 6	1	
STANDARD 7	2	
STANDARD 8	3	
STANDARD 9	4	
STANDARD 10	5	
DIPLOMA	6	
DEGREE	7	

Q.5 WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

MARRIED	1	
DIVORCED	2	
LIVING TOGETHER	3	
WIDOW/WIDOWER	4	
SINGLE	5	

Q.6 OCCUPATION

ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE	EMPLOYER (OTHERS WORK FOR YOU)	1	
	SELF-EMPLOYED (YOU WORK FOR YOURSELF)	2	
	EMPLOYEE (YOU WORK FOR OTHERS)	3	
	TEMPORARILY UNEMPLOYED (SEEK WORK)	4	
NON-ECONOMICALLY ACTIVE	STUDENT	5	
	HOUSEWIFE	6	
	PENSIONER	7	
	DISABLED (UNABLE TO WORK)	8	

A. THE ROLE OF THE FAMILY

1. Do you think that criminal behaviour by a father in a family contributes to juvenile crime amongst his children?

It definitely contributes to juvenile crime	1	
It contributes to juvenile crime	2	
It contributes to juvenile crime to a lesser extent	3	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime	4	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime at all	5	

2. Do you think that a child who is raised by a stepmother easily turns into delinquent behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

3. Do you think that a family where both parents are criminals could promote juvenile crime amongst its children?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

4. Do you think that a family which is characterised by the prolonged absence of a father contributes to juvenile crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

5. Do you think that criminal behaviour by a mother in a family contributes to juvenile crime amongst her children?

It definitely contributes to juvenile crime	5	
It contributes to juvenile crime	4	
It contributes to juvenile crime to a lesser extent	3	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime	2	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime at all	1	

6. Do you think that a child grown up in a large family easily turns into criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

7. Do you think that a child raised by a stepmother easily turns into delinquent behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

8. Do you think that a family which is characterised by the prolonged absence of a mother could easily predispose a child into delinquent behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

9. Do you think that a family which is characterised by conflict could predispose a child into delinquent behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

B. THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL

10. Do you think that poor school performance by a juvenile is a predictor of subsequent criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

11. Do you think that juveniles who are exposed to corporal punishment at school could easily turn into misconduct?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

12. Do you think that a juvenile who is a truant could easily be exposed to criminal activities when he had truanted school?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

13. Do you think that poor relationship between a teacher and a juvenile could cause a juvenile to resort to criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

14. Do you think that failure of a teacher to teach juveniles to get along with their fellow juveniles contributes to their criminal behaviour?

It definitely contributes to juvenile crime	5	
It contributes to juvenile crime	4	
It contributes to juvenile crime to a lesser extent	3	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime	2	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime at all	1	

15. Do you think that failure of a child to identify problem juvenile in a classroom could predispose the juvenile into crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

16. Do you think that failure of a school to organise curricula to meet needs of a variety of juveniles could predispose the juvenile into criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

17. Do you think that juveniles who are regarded by teachers as delinquent in the classroom do conform to that expectation?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

18. Do you think that lax discipline by teachers promotes juvenile crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

C. THE ROLE OF LEISURE TIME

19. Do you think that failure of the community to render different recreational facilities could predispose juveniles into crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

20. Do you think that lack of recreation facilities in Emondlo encourages juvenile crime?

It definitely contributes to juvenile crime	5	
It contributes to juvenile crime	4	
It contributes to juvenile crime to a lesser extent	3	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime	2	
It does not contribute to juvenile crime at all	1	

21. Do you think that non-involvement of juveniles in organised recreational facilities encourages juvenile crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

22. Do you think that non-participation of juveniles in decisions which have an impact on their recreational activities encourages juvenile crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

D. THE INFLUENCE OF PEER GROUPS

23. Do you think that peer group influences could easily predispose juveniles in criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

24. Do you think that most group-related crimes are committed by juveniles in Emondlo?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

25. Do you think that peer groups of the same sex influence juveniles into criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

26. Do you think that peer group acquaints its members with mechanisms to commit criminal behaviour?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

27. Do you think that peer groups opposition promotes juvenile crime in Emondlo?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

28. Do you think that peer groups socialization promotes juvenile crime?

undoubtedly	5	
to a large extent	4	
undecided	3	
to a lesser extent	2	
not at all	1	

Annexure B

South African Police Service



Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens

Private Bag X5511
Privaatsak

Fax No (034) 2710177
Faks Nr

Your ref/U verw :

THE STATION COMMISSIONER
DIE STASIEKOMMISSARIS
NQUTU
3135

My ref/My verw :

Enq/Navr : Snr Suot Dubazane

Tel : (034)2711913

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR MASTERS DESSERTATION : M.D
BUTHELEZI (CAPTAIN)

1. The above officer was granted permission to conduct a research at Mondlo PoliceStation using Police documents.
2. The research was conducted in the presence of our police officers.

.....SNR SUPT
B H DUBAZANE