

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AMONG
SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN
WITH REFERENCE TO THE
INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY: A
SOCIO-CRIMINOLOGICAL STUDY

By

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CRIMINOLOGICAL STUDY”

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

- my late parents Josiah Bodwa and Mary-Jane Phumzile (MaMadlala) whose love for education laid the foundation of my academic interest;
- my dear wife Phindi (MaHlongwane) whose patience and encouragement has always been a source of inspiration;
- my loving children Lwandle, Nkanyezi, Nyanga, Phakade and Phesheya; and
- all my brothers and sisters who have always supported me in my academic endeavours.

To all of them, I say: Ngiyabonga MaMbuyisa!

DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis "Juvenile delinquency among secondary school children with reference to the influence of the family: A socio-criminological study" is my own work both in conception and in execution. All the sources that I have made use of or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references.

L.P. MQADI

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SUMMARY

The study aims at studying and analyzing juvenile delinquency among secondary school children in Kwa-Zulu and the influence of the family thereupon. Through the use of a self-report survey the study seeks to establish the following -

- * sex and age differences with regard to juvenile delinquency;
- * family influence on juvenile delinquency by analyzing differences in family structure, family size and family economics;
- * the relationship between age, family controls and self-reported delinquency; and
- * nature and extent of juvenile delinquency through self-report data thereby bridging the gap between what is officially known and otherwise hidden forms of delinquency.

Research techniques employed in the study include the following:-

- * Literature study through which approaches to juvenile delinquency by other researchers were reviewed.
- * A self administered questionnaire consisting of personal particulars, family data and a delinquency check-list.
- * Sampling techniques through which three secondary schools and 560 respondents were selected.

- * Statistical techniques to test reliability of the measurement instrument and thirteen formulated hypothesis.

The findings of the study indicate the following:-

- (a) Significant differences between male and female respondents with reference to self-reported delinquency.
- (b) Insignificant differences among age-group categories and delinquency; but positive relationship between age and juvenile delinquency.
- (c) Insignificant differences between family structure, family size, parental economic activities and juvenile delinquency.
- (d) Significant differences in the application of family controls in respect of male and female respondents and those from intact and broken families. This is, however, not the case with age-groups, family sizes and mother's economic activity.
- (e) The hypothesis relating to the relationship between family control and delinquency, in respect of family religiousness and parental discipline is supported. However a partial support with regard to parental supervision and affection is observed.

The following recommendations are put forward:-

- (a) The family as a primary socialization unit be empowered by removing all factors that may contribute to family tensions, for example, unemployment and other related social pathologies.

- (b) The school is a secondary socialization agent, be revitalized. This can be achieved by means of upgrading the curricula and encouragement of close cooperation between the parents and the teachers.

- (c) The church and recreational facilities be used to improve the welfare of Black families by linking leisure activities to the youths' interests.

The study succeeds in revealing the existence of "hidden" delinquency among Black secondary school children and important relationships between family and juvenile delinquency.

OPSOMMING

Die oogmerk van hierdie studie sentreer rondom die bestudering en ontleding van jeugmisdaad en die invloed van die gesin daarop by leerlinge van sekondêre hoërskole in KwaZulu. Deur middel van 'n self-rapporteringsvraelys, word daar gepoog om die volgende te bepaal -

- * geslags- en ouderdomsverskille betreffende jeugmisdaad;
- * die gesin se invloed op jeugmisdaad deur die verskille in gesinstruktuur, grootte van die gesin en gesinswerkvaart te ontleed;
- * die verhouding tussen ouderdom, gesinskontrole en self-gerapporteerde jeugmisdaad; en
- * die aard en omvang van jeugmisdaad deur middel van self-gerapporteerde data om sodoende die gaping tussen jeugmisdaad wat amptelik bekend is en die wat nie aangemeld word nie, te oorbrug.

Navorsingstegnieke wat gedurende hierdie ondersoek aangewend is, sluit onder meer die volgende in:-

- (a) 'n Literatuurstudie waardeur die benaderings van vorige navorsers betreffende jeugmisdaad onder die loep geneem is.
- (b) 'n Self-geadministreerde vraelys wat inligting oor persoonlike besonderhede, gesinsdata en 'n jeugmisdaadindeks bevat.
- (c) Steekproeftegnieke waarmee 560 respondente in drie sekondêre skole geselekteer is.

- (d) Statistiese tegnieke vir die toets van betroubaarheid van die meetinstrument en dertien geformuleerde hipoteses.

Die bevindings van die ondersoek ontbloom onder andere:

- (a) Beduidende waarneembare verskille tussen manlike en vroulike respondente betreffende self-gerapporteerde jeugmisdaad.
- (b) Onbeduidende verskille tussen die onderskeie ouderdomsgroepe in verhouding tot jeugmisdaad, maar wel betekenisvolle verbande tussen ouderdom en jeugmisdaad.
- (c) Onbeduidende verskille tussen gesinstrukture, grootte van die gesin, ekonomiese aktiwiteite van ouers en jeugmisdaad.
- (d) Beduidende waarneembare verskille in die toepassing van gesinskontrolle en gebroke gesinne. Dit is egter nie die geval ten opsigte van ouderdomsgroepe, grootte van die gesin en die moeder se ekonomiese bedrywigheid nie.
- (e) Die hipotese betreffende die verband tussen gesinskontrolle en jeugmisdaad, insoverre dit gesinsoordienstigheids- en ouerlike dissipline aanbetref word ondersteun. Gesinstoesig en affeksie word egter slegs gedeeltelik ondersteun.

Die volgende aanbevelings word gemaak:-

- (a) Die gesin as 'n primêre sosialiseringsagent moet in die geleentheid gestel word om alle faktore wat tot gesinsspanning bydra, uit te skakel soos onder andere, werkloosheid en verwante sosiale patologieë.

- (b) Die skool as sekondere sosialiseringagent moet 'n vernuwing ondergaan. Dit kan verweselik word deur die opgradering van kurrikula en verhoogde samewerking tussen ouers en die skool.

- (e) Die kerk, en in die besonder die besteding van vryetyd, behoort daadkragtig ingespan te word om die welgevalle van swart gesinne te verbeter deur vryetyd-aktiwiteite en die belangstellingsterreine van jeugdiges te versoen .

Die studie slaag daarin om 'versteekte' jeugmisdaad by swart leerlinge in sekondere hoërskole en verbande tussen gesinsveranderlikes bloot te lê.

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The problem of juvenile delinquency can be understood in relation to the discovery or realization of childhood as a separate stage of life and to the idea that misbehaviour of juveniles is distinct from adult crime. As a concept, juvenile delinquency suggests a distinct way of assessing, analyzing and classification of juvenile offenders; and even the treatment of youthful misbehaviour (Thornton, Voigt & Doerner, 1987:4).

Juvenile delinquency is a world-wide problem. Its occurrence in every country, state and city is phenomenal; and in spite of frequent news-media accounts of juvenile crime and efforts to curb it, it continues to increase.

Research has shown that most offenders in our criminal population are relatively young and that adult criminals begin their criminal careers at a relatively young age. Further, most unreported delinquent acts occur during schoolgoing age than when juveniles have left school (Elliot & Voss, 1974:124).

Socio-criminologists thus have an important task, not only of analyzing juvenile delinquency as a concept, but also of establishing causal factors with the aim of prescribing effective measures of control. Any socio-criminological study of juvenile delinquency has, therefore, to address the following issues:

Firstly, a socio-criminological study must understand the nature of juvenile delinquency in terms of actions that can be regarded "delinquent" as distinct from antisocial actions committed by adult persons in general. The problem is compounded by the fact that legal systems differ in qualifications of certain acts as criminal or delinquent. Further, there is no uniformity among states with regard to age limits of persons that can be regarded as juveniles (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979:3-4).

Secondly, measurement of juvenile delinquency through different sources of information have led to confusing and varying outcomes. The official records as a source of data fail to assess accurately the extent of delinquency and the issue of "hidden" delinquency remains unsolved. Victim surveys, while supplementing official statistics in respect of victims, fail to provide a complete image of offenders and disclose little of property offenders, whom the victims may not know. Self-report surveys, although solving the problem of "hidden" delinquency, are fraught with methodological errors and shortcomings such as sampling errors and defective measurement instruments (Gibbons, 1981:37; Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:19-20).

Thirdly, a socio-criminological study must reconcile the public's perceptions of juvenile delinquency with the opinions of academics and other experts. According to Hollin and Howell (1987:203-210), views about delinquency and related issues extend beyond expert opinions to perceptions of lay persons. The public would, for example, view crime as a product of lax control measures of dealing with the youth and civilization that has undermined traditional values of society.

Such views cannot be ignored since they have important implications for policy-making and crime control in general (Glanz, 1990a:243).

Lastly, the problem of establishing valid theoretical explanation of juvenile delinquency remains crucial. Three major sets of theories have evolved over the century, namely biological, psychological and sociological. Socio-criminology, in addition to sociologically orientated theories, views group factors such as the family, the school and the peer-group as important. Further, sex and age factors have all been viewed important in the understanding of juvenile delinquency (Reid, 1982:83-187; Thornton, et al., 1987:4). In spite of research work that has been done with regard to these theoretical explanations, perfection has not been realized.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned dilemmas of socio-criminological studies, the family remains one of the most important social dimensions of understanding juvenile delinquency. As a primary socialization agency, the family must offer emotional support and material benefits to its members. To achieve this function its homoeostatic mechanisms within its structure must function well. This means that the family as a social unit, reflected by economic, religious structural and control aspects must enable its members to adjust to general challenges of life (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979:104).

The abnormalities found within the family have an effect on its members, especially the adolescents. Such abnormalities have a decisive consequence on their behaviour. Research studies on juvenile delinquency (Canter, 1982; Datesman & Scarpitti, 1975) have demonstrated that the family is crucial in determining delinquent behaviour among the youth. Aspects of

the family that are considered important and crucial in determining the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency are sex and age factors of juveniles; family structural predictors (family size; rearing agents; parental marital status) family economics; and family control mechanisms such as religiousness, supervision, discipline and parental affection and rejection.

The following studies serve to illustrate the most important aspects within the family that are crucial in juvenile delinquency.

1.1.1 Sex and delinquency

Canter (1982:149-166), using a sample of 1,725 adolescents age 11 to 17 years, sought to examine sex differences in family bonds as possible explanation of sex differences in self-reported delinquency. She hypothesized that girls would report significantly stronger family bonds and significantly lower delinquency than boys (Canter, 1982:149).

In creating the family bond measurement, Canter (1982) used social integration and personal commitment. To measure family structure, she classified families into intact and broken homes, (Canter, 1982:153-154). According to Canter's study males reported significantly greater involvement in all self-report delinquency scales. Secondly, with regard to sex differences in family correlates, she concluded that "... although family variables are correlated with delinquent behaviour, the explanation of sex differences depends on the existence of sex differences on family variables" (Canter, 1982:157). Finally, with regard to family structure, she found that boys from broken homes report significantly greater involvement in all types of delinquent behaviour except minor thefts and home delinquency (Canter, 1982:162).

Hill and Atkinson (1988) examined the sex differences in delinquent behaviour and Hagan's Power Control Theory (1985) was used as a framework of their study. Their sample comprised of 3110 responses obtained from Illinois youths aged 14 to 18 years. They used self-administered questionnaires that asked a broad range of questions dealing with family characteristics and delinquent involvement. Their findings were as follows:

- (a) Parental support is more important than maternal support for males in deterring delinquency;
- (b) Female's involvement in delinquency is related more strongly and negatively to maternal support than to parental support; and
- (c) Both males and females who report considerable father and mother support also report low involvement in delinquency (Hill & Atkinson, 1988:140-142).

1.1.2 Age and delinquency

Both official and empirical research support the view that delinquency involvement increases with age. Whilst some criminologists have argued against the use of age in studying delinquency and crime (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1983), many (Farrington, 1986; Greenberg, 1977) regard age as important in determining crime.

Haskell and Yablonsky (1974:63) and Jensen and Rojek (1980:102) found that:

- (a) delinquent behaviour tends to peak around the age of 16 to 17 years and then level off; and
- (b) the cultural roles that youths play at different ages influence the type of delinquent behaviour they exhibit. This suggests differential age group involvement in various types of delinquency.

Venter and Retief (1960) and Brown (1984), using official data, found that:

- (a) delinquency among black youths reach their peak at 18 years and at this age youths were more likely to be found guilty of property related offences; and
- (b) delinquent behaviour was evident between 16 and 17 years and crimes of violence increased with age (Glanz, 1990b:116).

The importance of age in delinquency has been highlighted through the individual needs of persons belonging to the adolescence stage. These needs include recognition and being valued; need for new experiences; and need to establish acquaintances and a philosophy of life. In this respect the influence of peers is important. Warr (1993:17-39) has examined the influence of peers with reference to the exposure to delinquent peers; amount of time spent with peers; importance of the juvenile's place on activities peers; and loyalty to peers.

1.1.3 Family economics and delinquency

For a long time official data has always pointed out that delinquency is prevalent among the lower classes and that the occupation or employment status of parents has much in common with juvenile delinquency. The occupation of the parents determines the socio-economic status of the family, thereby having an influence on the behaviour and values held by youths.

Nye, Short and Olson (1958) used a sample of boys and girls from western and mid-western high schools in the United States with a view of testing the null hypothesis, namely that there are no significant differences in delinquent behaviour of boys and girls from different socio-economic strata. They used a scale for measuring delinquency which included many types of juvenile misconduct though not including serious types of offences. The socio-economic measure was designed by using the occupation of the father. Ten types of occupations were grouped into four categories, namely unskilled and semi-skilled; skilled labour; white-collar; and professional categories (Nye et al., 1958:85).

Findings of their research were as follows:-

- (a) Heterosexual offences were committed most frequently by lower class boys.
- (b) Damaging or destroying property was committed mostly by upper-class boys and girls.
- (c) Driving a car without the owner's permission was committed mostly by lower-class boys.

- (d) Running away from home was typical of upper-class girls (Nye et al., 1958:85-86).

Glanz (1990) recently conducted a study on black juveniles from Kwa-Mashu and Umlazi Townships near Durban. This is probably the most recent and one of the first studies to be conducted in South Africa using the self-report survey technique.

With a sample of 484 boys and girls, she hypothesized that:-

- (a) There is a negative association between socio-economic status and delinquent behaviour.
- (b) Youths of low socio-economic status are involved in more serious delinquent acts than the remainder of the group.

Both hypotheses were untenable. With regard to the first hypothesis, none of the status categories produced significant regression coefficients. The conclusion drawn, is that although association between socio-economic status and delinquent behaviour is significant in the case of males, the direction of the finding is not in agreement with that of previous research studies, which has tended to show either no relation between status and delinquency or greater delinquency among lower status youths (Glanz, 1990b:131).

With reference to the second hypothesis, the multiple linear regression technique indicated that medium status male and female youths reported significantly more delinquency than the remainder of the group (Glanz, 1990b:131-132).

1.1.4 Family structure and delinquency

The aspects of the family structure that are important for the present study include the broken and incomplete home, the size of the family, and the rearing agent within the family. The issue of the family structure has received more attention from both official and self-reported investigations in South Africa and abroad than any other aspect. Without attention to the influence of the family structure the study would not be complete.

The Gluecks (1950) found that more than half of their sample of delinquents came from single parent families compared to 10% of their control group. McCord, McCord and Thurber (in Griffin & Griffin, 1978) contend that the incomplete family is only part of the problem and suggest unhappy but intact homes as equally important. Matsueda and Heimer (1987) found that for both blacks and whites, broken homes contribute to delinquency by way of an additive process whereby parental supervision is attenuated, leading to an increased likelihood of delinquent companions which fosters pro-delinquent definitions and subsequent delinquent behaviour (Glanz, 1990b:132-133).

With reference to family size, the opinion of researchers is that the amount of time available to parents to spend with a child may be affected by the family size. Once more, South African research is relevant in this aspect. Venter and Retief (1960:114) in their study of 200 delinquent and 200 non-delinquent youths found that family size bore no relation to delinquent behaviour.

1.1.5 Family religiousness

In criminological studies it is still not clear whether there is any relationship between religion and delinquency. In South Africa not much research has been done in this aspect. The present study however, views family religiousness as important in the understanding of the extent and nature of delinquency. It is an aspect through which the influence of the family can be measured because its influence has an effect on the moral development of adolescents.

The study conducted by Foster (1988:35-59) in South Africa is important in this context. Using a self-report survey technique, she studied the relationship between religiousness and delinquency among 606 standard 9 white pupils in Bloemfontein. The religiousness scale was divided into three sub-scales, namely actual participation in religious activities; the religious milieu; and attitudes towards religion. The delinquency scale included norm and regulation infringements, alcohol and drug abuse, violence, theft and general vandalism sub-scales (Foster, 1988:43).

Employing the Spearman Rank-Order correlation analysis (ρ), she arrived at the following findings:

- (a) With regard to the relationship between religious activities and delinquency, significant but negative correlations were found in respect of norm and regulation infringements, drug and alcohol abuse and violence.
- (b) Significant negative correlations were found between religious milieu and delinquency in respect of norm infringements, alcohol and drug-abuse and serious theft.

(c) Significant negative correlations were found between attitudes toward religion and delinquency in respect of norm infringements (Foster, 1988:48-50).

1.1.6 Parental affection and rejection

The importance of the family influence can further be explained through parental love and affection, and also by means of the methods parents employ in controlling their children. Rejected or neglected children do not experience love and affection, as well as support and supervision at home. Consequently they often resort to groups of deviant nature outside the family. Nye (1958:73) points out that the hostile and rejecting parent is usually not concerned with the youngster's emotional welfare or with provision of necessary support and guidance, for example, in the child education and recreational activities. Such parents become concerned with the child only after the latter is involved in difficulty which embarrasses them. It is only after the child has landed in trouble that parents show pseudo-concern (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:90).

An important study with regard to affection and rejection is that of Nye (1958) where he analyzed an "acceptance-rejection" matrix. Nye (1958:70) pointed out that social scientists have for a long time been concerned with the attitudes of parents towards the child. Yet, it has been noted that adolescents form attitudes towards parents which are not necessarily a reflection of parental attitudes towards them. With regard to the attitudes of adolescents - and of their parental rejection in particular - he pointed out that this results in the lack of internalization of mores. Further, adolescents who have indirect controls have a desire to please or show reluctance to disappoint parents and these are related to his acceptance or

rejection of parents. Nye (1958:71-72) concluded that: "The child possessing a strong affectional identification with the parent is extremely reluctant to injure the parent or the parent's image of himself. Conversely, the child who definitely rejects the parents may indulge in delinquent behaviour with deliberate intent to injure the parent".

1.1.7 Family discipline

Next to affection, rejection and family structure are methods of control or processes and forms of discipline that play part in preventing or development of delinquent behaviour. Much research has been done in respect of discipline by the parents over children, and a look at some would highlight its importance. McCord, McCord and Zola (1959:76) classified methods of discipline into six categories:

- (a) Love-orientated discipline in which reasoning is with the child and punishment involves withholding rewards and priviledges.
- (b) Punitive discipline in which physical violence is used.
- (c) Lax discipline in which neither parent exert control.
- (d) Erratic discipline in which one parent uses love-orientated methods and the other is lax or punitive.
- (e) Erratic discipline in which one parent is punitive and one is lax, or both parents vacillate between lax and punitive methods (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:93).

In their study McCord et al., (1959:76) found that lax or erratic discipline involving punitive methods was strongly related to delinquency whereas consistent discipline was significantly related to non-delinquency.

To sum up, the present study views the family influence as important in the nature and extent of delinquency. In this respect the sex and age factors; family structure; family economic activities; affection and rejection; family religiousness and methods of parental control, are important predictors of delinquency among secondary school adolescents.

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Although much has been done on delinquency, with regard to the influence of the family environment in the U.S.A. and Europe, little has been done in South Africa, especially with regard to juvenile delinquency among black children. Further, most delinquency studies in this country have relied on official data, consequently the results have not revealed the true nature and extent of "hidden" delinquency.

With the use of the self-report survey technique, the aims and objectives of the present study are as follows:

- (a) To study sex differences in self-reported delinquency among secondary school children.
- (b) To study the age differences and variations with age of self-reported delinquency.

- (c) To study the influence of the family structure, that is parental marital status and family size, and the effects of the employment status of parents in juvenile delinquency.
- (d) To establish the relationship between family control mechanisms to various forms of delinquent behaviour.
- (e) To establish the extent and nature of juvenile delinquency among secondary school children that does not lead to official action, thereby bridging the gap between what is officially known and "hidden" forms of delinquent behaviour.

1.3 RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The motivation for undertaking this study is based on the following:

- (a) In South Africa little research has been conducted on juvenile delinquency among secondary school adolescents and the tendency has been to rely on official records as a source of data. Whilst official measures are superior in determining the geographical distribution of delinquency; the self-report surveys are superior in measuring unreported delinquency (Glanz, 1990a:288-301; Foster, 1988:35-39). Measuring juvenile delinquency through a self-report instrument will thus contribute to literature on self-reported delinquency in South Africa and enhance the value of the present study.
- (b) Secondary schools present a readily available source of data from which respondents can be conveniently reached and proper sampling frames be constructed. Further,

school children are available during specific periods which makes them easily accessible for collection of required data.

1.4 APPROACH TO THE STUDY

Criminological research is fundamentally a rational activity from which scientific explanations that are obtained must make sense. An approach, therefore, in socio-criminology presupposes a given attitude to the field of study and implies a certain orientation toward a particular problem. The two logical systems that are important for social research are deductive and inductive reasoning (Van der Walt, Cronje & Smit, 1982:165; Babbie, 1990:11).

1.4.1 Deductive approach

The deductive-logic or reasoning moves from the general to the particular by applying a theory to a case. The deductive approach is an old system of reasoning but the rise of inductive reasoning contradicted the general postulates that represented the anchoring points of many deductive systems (Fitzgerald & Cox, 1987:9; Babbie, 1990:12).

1.4.2 Inductive approach

Whilst deduction means drawing inferences from the general, the induction reasoning moves from a number of particular and separate observations to a generalization, that is, moving from observed data and developing a generalization which explains the relationship between observations. Babbie (1990:3) however, observes that in practice scientific research involves both inductive and deductive reasoning since the scientist shifts endlessly back and forth between theory and observation.

Van der Walt et al, (1982:166) identify four levels of inductive reasoning which are applicable to criminological research.

(a) **Generalizing induction**

After all cases have been investigated a generalization is made. Generalizing induction is used to make the particular sample applicable to a general population.

(b) **Mathematical induction**

Mathematical induction involves making generalizations from the total population, that is, sampling is not done. Strictly speaking, mathematical induction does not fit, inductive reasoning.

(c) **Analogical induction**

Analogical induction is used to substantiate a theory.

(d) **Inductive empirical or hypothesis verifying induction**

The common characteristics of this form of induction is a hypothesis which assumes a form of theoretical proposition which, if confirmed by research, obtain the status of scientific premise or law (Van der Walt et al., 1982:166).

The present study assumes the empirical induction. From empirically sampled secondary schools and their student adolescents and hypotheses, generalizations are made in respect of the influence of the family on juvenile delinquency.

1.5 HYPOTHESES

Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:306) define a hypothesis as "... a statement about what effects or results certain causes or actions might produce". A hypothesis is a logical and empirical argument that a causal relationship exists between two variables. It demonstrates that changes in the values of one variable are caused, and therefore explained by changes in values of a second variable (Bailey, 1987:42).

Formulation of a testable hypothesis is necessary for criminological research without which research would become unfocussed. Hypotheses becomes necessary, especially for self-report survey, to enable directed analysis between the relationships of the family and juvenile delinquency.

The following are the hypotheses for the present study.

Hypothesis 1

There are significant differences between male and female's involvement in self-reported delinquency.

Hypothesis 2

Involvement in self-reported delinquent behaviour differs significantly among 13 - 15, 16 - 18, and 19 - 21 age groups.

Hypothesis 3

Involvement in self-reported delinquency increases with age.

Hypothesis 4

There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents from broken and those from intact families.

Hypothesis 5

There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from small, medium and large-sized families.

Hypothesis 6

There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive.

Hypothesis 7

There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive.

Hypothesis 8

There are significant differences in the application of family controls over male and female respondents.

Hypothesis 9

The application of family controls differs significantly among the 13 - 15, 16 - 18 and 19 - 21 age-groups.

Hypothesis 10

There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents from broken and intact families.

Hypothesis 11

Family controls are significantly and differentially applied by small, medium and large-sized families.

Hypothesis 12

There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive.

Hypothesis 13

There is a relationship between family controls and self-reported delinquency.

1.6 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Three considerations have to be made when undertaking criminological research, namely that the field of study of criminology includes aspects of crime (delinquency); the criminal, the victim and administration of justice; one or more of these aspects has to be dealt with; and that the field of research should be defined in terms of time and space (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:39).

Delimitation of a study can be done from the following standpoints:

- (a) Aims and interests of the researcher.
- (b) Amount of relevant available material.
- (c) Complexity of theoretical assumptions formulated regarding the study.
- d) Previous valid research in the field having direct bearing on the study under consideration (Young, 1966:119-120).

The delimitation of the present study is thus influenced by the interests with regard to the influence of the family on juvenile delinquency; the various theoretical assumptions regarding delinquency; previous research studies on the subject of juvenile delinquency and family; and availability of sources of data time and space. Consequently, three aspects of delimitation are being implemented, namely spatial, qualitative and quantitative delimitations.

1.6.1 Spatial delimitation

Two factors, namely political and administrative, influence spatial delimitation of the present study.

The Department of Education and Culture of the Kwa-Zulu Government has school inspectorate circuits spread across the province of Natal. Sampling from such a wide area is not practical in terms of time and space. Only the Mehlwesizwe Circuit, situated within Ongoye Magisterial district is selected for the purpose of this study.

Secondary schools in this Circuit fall into urban (township) and rural areas. There is no difference in educational administration as far as rural and urban secondary schools are concerned. They are only separated on grounds of practical considerations as far as this study is concerned.

1.6.2 Qualitative delimitation

Qualitative delimitation is the nominal reduction of the sample in respect of certain qualities present or absent in each unit (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:39). The present study analyzes juvenile delinquency among male and female adolescents of secondary schools in standards 8 and 9, registered during the 1993 school calendar year, and categorized into 13-15, 16-18 and 19-21 years age groups.

1.6.3 Quantitative delimitation

Quantitative delimitation means that the research group is limited to a particular universe or representative sample (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:39).

The present study involves three secondary schools, one from Esikhawini Township, one from Vulindlela Township and one from Mzimela Tribal area; sampled from Secondary Schools in the Mehlwesizwe circuit. There are 560 adolescents involved of which 272 are males and 288 are females.

1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Conceptualization is necessary to enable the researcher to manipulate, study, organize and isolate the properties of objects. It is a process during which specifications are made with certain terms. This is necessary because our everyday

language is vague with only general agreements about the meanings of the terms being used (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:121).

According to Van der Westhuizen (1982:21-22), in research it is not compulsory to use conventional definitions and one may need a definition that makes finer distinctions; but an effort is made to conform as far as possible to what is generally accepted.

In defining concepts, three kinds of definitions have to be understood, namely nominal definition, which is assigned to a term for the purpose of research; operational definition, which indicates how the concept will be measured; and real definition, which is a statement of the essential nature or attributes of some entity (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:122).

The following concepts necessitate definition with the aim of clarifying their real, nominal and operational meanings.

1.7.1 Juvenile delinquency

In paragraph 1.1 the problem of the concept "juvenile delinquency" has been mentioned. In most research, dealing with juveniles, the concept denotes a child who has been officially acted upon by courts, that is the "adjudged" juvenile. At the same time juvenile laws provide for the protection of neglected and dependent children. Consequently, actions that would not be "criminal" for adults are viewed as "criminal" for young persons. A search for a comprehensive definition, that is a definition that would cover the officially acted upon juvenile and the juvenile who has not been officially acted upon is, therefore, necessary for the purposes of this study.

Traditionally, the concept is defined by presenting the legal and criminological views. Most juvenile criminologists have contended themselves with such definitions (cf. Van der Walt et al. 1982:30-31; Cronje, Van der Walt, Retief & Naudé, 1982:30-31). In the present study another premise of defining the concept, namely the status definition, is presented. Such a premise caters for those actions which are not criminal for adults, but may lead to official action in the case of young persons.

1.7.1.1 Legal definition

The legal definition of juvenile delinquency delineates an activity which is illegal regardless of the age of the offender, except for the label "juvenile" which is imposed. Such a definition explicitly extends the criminal statute for adults to the juvenile population (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:2-3).

Designating a person "juvenile" is, therefore, important and means that a juvenile delinquent would be anyone designated as juvenile (non-adult), whose actions are subject to a juvenile court's action. Therefore, a juvenile delinquent is a person designated as juvenile, who has committed an unlawful act, found guilty in a court of law and sentenced (Van der Walt et al., 1982:30).

1.7.1.2 Status-offence definition

Status-offence definitions of juvenile delinquency delineate juvenile delinquency from "unlawful" acts that are committed by persons of a particular status, namely juveniles. Adults who take part in these acts are not subject to formal legal processing. Actions which fall under status-offence

definitions include truancy, smoking, entering a bar or any place where liquor is sold, to mention a few (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:3-5).

The juvenile justice system of South Africa does not explicitly provide for status offences, but a provision is made for uncontrollability of children or children in "need of care" dealt with by a children's court (South Africa, 1983:section 5).

For the purposes of the present study, although the reality of status offences is accepted, such a definition is not used. However, acts committed by persons designated as juveniles, that would not be regarded as "offences" for adults, are regarded as delinquent acts.

1.7.1.3 Criminological definition

Criminological definitions rely on definitions that neither conform precisely with legal nor status-offence definitions. Adherents to criminological definitions contend that most definitions of juvenile delinquency often take on a specific meaning depending on the interests of the group or the individual dealing with juvenile misconduct at any given time and place. Such definitions rely on the juvenile justice system to determine which action to be viewed delinquent and do not recognise that these social control agents should be responsive to the view and needs of a larger society (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:6).

For a socio-criminological study a criminological definition would view juvenile delinquency as ranging from extreme delinquency at the one end to extreme conforming behaviour at the other end. Such a view does not limit the researcher to

simple legal and status offence definition and allows broad analysis of "hidden" and officially reported delinquency. Criminologically, therefore, juvenile delinquency refers to actions of a non-adult who violates the norms of a controlling group, irrespective whether these norms are officially or legally criminal or not.

For the purposes of the present study juvenile delinquency refers to actions committed by a non-adult not necessarily forbidden by law but also not beneficial to him and the general welfare of the community. The delinquent acts are presented in paragraph 2.5.3, page 63; and detailed in paragraph 3.6.2 (see pages 127 to 134).

1.7.2 Family

Generally speaking, the concept family refers to any group of people related by blood or marriage, especially to grown-ups and their children. The family is regarded by Good (1982:8) as a social unit made up of father, mother and their children. This, however, is not true of many families.

The idea of a family varies according to culture and social organization of a particular society. For example, a family in, the traditional African society consists of more than a father, mother and their children. Great-grandparents, grandparents, parents, uncles and their wives, aunts, cousins and nephews constitute what is known as a "family". It is for this reason that the concept of family is defined by exploring five dimensions of a family.

1.7.2.1 Phases of a family

Two phases of family are possible, namely the nuclear and extended family. A nuclear family consists of two adults of opposite sex living in a socially approved sex relationship with their own and adopted children. This is a familial unit of father, mother and children. An extended family on the other hand refers to a mode of combined nuclear families into large units through parent-child relationships. Such a combination produces residential units into three or more generations - at least grandparents, parents and children. Extended families may be compounded of either monogamous or polygamous families. Families need not be either polygamous or extended; they can be both (Leslie, 1979:35).

1.7.2.2 Relationships among persons

The relationships among persons who constitute a family are important for this concept. These can be summed as follows:

- * Two persons of opposite sex reside together.
- * They engage in some kind of division of labour and in types of economic and social exchanges, that is, they do things for one another.
- * They share many things in common such as food, sex, residence; and both goods and social activities.
- * The adults have parental relationships with their children, as their children have filial relations with them; the parents have authority over their children, and both share with one another, while also assuming some obligation for protection, co-operation and nurturance.

- * There are sibling relations among the children themselves, with, once more, a range of obligations to share, protect and help one another (Good, 1982:9).

To sum up, if two adults live together, but do nothing for each other, few people would agree that they are a family. If they do not even live together, fewer still would call the couple a family. Further, if the relationships between parents and children are not characterized by mutual obligations no one would regard them as a family.

1.7.2.3 Pattern of marriage

Another dimension in the understanding of the concept family is the pattern of marriage. The pattern can either be monogamous or polygamous.

- (a) **Polygamy.** Technically, polygamy is a term used for marriage forms that involve the taking of plural spouses. Polygamy takes two forms; polygyny involving taking plural wives and polyandry, involving taking plural husbands. Polygyny is a common and accepted form of marriage among traditional blacks; and polyandry is unknown in Africa.
- (b) **Monogamy.** Monogamy is equivalent to a nuclear family and involves marriage, to a single spouse at a time (Leslie, 1979:29-30).

1.7.2.4 Common homestead

Perhaps, the dimension of a common homestead is the most important than any other dimension, more especially when the study is based on black adolescents. Persons of different surnames, related or unrelated, but sharing a common homestead

are regarded as a family. The deciding factor is the person, usually a male, who is the head of such a homestead, considering himself as having control over the inmates together with the socially approved relationships and obligations. Such a social unit is common among black families.

1.7.2.5 Family structure

The concept "family" is also affected by the structure of the family. Important aspects of the family structure are the broken and the incomplete family.

- (a) **Broken family.** A family may either be physically or psychologically broken. A family may be broken physically because of the loss of either parent through death, divorce, desertion and long absence of either parent because of either employment or imprisonment. A psychologically broken family is one in which parents physically stay together but the relationships, including parental control and obligations, are such that parents are in constant conflict. A psychologically broken home is, however, beyond the scope of this study.

- (b) **Incomplete family.** The incomplete family is closely related to the above structural types. In the incomplete family one partner is missing because marriage never occurred. It is a common type in recent years and usually the single mother runs the family alone. The family usually consists of the mother and her illegitimate children.

For the purposes of this study, the concept "family" is understood in terms of its phases, relationships, patterns, common residence and structure; the denominator in all these

dimensions being the common homestead. Operationally, the family refers to a social unit extended or nuclear, comprising of either married or unmarried person(s) with their legitimate, illegitimate, adopted and non-adopted children, living within a common homestead.

1.7.3 Adolescence and childhood

The nature of the present study demands that concepts "adolescence" and "childhood" be clearly defined because it involves respondents belonging to a particular stage of development in life. For clarity these two concepts are defined separately.

1.7.3.1 Child

The South African Child Care Act, (Act No. 74 of 1983) distinguishes between an infant and a child. An infant is defined as a person under the age of 7 years and a child is defined as a person (whether or not he is an infant) under the age of 18 years; although under certain circumstances a person above 18 years but under 21 years may be dealt with as a child (South Africa, 1983:section 1).

The South African Statistical Service assigns a person to childhood stage on the grounds of conviction as a juvenile offender or a young adult. Persons convicted of offences as juveniles and young adults, occupy age ranges between 7 and 17 years, as well as 18 and 20 years respectively (Cronje et al., 1982:10).

Such conceptualization of childhood is based on legal specifications, yet it coincides with qualitative delimitations of the present study (cf. paragraph 1.6.2). Therefore, for the purposes of the present study, the respondents in question are children below the age of 21 years.

1.7.3.2 Adolescent

The concept "adolescent" overlaps a great deal with the concept "child". Further, an interdisciplinary approach is necessary in its analysis and appropriate because marked social, physiological and physical changes are characteristic of this age-span, and their occurrence is related to each other (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:109).

Firstly, the cultural views determine the particular role a youngster occupies in the family and provide a specific extent of mobility and experimentation. Culturally based ceremonies clearly establish the point at which an adolescent has become an adult (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:111).

Secondly, the historical perspectives reveal the societal conditions leading up to our beliefs about adolescence as well as conditions which contribute to changes in our contemporary beliefs. Historically, children have not been treasured as they are today. Further, adolescence is closely linked to economic, political and cultural changes evoked by industrialization and the emergence of the school system. Government involvement in bringing up children, control of delinquency and industrialization has resulted in children no longer seen as small adults but as human beings in an independent phase of development that make special demands which are no longer identical with those of adults (Hurrelmann, 1989:4).

Thirdly, the socio-psychological perspective view adolescence as that period of life when the family assumes full responsibility for the adolescent's conduct, support and guidance. This perspective accepts that adolescence is affected by physiological changes which have an effect on the development of personality and self-concept.

Adolescence is a period of major adjustments and problems which are characterized by the following:

- (a) Struggle with the phenomenon of dependence versus independence.
- (b) Transition from pure pleasure to reality"...[W]ith the onset of adolescence, ... the adolescent has to become competent in order to be self-supporting in the future" (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:124).
- (c) Conflicts between the importance of parents and their expectations and the importance of peers and their expectations.
- (d) Resolution of the conflict of identification with parents and building an identification and self-concept that is uniquely his own.

Adolescence can be categorized into three stages, namely pre-adolescence early adolescence and late adolescence.

Cronjé et al., (1982:34-35) note that there is particularly close interdependence between these phases and many of their problems and symptoms are so continuous as to be hard to distinguish. Pre-adolescence occurs between 10 to 15 years; early adolescence between 15 to 17 years and late adolescence between 17 to 21 years (Cronjé et al., 1982:34-38).

Many social adjustment problems are characteristic of these stages of development. During early adolescence, for example, problems associated with physical immaturity may arise, e.g. feelings of inferiority, for which juveniles at this stage compensate by misconduct and delinquency. This is accompanied by resistance to authority and conflict with parents and the school authority. Juveniles who fall within late adolescence stage engage in antisocial acts and defiance of authority as a form of bravado which increases the juvenile status in its peer group (Crojé' et al., 1982:38).

For the purposes of this study, adolescents have been categorized into three groups, namely early adolescence falling between 13 to 15 years; mid-adolescence falling between 16 to 18 years; and late adolescence falling between 19 to 21 years (Annexure A). Further, the concepts "child" and "adolescent" refer to respondents falling between the ages of 13 to 21 years who, by means of a self-report instrument, are a source of data.

1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The present study is organized in the following sequence.

Chapter One is concerned with the motivation of the study.

Chapter Two deals with the study design, methodology, and procedures followed in this study.

Chapter Three details the theoretical explanations of juvenile delinquency, namely social organization, cultural transmission, social control, general strain theories and theoretical foundations of this study.

Chapter Four discusses the sex (gender) factor and its correlations with delinquency. Presented are findings; theories and statistical analysis of data.

Chapter Five throws light on age-group differences in relation to delinquency. Statistical analysis of data is preceded by age and delinquency theories.

Chapter Six concentrates on the family environment and delinquency. Family environment predictors of family structure, family size and family economics are analyzed.

Chapter Seven draws upon the relationship between various patterns of family controls and delinquency.

Chapter Eight presents the most important findings; their discussions and conclusions.

1.9 SUMMARY

The present study is concerned with juvenile delinquency among secondary school adolescents with reference to the influence of the family. The study addresses the following:

- (a) The nature of delinquency in terms of actions that are regarded as delinquent, distinct from other antisocial behaviours of adult persons.
- (b) Through the self-report survey, it seeks to establish the influence of the family on juvenile delinquency through independent variables that are relevant to the explanation of delinquency.

The study assumes an inductive approach through which generalizations from empirically sampled respondents and hypotheses can be made.

The study is limited to a sample of Secondary school pupils within the Mehlwesizwe Circuit in the Ongoye Magisterial District. The sample comprises of 560 adolescents aged between 13 to 21 years and registered as students during 1993 academic year.

No other study has been done with the delimited area of investigation. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the field of juvenile delinquency thus bridging the gap between known and unknown forms of delinquency.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The research process is divided into related phases which include the selection of a research topic; defining concepts and variables; selecting a suitable research design; gathering of data; analysis and summary of data; interpretation and reporting on the research project (Fitzgerald & Cox, 1987:39).

The delimitation and conceptualization of the research problem were presented in chapter 1. In this chapter, attention is paid to research methodology and the design of the study. This includes research methods, techniques, and procedures followed in conducting the study.

2.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is concerned with the researcher's ultimate goals and the general plan the researcher formulates for achieving these goals. According to Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:39), research methodology includes conceptualization; construction of variables, purposes and structures, as well as disadvantages of different types of the research design, the logic of causal inferences and sampling theory. Research methodology is the study of methods and logic of science; the rules of organized research and the norm by which procedures and techniques are chosen and emphasized; the setting of guidelines for empirical-scientific investigation; and the course of action of the investigator (Van der Walt et al., 1982:160).

The purpose of research methodology is mainly the reduction of human error. Common human errors reduced through research methodology are as follows:

- (a) **Errors of observation.** People fail to observe important features in a given scene, and also sincerely and honestly make false observations of facts surrounding an event (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:86; Binder & Geis, 1983:4).
- (b) **Selective observation.** Research methodology helps prevent selective observation through proper sampling. People tend to select only those facts that are meaningful to them, and to prevent this error, research methodology demands that an adequate number of observations be selected (Binder & Geis, 1983:5).
- (c) **Errors of interpretation.** Research methodology seeks to guard against errors of interpretation of what is observed and lack of awareness of alternative explanations for the relationship between phenomena (Binder & Geis, 1983:6).
- (d) **False generalizations.** Failure to attend scrupulously to the material which forms the bases of conclusions results in false generalizations. Incorrect generalizations involve inadequate ability to think and reason logically, and a tendency to come to conclusions that are desired rather than those dictated by available information. This kind of error is avoided through research methodology (Binder & Geis, 1983:5).

- (e) **Dependence on authority.** Most of our beliefs about family influence on delinquency are based on statements by influential persons and we tend to accept such views as correct. It is only through well-conceived methodology that such dependence can be avoided.
- (f) **Inappropriate use of evidence.** Research methodology helps eliminate this human error and guides the researcher in correct interpretation and evaluation of data (Binder & Geis, 1983:7).

Research methodology involves the following:

- (a) the study of research methods with the aim of setting standards and their improvement;
- (b) selection of appropriate methods and techniques of research of a particular problem; and
- (c) facilitation of the researcher's task in sampling, conceptualization, analysis, systematization of empirical findings and report writing (Van der Walt et al., 1982:160).

2.3 RESEARCH METHODS

The goal of every research is based on the assumption that all behaviour and events are orderly and have discoverable causes. To discover the influence of the family on juvenile delinquency, a formal intensive and systematic application of research methods is a prerequisite. The aim of using research methods in the present study is to describe, explain, predict and control the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency.

Criminological research authorities have varying views about methods that can be used in criminological research. Futrell and Roberson (1988:91-116) identify historical, descriptive, analytical and experimental methods. Fitzgerald and Cox (1987:44-64) emphasize descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory methods. Van der Walt et al., (1982:167) identify three methods open for criminological research, namely the method of case analysis, the method of mass observation and the analytical method. For the purposes of the present study these three methods are considered.

2.3.1 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, 1990:32-33).

The case analysis method in criminological research has a goal of demonstrating the structural or functional factors responsible for its existence; determination of its relation to other factors; gaining new knowledge and testing the validity

of existing hypotheses. The case analysis method is therefore, a particularistic method (Van der Walt et al., 1982:170).

2.3.2 The method of mass observation

Otherwise known as the statistical method, the method of mass observation is used when the researcher regards crime as a mass phenomenon. Quetelet, was the first person to use statistics and realized that crime can, through statistics, be measured and controlled (Van der Walt, 1964:124).

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).

2.3.3 The analytical method

The analytical method is used when the researcher sees crime as a combination of individual-human and social factors. Under the analytical method the case analysis and statistical methods are synthesized and lose their status as methods and become techniques of the 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 which 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 the testing of statistically based hypotheses.

In the analytical method statistics have the following functions:

- * determination of the centre of the data being measured;
- * determining 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).

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

- (a) **Goal-achievement function.** The analytical method is goal-directed, and through relevant techniques it provides for descriptive, explanatory and applicative investigations.
- (b) **Adaptive function.** Through the use of the analytical method the researcher can lay down a meaningful relationship between a fact and a theory.
- (c) **Intergrative function.** The analytical method is non-particularistic in nature. It enables the researcher to be neutral and enable him to study crime phenomenon on both group and individual-human level.
- (d) **Pattern-maintenance function.** The analytical method respects recognized methodological principles and yet leaves room for change, refinement and innovation.

In this study juvenile delinquency is, firstly, recognized as an individual-human phenomenon where the individual's perceptible particulars of age, sex, education and religious practices and social predispositions have an important role. Secondly, juvenile delinquency is viewed as a mass phenomenon which, through descriptive statistics, can be measured and explained. Thirdly, the combination of the above necessitates that juvenile delinquency be described, explained, predicted and controlled. It is through the analytical method that descriptive and inferential statistics will be used.

2.4 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Research techniques are different from research methods. Research techniques are aids, used or developed by the researcher to enable him to observe a phenomenon that cannot be

satisfactorily observed by senses alone. Techniques are used as a means to realize the goal of a particular method (Johnson, 1956:192).

Research techniques are basically tools that must be evaluated in terms of how well they perform for which they have been constructed. This means that techniques must be both valid and reliable.

Authorities in social research divide research techniques into survey and non-survey research techniques. Bailey (1987:79-328) for instance, regards survey research techniques as sampling, questionnaires and interviews; and non-survey research techniques as document studies, observations and experiments. The present study is not confined to this idea and research techniques are used jointly and supplementary. Any technique used aims at achieving the goal of the study. Following is a review of the techniques employed with the present study.

2.4.1 Literature study technique

Literature study technique is also known as the documentary study technique. In this context, literature includes all types of, documented material that may be found in a library or elsewhere. Documents include reports, articles from periodicals, books, diaries, biography, autobiographies, and other unpublished materials (Futrell & Roberson, 1988:17; Van der Walt et al., 1982:212-214).

Leedy (1985:69) says that the review of literature has the following purposes:

- (a) Literature of similar investigations helps to show how identical situations were handled.
- (b) Through literature, methods and techniques of handling problematic situations are revealed.
- (c) Through literature review sources of data, their advantages and disadvantages, are revealed.
- (d) Literature introduces to the researcher significant research personalities of whose efforts the researcher may have not been aware of.
- (e) Through literature survey the study may be seen in historical and associational perspective; and in relation to earlier and more primitive attacks to the problem.
- (f) Documents provide the researcher with new ideas and approaches.
- (g) Literature assists the researcher evaluate his efforts by comparing them to related efforts done by others.

2.4.2 Sampling techniques

A sample is a selection of units from the total population or universe that one desires to study. Sampling techniques are used when it is impossible to measure the entire population representing the phenomenon under study. If the sample is large enough and scientifically selected, it represents theoretically the population from which it is drawn (Reid, 1982:74-75).

In the present study sampling techniques were employed for the following reasons:

- (a) Interviewing or administering questionnaires to all adolescents from all given secondary schools would require a large staff component.
- (b) Collecting data through questionnaires would result in lengthy unmanageable data; collected over a long period which would make it impossible to specify to which time data refer.
- (c) Managerial requirements in terms of supervision, record-keeping, and financial administration would be difficult.
- (d) By selecting a representative sample of adolescents from sampled secondary schools, greater response rate and, greater co-operation could be achieved than it would have been in a full population survey (Babbie, 1990:65-66; Bailey, 1987:84).

Selection of a sampling technique requires that the researcher ensures that he will be able to make confident generalizations. For that reason sampling techniques are divided into probability and nonprobability sampling techniques.

2.4.2.1 Probability sampling

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 adolescents: 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 (Babbie, 1990:70-71).

Probability sampling, therefore is regarded as the logical sampling technique for the present study and was carried out in order to ensure that all units had an equal chance of being selected.

2.4.2.2 Nonprobability sampling

Nonprobability sampling techniques are employed for situations in which sampling would be prohibitively expensive and when precise representativeness is not necessary (Babbie, 1990:97).

Nonprobability sampling is non-random and is useful in pilot surveys. Its obvious disadvantage is that no representativeness of the sample can be claimed. It is less expensive and may be carried on a spur-of-the moment basis (Bailey, 1987:92).

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

2.4.3 Data collection techniques and sources of data

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

what they have observed or experienced involves the use of interviews and questionnaires. Questionnaires in the present study have been used as a tool for data-collection.

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

Questionnaires used in the collection of data for the present study are related to the measurement of juvenile delinquency and family influence thereupon. They involve mainly the following:

- (a) Conscious controlled and rigorous classification of observations.
- (b) Assignment of numerical values to each observation with the purpose of counting.
- (c) Statistical analysis of juvenile delinquency in search for causative factors (Vito et al., 1988:61-62).

The use of questionnaires in the present study is related to the validity and reliability of the source data. Sources of data commonly used in measuring juvenile delinquency are official statistics and self-report surveys. A brief discussion of their validity and reliability is necessary.

2.4.3.1 Official statistics

Official statistics are data on juvenile delinquency from agencies that react officially to delinquent behaviour. Official statistics are divided into police data, i.e. data kept by police on all offences reported to them; juvenile court data, i.e. data collected when a youth is ordered to a juvenile court; and correctional institutions' data, kept by social welfare agencies like reform schools and related agencies (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983:43).

Official statistics have limitations in so far as measuring of juvenile delinquency is concerned. These limitations have implications for their validity and reliability. The limitations are briefly as follows:

- (a) Official statistics represent only a portion of the true delinquency rate, while victim and self-report surveys suggest twice as much delinquency as appears in official statistics (Hagan, 1986:29).
- (b) Changes in reporting procedures and professionalization of police departments result into unprecedented rise in recorded delinquency. Self-report surveys show a fairly stable delinquency rate.
- (c) Most victimless crimes, for example drug and alcohol abuse committed by juveniles do not appear in official statistics.
- (d) Official statistics, although valuable for their universal availability, do not provide researchers with a sound basis for developing explanations of juvenile misconduct in general.

(e) Most juvenile delinquent acts are not recorded by police because of discretionary powers in dealing with juveniles. Whilst this is recommended for various reasons police tend to overselect males of lower class background for justice system processing (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983:43).

2.4.3.2 Self-report surveys

The self-report procedure of data collection have been in use since the pioneering work of Porterfield (1946) and Wallerstein and Wyle (1947). Short and Nye (1958) put the method "on the map" when they presented a questionnaire containing a delinquency "check-list" and questions intended to gather family back-ground on respondents to samples from three high schools in the U.S.A. (Glanz, 1990b:64).

The self-report procedure of data collection seeks to identify the causative effects of various independent variables such as age, sex, socio-economic status, residence, family influence etc. on juvenile delinquency. Through a questionnaire the respondents are asked to report on their own as to how many times have they involved themselves in a variety of delinquent acts (Glanz, 1990b; Foster, 1988).

In general self-report studies indicate that, in contrast with official statistics, many youths commit delinquency which either never come to the attention of authorities or, if they do, are not officially processed (Reid, 1982:57).

2.4.3.2.1 Comparison of self-report and official measures of delinquency

There has been an on-going controversy between the findings of the official statistics and those of self-report studies. This controversy was sparked by the work of Short and Nye (1958) and still rages until today (Glanz, 1990b:65).

The following are some of the areas where the findings of official statistics and self-report studies present conflicting findings.

(a) Sex and self-reported delinquency

While official statistics suggest that the gap between male and female delinquency is narrowing, self-report studies suggest that male-female delinquency is changing its nature. Thornton et al., (1987:66) opine that self-report studies indicate that the pattern of female delinquency is changing to resemble male delinquency.

(b) Age and self-reported delinquency

In contrast with official statistics which show that 17 percent of all arrests take place among juveniles of about 18 years, self-report studies show a high involvement of juveniles between 13 to 18 years in delinquent behaviour.

(c) Socio-economic status and self-reported delinquency

According to official statistics juveniles from lower classes engage in more delinquency than those from middle and upper-classes. Further, studies such as those of

Cohen (1955) and Cloward and Ohlin (1960) are, among other things, criticized for their reliance on official data (Thornton et al., 1987:66-67).

Self-report studies (Hindelang et al., 1981; Hirschi, 1969; Clark & Wenninger, 1962; Reiss & Rhodes, 1964) indicate that the relationship between social class and delinquency is very slight. The general conclusion is that the important factor is the sharp contrast in the lifestyle of lower and middle-class adolescents rather than social class itself (Thornton et al., 1987:67).

(d) Race and self-reported delinquency

The conclusion reached by self-report studies on race and delinquency is a quite different from the findings of official statistics. Self-report studies which concentrate on Black and White differences, reveal marked similarities in reported delinquent acts of Black and White juveniles (Thornton et al., 1987:68).

(e) Residence and self-reported delinquency

Perhaps, the official statistics are only superior in determining the ecological distribution of delinquency. Studies by Dentler and Monroe, 1961; Short and Nye, 1958; and Hindelang, 1976 all support the findings of the official statistics (Thornton et al., 1987:69).

(f) Religiosity and self-reported delinquency

Official statistics have been somewhat indifferent to the influence of religiousness on delinquent behaviour. This, however, is understood if one considers that most

states practice religious tolerance. Self-report studies on the other hand have tested the significance of church attendance and religiousness and significant correlations between such and juvenile delinquency has been established (Glanz, 1990a:273; Foster, 1988:48-49).

2.4.3.2.2 Limitations of self-report surveys

Whilst self-report studies have displayed unchallenged superiority in many aspects of delinquency, it must be conceded that they have some inherent limitations.

Firstly, self-report studies lack validity in that respondents may fabricate behaviour to impress interviewers or fail to mention some delinquent acts out of fear that information will be passed on to the police in spite of guarantees of anonymity (Conklin, 1986:61).

Secondly, they are flawed in that they ignore certain kinds of behaviour like white-collar criminality and organized crime whereas official statistics are superior in this aspect.

Thirdly, some self-report studies classify juveniles as delinquents if they admit to one or more delinquent acts. Actually they should emphasize the frequency of delinquency and seriousness of delinquent acts rather than whether an individual has ever engaged in any act that violates the law (Conklin, 1986:61-62).

2.4.3.2.3 Reliability and validity of self-report measures of delinquency

The reliability and validity of any measurement procedure adopted during research are important since the results of the study are directly affected by the quality of the procedure employed. The self-report measures of delinquency have thus to be assessed in terms of their reliability and validity (Glanz, 1990a:71).

(a) Reliability

Crano and Brewer (1973:228) define reliability as the degree of interrelationship among items on a scale and the degree to which the items within a scale are related to each other.

Carmines and Zeller (1979:11) say that reliability concerns the extent to which an experiment, test or any measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials. Put otherwise, reliability is a tendency toward consistency found in repeated measurements of the same phenomenon. The more consistent the results given by repeated measurements, the higher the reliability of the measuring procedure; conversely the less consistent the results, the lower the reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:11-12).

In the case of self-report delinquency-measuring instruments, reliability is assessed in one of four ways, namely test-retest method, alternative-form method, split-half method and internal consistency method.

The test-retest method obtains a correlation between two repeated applications of the same test to the same respondents. If a researcher obtains the same correlation result on the two administrations of the test, then the test would be reliable (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:38). The test-retest method is limited in that any retest may be affected by change of experience, reactivity and over-estimation by the respondent (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:40).

The alternative-form method of assessing reliability of a self-report measure is similar to the test-retest method in that it also requires two testing situations and attainment of the same correlation result. It differs from the test-retest method in that an alternative form of test is administered. The advantage of the alternative-form method is that it reduces the extent in which the respondent's memory can inflate the reliability estimate. Its limitation lies in the practical difficulty of constructing alternative forms that are parallel (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:40-41).

The split-half method differs from the test-retest and alternative-form methods in that the test or measurement is administered once. The total set of items is then divided into halves and the scores on each half are correlated to obtain an estimate reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:41).

The internal consistency method of assessing reliability also requires a single measurement administration. It provides a unique estimate of reliability for a given test administration. The most popular internal consistency

method, adopted in the present study is the so-called Cronbach's Alpha Individual Item Analysis (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:44).

It must be pointed out that although Cronbach's (1951) Alpha is one of the coefficients that measure internal consistency of items, it depends on the average interitem correlation and number of items in the scale.

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, ideally requires that the correlation should be at least 0,80 and if a scale cannot satisfy this criterion the investigator may search from the following reasons: Firstly, whether the scale contains enough items and secondly, whether the set of items in a scale share a common focus (Crano & Brewer, 1973:231).

Glanz (1990a:73) notes that if a test is to be regarded as reliable, it is generally expected that correlations must be 0,70 or more. Huizinga and Elliott (1986:301) however, note that some findings on reliability may not be so high and still be viewed as reliable. Glanz (1990) cites Hindelang's study of black and white males where reliabilities between 0,62 and 0,81 were found. Generally, self-reported delinquency measures have produced reliable item consistencies irrespective of any method employed in assessing their reliability.

(b) Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which an empirical measure, for example, self-report instrument or questionnaire, reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Babbie, 1990:133).

Huizinga and Elliott (1986:308) define validity of a measuring instrument as any evidence which indicates that it measures what it is intended to measure. In this aspect the question of definition and operationalization of concepts becomes important. For example, in this study the concept of "family" and "delinquency" has to be defined and the measuring instrument has to measure the proposed operational definitions.

Three approaches of ascertaining validity are generally used namely content or face validity; criterion validity and construct validity.

(i) **Content validity**

Content validity (face validity) questions whether the instrument measures the kind of behaviour that the researcher assumes it is and whether it provides an adequate sample of that kind of behaviour (Bailey, 1987:67-68). To know whether an instrument has face validity, researchers need first to know the definition of the concept being measured, and second whether information being gathered is germane to that concept.

Problems with content validity arise when there is no consensus about the definition of the concept to be measured; when the concept is multidimensional, and when the measure is lengthy and complex. Glanz (1990:76) notes that these problems become apparent in overreporting and underreporting on some items by juveniles simply because of misunderstanding. To this end it must be added that the cultural milieu of respondents is of utmost importance. For example,

black juvenile respondents' understanding of "father" and "mother" would be different from that of white juvenile respondents.

(ii) Criterion validity

Criterion validity is at issue when the purpose is to use an instrument to estimate some important form of behaviour that is external to the measuring instrument itself, the latter being the criterion (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:17-18). The example would be a test used to estimate the performance or adjustment of juvenile offenders after their release from institutional treatment.

Criterion validity can technically be divided into concurrent validity and predictive validity. Concurrent validity is assessed by correlating a measure with known groups or known instrument-findings while predictive validity is assessed with a future criterion which is correlated with the relevant or present measure (Glanz, 1990a:76; Carmines & Zeller, 1979:18).

(iii) Construct validity

Construct validation is a procedure for validating a new measure by substituting it for an older measure in the test of a theory; the new measure is validated if the test of the theory yields the same results as the new measure (Bailey, 1987:461). In the assessment of construct validity, the following steps are important. Firstly, theoretical relationship between concepts must be specified; secondly, the

empirical relationship between the measures of the concepts must be examined; and thirdly, the empirical evidence must be interpreted in terms of how well it clarifies the construct validity of the particular measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:23).

Four different interpretations are possible if the theoretically derived predictions and empirical relationships are negative. Firstly, the theoretical framework used to generate empirical predictions is incorrect, therefore doubt is cast on the original construct validity. Secondly, the method used to test the theoretically derived hypotheses is faulty or inappropriate. Thirdly, the negative evidence is due to the lack of construct validity or unreliability or some other variable(s) in the analysis. Fourthly, the typical possible interpretation would be that either the present measure or the former lack construct validity, that is, the indicator does not measure what it purports to measure (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:24-25).

The three types of validation, from face validation through criterion validation to construct validation, can be seen as a progression, with each of the subsequent types of validation including all elements of all former types. Bailey (1987:69) opines that: "... for this reason construct validation is often said to be the strongest kind of validation procedure".

2.5 PROCEDURES AND TECHNIQUES ADOPTED DURING THE STUDY

The research methodology, that is methods and techniques, employed in social research has been analysed in the previous section. Following is the actual design of the present study, which includes the procedures and techniques that were adopted in conducting the study.

2.5.1 Literature review

In the present study, literature forms the basis on which the choice of an approach; research methods and techniques, theoretical assumptions and the general research design are based. The following documents were widely consulted.

2.5.1.1 Official documents

Official documents are primary sources that include Acts of Parliament, official Annual Reports and maps. In the present study the Child Care Act, Act No 74 of 1983, and the Criminal Procedure Act, Act No 51 of 1977 are used in conceptualization and discussions of certain delinquent acts. From the Annual Report of the Commissioner of Police and the Central Statistical Service, the official extent of juvenile delinquency regarding arrests and convictions was established. Finally, from the office of the Circuit Inspector in the Mehlwesizwe Circuit the distribution of secondary schools in the circuit was established.

2.5.1.2 Research reports

Research reports are also primary sources from which the construction of the questionnaire; approaches to measurement of delinquency; and comparisons for validation purposes was established. In particular, the following research reports formed the bases of the present study:

- (a) Glanz, L. 1990b. *Juvenile Delinquency: A self-report study among Urban Blacks*. Unpublished D.Phil Thesis: University of Pretoria.
- (b) Foster, H. 1988. "'n Ondersoek na die verband tussen godsdiens en jeugmisdaad onder Blanke standerd nege-leerlinge in Bloemfontein" *Acta Academica*. Reeks B (8):35-59.
- (c) Huizinga, D and Elliott, D. 1986. "Re-assessing the reliabilty of Self-Report Delinquency Measures". *Journal of Quantitative Criminology*, Vol 2(4):293-328.
- (d) Canter, R J 1982. "Family Correlates of Male and Female Delinquency" *Criminology*. Vol. 20(2):149-167.

The abovementioned reports, together with many others, are important in that they have a bearing on this study because they deal with the relationship between the family and delinquency. Further, some deal with school adolescents and refer to the application of self-report questionnaire in the collection of data.

2.5.1.3 Books and periodicals

Books and periodicals are secondary sources which include technical journals and literature that contain reports on related research projects. There are many of these but the few below are important in this study.

(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) Binder, A and Geis, G. 1983. **Methods of Research in Criminology and Criminal Justice**. New York:McGraw-Hill.
- (iv) Carmines, E G and Zeller, R A 1979. **Reliability and Validity Assessment**. London:Sage.
- (v) 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 present study many sources were widely consulted. The following few proved indispensable:

- (i) Cloward, R A and Ohlin, L E. 1960. **Delinquency and Opportunity:A theory of Delinquent Gangs**. New York:The Free Press.
- (ii) Cohen, A K. 1955. **Delinquent Boys:The Culture of the Gang**. Glencoe, Illinois:The Free Press.
- (iii)Hagan, J. 1988. **Structural Criminology**. Oxford:Polity Press.
- (iv) Hirschi, T. 1969. **Causes of delinquency**. Berkeley, California:University of California Press.
- (v) Nye, F I. 1958. **Family Relationships and Delinquent Behaviour**. New York:Wiley

2.5.2 Self-report survey

After thorough study of related literature it was decided that self-report procedure would be most suitable for the present study. Further, it was decided that the sample would be drawn from secondary school pupils. The following reasons justified the above:

- (a) A self-report procedure would elicit more information and highlight the problem of "hidden" delinquency than would be with official statistics.
- (b) Although a sample drawn from the community at large would be more representative for a self-report survey on juvenile delinquency than one based on school going children, logistical problems would have been experienced. Further, it would have been necessary to employ

interviewers in which case training and general costs would have been enormous. Secondary schools presented the best logical source.

2.5.3 Self-administered questionnaire

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

SECTION A

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Sex

Age

Residence

Church affiliation

SECTION B

FAMILY DATA

Male rearing agent

Female rearing agent

Parental marital status

Parental employment status

Family size

SECTION C

THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS

Family religiousness

Parental supervision
Parental discipline
Parental affection

SECTION D

DELINQUENCY CHECKLIST

Norm infringements
Regulation infringements
Drug and alcohol abuse
Violent behaviour
Theft
Malicious damage to property

The questionnaire was drawn up in English but upon administration each question was thoroughly explained in Zulu which is the mother-tongue of all respondents.

2.5.4 The sample

In selecting the sample for the present study simple random and stratified random sampling techniques were employed for secondary schools and respondents respectively.

The sample of the secondary schools was selected from all secondary schools within the Mehlwesizwe Circuit (c.f. paragraph 1.6.1). To ensure probability that each secondary school has an equal chance of being selected, simple random sampling was used. The name of each secondary school was written on a piece of paper with a number allocated to each. These were ruffled and three secondary schools were drawn; one

from Esikhawini Township; one from Vulindlela Township; and one from Mzimela Tribal Area. For ethical reasons they are coded A; B; and C respectively.

In sampling respondents, a stratified random sampling was implemented. This technique was employed because of the known categorization of children in schools according to classes (grades). Firstly, a sampling frame of all units of the selected secondary schools was made. Each secondary school yielded the following populations:

Secondary School A = 358 units

Secondary School B = 420 units

Secondary School C = 259 units

These populations refer to adolescents in Standards 8 and 9 pre-established strata.

Secondly, from each stratum the units were selected through a simple random sampling technique by taking every second potential respondent. A sample of 560 units was finally realized.

No problems were experienced with sample selection, in fact all those selected were prepared to take part in the study. Selection of respondents was done during breaks for which purpose prior permission of the principals was obtained.

The strata (standards 8 and 9) were selected on the grounds that Standard 8 represents those adolescents in junior secondary and Standard 9 adolescents in senior secondary. Further, it was felt that such strata would yield a good age-range for the sample.

2.5.5 Fieldwork

The fieldwork took place between the months of February and April 1993, and was undertaken by the researcher personally. Prior to undertaking fieldwork, school principals were approached to request permission to undertake research. In cases where the principal was not available, his deputy was approached. A letter explaining the purpose of the study and the principal's consent was handed over for his signature. A date for data collection was set in advance in order to prevent disruption of class periods (Annexure B).

Two stages of fieldwork were carried out with the study, namely a pilot study and the final survey data collection.

(a) Pilot study

The pilot survey was done with a "conveniently sampled" secondary school, that is, the nearest secondary school was selected. This secondary school is not included in the final survey. Ninety eight respondents comprising of 22 males and 76 females were involved.

The aim of the pilot survey in the present study was to pretest the instrument design on the following aspects:

- * provision of an assessment of its difficulty.
- * given an estimate of cost and time involved;
- * clarification of its qualitative and quantitative delimitation; and

- * assessment of the respondents' comprehension of the research instrument (Babbie, 1990:226).

The pilot study also served for pretesting of possible confusion in responses and their nature, variance in responses and for internal validation of items. Further, the research instrument layout was tested on the data processing instrument, namely the Statistical Analyses System Programme (S.A.S.). Items were tested on this programme for their internal consistency along with Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. The results obtained were as follows:

Alpha Coefficient = 0,697864 (0,70)

Standardized Alpha = 0,720648 (0,72).

(b) Final survey

In administering the questionnaire, adolescents were grouped in one hall and questionnaires were distributed to each respondent. Completion of questionnaires was done simultaneously by respondents, the researcher maintaining strict supervision to ensure that:

- * respondents were not influencing each others' responses; and
- * all supplied questionnaires were returned.

Out of a population of 1,037 adolescents from the three sampled secondary schools, 659 questionnaires were distributed. Out of these, 99 were rejected because they did not meet the qualitative criterion of the study, namely age limit of 21 years and below, thus leaving the

research with a usable sample of 560 respondents. Age was not considered a criterion for sampling stratification as it constituted an unknown theoretical frequency.

TABLE 2.1 SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION OF THE FINAL SURVEY

SECONDARY SCHOOL	TOTAL POPULATION		DISTRIBUTED QUESTIONNAIRES		REJECTED QUESTIONNAIRES		FINAL SAMPLE	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	A	358	34,52	251	38,09	49	49,50	202
B	420	40,50	287	43,55	29	29,29	258	46,07
C	259	24,98	121	18,36	21	21,21	100	17,86
TOTAL	1037	100,00	659	100,00	99	100,00	560	100,00

Table 2.1 represents the sampling distribution of the survey. A sample of 560 units is considered large enough to permit statistical analysis and generalizations; and, further, compares favourably with other similar studies (c.f. Glanz, 1990). Table 2.2 is a frequency distribution of demographic characteristics of the sample.

TABLE 2.2 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS	FREQUENCY (N)	PERCENTAGE %
<u>SEX</u>		
Male	272	48,60
Female	288	51,40
TOTAL	560	100,00
<u>AGE-GROUPS</u>		
13-15	49	8,75
16-18	277	49,46
19-21	234	41,79
TOTAL	560	100,00
<u>SCHOOL GRADE</u>		
Standard 8	266	47,50
Standard 9	294	52,50
TOTAL	560	100,00
<u>RESIDENCE</u>		
Rural	339	60,54
Urban	204	36,43
*Other	17	3,03
TOTAL	560	100,00
<u>CHURCH AFFILIATION</u>		
Roman Catholic	58	10,36
Anglican	26	4,64
Methodist	42	7,50
Presbyterian	120	21,43
Zionists	101	18,04
Other	180	32,14
None	33	5,89
TOTAL	560	100,00

* Informal settlements

2.5.6 Statistical analysis of data

Statistics are numerical tools available to a researcher to describe and explain social phenomena. For the purpose of the present study, statistics are used to realize the following objectives:

- (a) To indicate the central point around which data revolve and how broadly data are spread. In this instance the measures of central tendency and measures of variability become indispensable.
- (b) To establish relationships between data variables and determine the probability that the outcome might have occurred by chance (Leedy, 1985:30; Futrell & Roberson, 1988:152). Correlational statistical techniques and statistics measuring the differences between data variables are important for this purpose. Further, statistics have been used to test reliability and validity of the research instrument.

2.5.6.1 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 of Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha of the final survey (table 2.3 & 2.4) with the total Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha being 0,811749 for raw variables and 0,819727 for standard variables.

TABLE 2.3 CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLES

DEPENDENT VARIABLES:DELINQUENCY SUB-SCALES		
SUB-SCALE 5 TO 10	RAW VARIABLES	STANDARD VARIABLES
Norm infringements	0,799982	0,811775
Regulation infringements	0,792819	0,809618
Alcohol and drug abuse	0,795519	0,810021
Violent behaviour	0,795804	0,810405
Theft	0,787887	0,807744
Malicious damage to property	0,799650	0,810482

**TABLE 2.4 CRONBACH'S COEFFICIENT ALPHA FOR INDEPENDENT *
VARIABLES**

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: FAMILY THEORETICAL CONSTRUCTS		
SUB-SCALE 1 TO 4	RAW VARIABLES	STANDARD VARIABLES
Family religiousness	0,817746	0,822379
Parental supervision	0,811625	0,820336
Parental discipline	0,813943	0,820470
Parental affection	0,817547	0,817976
INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: DEMOGRAPHIC AND FAMILY DATA		
VARIABLE	RAW VARIABLES	STANDARD VARIABLES
Sex	0,814233	0,826655
Age	0,811871	0,820692
Residence	0,811487	0,820306
Church affiliation	0,814182	0,820825
Parental Marital Status	0,813550	0,822861
Father's Employment Status	0,813851	0,823674
Mother's Employment Status	0,812263	0,822326
Family size	0,811532	0,819875

From the above Cronbach's Coefficient correlations it is clear that an accepted alpha correlation of above 0,80 is yielded by the items.

2.5.6.2 Validity of the measurement

The issue of validity of the measurement has been dealt with in paragraph 2.4.3.2.3 of this chapter. The present study is validated on content and construct validity which are relevant for the study of this nature.

Content validity depends on the extent to which a measurement reflects on a specific domain of content. Two aspects are important for content validity, namely relevance and number of items (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:20).

For a measurement to have valid and relevant items, they must reflect the meaning associated with a specific dimension. In the present study items measuring a particular dimension are combined together and their sum constitute a sub-scale (Table 2.5 - 2.10).

With regard to the sample or number of items, Carmines and Zeller (1979:21) are of the opinion that it is not possible to specify exactly the number of items to be developed for a scale, but it is preferable to construct many items than too few. In the present study 31 items falling under different sub-scales are used. Such categorization of items in sub-scales format ensures relevance of items to a particular domain, thus enhancing content validity.

Construct validity is concerned with the extent to which a particular measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypotheses concerning the concepts that

are being measured (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:23). Further, construct validation may be carried out by comparing the incidence and prevalence of reported acts of the study with others of similar nature. It must however be pointed out, however, that such comparisons are fraught with problems, namely:

- (a) differences with regard to the number and types of items used or included in the delinquency scale;
- (b) variations in the type of response categories; and
- (c) ages of respondents included in the samples used (Glanz, 1990:265).

Tables 2.5 to 2.10 give the frequency distribution of responses to delinquency items, grouped under each delinquency sub-scale.

TABLE 2.5 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY:NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY									
	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{Y}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Truancy	366	65,36	127	22,68	30	5,36	37	6,61	1,53	0,87
Disobedience	379	67,68	123	21,96	20	3,57	38	6,79	1,49	0,85
Lies	360	64,29	108	19,29	32	5,71	60	10,71	1,63	0,99
Sleep-out	419	74,82	77	13,75	24	4,29	40	7,14	1,44	0,87
Discipline	483	82,65	48	8,57	12	2,14	17	3,04	1,22	0,63
Friends	382	68,21	131	23,39	17	3,04	30	5,36	1,46	0,79

*See Annexure A

TABLE 2.6

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY: REGULATION
INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY										
DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{X}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Licences	453	80,89	48	8,57	13	2,32	46	8,21	1,38	0,88
Speed	499	89,11	27	4,82	8	1,43	26	4,64	1,22	0,69
Bar/Bottle Store	387	69,11	74	13,21	29	5,18	70	12,50	1,61	1,05
Liquor	347	61,96	91	16,25	23	4,11	99	17,68	1,78	1,05
Films	309	55,18	106	18,93	38	6,79	107	19,11	1,90	1,17

* See Annexure A

TABLE 2.7

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO
SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY: ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE
(N=560)

DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY										
DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{X}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Glue	412	73,57	92	16,43	27	4,82	29	5,18	1,42	0,81
Taking drugs	502	89,64	30	5,36	9	1,61	19	3,39	1,88	0,62
Deal in drugs	418	74,64	68	12,14	22	3,93	52	9,29	1,48	0,94
Drink liquor	335	59,82	91	16,25	37	6,61	97	17,32	1,81	1,15

*See Annexure A

TABLE 2.8 **FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO
SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY:VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR
(N=560)**

DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY										
DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{Y}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Fist-fighting	351	62,68	133	23,75	34	6,07	42	7,50	1,58	0,90
Weapon	438	78,21	53	9,46	24	4,29	45	8,04	1,42	0,90
Intimidation	453	80,89	59	10,54	24	4,29	24	4,29	1,32	0,75
Public disturbance	318	56,79	124	22,14	32	5,71	86	15,36	1,80	1,10

*See Annexure A

TABLE 2.9 **FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO
SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY:THEFT (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY										
DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{X}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Shoplifting	466	83,21	45	8,04	14	2,50	35	6,25	1,32	0,80
Theft from friends	365	65,18	111	19,82	26	4,64	58	10,36	1,60	0,98
Theft-money	389	69,46	105	18,75	16	2,86	50	8,93	1,51	0,92
Housebreaking	499	89,11	33	5,89	12	2,14	16	2,86	1,18	0,61
Auto-theft	466	83,21	56	10,00	14	2,50	24	4,29	1,28	0,71
Robbery	406	72,50	72	12,86	17	3,04	65	11,61	1,54	1,00
Joy-riding	362	64,64	93	16,61	25	4,46	80	14,29	1,68	1,08

*See Annexure A

TABLE 2.10 **FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO SELF-REPORTED DELINQUENCY: MALICIOUS DAMAGE OF PROPERTY (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY										
DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)*	NEVER		1-2		3-4		MORE		\bar{X}	SD
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Stones	499	89,11	37	6,61	5	0,89	19	3,39	1,19	0,61
Public Property	514	91,79	21	3,75	6	1,07	19	3,39	1,16	0,60
Arson	504	90,00	28	5,00	11	1,96	17	3,04	1,18	0,61
School property	516	96,14	26	4,11	10	1,79	11	1,96	1,14	0,52
Books	496	88,57	30	5,36	13	2,32	21	3,75	1,21	0,66

*See Annexure A

2.5.6.3 Statistical processing of data

Whilst descriptive statistics (frequency distributions, means and standard deviations) is important for any study, inferential statistics is important for generalizations. In the present study different statistics were used with the aim of making empirical inferences about data. Basically inferential statistics are employed to draw inferences.

(a) Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (rho)

Throughout the study data on family control measures are correlated by the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient. A probability value of less than or equal to 0,05 depicts a significant correlation at the 5 percent level. A negative correlation between a dependent variable (delinquency) and an independent variable means that the higher the independent variable score the lesser the delinquency reported. Likewise, a positive correlation between the independent and dependent variable means that the two variables vary in the same direction.

Tables 2.11 to 2.15 consists of a composite tables of correlation where the Spearman-Rank Order Correlation coefficient is used for each delinquency scale.

**TABLE 2.11 FAMILY RELIGIOUSNESS (SUB-SCALE 1) AND
DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560**

SUB-SCALE 1:FAMILY RELIGIOUSNESS	rho	p-VALUES
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	-0,19461	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	-0,15336	0,0006*
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,19117	0,0001*
Scale 8:Violent behaviour	-0,23784	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	-0,18195	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage of property	-0,07479	0,0770

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

TABLE 2.12 PARENTAL SUPERVISION (SUB-SCALE 2) AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560

SUB-SCALE 2:PARENTAL SUPERVISION	rho	p-VALUES
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	-0,11400	0,0069*
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	0,01489	0,7251
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and Drug Abuse	-0,06491	0,1250
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	-0,04018	0,3426
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	-0,06600	0,1188
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage of property	0,00390	0,9267

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

TABLE 2.13 PARENTAL DISCIPLINE (SUB-SCALE 3) AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560

SUB-SCALE 3:FAMILY DISCIPLINE	rho	p-VALUES
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	-0,09225	0,0290*
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	-0,09360	0,0268*
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,12402	0,0033*
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	-0,16353	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	-0,09603	0,0230*
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage of property	-0,04236	0,3170

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

**TABLE 2.14 PARENTAL AFFECTION (SUB-SCALE 4) AND DELINQUENCY
(SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560**

SUB-SCALE 4:AFFECTION AND REJECTION	rho	p-VALUES
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	-0,08820	0,0369*
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	-0,00830	0,8446
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,09834	0,0199*
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	-0,07319	0,0835
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	-0,05169	0,220
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage of property	0,00904	0,8310

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

TABLE 2.15 AGE AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALE 5-10) N=560

DELINQUENCY SCALE	AGE GROUP (YEARS)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	13-15	0,86748	0,0001*
	16-18	0,93884	0,0001*
	19-21	0,86971	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	13-15	0,84581	0,0001*
	16-18	0,95214	0,0001*
	19-21	0,87738	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol & drug abuse	13-15	0,81520	0,0001*
	16-18	0,88785	0,0001*
	19-21	0,89734	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	13-15	0,84858	0,0001*
	16-18	0,93119	0,0001*
	19-21	0,90305	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	13-15	0,87386	0,0001*
	16-18	0,94907	0,0001*
	19-21	0,90129	0,0001*
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage	13-15	0,65641	0,0001*
	16-18	0,70597	0,0001*
	19-21	0,75669	0,0001*

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

(b) Chi-square statistic (χ^2)

In addition to the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation statistic, the chi-square statistic is used to measure data on nominal levels with the aim of finding differences between certain categories of independent variable and delinquency scales. Tables 2.16 to 2.19 are statistical results yielded by the chi-square statistic for each delinquency scale.

TABLE 2.16 FAMILY STRUCTURE AND DELINQUENCY N=560

DELINQUENCY SCALE	CHI-SQUARE χ^2	df	PROBABILITY VALUE
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	21,65	16	0,16
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	26,02	15	0,04*
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	10,63	11	0,48
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	9,99	12	0,62
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	24,97	19	0,16
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage to property	15,82	14	0,33

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

TABLE 2.17 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY SCALE	CHI-SQUARE χ^2	df	PROBABILITY VALUE
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	34,55	32	0,35
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	36,64	30	0,19
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	20,11	22	0,58
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	22,60	24	0,54
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	36,57	38	0,54
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage to property	30,78	28	0,33

$p \leq 0,05$

TABLE 2.18 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY SCALE	CHI-SQUARE χ^2	df	PROBABILITY VALUE
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	19,60	16	0,24
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringement	22,02	15	0,11
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	13,17	11	0,28
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	7,85	12	0,80
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	34,98	19	0,01*
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage to property	17,16	14	0,25

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

TABLE 2.19 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY SCALE	CHI-SQUARE χ^2	df	PROBABILITY VALUE
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	17,47	16	0,37
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	20,60	15	0,15
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol and drug abuse	9,95	11	0,54
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	14,43	12	0,27
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	11,39	19	0,91
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage to property	9,66	14	0,79

$p \leq 0,05$

(c) F- and the t-tests

Like with the chi-square statistic explained and presented in (b) above, the F and the t-tests are used in the present study to test for the significance of differences. The F- statistic is employed for data having more than two levels and the t-statistic for data having two levels, age and sex respectively. In tables 2.21 and 2.21 statistical results are presented for each delinquency scale.

TABLE 2.20 AGE-GROUP DIFFERENCES IN DELINQUENCY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY	AGE GROUP (YEARS)	MEAN (\bar{X})	F-VALUE
Sub-Scale 5:Norm infringements	13-15	8,35	4,62*
	16-18	8,49	
	19-21	9,22	
Sub-Scale 6:Regulation infringements	13-15	8,16	0,90
	16-18	7,68	
	19-21	8,01	
Sub-Scale 7:Alcohol & drugs	13-15	6,33	2,87
	16-18	5,63	
	19-21	6,09	
Sub-Scale 8:Violent behaviour	13-15	6,98	3,67*
	16-18	5,88	
	19-21	6,17	
Sub-Scale 9:Theft	13-15	11,63	4,61*
	16-18	9,67	
	19-21	10,27	
Sub-Scale 10:Malicious damage to property	13-15	6,22	0,16
	16-18	5,71	
	19-21	5,91	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

TABLE 2.21 SEX DIFFERENCES IN DELINQUENCY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY SCALE	MALE (N=272) \bar{X}	FEMALE (N=288) \bar{X}	t VALUE (two-tailed)
Sub-Scale 1:Norm infringements	9,25	8,31	3,63*
Sub-Scale 2:Regulation infringements	8,97	6,81	8,38*
Sub-Scale 3:Alcohol & drugs	6,60	5,22	6,68*
Sub-Scale 4:Violent behaviour	6,86	5,38	6,68*
Sub-Scale 5:Theft	10,90	9,42	4,30*
Sub-Scale 6:Malicious damage to property	6,16	5,60	3,05*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

2.6 SUMMARY

The present study adopts in its research methodology the analytical method through which both descriptive and inferential statistics are used.

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 pronounce scientifically based generalizations. Nonprobability sampling technique was used for the pilot survey and probability sampling technique for the final survey.

- * Thirdly, to measure the nature and extent of "hidden" delinquency a self-report self-administered questionnaire has been used for data collection. This research instrument consists of personal data, family data, theoretical constructs of family influence, and a delinquency checklist consisting of 31 delinquency items. The delinquency checklist is further divided into the following sub-scales.
 - (a) Norm infringements.
 - (b) Regulation infringements.
 - (c) Alcohol and drug abuse.
 - (d) Violent behaviour.
 - (e) Theft.
 - (f) Malicious damage to property.

- * Fourthly, statistical techniques are used to test internal consistency of items through the Cronbach's Correlation Coefficient Alpha which requires that the correlation coefficient alpha be above 0,80. Further, for statistical analysis of data the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (ρ); the chi-square statistic; the F- and t-statistics are used.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIO-CRIMINOLOGICAL EXPLANATION MODELS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of criminology, criminologists and others interested in deviant behaviour of the youth, have sought to explain why the youth deviate from the norms of society. The consequence of such explanations are models or theories aimed at explaining causal factors of juvenile delinquency.

Explanation models of juvenile delinquency take a variety of explanations such as biological, psychological and sociological. Criminologists trained in different orientations accept and support theories generated out of their own discipline. Thus, psychologists lean on psycho-criminological explanations and sociologists lean on socio-criminological theories (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:66).

Throughout this study socio-criminological explanation models are used with the family constituting the central point of departure. In this chapter major socio-criminological theories that have relevance to the present study are reviewed. Further, attention is paid to the theoretical constructs of the present study.

3.2 SOCIAL DISORGANIZATION THEORY

3.2.1 Introduction

Social disorganization theory has its origins in the Chicago School and the work of its important advocates like Shaw, McKay, Thomas and Thrasher. The theory suggests that the decline of informal controls of the family and society has an effect on juvenile delinquency and require formal controls to take their place (Hagan, 1987:150-151). Furthermore, the theory asserts that industrialization of cities brings breakdown to the family unit and the processes that normally regulate the behaviour of adolescents. Following are some perspectives of the theory.

3.2.2 Shaw and McKay:Delinquency Areas

Using the concentric zone theory of Burgess, Shaw and McKay (1969) sought to explain a geographical (ecological) distribution of juvenile delinquency, according to areas of residence of juvenile delinquents (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979:79).

They identified areas of social disorganization - areas of truancy, alcoholism, family breakdown etc - and general juvenile delinquency. These community characteristics were correlated with the nature and extent of delinquency and identified:

- * the economic status of the families with the community;
- * the family mobility within the community at large; and

- * the heterogeneity of the families with the community (Shaw & McKay, 1969:140; Hagan, 1987:153). The implications of such correlations were that unemployment, poverty and heterogeneity of the family lead to weak control and, in turn, high rates of delinquency.

Briefly stated findings of Shaw and McKay were as follows:

- (a) There are marked variations in the rates of juvenile delinquency between areas of the city; some with high rates, while other show low rates.
- (b) Rates of truancy and general delinquency vary inversely in proportion to the distance from the centre of the city, that is, the nearer the centre of the city a given locality is, the higher will be its rates of delinquency.
- (c) Truants, juvenile delinquents and adult criminals are evenly distributed within a given area.
- (d) The rates of delinquency and crime differs with family backgrounds. High rates of delinquency occur in areas characterized by physical deterioration and high mobility of families.
- (e) Delinquents living in high rate delinquency areas are more likely to be recidivists than those from low rate delinquency areas (Reid, 1982:134).

3.2.3 Thomas : The Unadjusted Girl

Even before the emergence of the Chicago School, Thomas (1923) had already published his "The Unadjusted Girl", in which social disorganization was proposed as having an effect on delinquency, especially among females.

Thomas argued 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 of these wants between individuals, the society has instruments and institutions of social control; the family being the primary source of norms and values. The modern urban societies, he noted, weakens the structure of the family by allowing girls to move away from homes in search of wealth. Values such as purity and virginity for females are consequently disorganized and the decline of family control results into delinquent behaviour (Hagan, 1987:151).

3.2.4 Thrasher : The Gang

Thrasher (1936) was one of the first sociocriminologists to conduct research on gang formation and delinquent behaviour. Thrasher (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:47) maintained that gangs originate naturally during the adolescent years from play groups. Gangs develop in response to the slums of the city where families are in a disorganized state, where there is poor family discipline, and where there is a lack of family controls. In such a situation the conflicts between play-groups lead inevitably to criminal behaviour (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1979:72).

According to Hagan (1987:152) the four wishes identified by Thomas (1923) laid the foundations for the study of gangs by Thrasher. He argued that needs for security, new experience, response and recognition made life of the adolescent free and wild. Freedom and wildness find fertile ground in areas of physical deterioration, overcrowding and high family mobility.

3.2.5 Critique and significance of the social disorganization theory

Social disorganization theories explain the distribution of delinquency in urban areas and the importance of family influence by highlighting the following aspects:

Firstly, they point out that the physical and economic status of an area has an impact on the functioning of the family unit, which has an important role in the control of adolescent behaviour.

Secondly, disorganized areas, have a high rate of population density and family mobility. Consequently, juveniles from such areas lack competent role models which leads to delinquent behaviour.

Thirdly, high-rate delinquency areas neutralize the functioning of the family, which otherwise should serve as a buffer against delinquency. As a consequence, the family loses its delinquency-resisting potential (Siegel & Senna, 1988:127-128).

Social disorganization theories, however, have suffered from theoretical and methodological shortcomings.

Thornton et al., (1987:129-130) note, firstly, that the theme of urbanization which, according to the theory results in the disintegration of primary controls and the substitution of

secondary relationships is not true. Secondly, perhaps because of the era during which such theories were developed, methodological shortcomings are obvious. Such errors are in the use of statistical techniques and methods of data collection.

3.3 CULTURAL TRANSMISSION THEORY

3.3.1 Introduction

The cultural transmission theory is closely linked to the social disorganization theory, basically because both explain delinquency from a particular cultural atmosphere. The cultural transmission theory, however, has social learning underlying its perspective. The following are the important cultural transmission theories.

3.3.2 Sutherland : Differential Association Theory

Edwin H. Sutherland organized his work around the concept of "differential association". Sutherland's focus was not an association among people, as the phrase implies, but around connections of ideas and behaviour (Nettler, 1984:239).

Sutherland (1949) hypothesized that: "Criminal behaviour is learned in association with those who define such behaviour favourably, and in isolation from those who define it unfavourably, and that a person in an appropriate situation engages in such criminal behaviour if, and only if, the weight of favourable definitions exceeds the weight of unfavourable definitions (Sutherland, 1949:234).

Sutherland proposed that deviance was an outgrowth of a process of learning. Although his theory intended to explain white-collar crime, it became one of the most systematic and

complete theories of delinquency causation. Using the premise of social disorganization theory, Sutherland asserted that such situations provided children with a situation where they could learn to accept deviance as they could conventional behaviour (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:114).

Sutherland proposed nine specific principles of differential association.

- (a) Criminal behaviour is learned.
- (b) Criminal behaviour is learned in interaction with other persons in the process of communication.
- (c) The principal part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal groups.
- (d) When criminal behaviour is learned, the learning includes:
 - (i) techniques of crime, both complicated and simple; and
 - (ii) motives, rationalizations, drives and attitudes.
- (e) The direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of legal codes as favourable or unfavourable.
- (f) A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law over definitions unfavourable to violation of law.
- (g) Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority and intensity.

- (h) The process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anticriminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning.
- (i) While criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values, since noncriminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974:75-76).

Sutherland's idea that deviant behaviour is learned in the same fashion as conforming behaviour, underlies these nine principles. Further, he plays down the influence of the mass media, probably because of the time frame in which the theory was first proposed. For Sutherland, most learning experiences come from primary institutions such as the family, peers and religious institutions.

3.3.3 Burgess and Akers : Differential Association - Reinforcement theory

One of the major criticisms levelled against Sutherland's theory was that it is difficult to test empirically and objectively, measures of association like priority, frequency and intensity of associations (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:50).

Burgess and Akers (1966:128-147) and Akers (1977:39-60) sought to provide a more adequate specification of the learning process than Sutherland's theory by developing differential association - reinforcement theory. Burgess and Akers' theory maintains that deviant behaviour results from a conditioning process in which rewards and punishment shape the behaviour they follow. The behaviour may be weakened by an aversive stimulus, or positive punishment, as well as by loss of reward,

or negative punishment. People learn from others who are important to them certain norms and attitudes that define behaviours as good or bad. Such definitions are important in reinforcing behaviour as serving as cues for behaviour (Akers, Krohn, Lanza-Kaduce & Radosevich, 1979:637-638). Thus, rewards and punishment shape deviant and conforming behaviour through rewards and avoidance of punishment and weaken this type of behaviour by aversive stimuli and lack of rewards. The influence of rewards and punishment on behaviour can be demonstrated as in table 3.1 below:

TABLE 3.1 THE INFLUENCE OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENT

STIMULUS	BEHAVIOUR INCREASES REINFORCEMENT	BEHAVIOUR DECREASES PUNISHMENT
+	Positive reinforcement (reward received)	Positive punishment (Punishment received)
-	Negative reinforcement (punishment removed or avoided)	Negative punishment (reward removed or lost)

(Akers, 1977:46)

Differential Association-Reinforcement theory therefore, describes a situation where two alternative acts, both produce and are reinforced by the same or similar consequences. The situation with higher probability of being maintained, will be the one that is reinforced most frequently and in greatest amount. The more the delinquent defines his behaviour as positively good or at least justified, the more likely he or she is to engage in it (Hagan, 1987:169-170).

3.3.4 Miller : Lower-class culture theory

Walter Miller (1958) proposes a cultural transmission theory which explains delinquency in terms of pressures exerted by the lower-class culture on the behaviour of the youth (Miller, 1958:6).

According to Miller the lower-class culture is based on a "female-based" household which, through its own structure, fails to provide modes and models of conventional behaviour for its adolescent males. The family in the lower-class culture is organized around a female, not a male. Man may be present, but not in the stable form of marriage known among other classes (Reid, 1982:129). According to Miller (1958:7-8), it is the one-sex peer unit rather than the two-parent family unit which represents the most significant relational unit for both sexes in lower-class communities.

The lower-class culture theory of Miller is further characterized by six focal concerns, which are areas or issues which command widespread and persistent attention and a high degree of emotional involvement. The behaviour types induced by these focal concerns, can be represented as follows:

TABLE 3.2 FOCAL CONCERNS OF THE LOWER-CLASS CULTURE AND BEHAVIOURAL PATTERNS INDUCED

BEHAVIOURAL VALUES	BEHAVIOURAL PATTERNS	
Trouble	Law abiding behaviour	Law violating behaviour
Toughness	Physical prowess fearlessness, bravery	Weakness, effimacy ineptitude, timidity cowardice
Smartness	Ability to outfox, con, dupe and shrewdness	Gullibility, slowness and dull-wittedness
Exitement	Thrill, risk danger, activity	Boredom, safeness passivity
Fate	Fortunate, lucky	Ill-omened and unlucky
Autonomy	Freedom from control and authority	Presence of strong authority

(Miller, 1958:9).

Following is a brief explanation of each focal concern:

Trouble. Getting in and out of trouble is seen by Miller as major preoccupation of lower-class life. For lower-class youth preoccupation with trouble follows fighting, clashes with law enforcement agencies, and having clashes over spoils with other groups.

Toughness. Toughness lays emphasis on physical prowess, fearlessness and bravery. Partly, this is a response of lower-class males raised in female-headed families (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:121).

Smartness. Smartness involved the ability to outwit, outfox, outsmart, dupe and con. To be outsmarted or conned is a sign of foolishness to the lower-class youth. Smartness is basically an idea of being "streetwise". The concern of smartness is on how to manipulate the environment and others to your own benefit without being subjected to sanctions of anykind (Whitehead & Lab, 1990:121).

Excitement. Miller (1958:8) says that all preceding focal concerns are combined with the search for excitement. The search for excitement is linked to fluctuations between periods of exhausting repetitive work and short-weekend outbursts of relief and excitement. Excitement invariably leads to trouble with others and a display of toughness (Hagan, 1987:178).

Fate. Resignation to fate in the lower-class youth leads to acceptance of fatal-outcomes. If someone is unlucky he cannot escape being arrested by police, punished by teachers or parents, etc. Lower-class youths do not do things correctly, they believe and have been socialized to focus on luck.

Autonomy. Finally, Miller (1958:13) asserts that lower-class adolescent males have an ambivalent desire for autonomy. One side of this is explicitly verbalized with assertions such as "no one is gonna push me around" or "you can take your job and shove it". The argument is that since being controlled is equated to being cared for, attempts are made to test the severity or strictness of authority to see if it remains firm.

In sum, Miller's theory asserts, firstly that violent behaviour of lower class youth can be ascribed to the concern with trouble and display of toughness. Secondly, concern with autonomy leads lower-class youth to play truant, runaway or "sleep-out". Thirdly, to display smartness they would indulge in "joy-riding" and taking of risks. Fourthly, for excitement they steal, shoplift, get drunk, and destroy public or private property. Finally, fate would decide on whether they get away with everything or not.

3.3.5 Sykes and Matza: Techniques of neutralization

Many theories of deviant behaviour assume that the deviant child is markedly different from the "rest of other children" and that absence of control leads to delinquency. Sykes and Matza (1957:664-670) suggest that similarities actually outnumber the differences. Delinquency is "episodic" since delinquent acts occur at times when the child feels released from the moral constraints of the law (Thornton et al., 1987:147). Put otherwise, the culture of law learned by children and transmitted to them by the family is "tested" by drifting into delinquency. This argument is based on the observation that:

(a) delinquents exhibit guilt or shame when they violate law;

- (b) they frequently accord approval to certain conforming figures; and
- (c) they often distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate targets of deviance (Hagan, 1987:159).

According to this theory delinquents are committed to the social order they offend. Further, delinquents learn to extend legitimate legal defences to fit their own situations. To support the theory, Sykes and Matza (1957:667) proposed five techniques of neutralization: "We call these justifications of deviant behaviour techniques of neutralization, and we believe these techniques make up a crucial component of Sutherland's definitions favourable to the violation of the law".

Techniques of neutralization presented by Sykes and Matza are as follows:

Denial of responsibility. The legal system takes into consideration the intent of the act and also "excuses" from responsibility acts committed involuntarily. Delinquents, likewise, rationalize their behaviour as unintentional and "give the problem away" to bad friends, unloving parents, broken families, unemployed parents and poverty. As a consequence of the influence of alcohol and drugs, delinquents may view themselves as seized by "momentary insanity" thereby excusing themselves from responsibility.

Denial of injury. Criminal law distinguishes between acts that are wrong in themselves; *mala in se* and acts that are illegal but not immoral; *mala prohibita*. Similarly, if delinquents interpret their acts clearly not hurting anyone, they can neutralize their guilt. Damage to public property or theft of government funds can be justified as compensation for taxes

paid by parents; auto-theft as borrowing from someone who is not using his car; and shoplifting as taking something from someone who can afford losing a small item (Thornton et al., 1987:147).

Denial of victim. Juvenile delinquents draw a sharp distinction between those who can be victimized and those who cannot. In this technique delinquents conceive themselves as avengers and victims are transformed to wrongdoers. Assaults on teachers and police can be justified as settlement of scores because of unfair treatment, and thefts from a "crooked" store-owner as attempts to balance scale (Thornton et al., 1987:148).

Condemnation of condemners. Delinquents shift the focus of attention from their acts to the motives of their accusers, thereby denying authority figures the right to condemn their delinquent actions. Police may be condemned as brutal and teachers as having favours. The aim is to shift the attention from delinquent actions in order to neutralize the normative sanctioning system the authorities represents.

Appeal to higher loyalties. The law recognizes that self-defence justifies certain actions that might otherwise be criminal. A person attacked in his home has a legal right and moral duty to defend his lair. Similarly, the delinquent subculture expects that a member should defend his group. In a conflict between legal demands and claims of friendship, delinquents present themselves as acknowledging legal demands but not being able to "squeal on a friend" (Sykes & Matza, 1957:670).

Sykes and Matza (1957) therefore, supplement Sutherland's differential association theory and Burgess and Akers's theory by providing a base of rationalizations and attitudes favourable for the violation of law. Their theory adopts "a middle of the road-stand" and does not present anything new about delinquency causation. According to the theory, therefore, delinquents infringe norms; infringe regulations; engage in violent behaviour, abuse alcohol and drugs; commit theft; and engage in malicious damage to property, but readily justify their behaviour in terms of the accepted normative system.

3.3.6 Critique and significance of the cultural transmission theory

Cultural transmission theory emphasizes that deviant behaviour results from values transmitted by primary groups to its individuals. In this respect the family is the central point of departure.

Sutherland's theory maintains that if the juvenile hangs around with delinquent friends he is likely to define deviant behaviour favourably. Burgess and Akers (1968) supplement Sutherland's theory by highlighting the importance of family discipline in the form of rewards and punishment (Carey & McAnany, 1984:127).

Sykes and Matza (1957) deal with rationalizations of culturally transmitted behaviour. Their techniques of neutralization are, however, criticized for two reasons. Firstly, many persons do not have an attitude of respect toward the rules of society. Secondly, many people feel no moral obligation to conform regardless of personal advantage.

3.4 SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY

3.4.1 Introduction

The major question raised by most deviance theorists is why some people do not conform and are, therefore, deviant. The social control theories on the other hand question: "Why does anyone conform; that is, why are we not all deviants"? (Reid, 1982:160).

The control theory of delinquency has its roots in social disorganization theory. It differs from other sociological theories in that whilst they assume that people are "good" unless they are driven "bad", the control theory assumes that people have equal propensity for both "good" and "bad" (Hagan, 1987:164). Further, the society attempts to impose the widely shared norms and values on its members through certain forms of control. Deviance occurs, therefore, when social controls are either weakened or experience breakdown (Hirschi, 1969:34).

3.4.2 Reiss: Personal and social controls

In 1951, Albert Reiss defined delinquency as: "... the behaviour consequent to the failure of the personal and social controls to produce behaviour in conformity with the norms of the social system to which legal penalties are attached" (Reiss, 1951:196).

Reiss viewed delinquency as the failure of primary group relationships to exercise social controls or to provide nondelinquent roles with which the child may identify. Reiss (1951:197-200) found that delinquents put on probation fail to complete their probation periods because of the following:

- (a) They came from homes supported by welfare.
- (b) The parents were divorced or one parent was deceased.
- (c) There was an open breach or gross incompatibility with the natural parents.
- (d) Unfavourable moral ideas had been institutionalized.

According to Reiss (1951) the family has an important role in keeping youth from becoming entangled with juvenile justice. The family is a source of social control and the child must identify with parental noncriminal roles (Thornton et al., 1987:145).

Furthermore, the peer group may exert a controlling influence on adolescents when the groups engage in either legitimate or illegitimate activities. Reiss (1951) also noted that whilst the peer group has an influence on behaviour conformity, deviant peer groups may serve to weaken existing conforming controls.

3.4.3 Toby: Stake in conformity

For Toby (1957) the family is largely responsible for preparation of the youth and the society receive them as the final product. The society must then provide a meaningful place for its members (Hagan, 1987:167).

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 a reason for being at school; a stake in conforming behaviour.

Toby noted, further, 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 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 achievements, is more likely to conform than would a child from economically and socially unsuccessful family.

3.4.4 Nye: Family relationships

Nye (1958) suggested that the family contributes to social control through internal controls, indirect controls, direct controls and needs satisfaction (Nye, 1958:5-8). In Nye's view, since instincts play a minor role in human behaviour, it is conformity and not deviation that must be learned. It is through the family that the child internalizes norms and values and these serve as controls for future behaviour.

Following is an analysis of Nye's social controls.

Internal Control. Through internalized control the family internalizes the mores, norms, and values, consequently developing the conscience of the child. Internal control is self-enforcing and pervasive; it is lost only when a person loses effective consciousness. The lack of the effectiveness of internal control is a consequence of lack of agreement on mores, frustration of mores; nonachievement of basic values, and limitations of guilt as a punishment factor. The lack of

agreement on mores and their frustration is the consistency with which adults provide conforming models for the child (Nye, 1958:6).

Indirect control. According to Nye (1958), affection and rejection from parents plays 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).

Nye views attitudes towards parents as varying along the continuum of complete acceptance and complete rejection. The development of parent-child relationship as far as affection and rejection is concerned occurs in the following manner:

- (a) Complete acceptance occurs when relationship changes from dependency to affectionate more independent status, and the parent is seen as an 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.

Direct control. The society does not depend on internal and indirect control alone but restraint on individuals is exercised by police and other law enforcement agencies; or

entirely by disapproval, ridicule, ostracism, banishment and similar techniques used by primary groups like the family and peers (Nye, 1958:7).

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; is actually with physical limits of the home; or is otherwise under the surveillance of adults" (Nye, 1958:7-8).

Needs satisfaction. Nye (1958:8) identifies three essential needs that need satisfaction, namely affection, recognition and security. If these needs are satisfied, adequately, without delay, a minimum of indirect and direct control is necessary. The family greatly affects the satisfaction of these needs and if the child can achieve them in socially approved ways outside the home, there will be less pressure to achieve them through delinquent acts. Furthermore, as there are limitations upon what can be achieved by direct and indirect control, so are the limitations to needs satisfaction. For example, adolescents have to learn that there are wants and needs that have to be deferred such as the need for sex, money, etc.

3.4.5 Hirschi : Elements of bond

Travis Hirschi (1969) has perhaps formulated the most comprehensive social control theory. Hirschi (1969) adopted Durkheim's view that the more weakened the groups to which the individual belongs, the less he depends on them, and the more he depends on himself and recognizes no other rules of conduct than what are founded on his private interest (Reid, 1982:160).

Hirschi (1969) identified four elements of bond, namely attachment, commitment, involvement and belief.

Attachment. Attachment of an individual to significant others such as parents and peers provides constraints on delinquent behaviour. According to Hirschi (1969:86) when parental attachment is strong, parental values (presumed to be anti-criminal) are more 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 super-ego (Hindelang, 1973:478).

Commitment. Commitment refers to the investment of time and energy toward achieving goals like education, high status occupation, passage to adult status and commitment to family values and demands. 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. It is the family that supports commitment. In return the substantially committed adolescents are less likely to run the risk of forfeiting these investments by infringing the law (Hindelang, 1973:481).

Hirschi (1969: 182) maintained that commitment to values and family demands is linked to material and nonmaterial objects that we accept as good without having to justify their goodness, except, perhaps by showing their consistency with other values. It refers to commitment to conformity-producing values which is at the heart of the control theory (Arnold & Brungardt, 1983:121).

Involvement. Involvement means to be busy; too busy, hopefully, to deviate. If a child is involved in time-consuming work, in school related activities, and in upholding anti-delinquent family values, he or she will have little time for delinquency (Hirschi, 1969:192-196).

Involvement by participating in conventional activities such as going to church with parents, and spending time with family members in doing household chores generally means less delinquency, apparently because the child conforms to ideas about appropriate behaviour for children (Thornton et al., 1987:149-150).

Belief. Finally, Hirschi views belief in family values, norms, and regulations as important elements of bond. Hindelang (1973:483) says: "Control theory postulates that delinquent behaviour does not result from beliefs which require delinquency but instead delinquency is made possible by the absence of beliefs that forbid delinquency". Hirschi (1969:203) is of the opinion that a child who does not like school, the child who is unconcerned about opinions of parents and teachers, the child who tells lies and does not believe in the values held by his parents, is unlikely to feel that the demands of law are binding on his conduct.

3.4.6 Critique and significance of the social control theory

The social control theory has elicited wide response from researchers especially on sex differentials and attitudes of nondelinquents, subcultural delinquents and psychopathic delinquents (Thornton et al., 1987:150).

Proponents of the social control theory contend that sex differentials in delinquency reflect variations in ties to the social bond. Precisely, females are less involved in delinquency because they have greater ties to the social bond than males. Females have a greater degree of attachment to parents because they are more closely supervised by parents than boys. Nye (1958:7) says that cultural dictates of society permits boys to be adventurous and spend most of their time outside the home.

Mergaree and Golden (1973:427-439) compared attitudes of non-delinquents, subcultural delinquents and psychopathic delinquents towards their parents. Nondelinquents expressed most favourable attitudes towards both parents than the other two groups. Psychopathic delinquents expressed most unfavourable attitudes, and subcultural delinquents displayed favourable attitudes towards mothers and unfavourable attitudes towards fathers.

Social control theory, however, utilizes concepts which are difficult to operationalize, like internalized control. Further, the assumption that there is general agreement on norms and values is disputed by the conflict theory.

3.5 **GENERAL STRAIN THEORY**

3.5.1 **Introduction**

Strain theory views delinquency from the perspective of strain or discrepancy between high aspirations and low expectations of achieving socio-culturally determined goals (Carey & McAnany, 1984:144).

The strain theory differs from social control and cultural transmission theories on the following:

(a) **Social relationships that lead to delinquency.**

Strain theories concentrate on negative relationships that prevent individuals from achieving positively value goals. Social learning theories focus on positive relationships with deviant others and social control theories focus on the absence of significant relationships with conventional persons (Agnew, 1992:49).

(b) **Motivation for delinquency.**

Strain theories focus on negative states that pressurise adolescents into delinquency which lead adolescents to make use of illegitimate channels of goal achievement. Social learning theories view delinquency as a desirable, or a least justifiable form of behaviour under certain circumstances. Social control theories regard the absence of significant relationships as "freeing" the adolescent to engage in delinquent behaviour (Agnew, 1992:49).

3.5.2 Merton: Social Structure and Anomie

Merton (1938) linked Durkheim's ideas to deviance in American society by looking at variations of deviant behaviour by social class. He located answers to deviance to the social structure and the strain it places on individuals who are disadvantaged by their class. For Merton, the society presents achievement as desirable to all its members, yet not all members can partake in the rewards (Merton 1938:672-682).

Merton distinguished between cultural goals and cultural means. Thus, Merton's hypothesis on Social Structure and Anomie is that: "... a state of anomie is produced whenever there is a discrepancy between the goals of human action and the socially structured legitimate means of achieving them" (Nettler, 1984:207). Deviant behaviour, therefore, breeds between aspirations and possibilities. Both the goals and means are culturally determined. Deviance results from goals, particularly materialistic goals, held to be desirable and possible for all, that motivate behaviour in a social context which provides limited channels of achievement (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:45).

Merton (1938:676) charted a typology of individualistic adaptations to a state of anomie as follows:

TABLE 3.3 INDIVIDUAL ADAPTATIONS TO ANOMIE

MODE OF ADAPTATION	CULTURAL GOALS	CULTURAL MEANS
Conformity	+	+
Innovation	+	-
Ritualism	-	+
Retreatism	-	-
Rebellion	<u>±</u>	<u>±</u>

+ = acceptance

- = rejection

± = rejection of existing value and substitution

Conformity. Conformity is the most common adaptation occurring when persons accept both cultural goals and means.

Innovation. Innovation occurs when the cultural goal is acceptable but non-cultural means are embraced. Such an adaptation results from heavy incentive for goal attainment and restricted access to legitimate means. For example, a juvenile who breaks into a residence with the intention to steal and then sells the goods is an innovative thinker.

Ritualism. Ritualism involves abandonment of cultural goals of success but strict adherence to the cultural means. A good example would be a juvenile who stresses on studying at school without concern for success.

Retreatism. Retreatism involves rejection of both goals and means. Retreatists are represented by alcoholics and drug addicts, or youth who join certain religious cults that force them to "leave" this world, e.g. the Rastafarians and hippie cults.

Rebellion. Rebellion entails rejection of both means and goals and a substitution of a new order. Juveniles who fall in this adaptation threaten the status quo and the social structure finds it necessary to keep them in check.

Merton's theory emphasizes the strain produced by the social structure and positions occupied by individuals, which depend on the alternatives they are forced to select.

3.5.3 Cohen: Delinquent subculture theory

Cohen (1955) views society as comprised of dominant middle-class values which require ambition, responsibility, possession of skills, readiness to postpone gratification, control of physical aggression and respect for property, and working-class values which comprise of emotional irrepressibility, free use of violence and aggression (Hagan, 1987:188).

Cohen's strain theory views working-class delinquency as a protest against the norms and values of the middle-class. When the working-class boy attends school his values conflict with those of the middle-class and is assessed through a middle-class "measuring-rod" (Cohen, 1955:86). Delinquency is seen as a function of family conditions a function of social and economic limitations suffered by children of unemployment and unwanted values.

Cohen (1955:74) suggests that a critical element of working-class life is the incapability of parents in socializing their adolescents for entry into a dominant middle-class value system. The reactions to the middle-class measuring-rod is one of the following behaviours.

- (a) **Stable corner-boy reaction.** The stable corner-boy reaction is caused by strain resulting from status deprivation. A working-class boy is not overtly delinquent but plays truant, gambles, associates with bad companions, and is a stable member of the working-class peers (Siegel & Senna, 1988:138-139).

- (b) **College-boy reaction.** The college-boy embraces the cultural and social values of the middle-class. Cohen (1955:131) views this type of youth as one who embarks on an almost hopeless path, "...since he is ill-equipped academically, socially and linguistically to achieve long-deferred rewards of middle-class life (Siegel & Senna, 1988:139).
- (c) **Delinquent-boy reaction.** The delinquent boy adopts a set of norms that are in direct opposition with middle-class norms. He becomes a member of a delinquent subculture which manifests itself into short-run hedonism, negativism, non-utilitarianism and versatility (Siegel & Senna, 1988:139).

3.5.4 Cloward and Ohlin : Differential opportunity structure theory

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) felt that Merton's depiction of pressures that motivate individuals to delinquency did not explain the type of crime pursued. They argued that in addition to considering young people's access to legitimate avenues to success, as stressed by Merton, explanations of delinquency must also take into account access to illegitimate avenues of gaining cultural goals, that is, avenues not condoned by dominant values (Bortner, 1988:223). Further, they stress the role of learning in the process of becoming delinquent and argue that even as not all adolescents have equal access to legitimate avenues to success, not all adolescents have equal access to illegitimate or delinquent avenues to fulfilling desires. Whether or not a young person has access to illegitimate ways of pursuing cultural goals influences whether or not he or she will become delinquent.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) therefore, unite Merton and Sutherland's theories and focuses at the juvenile delinquent, not in terms of either the legitimate or the illegitimate systems, but in terms of both. To explain delinquency, particularly urban juvenile gang delinquency, they identified three subcultures, namely criminal, conflict and retreatist subcultures.

- (a) **Criminal subculture.** The criminal subculture is organized around goals of theft, extortion and other illegal activities to gain income. The link between illegitimate and legitimate roles is necessary for its development. The youth must develop connections with both mature criminals and law representatives. According to Cloward and Ohlin (1960:165) the criminal, like the occupant of a conventional role, must establish relationship with other categories of persons, all of whom contribute in one way or another to the successful performance of criminal acts.

- (b) **Conflict subculture.** A conflict subculture is characterized by the use of violence and destructive assaults. Members of a conflict subculture stress the value of a tough reputation of being a "macho", exhibiting masculinity through violent victimization. Cloward and Ohlin (1960:253) say that in the conflict subculture a "bopper" is valued for his "heart". He does not "chicken out" even when confronted by superior force.

Conflict subculture thrives in disorganized slums when neither success routes nor controls are present. It develops in areas where there are no adult models who can channel juveniles into a legitimate or illegitimate career (Thornton et al., 1987:136).

(c) **Retreatist subculture.** Youths who fail in criminal and conflict subcultures because of competition in these spheres withdraw to a so-called retreatist subculture and build their culture around alcohol and drugs (Hagan 1987, 195). For the most part, retreatists reject violence and instead place a premium on hustling and conning people.

3.5.5 Critique and significance of the strain theory

Proponents of the strain theory have met objections from several quarters. Merton's theory, in particular, has been criticized for its failure to recognize the diversity of culture among societies; for its failure to answer the question why people resort to one particular mode of adaptation; and that his theory cannot be applied to other societies other than American societies (Thornton et al., 1987:136).

Cohen's delinquent subculture theory has not gone unscathed. Kitsuse and Dietrick (1959:208-215) point out that Cohen, infact, never formulated a theory of delinquency but accounted for the content and distribution of a delinquent subculture as a response to a hostile environment. Cohen, further, was prejudiced with his failure to produce evidence that working-class boys aspired for middle-class norms.

Cloward and Ohlin's theory somehow broadened the approach to delinquency by explaining gang delinquency in terms of both legitimate and illegitimate channels. Further, they accepted that lower-class youths suffer from disparity between what they are led to want and what is available to them, that is, they have internalized the values of law-abiding citizens but fail to live up to them because of poor socialization (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960:16).

The significance of the strain theory lies in the fact that the pressures that push delinquents to behavioural abnormalities are brought to light. The material and immaterial goals of society actually strain juveniles who, because of poor socialization, cannot hope to achieve them.

3.6 THEORETICAL MODELS RELEVANT TO THE STUDY

From the preceding theoretical models it is obvious that the search for causes of juvenile delinquency as influenced by the family is complex and no single theory can explain, nor specifically be determined and applied in all cases. Johnson as cited by Glanz (1990a:259), points out that the "either/or" approach is rejected in favour of drawing together the most useful and tenable features of major theories, incorporating them into a coherent conception of delinquency causation model.

For the purposes of the present study, causal models (independent variables) constitute measures of family influence namely family structure, parental economic activities and parental or family controls. Included are sex and age factors on which the family has differential influences. For the measures of delinquency a self-report index of 31 delinquency items is constructed (cf. paragraph 2.5.6.2 & Annexure "A").

Following is a brief elaboration on the measures of family influence and measures of delinquency.

3.6.1 Measures of family influence

Measures of family influence were constructed after consulting a variety of research studies and theoretical explanations that are relevant to the present study. Below is an elaboration on each of the measures.

3.6.1.1 Sex and delinquency

Sex is a nominal variable for which male and female constitute categories. The relationship between sex and delinquency can be analyzed from various theoretical angles and differential influence of the family thereupon.

The strain theory (Merton, 1938; Cohen 1955; Cloward & Ohlin, 1960) suggests that the goals and means are culturally determined for males and females. Studies (Morris, 1964) suggest that financial success is not a goal for most females who seek, culturally, fulfilment in marriage and affective relationships. Consequently females would report less delinquent behaviour than males (Elliott, 1988:3).

Other theorists (Lombroso, 1911; Thomas, 1923; Pollak, 1950) ascribed male-female differential rates to the females' psycho-biological "inferiority". These theories have, however, been largely discarded in favour of theories that either employ radical approach (Konopka, 1966; Hagan, 1988) or explain delinquency of women on similar theoretical basis as male delinquency.

For the analysis of sex and delinquency, the t-test statistic is employed to measure the differences in self-reported delinquency between male and female respondents (cf. table 2.21).

3.6.1.2 Age and delinquency

General agreement in research is that, firstly young persons are arrested and convicted to a disproportionate rate to their numbers in the population; secondly, juvenile delinquency reaches its peak between the ages of 16 to 18 years; and, thirdly, as age increases so is offending from young adulthood to old age (Greenberg, 1977:191).

Age is a neutral concept which, however, obtains its socio-cultural, socio-psychological and legal and economic significance when correlated with delinquency.

The cultural transmission theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974; Miller, 1958) portray delinquent behaviour as a normal reaction of cultural values that are transmitted from one adolescent generation to the next. Warr (1993) has demonstrated that the influence of peers on delinquents can be ascribed to learning processes or cultural influences on adolescents.

Most important theories that have sought to explain the relationship between age and delinquency are the distance theories (Shover, 1985; Greenberg, 1977; Baldwin, 1985) that have explained the linear relationship between age and crime. To a large degree these theories have provided a base for the explanation of this relationship.

The sample of the present study consists of respondents aged between 13 to 21 years. For statistical analysis three age categories are devised, namely 13 to 15 years; 16 to 18 years and 19 to 21 years. Through the use of ANOVA the present study seek to establish the differences in self-reported delinquency among the three age-groups and through Spearman Rank-Order

Correlation Coefficient the linear relationship between age and delinquency within age groups would be established (cf. table 2.15 and table 2.20).

3.6.1.3 The family structure and parental economic activities

The family is a primary socializing agency that prepares the child for adulthood. For adolescents, the family environment is responsible for certain functions, namely economic, socializing, protection and religious function.

For the family to carry out its functions its structure has to be a normal one. Social disorganization theories (Shaw & McKay, 1969; Thrasher, 1936; Thomas, 1923) point out that delinquency is related to the family structure. These theories highlight the fact that because of rapid industrialization and the breakdown of the family through divorce and related factors; the family fails to carry out such functions.

To operationalize this factor, the present study addresses four variables namely the marital status of parents; the size of the family; father and mother's economic activity. For the statistical analyses of these variables the Chi-square statistic is used to test the hypotheses of differences of categories in self-reported delinquency (cf. table 2.16; table 2.17; table 2.18; & table 2.19).

3.6.1.4 Family control and juvenile delinquency

Just as the broken home and family size can affect the stability of the family structure, methods of control or processes and forms of child-upbringing can play a part in the development of delinquent behaviour. In this aspect social

control theories (Reiss, 1951; Toby, 1957; Nye, 1958; Hirschi, 1969) have laid an emphasis on the importance of social control on delinquent behaviour.

For the present study, four areas of family control are identified, namely family religiousness, parental supervision, discipline and parental affection. The association between these family control scales and delinquency is measured statistically by means of the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (cf. tables 2.11, 2.12, 2.13 & 2.14).

3.6.1.4.1 Family religiousness

Religiousness of the family and religious training of adolescents has for a long time been assumed to prevent delinquency by promoting the development of moral values, acceptance of conventional authority and instilling internal controls, among the youth. Church attendance, belonging to religious, prayer and belief in the existence of a supernatural being are the common measures of religiousness of individuals.

Most researchers (Hirschi & Stark, 1969; Foster, 1988; Elifson, Petersen & Hadaway, 1983; Sargent, 1953; Gannon, 1967) agree that religious control is related to delinquent behaviour. Their point of departure is that any weakening of this form of social control results in extended rates of delinquency.

Religiousness is bound into the moral fibre of any given society. Deviation from religious faith equals to deviation from cultural bonds which variably leads to deviant behaviour.

To measure family religiousness in the present study the following religiousness items are used, namely discussion of religious issues with parents; attendance of church services; and holding of family prayers.

3.6.1.4.2 Parental supervision

One of the primary responsibilities of the family is socialization of the youth is that of teaching them the "thou shalt's" and the "thou shall nots"; teaching them the expectations and goals of society; and teaching them the means of satisfying desires. In this aspect direct control of parents is thought by researchers (Hirschi, 1969; Slocum and Stone, 1963) to have an effect in checking delinquent behaviour. Being supervised by parents with homework, in playing games; and doing household chores serve to ensure that youth look upon parents as dependable "friends" whose supervision is necessary.

In the present study the proposition is that supervision by parents (father and mother) is inversely related to delinquency. The following items constitute, therefore, the parental supervision scale:

- (i) Assistance with school work (homework).
- (ii) Playing games with parents.
- (iii) Doing house-hold chores with parents.

3.6.1.4.3 Parental discipline

Parental supervision is reflected in the form of discipline the adolescent receives from parents. Every parent uses some type of discipline in rearing children, even though it may differ from situation to situation and from child to child, as well as in content and form.

Researchers (Glueck & Glueck, 1950, Nye, 1958; McCord et al., 1959) point out that:

- * disciplinary practices of parents are important in guiding children toward a clear conception of differences of right and wrong;
- * wrong disciplinary practices have serious consequences in the development of child's personality; and
- * some forms of discipline (inconsistent, erratic, physical) lead to certain types of deviant behaviour.

For the present study methods of discipline are considered important for self-reported delinquency. The proposition is that the amount of discipline the child receives from parents is related to delinquency. Family discipline items measuring the extent of discipline consist of the following:

- (i) Physical punishment with a stick.
- (ii) Refusal of permission to visit friends.
- (iii) Verbal warnings.

3.6.1.4.4 Parental affection

Family control is affected by the extent of affection and rejection the child receives from parents. Research studies (Nye, 1958; Linden & Hackler, 1973) have shown that children who do not find love and affection from their parents, as well as support and supervision, often resort to forces outside the family which are often deviant in nature. Such parents spend less time with their children, do not praise their children in their achievements, and do not encourage them to do good things.

The implications of the social control theory (Hirschi, 1969; Nye, 1958; Reiss, 1951) are that adolescents who are less attached to parents are relatively free from binding morals of the society. This is a consequence of less affection and rejection from parents. The cultural transmission theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974) also imply that youth who experience less affective ties with their parents become socialized in delinquent peer-groups that define delinquency in favourable terms.

In the present study the proposition is that parental affection is related to delinquency. Parental affection in the present study is measured with the following items:

- (i) Dependence on parents for advice.
- (ii) Praise from parents for good things achieved.
- (iii) Encouragement from parents to do good things.

3.6.2 Measures of delinquency

In tables 2.5 to 2.9 a frequency distribution of self-reported delinquency among the respondents who constitute the sample (N=560) is presented. The measure of self-report delinquency contains 31 delinquency items that span a wide range of delinquent acts from socially disapproved, but not illegal acts through to serious offences (Annexure "A").

The delinquency items are grouped into five sub-scales calculated as the sum of the numbers associated with the categorical responses to the relevant items. Following is a brief elaboration on each delinquency scale.

3.6.2.1 Norm infringements

Norm infringements refer to those delinquent acts which are not necessarily forbidden by law but their nature affects the well-being of the juvenile and detrimental to society. Such acts are actually status offences and only lead to welfare intervention if repeatedly committed (Glanz, 1990a:261).

Delinquency items included under norm infringement scale are the following:

- (i) Staying away from school without a valid excuse.
- (ii) Being disobedient to parents.
- (iii) Telling lies to teachers, parents or other people in authority.
- (iv) Sleeping-out of home without permission.

(v) Objecting to discipline from parents.

(vi) Raising objection when parents choose girl/boy friends.

3.6.2.2 Regulation infringements

With the regulation infringement scale consideration of the fact that the law differentiates between crimes *mala in se* and crimes *mala prohibita* is made. Regulation infringements refer to the latter, that is laws promulgated by the state to regulate behaviours of members of society. Infringement of these regulations lead to official action by law enforcement agencies.

There are a variety of these regulations but only those that are within the abilities of young persons to commit are included. They are as follows:

(i) Driving a motor vehicle without a driver's licence.

(ii) Driving a motor vehicle beyond prescribed speed limit on a public road.

(iii) Entering a bar or bottle-store or any place where liquor is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years.

(iv) Buying any type of liquor without parental permission.

(v) Watching a video or film which is reserved for "adults-only" without parental permission.

3.6.2.3 Alcohol and drug abuse

Adolescents who use alcohol and drugs become involved in the juvenile justice process in a number of ways. For a young person alcohol and drug use are illegal activities as are the dealing in these substances. Beyond that, their use results in other types of delinquent activities such as violence and theft to support the habit. Moreover, it is unquestionable that a large proportion of youths who are involved with the juvenile justice process are regular users of alcohol and drugs.

The society tends to be tolerant of alcohol use but alcohol is strictly speaking a potentially addictive drug which acts on the nervous system causing both physical and psychological changes. Adolescents who use alcohol tend to use drugs. Therefore, it would be artificial to consider alcohol as a separate problem (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:322).

The significance of the family influence on drug and alcohol abuse lies in the family culture itself. Firstly, adolescents learn to use these substances from parents who through their controls act as models for abstinence or indulgence. Secondly sex and age factors are important in determining the extent of indulgence. Thirdly, the family structure has a bearing on abstinence or indulgence. Lastly, besides the fact that in the South African law it is prohibited to sell alcohol to persons under the age of 18 years and an offence to deal or use a dependency-producing drug, the society does not approve of drunkenness or drug addiction (Middleton, 1982:579-580).

The alcohol and drug abuse scale in the present study consists of the following delinquency items.

- (i) Inhaling glue, petrol or benzine in order to get a "kick".

- (ii) Taking mandrax or dagga or any drug to get a "kick".
- (iii) Selling mandrax, dagga or and drugs with the aim of getting money.
- (iv) Drinking of beer, wine or hard liquor (brandy, spirits, vodka, etc) without parental permission.

3.6.2.4 Violent behaviour

Violent behaviour includes all forms of behaviour employed by individuals to achieve specific objectives. It is a meaningful form of behaviour irrespective of whether the pursued objective is acceptable or unacceptable; is to be realized immediately or some time in the future; and is consciously or subsequently pursued.

For violence to be criminal it must satisfy all the legal requirements of crime, that is there must be intention to commit crime; a violation of law; a specific victim; and punishment reserved by the state (Cloete, 1982:54).

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

- (i) Taking part in fist-fighting.
- (ii) Injuring somebody with a weapon like stone, knife, stick etc in a fight.

(iii)Intimidating (bullying or threatening) somebody just to see how he or she reacts.

(iv) Being loud, rowdy or unruly in a public place.

3.6.2.5 Theft

In constructing theft delinquency scale, the following important aspects have been taken into consideration:

- (a) Theft is a common law offence that covers a wide field, ranging from pilfering to fraudulent embezzlement of funds.
- (b) Related to theft but different in interpretation, is robbery and housebreaking with the intention to steal and theft which involves some force.

By definition, common theft is the unlawful, intentional taking or removal of a movable object that belongs to someone else (Van Rooyen and Snyman, 1982:99). Housebreaking with intention to steal is breaking open a house or similar structure with an intention to steal something from the premises. Robbery, on the other hand is the unlawful, intentional violent removal and appropriation of a movable object belonging to another person. It is theft by means of violence in which the perpetrator must have intent to overcome the victims resistance by means of violence (Van Rooyen & Snyman, 1982:103).

Self-report studies (Glanz, 1990b; Canter, 1982) measure theft by differentiating in terms of value or amount reported stolen. Whilst this is recommended, the problem arises when respondents

cannot with certainty give the value of the object they have stolen. Consequently, no differentiation in value is done in the present study.

The following items constitute the theft scale:

- (i) Taking things from a shop or elsewhere without paying for them.
- (ii) Taking or "borrowing" anything from school-mates without their consent.
- (iii) Taking money (any amount) without owner's consent from home, school, friends or elsewhere.
- (iv) Breaking into a house or vehicle with the intention to take something without the owner's consent.
- (v) Driving or taking a motor-vehicle without the owner's consent.
- (vi) Taking anything from somebody against his or her own will.
- (vii) Avoiding paying in a taxi or bus by sneaking in.

3.6.2.6 Malicious damage to property

Mgadi (1992:116) remarks that malicious damage to property is one of the offences that has not interested criminologists and has a rare occurrence among institutionalized juvenile offenders. Only acts of vandalism on school property are addressed without looking at malicious damage to property outside the school precincts.

It is not necessary to render a detailed account of contemporary violence which has strong political undertones in South Africa. However, burning down of schools, destruction of public property, and many acts of arson are a common feature of violence in black residential areas in South Africa.

Sociologists, journalists and political analysts ascribe this to political upheavals. The validity of this view is beyond the scope of the present study. Suffice is to say that this has a strong delinquent character.

Malicious damage of property is ascribed to many conflicting situations in which adolescents find themselves. Strain theorists (Cohen, 1955; Cloward & Ohlin, 1960) ascribe it to non-utilitarian, malicious and conflict character of the delinquent subculture. Socio-criminologists commonly agree that the values the society, through the family, has for the rights of other persons' property are important. Psycho-criminologists view frustration and aggression as of prime importance.

The following delinquent items are selected to constitute the malicious damage of property scale.

- (i) Intentional throwing of stones at someone's house or vehicle.
- (ii) Destruction of public property like telephones and waiting rooms.
- (iii) Setting fire on the property belonging to someone else.
- (iv) Destruction of school property.

(v) Destruction or defacing of other students' books.

3.7 SUMMARY

Juvenile delinquency can be explained through a variety of socio-theoretical constructs all which stress the importance of the society and various social institutions. In all these social institutions the family plays a significant role in the transmission of the societal values. Any destructive element to the family affects the methods of control and ultimately results in delinquent behaviour.

In measuring the influence of the family on juvenile delinquency the methods of control applied by the family have to be considered. This includes family religiousness, parental supervision, parental discipline and parental affection. These cannot be analyzed in isolation. Sex, age, family structure and parental economic activities have to be duly considered. The nature of these family variables demand different statistical techniques in order to reach scientifically sound conclusions.

For the purposes of this study 31 delinquency items are selected and categorized into 5 delinquency scales, namely norm infringements, regulation infringements, alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour, theft and malicious damage to property. Whilst a socio-criminological approach is being followed, cognizance is taken of the juridical or legal definitions of various forms of delinquent acts.

CHAPTER 4

SEX DIFFERENCES IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Studies on juvenile delinquency, more often than not, refer to gender differences in crime as an important dimension of measuring the nature and extent of deviant behaviour. Different rates of delinquent activity for males and females are; therefore, one of the most thoroughly documented and most widely accepted features in the field of juvenile criminology.

The interest in sex differences in juvenile delinquency gained momentum with the advent of self-report survey methods in crime. Prior to these, researchers were content with official statistical data which supported the traditional perception that delinquency rates for boys are higher than those of girls. These traditional views had been reinforced by opinions of early researchers in crime and delinquency (Lombroso, 1911; Healy & Bronner, 1926; Burt, 1925; Thomas, 1923). Simons, Miller and Aigner (1976:42) note that since the early 1960's the number criminal offences committed by females increased at a much higher rate than has the number of offences by males. Whilst males continue to commit by far the majority of crimes, females have increased their criminal involvement in offences that have been traditionally a domain of male offenders. This supports the idea that the use of a self-report survey reveals a lot of hidden delinquency which official data has failed to unearth.

Sex differences in juvenile delinquency have been ascribed to two main premises, namely differential socialization and biological differences. From early age males are socialized to be tough and aggressive, whilst females are socialized to be polite and passive. Further legal processes adopt a differential view with regard to different sexes in juvenile delinquency (Brown, Esbensen, & Geis, 1991:186). Early researchers ascribed sex differences in delinquency to different bio-psychological make-up of males and females.

In the present study, the sex factor in juvenile delinquency is dealt with separately from other demographic variables, such as age, primarily with the aim of establishing delinquency rates in self-reported delinquency according to gender. It must, however, be borne in mind that sex differential rates in delinquency are influenced by a number of factors, such as family structure, with consequential differences in delinquency.

Before presenting statistical analysis of sex differences in delinquency for the present study, historical views on sex and delinquency; theoretical explanations of gender differences; and comparative studies on male and female delinquency patterns are analyzed.

4.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES ON SEX AND DELINQUENCY

Historical perspectives on sex and delinquency can roughly be classified into five premises. Following is an elaboration on each premise.

Firstly, the delinquency theory and research has been developed and conceived primarily on male populations. The resulting equation of delinquency with male delinquents reflects the

assumption that juvenile delinquency is essentially a boys' problem. Official statistics and general impressions support this assumption and the former show that female delinquency is much lower than that of males. This has inevitably induced observers to search for nothing, but explanations of differential sex rate, therefore unwittingly, limiting their attention to factors that provide reasons for lower female delinquency rate (Haskell & Yablonsky, 1974:278; Mannheim, 1965:690).

Secondly, early research on delinquency has focused on labelled delinquent populations and relied on nonprobability and single-sex samples. Such research studies make it difficult to determine why some youths are delinquent while others are not and why boys are more delinquent than girls. In addition, such studies are often characterized by qualitative and moralistic judgements. For example, the notions that there are delinquent acts which are a domain for males, like violence and that it is immoral for girls to be sexually promiscuous are reinforced (Canter, 1982:150).

Thirdly, female delinquency has been dealt with, exclusively, for a long time by men in their capacities as legislators, judges and law enforcement officers. This is true of socio-criminological theories which have been developed primarily for males and have emphasized the importance of social influences (Cohen, 1955; Cloward & Ohlin, 1960; Miller, 1958). Theories of female delinquency have, on the other side, emphasized personality characteristics to the exclusion of external influences on delinquent behaviour.

Fourthly, with regard to sex and type of delinquency, the founding fathers in criminology (Lombroso, 1911; Thomas, 1923) have viewed female delinquents as engaging in offences of a

sexual nature like prostitution and crimes of passion (Siegel & Senna, 1988:53). Subsequent research studies have followed that notion and law enforcement agencies tend to view such acts more seriously for girls than boys (Mannheim, 1965:691).

Fifthly, a contemporary approach to sex differences in delinquency, which emerged around 1970's, is that the individualistic approaches to delinquency fail to understand the dynamic nature of society. Many contemporary researchers consider the social and economic factors as primary in studying male and female delinquency rates (Adler, 1975; Simon, 1975). This approach is supported by self-report data (Williams & Gold, 1972; Sarri, 1983) whose findings show that delinquency among boys and girls is much the same in nature although boys exceed girls in delinquency rates.

In sum, historical approaches to sex and delinquency have moved from individualistic, morally bound premises to realistic, judgement - free and more scientific premises of explaining differential sex-rates in delinquency. This means that similar explanations for both male and female delinquency are used.

4.3 THEORETICAL EXPLANATIONS OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN DELINQUENCY

Theoretical explanations of gender differences in delinquency are closely linked to the historical approaches or views discussed in paragraph 4.2. They serve as an important indicator of the development of views on gender differences in delinquency. Following is a brief analysis of the most important theories.

4.3.1 Lombroso's female offender theory (1911)

Lombroso's theory (1911) maintain firstly, that women are lower on the evolutionary scale than men, more child-like, less sensitive, and less intelligent than men in general. Secondly, women who commit crimes could be characterized by physical characteristics such as excessive body hair, wrinkles and abnormal crania. Thirdly, with minor exceptions, their crimes are those of prostitution and abortion, which are usually suggested to her by a husband or lover (Siegel & Senna, 1988:219). With regard to punishment, Lombroso suggested that penalties should be light, perhaps only a reprimand; harsher penalties would do no good. More effective punishment, he said, would be an appeal to woman's vanity, such as cutting her hair (Reid, 1982:95).

Lombroso's theory influenced some of his contemporaries. For example, Burt (1925) linked female delinquency to menstruation; and Healy and Bronner (1926) ascribed female delinquency to abnormal weight and size (Siegel & Senna, 1988:219).

4.3.2 Thomas' Psychobiological theory (1923)

Thomas (1923) believed in the existence of basic biological differences between male and female delinquents. He argued that males are "katabolic" (having an animal force that is aggressive and destructive) and females are "anabolic" (storing energy, conservative and lethargic). According to Thomas the four wishes of men - experience, security, response and recognition - that lead to a delinquent path and crime, are among girls, the result of the impulse to get amusement, adventure, pretty clothes and marital satisfaction. To Thomas,

the disorganized nature of environmental conditions serve as impetus for deviation and the biological nature of females finds a fertile ground on it (Siegel & Senna, 1988:220).

4.3.3 Pollak's chivalry hypothesis (1950)

Pollak published his most significant work, "The Criminality of Women" in 1950. He advanced his chivalry hypothesis along the following views:

Firstly, female delinquency goes unrecorded because law enforcement officers maintain misplaced sense of chivalry. Similarly, male victims of female delinquent acts would not lay complaint because they are culturally expected to protect females (Pollak, 1950:2).

Secondly, females are instigators rather than perpetrators of delinquent acts; consequently males take blame for offences committed at the behest of their female companions.

Thirdly, women are inherently more deceitful than men and their delinquency goes undetected because they are cunning.

Lastly, female delinquency has three stages, each influenced and controlled by the family cultural norms: menstruation, resulting into theft, arson and homicide; pregnancy, promoting influence with regard to attacks against the foetus; and menopause, bringing an increase to arson, perjury and insults (Pollak, 1950:158).

4.3.4 Konopka's conflict theory (1966)

Konopka (1966) in her work "The Adolescent Girl in Conflict" advocates a conflict theory according to which male-female differences in delinquency have their roots in a differential socialization process in the family which leads to the girl's feelings of uncertainty and loneliness.

Unlike the boy, the girl's major emotional need during adolescence is to be accepted by members of the opposite sex. If this is culturally impaired by the family, she "fights" by engaging in promiscuous sexual relationships.

Four premises influence loneliness and conflict with consequential delinquent behaviour:

- * Puberty, whose onset is traumatic to the girl because of the parental anxiety of its arrival.
- * Social identification, traumatized by the girl's competitiveness with her mother.
- * Changing patterns of the female's cultural position which is a consequence of lack of training in employment skills and academic qualifications. This leads to poor paying jobs and little hope for economic advancement.
- * Dictatorship of adult authority which tells them what to do without listening to their needs (Konopka, 1966:129-131).

4.3.5 Adler's sex role theory (1975)

Adler (1975) in her book "Sisters in Crime", presents the following regarding male-female differences in crime.

- (a) Economic conditions and sex role differences between males and females influence sex differences in crime. As the role of girls and adult women become similar to male economic roles, so too will their crime patterns.
- (b) Perceptions that female delinquents are emotionally troubled or immature persons who engage in sexual acting-out behaviour are unfounded. In reality, female delinquents are motivated by the same delinquency-producing influences as their male counterparts (Adler, 1975:22-24; Siegel & Senna, 1988:227).

Adler (1975:26) argues that the different delinquent rates between males and females is temporal and not physiologically inherent with gender. By striving for social and economic independence, females will alter social institutions' perceptions which, until recently, have protected males in their position of power (Adler, 1975:221). The lower rate of female delinquency will change as girls increasingly become involved in masculine activities. Adler (1975:110) argues that since boys excel in delinquency because of their ill-preparedness for the economically aggressive world, so will be the modern girls with the change of her sex role.

4.3.6 Hagan's power control theory (1988)

Hagan (1988) in his work "Structural Criminology" concedes the notion that males and females commit delinquent acts for the same reasons but males excel in such activities. Further,

whilst women's liberation movements have not made great influence, modern society is evolving ways that may eventually affect the female delinquency rate (Siegel & Senna, 1988:230).

The power control theory advocated by Hagan asserts that the class structure of the family plays a significant role in explaining the social distribution of delinquent behaviour through social reproduction of gender relations (Hagan, 1988:145). Two important views are put by Hagan's theory:

- * Socialization and family relationships account for the nature of female delinquency.

- * Male dominated lower class families have a closer control over females and greater freedom for males. As a consequence, in middle-class homes where sex roles have become blurred because of industrialization, females are less likely to be kept under control and delinquency patterns have become similar to those of their brothers (Hagan, et al. 1985:1150-1151).

To sum up, all theoretical perspectives concur that males figure highly in delinquent behaviour. Theoretical explanations represent three trends. Firstly biological explanations ascribe lower rates in female delinquency to physiological inferiority. Secondly, conflict views ascribed differential rates in delinquency to the paternalistic nature of society which oppresses women. Lastly, male-female delinquency rates are explained neither in terms of the radical views nor biological inferiority, but in terms of same explanations for male delinquency.

4.4 GENDER COMPARATIVE STUDIES OF MALE AND FEMALE DELINQUENCY PATTERNS

Datesman and Scarpitti (1980) sum up the findings of gender comparative studies as follows:

- (a) All self-report studies indicate that a great deal of hidden female delinquency exists.
- (b) Whilst the male-female ratio of the incidence of delinquent behaviour is closer than what official statistics suggest, males are, however, more involved in delinquent activity than females.
- (c) The pattern of delinquent behaviour is very similar for both sexes; girls are involved in the same offences as boys, but at a different rate.
- (d) Official statistics greatly exaggerate the differences between males and females to the detriment of the patterns of delinquency (Elliott, 1988:16).

Gender comparative studies presented in this paragraph support the view that males report higher involvement in delinquency than their female counterparts.

4.4.1 Clark and Haurek (1966)

Clark and Haurek (1966:495-508) studied the relationship between age and sex attributes to misconduct from an interactionist point of view. Their conclusion was that the general sex ratios of self-reported misconduct rates are not as great as delinquent sex ratios based on official statistics, but the sex ratios in admitted delinquency still indicate the

greater male propensity for delinquency. Further, male propensity for delinquency is most marked for those who admit committing the offences four-or-more times as compared with those who committed them only one time or more (Clark & Haurek, 1966:505).

4.4.2 Wise (1967)

Wise (1967) studied middle-class delinquency among girls. She hypothesized that: "... girls will not differ significantly from boys in either the volume or the type of their reported delinquent behaviour" (Wise, 1967:182). Her findings are briefly stated as follows.

- (a) Contrary to the hypothesis, there were significant differences between male and female delinquency, and with the exception of sex and alcohol delinquent behaviour, boys reported more delinquency than girls.
- (b) Although more boys than girls committed delinquent acts, the difference in ratio between the volume of male and female delinquency was not as great as official statistics suggest.
- (c) Middle-class boys and girls engage in essentially non-coercive and non-violent forms of delinquent behaviour (Wise, 1967:183-186).

4.4.3 Weis (1975)

Weis (1975), in the study of middle-class delinquency among girls, found significant differences in the prevalence, seriousness and incidence between boys and girls, but patterns of delinquent involvement by sex were similar, with girls less involved in violent behaviour (Weis, 1975:23).

4.4.4 Cockburn and Maclay (1965)

Cockburn and Maclay (1965) studied 50 boys and 50 girls in two London Remand Homes. Their findings, *inter alia*, indicated that a higher number of boys had committed previous offences and most of them had committed offences against property, whereas most of the girls had appeared before the juvenile court either as being "in need of care" or being "beyond control" (Cockburn & Maclay, 1965:307).

4.4.5 Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1975)

Kratcoski and Kratcoski (1975) used a modified version of the Short and Nye (1958) questionnaire. Their findings are briefly stated as follows:

- (a) Boys commit a wide range of offences with higher frequency than girls.
- (b) Boys are more involved in aggressive crimes such as breaking into buildings, fist-fighting; destruction of public and private property and joy-riding.

(c) With items which tend to reflect a teenage culture orientation like drinking, driving without licence and truancy, girls equalled the boys in pattern and incidence (Kratcoski & Kratcoski, 1975:87).

4.4.6 South African comparative data on gender differences in delinquency

The nature and geographical location of the present study necessitates that gender studies of South African literature be reviewed.

The official statistics in South Africa show that males figure highly in crime rates. Table 4.1 reflects that in the Republic of South Africa (excluding Transkei, Bophutatswana, Venda and Ciskei) among juveniles (7-20 years) and adults, males exceed female involvement in crime.

TABLE 4.1 NUMBER OF CONVICTIONS IN THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA FOR THE PERIOD 1 JULY 1990 TO 30 JUNE 1991

SEX	JUVENILES		ADULTS	
	N	%	N	%
Males	84,125	88,18	232,095	86,24
Females	11,273	11,82	37,025	13,76
Total	95,398	100,00	269,120	100,00

Potgieter, Mqadi and Khoza (1992:275) in the study of serious crime at Esikhawini Township found that out of 703 offences solved by the police, 486(69,13%) were male offenders, and only 97 (13,80%) were female. Further, while the incidence for involvement of males was considerably high, females engaged in the same offences as males.

Glanz (1990b) hypothesized that: "Males exhibit more delinquent behaviour than females"; and that: "Males tend to be involved in crimes of violence to a greater extent than females" (Glanz, 1990:122-124). Both hypotheses were accepted with males reporting more delinquency involvement than females and more males reporting involvement in violent crimes than females. Glanz could not, however, find support for the hypothesis that females tend to be involved, to a greater extent, in property crimes than males, since the latter reported nearly twice as often as females (Glanz, 1990b:124).

To sum up, comparative data on male-female differences in delinquency reveal the following:

- * The pattern of male and female delinquency is more similar than was once believed and revealed by official data.
- * Both official and self-report data support the idea that more males than females are involved in delinquency.
- * Both male and female delinquents indulge to a similar degree and pattern to delinquent acts that reflect adolescent cultural orientation.

In accordance with the findings of research studies in South Africa (Potgieter, Mqadi, & Khoza, 1992; Glanz, 1990b) and abroad (Wise, 1967; Clark & Haurek, 1966) the hypothesis for the present study is that: "There are significant differences between male and female's involvement in self-reported delinquency" (hypothesis 1).

For the analysis of sex differences t-tests for male (n=272) and female (n=288) are calculated for all delinquency scales. T-tests are considered robust and appropriate for the indication of salient sex differences. Canter (1982) employed the t-statistic for the analyses of family correlates of male and female delinquency. Presented in tables are mean scores and t-values for each delinquency item. In all instances the level of significance is 0,05.

For further clarification male and female differences in self-reported delinquency are presented in bar graphs with the aim of displaying the pattern of delinquency involvement. Bar graphs are presented for each delinquency sub-scale (figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5 & 4.6). The score on each graph is calculated as the sum of the number associated with categorical responses to the relevant items. For example on a six-item norm infringement sub-scale, the total score ranges from 6 to 24.

TABLE 4.2 SEX DIFFERENCES : NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Truancy	1,63	0,95	1,44	0,77	2,55*
Disobediance	1,54	0,92	1,45	0,79	0,22
Telling lies	1,69	1,03	1,57	0,96	0,44
Sleeping-out	1,63	0,98	1,25	0,71	5,21*
Discipline	1,30	0,71	1,14	0,54	2,98*
Friends	1,49	0,81	1,42	0,78	0,97

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 4.2 indicates clear differences in the mean scores of male and female respondents. The males have, consistently, higher mean scores than females in all delinquency items pertaining to the norm infringement scale. Nevertheless, in only three delinquency items (truancy, sleeping-out and objection to discipline) are significant t-values yielded by statistics; with the highest t-value (5,21) found with "sleeping-out".

When the mean scores of delinquency items are summed for the norm infringement scale statistics are, for males: mean = 9,25; SD = 3,14 and females: mean = 8,31; SD = 3,03. The t-value of 3,63 (p \leq 0,05) is obtained.

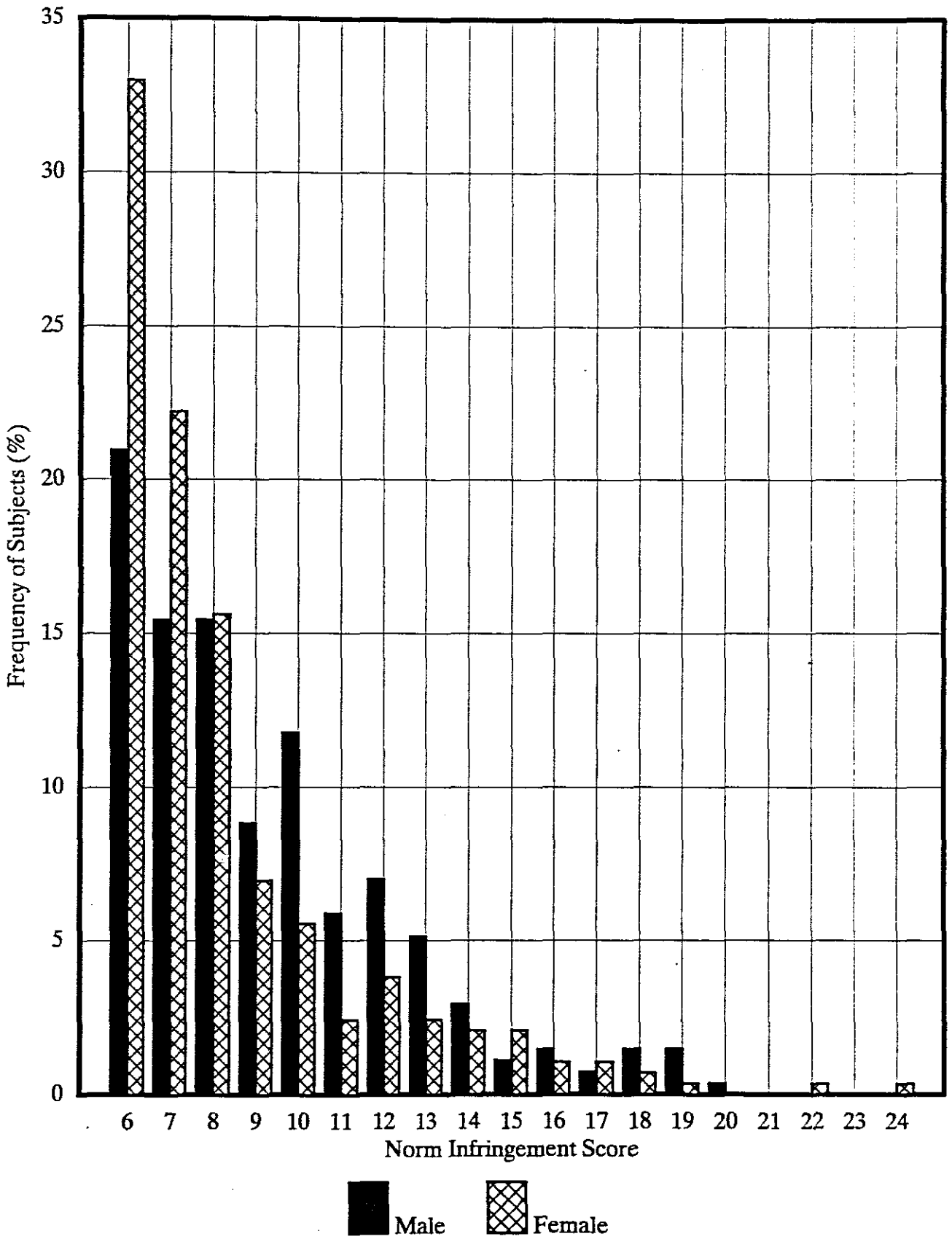


Figure 4.1 – Sex Differences: Norm Infringements

Figure 4.1 is a bar graph indicating sex differences in the norm infringement scale. From the graph three observations can be made:

- * The percentage of female subjects who obtained scores of 6 and 7 exceeds those of male subjects.
- * For the score of 8, the difference between the sexes levels off.
- * With the increase in delinquency scores (10-19), the percentage of males, to a point, exceeds females' percentage in delinquency involvement.
- * The difference between the sexes is negligible for the interval scores of 20 and 24.

**TABLE 4.3 SEX DIFFERENCES : REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS
(N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Driver's licence	1,68	1,10	1,09	0,45	8,29*
Speed limit	1,34	0,85	1,09	0,46	4,44*
Entering bar	1,86	1,18	1,38	0,83	5,50*
Buying liquor	2,03	1,28	1,54	0,95	5,09*
Films	2,07	1,25	1,73	1,07	3,46*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 4.3 indicates clearly and consistently significant differences between the mean scores of males and females in all the items of the regulation infringement scale. Interesting to note are the similar male mean scores for delinquency items of "driving a car without a driver's licence" and "driving a car in excess speed limit". The t-values generated by all the items are significant and the sum of all mean scores yield the following: for males mean = 8,97, SD = 3,69 and for females: mean = 6,81 SD = 2,19 and the t value of 8,38 ($p < 0,05$) is observed.

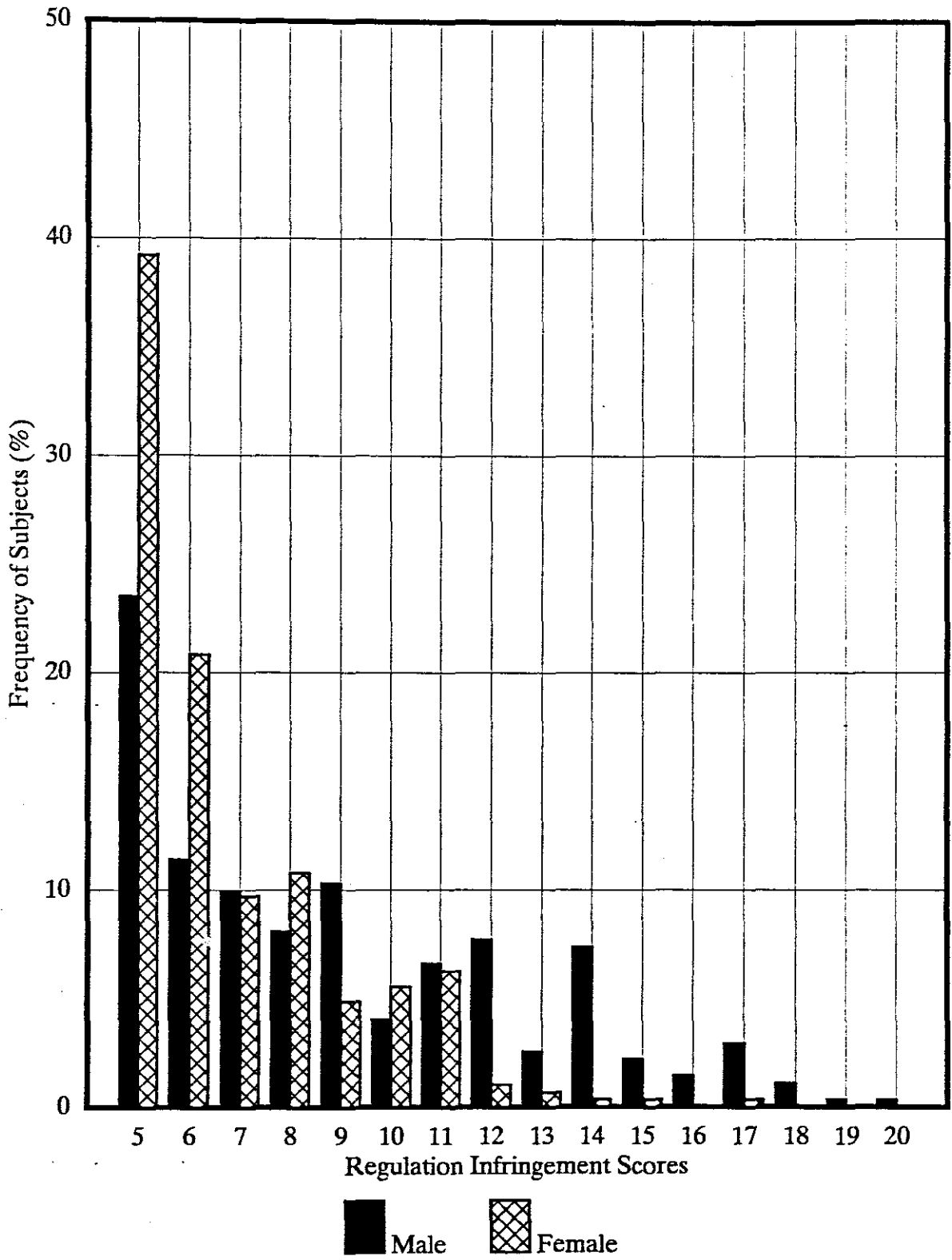


Figure 4.2 – Sex Differences: Regulation Infringements

Figure 4.2 shows the pattern of male-female involvement in self-reported regulation infringement. With regard to the scores of 5,6,8 and 10 the percentage is higher for females than males. The pattern gradually changes as the scores increase, with males increasingly becoming involved in self-reported delinquency. Finally, males continue reporting delinquency involvement when the females have a zero percentage.

TABLE 4.4 SEX DIFFERENCES : ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Inhaling glue	1,57	0,95	1,27	0,61	4,40*
Taking drugs	1,35	0,83	1,04	0,25	5,87*
Dealing in drugs	1,52	1,03	1,44	0,84	1,06
Drinking of liquor	2,17	1,29	1,48	0,87	7,35*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 4.4 reveals that for both male and female respondents the means scores are significantly different, except for the delinquency item of "dealing in drugs". Notable is the significant difference between male and female mean score in the delinquency item of "drinking of liquor": mean = 2,17 and 1,48 respectively with the t-value of 7,35 (p \leq 0,05).

When all the mean scores for delinquency items are summed for the alcohol and drug abuse scale statistics are, for males: mean = 6,60, SD = 2,86 and for females: mean = 5,22, SD = 1,92 with t-value of 6,68, significant at 0,05.

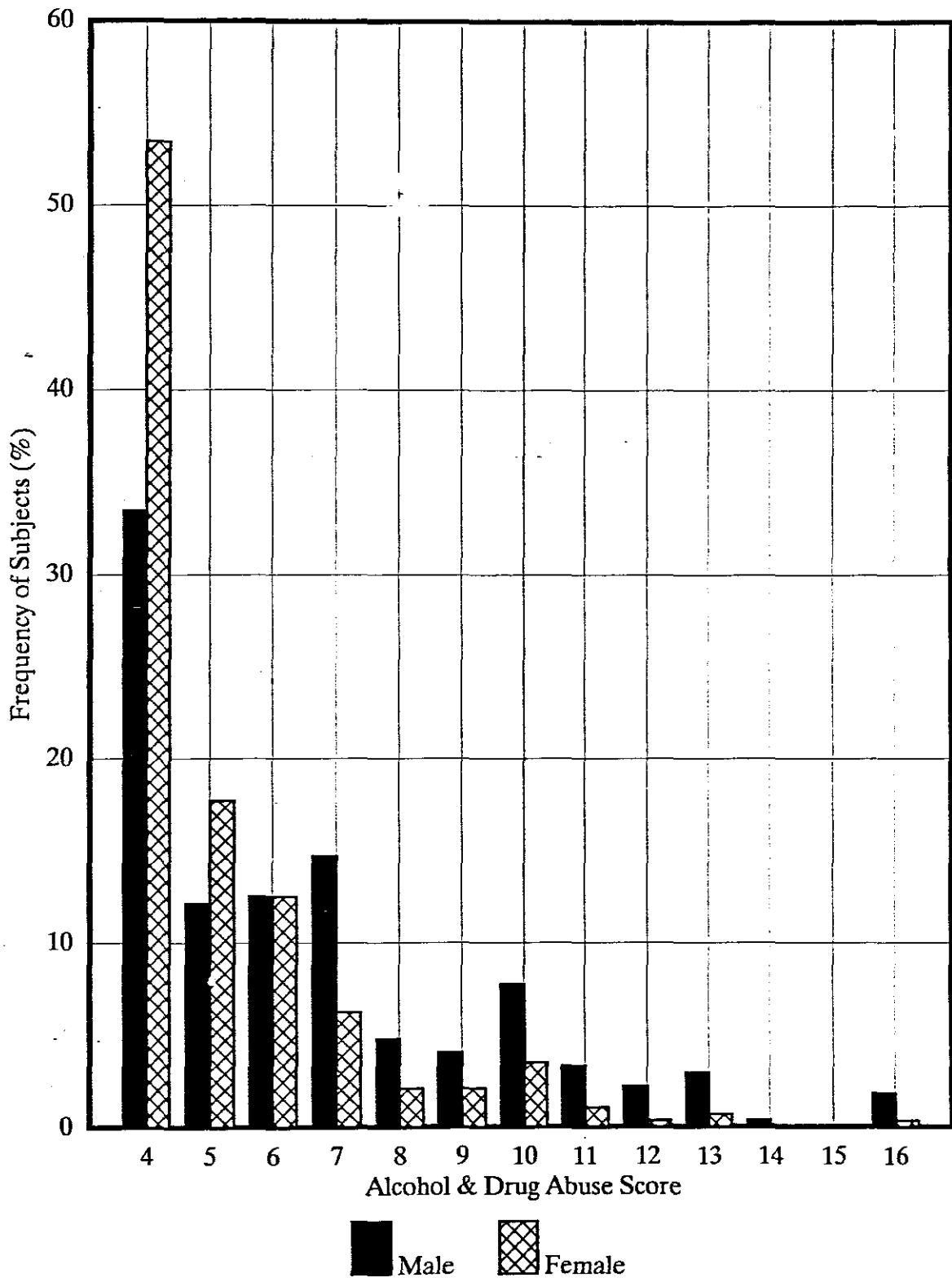


Figure 4.3 – Sex Differences: Alcohol & Drug Abuse

Figure 4.3 shows a pattern similar to those of the preceding scales, that is delinquency involvement for females diminishes rapidly as the scores increase.

With the exception of "dealing in drugs" table 4.4 shows that the mean scores and resulting t-values, point out to the fact that there are significant differences between males and females' involvement in alcohol and drug abuse.

TABLE 4.5 SEX DIFFERENCES : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Fist-fighting	1,77	1,04	1,41	0,71	4,74*
Weapons	1,63	1,09	1,22	0,62	5,44*
Intimidation	1,47	0,90	1,17	0,53	4,77*
Public disturbance	2,03	1,22	1,57	0,91	5,03*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

The view that violent behaviour is differentially distributed between males and females is demonstrated in table 4.5. The mean scores show that males, have consistently higher mean scores than females and the t-values are all significant at 0,05.

A statistically significant t-value (6,68) is yielded when all the mean scores of delinquency items are summed; for males: mean = 6,86; SD = 3,05 and for females: mean = 5,38; SD = 2,04.

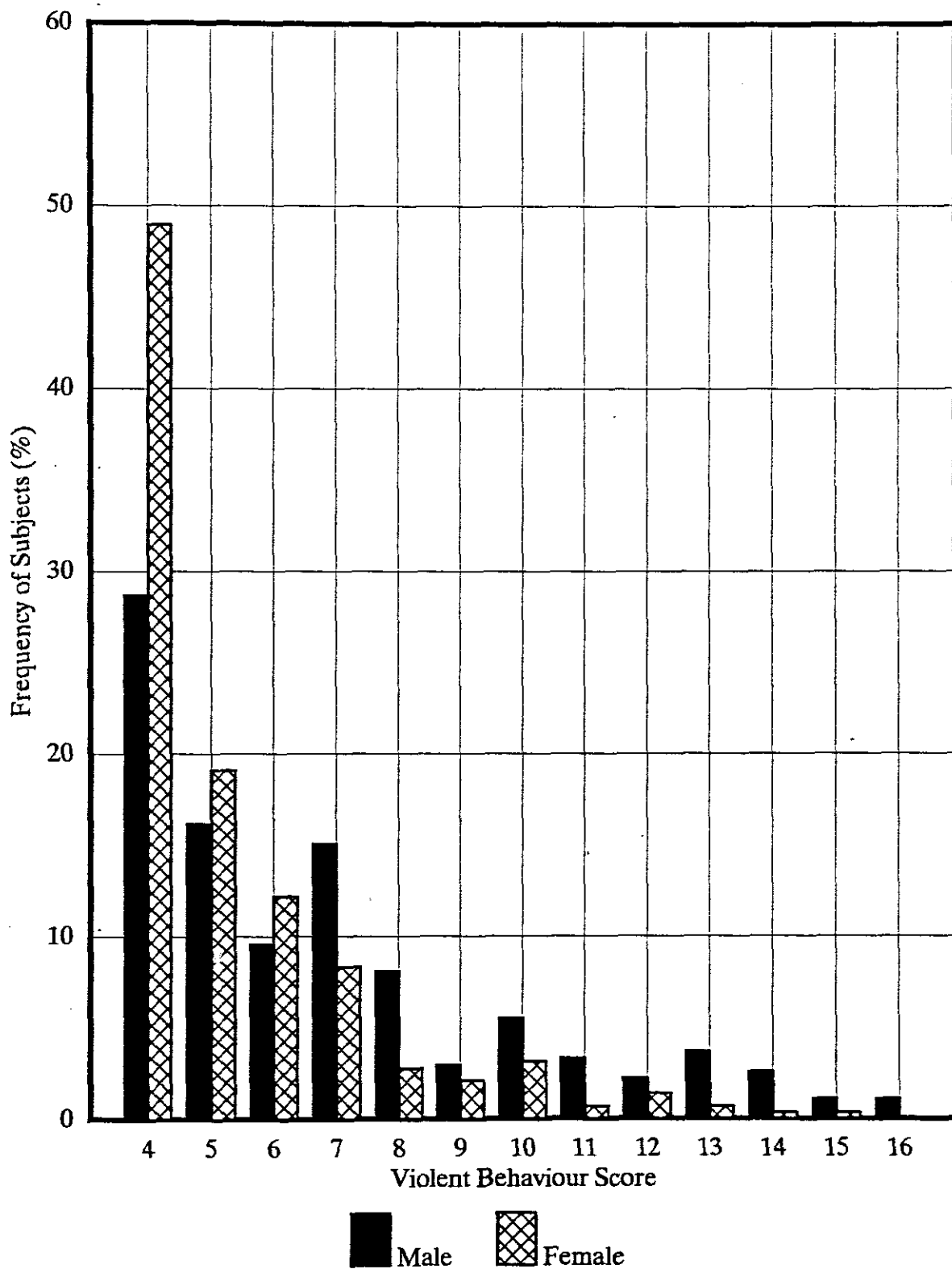


Figure 4.4 – Sex Differences: Violent Behaviour

Figure 4.4 shows that for the scores of 4, 5 and 6 the percentage of females who report involvement in violent behaviour is higher than the percentage of males. This pattern dramatically changes as the scores increase (7-16). In this interval, males show higher involvement up to the point where females have a zero percentage for involvement.

TABLE 4.6 SEX DIFFERENCES : THEFT (N=562)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Shoplifting	1,42	0,90	1,22	0,68	3,00*
Theft from friends	1,74	1,08	1,47	0,85	3,32*
Theft of money	1,53	0,95	1,50	0,89	0,33
Housebreaking	1,20	0,67	1,17	0,55	0,55
Auto-theft	1,37	0,81	1,19	0,59	2,98*
Robbery	1,75	1,15	1,34	0,79	4,92*
Joy-riding	1,84	1,18	1,53	0,95	3,38*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 4.6 reveals insignificant differences between the mean scores for males and females on two delinquency items, namely "theft of money" and "housebreaking". For the rest of the delinquency items, significant differences are observed, with males having higher mean scores than females.

When the mean scores are summed for the theft scale statistics yield the following, for males: mean = 10,90, SD = 4,46 and for females: mean = 9,42, SD = 3,61; with a t-value of 4,30 significant at 0,05.

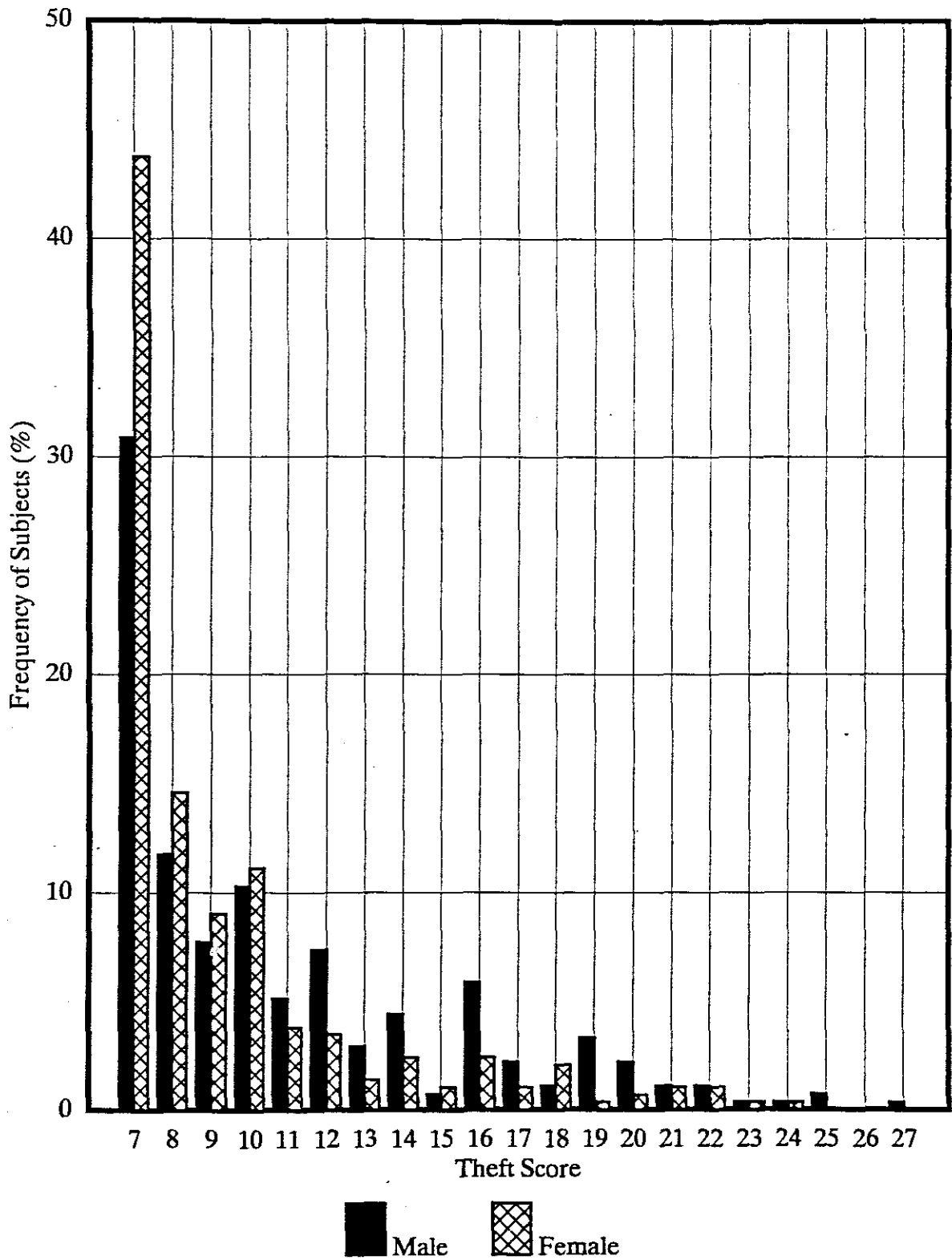


Figure 4.5 – Sex Differences: Theft

As usual, figure 4.5 shows higher percentage for female subjects for the first four scores (7, 8, 9 and 10) in the beginning of the scale. This pattern changes, within the range 11 and 27 of the scale.

**TABLE 4.7 SEX DIFFERENCES : MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY
(N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM	MALE		FEMALE		t
	(n=272)		(n=288)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Throwing stones	1,25	0,70	1,13	0,51	2,26*
Public property	1,23	0,71	1,10	0,46	2,56*
Arson	1,24	0,67	1,13	0,54	2,07*
School property	1,16	0,57	1,11	0,47	1,14
Defacing books	1,29	0,78	1,14	0,51	2,82*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

With the exception of "destruction of school property" delinquency items in table 4.7 reveal significant differences in the mean scores of males and females. The mean scores of males are consistently higher than those of females, for both involvement in malicious damage to property.

The sum of all the mean scores yields the following statistics; for males mean = 6,16, SD = 2,48 and for females: mean = 5,60, SD = 1,80 and t-value of 3,05, significant at 0,05.

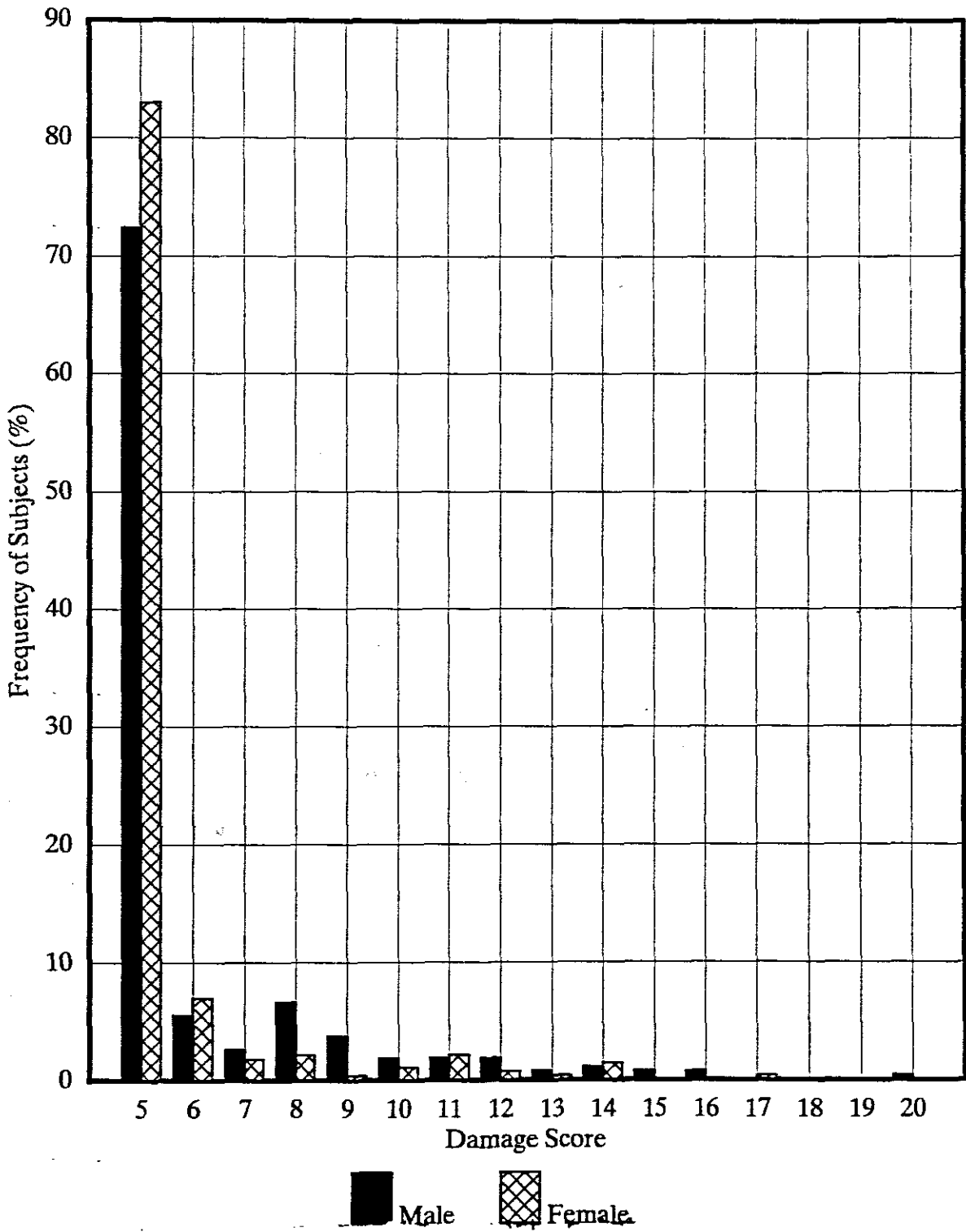


Figure 4.6 – Sex Differences: Malicious Damage to Property.

The fact that respondents report relatively lower involvement in malicious damage to property is demonstrated in figure 4.6. The majority, 72,43 percent males and 82,99 percent females, report non-involvement in malicious damage of property. As the scores increase, males consistently report higher involvement than females.

4.6 SUMMARY

Historically, sex differences in delinquency have been studied on male populations; focused on labelled delinquent populations; and characterized by qualitative and moralistic judgements. Males have been viewed as culprits for aggressive and violent offences, while females have been seen to engage in sexual and property-related offences.

Theoretical trends on male-female differences in delinquency have, firstly, emphasized biological differences; secondly, accused male chauvinistic nature of society which unwittingly enforce the idea of male dominance in delinquency; and lastly contemporary theories seek similar explanations for male-female differences in delinquency.

Comparative studies in sex differences in delinquency reveal the following:

- * A great deal of "hidden" male and female delinquency exists.
- * Official data exaggerate male-female differences in delinquency and this is a consequence of differential treatment accorded to gender differences and validity of official data as a measurement of delinquency.

- * Whilst males exceed females in delinquency for both official and self-report studies, the pattern of involvement is very similar.

Statistical findings of the present study reveal the following:

- * There are significant differences between male and female respondents in self-reported delinquency for all the delinquency scales.
- * Males have higher mean scores for the absolute majority of all delinquency items, but, albeit to a lesser degree, females engage in similar delinquent acts.
- * The majority of females report higher non-involvement in delinquent acts than the males.

CHAPTER 5

AGE AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the most persistent conditions associated with the risk of committing crime is being young and belonging to a particular gender. The world-wide experience is that young persons, compared to older ones, are more likely to commit both serious and non-serious offences listed by different countries in their official records (Nettler, 1984:85).

Criminologists are not in agreement as to whether age is relevant to the study of crime. Hirschi and Gottfredson (1983:22-27), for instance, argue that everywhere age is correlated with crime regardless of race, sex, social class, or any other social variable. This means that people will commit less crime with increase in age, regardless of reasons for originally engaging in anti-social behaviour (Potgieter, Mqadi & Khoza, 1992:247). Counter arguments (Farrington, 1986; Baldwin, 1985; Greenberg, 1977) suggest that age is an important determinant of crime and there are factors such as life-style, economic situation and peer group influence, that are directly associated with age. The contention is that age, next to gender, is the best predictor of involvement in all forms of deviant behaviour, so much so that criminality is perceived as being synonymous with youth. Put otherwise, adolescence is a period that is mostly associated with deviance and its significance cannot be overlooked in the study of crime.

Coupled with the significance of age, specifically adolescence, in the study of crime are theoretical expositions on the relevance of age to crime. Theoretical explanations are generally based on three approaches that are used in the age-crime relationship. Firstly, the age-curve approach which explains a curvilinear relationship between age and crime, that is, a concomitant relationship between age and crime up to a point beyond which as the age variable increases, crime decreases. Secondly, the sociocultural approach explains age-crime involvement as peculiar to social, economical and even legal prescriptions of society. Lastly the delinquent generations approach, which regards persons born or growing-up during a particular period as either more or less delinquent than their predecessors or successors (Mannheim, 1965:622). Perhaps the last approach is most relevant to what is regarded as the "lost generation" in South Africa.

The present study regards age as an important variable in self-reported involvement in delinquency because of the following reasons:

- * The sample consists of persons in their adolescence stage whose socio-psychological make-up is such that they are most vulnerable to deviant temptations.
- * The age-distribution of the sample is such that clear age-categories of early, middle and late adolescence can be easily made.
- * The socio-economic structure and the "generation" to which the sample belongs is suitable for analysis of age-delinquency relationship.

In analyzing age and delinquency the significance of adolescence is explained; followed by theoretical explanations; and lastly age and delinquency among the adolescent sample that constitutes the present study.

5.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ADOLESCENCE IN DELINQUENCY

The significance of adolescence in delinquency is best understood by looking at the socio-cultural; socio-psychological; and economic and legal significance of age as a predictor of crime.

5.2.1 Socio-cultural significance of age

Adolescence is a culturally determined stage of growth. Different cultures have different prescriptions for youth or specifically, persons belonging to a particular age-group. In most cultures the role of a youngster within the family is well established with little room for experimentation and mobility. Culturally based ceremonies clearly establish the point at which a child has become an adult (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:111).

The above cultural trends have, however, been disturbed in modern industrialized societies. The adolescence period is extended because of the need for training and preparation for adulthood roles. Education for youth goes beyond secondary school grades or specific age, with consequences of prolonged economic dependence. Such "extensions" have problems of, firstly, being kept out of the labour market for a long time and, secondly increased risk of "breaking bonds" between the youth and the family (Greenberg, 1977:194).

Modern society views adolescence as an independent phase of growth that has special demands different from those of adults. Such a view demands that the legal system be adapted to meet the changed cultural trends. Further, whilst girls, in particular, have culturally been viewed as less useful in producing family material support than boys, the changed cultural views accords equal treatment of both boys and girls (Hurrelmann, 1989:4).

5.2.2 Socio-psychological significance of age

During the adolescence the family's responsibility in the adolescent's conduct, financial support and social control; increases. At the same time socio-psychological changes, coupled with physiological changes, create parent-youth conflict and adjustment problems. Conflicts are found in the struggle with the phenomenon of dependence as opposed to independence; transition from pure pleasure to reality; and between parental expectations and the expectations of peers (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:122-124).

Adolescence is a period of specific social needs. Parental inability to appreciate the adolescent needs has deviant consequences. Further, parents whose needs were not satisfied during adolescence, are unable to give what they themselves never received (Ferron, 1990:173).

Some of the most important adolescence needs are as follows:

(a) Need to be loved and accepted

One of the propositions of the present study is that adolescents whose families show more love and affection report less involvement in delinquency than those from

families with less love and affection. The argument is that youth need parental love within the family and acceptance by peers. The need for love and acceptance is even necessary within the school situation. Ferron (1990:173) asserts that many delinquent adolescents have been saved by the knowledge that at least there is a teacher who accepts him and holds him in high esteem.

Adolescents need not only to be loved and accepted, but also need to show love and affection to others. In this respect, indulgence in deviant behaviour would be a form of conformity to peers who show love and affection for him.

(b) The need for knowledge and new experience

The need to come to grips with the physical and social environment is more pronounced during adolescence than any stage of growth in life (Ferron, 1990:174). The popular opinion is that a child must be persuaded to learn. The fact is no one can stop him from learning, but must learn through nondelinquent principles and preconceived parental plan.

The need for knowledge and new experience is based on the spirit of adventure. Juveniles who are not guided by the family in knowledge and experience acquisition would infringe norms and regulations, experiment with drugs and alcohol; commit theft and violence; and maliciously damage private and public property - all in the spirit of adventure and new experiences (Ferron, 1990:174).

(c) **The need for independence and a philosophy of life**

The cultural transmission theory, *inter alia*, proposes that among the lower class values there is a general concern about personal freedom and autonomy (Miller, 1958). Being under the authority of parents or any controlling institution is a sign of weakness and incompatible with toughness (Siegel & Senna, 1988:30-31). Be that as it may, the process of growing up inevitably means breaking away from the family and some independence. The significance of this need lies with the fact that unless independence is nurtured within a well adjusted family it may well result into independence from social, moral and legal obligations.

A philosophy of life, *inter alia*, means a societal view of what is normal or abnormal behaviour. For a teenager, family teaching and control are important. Without firm grounds upon which he can establish a philosophy of life, the adolescent would wander between social and antisocial behaviour, all in search for independence and a personal philosophy.

5.2.3 **Legal and economic significance of age**

Adolescence denotes a specific legal status; one that includes legal protections and rights, as well as disabilities (Bortner, 1988:29). The South African law, for example, provides for submission of youth to parental authority; protects adolescents against exploitative and abusive adult conduct; and charges parents with responsibility of facilitating certain rights, since adolescents have no legal powers to seek those rights themselves.

Economically, age as it relates to youth is significant, firstly in their dependence on parental economic status; secondly their being marginalized from the labour force; and thirdly in their being socialized as consumers of material goods and services. Young persons have no control over their economic status. They have less economic power and resources than their parents, but depending upon the socio-economic status of parents, some adolescents have much more economic power than do others.

Youth dependence on parental economic status is linked to the nature of contemporary economy which is industrialized and profit orientated. Such an economy is linked to the necessity for extended school education; legal prohibition of child employment; and creation of a separate legal system for juveniles. Further, the age-structure of society is such that adolescents are excluded from the labour force. Without questioning the good intentions of prohibitions of child labour, the fact is that extended period of adolescence deprives youth of self-support and makes those from less affluent classes vulnerable to deviant behaviour (Bortner, 1988:19).

To sum up, the consequences of economic and legal status of youth have the following effects on adolescents:

- (a) All adolescents within our society are in the midst of transition from childhood dependency to adulthood rights and responsibilities.
- (b) Whilst juveniles have a lot in common with regard to economic and legal experiences, passage through this period affects them differently.

(c) Whilst adolescence is a stage of growth in its own right, the effects of their legal and economic status are not the same for all adolescents. For example, juveniles in late adolescence, are more hopeful than those in early or mid adolescence, and consequently are apt to desist from delinquency.

5.3 AGE AND DELINQUENCY THEORY

It has been pointed out that socio-criminologists are not in agreement on the relevance of age to the explanation of delinquency and that, since age is a biological concept, the relationship between age and delinquency can be expected on biological grounds alone. Greenberg (1977:191), however, points out that explanations based on physical ability are weak since physiological changes accompanying adolescence would be difficult to reconcile with the great variation in delinquent involvement among juveniles. Consequently, if age is relevant to delinquency the link should primarily be on its social significance.

Traditional socio-criminological theories (cf. Chapter 2) have been reluctant to explain, explicitly, the relationship, between age and delinquency. For example, they do not explain why juveniles desist from delinquency as they reach young adulthood and why juveniles at mid-adolescence conform more to the demands of peer culture than other adolescence age-categories.

Following is a review of some traditional theories that explain the desistance phenomenon in delinquency.

5.3.1 Traditional socio-criminological theories

Traditional socio-criminological theories which are relevant to the explanation of age and delinquency are the cultural transmission and general strain theories.

5.3.1.1 Cultural transmission theory

Miller's theory (1958) of "lower class culture" portrays delinquent behaviour as a normal reaction of lower class culture passed down from one adolescent generation to the next (Miller, 1958:5-19). This theory is, however, not age-specific about the transmission of cultural values and fails to explain why, for example, the 21 year-olds act in conformity with norms of their lower class culture so much less often than their siblings just a few years younger - unless norms themselves are age-specific.

Sykes and Matza (1957) in their "Delinquency and Drift" theory assume that many delinquents fully embrace neither delinquent nor conventional norms and values, but instead allow themselves to be influenced without deep commitment (Sykes & Matza, 1957:667). For this theory desistance is made possible by the fact that the delinquent discovers that his age-group companions are no longer committed to delinquency than he is. Such a discovery is facilitated by a reduction in masculinity anxiety that accompanies the attainment of adulthood (Greenberg, 1977:194). The delinquency and drift theory however fail to explain why some juvenile age-groups are so much involved in delinquency than other age-groups and why are there differential desistance rates in delinquency.

To sum up, whilst the above cultural transmission theories explain delinquency through the age-status of an individual, nothing is provided for the explanation of the desistance process.

5.3.1.2 General strain theory

Two general strain theories provide linkage between age and delinquency, namely Cohen's "Delinquent subculture" theory (1955) and Cloward and Ohlin's "Differential Opportunity Structure" theory (1960).

Cohen (1955) views gang delinquency as arising from failure of working class male adolescents to absorb middle-class values and norms with consequences in delinquent subcultural activities (Cohen, 1955:130-133). The theory assumes that delinquency is caused by anticipation of failure to achieve socially approved goals through socially approved means. Nowhere in the theory does Cohen suggest as to when such anticipation of poor success subsides and why it subsides.

Cloward and Ohlin (1960) refer to neighbourhoods where gang violence is prevalent and so disorganized that no informal controls limiting violence can be exercised. Their theory emphasizes three types of delinquent subcultures, namely the criminal subculture, organized around goals of theft and extortion; the withdrawal (retreatist) subculture, organized around alcohol and drug abuse; and conflict subculture, organized around violent behaviour. Criminal subcultures are, therefore, likely to develop in those neighbourhoods characterized by "... close bonds between different age levels of offenders and between criminal and conventional elements (Cloward & Ohlin, 1960:171-175).

Like Cohen (1955), Cloward and Ohlin (1960) do not explain why adolescents abandon the criminal subcultures after late adolescence. Cohen, for example, does not explain why and when the working class boy abandons his non-utilitarian and versatile subcultural activities for a stable and specialized career in crime. Cloward and Ohlin do note that many delinquents desist from delinquency, but do this in terms not related to the main theme of the theory (Greenberg, 1977:191).

5.3.2 Desistance theories

The desistance theories discussed below are in line with the aim of establishing the association between age and delinquency and the proposition of the variations between age and delinquency.

5.3.2.1 Greenberg: Age Structure of Society (1977)

Greenberg (1977) expresses dissatisfaction with the incompleteness of traditional socio-criminological theories' explanations of delinquency - especially their failure to explain desistance. His views draw much from legal and economic significance of age discussed in paragraph 5.2.

To Greenberg delinquency is a function of goals associated with person's status in society and these goals are based on the age structure of society. Greenberg explains these on four premises.

Firstly, 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 the job market (Greenberg, 1977:195). This state of affairs should create no problem as long as parents can provide support for

maintaining peer relations. Youths whose parents' economic positions make this support impossible may turn to delinquency to support their life-styles. Greenberg (1977:123) states: "Adolescent theft ... occurs as a response to the dysfunction between the desire to participate in social activities with peers and the absence of legitimate sources of funds needed to finance this participation". Juveniles born of middle-class parents engage in theft because the cost of adolescents' life-style is proportionately greater than what parents can afford. This state of affairs increase from early to late adolescence where peak delinquency is reached.

Two explanations are given for desistance. Firstly, as teenagers get older their vulnerability to the peer group expectations is reduced because of involvements that provide alternate sources of self-esteem and gratification. Secondly, opportunities, both perceived and real, for earning money, legitimately increase (Siegel & Senna, 1988:205).

Secondly, Greenberg views the school as an important factor in age and delinquency equation. Contrary to the life-style the youth want, the school deprives youth autonomy and freedom of movement, and demands discipline and obedience. Consequently, some youth engage in high-risk activities whose reward is a reputation of bravery and less fear of authority. Such activities include infringement of societal norms and regulations; violent and vandalistic behaviour; little respect for property; and indulgence in alcohol and drug abuse.

Desistance from such activities is realized when they reach a stage when their autonomy is no more restricted (Greenberg, 1977:130).

Thirdly, motivation for delinquency is affected by masculine status anxiety, experienced when male adolescents perceive that their opportunities for economic success are limited and they will not fulfil their expected male role (Greenberg, 1977:206-208). The source of masculine status anxiety is a neighbourhood in which male adults are unemployed and youths, anxious to avoid such predicament, become rebellious by exaggerating traditional male traits - dominance over women (rape) and engagement in interpersonal violence.

Should male roles, socially approved, be realized and economic ability reached, anxiety reduces and finally desistance from crime (Greenberg, 1977:207).

Finally, the costs of delinquency increase with age. The leniency afforded juveniles by juvenile justice promotes delinquent activities. The knowledge that leniency can no more be afforded encourages desistance. The costs of delinquency originate from internal and external controls. As teenagers get older, loss of jobs and loss of status become a reality. Further, victims become prone to file complaints and long prison sentences become unavoidable. The consequence of this is either nonversatility or complete desistance (Greenberg, 1977:209-210).

To sum up, Greenberg's theory, explains a linear relationship between age and juvenile delinquency. This relationship is viewed against the background of the social structure. Desistance is explained in the same premise.

5.3.2.2 Shover's criminal calculus (1985)

Shover (1985) proposes a theory of "criminal calculus" similar in many respects to Greenberg's formulation.

Shover (1985:20-21) bases her criminal calculus on four observations, namely ethnographic investigations and biographies; official statistics; self-report data; and arrest histories of known offenders.

According to Shover (1985:105-113) criminal calculus is related to three stages of growth, namely adolescence, young adulthood and adulthood. For many juveniles, involvement in delinquency during adolescence has a variety of motives and subjective meanings. They slide into delinquency for nonrational and often situationally-based reasons. Participation in delinquency for them results from interactional dynamics with peer groups. By late adolescence youths begin a keener awareness of potential costs of criminal behaviour. Shover (1985:110) says: "Young adults develop the ability to see, to appreciate and to calculate more precisely some of the potential penalties that flow from criminal involvement".

Growing rationalization of crimes presents a turning point for many ordinary property offenders and substantial majority of the uncommitted group drop out of crime at this point. Those who continue, do so in response to their developing rationalization belief that they will, out of crime, make a lucrative enterprise.

5.3.2.3 Baldwin's Thrill and Adventure Seeking Theory (1985)

Baldwin (1985) reacting to Hirschi and Gottfredson's comments that no current variable or combination of variables can account for age variation in delinquency, suggest the Thrill and Adventure Seeking theory as an explanation of variation in age and delinquency (Baldwin, 1985:1326-1329). The theory postulates that thrill and adventure are rewarding during late

adolescence, and peak delinquency at that stage may be explained by the fact that illegal behaviour is one source of the rewards.

Thrill and adventure seeking theory is based on studies of non-human primates among which infants are biologically predisposed to low levels of sensory stimulation; hence seeking contact with caretakers to find protection. As they grow older they learn to seek out higher levels of stimulating activity which is rewarding (Baldwin, 1985:1327). Human juveniles undergo the same processes. Thrill and adventure is most rewarding at late teens, "... illegal acts that provide thrills and adventure ... provide the greatest sensory rewards at that time. As a result, teenagers should find it exciting to plan, talk about, and commit adventurous, deviant activities and boast about their thrills (Baldwin, 1985:1328).

The question arises as to why does thrill and adventure cease to be exciting. Baldwin (1985) once more refers to non-human primates. Firstly, the novelty of rowdy play eventually wears off due to habituation. Secondly, rowdy play is often risky and involves pain. Thirdly, animals learn to engage in safer and less aggressive forms of activity. Fourthly, as they grow older, muscle detraining and declining strength add to less boisterous activity. For humans, decline in stimulus seeking behaviour is a consequence of habituation, punishment, competing responses and declining health (Baldwin, 1985:1328).

Baldwin (1985) explains the high rate of male delinquency during mid and late adolescence by referring to the strength they have over females and that they find crime more rewarding. Whilst many find thrill and adventure in sport that is risky, a considerable number try drugs, wild parties, violence and vandalism (Baldwin, 1985:1329).

Baldwin's thrill and adventure seeking theory (1985) therefore, involves learning of behaviour patterns, with peers and parents playing a major role. Further, the theory explains peak delinquency as it appears in late teens; sex differences in delinquency; and desistance from criminality after late adolescence.

Desistance theories, therefore, explain the initial involvement in delinquency by teenagers; the increase of delinquency involvement with age; and the levelling-off of delinquency after late adolescence.

5.4 SOME FINDINGS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGE AND DELINQUENCY

An analysis of self-reported delinquency among secondary school adolescents, for the purposes of the study, follows propositions that there are differences in self-reported delinquency among the proposed age-categories and that as age increases so is reported involvement in juvenile delinquency (hypotheses 2 and 3 respectively).

Official, victimization and self-report data support the notion that age is inversely related to criminality and that the young persons disproportionately, figures highly in crime. Data from the Uniform Crime Reports of the United States for 1986 indicate that while youth of between 15 to 18 years comprise a small percentage of the total U.S. population (6 percent), they account for 25 percent of all index crime arrests and 15 percent of all crime arrests. The peak age for property crimes is 16 and for violent crimes 18 years of age (Siegel and Senna, 1988:50-51). In the Republic of South Africa the adolescents were responsible for 95 398 out of 364 518 convictions (26 percent) between 1 July, 1990 and 30 June, 1991 (Table 4.1).

Clark and Haurek (1966:495) note that such data should be treated with caution but conclude that the incidence of delinquency begins from the age of 10 to 12 years to a high plateau in the 20's after which there is a slow decline to old age. Laub, Clark, Siegel, and Garofalo (Senna & Siegel, 1988:50) using victimization data, show that the estimated rates of youth offences aged 18 to 20 is about three times greater than the estimated age for adults above 21 years; and twice greater than the estimated age for youths aged 12 to 17.

The use of self-reported data in establishing the differences and associations between age and delinquency have advantages in that they are free from distortions imposed by formal social control operations and, in contrast to official data, reflect the quality of misbehaviour. Using self-report data Elliott and Voss (1974:74) and Williams and Gold (1972:215) noted that the frequency of seriousness of self-reported data increased with age. Haskell and Yablonsky (1974:63) and Jensen and Rojek (1980:102) found that:

- (a) delinquent behaviour tends to peak around the age of 16 or 17 and thereafter level off; and
- (b) the cultural roles that youths play at different ages influence the type of delinquent behaviour they exhibit. Most recently Glanz (1990b:119) hypothesized that "involvement in delinquency increased with age" and "as age increases, so does involvement in more serious crime". With regard to the first hypothesis she found a positive significant correlation in respect of females but a positive non-significant correlation with males. The second hypothesis was rejected since involvement in delinquency was not significant for either serious or non-serious delinquency.

5.5 PRESENTATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA: AGE AND DELINQUENCY

Cultural definitions of childhood and adolescence roles; and the classification of adolescence into early, middle, and late adolescence lead to the anticipation of differential rates of delinquency among age groups. Consequently respondents are grouped into 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 age-categories. Such categorization aims at testing hypothesis 2, namely that: "Involvement in self-reported delinquent behaviour differs significantly among the 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 age groups".

To test for the differences in delinquency involvement according to age groups, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistic is used. This statistic is suitable for testing the significance of differences of mean scores of more than two groups from a population (Hy, Feig & Regoli, 1983:242). The analysis of variance product is an F-value.

Studies cited in paragraph 5.4 (Glanz, 1990b; Elliott & Voss, 1974; Haskell & Yablonsky, 1974) indicate a linear relationship between age and juvenile delinquency. On the basis of existing theoretical background (Greenberg, 1977; Shover, 1985) hypothesis 3, that: "Involvement in self-reported delinquency increases with age", is deduced.

The variable of age is expressed as entries for rank order number one and the scores on delinquency are expressed as entries for rank order number two. The Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (ρ) is employed. In all instances the level of significance is 0,05.

TABLE 5.1 AGE DIFFERENCES : NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	AGE GROUP IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15		16-18		19-21		
	(n=49)		(n=277)		(n=234)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Truancy	1,35	0,63	1,40	0,74	1,72	1,01	10,04*
Disobedience	1,35	0,63	1,49	0,85	1,53	0,90	0,89
Telling lies	1,78	1,09	1,64	0,99	1,59	0,98	0,77
Sleeping out	1,16	0,51	1,31	0,73	1,65	1,03	12,96*
Discipline	1,14	0,35	1,21	0,61	1,25	0,69	0,74
Friends	1,35	0,69	1,45	0,79	1,48	0,82	0,56

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.1 reveals that with the exception of "truancy" and "sleeping out" the apparent differences among the mean scores are not statistically significant. Further, for all delinquency items, mean scores increase from age-group to age-group, but differences do not reach the level of significance. When all the mean scores are summed for the norm infringement scale for each age-group the following statistics are observed, namely 13 to 15:mean = 8,35; 16 to 18:mean = 8,49; and 19 to 21:mean = 9,22 with an F-value of 4,62, significant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 5.2 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho) : AGE-GROUPS AND NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

AGE-GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,86748	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,93884	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,86971	0,0001*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.2 shows that for all age-groups age is positively correlated with the delinquency scale of norm infringements. Highly significant correlations coefficients of 0,87, 0,94 and 0,87 for age-groups 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 respectively, are obtained. The deduction is made of positive relationship between age and delinquency within age categories.

**TABLE 5.3 AGE DIFFERENCES : REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS
(N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEMS (ABRIDGED)	AGE GROUP IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Driver's licence	1,27	0,70	1,30	0,81	1,50	0,98	3,88*
Speed limit	1,31	0,85	1,18	0,61	1,24	0,74	1,05
Entering bar	1,80	1,21	1,65	1,07	1,52	0,97	1,74
Buying liquor	1,69	1,12	1,73	1,13	1,85	1,18	0,79
Watching films	2,10	1,24	1,86	1,15	1,90	1,18	0,87

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

With the exception of the delinquency item of "driver's licence" the mean scores are not statistically significant.

The sum of the mean scores for the age-groups for the regulation infringements delinquency scale are as follows:

13 to 15:mean = 8,16; 16 to 18:mean = 7,68 and 19 to 21:mean = 8,00 with an insignificant F-value of 0,90.

TABLE 5.4 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho) ; AGE GROUPS AND REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS (N= 560)

AGE-GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,84581	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,92514	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,87738	0,0001*

*p ≤ 0,05; significant

Table 5.4, shows that for all age-groups, age is positively correlated with the delinquency scale of regulation infringements. Highly significant correlation coefficients of 0,85, 0,93 and 0,88 for age-groups 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 respectively are obtained. It can, therefore, be deduced that within age-categories there is positive linearity between age and delinquency.

TABLE 5.5 AGE DIFFERENCES : ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEMS (ABRIDGED)	AGE GROUP IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Inhaling glue	1,57	0,98	1,36	0,72	1,45	0,86	1,75
Use of drugs	1,18	0,63	1,14	0,52	1,24	0,73	1,73
Dealing in drugs	1,71	1,09	1,42	0,84	1,50	1,02	2,26
Drinking alcohol	1,86	1,24	1,75	1,09	1,88	1,20	0,74

p ≤ 0,05

Table 5.5 yields insignificant differences among the mean scores of the three age-groups.

The following summed mean scores for each of the three age-groups are obtained, namely 13 to 15:mean = 6,33; 16 to 18:mean = 5,64; and 19 to 21:mean = 6,08 with a relatively high F-value of 2,87 which is, however, insignificant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 5.6 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho) :AGE-GROUPS AND ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)

AGE-GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,81520	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,88785	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,89734	0,0001*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.6 reveals that for all age-groups age is positively correlated with alcohol and drug abuse. Highly significant correlation coefficients of 0,82; 0,89 and 0,90 for age-groups 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 respectively are obtained. Positive linearity within age-categories, therefore, is deduced.

TABLE 5.7 AGE DIFFERENCES : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEMS (ABRIDGED)	AGE-GROUPS IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Fist-fighting	1,71	0,99	1,55	0,82	1,62	0,97	0,54
Use of weapons	1,61	1,02	1,37	0,84	1,44	0,95	0,66
Intimidation	1,35	0,75	1,26	0,65	1,38	0,85	1,80
Public disturbance	2,39	1,83	1,75	1,02	1,73	1,12	8,04*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

With the exception of the delinquency item of "public disturbance" (F-value 8,04), table 5.7 reveals insignificant differences among the mean scores of each age-group, for all delinquency items. Totalling of the mean scores of each age-group for all delinquency items yields the following statistics; 13 to 15:mean = 6,98; 16 to 18:mean = 5,88; and 19 to 21:mean = 6,17 with a significant F-value of 3,67.

TABLE 5.8 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho): AGE-GROUPS AND VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

AGE GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,84858	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,93119	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,90305	0,0001*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.8 reveals significant correlation coefficients between age-groups and delinquency of violent behaviour delinquency scale. Highly significant and positive correlation coefficients of 0,85; 0,93 and 0,90 for 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 age-groups respectively, are observed.

TABLE 5.9 AGE DIFFERENCES : THEFT (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	AGE GROUP IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Shoplifting	1,53	0,98	1,29	0,75	1,30	0,82	1,91
Theft from friends	1,90	1,16	1,53	0,88	1,62	1,03	2,97*
Theft of money	1,73	1,17	1,52	0,87	1,46	0,91	1,87
Housebreaking	1,18	0,67	1,14	0,49	1,24	0,70	1,83
Auto-theft	1,47	0,89	1,20	0,60	1,33	0,78	4,23*
Robbery	1,77	1,14	1,45	0,90	1,59	1,08	2,88
Joy-riding	1,96	1,21	1,60	1,00	1,73	1,13	2,64

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.9 reveals that significant differences among the mean scores only exist for delinquency items of "theft from friends" and "auto-theft". For the rest of the items statistics yield insignificant differences among the age-groups' mean scores.

The total mean scores for each age group yield the following statistics: 13 to 15:mean = 11,63; 16 to 18:mean = 9,67 and 19 to 21:mean = 10,27 with a significant F-value of 4,61.

TABLE 5.10 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho): AGE-GROUPS AND THEFT (N=560)

AGE-GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,87386	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,94907	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,90129	0,0001*

* $\leq 0,05$; significant

Table 5.10 shows high positive correlations between age and delinquency. For each age-group positive and significant correlation coefficients, namely 0,87; 0,95 and 0,90 for 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 respectively, are observed.

TABLE 5.11 AGE DIFFERENCES : MALICIOUS DAMAGE OF PROPERTY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	AGE GROUP IN YEARS						F VALUE
	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		
	\bar{Y}	SD	\bar{Y}	SD	\bar{Y}	SD	
Throwing stones	1,24	0,60	1,16	0,56	1,21	0,67	0,75
Public property	1,24	0,75	1,15	0,57	1,16	0,60	0,54
Arson	1,27	0,67	1,13	0,50	1,22	0,70	1,99
Schools	1,10	0,31	1,13	0,53	1,15	0,54	0,14
Defacing books	1,37	0,83	1,14	0,53	1,26	0,75	3,45*

*p $\leq 0,05$; significant

Three observations can be made from table 5.11. Firstly, respondents, report relatively low rate of involvement in malicious damage of property. Secondly, except for the delinquency item of "defacing books", differences among the age-groups means scores are small. Thirdly, the F-values for each delinquency item but one, are insignificant.

When the mean scores of each age group are summed they yield the following statistics: 13 to 15:mean = 6,22; 16 to 18:mean = 5,71; and 19 to 21:mean = 5,99 with an insignificant F-value of 1,83.

TABLE 5.12 CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (rho) : AGE-GROUPS AND MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY (N=560)

AGE-GROUP (YEARS)	SAMPLE (n)	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
13-15	49	0,65641	0,0001*
16-18	277	0,70597	0,0001*
19-21	234	0,75669	0,0001*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 5.12 shows that the rho statistics yielded by each age-group are relatively lower than those yielded by previous tables, namely 0,66, 0,71 and 0,76 for age-groups 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21, respectively. These are, however, still positive and significant, which shows linearity between age and delinquency within each age-category.

The significance of age in juvenile delinquency lies with socio-cultural, socio-psychological and econo-legal significance. The cultural views and expectations of age regard adolescence as a specific period with its own peculiar demands. The socio-psychological needs brought about by adolescence put teenagers in a vulnerable position towards delinquency. The legal and economic prescriptions limit the mobility of the youth by depriving him of legal and economic experimentation.

The traditional theories of delinquency like the cultural transmission and strain theories (Miller, 1958; Cohen, 1955) fail to explain why people gradually refrain from crime as they age and why delinquency increases with age. Desistance theories (Greenberg, 1977; Baldwin, 1985; Shover, 1985) seem to provide a logical explanation of this phenomena.

Both official and victimization data show that:

- * Involvement in delinquency increases with age and levels off at young adulthood.
- * During adolescence, delinquency rises dramatically and reaches peak round about the age of 16 to 18.

Some self-report studies (Elliott & Voss, 1974; Williams & Gold, 1972; Jensen & Rojek, 1980) established that:

- * delinquent behaviour tends to peak around the age of 16 to 17 and thereafter levels off; and

- * the cultural roles that youths play at different age-groups influence the type of delinquent behaviour they exhibit. Some, however, (Glanz, 1990b) have established linearity between age and delinquency but not with seriousness or non-seriousness of delinquency.

Statistical evidence in the present study reveals that, with the exception of a few delinquency items, no significant differences can be found among age-groups. Nevertheless a strong support for linearity between age and delinquency within age-groups is observed.

CHAPTER 6

FAMILY STRUCTURE AND PARENTAL ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Socio-criminologists generally agree that the family structure and parental economic activities provide an insurance against delinquent behaviour of the youth. It is through a well-constituted nature of the family and ability of the parents to provide primary needs such as food, clothing and shelter that the child learns the norms and beliefs of society.

A wide variety of family characteristics have been linked to the misconduct of adolescents. It would be fair to state that many young people in South Africa today face problems arising from family conflicts. The problems might, in some instances, lead to family breakdown. Included are social changes that affect values of society like legitimate and illegitimate births; large and overcrowded families; poor employment opportunities; and economic strains that force both parents to seek employment to support the family. For many adolescents these problems centre on aspects such as rapid urbanization, poor economic conditions and the breaking down of the extended family or poor functioning of the nuclear family. As a matter of fact, many problems experienced by young people in this country are similar to the well-documented problems of youth anywhere in the world.

It would be impossible within the confines of the present study to analyze satisfactorily all the family predictors of delinquency. Consequently, the family structure - broken

family and family size - and parental economic activities are chosen for analysis. The close relationship between these variables, their relatively easy conceptualization by respondents and availability of research studies, make them a logical choice for analysis.

6.2 THE BROKEN HOME AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Enduring controversy in the study of juvenile delinquency is the relationship between parental absence and the onset of delinquency. At the beginning of this century, studies (Slawson, 1926) paid attention to the effects of parental separation or single parenthood on delinquent behaviour. Experts (Weeks, 1940; Burt, 1925) contended that a broken home or single-parenthood are strong determinants of delinquency. Probably this deduction is made from the premise that a child is first socialized at home and taught appropriate behaviour patterns within a complete family circle (Siegel & Senna, 1988:244). These contentions are, however, not without problems. Five of them arise in relating the broken home to delinquency. These are as follows:

- * Firstly, it is difficult to isolate the broken home as a significant variable from other spurious variables which could be of a cultural nature within a given population. For example, guardianship of an illegitimate child among traditional Blacks in South Africa is the responsibility of the maternal relatives.

- * Secondly, the contention that the broken home has more profound effect on females than on males. Many studies (Weeks, 1940; Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Monahan, 1957; Morris, 1964) have found that the influence of parental absence was greater on girls than on boys.

- * Thirdly, whether the physically broken home, i.e. a home broken by death, divorce or desertion, has a greater or lesser effect than a psychologically broken home, i.e. a home characterized by parental conflicts (Martin & Fitzpatrick, 1965:115-118).

- * Fourthly, whilst the broken home-theory has been popular in the explanation of delinquency, it is worth noting that today many children are raised in single-parent families and from all indications, the great majority of these children suffer no ill-effects (Thornton et al., 1987:199).

- * Lastly, the findings from official data reveal that most delinquents come from physically broken families whereas self-report data show that there is a small relationship between the broken home and delinquency (Martin & Fitzpatrick, 1965:118).

A brief review of some findings would serve to highlight important relationships between delinquency and broken homes.

6.2.1 Research findings on the relationship between the broken home and juvenile delinquency

Studies based on official statistics with regard to the broken home were first conducted by Slawson (1926) and Burt (1925). Both studies showed that a substantial number of delinquents came from broken homes. Shaw and McKay (1969), however, argued that although these studies used control groups, their validity could be questioned since broken homes were more common in certain ethnic and racial groups, social and residential areas than others.

Burt and Slawson's studies were soon followed by those of Weeks (1940), Bowlby (1947), Glueck and Glueck (1950), Monahan (1957) and Toby (1957). The conclusion drawn from these studies was that the influence of parental absence was greatest on girls compared to boys. Evidence produced by these studies is that female delinquency is largely attributable to deficient family relationships which force the females to seek compensatory affectional relationship outside the home (Datesman & Scarpitti, 1975:33-34).

With the advent of self-report studies the idea of the broken home as an important theory of delinquency took another shape. Nye (1958) in his study of 3000 youths concluded that:

- * the relationship between the broken home and reported delinquency existed, although very small compared to that found among institutionalised population; and
- * the broken home is not the crucial link between the family and delinquency. On the other hand, happiness in the family and parental marital adjustment were potentially more important than a broken home (Nye, 1958:45).

Morris (1964) presented somewhat different evidence supporting the prediction that delinquent girls in comparison with their non-delinquent counterparts more often come from families characterized by tension and homes broken by divorce or separation than by death of the spouse and also from homes where quarrels lead to parental absence (Morris, 1964:84-85).

Hirschi (1969), in his study of 1,815 male adolescents, found that there is little difference in self-reported delinquency between boys living with their natural fathers and those without a father-figure. Only those with step-or foster-fathers are more likely to report delinquency than those from intact families (Hirschi, 1969:24).

Datesman and Scarpitti (1975:33-35) had the following findings:

- * Marital status of parents was weakly related to sex when type of offence was not controlled and female delinquents come from broken homes more often than male delinquents.
- * When type of offence is controlled, marital status of parents and sex are not related for person and property offences but strongly related to public offences (truancy and vagrancy).
- * Whilst males charged with public policy offences are more likely to come from broken homes as males charged with person and property offences, females who come from broken homes are more likely to be charged for public policy than property and person offences (Datesman & Scarpitti, 1975:36-37).

Reacting to Datesman and Scarpitti's findings, Austin (1978:487-503) hypothesized as follows:

- * The relationship between father-absence and involvement in property offences is stronger for black boys than for black girls and similar for white boys and for white girls.

- * The relationship between father absence and involvement in personal offences is stronger for black boys than for black girls and stronger for white girls than for white boys (Austin, 1978:489).

Austin's findings showed no significant relationship between father-absence and type of delinquency for black boys. There were, however, significant differences on the effect of the broken home with white boys and girls. Further, father-absence had a stronger effect on assault offences among white girls than among white boys (Austin, 1978:491-494).

Brown (1984) using official data, studied juvenile delinquency among Zulus in Natal and came out with the following findings:

- * Well over half of juvenile offenders in her study had been brought up in broken family units where parents were either deceased or one had deserted the family.
- * As many as 76 percent of the sample had lost one or both parents by either death or desertion and had been brought up by one parent only.
- * Only 24 percent were in the care of both parents immediately prior to their arrest but of these, 11 percent were in the care of one parent and one step-parent (Brown, 1984:162-163).

From the preceding studies the following deductions can be made:

- * Studies based on official data, by and large, support the idea that the broken home has an effect on juvenile delinquency and that this is felt more with girls than with boys (Datesman and Scarpitti, 1975; Brown, 1984).
- * Self-report studies (Nye, 1958; Morris, 1964; Hirschi; 1969; Austin, 1978) reveal little difference in self-reported delinquent behaviour between youth from broken and intact homes.
- * The fact that a family is broken does not necessarily lead to delinquency but other factors such as parental conflicts prior to the final breakdown, emotional instability of parents and sex of the adolescent play an important role.

6.2.2 Presentation and analysis of data: Broken home and juvenile delinquency

Hypothesis 4 in the present study stipulates that: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents from broken and those from intact families". The variable of the parental marital status is used to determine the broken or intact nature of the family.

TABLE 6.1 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE OF
 RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS
 (N=560)

PARENTAL MARITAL STATUS	RESPONDENTS	
	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Married	398	71,07
Divorced/Separated	30	5,36
Never married	119	21,25
Both parents deceased	13	2,32
TOTAL	560	100,00

Table 6.1 is a frequency distribution of respondents according to parental marital status. For statistical analysis, categories of "divorced/separated", "never married", and "both parents deceased" are collapsed into "broken". Consequently two categories are used for analysis, namely "intact" and "broken" (cf. Datesman & Scarpitti, 1975).

To measure the proposed differences the chi-square statistic is employed. This statistic is suitable for measuring the associations and differences of nominal data, and a significant chi-square value at 0,05 level would lead to the acceptance of the hypothesis.

In addition to the chi-square statistic the contingency coefficient (C) statistic is employed as a measure of association. This statistic has no assumptions regarding the population distribution and can be applied with any level of

measurement. If the chi-square value is statistically significant, so will be the value of the contingency coefficient (Vito et al., 1988:32).

TABLE 6.2 FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY : NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N= 560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE THAN 4 TIMES
Truancy	Intact	261	92	22	23
	Broken	105	35	8	37
	$\chi^2=1,62$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,65	
Disobedience	Intact	276	87	12	23
	Broken	103	36	8	15
	$\chi^2=3,82$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,28	
Telling lies	Intact	261	77	20	40
	Broken	99	31	12	20
	$\chi^2=2,07$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,56	
Sleep-out	Intact	310	51	12	25
	Broken	109	26	12	15
	$\chi^2=9,22^*$	df=3	C=0,13	p=0,03*	
Discipline	Intact	353	30	8	7
	Broken	130	18	4	10
	$\chi^2=10,17^*$	df=3	C=0,13	p=0,02*	
Friends	Intact	276	92	12	18
	Broken	106	39	5	12
	$\chi^2=2,09$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,55	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 6.2 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between children from broken and intact families except for delinquency items of "sleep-out" and "discipline". For these two items chi-square statistics are 9,22 and 10,17 respectively. The contingency coefficient value of 0,13 for both is observed, signifying a very low but significant association between the family structure and the involvement in delinquency.

When all the delinquency items are combined for the norm infringement delinquency sub-scale, statistics reveal the following: chi-square=21,65; df=16; C=0,19; and p=0,16.

TABLE 6.3 FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY : REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE THAN 4 TIMES
Driver's licence	Intact	316	41	11	30
	Broken	137	7	2	16
	$\chi^2=7,11$	df=3	C=0,11	p=0,07	
Exceeding speed limit	Intact	357	23	5	13
	Broken	142	4	3	13
	$\chi^2=8,57^*$	df=3	C=0,12	p=0,04*	
Entering bar or bottle-store	Intact	268	58	25	47
	Broken	119	16	4	23
	$\chi^2=6,30$	df=3	C=0,11	p=0,10	
Buying liquor	Intact	247	65	19	67
	Broken	100	26	4	32
	$\chi^2=2,05$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,56	
"Adults-only" films	Intact	223	78	26	71
	Broken	86	28	12	36
	$\chi^2=1,79$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,62	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 6.3 reveals that for all delinquency items except one (exceeding speed-limit), no significant differences exist between respondents from intact and broken families. In the delinquency item of "exceeding speed-limit" statistics are: chi-square=8,57; df=3, C=0,12 and p=0,04; significant at 0,05. The contingency coefficient of 0,12 also indicates a significant but very low association between family structure and involvement in delinquency.

When all the delinquency items are combined into regulation infringement sub-scale, the statistics reveal the following: chi-square=26,02 and df=15 and C=0,21 indicating a significant but low association between the family and regulation infringement delinquency sub-scale.

Statistically significant results are, therefore, obtained for "exceeding speed limit" and the regulation infringement sub-scale as a whole. No significant results are obtained for other items of the scale.

TABLE 6.4 **FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY : ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE**
(N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Inhaling glue	Intact	297	66	18	17
	Broken	115	26	9	12
	$\chi^2=2,67$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,45	
Taking drugs	Intact	358	21	7	12
	Broken	144	9	2	7
	$\chi^2=0,81$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,85	
Dealing in drugs	Intact	306	48	12	32
	Broken	112	20	10	20
	$\chi^2=6,16$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,10	
Drinking liquor	Intact	240	61	30	67
	Broken	95	30	7	30
	$\chi^2=2,77$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,43	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.4 shows no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents from intact and broken homes for all delinquency items in the alcohol and drug abuse scale. The contingency coefficient values generally reveal very low association between family structure and delinquency.

When all the items are combined statistics are as follows:
 chi-square=10,63; C=0,14; and p=0,48; not significant at 0,05.

TABLE 6.5 FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Fist-fighting	Intact	252	97	21	28
	Broken	99	36	13	14
	$\chi^2=2,14$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,54	
Assault with weapon	Intact	319	38	15	26
	Broken	119	15	9	19
	$\chi^2=5,40$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,15	
Intimidation	Intact	324	44	15	15
	Broken	129	15	9	9
	$\chi^2=2,11$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,55	
Public disturbance	Intact	224	87	27	60
	Broken	94	37	5	26
	$\chi^2=2,94$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,40	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.5 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between children from intact and broken families. All delinquency items in violent behaviour sub-scale have insignificant chi-squares and very weak contingency coefficient values.

When all the items are combined the following statistics are observed: chi-square=9,99; df=12; C=0,13 and p=0,62; not significant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 6.6

FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY : THEFT (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Shoplifting	Intact	334	35	10	19
	Broken	132	10	4	16
	$X^2=5,86$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,12	
Theft from friends	Intact	263	74	19	42
	Broken	102	37	7	16
	$X^2=1,32$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,72	
Theft of money	Intact	283	72	9	34
	Broken	106	33	7	16
	$X^2=2,79$	df=3	C=0,70	p=0,43	
Housebreaking	Intact	358	20	9	11
	Broken	141	13	3	5
	$X^2=2,00$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,57	
Auto-theft	Intact	335	37	10	16
	Broken	131	19	4	8
	$X^2=1,06$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,79	
Robbery	Intact	292	53	13	40
	Broken	114	19	4	25
	$X^2=3,48$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,32	
Joy-riding	Intact	260	64	20	54
	Broken	102	29	5	26
	$X^2=1,79$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,62	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.6 shows no significant differences between children from broken and intact families in self-reported delinquency for all delinquency items. Further, for all the delinquency items the chi-square are low and contingency coefficient values are very weak.

When all the items are combined into theft scale, the following statistics are observed: chi-square=24,97; df=19; C=0,21; p=0,16 ($p > 0,05$).

TABLE 6.7 FAMILY AND DELINQUENCY: MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	MARITAL STATUS	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Throwing stones	Intact	353	26	5	14
	Broken	146	11	-	5
	$\chi^2=2,14$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,55	
Destruction of public property	Intact	365	16	4	13
	Broken	149	5	2	6
	χ^2	df=3	C=0,03	p=0,94	
Arson	Intact	359	19	8	12
	Broken	145	9	3	5
	$\chi^2=0,16$	df=3	C=0,02	p=0,98	
Destruction of school property	Intact	367	18	6	7
	Broken	149	5	4	4
	$\chi^2=1,47$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,69	
Defacing other students' book	Intact	350	23	9	16
	Broken	146	7	4	5
	$\chi^2=0,81$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,85	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.7 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency for all the delinquency items in the malicious damage to property scale. Observed are low chi-square and very weak contingency coefficient values, signifying little relationship between family structure and delinquency.

When all the delinquency items of the scale are combined, the following statistics are observed: chi-square=15,82; df=14; C=0,17; p=0,33 ($p > 0,05$).

6.3 FAMILY SIZE AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The second important predictor of juvenile delinquency within the family structure is family size or simply the number of siblings within the family.

The analysis of the relationship between family size and delinquency presents four main problems, namely:

- * The dearth of independent surveys providing the average number of siblings within a family of juvenile delinquents makes it difficult to state authoritatively that most juvenile offenders come from large families.
- * Official statistics, whilst revealing that most delinquents come from large families, cannot be accepted as valid since cultural dictates often vary from society to society as to what can be considered "large" family.
- * The concept "large family" overlaps a great deal with the concept "overcrowded family". Consequently, more often than not, confusion exists between the two concepts.

- * Lastly, most research on juvenile delinquency has been based on urban families where most are of nuclear types. From such populations it is easy to measure a "large" family, whereas with rural populations one often finds extended families, which cannot in any terms be regarded as "large" if within a common homestead more than one nuclear family resides (Mqadi, 1992:266).

In spite of these problems, some studies generally reveal that juvenile offenders come from large families and are also more likely to be middle rather than oldest or youngest in the family (Biles & Challinger, 1981:60).

6.3.1 Research findings on the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency

Glueck and Glueck (1950:81-82) found that homes of delinquents were more crowded than those of nondelinquents and with more persons occupying a single-room. This implied that the family size has some relationship to delinquent behaviour.

West (1967:73) noted that families with large numbers of children contribute a disproportionate number of juvenile delinquents. Further, he noted that family size is associated with the following:

- * boys whose first conviction occurred at an early age;
- * overcrowded homes;
- * low family income; and
- * poor parental supervision (Biles & Challinger, 1981:60-62).

Cowie, Cowie and Slater (1968:177) opine that one of these striking features about the families from which their girls came, was the size of their families. They point out that the impression created from their study material is that problems of delinquency come from large families. The conclusion they could draw was that it seemed likely that the size of sibship tended to increase the risk of delinquency both among boys and girls (Cowie et al, 1968:177-178).

Gove, Hughes and Galle (1979:59-80) opine that overcrowding in the home is analogous to overcrowding described in numerous studies. Further, the relationship within such families play an important role in determining the behaviour of its individual members. Their proposition, therefore, was that parents who have many children would be aggressive towards them; unsupportive; and relatively unconcerned with their behaviour outside the home (Gove et al., 1979:74).

Bagot (1972:26-29) studied the effects of family size on family income and overcrowdedness of the home in relation to the number of persons per family. The opinion is that if the family is large strain is put on the family income which results into poverty and delinquency. Further, since a large percentage of juvenile delinquents come from large and overcrowded families a conclusion could be drawn that there is a relationship between family size and delinquency.

In spite of the above findings and opinions, Venter and Retief (1960:114) found that family size bore no relation in delinquent behaviour in their study of 200 delinquent and 200 non-delinquent youths. Glanz (1990b:134) concludes that research findings, although no direct causal relationship could be detected, point to the fact that the larger the family size,

the less time parents (mothers in particular) have for nurturing, disciplining and providing general emotional support to their children.

6.3.2 Presentation and analysis of data : Family size and juvenile delinquency

One of the problems noted in the analysis of the relationship between family size and juvenile delinquency is the standard universally accepted of what is meant by a large family. Consequently, in the present study the number of children within a homestead is adopted as a criterion for measuring family size. Three categories are divided, namely one to four children; five to eight children; and nine and above with each category labelled small size, medium size and large size family respectively (see table 6.8).

**TABLE 6.8 FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE SAMPLE OF
RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO FAMILY SIZE (N=560)**

FAMILY SIZE	FREQUENCY (N)	PERCENTAGE (%)
Small	127	22,68
Medium	258	46,07
Large	175	31,25
TOTAL	560	100,00

Research studies (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; West, 1967; Cowie et al; 1968; Venter & Retief, 1960) imply a relationship between family size and delinquency and that self-reported delinquency will differ among different family sizes. Hypothesis 5 in the present study asserts that: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from small, medium and large-sized families". The proposed differences are tested with the chi-square and contingency coefficient statistics; with 0,05 as the level of significance.

TABLE 6.9 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Truancy	Small	84	29	6	8
	Medium	175	58	15	10
	Large	107	40	9	19
	$X^2=8,66$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,19	
Disobedience	Small	86	26	8	7
	Medium	168	66	5	19
	Large	125	31	7	12
	$X^2=8,81$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,18	
Telling lies	Small	86	22	8	11
	Medium	161	52	10	35
	Large	113	34	14	14
	$X^2=7,60$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,27	
Sleeping-out	Small	95	17	5	10
	Medium	204	32	9	13
	Large	120	28	10	17
	$X^2=7,10$	df=6	C=0,11	p=0,31	
Objection to discipline	Small	111	13	-	3
	Medium	225	21	7	5
	Large	147	14	5	9
	$X^2=7,99$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,24	
Friends	Small	91	27	5	4
	Medium	173	66	6	13
	Large	118	38	6	13
	$X^2=4,74$	df=6	C=0,09	p=0,58	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.9 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency among children from small, medium and large families. For all delinquency items, chi-square values reveal no significant differences and contingency coefficient values reveal little association between family size and delinquency. When all delinquency items are combined, the same statistical pattern is observed, namely: chi-square=34,55; df=32; C=0,24; and p=0,58.

TABLE 6.10 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Driver's licence	Small	102	12	4	9
	Medium	211	24	4	19
	Large	140	12	5	18
	$X^2=3,51$ df=6		C=0,08	p=0,74	
Exceeding speed limit	Small	114	10	2	1
	Medium	234	7	2	15
	Large	151	10	4	10
	$X^2=12,31$ df=6		C=0,15	p=0,06	
Entering bar or bottle-store	Small	90	17	7	13
	Medium	172	36	13	27
	Large	125	21	9	20
	$X^2=2,14$ df=6		C=0,06	p=0,91	
Buying liquor	Small	83	18	6	20
	Medium	157	48	11	42
	Large	107	25	6	37
	$X^2=4,01$ df=6		C=0,08	p=0,68	
Watching "adult-only" film	Small	66	27	10	24
	Medium	143	55	19	41
	Large	100	24	9	42
	$X^2=8,66$ df=6		C=0,12	p=0,19	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.10 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from different family sizes. The delinquency item of "exceeding speed limit" has comparatively the highest statistical values (chi-square=12,31 and C=0,15), but these do not reach the expected level of significance.

When all delinquency items are combined into regulation infringement sub-scale, the statistics yield the following values: chi-square=36,64; C=0,25; df=30; and p=0,19; not significant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 6.11 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Inhaling glue	Small	89	26	8	4
	Medium	197	39	9	13
	Large	126	27	10	12
	$\chi^2=5,97$	df=6	C=0,10	p=0,43	
Taking of drugs	Small	113	8	3	3
	Medium	234	15	2	7
	Large	155	7	4	9
	$\chi^2=5,37$	df=6	C=0,10	p=0,50	
Dealing in drugs	Small	98	13	4	12
	Medium	193	38	7	20
	Large	127	17	11	20
	$\chi^2=8,03$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,24	
Drinking of liquor	Small	72	18	10	27
	Medium	153	47	16	42
	Large	110	26	11	28
	$\chi^2=3,53$	df=6	C=0,08	p=0,74	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.11 reveals that there are no significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from different family sizes. For all delinquency items of the alcohol and drug abuse scale, statistical values yielded are very low.

When all the items are combined a similar statistical pattern is observed: chi-square=20,11; df=22; C=0,19; p=0,58; not significant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 6.12 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Fist-fighting	Small	84	26	9	8
	Medium	167	63	13	15
	Large	100	44	12	19
	$\chi^2=6,74$	df=6	C=0,11	p=0,35	
Assault with weapon	Small	103	11	7	6
	Medium	202	26	12	13
	Large	133	16	5	21
	$\chi^2=7,33$	df=6	C=0,11	p=0,29	
Intimidation	Small	102	16	6	3
	Medium	214	23	7	14
	Large	137	20	11	7
	$\chi^2=6,67$	df=6	C=0,11	p=0,35	
Public disturbance	Small	70	26	13	18
	Medium	142	66	11	39
	Large	106	32	8	29
	$\chi^2=9,54$	df=6	C=0,13	p=0,15	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.12 indicates no significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from different family sizes. All the chi-square values of delinquent items do not reach the expected level of significance. Strikingly, for the three first delinquency items, namely, "fist-fighting", "assault with weapon" and "intimidation", the contingency coefficient values are equal (0,11); and slightly higher (0,13) for "public disturbance". The level of association, however, is very slight.

A similar statistical pattern is observed when delinquency items are summed for the violent behaviour sub-scale, namely: chi-square=22,60; df=24; C=0,20; and p=0,54.

TABLE 6.13 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : THEFT (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Shoplifting	Small	102	12	5	8
	Medium	221	20	4	13
	Large	143	13	5	14
	$X^2=4,32$	df=6	C=0,09	p=0,63	
Theft from friends	Small	92	20	6	9
	Medium	163	53	14	28
	Large	110	38	6	21
	$X^2=5,51$	df=6	C=0,10	p=0,48	
Theft of money	Small	97	19	2	9
	Medium	171	52	10	25
	Large	121	34	4	16
	$X^2=5,07$	df=6	C=0,10	p=0,54	
Housebreaking	Small	118	5	2	2
	Medium	227	16	7	8
	Large	154	12	3	6
	$X^2=3,13$	df=6	C=0,08	p=0,79	
Auto-theft	Small	111	8	3	5
	Medium	214	28	5	11
	Large	141	20	6	8
	$X^2=3,71$	df=6	C=0,08	p=0,72	
Robbery	Small	99	17	5	6
	Medium	178	37	10	33
	Large	129	18	2	26
	$X^2=12,47^*$	df=6	C=0,15	p=0,05*	
Joy-riding	Small	87	21	8	11
	Medium	167	44	13	34
	Large	108	28	4	35
	$X^2=10,64$	df=6	C=0,14	p=0,10	

* $p \leq 0,05$; significant

With the exception of the delinquency item of "robbery" (taking something from somebody against his will), table 6.13 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from different family sizes. The statistical values of "robbery" are: chi-square=12,47; df=6; and p=0,05. The contingency coefficient of this delinquency item (0,15) signifies a very weak relationship between family size and delinquency.

Statistical values for the combined delinquency items are as follows: chi-square=36,57; df=38; C=0,25; not significant at 0,05 level.

TABLE 6.14 FAMILY SIZE AND DELINQUENCY : MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	FAMILY SIZE	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Throwing stones	Small	114	7	1	5
	Medium	230	18	2	8
	Large	155	12	2	6
	$X^2=0,67$	df=6	C=0,03	p=1,00	
Destruction of property	Small	121	5	-	1
	Medium	235	10	2	11
	Large	158	6	4	7
	$X^2=7,58$	df=6	C=0,12	p=0,27	
Arson	Small	113	7	4	3
	Medium	237	15	3	3
	Large	154	6	4	11
	$X^2=12,57^*$	df=6	C=0,15	p=0,05*	
Destruction of school property	Small	117	6	2	2
	Medium	236	13	4	5
	Large	163	4	4	4
	$X^2=2,66$	df=6	C=0,07	p=0,85	
Defacing other students' books	Small	110	7	6	4
	Medium	226	16	5	11
	Large	160	7	2	6
	$X^2=5,92$	df=6	C=0,10	p=0,43	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 6.14 shows that with the exception of "arson" no significant differences in self-reported delinquency exist among respondents from different family sizes. For "arson" statistics are as follows: chi-square=12,57; df=6; and p=0,05. The contingency coefficient value (0,15) signify a very weak relationship between family size and delinquency.

When all the delinquency items are combined for the malicious damage to property scale, the following statistics are yielded: chi-square=30,78; df=28; C=0,23 and p=0,33, insignificant at 0,05.

6.4 PARENTAL ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Trojanowicz and Morash (1983:95) opine that families of juvenile delinquents, regardless of socio-economic status, usually have characteristics that are different from those of families of non-delinquents. Their families are characterized by disruptive tendencies with a great deal of tension and rejection. Even though such conditions may exist, the family's economic activities determine the attitudes children hold toward life and their social status within the wider community.

Peterson and Becker (1965:67) note that many research studies have pointed out to an association between family's economic activity and delinquency. The family's inability to provide for material needs of a youngster can create insecurity and, as a consequence, affect the amount of control that the family can exert over youth.

Hurwitz and Christiansen (1983:312) say that drawing boundaries in defining the economic conditions and their influence on delinquent behaviour is very much an arbitrary matter. A variety of economic circumstances can be considered, including

parental occupation, unemployment of parents, their educational status, and the mother's occupational status if the latter leads to neglect and loss of control over children. It is for this reason that the father's employment status and the mother's occupational activity have become important for the analysis of delinquency.

In the following paragraphs a review of research findings on the employment status of fathers and mothers is made, followed by statistical analysis of data relating to the present study.

6.4.1 Father's economic activity and delinquency

Traditionally, the father is regarded as the head of the household and the family. This function has, however, had different meanings at different periods in the course of history and in different cultural contexts (Van Wyk, 1987; 349). Although, this position has somewhat changed with time, the financial role of the father is still an important one.

Three most important aspects of the father's economic activity are: the level of education which determines his type of employment and opportunity, the type of employment or occupation which has an effect on his socio-economic status and his economic status, that is, whether he is employed or unemployed. Although the present study does not propose any effect of the first two variables, it is proper to review some of the most important findings.

The level of education of the father determines his choice of occupation because a particular level of education is a prerequisite for executing certain jobs. Cronje et al., (1982:137-138) refer to data by the Family Life Commission (1960) which, although not representative for all persons in

South Africa, indicate the differences between educational levels of fathers of juvenile delinquents and that of fathers in general. This data reveals the following:

- (a) Among families of juvenile delinquents 177 (55,00%) out of 320 fathers had a standard of education of below standard six as against only 56 (3,60%) of families in Pretoria.
- (b) While no families in Pretoria had an educational standard below standard three, 28 (8,75%) of juvenile delinquents' fathers had such school qualifications.

From the above statistics it can be deduced that fathers of juvenile offenders have a low level of education, which affects the choice of occupation.

With regard to the type of occupation, previous studies indicated that fathers of juvenile offenders are highly represented in low-paying and unskilled occupations. As early as 1936, Sullenger, comparing occupation of fathers of 110 juvenile offenders and those of males of over 24 years found the following respective percentages: skilled 7,30 and 7,50 percent; semiskilled 7,30 and 36,60 percent; and unskilled 85,40 and 55,90 percent (Cronje et al., 1982:138).

Glueck and Glueck (1950:106) found preponderance of unskilled workers and truck drivers among the fathers of delinquents as against fathers of non-delinquents. No differences in the incidence of employment of both groups in trades requiring some skill and in factory work could be found. Lastly, a smaller proportion of the fathers of the delinquents were generally engaged in white-collar occupations.

Strating (1961) compared occupational distribution of fathers of delinquent girls with that of male city dwellers. She found the following:

- * The fathers of delinquent girls were not employed to any notable extent in more highly paid occupations but usually in lower paid occupations.
- * The fathers of delinquent girls were not represented to any greater extent among better paid occupations.
- * The fathers of delinquent girls were poorly represented in the higher occupational levels in comparison with those of non-offending juveniles, whereas the exact opposite was true of the lowest occupational levels (Strating, 1961:92-96).

From the above studies we can deduce that:

- * The level of education the father holds is closely linked to the type of occupation he has and there is an inverse relationship between occupation and delinquency.
- * The occupation of the father determines the socio-economic status of the family and since most delinquents come from the lower socio-economic strata (Nye et al., 1958; Reiss, 1951; Peterson & Becker, 1965), the lower the family socio-economic status the higher the rate of delinquency.
- * Whilst the level of education and low occupational status affect the self-esteem of the family members to a large extent, worse can be expected in a family where the father is unemployed.

6.4.2 Presentation and analysis of data : Father's economic activity and delinquency

Research studies cited above indicate that the economic activity of a father within a family is related to delinquent behaviour. The present study aims at establishing whether there are any significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents from families whose fathers are employed and those whose fathers are unemployed. Hypothesis 6, therefore asserts that: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive". The proposed differences are tested with chi-square and contingency coefficient statistics, with 0,05 as the level of significance.

**TABLE 6.15 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Truancy	Employed	166	61	17	17
	Unemployed	200	66	13	20
	$\chi^2=1,56$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,67	
Disobedience	Employed	178	55	13	15
	Unemployed	201	68	7	23
	$\chi^2=3,69$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,30	
Telling lies	Employed	167	49	14	31
	Unemployed	193	59	18	29
	$\chi^2=0,80$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,85	
Sleeping-out	Employed	201	36	8	16
	Unemployed	218	41	16	24
	$\chi^2=2,12$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,44	
Objection to discipline	Employed	219	27	7	8
	Unemployed	264	21	5	9
	$\chi^2=2,77$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,43	
Friends	Employed	180	60	10	11
	Unemployed	202	71	7	19
	$\chi^2=2,29$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,52	

$p \leq 0,05$

Contrary to the hypothesis, table 6.15 reveals that there are no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive. The chi-square values yielded signify small differences for all delinquency items. The contingency coefficient values reveal very low association between fathers' economic activity and self-reported delinquency. When all the frequencies of delinquency items are combined the same pattern is observed, namely: chi-square=19,60; df=16; C=0,18; and p=0,24; which is not significant at 0,05 level.

**TABLE 6.16 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Drivers' licence	Employed	212	25	6	18
	Unemployed	241	23	7	28
	$\chi^2=1,62$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,66	
Exceeding speed limit	Employed	235	13	2	11
	Unemployed	264	14	6	15
	$\chi^2=1,77$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,62	
Entering bar or bottle- store	Employed	174	39	17	31
	Unemployed	213	35	12	39
	$\chi^2=3,36$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,34	
Buying liquor	Employed	159	44	13	45
	Unemployed	188	47	10	54
	$\chi^2=1,16$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,76	
Watching "adults -only" films	Employed	128	56	22	55
	Unemployed	181	50	16	52
	$\chi^2=7,92^*$	df=3	C=0,12	p=0,05*	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

With the exception of the delinquency item of "watching an 'adults-only' film", table 6.4.4 reveals no significant differences between children whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive.

For the delinquency item of "watching an 'adults-only' film" it appears that respondents whose fathers are unemployed to a greater extent report no involvement in delinquency whilst those whose father are employed report more involvement. The differences are significant (chi-square=7,92) but the association is very weak (C=0,12).

When all the frequencies of delinquency items are combined, relatively high but insignificant differences are observed: chi-square=22,02; df=15; C=0,20; and p=0,11.

**TABLE 6.17 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Inhaling glue	Employed	192	41	15	13
	Unemployed	220	51	12	16
	$\chi^2=1,06$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,79	
Taking of drugs	Employed	232	18	4	7
	Unemployed	270	12	5	12
	$\chi^2=2,94$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,40	
Dealing in drugs	Employed	192	38	11	20
	Unemployed	226	30	11	32
	$\chi^2=3,92$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,27	
Drinking of liquor	Employed	142	45	21	53
	Unemployed	193	46	16	44
	$\chi^2=6,74$	df=3	C=0,11	p=0,08	

$p \leq 0,05$

Statistics in table 6.17 show no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive.

In the delinquency item of "drinking of liquor" a comparatively high chi-square value of 6,74 is observed but very low contingency coefficient of 0,11 is observed. These do not

reach the level of significance ($p=0,08$). Further, respondents whose fathers are unemployed regularly report less involvement in delinquency than their counterparts. When all the delinquency items are summed for the alcohol and drug abuse delinquency sub-scale, statistics yield the following: $\chi^2=13,17$; $df=11$; $c=0,15$; and $p=0,28$.

TABLE 6.18 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Fist-fighting	Employed	162	60	19	20
	Unemployed	189	73	15	22
	$\chi^2=1,34$	$df=3$	$C=0,05$	$p=0,72$	
Assault with a weapon	Employed	202	29	10	20
	Unemployed	236	24	14	25
	$\chi^2=1,76$	$df=3$	$C=0,06$	$p=0,62$	
Intimidation	Employed	216	24	12	9
	Unemployed	237	35	12	15
	$\chi^2=1,96$	$df=3$	$C=0,06$	$p=0,58$	
Public disturbance	Employed	149	50	17	45
	Unemployed	169	74	15	41
	$\chi^2=3,65$	$df=3$	$C=0,08$	$p=0,30$	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.18 reveals very low chi-square and contingency coefficient values, and consequently no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are employed and those whose fathers are unemployed. Further, very low association between father's economic activity and delinquency exists.

A similar pattern is observed when frequencies of delinquency items are combined: chi-square=7,85; df= 12; C=0,12; and p=0,80.

TABLE 6.19 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY : THEFT (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Shoplifting	Employed	214	22	9	16
	Unemployed	252	23	5	19
	$X^2=1,95$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,58	
Theft from friends	Employed	160	55	10	36
	Unemployed	205	56	16	22
	$X^2=7,78^*$	df=3	C=0,12	p=0,05*	
Theft of money	Employed	178	49	7	27
	Unemployed	211	56	9	23
	$X^2=1,26$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,74	
Housebreaking	Employed	234	16	4	7
	Unemployed	265	17	8	9
	$X^2=0,97$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,81	
Auto-theft	Employed	218	25	4	4
	Unemployed	248	31	10	10
	$X^2=3,25$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,36	
Robbery	Employed	187	33	9	32
	Unemployed	219	39	8	33
	$X^2=0,52$	df=3	C=0,03	p=0,91	
Joy-riding	Employed	162	46	14	39
	Unemployed	200	47	11	41
	$X^2=1,84$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,61	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 6.19 reveals that there are no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are employed and those whose fathers are unemployed. The exception is with the delinquency item of "theft from friends" where significant differences ($\chi^2=7,78$) but very low association ($C=0,12$) exist. The other delinquency items yield low χ^2 values and low association between fathers' economic activity and delinquency.

When all the frequencies of delinquency items are combined, unexpectedly significant χ^2 and contingency coefficient values are obtained: $\chi^2=34,98$; $df=19$; $C=0,24$; and $p=0,01$ - significant at 0,05.

**TABLE 6.20 FATHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Throwing stones	Employed	231	18	3	9
	Unemployed	268	19	2	10
	$\chi^2=0,45$	df=3	C=0,03	p=0,93	
Destruction of public property	Employed	241	11	3	6
	Unemployed	273	10	3	13
	$\chi^2=2,05$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,56	
Arson	Employed	240	11	4	6
	Unemployed	264	17	7	11
	$\chi^2=2,15$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,54	
Destruction of school property	Employed	240	13	4	4
	Unemployed	276	10	6	7
	$\chi^2=1,55$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,67	
Defacing students' books	Employed	227	18	6	10
	Unemployed	269	12	7	11
	$\chi^2=2,31$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,51	

$p \leq 0,05$

In table 6.20 no significant differences are revealed between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive. Further, the contingency coefficient values reveal very low association between father's economic activity and delinquency items.

A similar statistical pattern is observed when frequencies of all the delinquency items are combined for malicious damage of property sub-scale, namely: chi-square=17,16; df=14; C=0,17; and p=0,25.

6.4.3 Mother's economic activity and delinquency

There is less clarity about the possible role of the mother's extra-domestic occupation in the causation of delinquency than about the role of the father. Further, some research studies have not been successful in positively revealing that the extended absence of the mother from the home is related to delinquent behaviour. The situation becomes less convincing when contemporary industrialized societies are considered. As a consequence, the implications and significance of the mother's employment has been sought from the extent and motives of a mother's extra-domestic work.

The South African statistics, based on the 1960 and 1980 census data, show that the phenomenon of dual income families is increasing. According to these statistics for Asians the percentage of married and economically active women increased from 3,60 percent in 1960 to 19,40 in 1980; for Coloureds from 23,20 percent to 36,20; for Blacks from 15,60 percent to 31,80%; and for Whites from 19,40 percent to 36,60 (Le Roux, 1987:318).

Studies carried in South Africa on the influence of female employment (Egnal, 1979; Schulze, 1983; Cronje, 1980) are not conclusive because of the lack of adequate controls. They, however, indicate that daughters of working mothers seem to be more autonomous, independent, and aggressive than those of non-working. Boys seem to react in the opposite way and sons of working mothers are more dependent and obedient (Le Roux, 1987:333).

Studies in delinquency (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Neumeyer, 1968) have shown that working mothers constitute a phenomenon that should be considered in determining the causes of delinquency. Their findings show that among juvenile delinquents are proportionally four times as many working mothers as among married in general (Cronje et al., 1982:144).

Hirschi (1969:237-239) found that the incidence of delinquency increased with the number of hours mothers were employed outside the home. Those youths whose mothers were employed full-time were most prone to delinquency, followed by those whose mothers were employed part-time. This could be attributed to less time spent on youth supervision by employed mothers.

West and Farrington (1973:27) found that for fewer mothers of delinquent boys worked outside the home than was expected. The probable explanation resides in the fact that mothers who work full-time augment the family income and limit their number of children.

Hurwitz and Christiansen (1983:304) note that Nye (1958) found statistically insignificant differences with respect to delinquency between mothers who are employed outside the home and unemployed mothers when other conditions are held constant.

Inspite of the insignificant differences Nye still maintained that a causal relationship between delinquency and mother's employment existed.

Glanz (1990b:137) hypothesized that "...respondents whose mothers are economically active, exhibit greater delinquency than those whose mothers are economically inactive. The hypothesis was not tenable. However, she notes that:

- * the presence of the mother at home provides some sort of safeguard against involvement in delinquent activity; and
- * it would be expected that when the mother spends long hours away from home as a result of outside employment, there is a greater opportunity for her children to become involved in misconduct.

6.4.4 Presentation and analysis of data : Mother's economic activity and delinquency

The implication of the studies on the effects of mother's economic activity on delinquency can be summarized as follows:

- (a) For the family to function well and act as a buffer against delinquency, the presence of at least one parent to discipline or supervise children is necessary.
- (b) The nature of contemporary society, with its demand for increased economic activity mean that mothers have to be actively involved in economic production.

(c) The motives for the mother's employment are crucial. A mother who seeks employment because the husband is physically disabled, and is divorced or separated from her husband puts her children at risk for delinquency involvement.

Consequently, hypothesis 7 of the present study asserts that: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive" like in the previous sections of this chapter the chi-square and contingency coefficient statistics are used, with the level of significance put at 0,05.

**TABLE 6.21 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
NORM INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Truancy	Employed	102	37	9	8
	Unemployed	264	90	21	21
		$\chi^2=0,89$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,83
Disobedience	Employed	104	35	8	9
	Unemployed	275	88	12	29
		$\chi^2=1,85$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,60
Telling lies	Employed	102	31	8	15
	Unemployed	258	77	24	45
		$\chi^2=0,45$	df=3	C=0,03	p=0,93
Sleeping-out	Employed	120	24	3	9
	Unemployed	299	53	21	31
		$\chi^2=3,94$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,27
Objection to discipline	Employed	139	10	2	5
	Unemployed	344	38	10	12
		$\chi^2=2,15$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,54
Friends	Employed	101	43	6	6
	Unemployed	281	88	11	24
		$\chi^2=3,38$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,34

$p \leq 0,05$

In table 6.21 the chi-square values reveal no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive. Likewise the contingency coefficient values reflect very little association between mother's economic activity and delinquency. When all the frequencies of delinquency items are combined a similar statistical pattern is observed: chi-square=17,46; df=16; C=0,17 and p=0,37.

**TABLE 6.22 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
REGULATION INFRINGEMENTS (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Drivers' licence	Employed	123	13	8	12
	Unemployed	330	35	5	34
	$\chi^2=7,54^*$	df=3	C=0,12	p=0,05*	
Exceeding speed limit	Employed	134	9	5	8
	Unemployed	364	18	3	18
	$\chi^2=5,54$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,14	
Entering a bar/ bottle-store	Employed	112	15	10	19
	Unemployed	275	59	19	51
	$\chi^2=3,00$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,39	
Buying of liquor	Employed	82	36	9	29
	Unemployed	265	55	14	70
	$\chi^2=10,84^*$	df=3	C=0,14	p=0,01*	
Watching "adults -only" films	Employed	72	28	14	42
	Unemployed	237	78	24	65
	$\chi^2=11,74^*$	df=3	C=0,14	p=0,01*	

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 6.22 shows significant differences with delinquency items of "drivers' licence", "buying of liquor" and "watching 'adults-only' films" between respondents whose mothers are employed and those whose mothers are unemployed. For these delinquency items the contingency coefficient values reflect very little association between mother's economic activity and delinquency. When frequencies for delinquency items are combined, statistics yield the following values: chi-square=20,60; df=15; C=0,19; and p=0,15.

TABLE 6.23 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY : ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Inhaling glue	Employed	122	26	4	4
	Unemployed	290	66	23	25
	$\chi^2=5,78$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,12	
Taking of drugs	Employed	145	6	2	3
	Unemployed	357	24	7	6
	$\chi^2=270$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,44	
Dealing in drugs	Employed	113	24	6	13
	Unemployed	305	44	16	39
	$\chi^2=2,23$	df=3	C=0,06	p=0,53	
Drinking of liquor	Employed	94	24	13	25
	Unemployed	241	67	24	72
	$\chi^2=1,29$	df=3	C=0,05	p=0,73	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.23 reveals no significant differences between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive in self-reported delinquency. From the table statistics vary show chi-square and contingency values are observed.

When all the frequencies of delinquency items are combined, statistics are as follows: (chi-square=9,95) df=11; C=0,13; and p=0,54.

TABLE 6.24 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY : VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Fist fighting	Employed	98	36	10	12
	Unemployed	258	97	24	30
	$\chi^2=0,09$	df=	C=0,01	p=0,99	
Assault with weapon	Employed	128	17	7	11
	Unemployed	317	36	17	34
	$\chi^2=0,76$	df=	C=0,04	p=0,86	
Intimidation ^d	Employed	128	19	7	5
	Unemployed	328	40	17	19
	$\chi^2=1,18$	df=	C=0,05	p=0,76	
Public disturbance	Employed	88	34	12	27
	Unemployed	238	90	20	59
	$\chi^2=2,52$	df=	C=0,05	p=0,47	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.23 reveals no significant differences between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those mothers who are economically inactive. The chi-square values reflect no significant differences. Likewise the contingency coefficient value are low and signify very little association between mothers economic activity and delinquency. Combined frequencies of delinquency items yield the following statistical values: chi-square=14,43; df=12; C=0,16; and p=0,27.

TABLE 6.25 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
THEFT (N=560)

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY			
		NEVER	1-2	3-4	MORE
Shoplifting	Employed	118	18	3	17
	Unemployed	348	27	11	18
		$X^2=12,55^*$	df=3	C=0,15	p=0,01*
Theft from friends	Employed	103	32	8	13
	Unemployed	262	79	18	45
		$X^2=1,04$	df=3	C=0,04	p=0,79
Theft of money	Employed	102	34	3	17
	Unemployed	287	71	13	33
		$X^2=3,19$	df=3	C=0,08	p=0,36
Housebreaking and theft	Employed	144	6	2	4
	Unemployed	355	27	10	12
		$X^2=2,60$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,46
Auto-theft	Employed	124	24	2	6
	Unemployed	342	32	12	18
		$X^2=8,01^*$	df=3	C=0,12	p=0,05*
Robbery	Employed	106	28	4	18
	Unemployed	300	44	13	47
		$X^2=5,14$	df=3	C=0,10	p=0,16
Joy-riding	Employed	101	22	10	23
	Unemployed	268	71	15	57
		$X^2=2,68$	df=3	C=0,07	p=0,44

*p \leq 0,05; significant

With the exception of "shoplifting" and "auto-theft", no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between the two groups of respondents are observed. For the rest of the delinquency items the chi-square values indicate insignificant differences. Like-wise the contingency coefficient values are low and indicate very little association between mothers' economic activity and delinquency. Combined frequencies of delinquency items also yield insignificant values, namely: chi-square=11,39; df=19; C=0,14; and p=0,91.

**TABLE 6.26 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND DELINQUENCY :
MALICIOUS DAMAGE TO PROPERTY (N=560)**

DELINQUENCY ITEM (ABRIDGED)	ECONOMIC ACTIVITY	NEVER	DELINQUENCY FREQUENCY		
			1-2	3-4	MORE
Throwing stones	Employed	139	13	-	4
	Unemployed	360	24	5	15
	$\chi^2=3,34$	df=	C=0,08	p=0,34	
Destruction of property	Employed	145	5	1	5
	Unemployed	369	16	5	14
	$\chi^2=0,60$	df=	C=0,03	p=0,90	
Arson	Employed	139	7	5	5
	Unemployed	365	21	6	15
	$\chi^2=1,85$	df=	C=0,06	p=0,60	
Destruction of school property	Employed	143	8	2	3
	Unemployed	373	15	8	8
	$\chi^2=0,86$	df=	C=0,04	p=0,83	
Defacing other students' books	Employed	137	9	7	3
	Unemployed	359	21	6	18
	$\chi^2=6,38$	df=	C=0,11	p=0,09	

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.25 reveals no significant differences in self-reported delinquency between the two groups of respondents. For all delinquency items the chi-square values indicate little differences and this is the case with contingency coefficients where the association between mothers' economic activities and delinquency is low. The delinquency item of "defacing other students' books", relatively, has high chi-square and contingency coefficient values, but these do not reach the expected level of significance. A similar pattern is observed with combined frequencies of delinquency items, namely: $\chi^2=9,66$; $df=14$; $C=0,13$ and $p= 0,79$.

6.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the family structure and parental economic activities have been analyzed. Four aspects of the family influence on delinquency have been dealt with, namely the broken and intact family, family size, father and mothers' economic activities.

Early research studies (Burt, 1925; Slawson, 1926) based on official data indicated that a strong relationship between the broken home and delinquency. Later studies (Weeks; 1940; Glueck & Glueck 1950; Monahan, 1957) established that parental absence had greater effect on girls than on boys. The advent of self-report surveys reduced the importance of the "broken home" theory by indicating that the broken home was not a crucial link between the family and delinquency. Except for few delinquent acts, data in the present study do not indicate any significant differences in self-reported delinquency between children from broken homes and intact ones.

With regard to family size studies (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Cowie et al., 1968) indicate an indirect relationship between family size and delinquency. For the present study family size is categorized as small, medium and large-sized for a family of 1 to 4, 5 to 8 and 9 to 12 siblings respectively. Statistical results, however do not support the hypothesis of significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from the three family sizes, except for few delinquent items.

Parental economic activity is largely determined by level of education, type of occupation and employment status of the parent. In the present study the hypotheses are that there are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose either parent is economically active and economically inactive. Once, more except for a few delinquency items no significant differences are observed from data.

CHAPTER 7

FAMILY CONTROL AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The family is a primary group of social control. Its main function is socialization of its members to ensure conformity of its members to the system of values and beliefs of a given society. As one of the social systems it maintains social control through the inculcation of norms and values to the youngsters of the society. By so doing the family ensures that people behave in such a manner that they do not clash with legal norms.

The application of control mechanisms by the family assumes that everything within the family is normal, that is, the structural set-up within the family and the supply of basic needs is well-catered for. Further, the control mechanisms are affected by the cultural patterns of differential controls as they are applied to gender and age of the family subordinates. For these reasons it may be expected that every pattern of control will differ by sex and age of the recipient as well as according to the structure, size and the economic status of the parents.

The socio-theoretical models of delinquency all point out to the importance of the family as a trustee of societal values. Miller's "protest masculinity theory" (1958) holds that high frequency of delinquency in lower-class societies makes it difficult for boys to learn socially approved male roles.

Cloward and Ohlin's strain theory (1960) implicates the family for disparity in what children of the lower-class are led to want and what is available for them; and differentially ascribing roles to males and females - limiting success opportunities for females and exempting males from closer control. Greenberg's "age conflict theory" (1977) accuses the family for excluding the adolescents from the economic main stream of society at the same time fail to provide their peer group needs. Hirschi's social control theory (1969) maintains that the broken home reduces parental supervision and attachment. The father-absent family is likely to devote less time in supervision and discipline, consequently producing more abusive interaction than an intact home. Glueck and Glueck's "stigma theory" (1950) proposes that illegitimacy, divorce and desertion leave the children feeling disgraced; a condition that labelling theory regards as important for understanding of delinquency. The socioeconomic perspective regards the family as an important social system that determines the effect of parental role in controlling delinquency (Austin, 1992; 585-607).

Despite several conflicting empirical tests' results on delinquency theories (cf. Hindelang, 1973; Conger, 1976) the influence of the family in social control has not been reduced. As a matter of fact the integration of the socio-theoretical perspectives has gained importance. Edwards (1992:554) is of the opinion that such integration would inter alia, serve to enhance their explanatory power and avoid any inherent bias that can be identified in any specific perspective. Consequently, the present study adopts an integrated approach to explain family control and delinquency.

The implications of delinquency theories namely, that application of control mechanisms according to gender, age, family structure and socio-economic status, affects control lead to the anticipation of differential application of family control measures. Further maximum and successful application of control should be negatively related to self-reported delinquency. Various patterns of control are used by the family over youth. These are institutionalized and approved by the society. The present study confirms the generally held belief that these include family religiousness, parental supervision, parental discipline and parental affection. There is nothing new, however, in the conception of these control patterns. Nye's family relationships study (1958) embraced them and sought to establish whether their nature was an insurance against delinquency. Further, studies cited in this study maintain that control patterns by the family are subject to normal structural family patterns. The present study seeks either to confirm or reject the relationship between the family control patterns and delinquency.

7.2 FAMILY CONTROL AND DELINQUENCY MEASURES

Family control and delinquency measures were constructed with two objectives, namely to establish gender, age, family structure and parental economic differences in the application of family controls, and to measure the relationship between family control and delinquency. Consequently, the following hypotheses are presented:

- * There are significant differences in the application of family controls over male and female respondents.
- * The application of family controls differ significantly among the 13 to 15, 16 to 18 and 19 to 21 age-groups.

- * There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents from broken and intact families.
- * Family controls are significantly differentially applied to respondents from small, medium and large sized families.
- * There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive.
- * There is a relationship between family controls and self-reported delinquency (cf. hypotheses 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13).

7.2.1 Family control measures

Family control measures consist of 16 family control variables that cover family religiousness, parental supervision, parental discipline and parental affection (cf. paragraph 3.6.1.4). Responses to these family control variables were scored on a 4-point scale: 1=never/not applicable; 2=rarely; 3=sometimes; and 4=always. On the basis of the nature of the items the family control scale was divided into four sub-scales. Each sub-scale has its total score calculated as the sum of the number associated with categorical responses to the relevant items. For example, on a three-item family religiousness sub-scale, the possible total score ranges from 3 to 12.

7.2.2 Delinquency measures

The measure of delinquency consists of 31 items covering norm infringements, regulation infringements, alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour, theft and malicious damage to property (cf. paragraph 3.6.2). Responses to the delinquency items were scored on a 4-point set of response categories : 1=never; 2=once or twice; 3=three or four times; and 4=more than 4 times (cf. tables 2.5 to 2.10). These were grouped into six sub-scales calculated as the sum of the number associated with categorical responses to the relevant delinquency item. For example on a 6-item norm infringement sub-scale the possible total score ranges from 6 to 24.

For the treatment of age, family structure, family size and mother's economic activity variables the procedure followed in chapters 4, 5 and 6 was applied.

7.3 DIFFERENTIAL APPLICATION OF FAMILY CONTROL PATTERNS

The statistical findings in previous chapters reveal that any difference in self-reported delinquency is a function of differential application of family controls to the relevant variables. Consequently any explanation of whatever differences that may or may not exist in delinquency depend on the existence of such differences.

To test for such differences a series of t-tests were computed to all variables with two-levels, and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for variables with more than three levels, for example age and family size.

TABLE 7.1 SEX DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY CONTROL (N=560)

FAMILY CONTROL	MALE (n=272)		FEMALE (n=288)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Family religiousness	9,42	1,72	10,10	1,63	-4,77*
Parental supervision	12,59	2,84	12,13	2,74	1,98
Parental discipline	8,51	1,38	8,82	1,40	-2,62*
Parental affection	14,47	2,86	15,18	3,40	-2,84*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.1 reveals that for all family control sub-scales but one (parental supervision), significant differences in the application of family control between males and females exist. The mean scores for females are higher than those for males with regard to family religiousness, parental discipline and parental affection. With reference to parental supervision males have higher mean score than females. The t-value of 1,98 is, however, statistically insignificant. Such findings support the view of the conflict perspective of social control (Konopka, 1966; Hagan, 1988) that families have a closer control for girls than for boys. Variations in the application of family controls between males and females, therefore, explain sex differences in self-reported delinquency.

TABLE 7.2 AGE DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY CONTROL (N=560)

FAMILY CONTROL (ABRIDGED)	13-15 (n=49)		16-18 (n=277)		19-21 (n=234)		F VALUE
	\bar{Y}	SD	\bar{Y}	SD	\bar{Y}	SD	
Religiousness	9,71	1,29	9,86	1,66	9,67	1,88	0,78
Supervision	12,24	2,67	12,30	2,72	12,43	2,92	0,17
Discipline	8,53	1,26	8,70	1,33	8,67	1,50	0,36
Affection	15,71	3,71	15,01	2,98	14,44	2,77	4,80*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.2 reveals that for all family control variables but one (parental affection) no significant differences exist among the three age-groups in the application of family controls. For parental affection, significant differences exist, (F-value=4,80). It appears, therefore, that the younger adolescents are exposed to more parental affection than the older ones. In this respect younger children depend more on parental advice than older ones and, on the other side, parents praise them on good achievements.

**TABLE 7.3 FAMILY STRUCTURAL DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY CONTROL
(N=560)**

FAMILY CONTROL VARIABLES	INTACT (n=398)		BROKEN (n=162)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Family religiousness	9,89	1,63	9,47	1,92	2,43*
Parental supervision	13,16	2,25	10,36	3,00	10,71*
Parental discipline	8,74	1,32	8,50	1,57	1,64
Parental affection	15,36	2,75	13,54	3,16	6,41*

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.3 reveals that in three out of four family control variables, significant differences exist between respondents from intact homes and those from broken homes. Respondents from intact homes have, consistently, higher mean scores than those from broken homes. This finding supports the social control theoretical view (Nye, 1958; Hirschi, 1969) which asserts that parental attachment and direct control are affected by the broken nature of the family.

TABLE 7.4 DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY CONTROL ACCORDING TO FAMILY SIZE (N=560)

FAMILY CONTROL VARIABLES	SMALL (n=127)		MEDIUM (n=258)		LARGE (n=175)		F VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Religiousness	9,57	1,80	9,91	1,63	9,71	1,79	1,90
Supervision	12,24	2,96	12,58	2,60	12,10	2,93	1,71
Discipline	8,63	1,34	8,78	1,42	8,54	1,40	1,63
Affection	14,88	3,05	14,93	3,09	14,66	2,79	0,47

$p \leq 0,05$

Table 7.4 reveals no significant differences among respondents from small, medium and large sized families. For all family control variables F-values are insignificant. Such a statistical pattern supports the view that the family size bears no direct relationship to delinquency (cf. paragraph 6.3.2) although parents in such families have less time for control over the adolescents (Glanz, 1990b:134).

TABLE 7.5 MOTHER'S ECONOMIC ACTIVITY AND FAMILY CONTROL
(N=560)

FAMILY CONTROL VARIABLES	EMPLOYED (n=156)		UNEMPLOYED (n=404)		t VALUE
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Family religiousness	10,02	1,52	9,68	1,79	2,28*
Parental supervision	12,62	2,41	12,25	2,93	1,55
Parental discipline	8,69	1,27	8,66	1,44	0,25
Parental affection	15,15	2,90	14,71	3,01	1,59

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.5 reveals that for all family control variables but one (family religiousness) there are no significant differences between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive. Contrary to the expectations, respondents whose mothers are employed, therefore unable or have less time for family control, have higher mean scores in family control variables than their counterparts.

To sum up, the findings on various demographic variables and family control, the following is worthy of note:

- * Data on sex differences in family control explain the gender differences in delinquency. This has been noted through official and self-report data. Females are subjected to family control to a greater extent than males. This limits any opportunity for deviant behaviour among females.

- * The application of family controls does not differ or vary with age-groups of juveniles. The present study reveals that the intensity of family control is evenly distributed from early to late adolescence. The exception is with parental affection. As expected, parental affection tends to be greater for younger children than older ones.

- * It is logical to expect children from intact families to receive more control from parents than those from broken ones. The findings of the present study support that view. Whether this pattern is true in involvement in deviant behaviour is an open question.

- * Most studies (Cowie et al., 1968; Gove et al., 1979; Bagot, 1972) ascribed delinquency among adolescents from large families to poor parental control. The findings of the present study do not support that view and no significant differences among different family sizes can be established.

- * In spite of what has been found and reported in previous studies with regard to loss of control over youth as a consequence of mother's employment, the present study reveals no such differences between children of employed and unemployed mothers. In fact the variance between respondents whose mothers are employed and those whose mothers are unemployed is very small and insignificant except for family religiousness. Further, statistics reveal that respondents whose mothers are employed report more family control than those whose mothers are unemployed, albeit to no significant degree.

Having considered the differences in family control according to gender, age, family structure, family size and parental economic activity, attention is now paid to the relationship between family control and delinquency. To test the hypothesis of relationship between family control measures and delinquency the Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient (ρ) was employed. This statistic is suitable for testing either positive or negative relationships between rank ordered data. Consequently a negative correlation between a family control and a delinquency scale means that the higher the family control the lesser the self-reported delinquency. Likewise a positive correlation means that the two variables vary in the same direction (cf. paragraph 2.5.6.3).

Family control variables (being the sum of the relevant family control items) were entered as rank-order number one, and delinquency variables (being the sum of relevant delinquency items) were entered as rank-order number two. A probability value of equal or less than 0,05 depicts a significant correlation at the 5 percent level.

For each family control measure a review of some empirical findings, as well as theoretical basis, where necessary, is presented. This is followed by a table correlating each family control variable to all delinquency sub-scales.

7.4.1 Family religiousness and delinquency

The relationship between religiousness and delinquency has long been a subject of interest among sociologists and church professionals. Arguments centre around the contention whether

religion promotes social control; encourages development of moral values; and encourages acceptance of social norms and values (Elifson, Peterson & Hadaway; 1983:505-560).

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

There are two problems that are partly responsible for this controversy. Firstly, the lack of agreement in defining religiousness. Martin and Fitzpatrick (Gannon, 1967:418) question whether religion can be identified by church affiliation or by observable religious practice, or does it penetrate beyond mere statements of membership, or attendance or intensity of a persons commitment to religious beliefs and practice as they relate to his behaviour. Secondly, cultural values held by different societies affect or are related to their religious faith (see Brown, 1984; Glanz, 1990).

Following are some of the empirical findings on religiousness and delinquency.

(a) Gannon (1967)

Gannon (1967:418-429) studied a random sample of 150 delinquents of catholic church affiliation, aged 14 to 16 years with regard to specific attitudes, values and religious practices. The findings were that delinquency was one result of the inability of family school and church, police and other adult-managed groups to communicate to youths the behavioural

expectations (Gannon, 1967:420). With regard to patterns of relationship between religion as a form of family control, Gannon had the following findings:

- * Even if delinquency is the result of breakdown or absence of social control, it is false to say delinquents have no interest in religion.
- * With exception of auto-theft, delinquents have no doubt about the morality of their actions, the sin factor involved and apparent betrayal of their religious values.
- * The inconsistency between reported religious values and delinquent behaviour does not appear as such for delinquency which is a result of Becker calls "commitment by default" (Gannon, 1967:426-429).

(b) Hirschi and Stark (1969)

Hirschi and Stark (1969:202-213) studied 4,077 students in California. They note that most views about religion and delinquency are drawn from Durkheim's view that religion legitimates social and individual values; through religious rituals commitment to values is reinforced; and through religious system of eternal rewards and punishment helps to ensure embodiment of values in actual behaviour (Hirschi & Stark 1969:202-203).

Using church attendance as a measure of religiosity their findings were briefly as follows:

- * Church-goers believed in the existence of supernatural powers which can give punishment to death and church going was not influenced by moral values.

- * A correlation between belief in punishment of death, devil and hell and delinquency showed that juveniles who believe in the existence of hell committed delinquent acts like those who did not believe in that.

Hirschi and Stark's conclusion was that religiousness is, therefore, not necessary for non-delinquent or delinquent activities and that active church attendance and belief in supernatural sanction system have no effect on delinquent behaviour (Hirschi & Stark, 1969:211).

(c) Burkett and White (1974) and Higgins and Albrecht (1976)

The findings of Hirschi and Stark (1969) that revealed no relationship between religiousness and delinquency motivated Burkett and White (1974) to seek relationship between religiousness and victimless offences (alcohol and drug abuse). Their findings revealed that whilst no relationship could be established between religiousness and delinquency by Hirschi and Stark there was a strong relationship between religiousness and victimless offences (Burkett & White, 1974:455-462).

Higgins and Albrecht (1976:952-958) felt that Hirschi and Stark's (1969) findings could not be generalized without considering the moral climate of a particular community. Using the same measure of religiousness (church attendance) as Hirschi and Stark and a 17 item-delinquency check-list they found the following:

- * Modest to moderately strong negative relationship between frequency of church attendance and delinquency.

- * Like Hirschi and Stark they found that police respect was negatively related to delinquency (Higgins & Albrecht, 1976:955).

Higgins and Albrecht (1976) ascribed their findings to the fact that whilst Hirschi and Stark (1969) used a 6-item delinquency check-list, theirs included many serious offences. Further, the findings of Hirschi and Stark may have been valid for California, this may not be true of other areas with different moral values (Higgins & Albrecht, 1976:957).

(d) Elifson, Peterson and Hadaway (1983)

Elifson et al., (1983:505-527), in order to make for the shortcomings of previous research findings, focused on religious salience and delinquency. Using a sample of 301 male and 299 female students of grades 9 to 12 in 21 public schools found the following:

- * Church attendance was related to conventional forms of delinquency although the relationship was not strong.
- * There was a weak negative relationship between both the respondents' and parents' attendance at religious services and delinquency.
- * Respondents who attend church regularly were significantly more likely than irregular attenders to score low in delinquency.
- * Respondents who report higher religious salience were more likely to score low on the overall delinquency measure than those who report that religion was not a salient factor in their lives (Elifson et al., 1983:515).

To sum up, the empirical findings on religiousness and delinquency reveal little or no relationship (Gannon, 1967; Hirschi & Stark, 1969). Subsequent studies (Higgins & Albrecht, 1976; Elifson et al., 1983) indicate some inverse relationship between religiousness and delinquency. Lastly, the study carried out in South Africa (Foster, 1988) indicated significantly negative relationship between religious activities, religious milieu, religious attitudes and delinquency. The conflicting statistical findings can be ascribed to uncertainty as to the right items that measure religiousness and failure to operationalize delinquency variable, into status and non-status offences, and serious and non-serious offences.

In the present study, family religiousness as a control mechanism, consists not only of church attendance but also of discussion of religious issues and holding of prayers with the parents.

It is maintained that for religiousness to militate against delinquency, any religious activity should involve both parental figures. Further, since data on delinquency is categorized, into various forms of deviant behaviour it is possible to determine the exact influence of religiousness.

**TABLE 7.6 FAMILY RELIGIOUSNESS (SUB-SCALE 1) AND
DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560**

SUB-SCALE 1: FAMILY RELIGIOUSNESS	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
Sub-Scale 5: Norm infringements	-0,19461*	0,0001
Sub-Scale 6: Regulation infringements	-0,15336*	0,0006
Sub-Scale 7: Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,19117*	0,0001
Sub-Scale 8: Violent behaviour	-0,23784*	0,0001
Sub-Scale 9: Theft	-0,18195*	0,0001
Sub-Scale 10: Malicious damage to property	-0,07479	0,0770

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.6 reveals that negative relationships exist between family religiousness and delinquency. With the exception of malicious damage to property the negative relationships are significant at 0,05. The rho statistics indicate that, possibly due to the large sample, relationships vary from very weak to moderately weak between family religiousness and delinquency. The probability values indicate that family religiousness definitely is, for delinquency a negative factor and this is particularly the case with violent behaviour and, to a lesser degree, with norm infringements (status offences) and alcohol and drug abuse (victimless offences).

7.4.2 Parental supervision and delinquency

Reiss (1951) views delinquency as a consequence of failure of primary groups, including the family, to provide the child with appropriate social roles and to exercise control over the child. One method of control is supervision which, if lacking, has delinquent consequences (Reiss, 1951:198).

Nye (1958) opines that besides internal and indirect control, society exercises restraint on individuals through direct controls. Parents exercise direct control by keeping children indoors; keeping them constantly supervised in their activities and whereabouts; and doing things with them. Direct control, therefore, is related to close supervision of the youngster by parents, which, ultimately leads to internalization of parental values (Nye, 1958:7).

Supervision as a mechanism of family control effectively takes place in, presumably, fairly stable conditions. Conditions in which parents accept their children and children need their parents as experienced persons. This means that for proper supervision mutual acceptance between parents and their children must exist. It is, therefore, obvious that proper supervision cannot occur in families that are in constant conflict, that are broken by divorce or desertion; and those that experience neighbourhood disorganization.

Wilson (1980:203-235) found that parents who are lax in their supervision of their children were more likely to produce delinquents. Further, parents who exercised strict supervision of their children's activities, precluded their children from joining delinquent peers. Slocum and Stone (1963) found that delinquency increased when the amount of supervision decreased.

Parents of such children did not care about the whereabouts of their children and who their friends are (Thornton et al., 1987:205).

For the present study parental supervision as a form of family control takes the amount or frequency with which the parents do things with the child. It is the active involvement of the parent in the child's activities that determine the frequency of parental supervision. These activities are related to the future intellectual, physical and economic pursuits of the adolescent. The composition of the sample logically leads to the identification of three main activities of a secondary school child, namely school-work for his intellectual pursuit; house-hold duties for his adult-hood roles; and games for his socio-physical development. The assumption is that a parent who supervises his child in homework, does house-hold chores with him, and play games together with the child exercises control over the child thus negatively influencing delinquency.

TABLE 7.7 PARENTAL SUPERVISION (SUB-SCALE 2) AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560

SUB-SCALE 2: PARENTAL SUPERVISION	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
Sub-Scale 5: Norm infringements	-0,11400*	0,0069
Sub-Scale 6: Regulation infringements	0,01489	0,7251
Sub-Scale 7: Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,06491	0,1250
Sub-Scale 8: Violent behaviour	-0,04018	0,3426
Sub-Scale 9: Theft	-0,06600	0,1188
Sub-Scale 10: Malicious damage to property	0,00390	0,9267

*p ≤ 0,05; significant

Table 7.7 indicates that, with the exception of norm infringements, there is virtually no relationship between parental supervision and delinquency. Particularly for regulation infringements and malicious damage to property statistics indicate that parental supervision has nothing to do with delinquency. For the rest of the delinquency sub-scales the direction is negative but to no significant degree. For norm infringements statistics indicate that parental supervision is definitely a negative factor against delinquency and this relationship is significant.

7.4.3 Parental discipline and delinquency

Among the many factors known to be related to delinquency and constituting patterns of family control are methods of discipline used by the parents. Just as religiousness, supervision, and affection negatively affect delinquency, discipline is crucially related to delinquency.

The form and content of discipline affects the relationships the child has for his parents and his peers. This also goes for his adjustment to life and acceptance of societal values. Nye (1958:79-80) discusses discipline and its effects on child rearing. He notes that authoritarian discipline may affect the child's relationships with his peer group and unfair or partial discipline creates ambivalence towards the parent with negative effects on indirect control.

Glueck and Glueck (1950:15-16) identified differences in discipline patterns between parents of delinquents and non-delinquents. They found that parents of delinquents used physical punishment more than verbal warnings. Mothers of

delinquents were much more permissive than fathers. Both parents were less consistent in their disciplinary measures than were the parents of non-delinquents.

Burt (Mannheim, 1965:614) found defective discipline five times as often with delinquents as with non-delinquents. Defective discipline was characterized by inconsistency with consequences of lack of cooperation between parents and inadequate control structure within the family. Such discipline prevent parents from presenting a united front; encourages children to belittle parental efforts; and fosters the development of a "nothing can happen to me" attitude.

McCord and McCord (1968:66-75) hypothesized that consistent discipline effectively counteracts the influence of a criminal father and that consistency is more strongly related to transmission of values than is the technique of discipline. Findings strongly supported this hypothesis and the conclusion was that consistency in discipline goes hand in hand with parental role models and parental attitudes towards crime (McCord & McCord, 1968:73-74).

It is generally agreed that wrong methods of discipline used by parents, for example lax, excessive, permissive and punishment, meted out without explanation, creates bitterness and resentment to the child. Further, parental discipline has to be understood against the background of social class. Upper class parents prefer withdrawal of privileges whilst lower class parents prefer physical punishments and threats. According to Larzelere and Patterson (1990:301-323) however, the latter view is mediated entirely by parental management skills. These skills include confidence in changing the

child's behaviour, infrequency of escaping punishment and getting away with misbehaviour; and minimum parental perceptions of problems in child management.

The present study, like in the cited studies, proposes that consistency of punishment in any form is important and has negative effect on delinquency. It is not the form of punishment per se that is crucial but the frequency and consistency, irrespective of the class of parents that is important. Three forms of discipline were arbitrarily selected, namely physical punishment, withdrawal of privilege and verbal warning. Statistical results in table 7.8 indicate the negative relationship between parental discipline and delinquency.

TABLE 7.8 PARENTAL DISCIPLINE (SUB-SCALE 3) AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560

SUB-SCALE 3: PARENTAL DISCIPLINE	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
Sub-Scale 5: Norm infringements	-0,09225*	0,0290
Sub-Scale 6: Regulation infringements	-0,09360*	0,0268
Sub-Scale 7: Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,12402*	0,0033
Sub-Scale 8: Violent behaviour	-0,16353*	0,0001
Sub-Scale 9: Theft	-0,09603*	0,0230
Sub-Scale 10: Malicious damage to property	-0,4236	0,3170

*p \leq 0,05; significant

With the exception of malicious damage to property, statistics in table 7.8 yield significant probability values. For all delinquency scales slight negative relationships are observed between parental discipline and delinquency. From the statistics the deduction is that the consistent use of all forms of discipline reduces the amount of self-reported delinquency to significant proportions.

7.4.4 Parental affection and delinquency

The social control theory (Nye, 1958; Reiss, 1951; Toby, 1957; Hirschi, 1969) sees a delinquent child as relatively free of intimate normative systems and, indeed, relatively free from values of society upheld by, supposedly anti-criminal parents. According to Nye (1958:71) if a child receives enough parental love which he accepts and holds in high esteem there would be less desire to hurt the parents' image of himself. For Toby (1957) such a child is unwilling to offend the parent because a lot would be lost by non-conforming behaviour.

Whilst the cultural transmission theory (Sutherland & Cressey, 1974; Burgess & Akers, 1966) views delinquency as a product of intimate group influence, empirical tests (Short, 1960; Voss, 1964) show that it is the ties of affection to normative standards, upheld by affectionate groups that are crucial. Costner (1967) maintains that a person is motivated to maximise the approval and esteem of his close associates by acting in ways he believes they approve and by avoiding actions he believes they disapprove (Linden & Hackler, 1973:30-31).

The importance of the child's attitude toward his parent was highlighted by Nye (1958) when he pointed out that the attitude the child has for his parent is important in determining the extent to which he is willing to hurt him through delinquent

acts. His study indicated significant correlations between attitudes of juveniles toward parents and delinquent behaviour (Nye, 1958:72).

McCord and McCord (1968) maintained that the extent of affection the parent has for the child depends on the emotional relation between child and parent. They classified "warm" parents as those who enjoy the child and show affectionate concern; "passive" parents as those who have little to do with the child; and "rejecting" parents as those who give negative attention to the child. In their study they found a negative relation between material affection and delinquency (McCord & McCord, 1968:74).

It is generally accepted that delinquents more than their non-delinquent counterparts experience inadequate affectional response; defective psychological communication; sense of insecurity especially from fathers; and inadequate capacity, with both parents as sources of support and authority (Riege, 1972:55-73). This view is supported by the fact that juveniles who come from families characterized by constant quarrels tensions and neglect, display aggressive tendencies. This goes also for physically broken families who have neither male nor female figure with whom to identify (cf. Miller, 1958; Glueck & Glueck, 1950).

For the present study parental affection is a mechanism of family control that is built over a long period of time, from early childhood up to adolescence stage. At adolescence affection should have reached a stage where the child actually depends on the parent for every action he takes. The child, at this stage, acts in such a way that he will receive parental approval. Consequently, parental affection is measured by the

frequency upon which a child depends on parental advice and frequency of praise (approval) the child receives for good things he/she has done.

TABLE 7.9 PARENTAL AFFECTION (SUB-SCALE 4) AND DELINQUENCY (SUB-SCALES 5-10) N=560

SUB-SCALE 4: PARENTAL AFFECTION	CORRELATION rho	COEFFICIENT prob
Sub-Scale 5: Norm infringements	-0,08820*	0,0369
Sub-Scale 6: Regulation infringements	-0,00830	0,8446
Sub-Scale 7: Alcohol and drug abuse	-0,09834*	0,0199
Sub-Scale 8: Violent behaviour	-0,07319	0,0835
Sub-Scale 9: Theft	-0,05169	0,2200
Sub-Scale 10: Malicious damage to property	0,00904	0,8310

*p \leq 0,05; significant

Table 7.9 indicates that, with the exception of norm infringements and alcohol and drug abuse, there is no relationship between parental affection and delinquency. Further, statistics indicate that the direction of the relationship is negative, except for malicious damage to property. Generally the correlation coefficients are very weak, ranging from 0,008 for regulation infringements to 0,098 for alcohol and drug abuse.

The influence of the family in social control has been highlighted by both social control and cultural transmission theories. Any explanation of family control must be considered through an integrated theoretical approach which combines traditional theories and other perspectives.

The relationship of family control and delinquency must be interpreted in terms of differential application of control mechanisms according to gender, age, family structure, family size and parental economic activities. The findings support, to a large extent that the application of family control mechanisms is determined by gender and family structure determined. Age, family size and mother's economic activity have little to do with family control.

With regard to the relationship between family control and delinquency, findings reveal that family religiousness is negatively and significantly related to delinquency. A similar pattern is found between parental discipline and delinquency. On the whole very weak relationships were observed between family control and delinquency.

CHAPTER 8

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of this study is the analysis of the nature and extent of juvenile delinquency among secondary school children and the influence of the family thereupon.

The research methods and techniques selected for the achievement of the aims and testing of hypotheses (paragraphs 1.3 and 1.5:cf) are presented in chapter 2. A self report instrument for the data collection phase was used to reveal the nature of "hidden" delinquency among secondary school adolescents. To this end, 560 respondents from three sampled secondary schools were included in the investigation. For statistical analyses, the following statistics were used, namely Cronbach's Correlation Coefficient Alpha for individual item analysis, the chi-square for analysis of nominal data; t-test and F-test statistics for differences between and among means; and Spearman Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient for relationships between variables ordinal data.

In chapter 3 of this study, a review of socio-theoretical explanations of delinquency are presented. Four sets of socio-criminologically orientated theories were analyzed, namely social disorganization, cultural transmission, social control and general strain theories. Theoretical construct of independent variables include sex, age, family structure, family size, parental economic activities, and family controls.

The dependent delinquency variables include 31 delinquency items categorized into norm infringements, regulation infringements, alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour, theft and malicious damage to property.

Statistical analyses of data are presented in chapters 4,5,6 and 7. Chapter 8 summarises discussion on hypotheses testing and findings. It also details the limitations and problems of this study, and concludes with recommendations.

8.2 LIMITATIONS AND PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED WITH THE STUDY

For ethical reasons it is necessary for a researcher to point out the limitations and problems encountered during the course of the investigation. This provides subsequent researchers with information regarding possible pitfalls, thereby become better-equipped with ideas of how the same can be avoided. The limitations identified during the investigation rest with the instrument for data collection. Whilst most of these were eliminated, the following are important.

- (a) The dearth of literature and research studies in South Africa that have used self-report data collection technique presented a major problem. As far as the researcher could establish, only one comprehensive self-report study on juvenile delinquency is available in South Africa (Glanz 1990b:cf). The effect of this limitation was that the researcher had to rely mostly on foreign self-report studies for the compilation of a delinquency check-list.
- (b) The sample consisted of adolescents drawn exclusively from Black secondary schools. This presented three limitations:

- * Firstly, socio-cultural realities presented problems with the operationalization of some concepts. The respondents for example, could not view mere entering of a liquor-store, being under the age of 18 years as deviant, particularly if sent by an adult.
- * Secondly, the questionnaire had to be explained in Zulu. Although the researcher took caution not to influence the respondents in the process, the possibility could not be ruled out.
- * Finally, the level of affluency of the respondents had an effect on the validity of their responses. For example, a large number of respondents have no television sets at their homes and have no access to motor vehicles.

To sum-up, the limitations of the study centred around the socio-cultural/realities and research instrument. In spite of these limitations, the study achieved its objectives.

8.3 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

Thirteen hypotheses were formulated for statistical testing. These hypotheses are based on sex, age, family structure, family size, parental economic activities and family control measures.

Hypothesis 1: "There are significant differences between male and female's involvement in self-reported delinquency". This hypothesis was found tenable.

To a very large extent, statistics in the present study support this hypothesis. The following is especially noticeable:-

- (a) Although scores for males exceed those of females in self-reported delinquency, under norm infringements, females do engage considerably in the same delinquent acts as males (Figure 4.1).
- (b) With regulation infringements and alcohol and drug abuse sub-scales, significant differences in self-reported delinquency were observed, with males consistently and significantly reporting higher scores in involvement than females (Tables 4.3 and 4.4).
- (c) Statistics indicate that there are significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to violent behaviour. Table 4.5 and figure 4.4 respectively, indicate significant differences in violent behaviour delinquency items with female respondents reporting the highest frequency percentage of non-involvement.
- (d) With regard to property crimes, such as theft and malicious damage to property, male respondents report significantly higher involvement in these crimes than female respondents (Tables 4.6 & 4.7; figure 4.6).

Hypothesis 2: "Involvement in self-reported delinquent behaviour differs significantly among the 13-15, 16-18 and 19-21 age groups". This hypothesis was rejected.

This hypothesis is based on research studies which indicate that:-

- * firstly, offences for youths aged 18 to 20 years rate about three times greater than those of youths aged 12 to 17 years; and

* secondly, categorization of adolescence into early, middle and late adolescence (paragraph 3.6.2).

In general, the findings of the present study do not support the hypothesis except for a few individual delinquency items, namely truancy, sleeping-out, driving a car without a valid driver's licence, public disturbance, theft from friends, auto-theft and defacing other students' books.

Hypothesis 3: "Involvement in self-reported delinquency increases with age". This hypothesis was confirmed.

According to the statistics, this hypothesis is supported. All delinquency sub-scales yield high and positive correlation's (above 0,80), in respect of norm infringements, regulation infringements, alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour and theft. With regard to malicious damage to property, the rho statistics range from 0,66 to 0,76; which is also fairly high but to a lesser degree than other delinquency sub-scales (Table 5.12).

Hypothesis 4: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents from broken and those from intact families". This hypothesis was untenable.

The present study reveals that 398 (71,07%) respondents of the total sample came from intact families while only 162 (28,93%) were from divorced, separated or single-parent families, i.e. broken families (Table 6.1). In view of this disparity, differences in self-reported delinquency were anticipated.

From the delinquency scale of 31 items, significant differences could only be established along with three delinquency items, namely sleeping-out without parental permission, objection to parental discipline and exceeding the speed limit (Table 6.2 & Table 6.3).

Hypothesis 5: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency among respondents from small medium and large-sized families". This hypothesis was untenable.

In the absence of universally accepted criterion of measuring the family size, three categories were arbitrarily created, namely, small = 1 to 4 siblings, medium = 5 to 8 and large = 9 and above. According to the sample, the distribution of respondents is as follows: 127 (22,68%) small; 258 (46,07) medium; and 175 (31,25%) large (Table 6.8).

Significant differences could only be established with two delinquency items, namely robbery and arson (Table 6.13 & Table 6.14).

Hypothesis 6: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive". This hypothesis was not confirmed.

In the whole delinquency scale, only two items reveal significant differences between respondents whose fathers are employed and those whose fathers are unemployed, namely watching "adult-only" films and theft from friends (Tables 6.16 & 6.19).

Hypothesis 7: "There are significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive". This hypothesis was found untenable.

Only four out of 31 delinquency items yield significant differences, namely watching "adult-only" films, buying of liquor, shoplifting and auto-theft (Table 6.22 and Table 6.25).

Hypothesis 8: "There are significant differences in the application of family controls over male and female respondents". This hypothesis was tenable.

In all family control sub-scales but one (parental supervision), significant differences in the application of family control measures over male and female adolescents are observed. Consistently female respondents report a greater effect of family control measures than their male counterparts (Table 7.1).

Hypothesis 9: "The application of family controls differs significantly among the 13-15, 16-18 and 19-21 age-groups". This hypothesis was rejected.

In pursuance of the idea of categorizing adolescence into early, middle, and late adolescence, the present study sought to find differences in the application of family control measures over the three age-groups. Further, since adolescence is a culturally determined stage of growth, we expect parental controls to differ in intensity with age-groups.

With the exception of parental affection, F-values reflect small and insignificant variances. With regard to parental affection, statistics indicate that parents tend to accord more affection and consequently more control is applied over younger adolescents (Table 7.2).

Hypothesis 10: "There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents from broken and intact families". This hypothesis was found tenable.

If the opinion that the broken home is responsible for much juvenile misconduct, the explanation of its effect should be sought from the ability of parents in applying family controls. The thesis of the present study rests on the notion that parents in a normal (complete) family structure should be in a better position to socialize, supervise, discipline and display affection toward children.

All family-control variables but one (parental discipline) reflect significant differences in the application of family controls by parents. The t-values indicate that respondents from intact families report more intensive family control than those from broken families (Table 7.3).

Hypothesis 11: "Family controls are significantly and differentially applied by small, medium and large-sized families". This hypothesis was rejected.

Although South African studies (Venter & Retief, 1960; Glanz, 1990) could not establish any relationship between family size and delinquency, the probability is that a large family experiences more problems in child control than a small family. The logical deduction is that parents with many children spend less time with the individual child; cannot plan the future of

their children; cannot identify predelinquent tendencies; and would prefer "easy options" of calling upon welfare assistance for solutions. Table 7.4 indicates that there are no significant differences in the application of family controls according to family size. The variances yielded by different family sizes reveal low F-values.

Hypothesis 12: "There are significant differences in the application of family controls over respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive". This hypothesis was not confirmed.

The present study contends that if the mother is employed and, therefore, spending less time with her children, family control application will be negatively affected. The findings of the study do not, however, support the hypothesis. Except for one family control sub-scale, namely family religiousness, no significant differences exist over respondents whose mothers are economically active and those whose mothers are economically inactive in the application of family control. Statistics show, as a matter of fact, that respondents whose mothers are employed report more parental control than their counterparts (Table 7.5).

Hypothesis 13: "There is a relationship between family control measures and self-reported delinquency".

Family control constructs for the present study consist of family religiousness, parental supervision, parental discipline and parental affection (paragraph 3.6.1.4). The hypothesis intended to establish an either positive or negative relationship between family control and juvenile delinquency. For the four family control measures the following is observed.

- (a) Statistical data confirm a relationship, between family religiousness and juvenile delinquency. The rho-statistics indicate that, with the exception of malicious damage to property, all the delinquency sub-scales reveal a negative relationship between religiousness and delinquency (Table 7.6).
- (b) Data pertaining to parental supervision do not support the hypothesis on parental supervision and juvenile delinquency. With regard to alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour and theft, the direction is negative but do not fall within the range of 0,05 percent level of significance. However, regulation infringements and malicious damage to property tend to portray positive direction but to no significant degree. It is only with norm infringements that a significant and negative relationship between parental supervision and juvenile delinquency is observed (Table 7.7).
- (c) A somewhat strong support for the hypothesis is observed between the influence of parental discipline and juvenile delinquency. Statistics indicate that among all delinquency sub-scales, parental discipline appears to have negative influence on self-reported delinquency. With the exception of malicious damage to property the significance level of 0,05 percent is observed with all delinquency sub-scales (Table 7.8).
- (d) The relationship between parental affection and juvenile delinquency is partially supported by the statistics. Statistics reveal significant relationships with norm infringements and alcohol and drug abuse. For the

remainder of delinquency sub-scales the direction of the relationship is negative but does not reach the expected level of significance (Table 7.9).

8.4 DISCUSSION OF THE MOST IMPORTANT FINDINGS

The most important findings discussed in this section include age and sex factors, family environment and family control measures. Following is a discussion of each of them.

8.4.1 Sex and age differences in juvenile delinquency

It has been pointed out in chapter 5 (paragraph 5.1) that belonging to a particular gender and age-group has always been associated with crime commission. It is generally accepted that males and young persons are more involved in crime than females and older persons.

With regard to sex differences in self-reported delinquency the following findings are important:

- * Firstly, although male respondents exceed females in self-reported delinquency in all delinquency items and related sub-scales, females do engage in the same delinquent acts as their male counterparts (Figure 4.1 - 4.6).
- * Secondly with alcohol and drug abuse, regulation infringements and violent behaviour, prevalence of male involvement is noticeable than is the case with other delinquency sub-scales. The probability of this state of affairs is that delinquency items under these sub-scales point to a "boys teenage sub-culture". Further violent

behaviour is generally associated with maleness of an individual (Glanz, 1990; Wise, 1967; Clark & Haurek, 1966).

- * Finally, with malicious damage to property probably because of its close association with aggression, boys excel. Malicious damage to property is characteristic of youth misconduct in Black residential areas in recent years. Nevertheless, the comparatively low involvement of both sexes is uncharacteristic of the sample.

Besides high male involvement in self-reported delinquency, this study has found that families maintain more control over girls than on boys. Such a finding supports the view that is generally held by most control theories (Hagan, 1988; Reiss, 1951; Adler, 1975).

With regard to age differences in delinquency, the present study does not support the view that involvement in delinquency differs with age-groups. Other studies (Haskell & Yablonsky, 1974; Glanz, 1990) indicate that the adolescents between 18 to 20 years report more delinquency involvement than those between 10 to 12 years.

8.4.2 The relationship between age and juvenile delinquency

The age-curve approach to the study of age and delinquency reveals that; from early adolescence crime increases, and at 18 years a dramatic rise occurs with the peak reached between 25-35 years, whereafter it drops up to old age (Mannheim, 1965; Greenberg, 1977). Within the operational definition of the present study it was expected, therefore, that there should be a linear relationship between age and juvenile delinquency (hypothesis 3).

Findings of the present study indicate this linear relationship. Further, indications are that during adolescent years delinquency increases dramatically up to young adulthood (paragraph 5.2).

8.4.3 Family environment and juvenile delinquency

The influence of the family environment on delinquency constitutes the core thesis of the present study. In this respect the family environment consists of the family structure, family size and family economics (parental economic activities).

(a) Family structure and juvenile delinquency

Trends in the development of the broken home theory indicate that:

- * the relationship between the broken home and self-reported delinquency exists to a lesser extent than that found among institutionalized populations;
- * the structure of the family affected self-reported delinquency in so far as status offences are concerned; and
- * the broken family is not the crucial link between the family and juvenile delinquency. It is happiness and parental marital adjustment that are potentially more important than a broken home (Morris, 1964; Austin, 1978:cf).

In contrast to the South African studies that used official data (Venter & Retief, 1960; Brown, 1984) findings of the present study do not support a link between broken home and delinquency.

If the broken home theory is anything to go by, the explanation of differential rates of delinquency between children from intact families and those from broken ones, should be sought from the inability of parents or their absence in applying family control measures. The present study contends that parents in a complete and normal family structure, should be in a better position to apply family control measures than those in a broken family situation. This view is supported by the findings of the present study. Adolescents from intact families report more family control than those from broken homes. These findings can be explained in terms of the cooperation between parents in applying family control measures.

(b) Family size and juvenile delinquency

For a long time literature and the mass media have stressed that smaller families would have less problems and more time for each other than bigger families. A logical assumption is, therefore, that parents with many children cannot effectively plan for their future and, generally, fail to exercise proper upbringing of their children.

Findings of the present study indicate that:

- * respondents from large-sized families do not report significantly more delinquency than those from middle and small-sized families; and that

- * family size does not affect the application of family control measures by the parents.

(c) Parental economic activities and juvenile delinquency

Two aspects of parental economic activities are dealt with in the present study, namely the father and mother's employment status.

Research studies (Cronje et al, 1982; Glueck & Glueck, 1950) agree that:

- * the level of education of the father determines his status of employment;
- * the occupation of the father determines the socioeconomic status of the family within the community; and
- * unemployed father, for whatever reason, loses respect from his children and, consequently, control over them.

If the above is true, one should expect significant differences in self-reported delinquency between respondents whose fathers are economically active and those whose fathers are economically inactive. Findings of the present study reveal no such differences and a low association between father's employment status and delinquency.

With regard to the mother's economic activity, a general perception prevails that juvenile delinquency increases as the number of hours spent by the mother outside the home increase. Further, mothers who seek employment do so because of existing

problems within the family. Findings of the present study present no link between mother's employment status and delinquency.

8.4.4 Family control measures and juvenile delinquency

With regard to family control measures and juvenile delinquency the following are the most important findings:

- (a) Statistics indicate that a negative relationship between family religiousness and delinquency exist. The rho-statistics however, reveal that this relationship varies between weak to moderately weak, possibly due to the sample size. The direction is that any amount of religious guidance serves as an insurance against juvenile delinquency.
- (b) To a fairly large extent, the findings do not show any relationship between parental supervision and juvenile delinquency. The following observations are, however, important:-
 - * Firstly, the negative direction of the relationships between alcohol and drug abuse, violent behaviour, theft and juvenile delinquency is an indication that increased parental supervision would reduce self-reported delinquency;
 - * Secondly, the negative and significant relationship between norm infringements and parental supervision indicates that this family control measure militates against status related delinquent acts.

- (c) Parental discipline entails a pattern of family control whereby a child is guided by the parent to obey, apply self-restraint and uphold the values of society. Parental discipline is reflected in the manner in which parents involve themselves in the daily activities of the child. Discipline may take the form of physical punishment, withdrawal of privileges and verbal warnings. Findings indicate that parental discipline is negatively related to juvenile delinquency and this is significantly the case with almost all delinquency sub-scales (Table 7.8).
- (d) Affinity between parents and their children, unlike among criminals, is not spontaneous and instinctual. It is a culturally transmitted commodity that human beings observe and experience throughout their lives. Findings of the present study reveal that for all delinquency sub-scales, but one (malicious damage to property), parental affection is negatively related to delinquency.

8.5 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from the empirical findings emanating from this study:-

- (a) Findings and opinions that have been maintained for decades, namely that males exceed females in delinquency involvement must be upheld. Male adolescents are significantly more involved in self-reported delinquency than their female counterparts. Further, differences in the socialization processes (application of family-control measures) serve to explain observations. The influence of the family, therefore, has unequal effect between boys and girls, and this is reflected in their self-reported delinquency rate.

- (b) The significance of age in juvenile delinquency can be found in socio-cultural, socio-psychological and econo-legal-aspects of the society (see paragraph 5.2). In this respect the family plays an important role in upholding the values held by society and appropriately satisfying the needs of the adolescents. Since findings of the present study reveal no differences among age-groups' involvement in self-reported delinquency the conclusion is that age-delinquency association can be found from their linear relationship. As revealed by other studies (Greenberg, 1977; Baldwin, 1985) delinquency increases with age.
- (c) The present study could not establish any link between the family structure, family size and delinquency. Indeed respondents from broken families and large families do not report more delinquency involvement than those from intact and small families. The conclusion is that the findings of officially based studies that most juvenile delinquents come from broken and large families is a consequence of using non-probability samples.

With regard to family control patterns respondents from intact families report more family control measures than those from broken homes. The conclusion is that , the presence of both parents in the family exposes such children to more family control than those from incomplete families (Table 7.3). This, however, does not suggest that the latter would report more delinquency involvement than the former. Further, the fact that data of the present study reflect no differences in the application of family measures indicates that the family size is not a

decisive factor in delinquency. Perhaps a big family, for example, an extended traditional family offers better control than a small nuclear family.

- (d) Most researchers (Peterson & Becker, 1965; Reiss, 1951) maintain that the family's inability in providing material needs to the youngster can create insecurity and affect the intensity and quality of control. The implication is that the traditional role of the father as the controller is affected once he becomes unemployed. Further, the father's unemployment means that the mother has to seek employment to supplement the family income. This deprives the family of the traditional supervisor of the children.

Contrary to the above, the findings of the present study cannot establish significant differences between respondents whose either parent is employed and those whose either parent is unemployed. Further, as far as application of family control measures, although to no significant degree, respondents whose mothers are employed report more family control than those whose mothers are unemployed. The conclusion is that parental employment status does not explain delinquency and has no link with parental control. Further, it is the motive and reasons for the parents' employment status that are important. A father who suddenly loses employment because of the economic state of the country cannot, all of a sudden, lose control over his children. Likewise a mother might be employed in order to assist in financial status of the family. Finally, some women these days are professionals and have to be employed in their chosen careers.

(e) The influence of the family on juvenile delinquency definitely depends on the successful application of family control measures. The following conclusions can be drawn from the family control constructs:-

(i) Family religiousness and juvenile delinquency

It has been noted that studies on religiousness and juvenile delinquency relationship have yielded conflicting results (Ganon, 1967; Hirschi & Stark, 1969; Burkett & White, 1974). The conflicting empirical findings have been ascribed to the following:

- * Firstly, lack of agreement in the definition of the concept "religiousness".
- * Secondly, number of delinquency items used in finding relationship between religiousness and delinquency
- * Finally, mixing of traditional beliefs with christian practices especially among Black people in South Africa (Brown, 1984; Glanz, 1990).

The findings of the present study, namely negative relationship between family religiousness and delinquency, lead to the following conclusions:-

- * Family religiousness either being mere church attendance or strong belief in supernatural or strong belief in supernatural powers is a deterrent against juvenile delinquency

- * The mixing of traditional beliefs with christian values should not reduce the deterrent effect of religion. All religions hold in high esteem an individual who is religious and anti-delinquent.
- * For religion to have a negative effect on delinquency it must be backed by the family. Religious guidance supported by parents should have better effect than that from any other source.

(ii) Parental supervision and juvenile delinquency

The family as a primary socialization agency has to supervise children if deviant behaviour is to be avoided. Parental supervision is effectively carried out if parents are concerned, for example, with their children's school success; are involved in their leisure time activities; and actively train them in household duties.

Although the findings of the present study are not in support of the relevant hypothesis, the direction of the relationship suggests that a more intensive supervision would reduce juvenile delinquency. This is especially true for norm infringements and alcohol and drug abuse to a lesser extent. In sum the conclusion is that parental supervision, although statistics do not reach level of significance, is negatively related to juvenile delinquency.

(iii) Parental discipline and juvenile delinquency

Parental discipline is understood to consist of two patterns, namely form and content. Both patterns are inseparable and application of one would include the other.

Research studies on parental discipline and juvenile delinquency (Larzelere & Patterson, 1990) indicate, inter alia, that consistency and skills in management rather than technique are important in discipline. The present study leads to the conclusion that consistency and frequency of pattern of discipline are negatively related to delinquent behaviour.

(iv) Parental affection and juvenile delinquency

Parental affection as a pattern of family control is related to juvenile delinquency in that its lack within the family forces youth to seek for it from outside the family circle. Often such a affection (especially from peer group) is devoid of disciplined and non-delinquent behaviour.

Although not statistically significant, data for the present study reveal a negative relationship between parental affection and delinquency. The conclusion is that adolescents who feel loved and accepted by their family are less likely to disappoint parents through delinquent acts than those who are rejected.

8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

Although the emphasis of the present study is on the family influence on juvenile delinquency, it is accepted that institutions such as the school, the church and the peer group play an equally important role in socialization. In this respect, the school plays an academic training role; the church a religious and moral role; and the peer group is important for leisure time activities. The recommendations proposed in this study relate to the role these institutions can play in juvenile delinquency prevention.

8.6.1 The family and the prevention of juvenile delinquency

For the family to function effectively and fulfil its socialization role, it must provide, not only good role models but also attitudes and values which the child can emulate. The family must of necessity protect the child against delinquency-producing elements. The following is, therefore, recommended:

(a) Family programmes that identify delinquency-producing interactions

Within the contemporary family structure, there are interactions which are delinquency-producing in nature. These have to be addressed if the family has to prevent juvenile delinquency. These consist of family tensions, parental rejection, defective parental-control, emotional instabilities and poor economic conditions.

The development of the delinquency-producing interactions is a consequence of both technological and social changes that have relegated parental work skills and estranged parents from other

family members. This becomes clear when one realizes that families are no longer in a position to perform above the important task of socializing young children and that supporting the family through family-directed programmes become a priority.

There are various ways of enabling the family to become an adequate system of support to growing children. The Workshop on Preventing Juvenile Delinquency (1993) proposed the following:

- * families experiencing economic stress could receive financial support from the state;
- * education and guidance for better parenting could be made available;
- * subsidized developmental day-care centres could be established;
- * preschool education programmes aimed at the development of children from disadvantaged families could be provided; and
- * home-visitor programmes which provide a wide-range of support services to families could be made available, and toy libraries could be developed (Glanz & Schurink, 1993:cf).

(b) Empowerment of the parents

Failure of the family in exercising control emanates from the fact that parents do not always have the necessary skills. For example, parents who themselves were not religiously guided;

were not supervised by their parents; were not subjected to consistent and frequent discipline; and were rejected by their families would not possess skills for child-upbringing. A national effort backed by governmental and non-governmental enterprise should be introduced specifically to see that parents are provided with the following:

- * Educational opportunities, formal and informal, for parents and newly-weds that will ensure that parents have sufficient knowledge of child-rearing and child up-bringing skills.
- * Rehabilitation programmes for families experiencing problems of unemployment, alcoholism and other social pathologies.
- * Reconstruction and development programmes for families that have been disrupted by social tragedies such as political violence.

The recommendation that parents be empowered is justifiable on grounds that what has been traditionally provided for by the extended family unit is now non-existent. For example, child-rearing has been the duty of grandparents but now industrial and social changes have left the burden with inexperienced nuclear family parents.

(c) Intervention with "problem" families

Families that encounter problems, usually display poor supervision, reflect poor management and disciplinary skills; and show general lack of affection between parents and children (Nye, 1958). Social welfare has long accepted that

intervention with such families through "aggressive" social casework is necessary. It is therefore recommended that such intervention be directed at:

- * Alcohol and drug abuse. In this respect, three aspects are important. Firstly, teenagers who abuse alcohol and drugs are always in contact with police, courts and correctional institutions. Secondly, such youths display problems in their school careers and general discipline. Thirdly, alcohol and drug abuse can be traced directly from family conditions and upbringing (Trojanowicz & Morash, 1983:331-333).

Although the present study does not propose any relationship between alcohol and drug abuse and any form of delinquency, it is fairly safe to assume that it is the most common form of delinquency reflecting a teenage culture than any other delinquent act. Further, whilst boys report more involvement than girls patterns of drinking are fairly similar.

Families that have alcohol and drug problem should be subjected to "aggressive" casework. Spouses who have alcohol or drug addicted partners should be encouraged to report such cases to relevant agencies such as SANCA. This also goes for their children who display such tendencies. In this respect, the school has an important role to play.

- * Uncontrollability of the youth. Data in the present study indicate that most respondents admit involvement with norm infringements, i.e. anti-social behaviour that reflects general uncontrollability. Such behaviour includes truancy, telling lies and sleeping-out without parental

permission. These delinquent acts are actually an indication of the failure of the family control measures. In this respect, it is recommended that institutions should work hand in hand with the family by means of intervention in order to prevent the occurrence of serious forms of delinquency (Jacobs, 1988:60-61).

8.6.2 The school and the prevention of juvenile delinquency

Although the present study does not include the school in its analysis of juvenile delinquency, it can be assumed that the school is, firstly an ideal-type of institution to detect predelinquent tendencies. Secondly, the child spends most of his childhood and adolescence years within the school environment. Moreover, the sample was drawn from school children population.

The recommendations on the role of the family in preventing juvenile delinquency can be best achieved if carried out in conjunction with the school as an institution reflecting the philosophy of the people. The role of the school in preventing juvenile delinquency should aim at the following:

- * Maximizing the learning process and elimination of factors which may have an adverse effect on the learning process and the development of the youth.
- * Identification of situations which pose risks to the learning process and the creation of opportunities which enhance learning.
- * Targeting prevention strategies to high risk behaviour such as poor achievement at school, low resistance to peer influence, truancy and acting-out behaviour.

- * Targeting prevention strategies to high risk behaviour such as poor achievement at school, low resistance to peer influence, truancy and acting-out behaviour.
- * Elimination of characteristics associated with juvenile delinquency within the school. These include large classes, ability grouping, negative labelling, low teacher expectations and poorly qualified teachers.

Following are recommendations that could fruitfully be implemented in order to enhance the preventive role of the school.

(a) Provision of a curriculum that focuses on the whole child

The school curriculum should focus on the enhancement of problem-solving skills. Such a curriculum should, firstly, enable the child to relate the present subject contents to future employment opportunities and its role in society. Secondly, the curriculum should aim at enhancing personal competence of the child and supplement for the shortcomings of the family. For example, where the family lacks in religious guidance and affection, the school through a comprehensive curriculum, should be of assistance in this regard.

(b) Creation of child-centred programmes

In addition to a comprehensive curriculum schools, through social welfare agencies should provide child-centred programmes specifically aimed at delinquency prevention. Jacobs (1988:64) identifies the following areas of such school programmes:

- * pre-school programmes with emphasis on preparation for school entering;

- * after-school centres where children are taught and cared for;
 - * programmes for the improvement of the self-concept and intrusive value in young people - especially those from poor and questionable neighbourhoods;
 - * instruction programmes concerning alcohol and drug abuse; sex education and responsible citizenship; and
 - * programmes that involve the community members in school affairs created exclusively with the aim of stimulating cooperation between parents and teachers.
- (c) National support on education and provision of equal opportunities for all citizens

In South Africa, the issue of equal educational opportunities in the form of free and compulsory education for everybody, has long been debated. It appears that the solution of this problem lies within the scope of a political dispensation which represent all citizens. It is, therefore, opportune that inequalities in education should be addressed with the aim of solving early school leaving; teenage pregnancy; high failure rate and poor preparedness for adult life-all which are factors in juvenile delinquency.

It is, therefore, recommended that the Government of National Unity must provide as a matter of policy the following:

- * Rehabilitation of all schools and educational centres that have been disrupted by instabilities caused by political violence.

- * Ensuring that all children of school going age are at school and those that have been traumatized by violence be subjected to psychological treatment. This could be achieved through provision of free and compulsory education up to the age of 18 years.
- * A conscious and deliberate emphasis on technically orientated education in order to ensure employment opportunities for all.
- * Provision of enough school facilities with sufficient qualified teachers. These school facilities should include social welfare, recreational and psychological services.

8.6.3 Religious and recreational activities and the prevention of juvenile delinquency

Research studies on religiousness and delinquency cited in the present study (see paragraph 7.4.1) indicate that religion, through moral teachings, builds within individuals a buffer against delinquent behaviour. Further, findings of this study indicate that family religiousness has negative effects on delinquency.

It is necessary to point out that those who write about delinquency devote little time to the role of the church and religion in delinquency prevention. Jacobs (1988:64-66) ascribes this shortcoming to inter-denominational differences, lack of funds; lack of cooperation with private welfare organizations, and lack of training in matters related to juvenile crime among church personnel.

In spite of the above, the church can play a significant role in delinquency prevention. Firstly through religious services organized by the mass media, delinquency prevention programmes can be expanded to involve potential juvenile offenders. The current programme in Radio Zulu "Unkulunkulu nomuntu omusha" (God and a young person) is the case in mind. This programme has the potential of drawing thousands of young persons together and, therefore, prevention strategies can easily be instituted. Secondly, since the church works hand in hand with families, church officials can assist in organizing "youth camps" for all children including those experiencing social adjustment programmes, during which "self" and "mental" preparedness may receive attention. Lastly the triad formed by the family, the school and the church can be organized into such a solid partnership that prevention measures can be jointly undertaken.

In addition to religious activities, leisure and recreational activities are important. It is recommended that leisure and recreational facilities should as far as possible represent the wishes and interests of young people.

Leisure and recreational facilities should address the delinquent acts commonly reported by youth. Further, recreational programmes should at all times aim at addressing individual needs and involve all sectors of the community. The recommendations are therefore as follows:

- * Local authorities should assume responsibility for all youth activities within the community. The assumption here is that the national government has a department of Youth Affairs at its disposal.

- * Research on juvenile crime and recreational needs of the communities should be undertaken by local authorities. This calls for the employment of people who have special knowledge in research methodology and juvenile misbehaviour.
- * Parents should be encouraged to participate in leisure time activities with their children. Schools, in particular, should invite parents to attend sport activities of their children.

8.7 SUMMARY

The study on juvenile delinquency among secondary school children has been conducted among Black secondary school children in the Mehlwesizwe Circuit, Ongoye District. The sample consisted of 560 respondents and a self-report instrument was used as a data collection technique.

Thirteen hypotheses were formulated for statistical testing and these relate to sex, age, family structure, family size, family economics and family control measures. With the exception of family control, all hypotheses sought for differences between groups in self-reported juvenile delinquency.

The recommendations of the study are based on the role of the family, the school, the church and recreation in preventing juvenile delinquency. At a primary level of prevention, these social institutions can serve as important socialization agents.

The study has achieved its aim and objectives especially with regard to "hidden" forms of juvenile delinquency.

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ANNEXURE "A"

SELF ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Do not write your name.
 2. There are no correct or wrong answers.
 3. Your responses must be frank.
 4. All information given will be treated confidentially.
-

A. DEMOGRAPHIC PARTICULARS

- 1.1 Sex:
- 1.2 Age: years
- 1.3 Where do you stay?
- 1.4 Do you belong to any church?
Yes/No
If yes, give the name of your church

.....
B. FAMILY PARTICULARS

- 2.1 Who of the following acts as your guardian/father at home?

Biological father	
Grand-father	
Step-father	(Make a cross (x)
Uncle	next to the
Nobody	correct space)

2.2 Who of the following acts as your guardian/mother at the house?

Biological mother	
Grand-mother	
Step-mother	(Make a cross (x)
Aunt	next to the correct
Other person	space)
Nobody	

2.3 What is the marital status of your parents?

Married	(Make a cross (x)
Divorced or separated	next to the
Never married	correct space)
Both deceased	

2.4 How many brothers and sisters do you have in your family?
Include all other children staying together with you.

One to four children	
Five to eight children	(Make a cross (x)
Nine to twelve children	next to the
Above thirteen children	correct space)

2.5 Is your father employed?

Yes	(Make a cross (x)
No	next to the
Not applicable	correct space)

If yes, state the nature of his employment.....

2.6 Is your mother employed?

Yes	(Make a cross (x)
No	next to the
Not applicable	correct space)

If yes, state the nature of her employment

C. FAMILY RELIGIOUSNESS

Indicate with a cross (x) next to the relevant space.

3.1 Do you discuss religious issues with your parents?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

3.2 Do you go or attend church services with your parents?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

3.3 Do you hold prayers with your parents?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

D. PARENTAL CONTROL

4.1 Do you depend on your father for advice?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/Not applicable

4.2 Does your father praise you for good things you have done or achieved?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

4.3 Do you depend on your mother for advice?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

4.5 Does your mother praise you for good things you have done or achieved?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

E. DISCIPLINE IN THE FAMILY

Indicate with a cross (x) next to the relevant space.

- Does your father or mother or any person who is your guardian punish you in any of the following methods:

5.1 Physically punish you with a stick or any other object?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

5.2 Refuse you permission to visit friends or watch T.V.

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

5.3 Warns you verbally

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

F. AFFECTION AND REJECTION IN THE FAMILY

Indicate with a cross (x) next to the relevant space.

6.1 Does your father (or the person you regard as the father) assist you with homework?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

6.2 Play games like tennis, football/basketball, chess, draughts etc. with you?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

6.3 Do house-hold chores like cleaning, gardening etc. with you?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

6.4 Assist you with homework?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

6.5 Play games like tennis, football/basketball, chess, draughts, etc. with you?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

6.6 Do house-hold chores like cleaning, gardening etc. with you?

Always
Sometimes
Rarely
Never/not applicable

G. LIFE EXPERIENCES

Make a cross (x) alongside the answer that suits your experience.

Young persons engage in activities that reflect conflicts of growing up. How many times have you in the last 24 months:-

7.1 Stayed away from school without a valid excuse?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.2 Been disobedient to your parents?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.3 Lied to your teacher(s)/parents/other old persons?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.4 Slept-out of home without parental permission?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.5 Objected to discipline from your parents?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.6 Raised objections when your parents show preference of friends (Boy or girl friends).

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Certain regulations are not always observed by young persons. How many times in the last 24 months have you done the following:

7.7 Driven a motor vehicle without a driver's licence?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.8 Driven a motor vehicle beyond prescribed speed limit on a public road?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.9 Entered a bar or bottle-store or any place where liquor is sold being under the prescribed age of 18 years?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.10 Bought liquor without parental or guardian's permission?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.11 Watched a video or film reserved for "adults only" with permission from parent(s) or guardian.

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Young persons like to experience with strange things and those that reflect a teenage culture. Have you in the last 24 months experienced with the following:-

7.12 Inhaled glue/petrol/benzine in order to get a "kick"?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.13 Taken a pill, mandrax or dagga or any drug in order to get a "kick"?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.14 Sold drugs or dealt in drugs with the aim of getting money?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.15 Drank beer, wine or hard liquor (brandy or spirits) without parental permission?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Young persons sometimes solve their problems through violent means.
Have you in the last 24 months -

7.16 Taken part in a fist fight?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.17 Injured somebody with a weapon like stone, knife or stick?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.18 Bullied somebody just to see how he/she reacts when threatened?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.19 Been loud, rowdy or unruly in a public place?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Young persons sometimes take things that do not belong to them. Have you in the last 24 months:

7.20 Taken things from a shop or elsewhere without paying for them?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.21 Taken or "borrowed" anything from your school-mates without their consent?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.22 Taken money (any amount) without the owner's consent from home, school, friends elsewhere?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.23 Broken into a house or vehicle with intention of taking something without owner's consent?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.24 Driven or taken a motor vehicle without owner's consent?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.25 Taken anything from somebody against his or her will?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.26 Avoided paying in a taxi or bus by sneaking in?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Young persons often release their anger on property belonging to other persons. Have you in the last 24 months -

7.27 Intentionally thrown stones at someone's house or vehicle?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.28 Destroyed public property like telephones, waiting rooms, etc?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.29 Set fire on the property belonging to someone else?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.30 Destroyed property belonging to the school?

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

7.31 Destroyed or defaced other students' books

Never
Once or twice
Three or four times
More than four times

Thank you very much for your cooperation!!

ANNEXURE "B"

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Department of Criminal
Justice
University of Zululand
P/Bag X1001
KWA-DLANGEZWA
3883
24 February 1993

The Principal

.....
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir

REQUEST TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL. L.P. MQADI REG NO : 710111

I am registered for a D. Phil degree in criminology with the University of Zululand. In order to satisfy the requirements of this degree I have to undertake empirical research. I, therefore, request for permission to undertake such among your standard eight and nine students. This will entail compilation of a self-administered questionnaire (see-attached copy). All information emanating from this research will be treated in strict confidence. The names of respondents and of your school will never be publicized.

I am prepared to personally meet you and discuss their finer details of this research at your convenience. Should this request meet your approval, kindly complete the portion below.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours faithfully

LP MQADI

NAME OF THE SCHOOL:
.....
.....
.....
.....

DATE:

Permission to undertake research with students at my school is granted/not granted*

.....
PRINCIPAL/DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

* DELETE WHICHEVER IS NECESSARY

ANNEXURE "C"

FORMULAE

1. CHI-SQUARE TEST

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(E - O)^2}{E}$$

E = Expected

O = Observed

2. t-TEST (STUDENT'S T TEST)

$$t = \frac{X_1 - X_2}{\sqrt{\frac{\frac{\Sigma D_1^2 + \Sigma D_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}{n_1 n_2}}}$$

X_1 = mean score for group 1 respondents

X_2 = mean score for group 2 respondents

D_1^2 = squared difference group 1 respondents

D_2^2 = squared difference group 2 respondents

n_1 = total number of group 1 respondents

n_2 = total number of group 2 respondents

3. F-TEST (FISHER'S TEST)

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

MS_{bg} = mean squares between groups

MS_{wg} = mean squares within groups

4. SPEARMAN RANK ORDER CORRELATION COEFFICIENT (ρ)

$$\rho = \frac{6 (\sum D^2)}{N(N^2 - 1)}$$

$\sum D^2$ = sum of squared differences between ranks

N = number of pairs of ranks.

5. CONTINGENCY COEFFICIENT (C)

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{X^2}{N + X^2}}$$

X^2 = chi-square

N = frequencies