

**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF ASPECTS ON
ENVIRONMENTAL CONDITIONS ASSOCIATED
WITH ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE
AND CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR**

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DECLARATION

The author hereby declares that the following mini-thesis, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in this text, is her own work.



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ABSTRACT

Universally it has been reported that the fundamental change in or breakdown of traditional patterns of family living is a major cause of juvenile crime around the world. Researchers (e.g. Wheatherburn, 1989) argue although sequential violence may originate from certain important social and historical conditions – substance abuse primarily fuels the cycle of violence. Thus, the development of the concept of the delinquent child as well as the changing image should be traced. The major causes of delinquency in various countries are related to each nation's economic and social environment. Researchers highlight and link problems of deviance to inadequate parenting, failure of schools, and remnants of the socio-political climate. These changes are frequently reflected within the sphere of risk behaviour.

The delinquent child and its contributing forces have branched down many avenues and are well manifested in various disciplines. A multi-disciplinary focus and orientation with specific reference to psychological and sociological theoretical perspectives are very crucial. The central variables in the present study, namely, environment, substance abuse, adolescence, delinquency, violence, parental and peer attitudes, poverty, emotional deprivation, etcetera have been informed by four interrelated theoretical perspectives, namely, problem behaviour theory, social learning theory, social control theory and association theory.

The study took place in the Correctional Services of the Boland Overberg Region under the auspices of the University of Stellenbosch. Questionnaires were used to gather the relevant information. The sample included post-sentenced juveniles under the age of 21 years, who were asked to volunteer for the study, after being informed of the aims and objectives. Informed consent was obtained from all participants.

84% of the sample (N=216) reported regular alcohol consumption starting from as early as 6 yrs old. Dagga and Mandrax consumption, most popular amongst youth between 15 and 16 yrs old rated 74.5% and 51%, respectively. A high school drop-out rate was reported between grades 9 and 11. Only 40 respondents indicated positively to having close friends. Seventy-five percent of these friends had already been incarcerated or according to respondents – steadily getting to that point. Significantly also, is the fact that more than 50% of participants identified having role models not in their immediate or extended family, example famous persons.

High risk behaviour in youth is often attributed to them feeling invulnerable, but increasingly the evidence is that many feel quite the opposite: hopeless; fatalistic; and lacking in belief about their future possibilities. Delinquency may be a form of substitute behaviour that provides escape from conflict and the resulting emotional distress, removes the pain of frustration and restores the equilibrium.

Strategies should be devised that would address education, employment and cultural leisure activities for marginalised people.



KEYWORDS

- Environment – external conditions or surroundings in which a plant, animal or human being lives, which influences its development and behaviour.
- Poverty – an economic condition in which people lack sufficient income to obtain certain minimal levels of health services, food, housing clothing, and education generally recognised as necessity.
- Violence – the exercise or an instance of physical force usually effecting or intended to effect injuries, destruction, etcetera.
- Delinquency – criminal or anti-social behaviour of juveniles.
- Crime – the term includes both the act as well as the intent to commit the act that violates the law and is punishable by the state.
- Adolescence – the period in human development that occurs between the beginning of puberty and adulthood.

Peer group – a social group composed of individuals of approximately the same age.

Parents – persons acting as father or mother.

Deprivation - to prevent from possessing or enjoying.

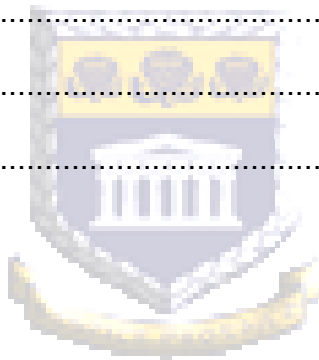
Substance Abuse – when the individual develops immunity to the negative consequences of the habit-forming substance.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
KEYWORDS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 RATIONALE.....	1
1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	4
1.3 METHODOLOGY.....	6
1.4 DATA ANALYSIS.....	7
1.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	8
CHAPTER 2	9
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES:	14
2.1.1 Problem Behaviour Theory:.....	14
2.1.2 Social Learning Theory.....	26
2.1.3 Social Control Theory:	31
2.1.4 Association Theory:	42
CHAPTER 3	46
3.1 RESEARCH SETTING.....	46
3.2 SAMPLE SELECTION	49
3.3 PROCEDURES.....	53

3.4 INSTRUMENTATION:.....	55
CHAPTER 4	60
RESEARCH RESULTS.....	60
CHAPTER 5	118
5.1 DISCUSSION	118
5.2 LIMITATIONS	126
5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS	128
5.4 CONCLUSION.....	132
REFERENCES	133
APPENDICES	146



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 RATIONALE

Young people have always suffered most from apartheid. Millions have been undernourished, insufficiently clothed, indifferently educated and have lived with parents stressed by poverty, overcrowding, relocation and unemployment.

Accompanied by this is the fact that boys are reared to believe that macho is best, meaning that the more aggressive you are, the better your chances of status, wealth and success. Precisely for these reasons, there is a high number of male juveniles – especially the previously disadvantaged – that have chosen or have fallen into alternative methods of coping with their lives – ways that transgress the law.

Don Pinnock (1995) outlined the history and problems of South Africa's criminal justice system, which include the detrimental affects of incarceration, the lack of healing for victims, the lack of addressing community needs. Van Eden (1994) identified urbanisation and apartheid as having weakened social cohesion, increased the incidence of criminal behaviour, and created a stumbling block in the way of reforming the current justice system. Hence, Family Group Conferencing was proposed and put into practise to deal with urban and rural experiences and youth criminal acts.

The South African Law Commission (1999), on juvenile justice acknowledged proposals and projects to develop new sentencing frameworks with the aim of holding young people accountable for their actions while also keeping them from entering deeper into the criminal justice system ; protecting the rights of young offenders as well as victims; provide methods to minimise the need for institutionalisation at any stage of the process ; ensure cultural appropriateness. In short the juvenile justice system should be innovative, inexpensive and creative. Over and above all, it should be maintained to be restorative in nature rather than retributive.

Noting the widespread drunkenness amongst the poor – plain poverty alongside adverse social circumstances have a lot to do with this high incidence of alcoholism, for alcohol and drugs have a numbing effect ; a care diminishing effect which makes life more tolerable for those who have to struggle for the bare necessities of living. And so, behind alcohol, drug abuse and violence lies the despair that eats away at the soul and overwhelms individuals with a sense of utter hopelessness.

It is particularly inspiring to note the Inter-Ministerial Committee's work on "A vision for young people". The new paradigm includes amongst others, working towards improving the socio-economic situation of children, youth and their families; working towards prevention of offending, early intervention and community-based programmes. John Braithwait in Pinnock (1995) suggested

that crime is best controlled when members of the community are the primary controllers in an attempt to reintegrate the offenders back into the community of law-abiding citizens, and so utilise social processes rather than specialist crime-orientated processes. Hence detention should be ordered only where there is a clear risk to public safety, and not as a punishment.

In the USA almost all adolescent substance abuse prevention programmes implemented in the last 20 years can be categorised into at least one of the following models:



The information – only model.

The alternatives model.

The affective education / social competency model.

The social environmental model.

Research literature seems to indicate that the fourth model yields the most effective positive prevention results. However, it is still unknown which components are most effective or which populations are most responsive. The model adequacy for high risk youths and/or minorities as well as its efficiency for gender differences are also unknown. It is likely that resilience-enhancement strategy programmes will mark the USA's next wave of substance abuse prevention, which is also evident in South Africa's rehabilitative vision for young people.

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The proposed study was conducted in the Boland Overberg region of the Western Cape. The study has two aims:

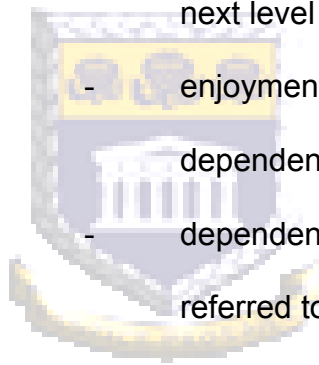
- (i). to examine the impact of risk factors (environmental conditions) and its contribution to substance abuse.
- (ii). to determine how these risk factors and the prevalence of substance abuse contributes to criminality.

Children from socially deprived families characterised by social isolation and multiple entrapment of parents in extreme poverty, poor living conditions and low-status occupations are at elevated risk of chronic delinquency and substance abuse. This relationship between parental income, occupational prestige and children's behaviour is not linear. Non-chronic delinquency, occasional alcohol use and marijuana experimentation do not become prevalent as socio-economic status decreases. However, persistent serious crime and the regular use of illicit drugs appear more prevalent among those raised in conditions of extreme social and economic deprivation (Hawkins et al. 1992).

Children whose parents or siblings engage in crime and/or drug use are themselves at high risk for these behaviours. Convicted parents and delinquent siblings increase the risk of delinquency, whether measured by official records or self-reported offending. Having siblings who have been convicted of a crime is

strongly predictive of chronic offending. Likewise, parental and sibling alcoholism and use of illicit drugs increase the risk of alcoholism and drug use in off-spring. Parental drug use has been associated with initiation of substance use by adolescents as well as with frequency of use. A consistent correlation between parents' use of alcohol and other legal drugs and adolescent drug abuse has been shown. There are four types or levels of drug use namely:

- experimental use
- novice use and may develop into the next level or may stop.
- Recreational use
- enjoyment the key factor, user not dependent upon the drug.
- Dependent use
- dependent user is the most frequently referred to since most drugs and behaviours that directly provide either pleasure or relief from pain pose a risk of dependency. Obtaining the drug becomes more important to the user than the quality of the drug or the quality of the drug-taking experience. Such use will often be accompanied by emotional, psychological as well as social problems.



- Problem use - referring to the result that the drug use has on the life of the user, namely: social, psychological or even legal problems.

<http://www.drugsalcohol.info>

1.3 METHODOLOGY

The study was conducted in a Correctional Service Institution (CSI) in the Boland Overberg Region.

Data Collection:

Prior to this, a period of training regarding questioning techniques and accurate documentation of information was done. Juveniles were asked to sign a Consent or an Assent Form (parental consent was sought where possible).

Questionnaires were used to gather the relevant information.

Description of subjects:

Post-sentenced juvenile inmates entering the CS for over a period of one year or more were asked to volunteer for the study. A minimum of 230 juveniles were recruited, of which 14 questionnaires were spoilt.

Instrumentation

Questions were asked in a polite, non-confrontational manner, bearing in mind cultural sensitivities. Subjects were interviewed regarding substance use. The questionnaire was administered in the home language of the participant. Where possible, the questionnaire was in a "0 or 1" format corresponding to "yes or no".

1.4 DATA ANALYSIS

The data for this study was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical technique employed was descriptive statistics. The main goal of descriptive statistics provides one with a representation of the data, which describes the results of the study in tabular, graphical and numerical form. Three reasons for using descriptive statistics in this study:

- The study was exploratory in nature (the first time that a study of such a nature was conducted in the Correctional Facility).
- Pre-constructed questionnaire confined the researcher.
- Causality could not be explored due to questions that were posed to inmates.

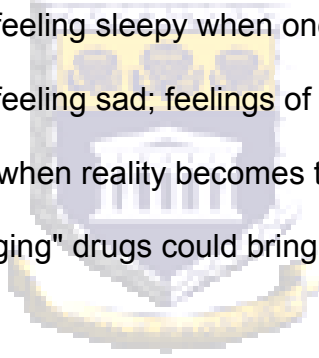
1.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research that involves human subjects needs to be conducted within the boundaries of ethical propriety. In other words, fair, openness of purpose and disclosure of methods was seen as priority. The ends for which the research was conducted, beckoned a respect for the integrity of the participants. An obligation on the part of the investigator was to ensure the individual's privacy and informed willingness to participate in this research endeavour. No participant was asked to be involved voluntarily that would lead to violation of ethical or moral principles. Participants in the study were informed of the aims and objectives of the study. Informed consent was obtained from the participants. The study commenced after ethical approval was obtained from the Department of Correctional Services Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix 1).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Regardless of their origin, legality or nature all psychoactive chemical substances have the capacity to change moods, feelings and perceptions. In a society like ours where "escapism" is so actively practised it is not surprising that "mood changing" drugs have formed an integral part of the society, namely, the ability to feel relaxed if one is tense; feeling sleepy when one cannot sleep; feeling happy when you are in actual fact feeling sad; feelings of strength when one feels weak; living in a world of unreality when reality becomes too painful – are only a few of the effects that "mood changing" drugs could bring about (de Miranda, 1987).



The use of alcohol and other substances like dagga and Mandrax in the Western Cape is common, and the impact warrants investigation.

Conditions that may argue the prevalence of crime in the country include:

- Migration of citizens from neighbouring states and provinces in search of employment.
- The growing alcohol and drug problem is amplified by the high unemployment rates and the disillusioning failure of the political revolution to impact the distribution of wealth among Blacks, Coloureds and Whites.

- Problems also exist with the higher levels of potency of certain drugs such as marijuana (Dagga) and the ready availability of cheap alcohol and also drugs.
- Youth crime is rapidly increasing, accompanied by the large numbers of homeless street children who struggle to survive.

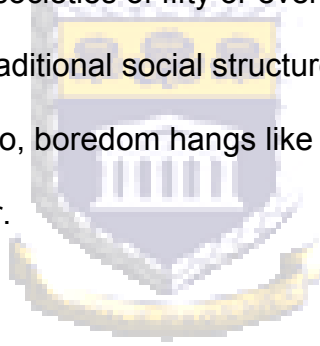
Few other issues in the most recent years have so cringed the South African public as has violently aggressive behaviour. Crime in the streets holds a central position in the concerns and consciousness of the average citizens. It dominates the front pages of our daily newspapers and is an omnipresent feature on television news. The South African citizen is overwhelmed with the sense that we, or our children are no longer safe in neither public spaces nor our own homes.

The findings of a few studies that have been conducted in South Africa (Hill and Keen, 1993 ; Hude, 1994 ; Lawrence, 1984 ; Maconachie, Angless and Van Zyl, 1993 ; Padayachee, 1994 ; Visagie, 1994 ; etcetera) highlight a combination of behavioural, emotional and relationship problems, psychosomatic illness and feelings of confusion, disequilibrium and frustration experienced by and associated with children exposed to family violence.

Weatherburn (1989) argues that though patterns of violence may have their roots in certain important social and historical conditions – the despair which maintains the cycle of violence is primarily fuelled by alcohol consumption.

Wilson and Ramphela (1994) rightly contend that poverty by no means always breeds boredom, but one of the striking characteristics of the research findings of the Carnegie Inquiry is the fact that under the conditions prevailing in small towns or dorps and in the rural areas (including resettlement camps) there is virtually nothing to do.

Anthropologists' reports on societies of fifty or even thirty years ago show that there is no longer the rich traditional social structure alongside customs of kinship and neighbourliness. And so, boredom hangs like a dark cloud and closely associated with it, is despair.

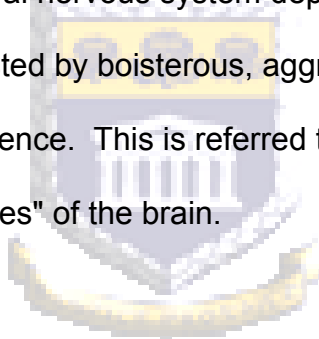


In Stellenbosch – an area well known for its superb wines – the practise of giving "free" alcoholic drinks to farm labourers as part of their wages (the tot system) still exists in some instances. Similarly, conditions were noted on some Natal sugar-cane farms. For many, alcohol is an important means of earning through running 'shebeens'.

Furthermore, Wilson and Ramphela (1994) also hold that the insecurities and fears experienced by the poor are further intensified by the use and abuse of alcohol. The term “abuse” is used in the context whereby the substance-using individual develops immunity to the negative consequences of the habit-forming substance. Effects are wreaking havoc in both urban and rural areas of the country. Problems associated with liquor are not, of course, peculiar to the poor

but the effects of alcohol are often considerably more devastating for the poor because of their greater vulnerability and greater need for escapism from circumstances.

De Miranda (1987) found that both acute alcohol intoxication and chronic alcohol dependence contribute to a large percentage on socio-medico-economic problems in all communities, in that acute alcohol intoxication will portrahit all the various symptoms of a central nervous system depressing drug. Inappropriate behaviour is initially manifested by boisterous, aggressive behaviour as part of "acting out" potential for violence. This is referred to as the disinhibiting effect of alcohol on the "control centres" of the brain.



Barber (1988) contends that the reason for the association between alcohol and resulting violence is the capacity of alcohol to provide an experience of personalized power. Similarly, White and Humerick (1994) recognised that there is a link between violence or crime and substance abuse. However, the exact nature of the link appears to be controversial.

Psychoanalysts view crime as a symptom of disturbing experiences which lies within the person and is rooted in interactions experienced in the first few years of life. Furthermore, they postulate that the environment plays a minor role.

Conversely Frans Hirschi (1969) assumes that everyone has potential to become delinquent and criminal and it is social controls, and not moral values, that

maintain law and order. Hirschi's work was faulted stemming from the use of too few questionnaire items to measure social bonds.

Because the study of the delinquent child and the forces that contribute to his status have branched down many avenues and is rooted in many disciplines, it is vital to use a multi-disciplinary focus and orientation, placing major emphasis on the psychological and sociological fields.



2.1 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES:

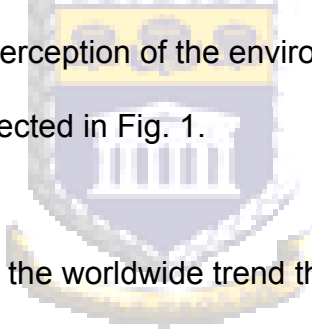
The focus of this research is on the micro system level (the individual) being influenced by other levels of the ecological system – the family, school and community. The latter mentioned levels, for the purpose of the present study carry significant personal and situational variables, namely, adolescence, parental and peer attitudes, emotional deprivation, delinquency, substance abuse, environment, poverty, violence – which are informed by interrelated theoretical perspectives, such as, Problem Behaviour Theory, Social Learning Theory, Social Control Theory and Association Theory. The study takes cogniscence of the most recently researched domain, namely, biology/genetics as constituent of the 'web of causation' (Jessor, 1992).

2.1.1 Problem Behaviour Theory:

This theory is associated with drug misuse in adolescence. Adolescents who are alienated from the values and norms of their families, schools and communities ; show a high tolerance towards deviance ; resist traditional authority ; are pleasure seeking ; unconcerned for their own safety ; do not fair well at school and befriend drug using peers (Hawkins et al. 1992).

Existing research argue that there is a range of social, individual and environmental factors which collectively increase the risk of a young person becoming involved in problem behaviours, including problem drug use.

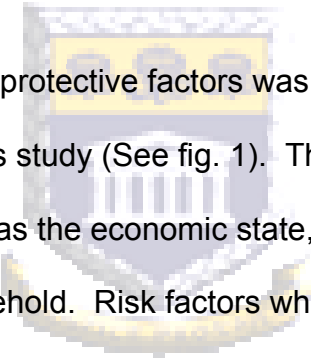
Jessor's (1993) epistemological framework of problem-behaviour theory guides us in understanding the adolescent's development and changes according to a psychosocial multivaried approach which takes into consideration the abovementioned impacting factors and translates them into basic domains such as the social environment, perception of the environment, personality as well as social behaviour. This is reflected in Fig. 1.



Visser (2002), speaks about the worldwide trend that when a country experiences general and drastic socio-economic and political change as is presently the case in South Africa, these changes frequently are reflected within the sphere of risk behaviour. Evidence such as the following was found:

- The estimated alcohol dependent percentage of individuals over the age of 15 for some communities, rates as high as 30%.
- There is a general increase in the level of drug and alcohol intake among adults, which has escalated drastically over the past decade.
- It is also estimated that the proportion of drug and alcohol users among young people grows as the general level of intake among adults in the community increases.

Hence, an extremely important issue for the purpose of this study is:- Whether protective factors lessen risk influence on problem behaviour during adolescence. Risk behaviour can be seen as behaviour that is either physically or emotionally dangerous or contribute to developmental problems for young people involved (Visser, 2002). It is usually studied in relation to adolescent development for it is during this period that risk behaviour starts emerging as being contributory to the stages of independence and maturity (Visser, 2002).



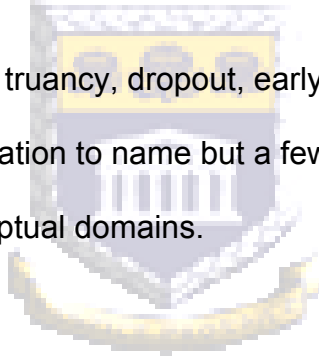
An index on risk factors and protective factors was borrowed from Hawkins' et.al. (1992) for the purpose of this study (See fig. 1). These are controlled by independent variables such as the economic state, sex, age, and family composition within the household. Risk factors which contribute to these are : laws and norms favourable toward drug use ; availability of drugs ; extreme economic deprivation; neighbourhood disorganisation; physiological characteristics; early and persistent behaviour problems – aggressive behaviour; family history of alcoholism; parental use of illegal drugs and alcohol; family conflict; low bonding to family; academic failure; lack of commitment to school; social influences to family; social influences to use drugs and the early initiation of drug use.

Protective factors considered were relationships with adults, the perception of a normative control from the outside, conventional friends' models of behaviour, good school results, positive attitude towards school, intolerance to deviance,

religious faith and voluntary activity, cohesive family, value on achievement, value on health (Jessor, 1992; Hawkins et.al., 1992).

Studies show that protective factors interact with risk factors in such a way that when protection is high there is little or no impact of risk on problem behaviour, whereas when there is no protection a linear relationship between risk and problem behaviour seems to exist namely:

Illicit drug use, delinquency, truancy, dropout, early sexuality and pregnancy, limited work skills and motivation to name but a few. Further illustrated in Fig.1, representing the five conceptual domains.



Interrelated Conceptual Domains of Risk Factors

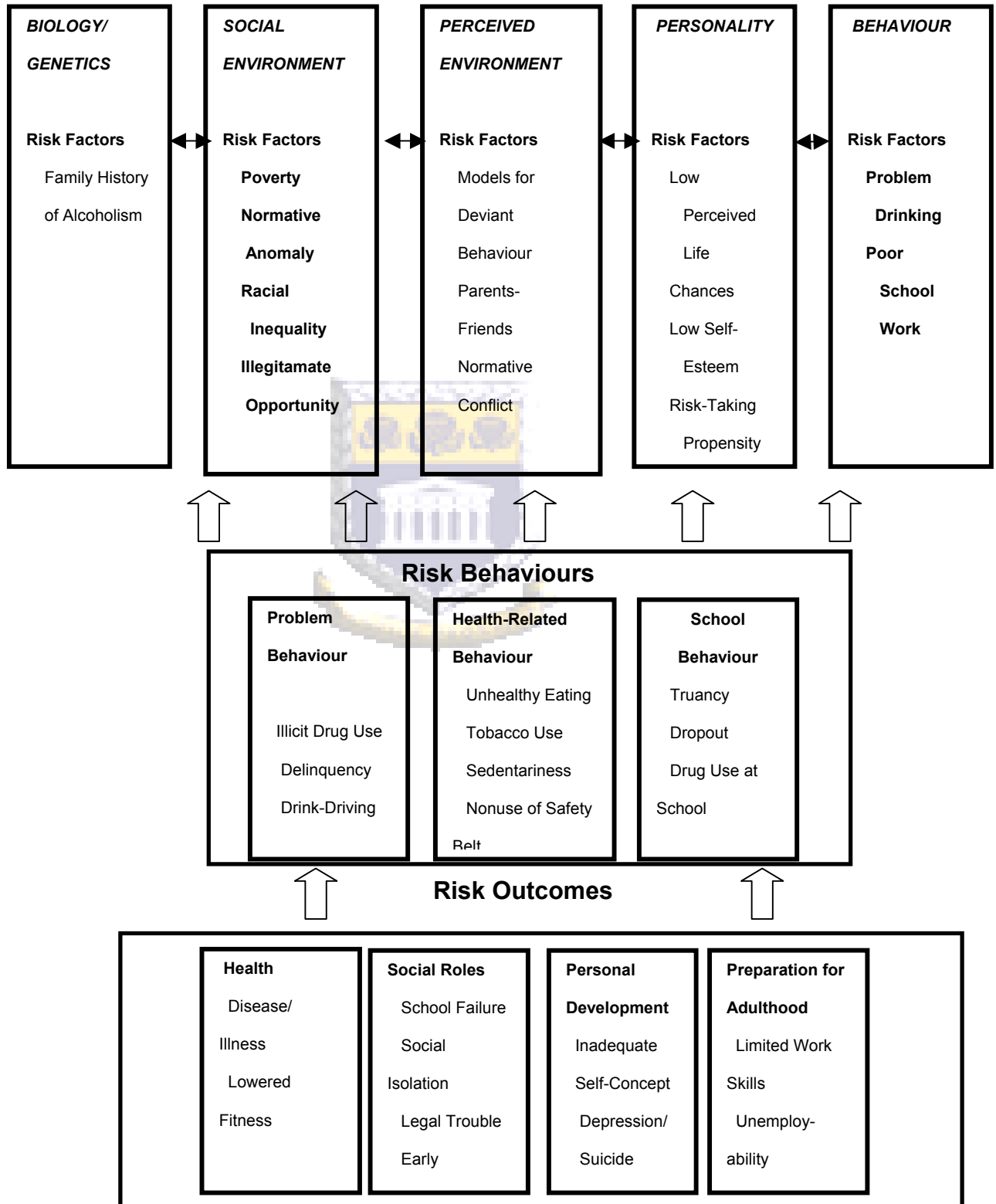


Fig. 1

Hawkins, 1992

Jessor (1992) argues that given the inter-relatedness of the domains as well as the vast array of factors that are seen to directly or indirectly influence risk behaviour – any explanation or single-variable intervention that confines itself to a specific domain is certain to be incomplete, resulting from the existence of organised patterns of adolescent risk behaviours which taken together, reflect an adolescent's way of being in the world.

The following explanation implements the interactionist orientation of adolescent risk behaviour and, hopefully, the advantage that is derived from incorporating attention to both person and context.

Poor parental supervision and affection, family break-up, negative peer influences, and poverty have all been shown to be associated with juvenile delinquency. From the psychological viewpoint, Sterne (1964) argues that emotional deprivation, due to a lack of parental love plays a great contributing factor in juvenile delinquency. If a child does not find the basic need of love and affection met, and also support and supervision, at home – chances are great that he will resort to groups outside the family. More often than not, these groups are of a deviant nature. So the direct correlation between rejecting, hostile parents and delinquent behaviour exists. Bryant and Zimmerman (2003) have suggested that the lack of male role models, especially the father or equivalent, may be associated with adolescent's involvement in problem behaviour – this phenomena then magnifies the negative influences of peer problem behaviour on

adolescent problem behaviour (e.g. gang activity involvement, drug use, stealing, truancy and fighting).

Although Visser (2002) rightly holds that risk behaviour is associated with personal attributes such as egocentrism, sensation seeking, broader social and contextual attributes, Jessor (1992) argues that risk behaviour is, moreover, closely linked to the macro level social and community factors such as access and exposure to substances, social norms tolerable of risk behaviour peer pressure or – preference, socio-economic status, illegitimate educational opportunities, social support and involvement within a social network.

To follow is a brief discussion of interrelated factors influencing risk behaviour.

(i) Personality / psychological factors:

The importance of personality is a factor when viewed in combination with environmental factors. Almost any aspect of personality which makes it less easy for an individual to find ordinary rewards in life and ordinary happiness with his/her peer group thus provoking anxiety and tension, may predispose a person to drug-taking as a short-term answer. According to Visser (2002) self-esteem is one of the most important personal factors influencing the development of risk behaviour.

(ii) Peer pressure

Arguments suggest that those young people with low self-esteem and a need to secure the acknowledgement of their peers are particularly likely to be influenced

or pressured by the encouragement of their friends and peers to engage in drug use. A more accurate analysis would be to speak of peer preference.

Individuals may make a conscious effort to seek the company of others who share the same norms and values as themselves without the element of compulsion or social inadequacy. As found in a recent study (Visser, 2002) done in the Gauteng and Limpopo provinces that 50% of the young people in the rural area reported current alcohol use and that it was mainly used in the company of friends to socialise regularly at least once a week.

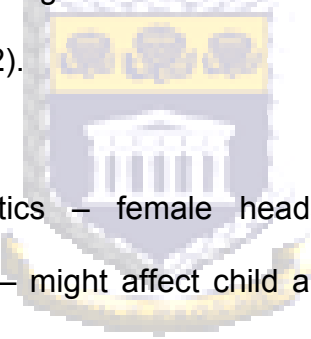
(iii) Availability

The availability of drugs is an important factor as to whether drugs are used or misused. In addition, availability may also influence or dictate patterns of drug use in a given area or sub-culture at a given time. However, the fact that drugs are available does not explain why only some people actually use the drugs, or grow to become dependent upon them.

(iv) Social, economic and cultural (environmental) factors:

Although illicit drug use occurs at all socioeconomic levels, Brooks-Gunn (1993) supports the notion that recent changes in the socioeconomic composition of the neighbourhoods in which low-income children live, add a sense of urgency to understanding the nature of neighbourhood effects. Visser (2002) suggests evidence to the undeniable fact that substance abuse in particular, is currently recognised as one of the most significant health and social problems in communities especially since the availability and use of substances have

become so increasingly prominent during the past few years. These trends of drinking and drug-taking generally indicate and portray the quality of life in that community (Visser, 2002). Originally the epidemiological search focussed primarily on biology/health and to some extent, on the physical environment. More recently, this search on risk factors for diseases and chronic illnesses has expanded into two new domains, namely, the social environment and behaviour as the challenge for epidemiology is to move beyond its usual biomedical focus and address the understanding of behaviour and its antecedents as well as consequences (Jessor, 1992).



Neighbourhood characteristics – female headship, male joblessness and receiving public assistance – might affect child and adolescent development in the sense that the existence of more single-parent families reduces the supply of adults monitoring and socialising children and adolescents; which, in turn, probably increases peer influence. According to Furstenburg (1990) the size of the neighbourhood that influences behaviour may depend upon factors such as density of the people living in the area, access to public transportation, drug-sale sites, and the like. This availability negatively influences networks of family members and peers, and could produce direct and indirect detrimental effects on an individuals behaviour.

Various arguments present that people who are not well rewarded in the mainstream of society, opt out and seek alternative pleasures such as drugs. Hence, low-income neighbourhoods probably fall prey to substance abuse

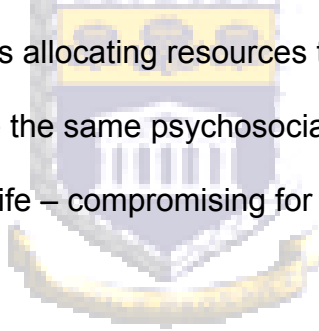
because of the vulnerability that exists among residents. Reasons include educational failure and economic and social deprivation, lack of employment, poor job prospects, poor housing and environmental conditions. Pumariega et.al. (1992) in their study of cultural effect on substance abuse amongst youth demonstrates that activity orientation has a considerable effect on either increasing or decreasing the risk for substance abuse. This may indicate that the subculture of school athletics day or sports days, in some environments, sanction the use of drugs and alcohol rather than protect against them. In this manner synonymous events as well as timeframes eg. weekends, may simply function as do other peer-orientated adolescent and parental activities.

(v) Family disruption:

Illicit drug use has been attributed to family problems including early separation from one or both parents, broken homes and parental problem drug use. It should, however, be emphasised that young people from broken homes do not necessarily turn to illicit drug use, while others from seemingly stable homes may become involved in drug taking (Hawkins, 1992).

Although risk-taking behaviour is considered part of adolescent development, Trojanowicz (1978) argues that persons working with juveniles often tend to forget that the delinquent is an adolescent first and a delinquent second. At the most they are not fully familiar with the wide variety of adolescent disruptive behaviour that is within the normal range. Although risk-taking behaviours do indeed have biomedical consequences or undesirable outcomes it certainly

becomes clear that some of the outcomes can be positive, desirable, and quite sought after by adolescents (Jessor, 1992). For eg. smoking marijuana could be instrumental to an adolescent experiencing goals such as a sense of respect and social acceptance by peers as well as a sense of autonomy and affirming maturity, making a transition out of childhood and toward a more adult status. Adolescents should therefore be examined from many perspectives, which include his wide-ranging behaviour ; his relationship with others ; his struggle for dependence versus independence and the most effective methods of relating to him. Jessor (1992) suggests allocating resources to promoting alternative behaviours that would serve the same psychosocial desirable outcomes but would be less health – and life – compromising for adolescents.



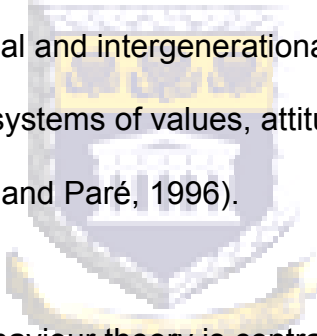
Scheer et.al. (2000) also rates high the developmental phenomena of (Erickson, 1968 ; Holmbeck and Hill, 1988 and Grotevant, 1983) during adolescence namely identity vs role confusion ; storm and stress ; and autonomy – arguing that these may underlie how adolescents relate to their families and consequently substance use. Adolescents that have not yet resolved the autonomy status and identity crises are less likely to have a two-way communication as well as involvement with their parents thus resulting in more family conflict which may lead to substance use, withdrawal from school involvement, driving after drinking, or engaging in violence are some obvious examples.

Considering South Africa's exceedingly rapid social change during which basic values and norms are continually questioned, the young person's identity problems become immeasurably more complicated. Erikson's theory provides for the spontaneous recovery of developmental crises through appropriate and effective socialisation skills. If crises are to be successfully resolved, the person's interpersonal relationships need to be positive, in nature and quality as facilitated amongst protective factors. Intervention strategies should therefore be designed and evaluated for the specific communities they are meant to reach.



2.1.2 Social Learning Theory

Researchers, e.g. Brooks-Gunn et.al., (1993), view individuals in the context of a series of environments or ecological (macro-level) systems in which they reside or operate. These systems are: the nuclear family, extended family, peer group, neighbourhood, community including institutions such as the school, church and recreational activities. The context of every family is thus couched in, shaped and produced by multi-familial and intergenerational processes as well as the emotional atmosphere and systems of values, attitudes and beliefs which precede it (Hurst, Sawatsky and Paré, 1996).



This theory in relation to Behaviour theory is central in criminology. Key components of Social Learning Theory are role models and expectations. These two components interact as influence on young people. The theory suggests that alcohol and illicit drug use might not only be socially acceptable, but perhaps even necessary if one wants to become, for example, popular, macho or sophisticated within a preferential peer-group (Brooks-Gunn, 1993).

Bandura (1975) claims that social behaviour is acquired through direct conditioning via the actual behaviour of parents and peers. The latter believed that violent tendencies are not innate, but learned, through three mechanisms: modeling, direct tuition and reinforcement or punishment. Central to this theory in relation to illicit drug use by vulnerable or susceptible young people is the

extent to which social influences promoting illicit drug use affects these individuals knowledge, attitudes and beliefs. In addition such susceptibility or vulnerability is related to among other factors, low self satisfaction, low self confidence, low assertiveness, low self control. Furthermore, it is argued that individuals, especially children, learn aggressive responses from observing others (example family members), either personally or through the media and environment. This aggression produces reinforcement which further translates into reduction of tension, gaining financial rewards, gaining the praise of others, or building self-esteem. Evans (1989) holds that there are three levels of aggression that warrants explanation, namely:

- i) how aggressive patterns of behaviour are developed?
- ii) what provokes people to behave aggressively?
- iii) what determines whether they are going to continue to resort to an aggressive behaviour patterns in the future?

Through Bandura's famous Bobo doll experiment, he and many other researchers found that 88% of the children limited the aggressive behaviour. Eight months later, 40% of the same subject group repeated the violent behaviour observed in the Bobo doll experiment. This observational learning is also known as imitation or modelling. Social Learning theory postulated four necessary processes influencing the observer's behaviour when being exposed to models. Bandura (1976) says that these components include: attention ; retention ; motor reproduction ; and motivation.

Attention: individuals cannot learn much by observation alone unless they perceive and attend to the significant features of the modelled behaviour, for example wife-battering.

Retention: in order to reproduce the modelled behaviour, the individual has to code the information into long-term memory for later retrieval.

Reproduction: involves converting symbolic representation into appropriate actions. Behavioural reproduction is achieved by organizing one's own responses in accordance with the modeled pattern. A person's ability to produce the behaviour improves with practice.

Motivation: to imitate a behaviour, an individual is known to have some underlying motivating factor, such as incentives that a person envisions. These imagined incentives act as re-inforcers. Some of these incentives are for example sex without courtship; money without work; revenge without court delays (Hirschi, 1969). Reinforcement describes the process whereby certain behaviours occur at a substantially higher rate as a result of their producing a desired outcome. The observer expects to receive positive reinforcement for the modelled behaviour.

The Bobo doll experiment helped Bandura to theorize that:

"As children continue to age, the experience still affected their personality, turning them into violent adults." (<http://www.mhcollegeco/socscienc.com/bandur-s.mhtml>)

Since the family is a microcosm of society, it is considered the most significant factor in the primary environment of the child. It is within the family institution that the child first interacts, and what he learns (or does not learn) there, is often the model for future behaviour. Specific mechanisms whereby family members influence one another to perform violent behaviours are modelling, reinforcement and reward. For example, a person is more likely to be in a violent relationship if she or he had been exposed to violence or aggression as a child, either as a witness to interparental violence or a victim of child abuse.

Barker and Adams in Trojanowicz (1978) found that almost without exception, delinquents come from multi-problem homes where there is a great deal of personal and family disorganisation as well as some economic handicap. The prevalence of violence in a particular society is invaluablely linked to high levels of domestic violence. Therefore an understanding of violence in the home lends itself to a better grasp of violence in the wider social context. Indeed, the family can be regarded as a "cradle" of violence because experiences of violence in childhood and in family life are invariably socialised into a cycle within the wide society inlay forms (McKendrick and Hoffman,1990). Environmental experiences is a prime influence of the social learning of violence in children. Bandura et..al.

(1976) reported that individuals that live in high crime rate areas are more likely to act violently than those who dwell in low crime areas. This assumption is similar to Shaw and McKay's theory of social disorganisation, who believed that a neighbourhood surrounded by culture conflict, decay and insufficient social organisations was a major cause of criminality (Bartollas, 1990).

Bandura believed that television was a definite source of behaviour modelling as it illustrates violence graphically. Since aggression is a prominent feature of many shows, including commercials, children who experience frequent exposure to the media may exhibit a relatively high incidence of hostility themselves in imitation of the aggression they have witnessed (Berkowitz, 1962). On the other hand persons do not actually have to act out the aggressive behaviour, as the fantasy rehearsing in his mind will keep the act a live option for the future.

Social learning theory sees external and internal rewards working together in a "reciprocal determination" to influence behaviour. Bandura (1976), however, does not claim that television is the only way in which people acquire behavioural disposition, but he has established that the media is an important ingredient in the formative mix.

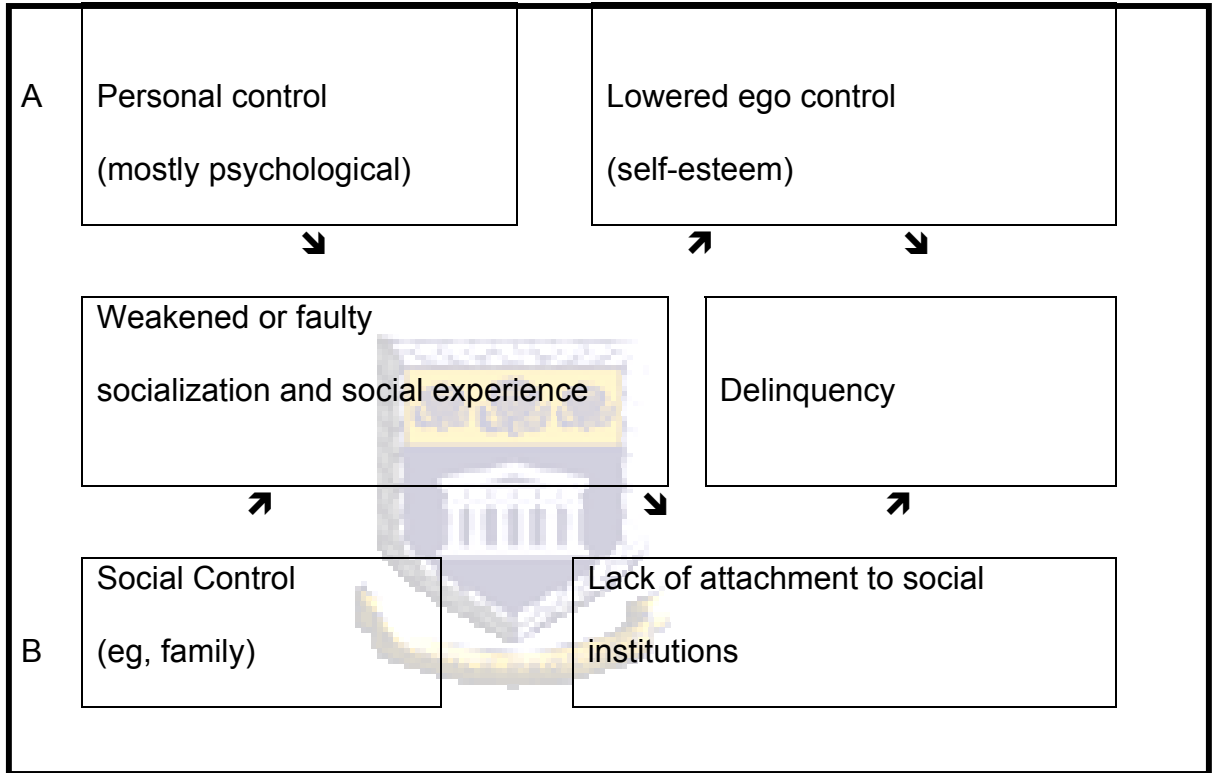
Another significant phenomenon according to Trojanowicz (1978), is where one or both parents have emotional disturbances – or a disease such as alcoholism – the youngsters run a much greater risk of developing problems that often manifest themselves in a delinquent activity. The latter also found that mothers as well as fathers were often physically, intellectually, and emotionally inferior.

Gottheil (1983) states that people learn drinking behaviour – from their parents, peers and social context. Concurrent use of alcohol and aggression within the family institution allows the person to disregard social norms and to have a sought of "time out" from social rules of conduct.

2.1.3 Social Control Theory:

This theory focuses on the strategies and techniques which help regulate human behaviour and thus lead to conformity and compliance of rules of society and the influences of family, school, morals, values, beliefs. Juveniles and adults conform to the law in response to certain present controlling forces, but are likely to become criminal when these controlling forces are either defective or absent, as represented in Fig. 2. Social control practically represents any phenomena leading to conformity, which in turn leads to norms. Hence it is safe to say that any deviant occurrence is to be considered violation of the law meaning right or wrong.

Figure 2: A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF SOCIAL CONTROL THEORY OF DELINQUENCY (JUVENILE OFFENDERS)



(Shoemaker, 1984, p.154)

A and B represent the Defective Control Systems

Social Control Theory became increasingly popular in the 1980's and 1990's as it was linked to the changing political climate in South Africa. One of the aspects underlying the popularity of control theory was its response to crime that blames the lack of parental control, which is a pivotal social control mechanism in relation to family, school and church. Johnson et.al. (1979) hold that a strong affiliation to at least one of these, is likely to encourage the individual to conform to societal rules.

Noteworthy is the fact that Social Control Theory rejects speculation about the 'causes' of deviance. Its central notion is that it is unnecessary to understand the cause and antecedents of deviance but rather the circumstances of the 'choice' before committing the crime.

Haskell et.al. (1970), in a more general sense, alludes to circumstances such as strain as a result of poverty and emphasises the environment as being conducive to delinquent behaviour when ineffective social controls and inadequate models for identification exists as listed in Fig.3 and Fig.4.

Teenage pregnancy	Alcohol and drug abuse
Divorce	HIV/AIDS
Domestic violence	Elderly abuse
Lack of parental skills	Lack of recreational facilities
Molestation	Child neglect
Crime	Lack of shelter
Children orphaned as a result of	Parental problems
HIV/AIDS	Rape
Unemployment	Prostitution
Illiteracy	Single parents
Street children poverty	Lack of HIV/AIDS awareness
Overcrowded homes	programmes

Fig. 3: Common social problems of a poor community in the Western Cape.

The specific social problems were identified as follows:

SOCIAL PROBLEM	HOUSEHOLD %	COMMUNITY %
Excessive drinking	6.7	92.8
Drug abuse	1.0	90.8
Child abuse	1.0	76.4
Domestic violence	6.2	69.7
Gang violence	0.0	94.8
Illiteracy	13.9	88.7
Unemployment	49.7	92.3
Tb	3.6	69.7
Hiv/Aids	0.0	66.7
Teenage pregnancies	6.7	83.1

Fig 4: Guguletu Community Needs Assessment, PAWC Athlone, 1997

Pinnock (1995) asserts that juveniles are perhaps the most vulnerable of all, as they are easily influenced by their environment and peers. They also fall prey to the influence of gangs which operate both inside and outside prisons and cannot divorce themselves even after they leave the institution. Young people have always suffered most from apartheid. Millions have been undernourished, insufficiently clothed, indifferently educated and have lived with parents stressed by poverty, overcrowding, relocation and unemployment. Poverty alongside adverse social circumstance has a lot to do with the high incidence of alcoholism

and drugs as it produces a numbing or care diminishing effect which makes life more tolerable for those who have to struggle for the bare necessities of living.

Lichter (1997) alludes to important issues such as past and current high rates of child poverty, continuing high rates of nonmarital fertility and divorce, and the increasing segregation of poor families in "bad" neighbourhoods. Lichter et.al. (2002) in their study on the relationship between poverty and family instability during childhood found that adolescents especially males, from single-parent families, are less likely than those growing up in married couple households to engage in prosocial behaviour in their communities. The results support the notion that negative effects of childhood social and economic disadvantages indirectly affect the socio-emotional development and life experiences during adolescence.

Furthermore disadvantaged workers experience coercive relationships, strain and alienation which later results in inconsistent and punitive parenting. Youths become alienated, experience problems at school, join with other alienated youth and reject conventional values. These antisocial attachments in most cases lead to an increased risk of delinquency and drugs (Lichter et al., 2002).

As previously stated, one element of poverty perceived by many researchers is that those who are poor, relates to alienation from community and kin. This view has some parallel with the concept of social exclusion that has been the subject of debate concerning poverty in Europe. In this analysis, social exclusion is seen

to focus "primarily on relational issues (such as) the lack of social ties to the family, friends, local community, state services and institutions or more generally to the society to which an individual belongs" (Bhalla and Lapeyre, 1997, p.147).

The concept is seen to have both economic and social dimensions. While the economic dimension refers to exclusion from the opportunities to earn income, the labour market and access to assets; the social dimension refers to participation in decision making, access to social services and access to community and family support. At one level then, social exclusion can refer to exclusion from the rights of citizenship, while at another, the concept refers to relationships within families and communities. This social disorganisation could be viewed as a disequilibrium of the social system that inevitably leads to personal disorganisation, and the solution for disorganisation is to bring the features of the social system back into equilibrium. Examples of social disorganisation are found among migrants, delinquents, and derelicts, and in the rootlessness of life in areas where these people are found. Delinquency is, in fact, in some sense the measure of the failure of our community organisations to function effectively (Rubington and Weinberg, 1989), especially schools where children and adolescents spend at least a quarter of the day.

The physical environment, according to researchers such as Trojanowicz (1978) found that: "The homes in which delinquents live, tend to be dirty and rundown – the home of delinquents are often disorderly and cluttered, present routines are weakly fixed, physical space is at a premium and privacy can best be had by leaving the house – there is little order in the model delinquent home and acts mainly as a repellent, driving people away" (p83).

Hirschi (1969) and other social control theorists argue that the more involved and committed a person is to conventional activities, the greater the attachment to others (such as family and friends), the less likely a person is to violate the rules of society. Also, sociologists hold that belief systems, and not laws, guide and control individuals behaviour – as reflected in the following quote – irrespective of the forms that beliefs may take.

"Why don't we all break the law?..... We all would if only we dared, but many of us dare not because we have loved ones we fear to hurt and physical possessions and social reputations we fear to lose."

Box (1981)

<http://www.comp.lancs.ac.uk>

Integral to the Durkheimian analysis of deviance is the problem about what makes people conform. In answer to this, deviance can be best understood in terms of Hirschi's developmental process of bonding, consisting of the previously mentioned four elements. Thus the main focus of social control theory is social

bonding which consist of attachment, commitment, involvement and belief.

There is some evidence that certain factors including personal attributes and a social bond to conventional society may protect against drug abuse though more research is needed to determine the relationships between risk and protective factors.

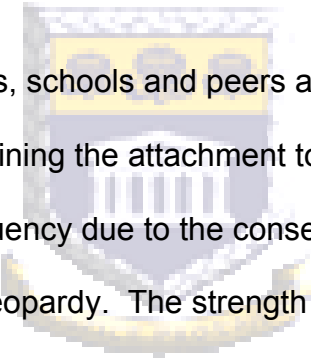
Scheer et.al. (2000) hold that family involvement in schools ; the adolescent's belief that their families cared about them (attachment) as well as parent sanctions against smoking cigarettes and using marijuana predicted lower substance use regardless of location. The youth also reported that they cared about their families. A protective factor in the lives of youth is the positive adolescent-parent relationship as they become confronted with life choices, including substance abuse. Spoth et.al. (1996) in a primary prevention study also found that a strong parent-adolescent bond enhances youth alcohol refusal skills. These findings are supportive of the Scheer et.al. (2000) results that suggest that positive family relationships, parental involvement (especially in school events and its functioning) facilitates the transmission of prosocial values and norms from parent to adolescent.

The following is a brief description of the four elements that constitutes social bonding:

1. Attachment

This refers to one's interest and concern about others' opinions and values.

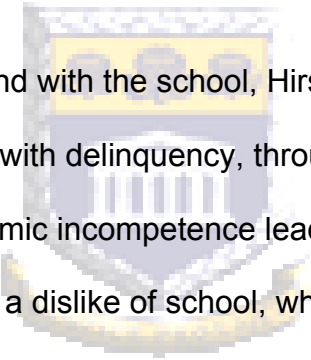
One's acceptance of social norms and the development of a social conscience depend on attachment for other human beings.



Attachments such as parents, schools and peers are important social institutions for any person. When examining the attachment to parents it was found that juveniles refrain from delinquency due to the consequences that would place the parent-child relationship in jeopardy. The strength of this deterrent would depend largely upon the quality and depth of the parent-child interaction ; the amount of time spent together ; intimacy and identification that may exist between parent and child. This emotional bond and attachment to parents may help adolescents feel better about themselves (Cotterell, 1992).

According to Wilks (1986) parents and their opinions are perceived as most important in the lives of adolescents – although only in certain "future-orientated" areas of decision making. On the other hand, when "short-term" decisions are to be made such as dating, dressing, social events and hobbies – the opinions of friends were perceived as more important (Sebald and White, 1980). Wilks (1986) also suggests that for information about sex as well as drinking alcohol, the opinions of friends were held in high esteem. Age, sex and cultural

background have also been shown to influence adolescent choices between parent and peer reference groups. More recently researchers have extended their investigations and focused on other reference groups namely: siblings, extended family members and non-related others (Cicirelli, 1980 ; Blyth et.al., 1982 and Valiant, 1983). This is in accordance with the quality of the relationship, their willingness to approach referent others and also the particular situation.

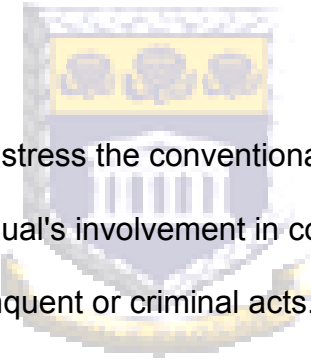


When the focus is on the bond with the school, Hirschi (1969) found an inability to do well in school is linked with delinquency, through a series of chain events. The latter argued that academic incompetence leads to poor school performance, which leads to a dislike of school, which leads to rejection of teachers and authority, which results in acts of delinquency. Asserting that one's attachment to school depends on how one appreciates the institution and how he/she is received by fellow peers and teachers. Hirschi also noted that one's attachment to parents and school, overshadows the bond formed with one's peers. Hawkins et.al. (1992) are supportive of the hypothesis that children are at highest risk for adolescent drug abuse because of poor family management, early and continuous behaviour problems, low bonding to family, academic failure, and low commitment to school. They may even be unmotivated to refuse or avoid alcohol and illicit drug use by late childhood.

2. Commitment

The investment of time, energy and effort the individual makes in himself, reputation and qualifications. Hirschi's (1969) theory holds that people who build an investment in life, property, and reputation are less likely to engage in criminal acts which will jeopardise their social position. A lack of commitment to such conventional values will cause an individual to partake in delinquent or criminal acts.

3. Involvement:



This concerns activity which stress the conventional interests of society. Hirschi (1969) argues that an individual's involvement in conventional activities doesn't leave time to engage in delinquent or criminal acts. An involvement in family, recreation, dedication to education, religious involvement, less exposure to the media are values and orientations that insulate a juvenile from potential delinquent behaviour that may be a result of idleness. Clarke (1983) holds that adolescent academic success may be enhanced when siblings are academically orientated and the interactions of parents, teachers and adolescents are positive and frequent.

4. Belief:

This deals with assents to society's value system. Hirschi argued that people who live in common social settings, share similar human values. It also concerns the intensity with which the individual believes he should obey.

Moreover, deviant behaviour has been in existence throughout human history and will persist as long as man is dependent upon his peers for survival. Hence it is necessary to understand and recognise not merely the specific deviant act but also the entire concept as well as context. Cohen (1966) argues that a study of deviance cannot simply be the study of drunkenness, narcotic drug use or prostitution. Since each of these under some circumstances and in some societies could actually be socially acceptable. Sutherland (1939) argues that people learn to be criminal in the same way that they learn to be law-abiding. Thus, the history of the development of the concept of the delinquent child as well as the changing image should be traced. Rubington and Weinberg (1989) explain why some people, but not others, commit deviant acts. Providing greater attention to the social interaction or process by which a person becomes deviant than to the social structural conditions that promote deviance. The authors maintained that individuals learn deviant behaviour(s) in primary groups, within four dimensions of contact with deviant and nondeviant patterns namely: frequency, duration, priority and intensity.

2.1.4 Association Theory:

Focuses on the processes by which individuals come to commit criminal acts.

The Gluecks (1970) in a study found that: "The extent to which a boy's father was acceptable as a figure with whom to identify was revealed in a finding that fewer than two out of the ten of the delinquents, as contrasted with more than half of non delinquents, considered their father to be the kind of man that the boy

himself would like to be and had respect for the father's vocational and social standing as well as having some sort of common understanding with him." (p.77)

Few researchers have focused on role models or examined how the presence of a salient role model may influence adolescent outcomes. The purpose of this section of the study is to gauge the impact of the presence or absence of role models and whether it may be associated with problem-behaviour, psychological well-being and academic engagement.

Adolescents identify adults who are worthy of imitation and in some respect they would aspire to assimilate the values and attitudes of these significant adults (Bell, 1970; Pleiss and Feldhusen, 1995; Taylor, 1989). Yet, for many adolescents under study, developing close relationships with adults within the family and school may be difficult as they are so alienated from the values and beliefs of these institutions (Coates, 1987). Thus, explaining why many adolescents do not have role models in their lives and hence report famous persons as their role models. Stuart (2002) suggests that youth without these proximal role models may be more at risk for negative behavioural outcomes than those who have such role models. Bryant and Zimmerman (2003) postulate that extended family members may not provide the proximal support to have a direct effect on the youths' well-being. Ainsworth (1989) found that adolescents may adopt parent surrogates such as older siblings or grandparents, especially when they are unable to form these bonds with one or both parents. Contrarily, a sibling as a role model can also place adolescents at risk for

involvement with problem behaviours (Brooke et. al., 1991), since affiliating with a sibling may expose youth to more mature peer group activities and the availability and encouragement of substance use. Rubington and Weinberg (1989) conclude that on the level of social structure, deviant behaviour should be seen as a normal response to an abnormal social situation.

Some explanations of learnt criminal behaviour:

(Rubington and Weinberg, 1989)

Interaction with significant others.

Occurs within intimate personal groups.

Techniques, motives, drives, rationalisation and attitudes.

Contacts with criminal patterns.

Isolation from anti-criminal patterns.

Differential associations which vary in frequency ; duration ; priority and intensity.

Involves all the general learning mechanisms.

The general needs and values of criminal and non-criminal behaviour.

Illegitimate opportunities, according to Sutherland (1939) includes conditions favourable to the performance as well as to the learning of a criminal role. These conditions, Rubington and Weinberg (1989) suggest depend upon certain features of the social structure of the community in which delinquency arises. Thus, this influential perspective on social problems concentrates attention on

the causes of deviance, on deviant behaviour systems as well as on social control.



CHAPTER 3

3.1 RESEARCH SETTING

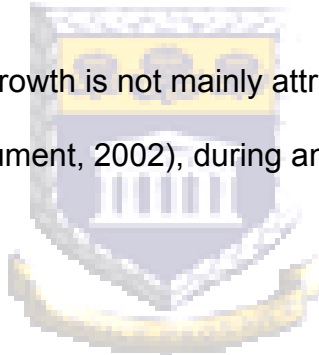
Worcester is a town in the Cape Province of South Africa. It forms an integral part and is the largest in size of the Breede Valley region with constituent areas such as Rawsonville, De Doorns and the Touwsrivier area. Among the town areas, Worcester has the best developed infrastructure and functions as the economic, medical, judicial, sports, shopping and administrative capital of the Breede Valley. Processed fruits and vegetables are produced in the surrounding farm region. The town is renowned for its textile and metal industries ; a technical college ; the Drostdy – which is a national monument ; and home of the Afrikaner Museum. It is surrounded by verdant valleys and most significantly is seated in the biggest wine-producing district in the country. Worcester's large thermoelectric station, powers the electrified railroad that runs through the nearby hex River Mountains. This town was founded in 1820 and was named after the Marquess of Worcester, governor of the Cape of Good Hope Colony.

<http://www.linx.co.za>

According to the Breede Valley Municipality's final Integrated Development Plan (2002), population figures reflect approximately 130 000 people living in the Breede Valley with over 76 000 living in Worcester. Independent figures for De Doorns, Touwsrivier, Rawsonville and surrounding farm areas on the other hand indicate population figures such as 7 000 residents; 7 500 residents; 2 000 residents; 44 000 residents, respectively. Collectively this reflects the fact that 60

percent of residents live in Worcester ; 27 percent of residents live on farms of surrounding areas, whilst the remaining 13 percent of people reside in the constituent other areas. The Breede Valley experiences a combination of oscillating migration due to the seasonal nature of farm labour. However, De Villiers Steele Genote, 1999; cf: IDP Document, 2002 – hold that the broad range of economic resources is certainly a draw-card for many, as evidence show in the increase of squatter communities and population.

For Worcester, population growth is not mainly attributable to migration patterns. (Lunnion 2001; cf: IDP Document, 2002), during an interview on Aids Action asserts that:



" much impetus derives from high fertility levels due to a recent increase in the numbers of teenage pregnancies. This high-risk sexual behaviour among youth is partly driven by economic need and high youth unemployment. But, primarily still has its roots in (i) the youthful structure of the population i.e. one third of Worcester residents are aged 0-19 years, (ii) the lack of recreational activities in smaller areas."

Final IDP Document (2002)

In 2002 the Department of Social Services indicated that approximately 10 percent of Breede Valley residents, were dependent upon pension, child grants or disability grants each month, thereby pointing at residential areas where

fertility increases are most concentrated- and in turn these areas would then be most in need of social service investments.

In terms of racial characteristics, percentages as calculated for the Breede Valley are as follows:

Coloured	-	69%
Africans	-	16%
Whites	-	14%
Asians	-	1%

Mohamed, 2001; cf : IDP, 2002

Overall, there exists marked differences in educational achievement. According to a census (1996) done in the region it was found that residents have either no or only primary level education:

38%	-	Touwsrivier
54%	-	De Doorns
32%	-	Rawsonville
29%	-	Worcester
83%	-	Surrounding farming areas

Department of Social Services, 2001 ; cf: IDP, 2002

The Foundation for Contemporary Research alluded to the notion that the low income rate is partially attributed to the high poverty gap in Worcester as it is known to have the 4th highest poverty gap out of 47 magisterial areas in the Western Cape. Living standards and quality of life for African and Coloured is

generally poor, human development index for especially farm workers is comparatively low, despite the fact that the regional Breede Valley economy is based largely on agricultural development. (IDP Document, 2002).

According to Mohamed (2001), 17 percent of Worcester residents earned less than R6 000,00 per year. So, although De Villiers Steele Genote speak about the broad range of economic resources and growth potential of the economy – restricted opportunities for employment in manufacturing and trade exist (IDP Document, 2002).

For many, in the Worcester area, crime is a problem. A vast array goes unreported due to high violence levels and also the very limited ability of an under-funded police force. Inevitably, this has brought to the fore several negative social consequences. Due to declining economic means – prostitution, the phenomenon of street children, child fetal syndrome complications, organised gang structures especially among youth, drug and alcohol misuse have visibly increased (IDP document, 2002).

3.2 SAMPLE SELECTION

Description of the participants selected for the present study:

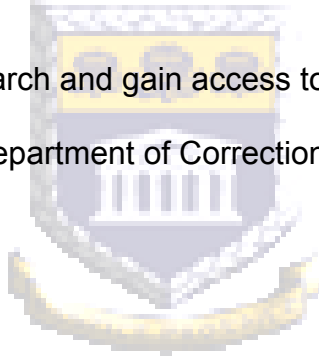
A minimum sample (N=230) comprising of post-sentenced juvenile inmates entering the Correctional Service for over a period of one year were asked to volunteer for the study. Inmates with sentences of one year or less were

excluded from the sample because they would not have the opportunity to participate in correctional education programming.

A further breakdown were responses aligned along race, age and gender:

Race	= Majority 'Coloured'
Age	= 14 – 20 yrs
Gender	= Male Juvenile

Permission to conduct research and gain access to inmates within the prison was approved by the National Department of Correctional Services (see Appendix 1).



SES of participants:

All the inmates came from different urban and rural correctional institutions, although mostly rural, the participants had very similar working-class socio-economic backgrounds.

3.2.1. Brandvlei Correctional Service

Brandvlei Youth Correctional Centre is a rehabilitation / in custody institution for post-sentenced juveniles. Inaugurated in 1996.

It is situated in the Breede Valley region, in between Rawsonville and Worcester.

Accommodates Juvenile and Adult medium and maximum period sentenced prisoners.

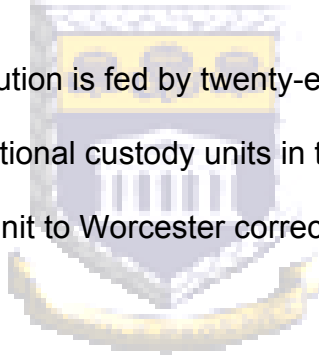
Maximum accommodation – 175 percent

Age categories for juvenile section:

14 – 17 years old, allocated to one section.

18 – 20 years old youths allocated to three sections, respectively.

Brandvlei Correctional Institution is fed by twenty-eight management areas, i.e. Admission centres or correctional custody units in the Western Cape, for example Worcester Police unit to Worcester correctional service.



In the case of Brandvlei Youth Centre reaching maximum capacity, juveniles are transferred to the Drakenstein or Hawequa youth centres.

Race : majority 'coloureds'

Class : low-income group

While national government can provide frameworks for encouraging and supporting crime prevention, implementation must take place at local level. An interviewee member of staff asserted that Brandvlei Correctional Institute holds a substantial percentage of youths that are convicted for committing increasingly more serious offences, often related to drug and alcohol abuse. The latter is a general trend recorded at the time of custody. Noteworthy is the fact that

researchers under no circumstances have access to these personal files.

Facilitating their reintegration into society is crucial for a substantial reduction in crime to occur. If conducted in a proper manner, offender reintegration is not 'soft on crime' as public opinion often has it. It is a challenging process that holds the offender accountable for his action in a constructive and restorative way. The Brandvlei institute, through an efficiently run Social Work Department, offers diversion programmes that make them accountable for their actions and prevent them from re-offending.

The Institute runs Youth Empowerment Schemes, such as life-skills programmes which includes drug counseling as well as advice on self-esteem, safe sexual practices and HIV/Aids according to a stipulated selector criteria. Alcoholic Anonymous programmes are also being run by an outside organisation.

It is essential that the facilitators be open and direct about the criminal act that precipitated the youth's attendance at the programme, though taking heed to avoid any form of labeling. Sensitivity on the part of the facilitators is important in terms of bearing in mind that the youth emanate from diverse cultural, social and educational backgrounds and this may directly impact on the youth's perception of the programme activities.

Instructions are clearly articulated in a step-by-step manner. Constructive criticism, during individual sessions, and the acknowledgement of feelings and views are considered of utmost importance in building self-esteem.

The underlying rationale assumes that through the positive modification of appropriate social skills, the juvenile offender is better equipped to behave in a socially competent manner within acceptable societal norms.

3.3 PROCEDURES

Permission to conduct this research was obtained from the National Department of Correctional Services.

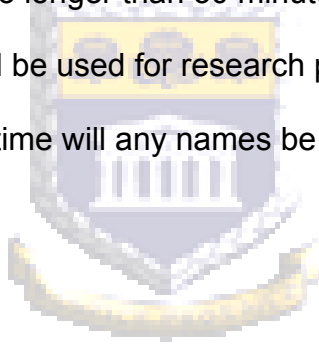
The researcher visited the site at least once per month and complied with the regulations regarding the visits to Correctional Services. A list of all the eligible juveniles were drawn up by the correctional services staff prior to the visit. The researcher ensured that the appropriate forms, such as the consent form for juveniles under the age of 18 years and the assent form were signed after fully understanding the study. Willingness or unwillingness to participate was noted in writing. There was no coercion nor would unwillingness to participate, jeopardise his position in the facility.

Before the beginning of each interviewing session, the researcher met with the Section Head, who formally introduced the investigator to the inmates.

The following is an oral solicitation to the inmates:

"My name is Brenda Matthews and I am a student at the University of the Western Cape. I am here to ask for your help in a very important project for which I am especially interested in how families relate to children and how the quality of this relationship contributes to substance abuse and consequently criminal behaviour.

This interview should take no longer than 30 minutes. Please understand that the information collected will be used for research purposes only, and will not be disclosed otherwise. At no time will any names be associated with any reports that may be published.



Thank you for your co-operation, thus far. Do you have any questions? (answer any question at this point.) Let's begin."

Each interview session was conducted individually by the researcher with the felt presence of wardens outside of the interview room. The sessions occurred in regular well-lit and ventilated rooms. Whilst seating arrangements were designed for the comfort of the inmates, it proved to be rather accommodating of the safety of the researcher.

Data collection took place over a period of 10 months, preceded by intensive training and a pilot study of 1 month.

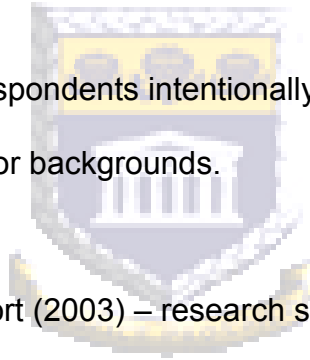
3.4 INSTRUMENTATION:

3.4.1 Validity of self-report in general:

The validity of self-reports have been examined extensively by The National Survey of Student Engagement report (2003).

Factors contributing to this may be:

- the inability of respondents to provide accurate information in response to a question ;
- the possibility that respondents intentionally report inaccurate information about their activities or backgrounds.



According to the NSSE report (2003) – research shows that people generally tend to respond accurately when questions are about their past behaviour with the exception of items that explore sensitive areas or put them in an awkward, potentially embarrassing position.

"There are, however, five general conditions under which self-reports are likely to be valid. They are:

- i) when the information requested is known to the respondents ;
- ii) the questions are phrased clearly and unambiguously ;
- iii) the questions refer to recent activities ;
- iv) the respondents think the questions merit a serious and thoughtful response ; and

- v) answering the questions does not threaten, embarrass, or violate the privacy of the respondent or encourage the respondent to respond in socially desirable ways."

NSSE report, 2003

3.4.2 Validity of self-reported alcohol use:

Research on validity should emphasise the developing of a range of strategies for extracting accurate responses from a specific population. A strong ideology exists among alcohol specialists that heavy drinkers deny the extent of their drinking. So, the measure that reports the highest drinking rate or the most alcohol-related problems, is normally assumed to be the more accurate report. Noteworthy, is Midanik's (1982a) notion of the possibility that the subject may be "over-reporting" the extent of his drinking, is often not considered a viable option. Although, for the purpose of this study one cannot but take heed of the male juvenile 'macho' – character these 'more is better' self reports may hold. On the other hand a general neutralising factor such as "under-reporting" in prison is briefly touched on in the following section.

3.4.3 Validity of self-report while in prison:

Contextual issues and concerns excel beyond simple base rate issues and validated populations. In the case of substance abuse one must consider that the environment including all of its situational, interpersonal, and influential factors, is quite different between prison and the community. Furthermore, the individual's behavioural patterns might be assessed quite differently than they

would be in a free environment, alongside the fact that alcohol and drugs are not nearly as obtainable as it is in the community and subsequently would lead to a significantly lower degree of abuse.

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While recognising that drug and alcohol trafficking in prison is minimised, a measure is required that is not naïve to the home made substances that exists in the prison environment. Due to the illicit nature of drug use, respondents may also under-report their use of drugs for fear of detection and reprisal, i.e. longer prison sentence or punishment (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2003).

Early self-report scales tended to ignore serious criminal and delinquent events and concentrated almost exclusively on minor forms of delinquency. It is essential that a general self-reported delinquency scale tap serious as well as less serious behaviour domains of delinquency (Thornberry and Krohn, 2000).

For the relevance of this study a questionnaire was used to collect data regarding the delinquent's environmental psychological and sociological aspects that possibly contributed to substance use and abuse prior to incarceration.

3.4.4 Reliability of the Instrument:

Interview questions were drawn from the Screening and Assessment for Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Amongst Individuals in the Criminal Justice System (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1994). All the instruments have been used in the public domain and have established reliability from .89 to .95. Since this instrument was developed for use with the U.S. population it was adapted to the South African context by representatives from Xhosa and “Coloured” communities. Following the adaptation, the revised questionnaire was pre-tested with the sample of subjects from each of the groups.

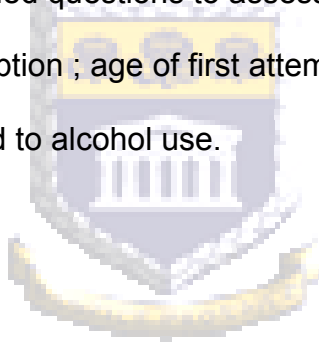
Questions (marked with a •) covered the following areas (Appendix 2):

- a) Demographic data, included questions on topics such as age, race, family criminal history, incarcerated close peers, religion, place of residence.
- b) Prison History, included questions to determine the inmate's degree of recidivism.
- c) Education Background, included questions to determine the inmate's level of education as well as his attitude toward education.
- d) Employment History, included questions to determine the inmate's financial stability.
- e) Dependents, included questions regarding number of children.

- f) Family Background, included questions on head of the household; this person's lifestyle; role models and running away instances.

- g) Psychological status included questions to assess mental health and social functioning.

- h) Substance use included questions to assess the variety of drug, alcohol and inhalant consumption ; age of first attempt ; accessibility as well as social aspects related to alcohol use.

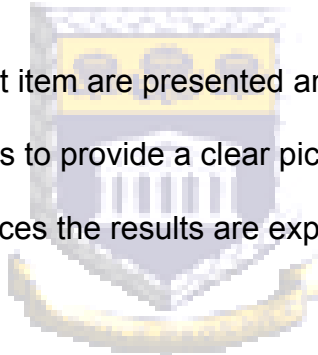


CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

The results of this study are presented in this chapter using descriptive statistics from the variables. The results aim to answer the impact of risk factors (environmental conditions) and its contributing to substance abuse. The study also aims to determine how these risk factors and the prevalence of substance abuse contributes to criminality.

The results for each relevant item are presented and expressed in terms of percentages and frequencies to provide a clear picture of numbers and proportions. In some instances the results are expressed in the form of charts.



Statistics		
QUEST2		
N	Valid	216
	Invalid	14

Table 1 : Sample Demographics (Age Distribution) by frequency and percentage

Variable	F	%	Cum %
14	3	1.4	1.4
15	11	5.1	6.5
16	29	13.4	19.9
17	51	23.6	43.5
18	65	30.1	73.6
19	43	19.9	93.5
20	14	6.5	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

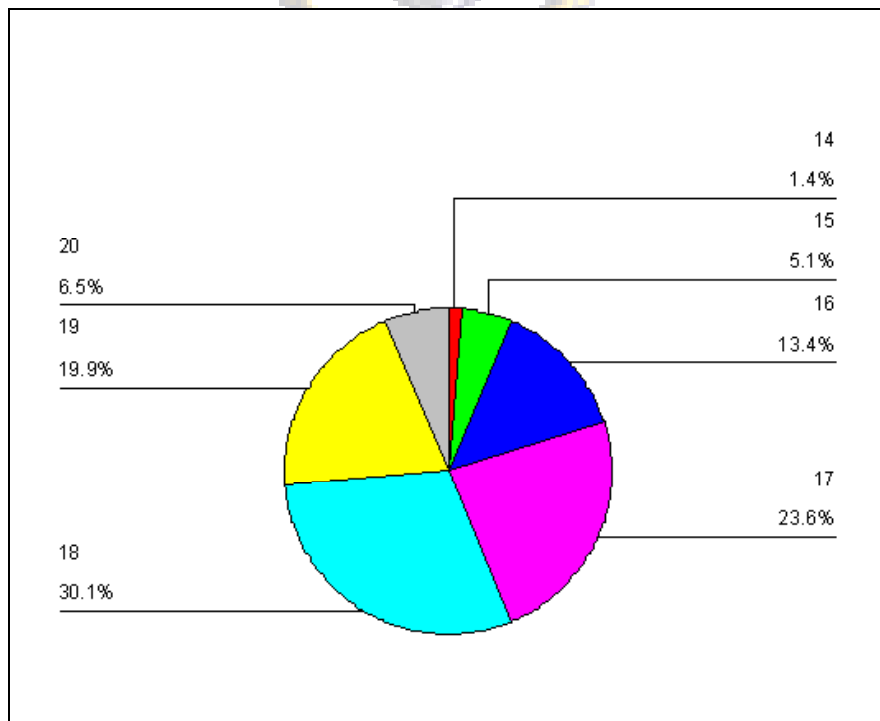


Figure 5

The sample comprised of 216 male juveniles. The youngest were 3 (1.4%) 14 year olds. About three quarters of the sample which ranged between 14 and 20 years, were in the 17 – 19 year old category (n=159).

Question 4

Table 2: Race distribution by frequency and percentage

Race	f	%	Cum %
African	41	19.0	19.0
Coloured	170	78.7	97.7
Indian	1	.5	98.1
White	1	.5	98.6
Other	3	1.4	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

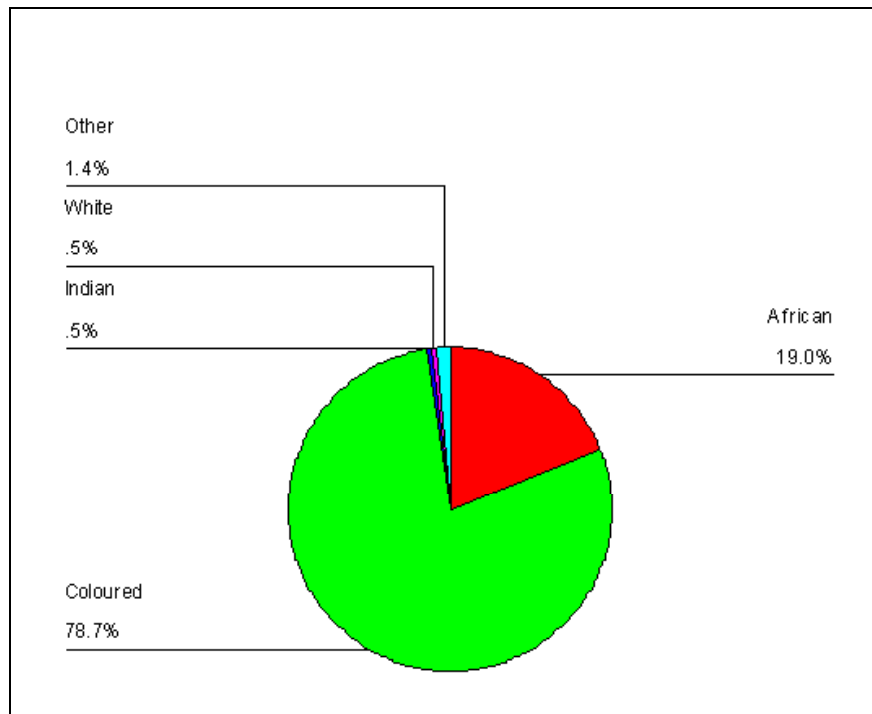


Figure 6

Respondents differentiated on the basis of race. The majority of the subjects were "coloured" male inmates, although "black" inmates were represented by 19% of the sample. Other race groups were poorly represented.

Question 9

Table 3: Residential distribution by frequency and percentage

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Partner	1	0.5	0.5
Parents	153	70.8	71.3
Family	57	26.4	97.7
Friends	2	0.9	98.6
Alone	3	1.4	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

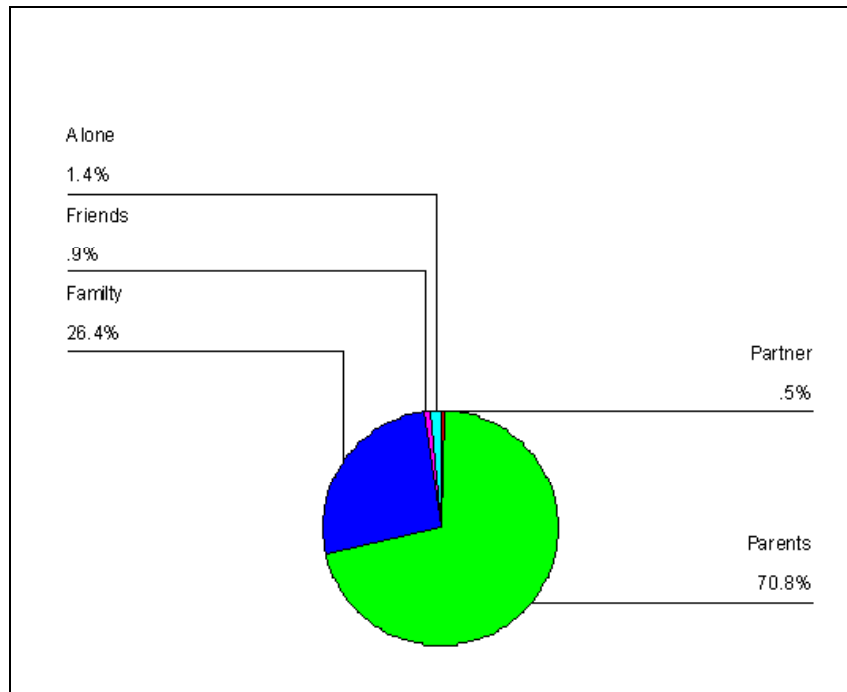


Figure 7

Respondents differentiated on the basis of residence before coming to prison.

About 70% (n=153) of respondents lived with their parents, either mother or both.



Question 10

Table 4: Prison History of Co-habitants

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	84	38.9	38.9
No	132	61.1	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

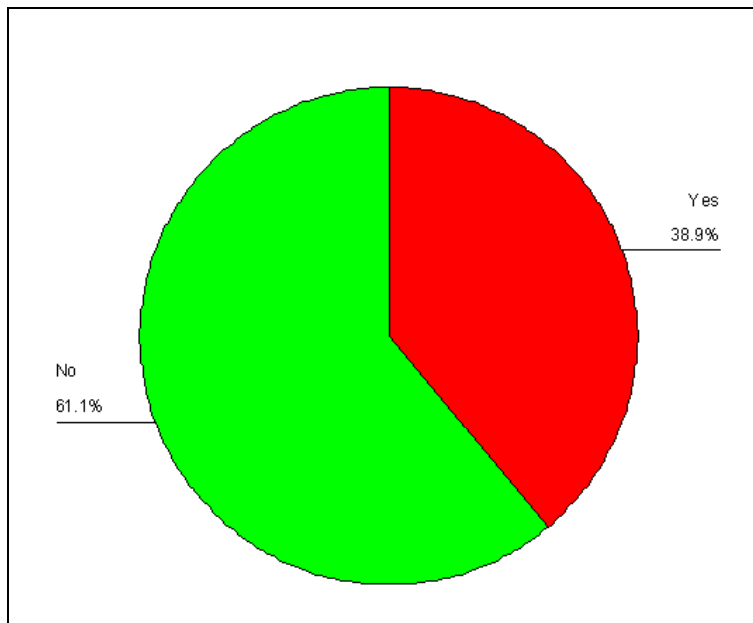


Figure 8

Respondents differentiated on the basis of prison history with regard to their co-habitants. Eighty-four (39%) of subjects reported living with individuals who have a prison record.

Question 11

Table 5: Co-habitants drug or alcohol treatment

Variable	F	%	Cum %
Yes	31	14.4	14.4
No	184	85.2	100.0
Total	215	99.5	
Missing System	1	.5	
Total	216	100.0	

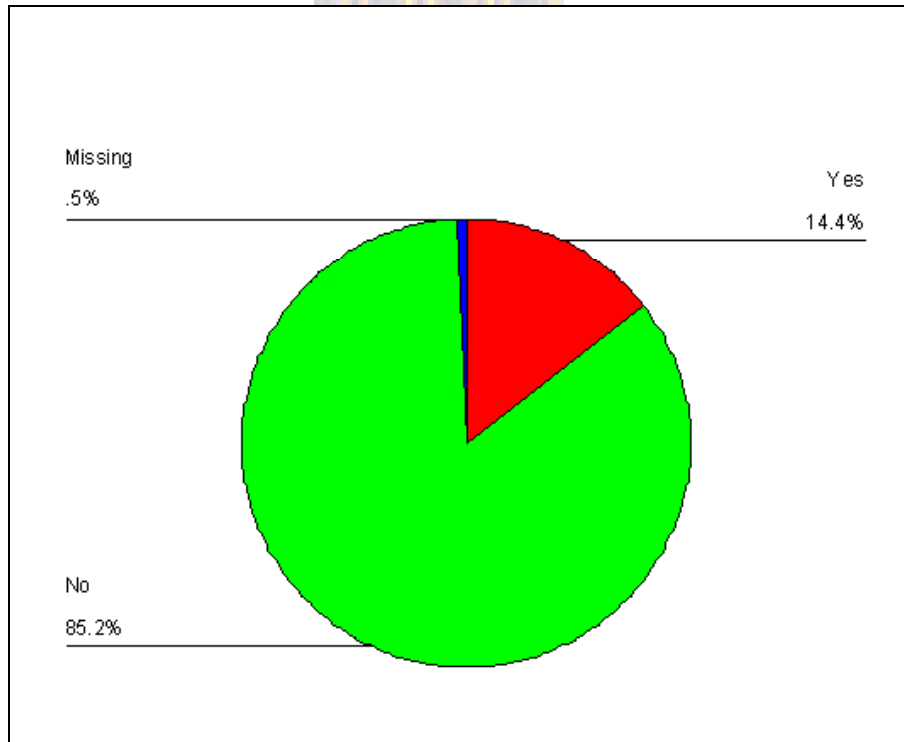


Figure 9

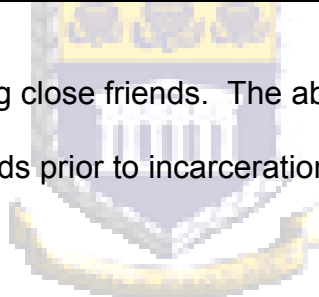
Respondents differentiated on the frequency of cohabitants' drug or alcohol treatment. Thirty one respondents reported living with individuals who have undergone alcoholic/drug treatment in the past.

Question 12
DESCRIPTIVES

Table 6: Means and St. Deviations of close friends
and incarcerated close friends

Variable	N	Mean	Variance
Close Friends	212	5.06	35.618
I. CL Friends	199	1.99	4.34

Subjects' response to having close friends. The above table depicts that 40 respondents had close friends prior to incarceration.



Question 13

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
QUEST13	199	30	0	30	1.99	4.348	18.909
Valid N (listwise)	199						

Subjects' response to incarcerated close friends. Thirty of the sample reported that they had close friends whom already had been incarcerated.

Question 14

Table 8: Frequency and Percentage of Religiosity

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	158	73.1	73.1
No	58	26.9	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

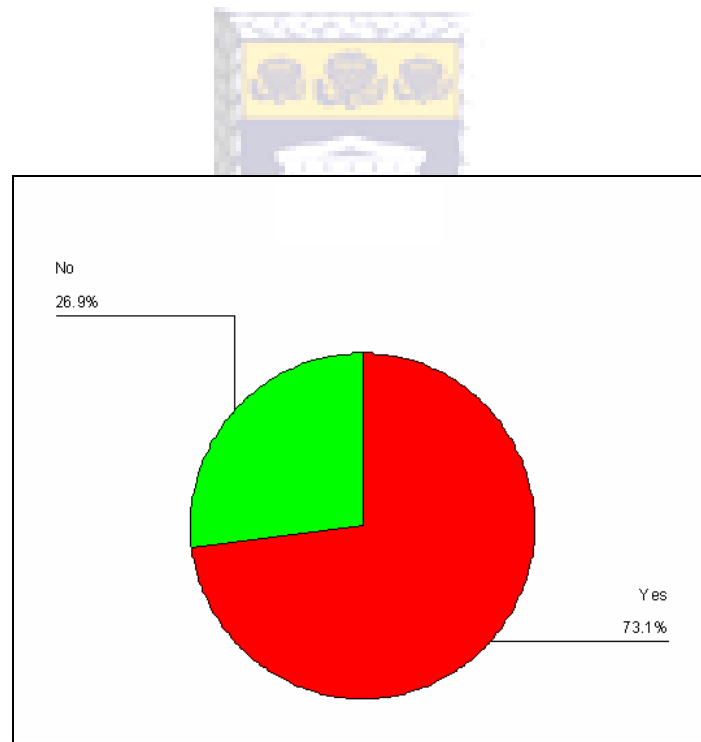


Figure 10

Religious commitment of respondents. Although 73,1% of the sample claim to be religious (n=158) it is not known whether this would be a reflection of practicing faith.

Question 18

Table 9: Prison history of inmates

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	101	46.8	46.8
No	115	53.2	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

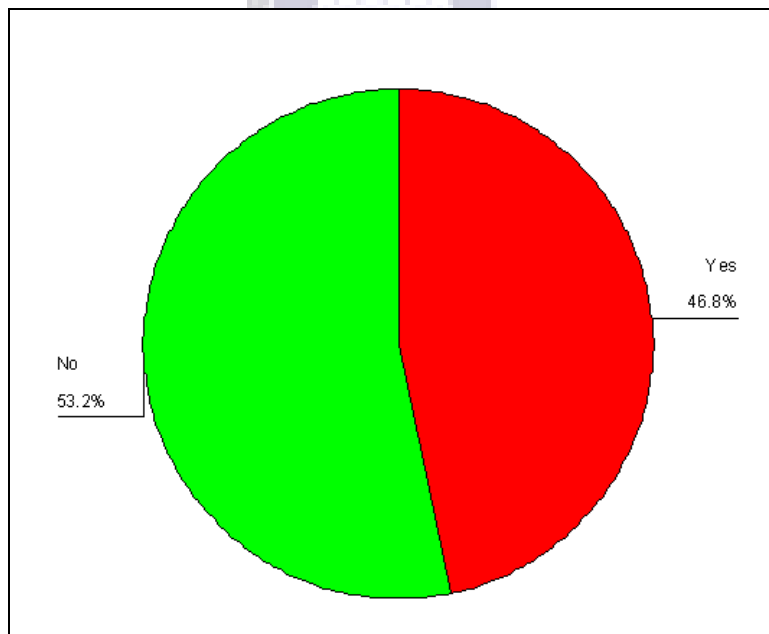


Figure 11

Frequency of respondents' prison history. Forty six percent (n=101) reported having been imprisoned before.

Question 19

Table 10: Frequency of imprisonment

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Once	53	52.5	53.0
Twice	26	25.7	79.0
Three times	9	8.9	88.0
More than three times	12	11.9	100.0
Total	100	99.0	
Total	101	100.0	

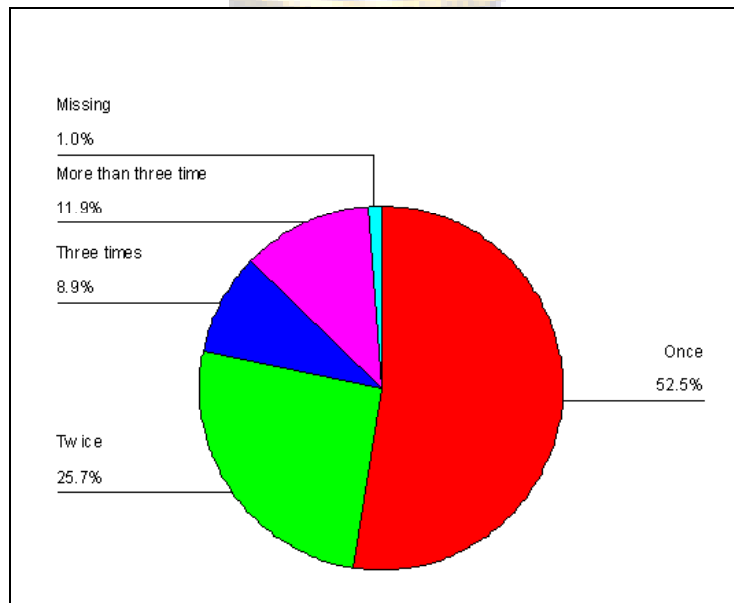


Figure 12

Respondents differentiated on the basis of frequency of imprisonment. The percentages above reflect that one quarter of the respondents who answered yes to question 18 had been incarcerated at least twice before (n=26).

Question 22

Table 11: Level of Education

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Grade 1 - Grade 4	4	1.9	1.9
Grade 5 - Grade 6	20	9.3	11.1
Grade 9	134	62.0	73.1
Grade 10	32	14.8	88.0
Grade 11	22	10.2	98.1
Grade 12	3	1.4	99.5
Tertiary Completed	1	.5	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

Respondents differentiated on the basis of level of education. Although the educational level varied from grade 1 through to tertiary training, it was found that about 86% of subjects were between the grade 9 and 11 levels of education (n=188).

Question 23

Table 12: Level of Progress

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Excellent	10	4.6	4.7
Good	86	39.8	45.3
Average	71	32.9	78.8
Not Good	45	20.8	100.0
Total	212	98.1	
Missing	4	1.9	
Total	216	100.0	

Respondents' school progress orientation. The above matrix shows that, in the subjects' own opinion, ninety-six of them were obtaining "good" to "excellent" results while one hundred and sixteen (53%) felt that they were fairing "average" and "not good" respectively.

Question 24

Table 13: Employment Orientation

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes, full time	78	36.1	36.4
Yes, part time	78	36.1	72.9
Never, employed	58	26.9	100.0
Total	214	99.1	
Missing System	2	.9	
Total	216	100.0	

Respondents differed on employment status. About twenty seven percent reported never being employed while thirty six percent were employed either on a full time or part time basis, respectively.

Question 25

Table 14: Occupations held

Variable	f	%	Cum %
	61	28.2	28.2
Apple farm	1	.5	28.7
Bakery	2	.9	29.6
Brick layer	4	1.9	31.5
Building work	4	1.9	33.3
Bushwork	1	.5	33.8

Butchery	2	.9	34.7
Carpenter	2	.9	35.6
Chicken factory	1	.5	36.1
Cleaner	3	1.4	37.5
Contract	1	.5	38.0
Delivery man	1	.5	38.4
Dispatch of Pep clothing	1	.5	38.9
Electrician	1	.5	39.4
Factory worker	5	2.3	41.7
Farm work	48	22.2	63.9
Fiber Glass	1	.5	64.4
Fisherman	2	.9	65.3
Forestry department	1	.5	65.7
Fruit farm	5	2.3	68.1
Fruit seller	1	.5	68.5
Fynbos	1	.5	69.0
Garden service	1	.5	69.4
Garden work	7	3.2	72.7
General work	4	1.9	74.5
Handyman	6	2.8	77.3
Labourer	4	1.9	79.2
Merchandising	1	.5	79.6
Market	1	.5	80.1

Mechanic	2	.9	81.0
Metal work	1	.5	81.5
Mixing Cement	1	.5	81.9
Municipal	1	.5	82.4
Ostrich Farm	1	.5	82.9
Packer	2	.9	83.8
Painter	1	.5	84.3
Panelbeater	2	.9	85.2
Paving	1	.5	85.6
Petrol Attendent	1	.5	86.1
Plastering	1	.5	86.6
Plettenberg Timbers	1	.5	87.0
Plumbing	2	.9	88.0
Rocks that had to be exported	1	.5	88.4
Seasonal work and bricklayer	1	.5	88.9
Security man	1	.5	89.4
Self employed	1	.5	89.8
Selling fruit	1	.5	90.3
Selling fruit and vegetables	1	.5	90.7
Shepard	1	.5	91.2
Shop assistant	4	1.9	93.1
Shop cleaner	1	.5	93.5
Spray Painting	1	.5	94.0

Store Assistant	1	.5	94.4
Supervisor-Farm produce	1	.5	94.9
Taxi Conductor	1	.5	95.4
Taxi guard	1	.5	95.8
Tiler	2	.9	96.8
Tiling	1	.5	97.2
Truck/Store packer	1	.5	97.7
Upholstery	1	.5	98.1
UWC Kitchen and paving	1	.5	98.6
Waterfairs	1	.5	99.1
Welder	1	.5	99.5
Worked with iron	1	.5	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

The above table reflects employment orientation regarding types of jobs reported by subjects.

Question 26

Table 15: Number of dependants

Variable	f	%	Cum %
None	181	83.8	84.6
One	30	13.9	98.6
Two	3	1.4	100.0
Total	214	99.1	
Missing System	2	.9	
Total	216	100.0	

The respondents differentiated on number of children as displayed above. Eighty three percent have none while about fourteen percent (n=30) and one percent (n=3) reported having one and two children, respectively.

Question 31

Table 16: Head of household

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Aunt	4	1.9	1.9
Father	105	48.6	50.5
Grandfather	18	8.3	58.8
Grandmother	27	12.5	71.3
Grandparents	2	.9	72.2
Mother	47	21.8	94.0
Parents	5	2.3	96.3
Sister	1	.5	96.8
Step Grandfather	1	.5	97.2
Stepfather	4	1.9	99.1
Uncle	2	.9	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

The above findings suggest that about half (n=105) of the respondents perceived their fathers to be the head of the household. Forty-seven (21,8%) grew up with the mother heading the household. Forty-seven reported either/both of the grandparents being in charge. Five (2.3%) respondents mentioned both parents. One and four of the respondents reported the step grandfather and the

stepfather, respectively. Seven of the respondents viewed significant other family members to be the head of the household example aunt, uncle or sister.



Question 32

Table 17: Head of the household's life style

	Home maker not employed		Worked full-time		Had regular part-time job		Worked certain times of year or once in a while		Went to school	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Yes	10	4.6%	179	82.9%	10	4.6%	6	2.8%	127	58.8%
No	206	95.4%	37	17.1%	206	95.4%	210	97.2%	89	41.2%
Total	216	100.0%	216	100.0%	216	100.0%	216	100.0%	216	100.0%

	Not work for pay not in school full-time		Was in military		Was in prison		Getting grant or pension	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Yes			1	.5%	45	20.8%	44	20.4%
No	216	100.0%	215	99.5%	171	79.2%	172	79.6%
Total	216	100.0%	216	100.0%	216	100.0%	216	100.0%

The above table displays the life style of the head of respondents' households. A significant number n-127 (58.8%) were literate. 82.9% worked full-time. One fifth (20.8%) of the head of households of entire sample (N=216) had been in prison.

Question 34

Table18: Where respondents' fathers were.

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Another wife	3	2.9	2.9
Another woman	3	2.9	5.7
At home	1	1.0	6.7
Atlantis	1	1.0	7.6
Cape Town	2	1.9	9.5
Divorced	8	7.6	17.1
Died	29	27.6	44.8
Don't know	12	11.4	56.2
Durban	1	1.0	57.1
His family	1	1.0	58.1
His sister	1	1.0	59.0
Johannesburg	1	1.0	60.0
Lived close to us	1	1.0	61.0
Military	1	1.0	61.9
Parent's house	2	1.9	63.8
Separated	3	2.9	66.7
Stayed somewhere else	20	19.0	85.7
Stayed with us	12	11.4	97.1
Work	3	2.9	100.0
Total	105	100.0	

Respondents differed on location of their fathers if they were not the head of the household. It was reported by 27.6% (n=29) that their fathers had died. Others lived elsewhere, either with another wife, woman, divorced, separated as the above table. Some respondents reported not knowing where their fathers were, n=12.



Question 35

Table 19: Whose house considered home

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Aunt	3	1.4	1.4
Borded	1	.5	1.9
Borders	1	.5	2.3
Brother	1	.5	2.8
Every bodies house	1	.5	3.2
Farmer	2	.9	4.2
Father	52	24.1	28.2
Foster Parents	1	.5	28.7
Grandfather	23	10.6	39.4
Grandmother	23	10.6	50.0
Grandparents	6	2.8	52.8
Mother	44	20.4	73.1
Parents	51	23.6	96.8
Sister	1	.5	97.2
Stepfather	3	1.4	98.6
Uncle	3	1.4	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

Of the sample (n=216) one quarter (24.1%) of the respondents perceived their fathers' house to be home to them. Forty four perceived the mothers' house to be home while fifty one (23.6%) reported both parents' house to be home. To

24% (n=52) of respondents the grandparents', either or both, house proved to be home to them.

Question 36

Table 20: Role Model

Variable	f	%	Cum %
	49	22.7	22.7
A soccer player	1	.5	23.1
Actor	3	1.4	24.5
Architect	1	.5	25.0
* Aunt	5	2.3	27.3
* Border	1	.5	27.8
* Brother	4	1.9	29.6
* Church brother	1	.5	30.1
* Cousin	3	1.4	31.5
Cricket player	5	2.3	33.8
Docter	1	.5	34.3
Elder sister	1	.5	34.7
Father	16	7.4	42.1
Film Star	1	.5	42.6
Friend	1	.5	43.1
Godmother	1	.5	43.5
Grandfather	2	.9	44.4

Grandmother	10	4.6	49.1
Grandparents	2	.9	50.0
Leader of a Gang	1	.5	50.5
Mother	32	14.8	65.3
Musician	1	.5	65.7
Neighbour	1	.5	66.2
Niece	1	.5	66.7
Parents	4	1.9	68.5
Pastor	1	.5	69.0
Pop star	3	1.4	70.4
Rap star	15	6.9	77.3
Rugby coach	1	.5	77.8
Rugby player	16	7.4	85.2
School Teacher	1	.5	85.6
Singer	10	4.6	90.3
Sister	5	2.3	92.6
Soccer Player	7	3.2	96.3
Swimmer	1	.5	96.8
Terrorist	1	.5	97.2
TV Star (Soccer)	1	.5	97.7
Uncle	5	2.3	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

Ninety seven (45%) of the sample reported that they perceived individuals that live in close proximity or deal with on a regular basis as their role models. Example mother, father, aunt, grandparents as marked with the asterisks. More than half of the sample reported having pop stars, sport stars, actors as their role models.

Question 37

Table 21: running away from home

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	56	25.9	25.9
No	160	74.1	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

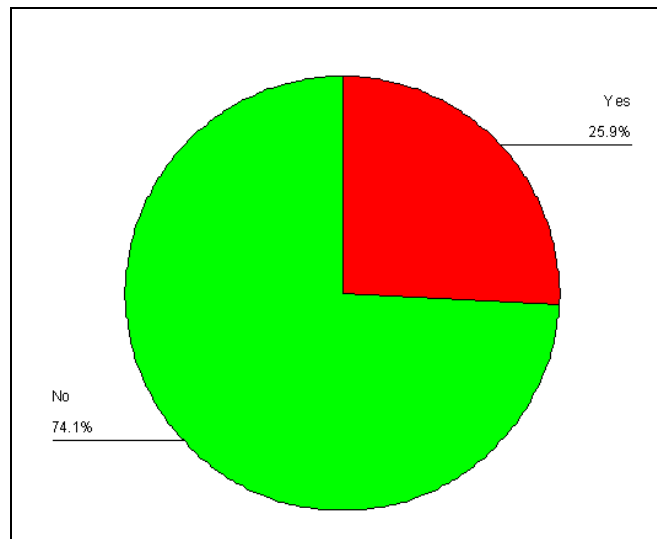


Figure 13

About a quarter of the sample indicated that they had run away from home before. One hundred and sixty (74.1%) reported negatively to this question.



Question 38

Table 22: Reason for running away from home

Variable	Yes		No		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
To be with friends	20	9.3%	196	90.7%	216	100.0%
To work	2	.9%	214	99.1%	216	100.0%
* Was unhappy	16	7.4%	200	92.6%	216	100.0%
In trouble at school	5	2.3%	211	97.7%	216	100.0%
Afraid I was pregnant			216	100.0%	216	100.0%
In trouble with law	8	3.7%	208	96.3%	216	100.0%
* Divorce/seperation of parents	2	.9%	214	99.1%	216	100.0%
* Violence between adults in family	7	3.2%	209	96.8%	216	100.0%
* Abused physically	9	4.2%	207	95.8%	216	100.0%
Abused sexually			216	100.0%	216	100.0%
* Abused verbally	14	6.5%	202	93.5%	216	100.0%
* Kicked out	3	1.4%	213	98.6%	216	100.0%
* Problems with my parents	9	4.2%	207	95.8%	216	100.0%
Removed by an agency			216	100.0%	216	100.0%
* Alcohol parent or parents	8	3.7%	208	96.3%	216	100.0%
Other						

The table above depicts frequencies predominant to home environment disorganisation (marked with asterisk) n=78. The rest of the sample suggests external influences having a negative impact upon the respondent.

Question 39

Table 23: Acting out of control

Variable	F	%	Cum %
Yes	76	35.2	35.3
No	139	64.4	100.0
Total	215	99.5	
Missing System	1	.5	
Total	216	100.0	

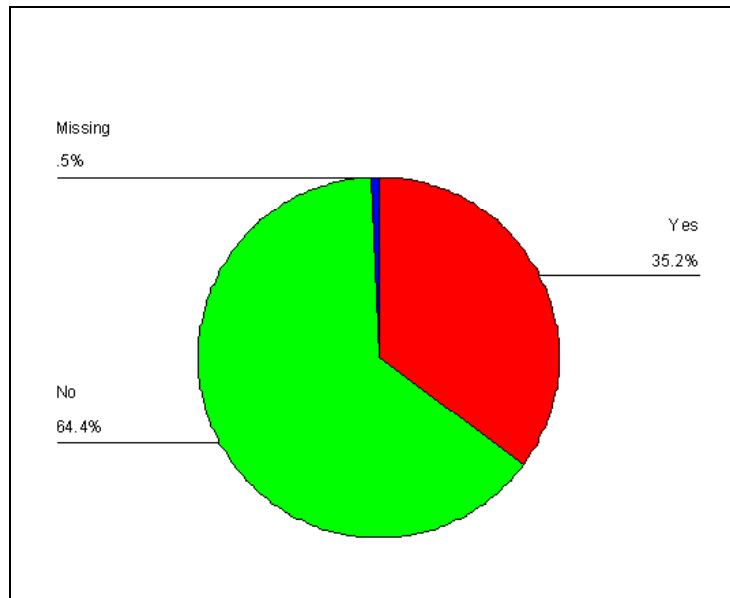


Figure 14:

Thirty five percent (n=76) of the sample reported that they had acted out of control without being under the influence of alcohol or drugs.



Question 41

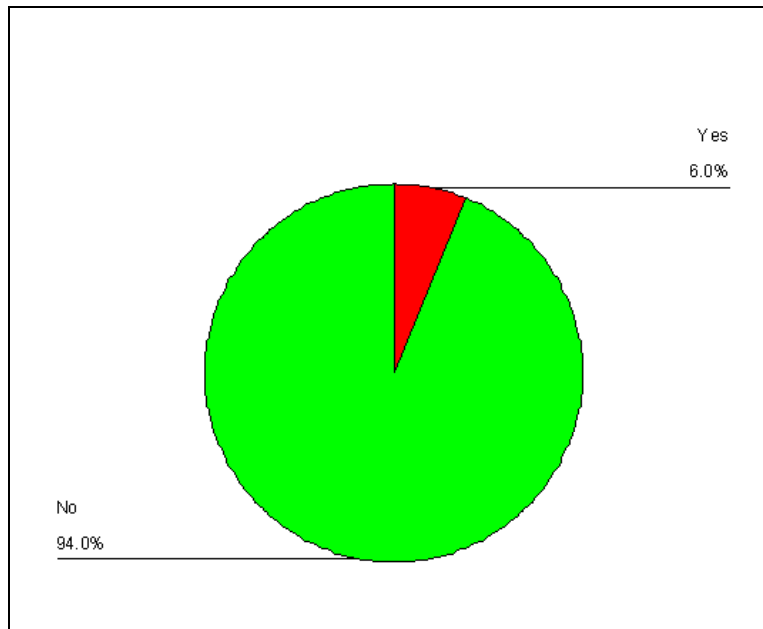


Figure :15

Fourteen percent (n=32) of respondents reported attempting to commit suicide before.

Question 42

Table 24: Reason for suicidal ideation

Variable	f	%	Cum %
	1	3.1	3.1
* About Jail Sentence	1	3.1	6.3
* After committing this crime	1	3.1	9.4
* Because of being in prison	1	3.1	12.5
Because of drugs	1	3.1	15.6
* Because of the murder case	1	3.1	18.8
+ Because of violent parents when he was a child	1	3.1	21.9
* Blamed for something I did not do	1	3.1	25.0
* Cause of being in prison	1	3.1	28.1
+ Did not get much attention	1	3.1	31.3
+ Family problems	1	3.1	34.4
+ Feel unhappy	1	3.1	37.5
+ I felt unhappy in the Reformatory school	1	3.1	40.6
* In the police station every thing were to much for	1	3.1	43.8
* It was not nice in prison	1	3.1	46.9
No food at home	1	3.1	50.0
+ Over a Girlfriend	1	3.1	53.1
+ Parents make me angry	1	3.1	56.3
* Pearpressure in Pollsmore	1	3.1	59.4
+ People didn't like me. Was alone	1	3.1	62.5

* Police was looking for me.	1	3.1	65.6
+ Problems with father	1	3.1	68.8
+ Rejection	1	3.1	71.9
+ School teacher didn't like him	1	3.1	75.0
+ Stress	1	3.1	78.1
+ Tension	1	3.1	81.3
* There was no one around me in the cells with me.	1	3.1	84.4
* Was accused for a murder case	1	3.1	87.5
+ Was stressed, problems at home	1	3.1	90.6
+ Was verbally abused by aunt when I was still a kid	1	3.1	93.8
* Were not allowed to make any phone calls	1	3.1	96.9
+ When I'm getting mad then I take it out on myself.	1	3.1	100.0
Total	32	100.0	

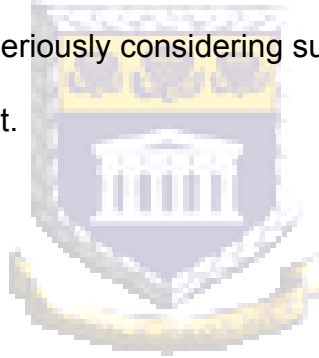
Out of the thirty two respondents who reported "Yes" to q.39, at least / about 13 (marked with asterisks) claimed that they had attempted suicide for reasons relevant to the case. Other reasons (marked with +) ranging from Poor and Inconsistent family Practices to the Impact of Social Isolation on the Child were represented, and mainly reflected in categories of emotional deprivation (n=10).

Question 43

Table 25: Considered committing suicide

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	42	22.8	22.8
No	142	77.2	100.0
Total	184	100.0	

Out of one hundred and eighty four respondents reporting "no" to question 41, forty-two (22.8%) reported seriously considering suicide while 77 %(n=142) reported never considering it.



Question 44

Table 26: Treatment for nervous/mental problems

Variable	F	%	Cum %
Yes	32	14.8	14.8
No	184	85.2	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

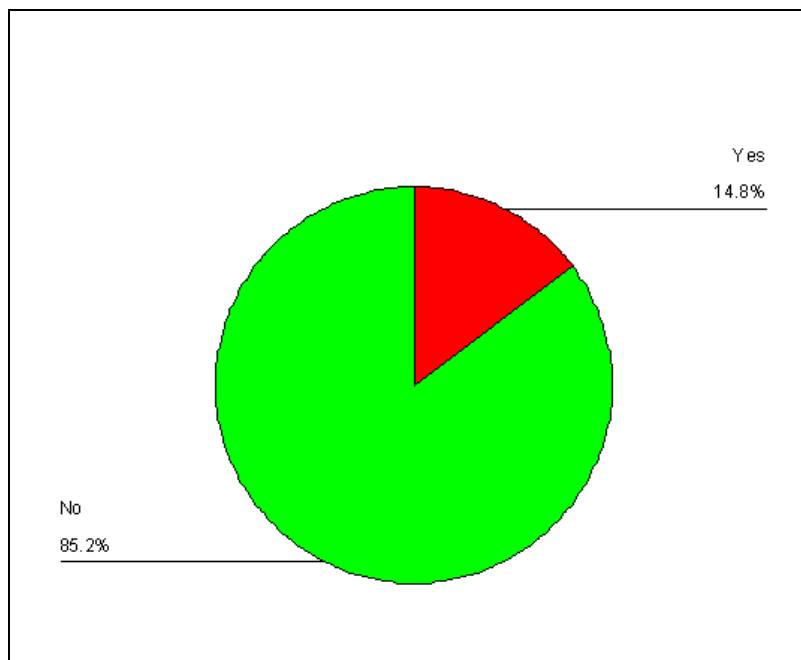


Figure 16

Thirteen respondents (6%) of the entire sample claimed to have had treatment for nervous or mental problems.

Question 45

Table 27: Reasons for treatment

Variable	f	%	Cum %
	2	15.4	15.4
Aggression	1	7.7	23.1
Because of the false accusations	1	7.7	30.8
Didn't want to go to church	1	7.7	38.5
Epileptic	1	7.7	46.2
Epileptic Attacks	1	7.7	53.8
I had a stroke on my right hand side which affected my mental status	1	7.7	61.5
I have raped and murdered two girls and I had sleepless nights.	1	7.7	69.2
My family just said that I'm out of control and that I should be taken to a doctor	1	7.7	76.9
Suicide problems	1	7.7	84.6
Was stressed because of rape case	1	7.7	92.3
Was traumatized because of murdered mother.	1	7.7	100.0
Total	13	100.0	

Of the 13 respondents who reported positively for receiving treatment for mental or nervous problems, 3 (23.1%) identified reasons related to a criminal offence.

Another 23.1% (n=3) reported medical reasons. The rest of the sample gave reasons either related to psychological or behavioural problems.



Question 105

Table 28: Ever had sex with anyone

Variable	F	%	Cum %
Yes	184	85.2	85.2
No	32	14.8	100.0
Total	216	100.0	

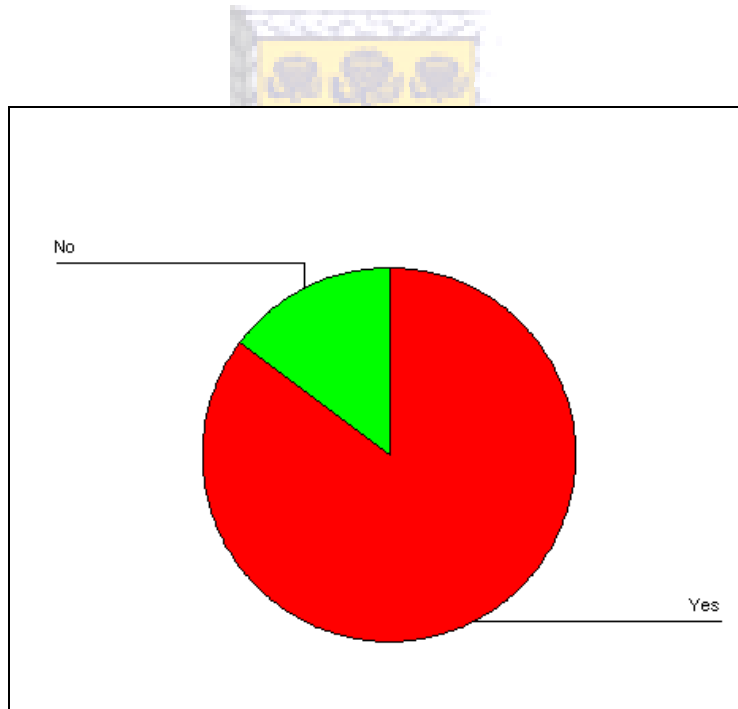


Figure 17

The table displayed above reflects that almost the entire sample, 85.2%(n=184) have had sex with someone before.

Question 166

Table 29: Tobacco, Alcohol and Drug Consumption

Variable	Yes		No		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
TOBACCO	203	94.0%	13	6.0%	216	100.0%
ALCOHOL	181	83.8%	35	16.2%	216	100.0%
DAGGA	161	74.5%	55	25.5%	216	100.0%
MANDRAX	110	50.9%	106	49.1%	216	100.0%
COCAINE	12	5.6%	204	94.4%	216	100.0%
HEROINE	12	5.6%	204	94.4%	216	100.0%
GLUE SNIFFING	44	20.4%	172	79.6%	216	100.0%
PETROL SNIFFING	35	16.2%	181	83.8%	216	100.0%
OTHER	8	3.8%	205	96.2%	213	100.0%

Responses varied on the basis of tobacco, alcohol and drug consumption. The table above depicts usage of predominantly tobacco (94%), alcohol (84%), "dagga" and mandrax 74.5 and 51%, respectively. Frequency of cocaine and heroine users amounted to 12 respondents each. Forty-four and thirty-five respondents also reported glue and petrol sniffing.

Question 166i

Table 30: Other substances used

Variable	f	%	Cum %
	1	12.5	12.5
Ecstasy	4	50	62.5
Ecstasy and rock	1	12.5	75
LSD	1	12.5	87.5
Turpentine	1	12.5	100.0
Total	8	100.0	

Other substances were reported although poorly represented. (n=8)



Question 166a

Table 31: Age of 1st attempt: tobacco

Variable	f	%	Cum %
5	1	.5	.5
6	1	.5	1.0
7	8	3.9	5.0
8	6	3.0	7.9
9	7	3.4	11.4
10	10	4.9	16.3
11	19	9.4	25.7
12	33	16.3	42.1
13	29	14.3	56.4
14	23	11.3	67.8
15	33	16.3	84.2
16	21	10.3	94.6
17	6	3.0	97.5
18	5	2.5	100.0
Total	202	99.5	
Missing System	1	.5	
Total	203	100.0	

The above table reflects that most respondents started smoking either at age 12 (n=22) or age 15.



Question 166bTable 32: Age of 1st attempt: alcohol

Variable	F	%	Cum %
6	2	1.1	1.1
8	3	1.7	2.8
9	3	1.7	4.4
10	3	1.7	6.1
11	13	7.2	13.3
12	10	5.5	18.9
13	21	11.6	30.6
14	30	16.6	47.2
15	44	24.3	71.7
16	30	16.6	88.3
17	14	7.7	96.1
18	5	2.8	98.9
19	2	1.1	100.0
Total	180	99.4	
MissingSystem	1	.6	
Total	181	100.0	

Table reflects age 15 to be when majority of sample started using alcohol.

Question 166c

Table33: Age of 1st attempt: dagga

Variable	f	%t	Cum %
6	1	.6	.6
7	2	1.2	1.9
8	5	3.1	5.0
9	2	1.2	6.3
10	3	1.9	8.1
11	8	5.0	13.1
12	9	5.6	18.8
13	16	9.9	28.8
14	23	14.3	43.1
15	37	23.0	66.3
16	22	13.7	80.0
17	21	13.0	93.1
18	8	5.0	98.1
19	3	1.9	100.0
Total	160	99.4	
Missing System	1	.6	
Total	161	100.0	

The above reflects age 15 to be the age for the majority of respondents' first attempts.

Question 166d

Table 34: Age of 1st attempt: mandrax

Variable	f	%	Cum %
8	1	.9	.9
10	2	1.8	2.7
11	3	2.7	5.5
12	7	6.4	11.8
13	4	3.6	15.5
14	20	18.2	33.6
15	28	25.5	59.1
16	23	20.9	80.0
17	14	12.7	92.7
18	8	7.3	100.0
Total	110	100.0	

The above table reflects age 15 for the majority of the sample (n=28) to start using mandrax.

Question 166e

Table 35: Age of 1st attempt: cocaine

Variable	f	%	Cum %
12	1	8.3	8.3
14	2	16.7	25.0
15	2	16.7	41.7
17	5	41.7	83.3
18	1	8.3	91.7
19	1	8.3	100.0
Total	12	100.0	

The table above reflects that out of 12 subjects who used cocaine, 5 of them were 17 yrs old at first attempt.

Question 166f

Table 36: Age of 1st attempt: heroine

Variable	f	%	Cum %
12	1	8.3	8.3
14	1	8.3	16.7
15	2	16.7	33.3
17	4	33.3	66.7
18	1	8.3	75.0
19	2	16.7	91.7
20	1	8.3	100.0
Total	12	100.0	

The above table reflects 4 out of 12 respondents started using heroine at age 17.

Question 166gTable 37: Age of 1st attempt: sniffing glue

Variable	f	%	Cum %
7	2	4.5	4.7
8	4	9.1	14.0
9	1	2.3	16.3
10	2	4.5	20.9
11	3	6.8	27.9
12	6	13.6	41.9
13	9	20.5	62.8
14	6	13.6	76.7
15	4	9.1	86.0
16	5	11.4	97.7
19	1	2.3	100.0
Total	43	97.7	
Missing System	1	2.3	
Total	44	100.0	

Respondents differentiated on age of first attempt sniffing glue.

Question 166h

Table 38: Age of 1st attempt: petrol

Variable	f	%	Cum %
8	1	2.9	2.9
9	1	2.9	5.7
10	3	8.6	14.3
11	2	5.7	20.0
12	7	20.0	40.0
13	6	17.1	57.1
14	5	14.3	71.4
15	4	11.4	82.9
16	2	5.7	88.6
17	4	11.4	100.0
Total	35	100.0	

Respondents differentiated on age of first attempt to sniffing petrol.

Question 168

Table 39: Offending to support substances

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	73	33.8	35.6
No	132	61.1	100.0
Total	205	94.9	
MissingSystem	11	5.1	
Total	216	100.0	

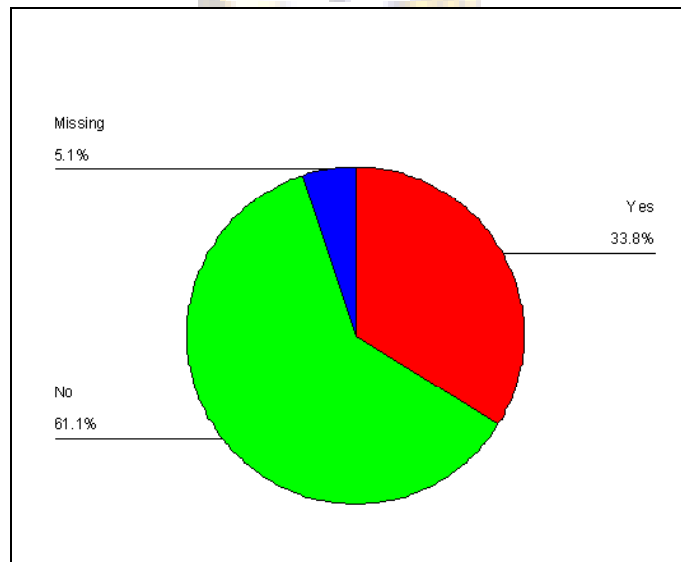


Figure 18

Respondents' orientation regarding committing an offence in order to support usage of substances depicts that about 34 percent (n=73) of the sample admitted to committing an offence to further their habits.



Question 169

Table 40: How smoking habit started

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Lighting up for others	7	3.2	3.5
Stole and smoked with friends	134	62.0	70.5
Sent to shop	14	6.5	77.5
Other	45	20.8	100.0
Total	200	92.6	
Missing System	16	7.4	
Total	216	100.0	

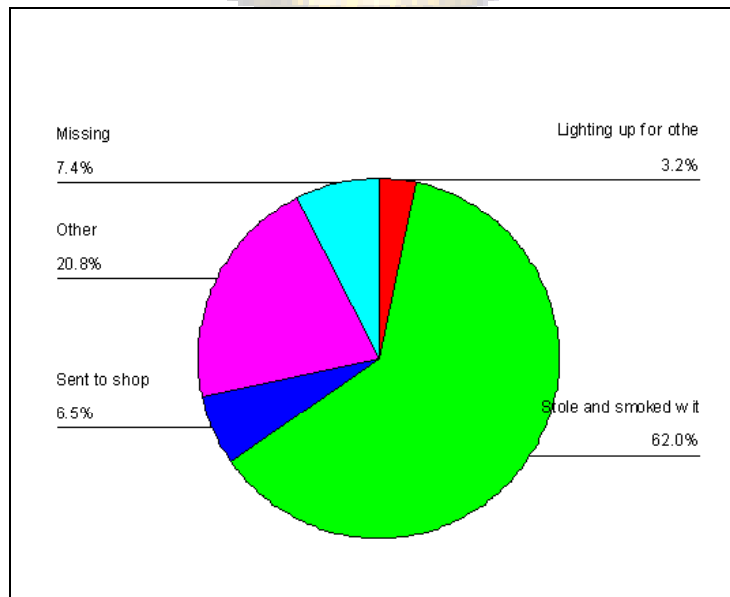


Figure 19

Respondents predominantly reported (n=134) stealing cigarettes and smoking with friends. Notably this type of stealing is not deemed to be an offence considering the response to the previous question.

Question 170

Table 41: Access to dagga inside and outside prison

Variable	Yes		No		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
QUEST170 WARDERS			86	100.0%	86	100.0%
QUEST170 OTHER PRISON STAFF			86	100.0%	86	100.0%
QUEST170 VISITORS	4	4.7%	82	95.3%	86	100.0%
QUEST170 INMATES	13	15.1%	73	84.9%	86	100.0%
QUEST170 OTHER PEOPLE	67	77.9%	19	22.1%	86	100.0%

Responses displayed that 4 (5%) and 13 (15%) of subjects that use dagga was obtained from visitors and other inmates, respectively, inside of prison. However, 78% (n=67) reported ready availability within their neighbourhood.

Question 170

Table 42: Access to mandrax

Variable	Yes		No		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
QUEST171 WARDERS			46	100.0%	46	100.0%
QUEST171 OTHER PRISON STAFF			46	100.0%	46	100.0%
QUEST171 VISITORS	1	2.2%	45	97.8%	46	100.0%
QUEST171 INMATES	2	4.3%	44	95.7%	46	100.0%
QUEST171 OTHER PEOPLE	43	93.5%	3	6.5%	46	100.0%

Respondents reported a minimal incident of mandrax filtering into prison either through visitors (1) or other inmates (2).

Ninety-four percent of respondents who use mandrax reported obtaining it from other people (outside of prison).

Question 174

Table 43: How frequently liquor is consumed

Variable	f	%	Cum %
0 days	16	7.4	8.9
1-2	26	12.0	23.3
3-5	23	10.6	36.1
6-9	48	22.2	62.8
10-19	55	25.5	93.3
20-29	4	1.9	95.6
All 30n days	8	3.7	100.0
Total	180	83.3	
Missing System	36	16.7	
Total	216	100.0	

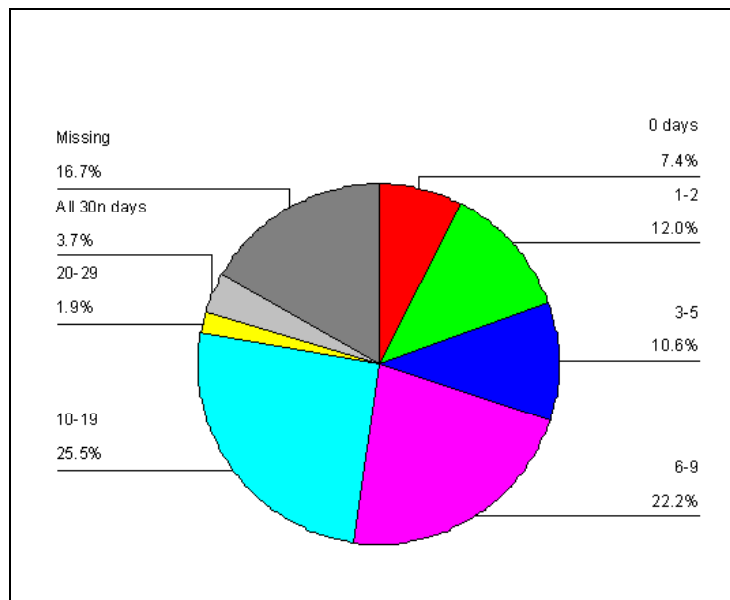


Figure 20

The table above depicts that of the 180 respondents who had reported positively to alcohol consumption, sixteen respondents have claimed not to have been consuming alcohol for some time before incarceration. Sixty seven of the respondents had been consuming at least one drink for 10 – 19 days of the month.



Question 180

Table 44: Ever in trouble because of drinking

Variable	f	%	Cum %
Yes	115	53.2	63.9
No	64	29.6	99.4
Don't know	1	.5	100.0
Total	180	83.3	
Missing System	36	16.7	
Total	216	100.0	

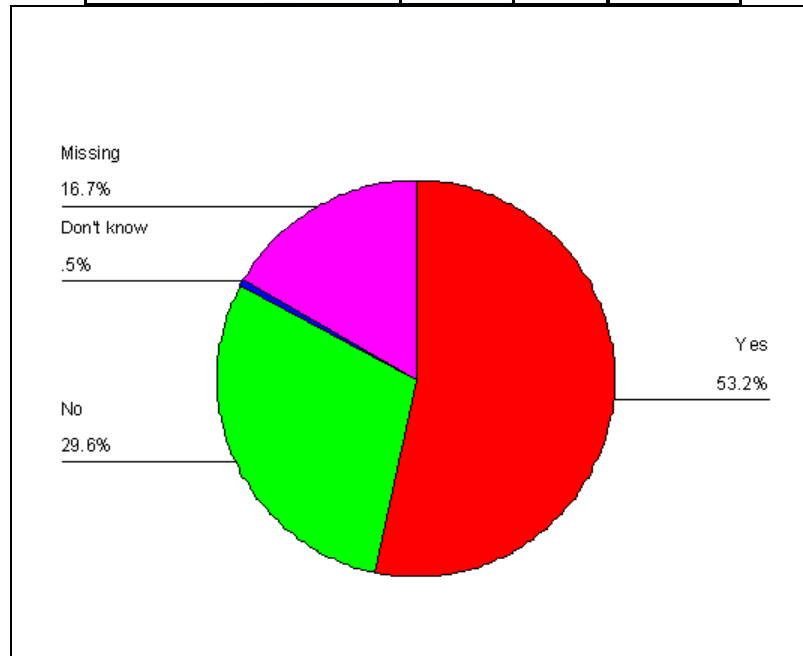


Figure 21

Of the total sample for alcohol (n=180), sixty three percent (n=115) responded positively to being in trouble because of their drinking habit.

CHAPTER 5

5.1 DISCUSSION

In dealing with this chapter let's firstly briefly outline the four theories within which the study is embedded:

Problem Behaviour Theory:

Risk behaviour that can be seen as either physically or emotionally dangerous and could lead to developmental problems.

Social Learning Theory:

The extent to which social influences promote illicit drug use affects vulnerable or susceptible young people's knowledge, attitudes and beliefs. Also, how that especially children learn aggressive responses from observing others (example family members).

Social Control Theory:

Juveniles and adults are likely to become criminal when certain controlling forces are either defective or absent. In response to crime the lack of parental control is seen to be a pivotal social control mechanism in relation to family, school and church.

Association Theory:

Centred around the impact of absence of salient role models.

Research results appear to support the hypothesis of the interrelatedness between risk behaviour and the four theories dealt with across the various domains as illustrated in Figure 1.

Bearing in mind the two aims of the study, let's further focus upon Question 166 (Table 29) in order to ascertain the extent of the respondents' alcohol and drug use outside of prison. It is absolutely imperative that we not confuse the concept "drug use" with "drug abuse" as the latter refers to when an individual develops immunity to the negative consequences that consumption of the habit-forming substances (alcohol and/or drug use) may yield. Considering the high rate of alcohol (84%), dagga (74.5%) and mandrax (51%) consumption, the inference could be made that the "use" could on occasion indirectly lead to "abuse".

Age may well be a factor in that young people are more likely to be curious and to take risks. Early adolescence is associated with experimental use. Age can also be a factor to the type of drug chosen, e.g. marijuana and mandrax are popular with 14-16 year olds and cocaine and heroine are used by young people over 16. Cocaine and heroine do not seem to be widely used, perhaps because of the region or even because of the respondents' affordability. This is significant in terms of drug prevention and education.

Curiosity is important in experimental drug use. Some individuals however may be more curious or inquisitive than others. Such curiosity may be strongly influenced by other factors mentioned in the framework of theories - such as peer pressure, mass media coverage of drug issues, family exposure and the availability of drugs.

A powerful stimulus for many recreational drug users is that they derive enjoyment from the effects of the drug of their choice. It is important to recognise this factor as most recreational drug users will put forward positive reasons for their deciding to take drugs because it makes them feel good.

The concept of predisposition suggests that a genetic factor exists within an individual which may predispose that individual to use or misuse drugs and alcohol. It is generally felt that such theories may be considered in relation to other associated factors, be it both individual and social.

Personality/Psychological factors would be concerned with what is referred to as the addictive personality.

However, this is not to deny the importance of personality as a factor when viewed in combination with environmental factors. Almost any aspect of personality which makes it less easy for an individual to find ordinary rewards in

life and ordinary happiness with his/her parents, peer group or teacher thus provoking anxiety and tension, may predispose a person to drug-taking as a short-term answer to such problems.

As far as social, economic and cultural or environmental factors are concerned, this theory suggests that illicit drug use is partly a response to alienation of social/moral standards. The argument is presented that people who are not well rewarded in the mainstream of society opt out and seek alternative pleasures such as drugs. It puts forward reasons such as educational failure and economic and social deprivation, including lack of employment, poor job prospects, poor housing and environmental conditions.

However, this should not suggest that those who live in areas where there is poor housing, minimal education, poor or uncertain job prospects and lack of employment are vulnerable to drug misuse. Drug taking should not be seen as a response to extreme social deprivation because it could occur at all socioeconomic levels.

Past studies have proven that parental and sibling illicit drug use increases the youth's risk of alcoholism and drug abuse, (see table 29) it could be inferred that many learners are confronted with alcohol and drug use in their own homes, and hence lack effective social and adult support systems. Adolescents' reporting of experiences being unhappy, not being accepted by others (see tables 22 and 24) need to be taken into account, since these feelings are often underlying the

development of risk behaviour amongst young people (Jessor, 1992) and children.

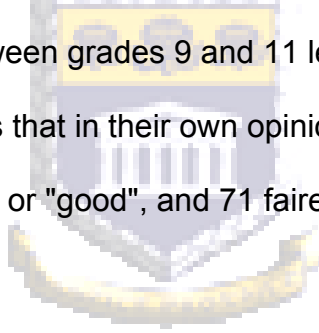
Because this research forms part of an overarching health study, perhaps not enough items may lend access to knowledge around the family or parent background. Numerous studies have shown that parental and sibling illicit drug use increase the youth's risk of alcoholism and drug abuse (Smart & Fejer, 1972; Kumpfer, et.al. 1986a ; Kandel et al 1978). In this study (see table 5), 31 of respondents answering "yes" to frequency of cohabitants who have undergone drug or alcohol treatment. This low count may be indicative of (i) the cost involved for treatment to be paid by the individual. Here again one cannot but refer to the importance of addressing poverty as a single most critical causal factor in the collective social problems of crime, violence, substance abuse and even HIV/AIDS in the country. (ii) the recognition of the need for treatment which is inevitably linked to (iii) correcting the norm of many communities.

Social problems such as, inadequate basic standards of living ; gangsterism and drug abuse which are manifestations of disorganisation and poverty within various sectors of society are deeply rooted into family life.

Research findings (NIDA, 2002) reported on the effects on school, work and social life proved that students smoking marijuana definitely achieve lower grades than those who don't use marijuana. Workers who smoke it are more

likely to experience problems on the job. Depression, anxiety and personality disturbances are all associated with marijuana use. Frequent users experience difficulties learning and remembering information, and so fall behind in developing intellectual, job or social skills (see Table 29). Psychological skills that enable individuals to develop and maintain confidence in pursuit of their life goals is also reduced with frequent use of marijuana.

Self report items for the purpose of this research show a high, school dropout rate of 86% of subjects between grades 9 and 11 levels of education (see Table 11). Significantly, though, is that in their own opinion, 96 of the respondents reported fairing "excellently" or "good", and 71 faired "average" (see Table 12).



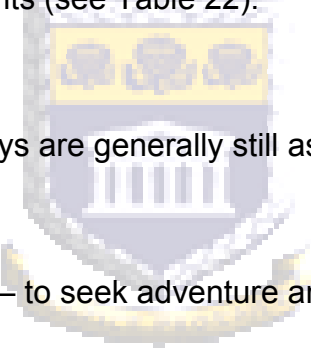
This finding may be suggestive of a learner's subjective view. Furthermore it appears that low school performance in itself does not lead to drug use, but that the factors leading to poor school performance are related to drug involvement.

Few teachers, relatives or other children are interested in being a special friend to this type of child because they are so unrewarding and demanding. This is inferred by the subjects responses to number of close friends. Out of the entire sample (N=216) only 40 of them have close friends (see Table 6) and of the 40, seventy five percent (see Table 7) reported these friends to already have been incarcerated or steadily getting to this point. If these children do not receive special attention from a teacher or other concerned adult, they are likely to

develop social and academic teacher-rated problems at school. Such a high-risk child would tend to dislike school, to be truant, to drop out of school early, and to have more difficulty finding good or steady employment.

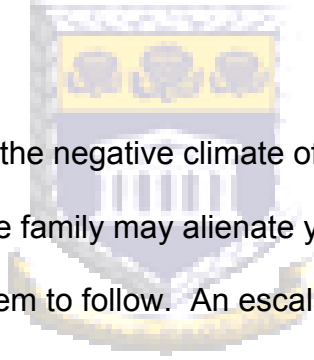
Incidences of adolescent runaways are also evident of disruptions of the family structure. Reasons may include illness or death of a parent; parental separation ; divorce or remarriage; a family move; even certain single-parent environments and alcoholic parent or parents (see Table 22).

The three classes of runaways are generally still as delineated in the past, namely:

- 
- i) Temporary escapists – to seek adventure and excitement.
 - ii) Delinquent alienated youth – due to negative experiences with family school or community. (this category still proves the most common reasons for running away)
 - iii) Abused or neglected youths – adolescents told to leave the home or have been abandoned. (present impressions are that this group yields a substantial majority of runaway adolescents.

Not consistent with previous findings was that more than 50% of the participants identified primary role models who were not in their immediate or extended family, example famous persons (see Table 20). As Werner & Smith (1982) found that having at least one significant person to look up to particularly within

the family, makes a critical difference for healthy adolescent development. My finding may however suggest that those with no role models in close familiar proximity may exhibit the most problem behaviour also the most negative school outcomes (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003). This study also builds upon the findings that relationships with parents and kin are vital for the healthy development of South African adolescents. Anthropologists' reports have found that the rich traditional social structure alongside customs of kinship and neighbourliness no longer exists.



In contrast, over and above the negative climate of family conflict, harsh parenting and violence in the family may alienate youth and suggest maladaptive patterns of interaction for them to follow. An escalated consistency has been found measured by this study's item on 'runaways' (see Table 21), that 1 in every four adolescents run away from home for reasons reflected in question 38 (N=216) (see Table 22).

Downward spiralling conditions of poverty may also diminish the capacity of parents to act as role models or to provide a warm, supportive environment for their children. Alcohol and drugs work for these children in temporarily alleviating their distress, but unfortunately propels them downward.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

The focus of this research may be underrepresented in items questioned – and therefore the results may have limited generalisability. All of the inmates (N=216) came from different urban and rural correctional institutions. Although the majority of respondents proved to be from rural environments, the participants had very similar working-class socioeconomic backgrounds.

This is a vital group (inmate population) to study because they have been found to be at greater risk for school failure, involvement in problem behaviour, or psychological distress than other adolescents.

Another limitation of this study is that all the measures including academic achievement are based on adolescents' self reports. The fact that problem behaviour was based on data collected on a face-to-face interview may have reduced confidence between interviewee and interviewer.

In this research the effects of neighbourhood on child and adolescent development has been hampered by the absence of data combining information at the individual, family and neighbourhood levels.

This research study forms part of a much larger study (See Appendix 2).

Questions pertaining to my thesis did not sufficiently address the issues of

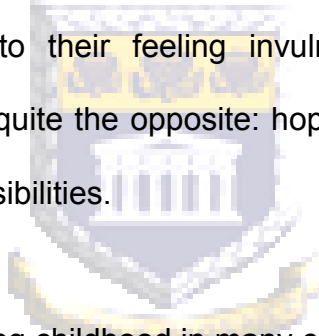
causality between inmates and family members. For example, the cross-tabulation of Question 10 vs Question 18.

The proposed cross-tabulation would not justify the questions that were posed to the inmates. Since no follow-up questions were addressed that could substantiate an argument. It should also be pointed out that we are dealing with a highly sensitive study. It would not be prudent to make certain assumptions with regard to the inmates. As a result we did not report the cross-tabulations.



5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The misuse of substances among school-going youth is a cause for much concern. The need for comprehensive and effective prevention programmes in primary and secondary schools within the whole region of the Western Cape cannot be overstated. Key informant focus group interviews with youth (at risk) should be a sound point of departure, bearing in mind that high-risk behaviour in youth is often attributed to their feeling invulnerable, but increasingly the evidence is that many feel quite the opposite: hopeless, fatalistic, and lacking in belief about their future possibilities.



Since conduct disorder during childhood in many cases is seen to be a predictor of later substance use, teachers should be equipped to recognise these symptoms in at-risk children. Studies have zeroed in on several important factors in predicting a first-grader's subsequent use of substances: namely, shyness, aggressiveness, rebelliousness and gender. These key risk factors continue to hold and are valid predictors of subjects' current levels of cocaine use as adults. Ensminger (1990) rated mental health using two criteria:

- i) social adaptation : teachers' ratings of children's classroom social performances and intelligence.
- ii) psychological health : psychological symptoms, abnormal behaviour and level of self esteem.

Although substance abuse is not yet critical amongst primary school learners, this is however the ideal opportunity and stage for the implementation of primary and secondary strategies, since this group's norm and value judgement still largely excludes alcohol and drug use as acceptable behaviour

Locus of control, refers to the extent to which people believe that events are shaped by forces over which they exercise some control. The degree to which they feel they have control is referred to as ranging from internally - a high degree of perceived self-control, to external, where a person feels they have control of events. For example, an "external person" could perceive events as being influenced by fate, luck, chance or powerful others. As a consequence, preventive drug education often refers to the need to develop a person's internal locus of control, usually through promoting a stronger self-image, developing assertiveness skills and generally providing a life skills type of programme.

As this study aims to firstly examine the impact of risk factors (within the environment) upon the individual it is important to focus upon a few variables about the individual or personal characteristics : namely,

- a difficult temperament during infancy has been associated with subsequent aggressive behaviour during childhood (Kasham et.al., 1999). This Farrington and Hawkins(1991) see as a product of interaction between the child's biological predisposition and the parent's behaviour towards the child.
- The child's orientation towards punishment and obedience; the child judges what is wrong on the basis of what is punished.
- The family or small group to which the child belongs becomes important.
- The value of trust, loyalty, respect, gratitude and keeping mutual relationships are vital.
- Being natural imitators, children strive to do likewise, particularly because the parents/caregivers are the chief source of love or hate, physical gratification, comfort or pain and security.
- Children desire reward and satisfaction.
- By means of the unconscious process of identification, the cultural values and norms of the parents are transferred and, in so doing, the survival of society is ensured.

It appears that personality traits alone do not account for delinquency. In relation to one another and in addition to other factors in their environment it may result in conflicts of the personality. Healy (1915), contended that delinquency may be a form of substitute behaviour that provides escape from conflict and the resulting emotional distress, removes the pain of frustration, and restores the equilibrium of the personality.

Although not all authors are in agreement that socio-economic status is an important factor in juvenile delinquency, Farrington (1991) contends that most lower-class parents tend not to teach their children to delay gratification in favour of long-term goals. The result was that such boys joined delinquent subcultures by whose standards they could succeed. Therefore the period of childhood is probably the best window of opportunity for helping children at risk of becoming chronic physical aggressors to learn to regulate their comportment. Policies that promote holistic quality education during early childhood and also strive to maintain peaceful environments throughout society, are much needed to prevent the primitive aggressive reactions from breaking through the thin layer of civility we acquire as we grow older.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this thesis wishes to argue that issues related to child and youth development as well as empowerment should engender the notion of collective government and community responsibility, in order to devise strategies that would address education, employment, and cultural leisure activities for marginalised people.

On the basis of the above assertions, entrenched psychosocial- environmental conditions underlying offending behaviour must be addressed. A broader vision all too often is conceptualised within simplistic interpretations of crime statistics.

The ultimate scenario is a youth or young adult who becomes more and more isolated and needs alcohol or drugs to become socially connected to others, as they are basically loners and their lives are so full of stresses because they accept help from very few people. A low self-esteem, frustration and anger develop. These factors have been found to be predictive of chemical dependency.

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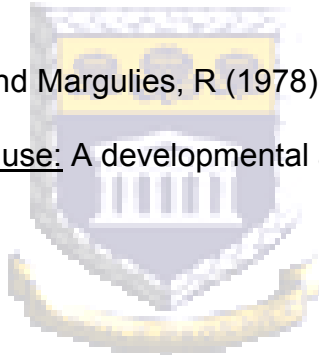
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APPENDICES

