Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, Limpopo Province, South

Africa

Ву

Babane Zondi Thelma

Dissertation

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirement for the Degree of

Masters of Social Work

in the

Department of Social Work

Faculty of Humanities

(School of Social Sciences)

at the

University of Limpopo

Supervisor: Prof JC Makhubele

2019

DECLARATION

I Babane Zondi Thelma declare that **Perceptions of young offenders regarding** parental influence on their criminal behaviour at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, Limpopo Province, South Africa is my work and all sources used and quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references and this work has not been previously submitted for any degree at any other institution.

Babane Zondi Thelma
Surname and full names
Signature

This study is dedicated to my father Mr. Hlengani Samuel Simango for his nurturing and unconditional love, and my lovely children Nhlalala, Ntsako, Innocentia, Nyiko and Nkhenso for being my inspiration to go the extra mile.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My first acknowledgement goes to All Mighty God for He is my source of strength.

My genuine thanks and gratitude are extended to the following people who contributed to the success of this study:

- My supervisor, Prof J.C. Makhubele for his guidance, perseverance, motivation and encouragement;
- My sincere thanks and appreciations are extended to my husband Dr. M. T.
 Babane for his words of encouragement and support;
- The Directors and the Centre Manager of Mavambe Child and Youth Care
 Centre for granting me the opportunity to collect data;
- The Department of Social Development for granting me the opportunity to collect data;
- Mr. Frans Matlakala for your assistance,
- Ms Brenda Baloyi and Mr Thembhani Baloyi thanks for your encouragement support; and
- To my participants who took part in this study.

ABSTRACT

Young offenders' criminal behaviour is a global problem that affects the society. In addressing this problem, parents are expected to provide effective parental role in order to minimise the problematic behaviour of their children. The overall aim of the study was to explore perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. The objectives of the study were to determine the perceived impact of parental practice on young offenders' criminal behaviour; to assess how parental care influences the positive behaviour of young offenders; to appraise how coercive child-rearing influences young offenders to be involved in criminal activities; and to establish gaps between parents and young offenders in terms of parental practice. The researcher used explorative research designs. The data was collected through semi-structured face-to-face interviews from sixteen (16) young offenders who were detained at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre situated in Malamulele, Limpopo province, South Africa. The sample consisted of young offenders who were available and ready to participate in the study, and sixteen young offenders who were staying with their parents. The researcher used thematic data analysis and followed its steps. Ethical considerations were considered. Based on the findings, parenting has a direct influence on young people's behaviour. However, it was also discovered that there are other internal and external contributory factors which make this problem complex and interrelated. Some of these factors are environmental or community and economic related problems. The researcher recommend that the Department of Social Development should render positive parenting skills programmes. These programmes should consider issues related to the parent-child relationship, disciplinary strategies, supervision and monitoring.

Key words: perceptions, young offenders, parent, parental influence and criminal behaviour

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents

CHAPTER 1	1
GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Background and Motivation of The Study	1
1.2. Operationalisation of Key Concepts	3
1.3. Theoretical Framework of The Study	4
1.3.1. Attachment theory	4
1.3.2. Ecosystem theory	6
1.4. Research Problem	7
1.5. Purpose of The Study	7
1.5.1. Aim of the study	8
1.5.2 Objectives	8
1.6. Research Methodology	8
1.6.1 Research approach	8
1.6.2 Research design	9
1.6.3 Population	10
1.6.4 Sampling	10
1.6.5 Sample Size	11
1.6.6 Data collection process	11
1.6.7 Qualitative data analysis	12
1.6.8 Quality criteria	13
1.7 Ethical Considerations	14
1.7.1 Permission to conduct interviews	14
1.7.2 Informed consent	15
1.7.3 Voluntary participation	15
1.7.4 Confidentiality	15
1.7.5 Privacy	16
1.7.6 Anonymity	16
1.7.7 Protection from harm and aftercare of participants	16
1.8 Significance of The Study	17
1.9 Conclusion	17
CHARTER 2	10

PERCEPTIONS OF YOUNG OFFENDERS REGARDING PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON THEIR CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR	
2.1. Introduction	18
2.2 Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour As a Global Problem	19
2.3. Types of Crime Committed by Young Offenders	22
2.3.1. Status offences	22
2.3.2. Drug violation	23
2.3.3. Violent crimes	24
2.4. Risk Factors Contributing to Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour	24
2.4.1 Individual risk factors	24
2.4.2 Family risk factors	26
2.4.3 Community risk factors	28
2.5 Parenting Practices and Young People's Criminal Behaviour	29
2.5.1 Coercive parental practice as a precursor to young offenders' criminal behaviour	30
2.6 Parental Behaviour Perceived Influential in Young People's Unlawfulness	34
2.6.1 Misconception of fundamental human rights in child-rearing	34
2.6.2 Parents' personality as a criminogenic factor in young offenders' criminal	35
behaviour	35
2.7. Reasons Why Parents Practise Coercive Parenting	36
2.7.1 Mental health problems	37
2.7.2 Socio-economic status	37
2.7.3 Lack of positive parenting skills	38
2.7.4. Substance abuse	39
2.8 Parental Practices Promoting Positive Behaviour	39
2.8.1. Authoritative parenting styles and young people's positive behaviour	39
2.9 Effects of Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour	42
2.9.1 Effects of crime to the young offender as a perpetrator	42
2.9.2 The effects of crime to the victim	43
2.9.3 The effects of criminal behaviour in the family of the young offender	43
2.9.4 The effects of young offenders' criminal behaviour at school	43
2.9.5 The effects of criminal behaviour of young offenders in the community	44
2.10 Prevention of Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour	44
2.10.1 South African legislations in dealing with young offenders	45

2.11 Conclusion	48
CHAPTER 3	49
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	49
3.1 Introduction	49
3.2 Biographical data	49
3.3 Themes	50
3.3.1. Theme 1: Types and influences of crimes committed by young people	51
3.3.2. Theme 2: The Relationship Between Parenting and Young Offenders' Criminal	54
Behaviour	54
3.3.3. Theme 3: The impact of absence of boundaries and limits in child-rearing	60
3.3.4. Theme 4: Disciplinary measures used by parents to young offenders	64
3.3.5. Theme 5: Positive parenting and child outcomes	74
3.4 Conclusion	82
CHAPTER 4	83
SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	83
4.1 Introduction	83
4.2 Re-Statement of The Research Problem	84
4.3 Re-Statement of The Aim and Objectives of The Study	86
4.3.1 Aim of the study	86
4.3.2 The objectives of the study	86
4.5 Summary of The Major Findings	89
4.6 Conclusions	90
4.7 Recommendations	91
5. REFERENCES	92
6 ADDENINIVES	ne.

List of tables

Table 3.1: Illustration of the age, gender and offences committed by the young offend
 51



CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Background and Motivation of The Study

Crime committed by young people is a serious issue in South African communities. Nevertheless, this is a continuous problem which is affecting the whole world regardless of race, culture or religion (Poduthase, 2012). Countries such as the United States of America, Canada and Australia are also affected by young offenders' criminal behaviour, amongst others (Curcio, Knott & Mak., 2015; Ireland & Monaghan, 2006; Wilson & Daly, 2006; Rodriguez, Rodriguez-Franco, LopezCepero & Brings 2016). Young people's criminal behaviour usually starts at an early age, and manifests itself in aggression, disobedience, non-cooperation, frustration and stress. It escalates into the adolescent stage in the form of truancy, bullying, substance abuse, gangsterism and school drop-out. Some of these behaviours can be considered as general behavioural problems during the adolescent stage. However, this study focuses on the link between parenting criminal acts that manifest in illegal actions such as theft, assault, robbery, arson, rape, murder and other crimes (Racz & McMahon, 2011).

Parents are expected to prepare their children to become responsible citizens through child-rearing processes (Joseph & John, 2008). This study further indicated that parents have a responsibility to employ different parenting methods such as communicating values, norms and beliefs which provide protective barriers against the onset of criminal involvement. There are different types of parenting styles. Barber, Stolz & Olsen (2005) identify three parenting styles. The first is parental support. This parenting style is characterised by mixed parenting methods of nurturing. It consists of mixed behaviours which are made up of nurturing, companionate and qualities of social activities. These qualities make this parenting style appropriate to adolescents (Halpenny, 2010). The second is psychological control, which can be described as parental methods applied as a way of transforming the child behavoiur, while disregarding the child's feelings and thoughts. In addition, this dimensions lack affection. For the researcher, this parenting style is not child-centred, whilst in favour of the parent. This is because it resists children to explore and discover their abilities and strength. The assumption is that if they fail to discover their strengths, they might copy negative behaviour from their peers or be easily manipulated to do wrong things.

Furthermore, children reared by this parenting style are more likely to be depressed, and depression is associated with strong negative emotions such as fear, anger, stress and frustrations. These emotions are linked to unacceptable behaviour. The third dimension is the behavioural control, which refers to parents' monitoring and full knowledge of children's activities. Considering the importance of monitoring and supervision of the child, the researcher argues that parents' knowledge about the whereabouts of the child is vital. However, it should not evade the freedom of the child. This means that the child should be trusted in taking responsibility and accountability. This is because monitoring that is too strict can be perceived as policing and can affect a bond between a child and parents. Once the bond gets affected, the child can easily be hooked by antisocial peers (Halpenny, 2010).

According to Buschgens, van Aken, Swinkels, Ormel, Verhulst and Buitelaar (2010), children reared by neglectful and permissive parental practice are more likely to internalise negative emotions which affect their behaviour. This shows itself in the form of disturbances in childhood, and it affects their relationships with other people in adolescence and later in adulthood (Laursen, Zukauskiene, Raiziene, Hiatt & Dickson, 2014). In line with the above, since these children are neglected, they may develop attention-seeking behaviour in need of recognition outside the family. Usually, they might seek attention from similar peers who are rejected just like them and put their lives at risk of engaging in crimes. Again, those who are reared by permissive parents may lack self-control and do things without thinking, which can put their lives at risk such as substance abuse or inappropriate sexual behaviour. The related sentiments were shared by Buschgens, et al. (2010), who distinguish two types of externalising behaviour: aggression and delinquency. Aggression as a form of externalising behaviour comprises behaviours such as attacking others and bullying. On the other hand, delinquency entails behaviour such as stealing and truancy. However, not all children who display one behaviour also display the other, these two behaviours (stealing and truancy) are co-related.

A study conducted by Racz and MacMahon (2011) assert that there is a link between adolescent stage and delinquent behaviour. This is because during adolosecent stage young people face many challenges because of physical, emotional and social changes in their lives. They strive for self identity and in the process, they engage themselves risky and delinquent behaviours such as teasing, bullying, underage sex,

and substance abuse. Batool (2013) believes that increase in peer influence across adolescent years may result in declaiming parents' influence. Laursen *et al.* (2014) acknowledge that as much time is spent in the company of peers, parents have less direct influence over a child. Wahl and Metzner (2012) stresses that instead of parents directly influencing a child's behavioural outcome, parent-child relationship becomes important as a moderator of external influences.

Statistics in South Africa have shown a high percentage of up to 85% of young offenders who committed serious offences in 2015. This escalation of crime was a serious concern as it made South Africa not a safe place to live in (Ntshangase, 2015).

The researcher became interested in studying perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour while working with young offenders at one of the Child and Youth Care Centre in Limpopo Province.

1.2. Operationalisation of Key Concepts

This section deals with definitions of operational key concepts that were frequently used in this study. This is important because the use of terms may differ from their everyday use. Babbie and Mouton (2001) supports this view by saying the neccecity of te conceptualisation of key terms permit the researcher to clarfy the meaning of concepts in order to draw meaningful conclusion about the study. This implies that each discipline has its own definitions which may be peculiar to itself. The following paragraphs define terms used in this study and support these ideas through views from other scholars.

- **1.2.1 Young offender:** The Child Justice Act No 75 of 2008 and the Social Profile of the Youth (2009-2014) describe a "young offender" as any person under the age of 18 years, and in certain circumstances, a person who is 18 years or older but under the age of 21 years who is a perpetrator of crime. In this research, the term "young offender" will refer to a child from the age of 14 to 17 years who is a perpetrator of crime.
- **1.2.2 Parent:** A parent refers to the caregiver of a child who has biologically given birth or nurtured the child (Nash, Stoch & Harper, 1990; Jones, 2015:54). The operational definition of "parents" in this study refers to an adult (male or female) who reared a child or children.

- **1.2.3 Parental influence:** Hoskins (2014:507) is of the view that parental influence refers to control involving managing young people's behaviour and activities that parenting behaviour has on a young person's behavioural outcomes. In this study, the term parental influence was adopted from Hoskins as defined above.
- **1.2.4 Perceptions:** The term perceptions refer to a personal expression and how one interprets the world which is surrounded by many circumstances (Mc Donald, 2011:9). In this study "perceptions" is used to refer to the way young offenders view parents as individuals.
- **1.2.5 Criminal Behaviour:** Criminal behaviour is an unlawful act that breaks the law (Onder & Yilmaz, 2012:1745). The operational definition of criminal behaviour is any unlawful action that breaks the law by an individual from the age of 14 to 17 years.

1.3. Theoretical Framework of The Study

There are plenty of theories pertinent to parental involvement in their children's criminal behaviour. The researcher used only two theories in this study. This study was located within two theoretical frameworks, namely, attachment and ecosystem theories. The two theories are closely related because on the one hand, the attachment theory seeks to understand parent-child interaction as this could help in tracking the development of behavioural problems (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). On the other hand, the ecosystem theory is based on the principle that human development is influenced by different types of environmental systems. These systems can help in understanding how environmental factors affect young offenders as they grow up.

1.3.1. Attachment theory

According to Tough (2016:30), the attachment theory describes parent-child interaction. It explains the relationship from childhood, showing how parents provide an environment where a child experiences warm and attentive parenting, also known as "healthy attachment" (Hubble, Bowen, Moore & van Goozen 2015; Bigner, 2005).

The theory explains the interaction between parent and child, both negative and positive. Again, it interprets the impact of parent behaviour and predicts the child's outcome. In support of the above statement, Buschgens *et al.* (2010) assert that healthy attachment promotes and maintains closeness between the parent and the

child. This theory highlights that children with healthy attachment have a rooted sense of security, self-confidence and explore the world independently and boldly as they grow older (Tough, 2016). A study conducted by Keramati (2014) confirms that such children are curious in preschool and are more likely to graduate at tertiary level. Wahl and Metzner (2012) adds that healthy attachment has characteristics of behaviours such as caring, kindness, compassion, and those behaviours that are not compatible with the criminal world. In other words, healthy attachment is a preventive method to delinquent behaviour.

In relation to this study on perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour, this theory is a key to identifying the problematic behaviour of children at an early stage. The researcher's view is that tracing the root cause of young people's behaviour is vital so that appropriate intervention can be made. A study conducted by Ntshangase (2015) highlights the psychological and social origins of delinquent behaviour. For example, children exposed to insecure or disorganised attachment run the risk of developing criminal behaviour because poor attachment triggers aggression, fear, frustration and stress, which result in disobedience, noncooperative and opposition (de Haan, Prinzie & Dekovie, 2010). The above findings reveal the impact of poor attachment amongst children, meaning that attachment plays a role in the protection and prevention of delinquent behaviour. Absence of attachment places the lives of children at risk of developing strong negative emotions such as anger, which can be used for violent crimes such as assault, malicious damage to proper, murder and robbery with aggravating bodily harm. These sentiments are shared in a study conducted by Tough (2016), which discovered that children with a history of poor attachment or bonding with their parents during childhood are at risk of engaging in criminal activities. The attachment theory believes that parent-child attachment can be a form of preventive measure to delinquent behaviour at an early stage and before it deteriorates into serious crime. In support of the above statement, the researcher believes that a healthy attachment between parent and child can prevent criminal behaviour because parents will teach the child positive ways of dealing with daily challenges. Unlike children who are detached from their parents, they might struggle to deal with their daily challenges since they are on their own. They might resort to negative ways, since there is no consistent parental care for rescue or quidance.

1.3.2. Ecosystem theory

This study was also guided by the ecosystem theory of human development. Young offenders are growing up in a changing world where there are various systems such as Microsystem, Mesosystem and Macrosystem that influence their behaviour (Brofenbrenner, 1994; Jorgensen, 2007:19: Turner, 2017). Children who are socialised by society have the likelihood of adopting criminal behaviour. The social environment includes the family structure, poverty, population growth, racism and the economy (Barnes & Cheng, 2006; Ngomane, 2005). In relation to this study, these systems affect young people reciprocally. For example, factors such as poverty, overpopulation, cultural composition and punitive parental practice are considered as criminogenic, and impact on young offenders' behaviour (Ntshangase, 2015). These family dynamics may directly or indirectly lead young people to economic crime, gangsterism and violent crime in their need to be accepted and to belong to the community.

Despite the different risk factors mentioned above, environmental systems may also provide protective factors against delinquency. The ecosystem theory has strength that can be used to prevent and address criminal behaviour. Dembo, Ramirez-

Garnica, Rollic and Schneider's (2011) study shows that a connection between the youth and support projects such as school, church and community activities may reduce criminal behaviour because these systems have values that are not useful to the criminal world. Karam, Sterrett & Kiaer (2017) support this by saying that multisystem interventions such as family-based programmes and youth service promotions may strengthen relationships amongst children, families and the broader community, and reduce criminal behaviour.

An interrogation of the ecosystem theoretical perspective of this study shows that the theory has great potential in understanding human behaviour and its strong connectedness to the environment at its different levels. The ecosystem theory can also play an important role in prevention and early intervention programmes by assessing environmental hazardous and designing community programmes aimed at addressing delinquent behaviour (Jorgensen, 2002).

1.4. Research Problem

It is important that problems that led to the topic of this study are highlighted. Young offenders' misconduct begins at early childhood, increases during the adolescent stage and indicates a high risk of transition to adulthood (de Haan, Prinzie and Dekovie 2010; Wahl and Metzner, 2012). Adolescent years are a challenging period in childrearing. Racz and MacMahan (2011) highlight that an increasing sense of autonomy and peer influence across the adolescent years results in some children being rebellious, oppositional, aggressive and engaging in criminal activities. Such unacceptable behaviour undermines or challenges family and cultural norms and values. These criminal elements also have negative impact in schools. Brauer's (2016) study raises a problem of school violence, disrespect and intimidation of teachers and bullying of other learners, which weaken democracy and governance and affect the economy. Aebi, Plattner, Metzke, Bessler & Steinhausen (2013) identify several factors such as the family environment, parenting styles, poverty, peer influence and disorganised communities or the events that take place in their social context, which contribute to young people's criminal behaviour. This study further indicates that family relations establish a model in all relationships such as education, economic and religions. Furthermore, family is viewed as a basic source of strengths in shaping the attitudes, values, norms and behaviour of children. Parenting is an important aspect in family relations. Batool (2013) argues that it is difficult for a family to nurture a young person who is oppositional. Consequently, some parents apply punitive parenting (Roche, Ghazarian, Little & Leverthal, 2010). A study by Brauer (2016) asserts that some parents attempt to change a child's behaviour through punishment. Others dismiss the child's views by withdrawing love and affection when he/she does not comply with the rules. Furthermore, work becomes more demanding with some parents. Consequently, they lose quality time with their children. Thus, their children resort to spending most of their time with peers and at media places (Order & Yilmaz, 2012). It is vital, therefore, to study perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their offending behaviour so that the problem could be addressed at an early stage and to prevent its continuance into adulthood.

1.5. Purpose of The Study

The main aim and objectives of this study are described in this section as follows:

1.5.1. Aim of the study

The aim of this study was to explore perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour.

1.5.2 Objectives

For the study to be researchable, the researcher developed the objectives which are the main goals of the study. To develop the objectives, the researcher was guided by the research design, problem, topic as well as research questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The following objectives have been identified to assist the study to achieve its aim:

- To determine the perceived impact of parental practice on young offenders' criminal behaviour.
- To assess how parental care influences positive behaviour of young offenders.
- To appraise how coercive child-rearing influences young offenders to be involved in criminal activities.
- To establish gaps between parents and young offenders in terms of parental practice.

1.6. Research Methodology

Lobelo-Ratefani in Masilo (2012) describes methodology as an intelligible group of methods that complement one another and that can deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the researcher's purpose. For Babbie and Mouton (2012), research methodology are methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research project. Methodology includes the design, setting, sample, methodological limitations and the data collection and analysis techniques in a study.

1.6.1 Research approach

This study is qualitative in nature. Qualitative research refers to the use of words in collecting data (Welman, 2012; Babbie, Mouton, Vorster and 2008). Qualitative research facilitates studies that need exploratory approach, help the researcher to gain complex information and give participants an opportunity to explain personal experiences from their own points of view. The researcher preferred this approach as

it allows an exploration of the behaviour, perspectives and experiences of the people studied. Again, the nature of the study allowed the researcher to spend much time and to have a direct personal contact with young offenders whose experiences the researcher wanted to understand. In support of the above, De vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011) assert that to understand people's perceptions and experiences about their world, the researcher should get close to them, listen and observe them in their daily activities. Again, qualitative research is appropriate in obtaining quality and in-depth data. Apart from this, qualitative research is useful in answering questions about the complex phenomenon of young offenders' criminal behaviour and parental influence because it is flexible and allows probing. Furthermore, this research approach was preferred as it permitted the researcher to collect data in the natural setting of the participants, which was Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, where they were detained (Gray, 2009).

1.6.2 Research design

According to Mouton (1996:107), a research design is a blueprint, plan, structure and a strategy of investigating and answering the research question. A research design describes how, when and where data is to be collected and analysed. Welman *et al.* (2012) describes a research design as a plan to follow to obtain research participants and to gather the required information. In this study, the exploratory research design was used. Grinnel (2008) argues that an exploratory design is no experimental because it only explores research problems. This is because it is not aimed at obtaining statistics, but at generating ideas that can be explored with the research design. The study aims to explore perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. This type of research design enabled the researcher to gain a broad understanding of the situation or phenomenon (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013). This is because the research design addresses the "what", "how", "who" and "why" questions (Neuman, 2000).

Again, the researcher used phenomenological research design, which is a study that attempts to understand the essence of people's perceptions, perspectives and understanding of a situation (Groenewald, 2004). Moreover, the use of exploratory research assisted the researcher to get new insights into young offenders' criminal behaviour and parental influence in Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre.

1.6.3 Population

Population is a set of elements that the research focuses upon and to which results should be generated (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). Gray (2009) describes population as the total number of possible units or elements that are included in the study. The population for this study were young offenders detained in Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre. This population was selected because they could give the most relevant information. For the purposes of this study, the population of the study were systematically selected from 70 young offenders aged between 13 and 18 detained in Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre. This was a natural setting of the participants situated at Mavambe village, Malamulele area, Collins Chavani Municipality, Vhembe District in Limpopo Province.

The study population included male and female young offenders between the ages of 13 and 18 years who were reared by parents and detained at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre. It comprised Xitsonga and Tshivenda speaking young offenders as dominant languages in Mavambe Child and Youth care Centre (refer to appendixes).

1.6.4 Sampling

Strydom and Delport (2011) and Durrheim (2006) define sample as the means of taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe. De Vos et al. (2005:333) define sampling as the process of taking a portion or a smaller number of units of a population considered to be representative or having characteristics of that total population. Sampling can be done by means of two methods, probability and non-probability sampling. The researcher focused on probability sampling, which refers to is a sampling technique in which samples from a larger population are chosen using a method based on the theory of probability (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). In this study, sampling was important in reducing the large number of participants as a small sample was needed (Deacon et al. 1999).

The researcher preferred to conduct this study at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre because she is currently working at the institution. Furthermore, the researcher is familiar with the dominant languages, namely Xitsonga and Tshivenda spoken by the detained young offenders. To select participants of the study, systematic sampling was used. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014), systematic sampling involves selecting individuals or clusters according to a predetermined sequence. A list of sixty-one (61) detained young offenders was obtained from the Centre Manager of Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre. Out of the total number of the detainees, thirteen (13) were removed because they were above seventeen years old. Therefore, sampling was made from a total of forty-eight (48) young offenders. From this number, the researcher selected every third name of the participants until the desired number of sixteen participants was reached.

1.6.5 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of the population that is chosen by the researcher to represent the target population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In this study, out of a total number of 61 young offenders detained at the Centre on the date of selection, a sample of 16 participants was selected.

□ Inclusion Criteria

The researcher needed specific characters that can separate the study groups from the rest of the population. The population consisted of 14 to 17-year old male and female young offenders detained at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, who were raised by their parents, and who reside around Vhembe and Mopane District in Limpopo Province. The offenders were under diversion and sentenced care.

☐ Exclusion Criteria

The study excluded young offenders from child-headed families, those who were awaiting trial and those who have been sentenced but were above 17 years.

1.6.6 Data collection process

Data collection involved a chronological process of obtaining approval from the ethics committee and obtaining informed consent or declaration of consent as well as having methods of collecting data (Botma, Greeff, Mulaudzi & Wright, 2010). An interview schedule was used to collect data from the participants. The interview process took place at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre. All interviews were arranged and

conducted at the convenience of the interviewees and were conducted in a conductive and quiet environment with sixteen young offenders whose files were systematically sampled. They were conducted in either Xitsonga or Tshivenda depending on the language of the participant. Each interview took about forty-five to sixty minutes. The information obtained from interviews would represent many of the young offenders in Vhembe and Mopane District, Limpopo Province. The researcher used semi-structured interviews to gather detailed information about the young offenders' perceptions of parenting (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006).

1.6.7 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is a process that includes coding and analysis of data after it has been collected. It can also be referred to as the categorisation, ordering and summarising of data to obtain answers to research questions (De Vos *et al.*, 2011:399). The researcher used thematic data analysis. According to Mills, Durepos and Wiebe (2010) coding is a basic analytic strategy used in thematic analysis and it is defined as a process of closely inspecting texts to look for recurrent themes, topics, or relationships, and marking passages with a code or label to categorise them for later retrieval and theory-building. There are steps to be followed when analysing data using themes. The researcher followed the steps below as outlined by Creswell (2009).

☐ Transcription of data

All the responses were recorded in a notebook. The researcher verified the notes by going through them three to four times while editing errors such as omission of some words or expressions, punctuation marks, and spelling mistakes. Later, all the notes were taken to two language specialists for translation into English and further editing. Only the researcher and the supervisors have access to the notes for verification of data. After the completion of the data analysis and interpretation, the researcher will destroy the notebook after a year (Creswell, 2009).

☐ Checking and editing

The researcher scrutinised and edited transcripts and related parts of the data to prepare them for further analysis.

Analysis and interpretation

This step entails data reduction and analysis. The researcher developed categories of the data. Codes and categories were used as tools of analysing data. The symbols were assigned to specific sections of the text.

□ Generalisation

The findings of individual interviews were then generalised. The researcher identified similarities and differences to develop the typologies of data.

1.6.8 Quality criteria

The researcher ensured quality of data of the study through credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability (De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Botma, Greeff, Mulaudzi and Wright, 2010).

□ Trustworthiness

To ensure trustworthiness or credibility of the study, the following aspects were taken into consideration as recommended by Lincoln and Guba (2003) and Johnson and Turner (2003).

- (a) Prolonged engagement (The researcher interviewed participants for more than forty-five minutes), and
- (b) Triangulation (multiple sources of information, including literature were used).

□ Dependability

The study did not deviate from the processes outlined in the research proposal to ensure that it was conducted in accordance with the proposed method for data collection and analysis, interpretation of the findings, and reporting the results of the study. If the same processes may be followed by another researcher, they could yield similar results. The fact that the researcher was

consistent in the proposal of this research means that the results are dependable (Babbie & Mouton, 2000).

□ Confirmability

In qualitative research, confirmability means the degree to which the outcomes could be confirmed or supported by other people (Patton, 2002). In fact, confirmability refers to the quality of the results produced by the study in terms of how well they are supported by participants who are involved in the study. To ensure confirmability, literature and data were utilised, and the findings of the study could be made available to the parents of the participants and the public. Reference to literature and findings by other authors that confirm the researcher's interpretations can strengthen confirmability of the study in addition to the information obtained from the participants.

1.7 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are professional standards that guide the research procedures, making the study acceptable for studying human beings (Baxter & Babie, 2004). Ethical considerations are defined as a set of moral principles that are suggested by an individual or group and are subsequently widely accepted. They offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects (De Vos *et al.*, 2005).

1.7.1 Permission to conduct interviews

The researcher obtained permission from relevant authorities such as Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC), the Directors of the Centre, the Department of Social Development and the parents of the young offenders.

Permission was granted by all the authorities. Thereafter, the necessary appointments were made with the participants by the researcher through the centre manager. This was done to ensure that interviews are conducted in suitable days and times that cannot affect their routines. The researcher personally collected data and observed all ethical considerations regarding research work (Cresswell, 1994).

1.7.2 Informed consent

Informed consent refers to telling potential research participants about all aspects of the research that might reasonably influence their decision to participate (Monatte, Sullivan and Dejong, 2008). Neuman (2011) further adds that it is not enough to obtain informed consent, but people need to know what they are being asked to participate in so that they can make informed decisions.

Informed consent was done through the provision of detailed information about the study. This includes the main aim of the study and the procedures that were followed in the process of gathering relevant the information needed for the study. Participants were also informed about their rights to discontinue the study at any given time.

Furthermore, permission was requested from the parents of the young offenders since they were below 18 years and cannot give consent on their own. Consent from the young offenders themselves was also be requested before the commencement of the study.

1.7.3 Voluntary participation

Neuman (2014) defines voluntary participation as an ethical principle that people should never participate in research unless they freely agree to do so. In this study, the participants were told about the nature of the study conducted and given a choice either to participate or not to participate in the study. The researcher did not force or manipulate them to participate in the study (Neuman, 2014), but ensured that participation was voluntary.

1.7.4 Confidentiality

According to Neuman (2011), confidentiality is the ethical protection for those who are studied by holding research data confidential or keeping them secret from the public; and not releasing information in a way that permits linking specific individuals to specific responses. Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee. (2006) argues that it is imperative that participants are assured of confidentiality despite anonymity; and that data will only be used for the research. The participants were informed from the onset about the confidentiality of their participation. The researcher assured the participants that everything that they said will be kept confidential; the researcher would not discuss it with anyone else. In case she wants to publish it, the researcher will first get consent

from the participants. They will remain anonymous to maintain confidentiality. This was done to ensure that the information provided, particularly sensitive and personal information, will not be discussed with anyone, and will not be made available to anyone other than the researcher.

The information gathered from the participants was kept confidential. The researcher respected their privacy to enable them to freely participate in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). To sustain confidentiality, the researcher stored, and locked data collected in a safe and secured place where there is limited access. Only the researcher and the supervisors can access the information (Neuman, 2014).

1.7.5 Privacy

It is the ethical principle that the participant's right to privacy should always be respected and that participants are within their rights to refuse to answer questions. The participants of this study were guaranteed that their identities would not be revealed when reporting on the study to ensure privacy and confidentiality. Codes were used to avoid the identification of participants, and the information provided was kept secret throughout the study. To provide anonymity of the young offenders, as stated in the consent form, they were identified by codes from Participant A to Participant O throughout the document. Gray (2009) is of the view that the issues of anonymity and confidentiality are compounded when it comes to ways in which data collected by a researcher are stored, and what kind of controls are in place to prevent data from being accessed and used by others.

1.7.6 Anonymity

The researcher will present data in aggregate form. The participants will remain unidentified as code numbers instead of names will be used, and under no circumstances will the participants' identities be revealed. It will also be communicated with the participants that their identity will remain anonymous (Babbie & Mouton, 2012).

1.7.7 Protection from harm and aftercare of participants

Babbie and Mouton (2001) are of the view that social research should never injure people being studied, regardless of whether they volunteered to take part in the study. Child-rearing involves lots of conflict between parents and children. Therefore, the researcher ensured that participants are protected from any emotional or

psychological harm. Arrangement were made with a clinical psychologist within the facility to assist in the likelihood of participants being exposed to harm. Nevertheless, no one was referred to the counsellor since there was no emotional harm (Welman, 2005). The researcher did not reveal the information of the participants to avoid embarrassment or to harm them psychologically, emotionally and physically (Rubin & Babbie, 2013).

1.8 Significance of The Study

Research on this topic is important and relevant to the South African Social Development Department. The findings of the study would be significant to all child and youth care centres in Vhembe and Mopani districts. The researcher intended to contribute to the Department of Social Development who may be able to develop informed programmes for the prevention and treatment of criminal behaviour amongst young offenders and parenting skills programmes for parents. It would give an opportunity for young offenders to take part in decisions that affect their lives. Through this study, young offenders would become active participants rather than passive recipients of parenting behaviour (Racz, 2011). Another important point was that involving young offenders made parents aware of possible contributory factors of conflict between them and their children in the rearing of the latter. The researcher believes that the findings of this study will help young offenders to realise parents' struggle in child-rearing. The findings will contribute to new knowledge in Social Work field in Limpopo Province of South Africa.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter gave an overview of the study and the extent problem of young offender's criminal behavior in Limpopo province. Young people in Limpopo province manifest offending behavior which is enforced by negative parental influences which they have no control of. The aim of the study and its objectives were stated and clarified. The significance, research design and methodology were discussed, and key concepts were explained, as well as an overview of the theoretical background for the investigation. In the next chapter, a historical background of the problem through literature studied will be discussed at length.

CHAPTER 2

PERCEPTIONS OF YOUNG OFFENDERS REGARDING PARENTAL INFLUENCE ON THEIR CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR

2.1. Introduction

Chapter one presented an overview of young offenders globally. Chapter two will present a review of literature on the problem. It will focus on the historical perspective of the problem, its nature and manifestation. The goal is to close existing gaps left by previous scholars. Literature review is when the researcher familiarises himself or herself with the current state of knowledge regarding the research problem and to learn how others delineated similar problems (Monette & Marais 2001). The literature used in this study is drawn from articles, books, theses, dissertations and legislations from the research field. The literature is organised into sections which align with the

objectives of the study. These sections include topics such as young offenders' criminal behaviour as a global problem, coercive parenting that predicts criminal behaviour, risk factors that influence criminal behaviour amongst young offenders, and positive parenting that promotes positive behaviour and prevention of young offenders' criminal behaviour.

2.2 Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour As a Global Problem

A study conducted by Cohen (2008); Omae, (2018 shows that young people's criminal behaviour is a global problem that affects many countries, and South Africa is no exception. In this section, some of the literature from Canada, Australia and the United States of America (USA) will be reviewed. From an African perspective, literature from countries such as Kenya and Nigeria will be reviewed. The section will then conclude by showing the literature from South Africa, which is the main focus of this study. The literature to be reviewed will show the link between parenting and young offenders' criminal behaviour.

Law and Quick (2012) conducted a study in which they reveal that young offenders' criminal behaviour poses a serious challenge in Canada. The study found that public agencies such as police, legal and social services reported high proportions of young offenders' arrest for arson, sex, vandalism, larceny or theft, minor assault and burglary. Furthermore, the study found that over one-third of young persons reported engaging in one type of delinquent behaviour in their lifetime, primarily through violence, acts against property or sale of drugs. Moreover, child delinquents often extend their criminal traits into adulthood, demonstrating two to three times increased risk of becoming serious, violent and chronic adult offenders (Wilson & Daly, 2006).

Apart from a study conducted in Canada as reviewed above, Curcio, Knot and Mak (2015) did their study in Australia in which they reveal that the problem of drinking and delinquent behaviours is dominant among Australian adolescents. The study shows that children are initiated to alcohol by their parents and peers at the age of 14 years, and when they reach the age 16 years, they are more likely to be fully severe with alcohol. This study views Australian alcohol polices as lax, and thus increases parent

and peer norms that promote alcohol use. Curcio *et al.* (2015) believe that such early initiation may be influential in delinquency and many criminal offences such as assault, drunk driving, homicide and property damage. The study found that all these crimes are committed under the influence of alcohol.

According to Heilbrun, Naomi, Goldstein & Redding, (2005), America, which is regarded by many people as one of the most industrialised countries in the world, is concerned by the violence with which young offenders carry out antisocial acts. The study reported violent crimes such as attacks, shooting of people, rape, engagements in gang activities, terrorism of neighbourhoods and remorselessness when caught. Heilbrun, Naomi, Goldstein and Redding (2005) found that the delinquent population in the USA "poses a great threat to public safety" as compared to the rest of the citizens.

Adegoke (2015) argues that young offenders' criminal behaviour is a concern for Nigerians because it affects the government, families and the entire society. The study reveals that anti-social behaviours which are often associated with young people's criminal behaviour in Nigeria include vandalism, drug abuse, the carrying of weapons, alcohol abuse, rape, examination malpractices, school violence, bullying, cultism, truancy, school dropouts and many more. From the results of this study, it was discovered that broken or unstable homes significantly contributes to juvenile delinquency, among other factors. Thus, it is in the family that children are first taught to eschew unacceptable behaviour, to delay gratification and to respect the rights of others. It is beyond doubt that unless something is done, the emerging crime society in Nigeria will remain elusive (Ugwuoke, 2013).

A study conducted by Beth, John & Zipporah (2015) reveals that young offenders' criminal behaviour is high, while law enforcement is dropping, which is a public concern for safety in Kenya. This problem fuels a national debate about the causes of young offenders' criminal behaviour. The outcomes of this study show that young people who are at risk of becoming delinquents often live in difficult circumstances, including socio-economic and political restructuring, which occasion a spiral of exclusions in the society. According to Omboto, Ondiek, Odera & Ayug (2012), the number of young people who are at risk of being delinquent is increasing every year because parents and guardians continue to lose their source of livelihood, and the

global economic crisis continues to bite harder. In fact, many young people are either unemployed or underemployed. The study concludes that despite this grievous situation, the Kenyan government has not adequately addressed the problem of youth and children.

A decade ago, a study conducted by Altbels (2007) states that South Africa is a violent country as compared to countries such as Australia, Canada and the USA, and most perpetrators are young people. Findings by Altbels are supported by studies conducted by Ntshangase (2015) and Van Staden (2015), who reveal that the level of crime in South Africa is high, making the country an unsafe place to live in. This is a serious problem, especially when some of these crimes are committed by young people. Clark (2011) concurs and asserts that big cities in South Africa such as Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg have a high number of risk areas, which creates fears for people to walk in some of the streets as they can become victims of violence or economic crime. In support of this high crime rate, the 2014 South African Statistics shows that 87 % of perpetrators of assault and 87% of robbery are crimes that are committed by young offenders. This number is high as compared to the crime-prone areas in other countries as discussed in the preceding paragraphs. Comparatively, the percentage of young females committing all these crimes declined by 5, 5%, while the percentage of young male increased by 0, 7 %. The growth in the number of children in conflict with the law as well as the increase of re-offending young people who have been exposed to violent behaviour at an early onset are at greater risk of becoming violent and serious offenders than those who have not.

Ranges of problems are frequently observed in young offenders' population than in the general population. This includes substance abuse problems, pro-criminal attitudes and difficult family background, including experiences of childhood abuse, unemployment, financial problems, homelessness and metal health problems. Many of these factors are interlinked. However, they vary from individual to individual. This is the reason why Singh and Kiran (2012) mentioned that some of the common contributory factors of young people's criminal behaviour includes family, economic problems in the family, psychological problems in the family, peer group influences and drug abuse. Furthermore, the extent of crimes committed by young offenders in both Mopane and Vhembe District in Limpopo Province was a cause for concern to the researcher. Since the study is conducted in Vhembe District, it is imperative to

reveal that in 2016, about 1,308 young people were admitted at Bosasa Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre (where the study is conducted), and the number increased to 1,523 in 2017. Studies conducted by Pastorelli, Lansford, Kanacri, Molane, Di Giunta, Bachini, Bombi, Zelli, Miranda, Bornstein, Tapanya, Tirado, Alampay, Al-Hassa, Chang, Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Oburu, Skinner and Sorbring (2016) and Bergdahl, Twill, Norris and Ream (2015) show that parenting factors have been found to be neither protecting nor promoting young people's criminal behaviour.

In their study, Badenhorst and Conradie (2008) found that providing an opportunity for young people to become involved in decisions affecting their lives might empower and protect their interests and encourage adults to be receptive towards the insights and understanding of these young people. Another view is stated by Onder and Yimaz (2012), who opine that assessing which specific parenting styles are predictive to young offenders' criminal behaviour may lead to more solutions. The present researcher concurs with the above thesis because she is of the view that understanding the reciprocal nurture of cohesive parenting, young offenders' criminal behaviour, positive parenting and prosocial behaviour is vital.

2.3. Types of Crime Committed by Young Offenders

Singh and Kiran (2012) describe crime committed by young people as an action that violates the law of jurisdiction. This study further indicates that young people's criminal acts refer to what the Child Justice Court believes is supposed to be brought within its jurisdiction. According to the Child Justice Act No. 38 of 2008, some of the examples of major law-breaking acts are theft, robbery, rape, murder and many more. On the other hand, minor law-breaking acts can be considered as acts of misconduct such as bullying, truancy and underage drinking. Stahl *et al.* (2005) divided the variety of crimes committed by young people into three district categories.

2.3.1. Status offences

According to Siegel and Welsh (2009:19:); Zhou et al. (2017), the concept "status offence" can be understood as behaviours and actions restricted to young people

while permitted for adults. For Stahl *et al.* (2005), status offences are misconducts that are law-breaking acts while committed by young people but would not be considered illegal for adults. This is like that as the society made restrictions to certain behaviours as per age and status of an individual, not as a form of discrimination, but for protection reasons. The fact of the matter is that some behaviours and actions can be harmful to young people while harmless to responsible adults. This is because adults will be aware of its effects and may act or behave responsibly. Unlike young people, they may fail to control themselves and put their lives in long term or permanent damage, either for their health or their future. For example, drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes is legal for adults but illegal for young people below the age of 18 years in many countries, including South Africa. This is because the impairment of these substances is severe, and a person should be matured to take a decision of consuming or using them. Amongst others status offences are truancy, substance abuse, the carrying of weapons to school, theft, challenging teachers' authority, inappropriate sexual conduct, breaking of school rules with impunity and rape (Ntshangase, 2015).

2.3.2. Drug violation

The second reviewed category is called drug violation. Drug violation includes drug abuse, possession of drugs and drug dealing. The use and abuse of alcohol and drugs place young people at risky situations such as getting injured while drunk. Besides, some young people engage in risky behaviour while under the influence of substances. For example, Mabasa (2018) indicates that some young people engage in an appropriate sexual behaviour while drunk, which puts them at risk of contracting STDs and HIV. Besides impairment to their health, it also affects them academically as well as other learners. This is supported by a study conducted by Ntshangase (2015) and Mabasa (2018), which states that the use and abuse of alcohol and drugs is problematic amongst learners and teachers because young people who abuse substances are more likely to become disobedient and violent. Moreover, alcohol and drugs are the major cause of car accidents and violent crimes. The Child Justice Act No. 38 of 2008 considers drug violation crime more serious. It categorises these crimes under Schedule 2 and 3 because most serious crimes such as homicide, malicious damage to property, assault with GBH, are committed while people are under the influence of drugs (Ralph, 2016).

2.3.3. Violent crimes

The last category is violent crimes. These are the most serious crimes that include assault with aggravating bodily harm, murder, robbery with aggravating circumstances, rape and possession of dangerous weapons, auto theft and homicide (Stahl *et al.*, 2005). Under the Child Justice Act No. 38 of 2008, they fall under schedule 3. Sarwar (2016) indicates that the National Center for Juvenile Justice shows that young people engaging in violent crime in large numbers are males when compared with females. The researcher concurs with because even at Mavambe Child and Youth care Centre, male young offenders engage themselves in crimes that are violent in nature.

Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, Van der Laan, Smeenk and Gerris (2009) points out that parents of young offenders are frequently blamed for the criminal behaviour displayed by their children; and that some parents are even penalised by courts for being inconsiderate. Racz (2011) reveals that parenting is a basic method in which the behaviour of children is manifested either by negative or positive reinforcement. Ralph and Sanders (2006) argues that some parents do not know or lack parenting skills and are worried about the behaviour of their children.

2.4. Risk Factors Contributing to Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour

Singh and Kiran (2012) show that the criminal behaviour of young people is an accumulated risk factor. There are many contributory factors of young people's criminal behaviour. Among others, family and community are implicated in the early involvement of young people in their criminal behaviour.

2.4.1 Individual risk factors

For an individual, there are many risk factors that should be taken into consideration. It is important to understand risk factors at a personal level to understand personal problems that affect young offenders (Curcio *et al.* 2015). A study conducted by Marsh, Melville, Morgan, Norris and Walkington (2006) identifies individual risk factors such as forms of substance abuse, anti-social behaviour and hostility, offending beliefs and

aggression. A study conducted by Holtzhausen (2012) looks at individual risk factors from a different perspective from the one discussed by Marsh *et al.* (2006). Holtzhausen's research focuses mainly on life stressors, mental disorders and conduct disorders resulting from victimisation and exposure to violent force as influential in young people's engagement in unlawfulness. Researchers such as Bartol and Bartol (2009) view cognitive and nervous deficits, or low intelligence quotient and hyperactivity, as influential individual risk factors in young people's offending behaviour. These findings are also supported by Marsh *et al.* (2006), who posit that there is a strong relationship between the level of intellect and offending behaviour. Their findings show that the link is proven by the fact that many young people of low intellectual ability are more likely to be caught committing offences as opposed to those individuals who are intelligent.

This study further reveals that the way young offenders evaluate and select unlawfulness is unsuccessful most of the time. Furthermore, Marsh *et al.* (2006) found that young offenders also acknowledge the responsibility of committing crime during interrogations, individual self-report measures and police self-evaluation reports. This is because they do not understand the charges pressed against them (Marsh *et al.*, 2006). Another study that shares the same sentiment with Marsh *et al.* regarding the intellectual ability is by Souden (2007). The study emphasises that the low level of intelligence, especially nonverbal intelligence, is typically characterised by recidivism in young offenders. However, this is not the only risk factor associated with young people's criminal behaviour.

Different from the views discussed above, Mdluli (2015) views poor self-identity as a risk factor in young people's engagement in criminal activities. These findings are supported by Ireland and Monaghan (2006), who associate poor self-image with delinquent behaviour because young people with poor self-image struggle to make informed decisions, are impulsive and easily influenced by other people. A study conducted by Van Staden (2015) identifies individual risk factors in the form of psychological risk factors such as aggression, disciplinary problems and cruelty.

Masilo's (2012) research found substance abuse as a hamper on an individual's psychological functioning. The focus of studies reviewed above was not on parenting as an influential factor on the criminal behaviour of young offenders, which is the focus of this study. This study intends to close this gap.

2.4.2 Family risk factors

Families have an essential role to play in the development of young people. They are the first agents of socialisation; hence attitudes, values and aspirations in the family are reflected in children's behaviour (Omae, 2018). Therefore, the complexity of young offenders' criminal behaviour should be analysed within the context of family dynamics. One of the theories that underpin this study, namely the system theory, relates to the description of family processes that contribute to criminal behaviour and the maintenance of criminal behaviour amongst young offenders. This implies that change cannot effectively take place unless the context is understood (Rousseu, 2015). Therefore, in order to understand the complexity of young offenders' behaviour, one needs to look at system theory as a family system.

The family system is defined as a unit with various parts that are related to each other. For example, parents, children, uncles, aunts, grandparents and friends.

These parts are interconnected and influence each other repeatedly. This is to say that there is a continuous flow of interaction and communication that takes place in a system, and this can be used to describe and interpret the criminal behaviour of young offenders. In their studies while working with families, Masilo (2012) and Batool (2013) found that in many instances, young people's criminal behaviour shows symptoms of behavioural problems within the family system. It is important to understand that the criminal behaviour of young offenders does not occur in isolation.

A related sentiment is shared by Rousseu (2015), who raises the point that young offenders' conduct problems impact other people who are involved in their lives. The point emphasised by Rousseu is that an individual behaviour should be observed against the dynamics of the family system. Therefore, it is important to understand how family dynamics influence criminal behaviour and how positive family relationships can enhance change efforts. Rousseu's (2015) study found that no behaviour happens in isolation and no change can take place in isolation either. Bignar (2005) concurs with Rousseu by alluding to the fact that these problems can be identified as family disputes, conflicts within the family, poor communication and poor problem-solving skills, especially by members of the family. A study by Bignar concluded that the problem is then translated into criminal behaviour or other conduct problems.

A study conducted by Ngomane (2006) reveals that family characteristics associated with marital conflict, maternal depression and low maternal education are more likely to develop severe conduct problems to young people. This view is also supported by Maunghan and Moore (2010), who posit that children with more severe conduct problems appear to have more stressors in their families. The link between young offenders' behaviour and family is also investigated by Racz (2011), who found that family demographic factors such as low income, early motherhood, single parents, large families and low social support can predict the development of criminal behaviour.

According to studies conducted by Waller Gaedner, Hyde, Shaw, Dishion & Wilson, (2012) and Ngomane (2005), in families where violence (for example, beating, hitting, attacking with weapons, shoving, grabbing) is used as a means of discipline, it generally creates criminal behavioural problems to young people. This is also confirmed by the 2017 report from Child Line South Africa, which has received 270311 calls relating to the physical abuse of children. This may increase the high risk of delinquent behaviour. Moreover, Masilo (2012) found that families with members who are incarcerated increase the risk of young people engaging in criminal activities. According to Eicheisheim, Dekovic, Wissink, Frijos, van Lier, Kool and Meeus (2010), when children observe their parents applying aggression in resolving issues, they also learn the behaviour. This study further points out that these children learn that it is an acceptable behaviour to use threats, assaults and swearing to others in conflict situations. The study concluded by pointing out that this inappropriate behaviour of parents is a risk factor in delinquency. A study by Schofield, Conger, Donnellan, Jochem, Wiidaman and Conger (2012) discovered that observed positive parenting and parents' personality play a significant role in promoting competence and wellbeing of young people.

A research conducted by Ireland (2006); Densley (2013) remarks that in some instances, some young people are not in contact with their family systems but in gangs. The impact that these gangs have as a family system should not be underestimated. This study further alluded to the fact that as their family members are their peers, peer relationship increases a risk of being influenced to engage in criminal activities, which is a serious concern. The present study will align much with views reviewed in this section, which looked at the role played by families in young offenders' behaviour.

However, from the above review, not much has been investigated regarding parental influence on young offenders' behaviour. Hence this study seeks to close this gap.

In reviewing some of the literature, it was found that some scholars found that poverty is one of the risk factors culminating in young offenders' behaviour. Lachman, Cluver, Boyes, Kuo and Casale (2014) found that the causes of poverty are multiple, including unemployment, the country's open border policy and HIV/AIDS (Human Immune Virus and Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome) level. A study conducted by Gould and Ward (2015) reveals that due to unemployment, some parents are unable to provide nutrition, health care and education, leading young people to engage in criminal behaviour. The view of poverty as a risk factor is also revealed in a study conducted by Clark (2011), who asserts that young people living in the streets and beggars are indicators of poverty. Furthermore, this study reveals that black and Coloured youth are less equipped for job opportunities. As a result, they are unemployed, resulting in little opportunity of escaping from poverty, and consequently, they turn to fall into the trap of crime (Clark, 2011). Thus, youth development is compromised. This has a greater impact on the national growth development. However, poverty alone cannot be a contributory factor.

2.4.3 Community risk factors

According to Cindi (2006), a community is a social group that shares common geographical boundaries, interests and values. An important relationship between a community and an individual is given by Lee (2012), who describes correlations between young people's criminal behaviour and criminal behaviour as something which is demonstrated within the community. The CJCP 2017 reveals that 49% of learners were verbally and physically abused at school by their fellow learners, school principals and their teachers. Direct or indirect exposure of young people to violence from home and within the community increases the risk of being perpetrators of crime. Related to this point, Lee (2012) conducted a study where he/she found that the abuse of alcohol, sexual immorality and violence are socially tolerated in some communities. A similar sentiment is shared by Mabasa (2018), who found that alcohol and drugs in communities have been easily accessible to young people, which is also the main contributing factor in criminal behaviour amongst them.

In his study, Mabasa (2018) revealed that there are lots of shebeens/ taverns in many households in communities, and that the age restriction for substance use is not followed, and that this increases the high rate of crime amongst young people. This suggests that the crime cycle can be perpetuated from generation to generation, which is a serious concern. From a different perspective, Clark's (2011) study considered over-population and cultural composition as criminogenic factors that impact on young offenders' behaviour. Clark (2011) gave an example of the number of economic migrations from other countries such as Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Lesotho, Somalia and many more who flock to South Africa looking for job opportunities and a better life each year. This study further reveals that unfortunately, some found that the country is not as rich as they expected. Consequently, they end up living in the streets or in informal settlements. Amongst these, young people are no exception. Moreover, since they have no means of meeting their basic needs, they end up committing crime for their own survival. Related to findings by Clark, Ntshangase (2015) points out that the size of South Africa and its diversity make it difficult to effectively identify the causes of youth crime. This is in line with the ecosystem theory which alludes to the fact that finding solutions to the problem implies that change cannot effectively happen unless intervention is done jointly, therefor this warrant a collective intervention in addressing family and community risk factors (Turner, 2017).

2.5 Parenting Practices and Young People's Criminal Behaviour

Several researchers such as Aebi, Plattner, Metzke, Bessler and Steinhausen (2013) and Kauser and Pinquart (2016) discovered associations between parenting and young people's criminal behaviour. The focus of this section is to review related literature on this aspect. A study conducted by Batool (2013) discovered that parents and children have different understanding when it comes to rearing. The point alluded to by Batool is supported by Smokowisli, Bacallao, Cotter and Evans (2014), who concurs that some parents understand positive parenting in terms of control, while adolescents understand positive parenting in terms of trust and support. Another related view is shared by Knox, Burkhart and Cromly (2013), who remarked that excessive parental monitoring can be perceived as a high level of control by children, whereas parents view it as a protective factor against conduct problems.

The study found that there are young people who do not want monitoring by their parents, but to be left alone. On the other hand, there are parents who want to monitor every step of their children's behaviour. A study conducted Badnhorst (2009) argues that parental behaviour affects the way children respond to the given environmental condition. Another study conducted by Laursen *et al.* (2014) show that there is a difference between young people and parents' reports. This study reveals that adolescents' perceptions of parental involvement predict academic achievement, whereas parents' report for their own parental influence did not show a positive impact on the academic achievement of their children. Therefore, young people's perspectives may be more relevant in examining the influence of parenting and their developmental outcomes.

Views by Joseph (2008) and Van Staden (2015) show that knowledge of parental practice that influence criminal behaviour in child-rearing can help people gain insight into how best to develop effective parenting skills. This is to say that parents should be knowledgeable on how to rear their children, especially during their adolescent stage. Ashkar (2009) shows that the child's beliefs could be more influential on social adjustment than the parent's perspective on their own parenting behaviour.

A study conducted by Wahl and Metzner (2012) reveals that adolescents' report of parental influence of child aggression were predictive while parents' reports were associated with control. The study further found that young offenders often believe that they do not have control over their behaviour. They think all powers depend on external forces such as poverty and environmental factors (Buschgens *et al.*, 2010). Since they believe that they do not have control over their external forces, does not mean that they will continue to live a miserable life or be a delinquent and struggle for life, or that their criminal behaviour will continue or even get worse. Thus, the researcher raises the importance of assessing parental influence from young offenders' perspectives because their interpretation of parenting styles may have a greater impact on their outcome than parents' report of their parenting styles.

2.5.1 Coercive parental practice as a precursor to young offenders' criminal behaviour

One of the objectives of this study is to establish how coercive child-rearing influences young offenders to be involved in criminal activities. Parenting is one of the most

demanding roles. It is a family process that is strongly linked to the child's behavioural outcome. Bigner (2005) indicated that parenting practice has a powerful and direct effect on child outcome. Linked to what Bigner has indicated, de Haan *et al.* (2010) show that parenting can involve challenging tasks, particularly when children display challenging behaviour.

Parenting styles have been conducted since time immemorial. However, from the 1930's, parenting styles have been studied and some parental practices have been documented as influential in conduct problem and criminal behaviour of young people (Halpenny, Nixon). Baurmrind (1967, 1991) is one of the pioneers who developed a theory on parenting styles. Originally, Braumrind's work on parenting was based on four different parenting styles which include authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and uninvolved parenting styles (Hoskins, 2014). The researcher will give description of these parenting styles in relation to the influence and the prevention of criminal behaviour amongst young people.

2.5.1.1 Authoritarian parental style as an influential factor in young people's criminal behaviour

The advocates of the authoritarian parenting style describe it as low in warmth but with excessive control (Stormont, 2002; Farrell *et al.* 2011). This parenting style exerts a high level of control to shape behaviour and increase obedience. A study conducted by Batool (2012) discovered that authoritarian parental practices impose strict rules and limits to children without being communicated to them. In this study, children are expected to follow these rules without questioning them. Failure to comply results in punishment. This is confirmed by studies conducted by Onder and Yilmaz (2012) and Roche, Ghazarian, Little and Leverthal (2010), which indicate that authoritarian parents do not allow their children to question their decisions.

The assumptions of the researcher are that children follow the rules for the sake of compliance and fear of punishment. Furthermore, the goal of parenting is missed, since parents' aim should be to teach the child desired behaviour, whereas the child can perceive parents' behaviour as punishment. Semmdroth (2005) argues that young people feel unsafe with parents who are influenced by anger. This is because authoritarian parenting is associated with anger. For example, situations where parents are violent, children perceive them as either fearful or dangerous and the child

does not know how to respond to some of their demands (Waller *Gaedner, Hyde, Shaw, Dishion & Wilson,* 2012).

According to Masilo (2012), upbringing from an authoritarian family leaves child with physical and emotional wounds. The most common emotions are sadness, anger, fear, anxiety, confusion and depression. For Tough (2016), punishment in childrearing affects the child's attachment. This study further states that children need closeness to their parents as it is that bond that serves as a model for future relationships. Haapasalo (2001) and Ferguson, Cruz, Matinez, Rueda, Ferguson and Negy, (2008) concur with the above scholars by saying that when parents impose strict rules and harsh punishment, their children learn violent behaviour such as aggression and hostility, which are useful to crime. Gamez-Gaudix, Straus, Carrobless, Munoz-Rivas and Almendros. (2010) support these scholars by saying that harsh punishment by parents cause children to be stubborn or rebellious and increase the risk of delinquency. Waller *et al.* (2012) and Zarra-Nechad, Kiuru, Annola, Zarra-Nezhad, Ahonen, Zarra-Nezhad, Ahonen, Poikkeus, Lerkkanen & Nurmi (2014) argue that when parents are extremely controlling, young people can deliberately rebel against them and engage in crime.

2.5.1.2 The link between neglectful parenting style and young people's criminal behaviour

Joseph and John (2008) describes neglectful parents as parents who lack both warmth and control. For Batool (2013:220), neglectful parenting is a form of maltreatment by parents to their children, and this is called "neglect". Other researchers such as Bigner (2005) and Curcial *et al.* (2015) view neglect as generally associated with delinquent development because neglectful parents are detached to the needs and affairs of their children. Maungan (2010) and de Haan *et al.* (2010) concur with the above notion by asserting that neglect predicts future criminal behaviour because it contributes to aggression, which is useful in committing violent crimes such as assault, rape, murder and malicious damage to property.

For Stormomt (2002) and Batool (2013), neglect is characterised by patterns of poor parenting such as lack of parental discipline and supervision. These are risk factors in the development of conduct problem in children. These studies reveal that these dysfunctional parenting practices often place children at risk of developing conduct

problems and are amongst the strongest predictor of later delinquent behaviour. This is confirmed by a study conducted by Smokowski *et al.* (2014), which states that adolescents who perceive inadequate parenting in the form of high levels of rejection are more likely to display hostility and delinquency. Furthermore, a study conducted by Bashier (2011) alludes to the fact that children who suffer neglect are amongst those who are the most severely delinquent.

Researchers such as Buschgens *et al.* (2010) support the above idea by stating that the typical offender is maltreated, rejected and neglected before incarceration. The question is: *Do neglected children commit crime because they are neglected or are they neglected before they commit crime?* The researcher's assumptions are that young people who are not neglected are under parental supervisions, therefore cannot commit as many crimes as they could without parental supervision.

2.5.1.3. The link between permissive parenting style and young people's criminal behaviour

Halpenny *et al.* (2010) and Joseph and Johnview permissive parenting as lack of control with excessive warmth. Raph and Sanders (2006) asserts that permissive parents allow their children to decide more things for themselves without their support. Onder and Yimaz (2010) concur with this idea, arguing that permissive parental practice gives their children unguided freedom which encourages them to fall in the trap of the wrong company. It has been a concern by Odongo, Aloka, and Raburu (2016) and Hoskins (2014) that permissive parents do not set proper rules, avoid engaging in behavioural control and set few behavioural expectations for their children. Furthermore, Batool (2013) and Odongo *et al.* (2016) point out that young people reared by permissive parents are more likely to become impulsive and do things that are against the law as they fail to understand the rules of the family due to inconsistent discipline that they receive from their parents.

This is supported by a study conducted by Derzon and Lavenbarg (2009), which states that children who come from families characterised by poor parental care are believed to be more likely to commit offences than those who grow up in loving and supportive homes. Apart from this, Hoskins (2014) and Curcie *et al.* (2015) add that young people from permissive families report a higher frequency of substance abuse and school misconduct. This type of parenting confuses children because the message they

receive is conflicting as they cannot see any pattern from what their parents are teaching them (Ralph & Sanders, 2006). This is the reason why Batool (2013) says that permissive parenting is characterised by poor supervision and disorganised environment that leads to the development of negative behaviour.

Laursren *et al.* (2015) argue that parents' permissiveness may inhibit autonomy development and may lead to lack of maturity, firm identity and ill-discipline.

For Odongo *et al.* (2016), disciplinary problems, which are a result of permissive parenting, have been linked to criminal behaviour. Mahajana (2013) concur, saying that young people who develop severe conduct problems are at a greater risk of becoming involved in criminal activities. For example, if parents are permissive towards aggression, their children may fail to regulate aggressive impulse, resulting in excessive aggression. Aggression is highly associated with criminal activities such as assault, murder, armed robbery and malicious damage to property. Therefore, it would not be wrong to state that young people's criminal behaviour is more concerned with parenting styles.

2.6 Parental Behaviour Perceived Influential in Young People's Unlawfulness

As indicated earlier in this study, parenting is a basic method in which the behaviour of children is manifested either by negative or positive reinforcement (Racz and MacMahon, 2011). Below are some of the parental behaviours perceived courageous to young people's criminal behaviour.

2.6.1 Misconception of fundamental human rights in child-rearing

Since the adoption of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 and the Children's Act No 38 of 2005 that state that children have human rights like all other human beings, some parents believe that they do not have absolute authority to their children, and should therefore not make rules regarding their rearing. Such misconceptions tend to deprive young people an opportunity to learn the values of discipline and self-control, which can prevent them from committing crime (Ntshangase, 2015). The same argument is posited by Halpenny *et al.* (2010), who believes that weak authority weakens parental monitoring and supervision of their children, which can be a potential risk factor in young offenders' criminal behaviour.

Scholars such as Griffin (2003) and Jones (2015) believe that parents play a fundamental role in modelling the behaviour of children, whether directly or indirectly. In their view, the quality of parenting a child is viewed as determinate of that child's acceptable behaviour. Thus, lack or inconsistent parental monitoring and supervision place the child at risk of delinquency. The researcher is of the view that human rights do not take away the role and responsibility of a parent in child-rearing. However, they are to guide the parents on acceptable treatment that they should be applying in child-rearing. The examination of parenting styles in this study will provide understanding of the important role that parenting has in developing young people as well as the connection between parenting and the criminal behaviour of young people.

2.6.2 Parents' personality as a criminogenic factor in young offenders' criminal behaviour

It is a common knowledge that an individual learns behaviours by observing and imitating modelled behaviour towards the environment. According to the Social Learning Theory as propagated by Bandura (1973), the role of parenting is modelling and reinforcement in social behaviour. Thus, parental influence plays an imperative role in any social environment. Farrell *et al.* (2011) shares the same view by describing parental influence on the development of positive or negative behaviour in the form of messages. This study further indicates that parents who hold beliefs against aggression and hostility may model beliefs such as violence to their children and may directly influence their children's beliefs with the perceptions that they (parents) will support them in their behaviour. Furthermore, the study reveals that those children may adopt verbal and physical aggression strategies and other forms of aggression in their social interaction to get control over the situation.

Batool (2013) and Curcio *et al.* (2015) concur, saying that children may learn through modelling that their parents' hostile and aggressive behaviour is effective on winning situations and controlling others. This is the reason why Zilbertstein (2014) says that what children learn and how they react in certain situations is affected by their relationships with their parents, parenting styles and parents' behaviour.

On the other hand, this study shows that parents who hold beliefs against aggression may display their disproval and use discipline strategies that encourage children to consider viewpoints of others in conflict (Roskam, 2014). According to Racz and

MacMahon (2011), parental message supporting nonviolent responses prevents incidents. These protective effects were confirmed to be useful as stated by Schofield, *et al.* (2012), who say that young people reared by parents who are considerate to equal rights and peaceful relationships are not vulnerable to peer pressure. This is because their decisions are informed by values instilled by their parents. In addition, these young people state that in some occasions, they hear parents' voices in their head arguing with them to use non-violent responses even when their instincts encourage them to respond in negative ways.

Another view is given by Masilo (2012), who describes how parental behaviour influences young people focusing on substance abuse. For Masilo (2012), the availability of alcohol at home can be perceived as promoting its use. The study further reveals that young people who are reared by parents who abuse substances are more likely to abuse substances when compared to those whose parents do not abuse substances. Substance abuse is linked to conduct problems and criminal behaviour. Curcio et al. (2015) support the above view by stating that young people reared by parents who abuse substances start using substances at an early age. The study outcome shows that students (who were research participants) consume alcohol as early as Grade 8 and consume illicit drugs at the end of Grade 8. According to this study, substance abuse places young people at risk of addiction and escalates to risk of involvement in criminal activities. For example, underage drinking is a form of delinquency because it is linked to criminal activities such drinking and driving, homicide, assault and property damage.

Ralph and Sanders (2006), Tolou-Shams *et al.* (2012) highlights that serious crime has been shown to be strongly associated with substance use and abuse. The researcher concurs with these scholars from work experience because economic crimes such as theft, housebreaking, and robbery are linked to substance abuse as young offenders will be out of control and in need of money to maintain their addiction.

2.7. Reasons Why Parents Practise Coercive Parenting

There are numerous reasons why some parents practise coercive parenting. Amongst others, these reasons include lack of positive parenting skills, mental health problems,

socio-economic status and substance abuse. The following paragraphs review literature on these reasons.

2.7.1 Mental health problems

Zhou (2014) revealed that mental health-related problems are some of the reasons why some parents practise coercive parenting. Findings from the study show that rearing a child with criminal behaviour is a challenge to some parents. In terms of this study, some parents struggle to deal with resistance or risky behaviour that promotes the development of criminal behaviour. Related to this point, Bashier (2011) argues that some parents might suffer from stress and are at risk of psychosocial difficulties such as depression and hostility due to social problems, chronic illnesses or other mental health problems. Ntshangase (2015) supports this notion by stating that depression is related to child conduct problems because it decreases the engagement of parents into the child's life.

Ngomane (2006) asserts that parents of young offenders face unique challenges, and some report stress and poor mental health when compared with other parents. Furthermore, such parents are more likely to believe that they are incompetent in their parenting role when compared with other parents (Zhou, 2014). These factors are associated with cohesive parenting and may be perceived as influential in young offenders' criminal behaviour.

2.7.2 Socio-economic status

Socio-economic status has a role to play in the behaviour of individuals, especially young people. Poverty may sometimes be a hindrance to parenting. In some instances, where parents live under poverty and incapable of sustaining the basic needs of their children, it may result in stress and depression (Bashier, 2011). Depressed parents are more likely to be inconsistent in their responses to their children's behaviour, less affectionate, leave their children unsupervised and more likely to use harsh punishment (Khanam & Nghiem, 2016). In support, Maughan and Moore (2010) argue that the type of parenting with these features of harsh punishment and less monitoring of children increases the likelihood of children abusing substances, engaging in risky sex, and becoming involved in crime. This view is also emphasised by Zhou (2014), who posits that there is evidence between parents who

reported stress and children's conduct problems. This study shows that high level of parental stress, poor parent communication, and caring for larger numbers of children contribute to delinquency. On this note, Van Vugt *et al.* (2015) opine that children born to mothers who were younger at their first child birth are at risk of future persistent delinquent behaviour. Furthermore, children born to younger mothers are often opposed to a variety of risk factors that have been associated with development of delinquent behaviour. For example, they grow up in poverty since some of these parents may be unemployed. Young mothers turn to be single parents when compared to older mothers.

2.7.3 Lack of positive parenting skills

Ralph and Sanders (2006) and Gould and Ward (2015) study shows that some parents are often poorly equipped with parenting skills to provide consistent and effective discipline that can promote positive behaviour. Moreover, Ralph and Sanders (2006) and Omae (2018). states that dysfunctional parenting practices often place children at high risk of developing conduct problems and are amongst the strongest predictors of later delinquent behaviour. The study further reveals that since these factors are associated with reduced positive parenting, they may play a huge role in the association between parenting and young offenders' criminal behaviour. In fact, because of lack of formalised education programmes and a comprehensive referral system, some parents must look for experts, and to select intervention programmes by themselves and pay the costs. Those who cannot afford rely on relatives and friends, and others end up applying unlawful methods. In line with this, a study by Zhou (2014) indicates that parents' low self-efficiency is associated with less engagement in children's monitoring. Seemingly, there is no comprehensive programme in place to support and maintain parents' efforts, and more parents' report to need more help and guidance in raising young people with challenging behaviour.

To fill this gap in the literature, the aim of the study is to obtain in-depth understanding of parental influence on the criminal behaviour of young offenders.

The information will be obtained by investigating young offenders' experiences of childrearing and by exploring how positive parenting can help them overcome their criminal behaviour.

2.7.4. Substance abuse

A study by Masilo (2012) shows that substance abuse, especially by parents, is one of the main causes of child neglect. The study revealed that parents who abuse substances sometimes compromise the needs of their children while sustaining their addictions. The same sentiment is shared by Maughan and Moore (2010), who avers that neglect of children by some parents is generally associated with delinquent development. A related view is echoed by Curcio *et al.* (2015), who states that when parents are under the influence of substances, they become disoriented and some children may do as they wish because parents may not see them.

The point raised by Curcio was also argued by Masilo (2012), who avers that in families that abuse substances, there is often inadequate monitoring and discipline. Hoskins (2014) concurs with the above view, stating that children from families that lack positive discipline as a method of influencing positive behaviour can easily engage in crime. This is because such children lack proper guidance from parents, which results in failure to realise the effects of their behaviour.

2.8 Parental Practices Promoting Positive Behaviour

2.8.1. Authoritative parenting styles and young people's positive behaviour

Parents practising authoritative parenting styles suggested a balanced use of warmth and control. Stormont (2002) and Halpenny *et al.* (2010) describes authoritative parents as responsible and reliable to their children. This study further explains that authoritative parenting has parental features that respect children's best interests and rights. Such practices promote positive outcomes in children's development. Farell *et al.* (2011) agrees with this viewpoint by showing that authoritative parents set rules together with their children, and reasoning techniques are used to explain the effects of the child's actions and its impact on others. This is the reason why Onder and Yimaz (2012) argue that adequate parenting develops rules and enforces them.

A study conducted by Koolaee, Shahl, Navidian, and Mosalalanejad (2015) points out the importance of positive parenting, which includes self-reliance, social competence, impulsive control skills, academic achievement, emotional regulation and prosocial behaviour. This is supported by a study conducted by Joseph and John (2008), who states that authoritative parents have more opportunities of nurturing young people

who are happy, capable and successful. Furthermore, a study conducted by Van Domburgh *et al.* (2011) confirms that the consistency of positive parenting has proven to be producing well-behaving young people. This is the reason why Sadock and Sadock (2007); Riechle *et al.* (2012) emphasise that positive parenting marked with a loving environment is more likely to result in selfreliance, self-esteem and a sense of social responsibility.

2.8.1.1 The benefits of positive discipline

The concept of 'positive discipline' is sometimes used interchangeably with inductive discipline. Positive discipline is based on reasoning, explanation of the standards of conduct, and provides sanctions for those conducts that may harm others. According to Pastorelli *et al.* (2016), the word 'discipline' includes setting appropriate rules and consistently enforcing non-sanction for rule violation. In their view, Koolaee et al. (2015) and Reichle, Backes and Dette-Hagemmeyer (2012) indicate that discipline includes skill encouragement, and teaching children prosocial behaviour using praised and other forms of positive reinforcement.

Odongo et al. (2016) states that positive discipline is associated with favourable outcomes and is predictable of academic achievement and prosocial adjustment. Moreover, it involves problem-solving, whereby the parent and the child work together to implement the solution. Apart from this, a study conducted by Farrell et al. (2011) states that parents who practise positive discipline show warmth and attention by spending more time with their children, showing interest on their activities. Thus, positive discipline plays a crucial role in regulating skills associated with prosocial behaviour because it promotes values associated with care, kindness and respect for others. For Weaver, Weaver, Nicks, Jupka, Sallee, Jacobsen, Henley and Jaquest (2016), the quality of parent-child relationship and balanced positive discipline are important in fostering the child's positive behaviour. In arguing about the importance of positive discipline, Pastorelli et al. (2016) show that children become receptive to the warmth and involved parents because they offer feelings of security, trust and protection. Furthermore, the study reveals that warm and supportive parents are more likely to express positive emotions when interacting with their children. Alimentally, they provide an opportunity for their children to learn effective ways of enhancing selfregulation, and this enhances feelings of attachment and belonging to others while decreasing self-centeredness (Tough, 2016).

In support of the above, Holptrop, Smith and Scott (2015) remark that positive discipline is greater in parent-child attachment and is associated with less level of child internalising and externalising problem behaviours. In the same vein, David *et al.* (2014) points out that the combination of social sanction and explanation of standard conduct fosters self-control and the internalisation of moral standards and values. Consequently, children learn to regulate their behaviour based on anticipating social consequences. This serves as a protective factor from criminal activities.

2.8.1.2 The benefits of parental monitoring in child-rearing

The literature review in this section shows that there are more benefits of parental monitoring in the rearing of children. According to Racz and McMahon (2011), parental monitoring is a set of correlated parenting behaviour involving giving the child attention and tracking, their whereabouts and activities. As for Lee (2012), parental monitoring serves as a protective factor against criminal behaviour for young people. This study further reveals that parental monitoring increases parental knowledge of the activities of the children and decreases opportunities of the child engaging in activities that are not approved by the parent.

Norona and Baker (2017) support the above view by stating that parental monitoring may minimise child exposure to delinquent peers, violent behaviour and criminal activities. The researcher's view is that this approach may work well with children who perceive their parents as warm and supportive because they may be willing to disclose information about their activities and their exposure outside home. Such exposure could increase parental knowledge of children's activities, facilitate parents' ability to monitor their children well and help them cope with traumatic experiences. Other researchers such as Schofield *et al.* (2012) found that parental monitoring have strengths to protect young people from engaging in conduct problems. Moreover, monitoring decreases substance initiation and directs use, as young people may avoid using substances, knowing that their parents can easily detect it (Lee, 2012). For positive outcomes, Boshier (2011) suggests that parents should establish structures

of the child environment. This includes establishing rules about child activities, enrolling the child in after-school programmes and setting up play dates with friends. Furthermore, parents should actively monitor their children's whereabouts. For example, the parent can contact the parents of the child's friends over a phone (Smokowski *et al*, 2015). Parents who spend time with their children and are involved in their children's lives can monitor the activities of their children adequately. This prevents these children from involving themselves in serious crimes.

Smokowski *et al.* (2015) suggests that the structure changes as a child develops from childhood to adolescent stage. This study further found that parents should adjust their techniques of monitoring adolescents' unsupervised activities with peers and with the broader community. Masilo (2012) argues that peer climate is characterised by informal social norms that support aggression and substance abuse. Young people found themselves means of gaining approval by their peers.

The researcher's view is that peers may be influential in criminal behaviour. Bigner (2005) argues that parental involvement was found protective against the development of problem behaviour in youths exposed to risk. Furthermore, parents' monitoring of their children's whereabouts, activities and friends can reduce susceptibility pressure from delinquent peers (Lausen *et al.*, 2015).

2.9 Effects of Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour

Crime committed by young offenders has long term effects on the young offender as a perpetrator, the victim of crime, their family, school and society at large.

2.9.1 Effects of crime to the young offender as a perpetrator

Criminals tend to limit an individual an opportunity to be socialised with the necessary norms, morals and values that can positively shape his or her well-being (Ntshangase, 2015). As a result of criminal behaviour, young offenders lose an opportunity to learn new prosocial behaviour and skills that can advise their interaction with other people within the community (Law and Quick, 2012). A similar sentiment is shared by Masilo (2012), who points out that young people who abuse substances run the risk of engaging in violent crime. They are more likely to engage in an impulsive behaviour such as unprotected sex, which puts them at risk of being infected by Sexual Transmitted Diseases (STD) and the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). Such an

infection is long term since it cannot be cured. When it comes to job opportunities, a study conducted by Waller *et al.* (2012) reveals that chronic offending may ruin their career because future career choices may be impaired due to incarceration and criminal records.

2.9.2 The effects of crime to the victim

Several researches show that victims of crime suffer from physical and psychological impairment. The trauma that they undergo affects their wellbeing and relationships with other people. Consequently, some victims need to undergo psychological counselling; others need medical attention which comes with hospital expenses (Ntshangase, 2015). Furthermore, others lose their properties that they worked for so many years and they run a cost of repairing or replacing those properties.

Moreover, some victims may lose their lives due to crime.

2.9.3 The effects of criminal behaviour in the family of the young offender

There are several challenges faced by the family of the young offender. These families are embarrassed, get angry, and feel guilty about their child's behaviour, and others may blame or disown them because of their conduct. Lucero, Barrett and Jensen (2015) argue that some parents experience stress-related problems such as psychological trauma and depression due to criminal behaviour of their children. The study also reveals that other families may be overwhelmed by the criminal behaviour of their children and be forced to relocate to other neighbourhoods. Some parents should pay private legal representatives. This can affect their finances. Apart from this, other parents may be compelled to attend court hearings, and if the young offender is detained in the facility, they should attend family therapy sessions and group sessions. These can disrupt their work or daily routine. Moreover, they should visit the young offender regularly, which can be financially costly.

2.9.4 The effects of young offenders' criminal behaviour at school

The criminal behaviour of young offenders does not only affect the victims and the families, teaching and learning activities are also seriously affected. This behaviour affects lessons and endangers the lives of learners and teachers (Lucero *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, the study found that criminal conduct such as bullying, fighting, substance abuse and possession of dangerous weapons directly affect learners and teachers psychologically and physically.

A finding by Ntshangase (2015) shows that in some schools, teachers abandon classes in fear of weapons and inappropriate or provoking language used directly to them by young offenders. Ntshangase further argues that this conduct negatively affects teachers' performance, as some may feel frustrated, inadequate in classroom management. As a result, others may begin to abuse substances or quit their teaching careers. Moreover, some learners' performance as well may be negatively affected due to truancy, and inability to cope in classrooms due to this misconduct. Ashkar and Kenny (2009) concur by pointing out that the perpetrator as well gets affected since some bunk classes and others neglect school activities deliberately.

2.9.5 The effects of criminal behaviour of young offenders in the community

Young people do not live in isolation from the rest of the members of the community. Therefore, in one way or the other, their criminal behaviour affects the communities where they live. In fact, there are financial implications in criminal offences. For an example, in 2017 young offenders in Australia and Canada cost many billions on policing, trials, prosecution and sentencing. This is also supported by De Wet (2004), who indicates that in South Africa, the government spends billions on young offenders each year. Furthermore, finances reserved for building new schools is often used to repair and replace vandalised government buildings and equipment.

The involvement of communities in the rearing of children is stated by Mohajana (2013), who believes that although parents have the responsibility of rearing children, raising children is a collective responsibility. The point emphasised in the study is that delinquency is a growing concern in South African communities. Its escalation warrants attention and intervention by various stakeholders. Tabengwa (2016) holds a related view by saying that detention institutions for young offenders must run programmes geared towards rehabilitation, education and skill training (Tabengwa, 2016). Obviously, all these cost the government in terms of finances.

2.10 Prevention of Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour

Most situations leading young people who are in conflict with the law to commit crime are social in nature. Young offenders often live in families facing difficulties such as poverty, substance abuse, domestic violence and large families. These situations may be influential in their involvement in risky behaviours such as antisocial behaviour and crime (Omboto *et al.*, 2012). The researcher understands the prevention of young

offenders' criminal behaviour as including legislations, policy intervention actions and programmers that stop young people from committing illegal activities. Since it is one of the main assumptions of this study to establish a gap between young offenders and their parents, it is important to explain the prevention of young offenders' criminal behaviours through policy recommendations and programmes so as to realise gaps and failures in such interventions.

The focus of such interventions is to address social and personal factors that may influence criminality (Bartol & Bartol, 2009). This comprises strategies and measures that seek to reduce the risk of offending and potential harmful effects on individuals and society (UNODC, 2012). The prevention of criminal behaviour should, therefore, be multi-sectoral, multi-disciplinary, and holistic, with young offenders' criminal behaviour. This is so because the development of such conducts among young offenders is associated with varied factors (UNODC, 2012).

2.10.1 South African legislations in dealing with young offenders

There are many legislations that deal with young offenders that provide guidance for their rights both in South Africa and globally. Some of these legislations include the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, the Children's Act No. 38 of 2006 and the Child Justice Act No.75 of 2008. The United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child has been an important instrument in addressing vulnerable children, including young offenders in many countries. In South Africa, legislations which are often referred to when dealing with young offenders and the protection of their wellbeing include the Children's Act and the Child Justice Act.

According to The Child Justice Act, a provision should be made to provide a young person who is under the age of 18 years and in conflict with the law to be dealt with for an offence in a manner which is different from an adult. This Act further provides that in dealing with young offenders, the best interest of a child should be important just like other vulnerable children who are not in conflict with the law. The Children's Act makes provision for any young person under the age of 18 years who needs care, neglected, vulnerable and in conflict with the law. This means that even when the child has offended the law, the court should determine whether the child needs care or rehabilitation. However, this study basically concentrates on young offenders and the

link between their criminal behaviour and parenting. In line with the preceding discussion, social work as a profession is founded on the principles of human rights and social justice. Its principal professional body, the International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW), sets out three key action areas, [6] which can be characterised as follows:

- promoting social change on the basis of its findings regarding the needs and the avoidable causes of problems confronted by individuals and groups seeking or requiring assistance;
- Problem-solving in human relationships, whether interpersonal, interfamilial, within the wider community or vis-à-vis the authorities and their agents; and
- Empowering people to enhance their own well-being, as opposed to creating ongoing dependency and thus maintaining inherent vulnerability.

Given such a range of potential areas of intervention, together with the bases and approaches that inform its action, the social work profession can have direct and indirect impacts on the Juvenile Justice system in three main ways that closely correspond to the three levels of the preventive framework.

2.10.2.1 The role of probation officers in dealing with young offenders

The word 'probation' originates from the Latin word 'probare'. Probation work is a specialisation in the field of social work. According to Gallinetti (2009), a probation officer is a person who has been appointed as a probation officer under Section 2 of the Probation Service Act No.116 of 1991. The point emphasised by Gallinetti is that probation officers are co-component of the child justice system. The primary aim of probation is crime prevention, treatment of offences, and care and treatment of victims, families and communities. All children who break the law and get arrested are assessed by probation officers within 48 hours after arrest.

2.10.2.2 The assessment report

Review of some of government documents reveal that before the first appearance at the preliminary inquiry, young offenders must be assessed by the probation officer. A preliminary inquiry is an obligation set by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) which states that parties shall seek to promote the establishment of law, procedures, authorities and institutions specifically applicable to children alleged as accused of, or recognised as having infringed the penal law (Gallinetti, 2009). Gallinetti further indicates that the probation officer must exempt or exclude a parent, guardian, or appropriate adult from attending assessment in certain circumstances. The role of the probation officer is to explain the purpose of assessment to the young offender and to inform him/her of his or her rights. Furthermore, the probation officer must encourage the young offender to participate in the assessment. The purposes of an assessment report in terms of Section 35 of Act NO. 75 of 2008 include the child's need for care, age estimation, previous interventions, and to determine whether the child was used by an adult to commit crime. All this is done for the best interest of the child.

In view of the above, the probation officer must complete an assessment report in a prescribed manner with recommendations in issues listed in Section 40. According to this Act, the information gathered during assessment is confidential and may not be used during the bail application, plea, trial or sentencing proceedings in which the young offender appears. The probation officer can select from the range of different actions listed in Section 9 (3) (a), which include referral to the children's court, counselling or therapy, accredited programme even that no action should be taken (Gallinetti, 2009).

2.10.1.3 Diversion programmes

The researcher believes that consideration of treatment programmes could uproot the criminal behaviour at an early stage because the effects are worse if the criminal behaviour is left untreated at an early stage. Gildenhuys (2002) defines diversion as an option available to prevent children and young people from being drawn deeper into the criminal justice system. Diversion strategies are designed to deal with a growing number of young people in conflict with the law and are practised globally, including South Africa.

South Africa describes diversion programmes in terms of the Child Justice Act No 75 of 2008. This diversion is designed to deal with children outside the criminal justice system (Keinhans, 2013). Prevention services may include activities such as substance abuse, education and treatment, family counselling, youth mentoring,

parenting education and educational support (Bartol & Bartol, 2009). The abovementioned programmes are helpful as they provide parents with facts about their children's development and guide them on how to support young people in their own development and in pursuit of opportunities.

2.11 Conclusion

This chapter gave an extent of young offender's criminal behavior. The literature reviewed has showed a link between parental practices, young offenders' criminal behaviour and positive parenting that promote positive behaviour. The focus was also on young people's criminal behaviour and its correlates, substantiating that it is not an isolated problem. The chapter also reviewed perceived risk factors, together with corresponding support factors. The discussion included a summary of the missing concepts and related approaches in existing scholarly articles and debates on young offenders' criminal behaviour and the parental influence.

In the next chapter, data presentation, analysis and interpretation of the date on the perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behavior. Literature will be used to complement and support the participant's arguments.

CHAPTER 3

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two presented a review of literature on the problem, focusing on perspective of the problem, its nature and manifestation. This chapter pays attention to data presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data of the study on perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. The chapter presents biographical data and types of crime committed by young offenders. Literature was used to complement and support the participants' arguments. The researcher applied the qualitative data analysis method. Data was transcribed verbatim using thematic content analysis following guidelines by Braun and Clarke (2006:86). The main purpose of the guidelines was to familiarise the researcher with data, to generate initial codes, search for themes, review themes, define and name themes and to produce the report. The chapter unpacks the application of stages by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) such as data reduction, data display, data transformation, data correlation, data consolidation, and data integration to manage the data.

3.2 Biographical data

The biographical data analysed statistically included the age, gender and type of crime committed by young people who participated in the study.

Table 3.1: Illustration of the age, gender and type of crime committed by young offenders

Name of participant	Age	Gender	Type of crime committed by young offender
Α	17	Male	Housebreaking and theft
В	17	Male	Assault GBH
С	17	Male	Assault GBH
D	15	Female	Theft
E	17	Male	Armed robbery
F	16	Male	Possession of dangerous weapon
G	17	Male	Murder
Н	16	Female	Theft
I	16	Male	Rape
J	17	Male	Murder
K	17	Male	Housebreaking and theft
L	16	Male	Robbery
M	17	Male	Robbery
N	17	Male	Theft
0	17	Male	Theft
Р	16	Male	Housebreaking with intent to steal and theft, car high jacking and murder

The table above depicts ages, gender and types of crime committed by the participants. The researcher did not use real names of the participants; instead, she used alphabets A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O and P. Sixteen (16) young offenders formed part of the study. Two (2) of the participants were females and thirteen (14) were males. All participants were between 13-18 years old and committed different types of crimes.

3.3 Themes

Themes were transcribed from interviews with the participants. These themes enabled the researcher to present the results of the study through presentations and discussions of categories (Clark, 2011). The themes discussed include the types and influences of crimes committed by young people, the parental influence on their criminal behaviour, and disciplinary methods applied by parents in correcting the criminal behaviour and the prevention strategies.

3.3.1. Theme 1: Types and influences of crimes committed by young people

Sarwar (2016:223) explained a criminal act committed by young people as an action that violates the law of jurisdiction. There are various factors contributing to young offenders' criminal behaviour. Singh and Kiran (2014) outline common factors contributing to young offenders' criminal behaviour, which include family, economic and psychological problems in the family, peer group influence and drug use and abuse. Amongst these factors, this study focuses on family, specifically on the impact of the parent in upbringing through perceptions of young offenders regarding parental practice as an underlying criminal behaviour.

Young people in South Africa are kept in child and youth care facilities for different crimes such as housebreaking, theft, stealing mobile cell phones, possession of stolen goods, robberies, rape, malicious damage to properties, assault with aggravating bodily harm and possession of illicit drugs, amongst others. A study conducted by Scott *et al.* (2010) and Sarwar (2016) reveals that young people who are raised by parents who do not care are usually all over the place and are vulnerable to risky behaviours. In this vein, Mary Ainwort (1989) notes that children seek care from those to whom they are attached. Children having avoided, ambivalenve and disorganised atcchemnet problems has been sown to exhibit more unacceptable behaviour (Coady and Lehnann 2017).

The main question of this theme was what the types and influence of crimes are committed by young people:

"Vhana vhatuku vha ya tswa, u binya, u fhura vhathu tshelede na u kwasha midini ya vhathu. Vhanwe vha tshimbila vhusiku vha tshi fhura vhathu thingokhwalwa na tshelede, vhanwe vha ya zwipotoni u nwa mahalwa na vhathu vhahulwane nga tshelede dza u tswa, uthwa, vhanwe vha litsha tshikolo nga nwambo wa vhugevhenga. "Young people steal, rape, rob people their money and break into people's houses. Some walk during the night, rob people of their mobile phones and money, and others go to

taverns to drink alcohol with adults using the stolen money and others leave school due to crime".

Another participant said:

"Vhana vha ita vhugevhenga vha tshi toda tshelede ya u renga zwiambaro zwa u dura na mahalwa. Vhanwe vha ita vhugevhenga nga u tama zwithu zwine khonani dzavho dza vha nazwo sa thingokhwalwa, zwiambaro zwa thengo khulu na tshelede. "Young people commit crime in need of money to buy expensive clothes and alcohol. Some are just following their friends admiring things that they have such as cell phones, expensive clothes and money and end up joining criminal activities."

Another participant gave similar sentiments:

"Vana lavantsongo va tinghenelerisa eka vugevenga bya mitlawa. Va famba va khome mabanga, va rhoba vanhu tiselifoni na mali va tlhela va va ba na ku va tsemelela hi mabanga. "Young people are engaging in gangsterism; they carry dangerous weapons and use them to rob people their mobile phones and money, they also beat and assault them with "phangas".

The findings from this question reveal that young offenders engage in different crimes such as theft, assault, robbery, substance and alcohol abuse, rape and gangsterism, amongst others. Again, young people opt to join gangs for autonomy, protection and recognition by their peers. Nevertheless, most gangs are characterised by substance abuse, violence, inappropriate sexual behaviour and crime. Therefore, there are many implications of joining gangs which can negatively affect the future of young people (Cohen, 2008). This is in line with findings by Poduthase (2012), who found that children who are exposed to these patterns of coercive interactions at home and

violence in the neighbourhood are likely to repeat them in school. This increases their risk for school failure, disrupt other learners and frustrate educators and negatively ruin their future. This ties in with ecosystem theory's argument that adoescenet need naturally uses an environment to seek pleasure and avoid pain and it upset when the environment is unfriendly or harsh. Accordingly, that can make them believe that the world is harsh and negatively affect their conduct. Many young people belives that they are victims of life and become rebellious against the society and the environment (Turner, 2017).

During the discussion, the participants revealed that most young people in their areas are enrolled in gang crimes. They allege that it is not by choice, but they are forced to join gangs for protection since gangs are rife in their areas. One participant was open to say that there was no one to protect him, and he ended up joining a gang called "Bokoharama" for protection. Again, once one joins a gang, it is not easy to come out. Densley (2013) asserts that the presence of threats, both real and perceived, increased support for gangs and enabled them to successfully persuade others that they belonged to and protected the community. Considering all statements by the participants and acknowledging the severity of gangs on young offenders, the researcher questioned the relationship between young offenders and their parents. This is due to the fact that one of the vital roles of parents is to ensure the safety and protection of their children. The question is where are the parents when children opt to join gangs for protection. Furthermore, the findings clearly show elements of neglect from most parents. Maughan and Moore (2010) and Singh and Kiran (2014) discovered that children exposed to neglect and rejection in early childhood by their parents and fellow children are more likely to display delinquent behaviour later in their adolescent stage while compared to those who were well raised. This is confirmed by attachemnet theory which reveals that inconsistence or abusive attachement figure interfrere with the development of a secure and positive internal represanative of self and others and reduces resilience in copiying with stressfull evets (Coady and Lehnann 2017). Furthermore, peer-rejected children often interact with one another or settle with antisocial peers who accept and accommodate them. The disturbing part of their interaction is that they are more likely to engage in alcohol and drug use and other range of criminal activities. The assumptions of the researcher are that those rejected peers are the ones forming those criminal gangs.

Van Staden (2015) asserts that the absence of and lack of positive communication, poor parental involvement, neglect and rejection by parents and ineffective discipline from parental figures leaves children with unsatisfied needs of belonging and supportive family relationships. Curcio *et al.* (2015) stressed that neglectful parenting increases the likelihood of young people engaging in peer group pressure. This means that a poor bond between parents and children lead to young people seeking for sense of acceptance and belonging from peer groups. Most of the groups engage in an unacceptable behaviour and criminal activities. And when they join those peer groups, they are bound to abide by group norms so that they fit in. As they are doing it as a group, they normalise the behaviour. Therefore, the researcher can be correct to say that the main contributory factor that encourages gangsterism is a poor attachment between parents and their children, which leads young people to search for a strong bond and acceptance outside. Unfortunately, they get accommodated by the negative "gangs". This finding support attachemnet theory because it suggests that maladaptive bahviour is rooted from frstartion and aner ().

In addition, there are clear indications that young people involve themselves in criminal activities. Based on the findings from the above question, crime amongst young people in Mopane and Vhembe District is rife. Most crimes are violent and life threatening, which queries issues of safety and protection amongst community members. This is because some participants reported that some crimes happened while other people are watching. Therefore, safety and protection need to be strengthened. Crime awareness and prevention strategies should be prioritised to reduce crime.

3.3.2. Theme 2: The Relationship Between Parenting and Young Offenders' Criminal Behaviour

The theme below includes views by participants about the relationship between parenting and young offenders' criminal behaviour. Participants were asked whether parenting has an influence on their criminal behaviour. They pointed out that:

"Vhabebi a vha na thuthuwedzo kha vhugevhenga ha vhana vhavho, ngauri vhabebi vha tamela vhana vhavho zwithu zwavhudi na

vhumatshelo ha khwine, nga zwenezwo vha nga si kone u tutuwedza vhana vhavho u ita vhugevhenga. di, vha nga si vha thuthuwedze u ita vhugevhenga. Vhana vha tutuwedziwa nga thangana dzavho uri vha nzhenelele kha vhugevhenga". "Parents are not influencing the criminal behaviour of their children because they want the best from them. They want them to have a better future. Thus, they cannot influence their children to commit crime. Young people are influenced by their peers to engage in crime".

Another participant said:

"Vatswari a va na nhlohlotelo eka vugevenga lebyi endliwaka hi vana va vona hikuva hi vona va tlhelaka va pfulela vana va vona milandzu ya vugevenga leswaku va khomiwa ku va ta kota ku ya tshinyiwa". "Parents are not influential in the criminal behaviour of their children because they are the ones who lay criminal charges against them so that they can be corrected ".

Another one argued:

"Vhabebi a vha na thuthuwedzo kha vhugevhenga ha vhana vhavho, ndi ngazwo vha tshi toda vhana vhavho vha tshi khakhululiwa. Thanghana dzi sa jheni tshikolo, na dzo no nwa mahalwa dzi dzone dziri na thuthuwedzo". "Parents are not influential in the criminal activities done by their children. This is the reason why they need their children to be corrected. Friends who do not attend school and abuse alcohol are the ones who influence them to commit crime".

Based on the findings of the majority of participants, parenting is not perceived to be influential in young people's criminal behaviour. Instead, a number of factors were cited. Among them, peer group pressure, gangsterism and poor social norms were

mentioned. Hoeve et al. (2009) argue that parents of young offenders are more frequently blamed for the criminal acts of their children, whereas young people's criminal behaviour can be a result of various factors, which include poverty, peer pressure and disorganised neighbourhood. Again, Van Staden (2015) gives a similar perspective, pointing out that the availability of drugs and weapons and exposure to violence and other crimes in the neighbourhood also contributes to criminal outcomes by young residents. For the researcher, involvement to criminal activities is a choice, but according to ecosysyem theory some young people are raised in families and communities characterised by violence and crime, which increases the likelihood of engaging in criminal activities (Turner, 2017). Considering the findings and literature, the researcher would like to differ with the findings from the participants. The reason being that young offenders might be incapable of understanding how family members affect each other in a reciprocal manner. This is to say that behaviours such as broken communication, indifferent discipline, and poor conflict resolutions among family members are connected to individual conduct problems. In line with the above statement, Rousseu (2015) asserts that no behaviour happens in isolation. This is to say that young offenders' criminal behaviour should be detected against the dynamics of the family system. This is the reason why Bignar (2005) argues that family dynamics such as poor communication, lax limits and poor problem-solving skills among family members can be transmitted to conduct problems or criminal behaviour. Therefore, the researcher can be correct to say that poor parenting is connected to criminal behaviour.

The following participant had a mixed response to this question:

"Vhanwe vhabebi vha nga vha vha na thuthuwedzo ngauri vha nea vhana vhavho tshelede nnzhi zwine zwa ita uri vha si tsha divha uri vha ite mini ngayo, vbha fhedza vha tshi nwa mahalwa ngayo". "Some parents might be influential because they give their children lot of money which make those children to use it in bad things such as drinking alcohol".

The findings reveal that some parents who are financial stable provide too much pocket money and give too little attention to children. The researcher's interpretation is that parents are too busy to play their parental role and opt to replace their role with money. Nevertheless, money cannot replace parental care; instead it can encourage many serious problems such as alcohol and substance abuse to the child. Substance abuse leads to many problems. This is confirmed by Curcio *et al.* (2015) and Mabasa (2018), who found that young people abusing substances are associated with school poor performance. Again, they influence risky behaviour such as unprotected sex, which can put their lives at risk of being infected with sexual transmitted infections and HIV. Furthermore, young people who use substances can become addicted, and commit crimes to sustain their additions since they are unemployed. Moreover, young people who abuse substances are uncontrollable and violent; they are more likely to disrespect educators, to disrupt other learners and to engage in violent crimes such as assault with GBH, which leads to criminal convictions, and impair their future.

Another participant gave a different perspective, arguing as follows:

"Vatswari va na nhlohlotelo eka vugevenga bya vana va vona hikuva van'wana va amukela swilo swo yiviwa emakaya ya vona. Mi kuma n'wana a vuya na khomphuta, kumbe selifoni, kumbe mali, va tsaka hi swona va tlhela va nga vutisi nchumu. Sweswo swi endla leswaku vana va ya emahlweni va endla vugevenga hikuva ku hava munhu loyi a va tshinyaka eka mahanyelo ya vona". "Parents are influential in the criminal behaviour of their children because some parents accept stolen things at their homes. Some children bring items such as computers, cell phones and money, and their parents allow that and never asked where those things are coming from. This makes these children to continue with crime because there is no one who cares about what they do".

Another participant shared a similar sentiment, with the above by saying that:

"Ina, vhanwe vhabebi vha tsireledza vhugevhenga ha vhana vhavho nga u vha imelela musi vho khakha vha dovha vha lifha zwithu zwo tshinyiwaho nga vhana vhavho, vha tshi fhedza vha dovha vha si vha kaidze, vhutshilo ha ya phanda, nga zwezwo zwi ita uri vhana vha ise phanda na vhugevhenga vha tshi divha uri vhabebi vhavho vha do vha imelela". "Yes some parents protect the criminal behaviour of their children by sitting with their wrongdoings and paying damages. After paying damages, they do not discipline them, life goes on. As a result, their children continue with their criminal behaviour knowing that their parents will protect them".

The findings clearly indicate that some parents are not taking control of their children's behaviour. Poduthase (2012) stresses that parents who do not have any control over their children inside and outside the home may influence criminal tendencies. For example, ignoring criminal behaviour, poor parental control over their children or being unprepared to address criminal behaviours when acknowledged clearly encourages criminal behaviour.

Curcio *et al.* (2015) reveals that some parents paddle for their children irrespective of what they did, thinking that it is their individual rights to be protected, overlooking the same deliberation to the other part. By so doing, their children recognise that they can get away with their wrongdoings as their parents defend them regardless of what they have done. Consequently, these young people lack a sense of accountability and empathy. Again, they fail to realise the impact of their behaviour towards other people. Therefore, parents should be concerned when they observe criminal behaviour amongst their children. They should take charge and have willingness to address the behaviour. By so doing, delliquency can be controlled and reduced and young people can be protected.

Other participants indicated that parents are influential because they protect the wrongdoings of their children, and in certain circumstances, pay damages. Halpenny *et al.* (2010) discovered that parents who apply permissive parenting styles are overprotective and less likely to discipline their children. By so doing, their children feel

loved. Nevertheless, permissive parenting styles are linked to criminal behaviour since it does not correct but encourage wrongdoing.

One of the participants said:

Vatswari va na nhlohlotelo hikuva loko n'wana a dyohile va tshika ku n'wi endlela timfanelo, a boheka ku tiphandhela hi tindlela ta vugevenga". "Parents are influential because when a child misbehaves, they stop providing for him, which leads the child to crime".

From the interview, the majority of participants reported experiencing yelling and increase use of shouting. Some were told that they would not be loved, others were threatened with smacking or were slapped. Some parents refused to speak to their children, others stopped providing needs such as clothes to their children. The researchers believe that love-withdrawal strategies such as ignoring or avoiding the child could not resolve the problem but promotes problematic behaviour. This is because young people cannot survive without the above basic needs (clothes, love), and if are denied, they will go out to search for it and accidentally get hooked to criminal activities. A study conducted by Halpenny (2010) reveals that some parents suffered from coercive parenting and have a tendency of adopting and of continuing with coercive disciplinary strategies that they experienced in their own childhood with their children. Related to this view, attachement theory reveals that children who experienced insecured attachment with their primary care givers are more likely to experience multiple problematic behaviour such as inner related problems and problems in giving and receiving attachment security (Coady and Lehmann, 2017). This theory further shows that attachement base family therapy play a vital role on buffing relationship against the rsik of adolescence depression or other behavioural problems.

Another participant put it:

"Vatswari va na nhlohlotelo eka vugevenga, ku fana na vatswari va mina loko ndzi kombela ku xaveriwa swiambalo va ndzi tshembhisa va tlhela va nga ndzi xaveli. Loko ndzi va tsundzuxa va ndzi jikajika, kumbe va ndzi karihela va tlhela va ndzi godela. Kutani ke, ndzi kale ndzi sungula ku yiva hi ku navela van'wana loko va ambele kahle." "Parents are influential in criminal behaviour. Like my parents, when I ask them to buy me clothes, they promise me and never buy me. When I remind them, they give excuses. Sometimes they become very harsh, then I decided to steal by admiring my friends when wearing nice clothes".

Based on this finding, some parents do not fulfil the needs of their children and they do not come up with reasons why they fail to provide. Looking at attachment theory, the most behavioural problems are derived from failures of the caregiver relationship in the early years to meet the childs needs for national security, comfornt and protection (Coady and Lehnann, 2017: 159). Thus, the parent-child relationship gets affected. Gould and Ward (2018:2) assert that parents living in poverty are more likely to be inconsistent and harsh in their responses. This kind of parenting confuses young people and they perceive parents' behaviour as neglect. Hence, neglect is associated with criminal behaviour. Fafchampus and Minten (2005) stress that poverty can be a hindrance in parenting and can reduce parental willingness to be involved in control of their children. To prevent crime, parents living in poverty should come out clear with their children and explain to them their circumstances to help them to adjust and to stay away from trouble.

3.3.3. Theme 3: The impact of absence of boundaries and limits in child-rearing

In many cultures, the family has been the central socialising institution responsible for inspiring young people with a set of norms, values, beliefs and ideals. The failure of families to accomplish this task may result in serious consequences for the children as well as for the society at large (Poduthase, 2012). Within the family, the most

important roles are played by the parent include providing for the needs, safety and security, setting boundaries and monitoring the whereabouts of the children (Lee, 2012). As indicated earlier, setting boundaries is an important tool for families. Its purpose is to protect all family members and the community at large. Rules also help in the self-regulation and the healthy development of children. Furthermore, family rules are meant for children to establish consistent guidelines that can help them know what is and what is not expected of them. Again, boundaries can assist in building life skills that include problem-solving, responsibility, self-discipline and impulse control. Van Staden (2015) points out that setting limits for some parents is a challenge. Consequently, some parents make up the rules as they go through each day. In addition, they are comfortable to apply rules for their children at an early childhood stage and become uncertain during the adolescent stage.

Participants were asked about the first place where children learn good behaviour and on how the rules were set to guide young people's behaviour by parents. Below are their responses:

"Ndhawu yo sungula yo dyondzela kona mahanyelo ya kahle hi le kerekeni hikuva vafundhisi va dyondzisa vanhu ku hanyisana kahle, na le Sunday school vana va dyondzisiwa mahanyelo lamanene yo fana na ku xixima lavakulu na ku chava ku endla leswo biha. Na le xikolweni ku na milawu leyi va yi vekaka leswaku hi yi landzelela leswaku hi kota ku hanya kahle na vadyondzi lavan'wana, hi tlhela hi hlonipha vadyondzisi."

"The first place to learn good conduct is at church; because posters teach people good behaviour even in Sunday schools children are taught good manners such as respecting adults and avoiding sinning. Even at schools, there are rules established for learners to follow so that they interact well with other learners and respect educators".

From the above responses, the researcher has observed lack of or absence of clear rules in some families. Van Staden (2015) clearly indicates that lack or absence of limits can influence criminal behaviour among young people. This is because children

become impulsive without rules to guide them. Rules enforce discipline within the household for young people's behaviour. Therefore, rules are important protective factors regarding criminal behaviour amongst children.

The research also observed the authoritarian parenting style as some participants revealed that rules are not discussed in their homes. Batool (2012) discovered that authoritarian parents impose strict rules and limits to their children without discussing with them. Disputing this type of parental practice, Poduthase (2012) stresses that this parenting style can succeed during the childhood stage but fail during the adolescent stage. This is because the adolescent stage is a stage where young people strive for more independence, and authoritarian parents are more likely to clash with their children. In this context, parental influence among young people is mostly seen as a matter of concern. In this regard, rules should be established and discussed with children. Again, these rules should be healthy, clear and reasonable. Parents should ensure their implementation. Rules from school and church are acknowledged but should just be supplement (Harris-Meckey, 2010).

One participant gave a different account and said:

Vhana vha guda mikhwa yavhudi hayani. Vhabebi vha vha gudisa thonifho na mikhwa yavhudi. Na kerekeni vha ri funza thonifho na mikhwa yavhudi. Vha ri funza uri u tswa ndi tshivhi nahone ri songo tswa. Ri guda na mikhwa yavhudi tshikoloni musi vhadededzi vha tshi ri vhalela uri ri kone u tshila zwavhudi na vhanwe"." Children learn good behaviour at home. Parents teach their children respect and good behaviour. Even at church they teach us to respect and to behave well. They teach us that stealing is a sin and we must not steal. We also learn about good conduct at school. Teachers read for the use of code of conduct so that we interact well with other learners".

The above statement is evidence that some parents are setting rules to guide their children. As eluded earlier, rules should be set, and parents should ensure their

implementation. This is because during the interviews with the above participants, the researcher observed that rules are there but lax, and there are elements of poor supervision and monitoring, since the young person is aware of the rules but easily manipulates and breaks them. Thus, rules are protective methods of unacceptable behaviour. Parents should be consistent and firm with them.

3.3.3.1 How are rules established by parents?

The themes below include responses based on how rules are established by parents in managing the behaviour of young offenders. The information discussed below reflects the responses of the participants:

"Ekaya kokwana va tshama na mina ehansi va ndzi laya, va ndzi byela leswaku ndzi dyondza xikolo, ndzi papalata vanghana lovo biha ndzi tlhela ndzi hlonipha munhu un'wana na un'wana, ku katsa na lontsongo eka mina". "My grandmother discusses rules with me. She encourages me to attend school and to avoid negative friends and to respect all people regardless of age".

The participants were probed to check the fairness of rules. One participant said:

"Milawu leyi kokwana va ndzi nyikaka yona ya twisiseka naswona ndza swi lava ku yi landzelela, kambe ku xanisiwa exikolweni swi endlile ndzi tikuma ndzi nghenelela eka tigenge leswaku ndzi ta kota ku tisirhelela". "The rules established by my grandmother are clear and reasonable and I really want to follow them. However, the bullying that I get at school made me break those rules in order to protect myself".

Another participant gave a similar view, indicating that:

"Mme anga vho thoma u mmbetshela milayo musi vha tshi vhona ndi tshi thoma u tshimbila na khonani mmbi vhane vha ya dzikilabani dza vhusiku. Vho mmbudza uri ndi tea u vha ndi hayani nga 6 ya madekawana". "My mother imposed rules for me and when she realised that I am going out with bad friends who go for night clubs. She then told me that I must be at home by 6pm".

Another participant shared similar sentiments:

"Mina vatswari va mina va vulavula na mina loko ndzi endlile xihoxo va ndzi kombisa vubihi bya ku famba vusiku." "My parents talk to me when I did something wrong and show me the consequences of my wrongdoings".

The researcher's assumption is that rules are significant in child-rearing. It is through rules that children learn and develop patterns of positive behaviour, norms, morals and values to consider when faced with the external world. For example, a study conducted by Van Staden (2015) strongly relates the lack of rules with a high level of behavioural problems in young people. This means that when rules are not well established, children are likely to encounter greater challenges in their external world, and they can be easily influenced by their peers. Therefore, the absence of, or poor rules contribute to the involvement in criminal behaviour.

The researcher's argument is that parents cannot just expect good behaviour; they need to set rules and be willing to discuss and explain the reason behind these rules by giving clarity on why these rules were established. Giving children an opportunity to express their opinions and feelings form part of decisions for the issues that affect their lives and could make them take ownership and embrace those rules with a pride. Again, the researcher stresses that rules should serve for both preventive and intervention strategies (Patridge, 2010). Waiting for misconduct creates conflict between the child and parent because parents are more likely to use force when under pressure, and children are more likely to react negatively to harsh punishment, which can be perceived as disobedience by the parents (Pastorelli *et al.*, 2016).

3.3.4. Theme 4: Disciplinary measures used by parents to young offenders

There are healthy and unhealthy disciplinary strategies. Healthy disciplinary strategies include modelling desired behaviour, applying natural and logical consequences, listening attentively, noticing positive behaviour, setting an example, and reassuring children that they will be always loved even when they make mistakes and poor choices. Unhealthy disciplinary strategies include threats, shaming, rigidity, spanking and pointing out negative behaviour which fosters dishonesty to avoid consequences (Postorelli *et al.* 2016; Harris-Meckey, 2016).

During the 1960's, the psychologist Diana Baumrind identified imperative dimensions of parenting, including authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting, which directly affects children's behaviour (Cherry, 2015). This study further explains that most parents apply one of the four mentioned parenting styles. All these four parenting styles reflect on different occurring patterns of parental practices, behaviours and values and different balance of demandingness and responsiveness. The participants were asked about the kind of disciplinary measures parents apply in controlling criminal behaviour.

One participant asserted:

"Musi ndo khakha mme anga vha thoma nga u amba na nne zwavhuqi, vha ntsumbedza masiandaitwa a vhuqifari hanga, musi ndi tshi khakha lwa vhuvhili kanzhi vha a sinyuwa, vha nthwa vha tshi khou ntsema". "When I misbehave, my mother firstly talks to me and shows me the negative outcomes of my behaviour. When I misbehave for the second time, she swears and mostly she becomes angry as it is not the first time to reprimand me".

Views stated by another participant are as follows:

"Tatana loko va ha hanya a va ndzi ba loko ndzi endla swo huma edleleni, mhani va ndzi chava. Loko tatana va ndzi bile a ndzi yima ku endla swo huma endleleni mavhikinyana, kambe endzhaku ka nkarhi, ndzi rivala ndzi tlhela ndzi tlhelela. Va lo na lova se ndzo sala ndzi endla hi ku rhandza hikuva mhani va ndzi chava se ndza swi tiva leswaku a va nga ndzi endli nchumu"." My father used to beat me when I misbehave when he was still alive. After punishment, I used to stop misconduct for a while, but later forgot and went back to the behaviour. After his death, I started doing as I wished since my mother was scared of me and I knew that she would not do anything".

"Tatana va ndzi ba loko ndzi endla swo huma endleleni. A va na karhi wo twisisa ku ku humelele yini". "My father beats me when I misbehave, he has no time to understand what happened".

It was clear from the interview that most participants are reared by authoritarian parents. This is because the majority of these participants reported the use of physical punishment and extraordinary strictness. These insights collaborate with the attachment theory which reveals that a child is biologically programmed to seek care from the care giver. Thus, in the case of fear the child do whatever it takes to mainatain the relationship with an attachment figure even if an attachment figure is a source of fear (Coady and Lehmann, 2017). In line with this finding and the theory a study conducted by Batool (2012) asserts that authoritarian parents tend to control and exercise too much power for the development of their children, hence, young offenders negatively perceive it as restrictions. Waller et al. (2012) show that children who are physically abused are more likely to be aggressive. Aggression can be used for violent crimes such as malicious damage to property and assault. This is confirmed by a study conducted by Tough (2016), who argues that physical punishment engenders aggression to children. The researcher's interpretation is that physical punishment is highly preferred as it appears to stop undesired behaviour immediately. Nevertheless, parents ignore the fact that the results are temporary because children tend to forget and repeat the very same undesired behaviour. For the researcher, they might be repeating the behaviour not because they are disobedient, but because the behaviour was not clearly addressed to help them understand its impact on their lives so that they avoid it with understanding. Furthermore, physical punishment possesses a psychological impact to young people as they develop mixed negative feelings such as fear, anger, sadness and frustrations (Currie & Tekin, 2006; Gamez-Guadix *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, the selfesteem of physically abused children is affected. Either they become more aggressive or passive, which makes them vulnerable to crime. In support of the above, Onder and Yilman (2012) stress that physical punishment teaches children that it is okay to hurt other people, and hurting others is a crime. Therefore, this is a confirmation that physical punishment is associated with child criminal behaviour.

This might be the main reason why it was abolished.

In addition, most participants described their fathers as intolerant when dealing with the undesired behaviour of their children as compared with their mothers. In line with these findings, Poduthase (2012) confirmed that most fathers are not well prepared in parenting. Consequently, they opt not to talk to their children when they have committed offences. They either physically punish them or chase them out of their home. From the findings, the researcher observed that most fathers shift their parental roles, and when the behaviour of the children become uncontrollable, they become harsh. The researcher stresses that, like mothers, fathers should take full responsibility for the upbringing of their children. When parenting is done jointly, it can produce positive outcomes.

More prominent variance emerges when we compare the findings from theme two with the correct findings. This is because in theme two, the majority of participants indicated that parents are not influential in their criminal behaviour, whereas their disciplinary measures as per findings in theme 4 clearly reveals how parenting influences criminal behaviour. This is contradiction because parents do not want their children to be engaged in criminal activities, whilst their parenting styles mould and shape the behaviour of their children to be rebellious and violent. Scott *et al.* (2010) stressed that poor parenting is a major influence of young people's criminal behaviour. This remains true even after a range of other contributory factors were considered. Scott *et al.* (2010) stress that poor parental attachment, lack of parental involvement, lack of parental monitoring, strict and harsh punishment and poor disciplinary practices are major risk factors of young people's criminal behaviour. Considering both findings and literature, the researcher believes that proper parenting can equip young people with skills to face, challenge and overcome all other mentioned factors. In support of this statement,

Poduthase (2012) argues that young people who receive positive parenting can face and overcome other influences.

Participants opened up a number of issues in their responses to the question:

"Vhanwe vhabebi vha rambela vhana vhavho gogo musi vho khakha. Gogo li a tuwa nae la mu rwa nga zwihali u swika a tshi huvhala la mu sia o ralo." "Some parents called a mob to attack their children when they have done something wrong. The mob took him away and assaulted him with weapons until he got injured and they left him alone".

As can be seen, the responses to the question were quite mixed. However, the above response provides a sense of the severity of the problem. By implication, the overwhelming responses above were that some parents lack parenting skills to an extent that they delegate other people to play their role in a negative manner, which results in loss of lives. This sounds horrible and should be corrected. A study conducted by Poduthase (2012) reveals that parents who were maltreated by their parents in their upbringing are more likely to abuse their children. Nevertheless, the researcher stresses that this is a crime that should be condemned since there are various institutions that deal with young people with challenging behaviour. Parents rather refer their children to probation officers, or lay charges in police stations where proper ways of corrections should be followed, rather than handing them over to death or chasing them away into the streets. This shows that many parents do not have parenting skills or just do not know how to be proper parents. Therefore, a programme is a requirement to equip parents with proper parenting skills.

Some participants made the following assertions:

"Mme anga vha a ntsema vha dovha vha nzima zwiliwa arali ndo khakha". "When I do something wrong, my mother curses me and denies me food".

The experience shared by the above young offender reveals that some parents use emotional abuse to deal with unacceptable behaviour. The researcher regards emotional abuses as dangerous since they cannot be visually seen whist inflicting severe pain to victims. Again, it is dangerous to children since they cannot detect its impact on their well-being, while growing internally and affecting their behaviour, which manifests itself in interactions with other children and becomes more serious during the adolescent stage (Maughan & Moore, 2010; Masilo, 2012). Lee (2012) found that young people raised from dysfunctional families characterised by domestic violence and child abuse internalise the acceptability of violence, verbal and emotional ways of interactions. Consequently, they frequently hurt other children thinking that the behaviour is normal and acceptable. Therefore, parents should consider disciplinary methods that promote positive behaviour. The researcher recommends parenting styles that involve caring relationships, positive and high expectations, opportunities for meaningful participation and external protective factors (Poduthase, 2012).

3.3.4.1. Disciplinary measures that young offenders are or not in support of.

Participants were asked about disciplinary measures that they are in support of and those that they are not in support of. Below are the responses from the participants:

"Ku bukutela n'wana a swi pfuni nchumu hikuva loko a nga lavi ku cinca a nge cinci hi ku bukuteriwa. Xo antswa i ku tirhisa marito, marito ya vava ku tlula nkhavi, ku biwa swo vava swa nkarhinyana wolowo ivi munhu a tlhela a rivala, kambe marito a ya suki emiehleketweni, u tshama u ri karhi u ma tsundzuka." "Smacking a child does not help because if the child does not want to change, she will not change. It is better to use words, words are painful than a rout, the pain heals but work remains forever".

Another participant shared a similar view and said:

"Mina ndzi alelana na mhaka ya ku tirhisela n'wana matimba.
Ndzi vona onge a swi pfuni nchumu hikuva loko a tshamela ku
bukuteriwa swi fika laha a tolovelaka ivi a nga ha twi. Mhaka ya
kahle i ku va vatswari va tshama hansi va vulavurisana na vana
va vona, va va kombisa vubihi na switandzhaku hi ndlela ya

kahle". "I differ with the power assertion in dealing with misconduct. I think it does not help because if a parent always uses power to address the behaviour, the child becomes used and stops complaining. I suggest that parents should discuss good behaviour with their children and show them its effects".

Another one said:

"Nne ndi vhona u ambedzana na ńwana zwi zwone zwavhudi. Ńwana u tea u vbhudziwa maisandoitwa a kutshilele kwawe kwa vhugevhenga." "I think open communication is the right approach. The child needs to be told about the effects of criminal behaviour".

Musi vhabebi vha tshi ambedzana na nwana zwi ita uri nwana a pfe a tshi khou funiwa, nahone zwi a mu tutuwedza u shandukisa vhuqifari hawe vhuvha. "By doing so, the child will feel loved, and this will encourage him or her to change from the misconduct. I differ with physically abusing that child. This will make the child to feel bad and rejected by parents".

Another participant said:

"Ndi hanedzana na u shengedza nwana nga u mu rwa, izwo zwi ita uri nwana a dipfe a si wavhudi nahone o latelwa nga vhabebi."
"I oppose child abuse in the form of physical punishment. This makes the child feel unloved and rejected by parents".

Based on the findings, the majority of participants are not in favour of physical punishment, but they prefer positive discipline. In support of the participants, the researcher emphasises positive parenting training in replacement of coercive parenting. The reason is that some parents might not be deliberately abusing their children but not aware or exposed to the other methods, meaning that punishment might be the only method they know (Ntshangase, 2015).

Some participants gave their views in support of punishment and argued:

"Ndi tendelana na maitele oţhe, a u rwa na u dzima zwiliwa. Musi nwana o rwiwa kana o dzimiwa zwiliwa u a kona u humbula a zwi vhona uri zwine a khou tshilisa zwone a si zwavhudi a kona u shanduka. Nwana a khakha a si itiwe tshithu a nga si zwi vhone uri u khou khakha, u do isa phanda na kutshilele kusi kwavhudi, riwana u tea u rwiwa arali o khakha". "I agree with the methods of beating and denial of food. When the child is physically punished, or denied food, he or she can realise that his or her behaviour is out of hand and will change. If a child misbehaves and not punished, he or she will never realise his wrongdoing; he will continue with his wrongdoing.

The child must be beaten when he did something wrong".

Few participants believe that punishment can stop the criminal behaviour of young offenders. The researcher disagrees with these findings because it has clearly proven that physical punishment produces temporary results whilst worsening the situation (Gamez-Gaudix *et al.*, 2010). This is because there are some stages where parents are unable to punish their children due to the age of the child and this gives the child freedom to do as he or she wishes since punishment can no longer be applicable.

3.3.4.2. How do young offenders perceive and react to physical punishment used by parents in controlling their criminal behaviour?

Physical punishment is illegal in many countries such as Sweden and Australia, including South Africa (Gamez-Gaudix *et al.*, 2010; Halpenny, 2010; Ntshangase, 2015). By comparison, a study conducted by Ntshangase (2015) indicates that young people's criminal behaviour has escalated since the beginning of democracy in 1994. This is because physical punishment was banned, and it was the main intervention strategy against criminal behaviour, thus making a bad situation worse.

Participants were asked about how they react to physical punishment used by their parents in controlling their criminal behaviour. In their responses, they shared the following:

"Ku ba n'wana loko a dyohile a hi ku ololoxa xiphiqo hikuva loko a tshamela ku biwa swi fika laha a nga ha tweki, a tlhela a nyanya ku endla leswi a beriwaka swona hikuva u va a nga wu chavi nkhavi. Vatswari a va tirhisi tin'wana tindlela ta ku lulamisa vana va vona ku nga ri ku va ba. Va nga vulavurisana na vona kumbe va kombela van'wana va va pfuna". "Beating a child for wrongdoing is not a solution because a child can get used to the pain and continue with the wrongdoing. Parents must look for other methods of correcting the misconduct of their children, maybe communication can help".

Another participant said:

"U semiwa zwi a kwatisa, zwi nanisa kutshilele ku si kwavhudi ngauri kanzhi nwana a tshi semiwa u nanga u isa phanda na kutshilele ku si kwavhudi nga u humbula uri vhabebi a vha na ndavha nae". "Cursing triggers anger and influences negative behaviour, because when a child is cursed, he or she opposes the parents' instruction, thinking that parents do not care about him or her".

One participant shared his experience based on the reaction of young offenders towards physical punishment:

"Vhanwe vhana vha ya dilifhedzela, sa tsumbo hune nne nda dzula hone munwe nwana o panga vhabebi vhawe nga ngomu ha thannge la madi e na khonani dzawe, vha vha fhisela nga ngomu vha lovha, a tshi khou dilifhedzela ngauri vho vha vho mu vhidzela tshitshavha tsha mu rwa o vha khakhela. O vha o fariwa

fhedza mulandu wa hone a wo ngo ya kule ngauri o dzula dzhele lwa tshifhinganyana a fhedza o bvisiwa." "Some children pay revenge. For example, in my area a certain child together with his friends put his parents inside a water tank and burn them to death. This was revenge after they had called a mob to attack him. He got arrested and later released. He did not stay long in prison".

Another one said:

"Ku ba n'wana swi n'wi endla leswaku a ehleketa swilo swo ka swi nga ri kahle. A tlhela a ya avelana xiphiqo xa yena na vanghana va yena. Vanghana lava va n'wi hlohlotela leswaku a ya emahlweni a hambuka leswaku a va nga karhali ku n'wi ba xana. Hi ku vona ka mina a swi pfuni nchumu swo nyanyisa xiphiqo swi tlhela swi onha vuxaka exikarhi ka n'wana na mutswari." "Physical punishment influences negative thoughts. It also makes a child to go out and share the problem with friends, who will encourage the misconduct opposing and challenging the parents to see if they will not give up on punishing them".

Larzelere (2005) and de Haan and Dekoric (2010) revealed that physical punishment is associated with violent behaviour. In line with the findings and the literature, the researcher's interpretation is that parents might be punishing their children with positive motives, obviously enforcing good behaviour. However, the findings reveal that the message that parents are trying to send to their children is not the one received. Participants were asked how they have felt after being smacked by their parents. They reported that after punishment, they become afraid of their parents. Another said that they feel unloved, whilst others indicated that they feel unsafe and had to defend themselves. Others said that they felt bad, useless, unloved and rejected. Attch From the findings, the researcher observed that physical punishment is not perceived as a form of correction but rejection, which is linked to criminal behaviour. Again, young people interpret physical punishment as an attack, which means they had to defend themselves. As a result, they negatively react to physical

punishment. This is supported by a study conducted by Hapenny *et al.* (2010), which found that children respond to physical punishment in the form of non-compliance, disobedience, stubbornness, rebellion, touching or playing with forbidden objects. This is done with the intent to hurt a parent or as a response to physical punishment.

All these responses clearly show that physical punishment defeats the purpose, corrects or transforms the behavioural problems of young offenders. Instead, it inflicts fear, stubbornness, anger and aggression and severely destroys the parentchild bond, attachment or affection to the point where the child becomes unconscious and harmfully revenges the parents (Currie and Tekin, 2006).

Overall, this means that young people reared by authoritarian, neglectful and permissive parents have a greater risk of being influenced to participate in criminal acts than those reared using other authoritative parenting styles. Hence, inconsistent discipline, harsh punishment and detachment are major predictors of young people's criminal behaviour. In addition, studies conducted by Roche *et al.* (2010) and Smokowski *et al.* (2015) reveal that neglectful parents show less interest to what their children do, keep themselves busy and fail to create time for their children and apply poor disciplinary measures.

3.3.5. Theme 5: Positive parenting and child outcomes

The participants were asked about how responsive parenting contributes to their positive behaviour. They explained that:

"Makurisele lamanene ya vana i ku va vatswari va endlela vana va vona timfanelo, va va xavela swakudya leswi eneleke. Va va xavela na swiambalo swa kahle va tlhela va va hlohlotela ku dyondza xikolo na ku ya ekerekeni. Makurisele lawa ya nga pfuna vana ku va hanya kahle va tlhela va papalata na vanghana vo nwa byalwa na ku endla vugevenga. Leswi swi ta va tano hikuva timfanelo ta vona ti ta va ti ri karhi ti fikeleriwa. Vanghana va vona va nge swi koti ku va yenga ku ya eku yiveni hikuva va ta va va ri na swilo swa vona". "Positive parenting includes

buying enough food, clothes and encourages children to attend school and church services. This kind of parenting can help children behave well and avoid negative friends who consume alcohol and commit crime because their need will be met adequately. Friends will not easily influence them to steal because all their needs will be met".

Developing maturity and self-confidence are some of the strength of positive parenting. In the light of interviews conducted as well as literature reviewed from a study conducted by Sarwar (2016), it can be stated that authoritative parenting style is more appropriate for young offenders as it nurtures self-regulation and selfconfidence to control criminal behaviour. This is because there is a balance in level of demands and level of communication, and effective communication builds effective parent-child relationship, which can be a source of crime prevention amongst children. This is supported by the attachment theory which argues that secured attachment implies the role of prevetion of young people criminal behaviour. It encourages young people to identify internal and external factors involved in the offending process and avoid offending (Turner, 2017).

The majority of participants supported Authoritative parents. Pastorelli *et al.* (2016) reveals that authoritative parent is determining with rules associated with family, while encouraging their children to consider them as a resource. Furthermore, parents encourage their children to follows the rules in line with family values and embrace it for their benefit, while discourage them children from following the rules and standards of the society. In support of the above, Waller *et al.* (2012) and David *et al.* (2014) assert children experienced positive parenting avoids risky sexual practices, crime and violence. In relation to the findings and literature form the above scholars, the researcher believes that authoritarian parenting can reduce young people's criminal behaviour since is child centred not parent centred and, in this regard, the child is the most affected. The researcher emphasised that an awareness campaign based on the benefits of authoritative parenting should be conducted in the community. This will help parents discover their wrongs doing in child-rearing and opt for better methods as they care and love their children.

One participant said:

"Vatswari va fanele ku vulavurisana kahle na vana va vona loko va dyohile, va tshika ku va bukutela hikuva loko va va bukutela vana va vona onge vatswari va vona a va va rhandzi hikokwalaho va tilanwa, va hanya va nga ha ri na mhaka na nchumu hi ku ehleketa leswaku ku hava munhu loyi a va rhandzaka." Parents should use inductive reasoning and stop smaking their children because smacking makes them feel rejected and leads to self-rejection and start becoming careless by thinking that no one cares about them".

A participant shared his views as follows:

"Vhabebi vhatea u itela vhana vhavho pfanelo, arali vha tshi khou baleliwa vha ambe ngoho hu si u fhulufhedzisa vhana zwithu zwine zwa do vha balela, u zwifhela nwana zwi ita u ri nwana a si tsha fulufhela mubebi, nahone zwi tshinya vhushaka vhukati ha nwana na mubebi". "Parents should meet the needs of their children. If they cannot afford it, they should communicate with their children and tell them the truth rather than give them empty promises and lying to them. Dishonesty destroys trust and affects the parent-child relationship".

Another one said that:

"Vhabebi vha tea u vha na nyambedzano na vhana vhavho musi vho khakha. A vho ngo tea u vhidzela vhana vhavho gogo musi o khakha a vha tou mu kaidza vhone vhane nga u tou amba naye hu si u mu rwa kana u mu pandela, u vhidzela riwana gogo zwi tou fana na u tou mu vhulaya ngauri a vha divhi uri vhala vhathu vha nga shumisa zwihalide musi vha tshi kho u rwa riwana. Zwi vha zwi khagala uri vhabebi vha vha vha si tsha funa riwana wavho". "Parents should communicate with their children when they misbehave rather than

calling a mob or chase them away. Calling a mob for the child is like killing him because they do not know what those people will use to attack their child. It becomes clear that parents no longer need their child".

The responses from the participants confirm that positive parenting is highly preferred by young people. Again, it is described as appropriate for young offenders. This sentiment is also echoed by attachemnet theory which shows that children who are classified as secured are found to be more competent, empathetic and happier (Coady and Lehnann, 2016:163). In line with the findings Salari, Ralph and Sanders (2014) confirm that a positive parenting style encourages an open mind personality and ensures independence through demands (Partridge, 2010). This parenting style encourages patience by parents and a clear explanation of the consequences of an action to the child. Furthermore, an authoritative parenting style discourages parents from using power and to avoid implementation of force over their children. Even though this parenting style discourages parents from using power, parents can exert firm control in a child through rules and standards. This means that a parent can exert control and use power by setting standards to prevent the continuation of misconduct. The researcher fully supports the use of this parenting method and strongly believes that it can give positive outcomes.

During the discussion with the participants, the researcher observed mixed feelings from some participants, as to which parenting style is most suitable for young offenders. Nonetheless, most participants were in favour of positive parenting whilst the minority indicated that young offenders are the most challenging type to nurture, and are of the view that forceful control, special attention and close supervision can be appropriate in controlling their behaviour. In summary, the majority of participants described the authoritative parenting style as suitable in dealing with young offenders. Others said that parents should apply both authoritarian and authoritative parenting style because both are suitable in dealing with young offenders (Roche *et al* 2010; Waller *et al.*, 2012).

3.3.5.1 Prevention and intervention strategies in young offenders' criminal behaviour

The participants were asked about intervention strategies that can address and prevent young offenders' criminal behaviour. One participant stated that:

"Mina ndzi vona onge loko vana vo hlohloteriwa ku nghena xikolo, ku tlhela ku va na tindhawu ta mitlangu na vuhungasi loko xikolo xi humile vugevenga a byi ta hungutana. Hikuva loko hi za hi vuya exikolweni, ho bereheka hi nga tivi na ku hi endla yini, loko hi twa music wu ba a thavhene hi ya kona, se hi tikuma hi ri karhi hi nwa mabyalwa na lavakulu". "I think that children can be encouraged to go to school and to recreation structures where they can go after school for sports activities. Crime can be reduced".

The majority of participants believe that education, churches and sports activities can play a part in crime prevention. Mabasa (2018) stresses that disadvantaged communities that lack recreational facilities and resources open a gap for young people engaging in criminal activities since they will not be occupied by positive things. In agreement with the findings and the above study, young people from disadvantaged communities are unoccupied after school hours since there are no places where they can go to interact with one another. They end up keeping themselves busy with negative things, which include crime. The researcher strongly agrees with the findings and the literature. The reason being that all the above institutions are characterised by positive values that encourage positive behaviour. Apart from this, these institutions also play a huge role in the physical, mental and psychological well-being of the child. This is relavent to ecosystem theory because it can play a vital role by assessing an environmental risk factors and establish programmes aimed at reducing criminal behaviour (Dembo et al, 2011).

Furthermore, ecosystem theory increases an awareness of climate change and other global survival threats.

Another participant said:

"Mina ndzi vona onge loko vatswari a vo hunguta ku nwa mabyalwa va endlela vana va vona timfanelo, vugevenga a byi ta hungutana"." If parents can stop abusing alcohol and meet the needs of their children, crime can be reduced".

This finding reveals that there are parents who are financial stable but addicted to alcohol, which compromises the needs and well-being of their children. "In line with these findings, the researcher is of the view that this parental behaviour strongly correlates with young people's criminal behaviour. In support of the above statement, Capaldi (2008) and Masilo (2012) indicated that parents who abuse substances are more likely to neglect the needs of their children, whilst sustaining their addiction".

3.3.5.2 Is it important for parents to receive parenting training programmes in child-rearing?

Below are responses from the participants on the issue of parenting programmes:

"A hu na pfumbudzo ine ya nga imisa vhana u ita zwa vhugevhenga, vhana vha to nanga u dzhenelela kha vhugevhenga, zwo ralo vhupfumbudzi vhu nga si thuse tshithu, vhabebi kha vha kaidze vhone vhana zwa bala vha zwi litshe." "There is no training that can stop children from committing crime. Children choose to involve themselves in crime. Therefore, training will not help, and parents must discipline their children. If they do not listen, they must leave them".

When probed and asked what can be done to help young offenders out of crime, he responded:

"Vhana kha vha tou kaidziwa nga u tou ambiwa navho vhanwe khamusi vha nga pfesesa vha shanduka, vha sa pfesesi vha litshiwe vha do divhonela". "Children should be disciplined through communication. Maybe some will understand and

change from their wrongdoings. Those who do not change shall suffer the consequences of their actions".

Another participant gave a different view and said:

"Vatswari hinkwavo va fanele ku leteriwa makurisele ya vana. Sweswo swi ta va pfuna leswaku va kota ku kurisa vana va vona kahle hikuva va ta dyondza na mavulavulelo ya kahle na vana va vona. Naswona loko vana va kurisiwa kahle va ta kota ku hanya kahle va fambela ekule na vugevenga". "All parents shall receive training on parenting that will equip them with communication skills to improve their parenting. When children are well raised, they will be able to behave well and stay away from criminal activities".

Another participant said that:

"Vhabebi vha a lingedza nga ndila dzothe u alusa vhana vhavho nga ndila dzavhudi fhedzi vhana vhone vhane vha nanga u tshila nga ndila i si yone, vhanwe vhana vha ya konda, programme dza u thusa vhabebi dzi nga itiwa khanwe dzi nga thusa". "Parents do their best to nurture their children in a positive way but children themselves choose to misbehave. Some children are difficult. Parenting programmes can be done, maybe they will assist parents".

"Ma social worker va fanele ku endla tiphurogireme na vana va nga si nghenelela swinene eka vugevenga. Vana va borheka naswona a va na swihungasi hi yo mhaka va tinghenelerisa eka swa vugevenga." "Social workers must conduct life skills programmes with children before they get deep into criminal activities. Children are bored, they do not have entertainment. This is the reason why they involve themselves in criminal activities".

The participant below shares his views:

"Mina a ndzi pfuniwile hi masocial worker ndzi tlhele ndzi cinca vutomi. Kambe na loko ndzi cincile vanhu a va hamba va ndzi lumbeta na hambiloko ndzi nga endlanga nchumu. Sweswo swi ndzi endlile ndzi vona onge swa fana, na hambiloko ndzi cincile va ha ndzi lumbeta ivi ndzi tlhelele eka tigenge." "I was helped by social workers who transformed me from my criminal behaviour but people who accused me of things I did not do made me go back to crime".

Another participant said:

"Vatswari van'wana va kayakaya eka makurisele ya vana, mi kuma vana va ri karhi va xanisa vatswari, vana van'wana va rhuketela vatswari va va tekela na mali ya xidendana. Vatswari va timiyelela va nga tivi na leswaku va endla yini. Masocial worker va fanele ku pfuna vatswari hi makurisele ya vana." "Some parents are struggling to raise their children. Some children abuse their parents. They insult and demand their grants. Parents end up keeping quiet as they do not know where to go for help. Social workers must help parents in childrearing".

Another participant said:

"Vhabebi vha ţoḍa ngeletshedzo kha maalusele a vhana ngauri vhabebi vhanzhii vha shumisa nḍila dzi si dzavhuḍi kha u alusa vhana vha tshi vhona u nga ri vha khou ita zwone, zwithu zwi no nga zwa u tikedza zwi nga thusa vhabebi u ri vha kovhelane tshenzhema dzavho kha maalusele vha dovha vha guda na nḍila dzavhuḍi kha vhaṅwe." "Parents need lessons in childrearing

because most of them use wrong ways of raising their children, thinking that they are doing the right thing. Things like support groups can help parents in raising their children and to learn from others'.

The perceptions of the participants about the parenting programme in addressing and preventing young people's criminal behaviour varies. Yet, the majority of participant explained the need for parenting programs as they mentioned that parenting programs will educate parents about the impact of coercive parenting as well as different parenting methods in replacement of punitive parenting. Participant's further indicated of positive parenting characterised by caring, determination and respect can reduce crime. The minority of participants indicated that they do not believe that a parenting programme can stop young people from offending. In support of these findings, attachment theory provides a predominant framework for understanding the need to intervene early in family relationships that seems to be failing to provide a secure base for children. It also provides a conceptualisation of therapy with individuals and families as a way to support revision of maladaptive internal working models (Coady and Lehnann, 2016:160). In line with the majority and the theory, the researcher strongly believes that if positive parenting programmes can be conducted effectively with parents, crime amongst young offenders can be controlled and reduced (Gould & Ward, 2015; Pikering & Sanders, 2016).

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter gave a presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data of the study on the perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. Based on the findings, the researcher discovered that some parents lack parenting skills. Since young people with criminal behaviour can be challenging, they struggle with them without knowing what to do. Again, they might not be aware that social workers can render parenting skills programmes. Therefore, social workers should render parenting skills programmes with parents. Engaging them in parenting programmes will improve parenting, reduce maltreatment and improve cognition and behavioural outcomes (Picering & Sanders, 2016).

CHAPTER 4

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three paid an attention to the date presentation, analysis and interpretation of the date on the perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behavior. Literature was used to complement and support the participant's arguments. Researcher applied the qualitative data analysis method.

The main aim of this chapter is to present a summary of the major findings drawn from the study about perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006) argue that after interpreting findings, aims of the research must be summarised and compared with the findings to come up with conclusions to determine whether the goals were achieved or not. Again, the re-statement of the problem, aim, objectives and recommendations of the study were presented in this chapter.

4.2 Re-Statement of The Research Problem

It is important that the problems that led to the undertaking of this study on the topic are highlighted. Young offenders' misconduct begins at early childhood, increases during the adolescent stage and indicates high risk of transition to adulthood (de Haan et al, 2010; Wahl and Metzner, 2012). Adolescent years are a challenging period in child-rearing. Racz and MacMahan (2011) highlight that an increasing sense of autonomy and peer group pressure result in some children being rebellious, oppositional, aggressive and engaging in criminal activities. These unacceptable behaviours undermine or challenges family, cultural norms and values. These criminal elements also have a negative impact in schools. Brauer's (2016) study raises a problem of school violence, disrespect and intimidation of teachers, bullying of other learners which disregards democracy and governance, affecting the economy. Aebi et al. (2013) argue that several factors such as the family environment, parenting styles, poverty, peer pressure and the events that take place in their social context contribute to young people's criminal behaviour. This study further indicates that education, economies and religions are well established through family relations. Furthermore, family is viewed as a basic source of strengths that shapes attitudes, values, norms and behaviour of children, and parenting is an important aspect in family relation. Batool (2013) argues that it is difficult for a family to nurture a young person who is oppositional. Consequently, some parents apply punitive parenting (Roche et al., 2010). A study by Brauer (2016) asserts that some parents attempt to change a child's behaviour through punishment. Others dismiss the child's views by withdrawing love

and affection when he/she does not comply with the rules. Furthermore, work becomes more demanding on some parents, and consequently, they lose quality time with their children. Thus, their children resort to spending most of their time with peers and at media places (Order & Yilmaz, 2012). It is vital, therefore, to study perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their offending behaviour, and to address their problems from the beginning to prevent the transition of crime into adulthood.

The researcher discovered that parents directly influence their children's criminal behaviour. This affects their ability to discover their potential. Seemingly, most parents are able to play their parental role during the childhood of their children because there are few challenges then. Immediately when young people enter the adolescent stage, parents become uncertain and frustrated as they lack proper skills to manage their behaviour and opt for the punitive method. Some participants supported this finding by indicating that parents do not discuss rules with them. They wait for them to misbehave, and then correct them. Sometimes they do this with emotions, and become harsh.

During the discussion with young offenders, the researcher also observed that authoritarian parenting is a highly preferred method by most parents. The majority of participants reported the usage of physical punishment by their parents in correcting undesired behaviour. Some participants supported this observation. For example, one participant indicated that her mother beat her when she misbehaves. Another participant indicated that his father used to smack him when he disobeyed rules.

Another factor discovered to be affecting parenting either directly or indirectly is poverty, which results in a particular risk because lack of finances affects parental role in terms of the provision of basic needs, which makes making parenting difficult. This was confirmed by the participants during interviews, who stated that parents make promises and never fulfill them, and when asked, they respond in a harsh manner. Gould and Ward (2018) revealed that parents living in poverty tend to experience mental health problems such as stress and depression. Parents suffering from depression and stress are usually impatient and become inconsistent and abusive in child-rearing. Harsh and inconsistent parenting rises the likelihood of children abusing

alcohol and drugs. In line with this statement, Curcio *et al.* (2015) asserts that alcohol and drugs could be a means of running away from a stressful setting.

Peer pressure and gangsterism were also discovered to have a strong force that causes criminal behaviour in young offenders. Gangs are dangerous as they abuse substances, disrupt lessons at school and commit violent crimes.

The researcher also discovered that most parents of young offenders around Mopane and Vhembe Districts lack parenting skills. The assumption is that they might have never received parenting training. Then they resort to wrong methods that can increase the problem. A study conducted by Gould and Ward (2018) shows that parents living in low socio-economic circumstances are less likely to get support that assists parents with parenting. In addressing and dealing with young people's criminal behaviour, the Department of Social Development and other stakeholders are required to put in place effective interventions that can give support to parents.

4.3 Re-Statement of The Aim and Objectives of The Study

4.3.1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to explore perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour. This aim was achieved.

4.3.2 The objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were:

4.3.2.1 To determine the perceived impact of parental practice on young offenders' criminal behaviour.

This objective was achieved. Young offenders in Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre reported that they are experiencing coercive parenting. From the participants' point of view, the majority of parents are in favour of authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. On the other hand, others are neglectful due to various reasons which includes unemployment, poverty and mental health. Children nurtured under these parental practices are more likely to be vulnerable and easily engage in criminal activities. The participants further elaborated that parenting skill programmes are needed to equip parents with parenting skills and to support them in child-rearing.

Sarwar (2016) indicated that poor parenting can affect children's ability to discover their talents and strengths. Gould and Ward (2015) emphasise that parents face multiple challenges and stressors in parenting, which lead to poor parenting. Thus, supporting parents is crucial. Furthermore, they emphasised that parenting programmes proven to be effective and efficient in South African cultures should be implemented to support parents in child-rearing and crime prevention.

4.3.2.2 To assess how parental care influences the positive behaviour of young offenders.

This objective was achieved. The participants are of the view that parental care can assist them to get out of criminal behaviour. They indicated that if parents can discuss rules with them, it will enable them to understand what is expected of them, rather than waiting for them to break the law and then punish them. Furthermore, participants emphasised open communication rather that empty promises, which frustrate them and break trust between them and their parents. Moreover, they alluded to the importance of meeting their basic needs which can prevent them from offending. This is supported by Lonutiu (2016), who posits that good parenting can be identified through caring and respect to the rights of the child. Accordingly, such parental practices reinforce prosocial behaviour and positive well-being. Farell *et al.* (2011) agrees with this sentiment by showing that authoritative parents set rules together with their children, and reasoning techniques are used to explain the effects of the child's actions and its impact on others.

4.3.2.3 To appraise how coercive child-rearing influences young offenders to be involved in criminal activities.

This objective was achieved in theme 2. Young people rely on rules established by parents to guide them in their daily activities. However, most of the participants indicated that parents set rules as problems arise. The majority of participants stated that there are no clear rules to guide children's behaviour in many families. Most participants indicated that their parents use physical punishment to correct their misconduct, while others mentioned that they deny them food as a way of correcting their behaviour. This confirmed the existence of coercive parenting in the form of

inconsistent and harsh punishment by parents, which is influential in young offenders' criminal activities.

Zilbertstein (2014) argues that the interaction between parents and children affect children's development and reaction. In relation to information given by young offenders, Haapasalo (2001) and Ferguson *et al.* (2008) stated that when parents impose strict rules and harsh punishment, their children learn violent behaviour such as aggression and hostility, which is useful to crime. Batool (2013) and Odango *et al.* (2016) mentioned that young people reared by permissive parents are more likely to become impulsive and to do things that are against the law as they fail to understand the rules of the family due to inconsistent discipline that they receive from their parents.

4.3.2.4 To establish gaps between parents and young offenders in terms of parental practice.

This objective was also achieved. There is a barrier between parents and children in relation to affection, attachment and parenting skills. Parents can provide effective parenting during childhood. They get stuck when children reach adolescent stage where they (young people) become challenging. Participants stated that in order to address challenges between them and their parents, there is a need to engage both parents in parenting skills programmes and young offenders in life skills programmes. This is where parents will be equipped with parenting skills so that they effectively fulfil their parental role, and young offenders be equipped with skills to improve decision-making skills, which will lead to a responsible life regardless of circumstances.

In support of this, Joseph and John (2008) and Bigner (2005) state that knowledge of parental practices that influence criminal behaviour in child-rearing can help parents realise the impact of their parenting and to seek effective parenting skills. Parents should be knowledgeable on how to rear their children, especially during their adolescent stage. Tough (2016) argues that parents practising the authoritarian parenting style establish fixed rules, and expect their children to comply, failure which results in punishment. Obviously, this punishment affects the child's attachment and the bond that serves as a model for the future. Furthermore, the goal of parenting is missed since parents should aim at teaching the child acceptable behaviour, whereas

the child can perceive parents' behaviour as punishment. Semmdroth (2005) argues that young people feel unsafe with parents influenced by anger in child-rearing. For example, in situations where parents are violent, children perceive them as either fearful or dangerous, and the child will not know how to respond to some of their demands (Waller *et al.*, 2012).

4.5 Summary of The Major Findings

The following are the findings of this study:

- Coercive parenting was proven influential in young offenders' criminal behaviour by the participants.
- The quality of parent-child relationship was strongly emphasised by young
 offenders as contributing to their criminal behaviour. Young offenders linked
 poor attachments to the inability of parents to maintain discipline in their
 respective families. The views stated by young offenders are that parents are
 either too strict or too permissive, or inconsistent in disciplining their children.
- Most participants reported lack of parental involvement, lack of communication and in some cases, child abuse as influential in their criminal behaviour.
- External family factors which include peer pressure and gangsterism were emphasised as strong risk factors concerning young offenders' criminal behaviour. The participants indicated that the issues of peer pressure and gangsterism are influential in their criminal behaviour. Some participants mentioned that they are forced to join gangs as a means of protection since they are abused and bullied by members of gangs. Consequently, gangs lead them to poor performance at school, crimes and school dropout.
- The unavailability of recreational facilities such as soccer fields was also stated as a gap between young offenders and criminal behaviour because recreational facilities can work as a preventive programme to crime.
- Lack of permanent job opportunities for some parents in Vhembe and Mopane
 Districts in Limpopo Province were emphasised since poverty affects parents'
 ability of parents to meet their children's needs. This directly affects parenting.
- Young offenders in Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre are not properly raised to face their daily challenges. They were raised without limits and boundaries do guide them and were given freedom without responsibility. This

makes it difficult for them to resist peer pressure and to overcome their daily challenges as young people. Seemingly, there are positive parenting programmes which were proven effective by the Department of Social Development. However, these programmes are not effectively implemented to equip parents with skills to apply in child-rearing. Hence, parents continue to struggle to bring up their children.

- Corporal punishment was abolished. However, parents were not equipped with positive parenting skills. Therefore, they still use corporal punishment as a way of disciplining their children.
- Parents seem to have many challenges and stressors that directly affect their parental role.
- Young offenders engage in crime due to different reasons. It was indicated that some live without rules to guide their behaviour. Others live in poverty and their needs are not properly met. It was further revealed that others are exposed to strict and harsh punishment. Moreover, others are exposed to the neighbourhood where there is gangsterism.
- The study discovered the gap between parents and young offenders in relation to attachment and parenting skills.

4.6 Conclusions

From the findings of the study, it can be concluded that young offenders' criminal behaviour could be properly addressed through the collection of information in relation to it existence. It is understandable that parents play a primary role in raising children. Nevertheless, some parents are not skilful in parenting, more especially in dealing with challenging or criminal behaviour displayed by their children. This is because it was reported by the participants that as parents try to address the criminal behaviour of their children, they tend to use power, withdraw love, ignore or use threats which negatively affect their relationship instead of correcting the undesired behaviour. Therefore, correcting young people's criminal behaviour could be a joint effort of various stakeholders from various departments as well as community leaders and interested members of the community who are role models to young people. The combination of the role played by a parent, various stakeholders and the interested

group could reinforce the normal socialisation of young people and reduce crime. Again, participants expressed their need for training on how to avoid and deal with criminal behaviour. Therefore, life skills programmes should be considered not only as treatment but also as a form of prevention of criminal behaviour amongst young people. Another factor cited and which is connected to interventions is the lack of recreational facilities in disadvantaged communities. Citing with this finding, sports and recreations had been proven effective in preventing and addressing criminal behaviour amongst young people. This hindrance should be addressed at a community level involving responsible departments that deal with sports and culture.

4.7 Recommendations

The recommendations are as follows:

- The Department of Social Development should assist parents of young offenders with positive parenting skills programmes. These programmes should consider issues related to the parent-child relationship, disciplinary strategies, supervision and monitoring.
- Policies should be developed to ensure that both parents and young offenders
 actively participate in these programmes (life skills programmes, parenting
 skills programmes and family preservation programmes. This should be done
 through a court order).
- Parents as main role players should undergo continuous training on a regular basis as per decision of the department. These regular contacts will allow parents to express their challenges, and to enable them to share ideas and effective parenting and positive discipline.
- The establishment of a multi-disciplinary team (police officers, social workers, probation officers, child and youth workers, educators, health workers and community leaders, educational psychologists and educational occupational therapists) to meet on a regular basis and to plan for services of young offenders and their parents as well as crime preventive strategies.
- The implementation of the service can be guaranteed if the multidisciplinary team frequently monitors and supports the parenting programme in the best interest of the child.

- The implementation of healthy recreational facilities and programmes for children and youth should be done together with the Department of Local Government.
- Community workers should be appointed to do community development and prevention, specifically to combat the availability of alcohol and drugs to children.
- This study focused on a small group at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, which caters Vhembe and Mopane Districts in Limpopo Province. More research should be conducted when considering the impact of young people's criminal behaviour and psycho-social factors influencing the behaviour.

5. REFERENCES

Adegoke, N. (2015). Factors responsible for juvenile delinquency in Nigeria: A case study of selected primary schools in Ikorodu. family court review an interdisciplinary journal 5:(5) 78-84.

Aebi, M., Plattner, B., Metzke, C.W., Bessler, C., & Steinhausen, H. (2013). Parent-and self-reported dimensions of oppositionality in youth: *construct validity, concurrent validity, and the prediction of criminal outcomes in adulthood.* Journal of child psychol psychiatry:54 (9):941-949.

Altbeker, A. (2007). A coutry at war with itself: South Africa's crisis of crime, Johannesbrg, Jonatan Ball.

Ashkar, P.J. & Kenny, D.T. (2009). Young offenders' perception of school: An ecological analysis. *Psychiatry and Law*, (16- 93): 355-368.

Babbie, E. & Mounton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research.* South Africa: Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Babbie, E., Mouton, J., Vorster, P. & Prozesky, B. (2008). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. 2012). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town, South Africa: Oxford University Press.

Badenhorst, C. & Conradie, H. (2009). Children's perceptions on crime and criminal justice system: main findings. *Acta Criminology* 21 (1): p.p 77-86.

Barber, B., Stolz, H. & Olsen, J. (2005). Parental support, psychological control and behavioural control: Assessing relevance across time, culture and method. Journal of Society for Research in Child Development.70(4):1-137.

Bartol, C. R. & Bartol, A. M. (2009). *Juvenile delinquency and antisocial behaviour: a developmental perspective*. Colombus: Pearson Prenters Hall.

Barnes, J. & Cheng, H. (2006). Do prenatal neighbourhood perceptions contribute to child behaviour problem? a study of disadvantaged children: *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies*, 1 (1): 1-14.

Batool, S.S. (2013). Lack of adequate parenting: A potential risk factor for aggression among adolescents. Pakistan Journal of psychological research. 28: 217233.

Bergdahl, J., Twill, S., Norris, M. & Ream, M. (2015). Assessing the prevention of juvenile delliquency: an evaluation of court-based delinquency prevention programme. *Family court review an interdisciplinary journal*. 54 (4): 617-631.

Beth, W.N., John, N.K. & Zipporah, K. (2015). Juvenile delinquency: *A legacy of developmental logic of Kenyan government. International journal of science and research* 4 (6):1. PP.174-1182.

Bigner, J. (2005). *Parent-child relations: an introduction to parenting*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Bless, C. Higson-Smith, C. & Kagee, A. (2006). *Fundamentals of social research methods.* 4th ed. Cape Town: Juta.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Kagee, A. (2007). Fundamental of social science research methods: An African perspective. 4th ed. Cape Town. South Africa: Juta.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Sithole, S.L. (2013). Fundamentals of social research methods: *An African perspective.* (5th ed). Pretoria: Juta Academic.

Bradley, B., Davis, T.A., Wingo, A.P., Mercer, K.B. & Ressler, K.J. (2013). Family environment and adult resilience: Contribution of positive parenting and the oxytocin receptor gene. *European journal of Psychotraumatology*. 4(21659):1-9.

Brauer, J.R. (2016). Cultivating conformists or raising rebels? Connecting Parental Control and Autonomy Support to Adolescent Delinquency. Journal of reasrch on adolescent 27(2): 452–470.

Bronfenbrenner, U. & Ceci, S.J. (1994). Nature-nurture reconceptualized in developmental perspective: a bio-ecological model. Journal *Psychological Review*, 101(4):568-586.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Journal of Qualitative Research in Psychology*. 3(2): 77-101.

Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods. (4th ed). New York: Oxford University Press.

Boshier, H.P. (2011). Parent and crime: an evidence-based review with implications for the New Zealand family and youth court. *Journal of Faimly court review*. 49 (1): 8-15.

Botman, J., Greeff, F.M., Mulaudzi, M & Wright, S.C.D. (2010). Research in health sciences. Heinemann.

Buschgens, C.J.M., van Aken, M.A.G., Swinkels, S.H.N., Ormel, J., Verhulst, F.C. & Buitelaar, J.K. (2010). *Externalising behaviours in preadolescents: familial risk to externalising behaviours and perceived parenting styles. Journal of European child adolescent and psychiatry.* 19: 567-575.

Capaldi, L. (2008). The relationship between parental substance abuse and the effects on young children.

Children's Act No. 38 of 2005. Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printers.

Child Justice Act No.75 of 2008. Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printers.

Cindi, M. L. (2006). Factors that predispose children to be in conflict with the law in the Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality: a health perspective. Master of Arts.

Pretoria: Unisa.

Clark, J. N. (2012). *Youth violence in South Africa: Tthe case for a restorative justice response.* Contemporary justice review.77-95.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. Califonia: Sage Publications.

Coady, N. and Lehmann, P. (2017). Theoratical perspective for direct social work procatice. New York: Springer publications.

Cohen, A. M. (2008). *Global crime case: gangs go global.* New York: Free Press.

Curcio, A.L., Knott, V.E. & Mak, A.S. (2015). Why do young people engage in delinquency and problem drinking? Views from Adolescents and Stakeholders.

Journal of Austalian psychology society. (50):350–361.

Currie, J. & Tekin, E. (2006). Does child abuse cause crime? 1-38.

Damm, A. P. & Dustman, C. (2012). Does growing up in high crime neigborhood affect youth criminal behaviour? Department of Economics. Draytn house. London.

David, O.A., David, D. & Dobrean, A. (2014). Efficacy of the rational positive parenting program for child externalizing behaviour: Can an emotion-regulation enhanced cognitive-behavioural parent program be more effective than a standard one? Journal of evidence-based psychotherapies. 14 (2):159-178.

Deadman, D. & MavDonald, Z. (2004). Offenders as victims of crime: an investigation into the relationship between criminal behaviour and victimization. 53-67.

De Haan, A.D., Prinzie, P. & Dekovie, M. (2010). How and why children change in aggression and delinquency from childhood to adolescence: moderation of overreactive parenting by child personality. Journal of child psychology and psychiatry. 51(6):P. 725-733.

Dembo, R., Ramirez-Garnica, G., Rollie, M.W. & Schmeidler, J. (2011). Impact of a family empowerment intervention on youth recidivism. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation* 30 (3/4):59-98.

Densley, J. A. (2013). *How gangs work an ethnography of youth violence*. Metropolitan State University, Brooklyn Park, Minnesota.

De Vos, A.S. (ed). (2002). Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions. Pretoria: Van Schaik. De Vos, A.S., and Strydom, H., 2013.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2005). *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions.* (3rd ed). Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2011). *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions.* (4th ed). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Wet, C. (2004). The extent and causes of learner vandalism at schools. *South African Journal of Education. EASA.* 24 (3):206 – 211.

Durrheim, K. (2006). Research design. In M. Terre Blanche, K. Durrheim & D.

Painter (Eds.), Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences (pp.3359). Cape Town: UCT Press.

Eicheisheim, V.I. Buist, K.L. Dekovic M., Wissink I.B., Frijos T., van Lier P.A.C., Kool, H.M. & Meeus, W.H.J. (2010). Association among the parent-adolescent relationship, aggression and delinquency in different ethnic groups: a replications across two Dutch sample. Journal of social psychiatric epidemiology.45: 293-300.

Fafchamps, M. & Minten, B. (2005). Crime, transitory poverty, and isolation: *Evidence from Madagascar*. Marcel. Faffchamps Economics. University of Oxford. 1-28.

Farrell, AD., Henry, D.B., Mays, S.A. & Schoeny, ME. (2011). *Parents as moderators of the impact of school norms and peer influence on aggression in middle school students*. Journal of child development.82: 146-161.

Ferguson, C.J., Cruz, A.M., Martinez, D.M., Rueda, S.M., Ferguson, D.F. & Negy, C. (2008). *Personality, parental, and media influences on aggressive personality and violent crime in young adults. Journal of aggression maltreatment and trauma.* 17 (4). 395-414.

Gallinetti, J. (2009). Getting to know child justice act. Child Justice Alliance.

Gamez-Guadix, M., Straus, M.A., Carrobles, J.A., Munoz-Rivas, M.J. & Almendros, C. (2010). *Corporal punishment and long-term behavioural problems: the moderating role of positive parenting and psychological aggression*. 22 (4): 529-536.

Gould, C. & Ward L, L.C. (2015). Positive parenting in South Africa: Why Supporting Families is a key to development and violent prevention. Journal of institute for security studies. Policy Brief 77. 77:2-7.

Gray, D.E. (2009). *Doing research in the real world.* (2nd ed). London: Sage publishers.

Grinnel, R.M., and Unaru, Y.A. (2008). Social work research and evaluation: foundation of evidence-based practice. New York: Oxford University Press.

Groenewald, T. (2004). A phenomenological research design illustrated. International Journal of Qualitative Research Methods. 3 (1) 1-26.

Haapasalo, J. (2001). How do young offenders describe their parents? *Legal and Criminology and Psychology*, (6) 103-120.

Halpenny, A.M. Nixom, E. & Watson, D. (2010). *Parents perspectives on parenting styles and disciplining children.* The National strategy research series. Ireland: The Stationary Office, Dublin.

Heilbrun, K.N.E, Naomi, E, Goldstein, S & Redding, R.E (eds). (2005). *Delinquency prevention, assessment and intervention*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hoeve, M., Dubas, J.S. Eichelsheim, V.I., Van der Laan, P.H., Smeenk, W. & Gerris, J.R. (2009). The relationship between parenting and delinquency: Ameta-analysis. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 37 (6) 749-755.

Holtrop, K., Smith. & Scott, J.C. (2015). Association between parenting practices and child externalizing behaviour in underserved Latino immigrant families. Journal of family process. 54(2) 359-375.

Holtzhausen, L. (2012). *Criminal justice social work.* Cape Town: Juta Legal and Academic Publishers.

Hoskins, D.H (2014). *Consequences of parenting on adolescent outcomes*. Journal of society. 4, 506-531.

Hubble, K., Bowen, K.L., Moore, S.C & van Goozen, S.H.M. (2015). *Improving negative emotion recognition in young offenders reduces subsequently crime*. PLOS ONE/DOI (10): 1-13.

Ireland, J.K. & Monaghan, R. (2006). *Behaviours indicative of bullying among young and juvenile male offenders: a study of perpetrators and victim characteristics. Journal of agreesion behaviour.* (32).172-180.

Jargersen, S.E. (2007). *An integrated ecosystem theory*. The European academic of science. 19-33.

Joseph, M.V. and John, J. (2008). *Impact of parenting on child development. Glomal academic society Journal.* 1 (5): 16-25.

Jones, C.H., Hutchings, J., Erjavec, M and Viktor, S. (2015). The Parent Infant Play Observation code (PIPOc): development and testing of a new positive parenting measure. *Journal of Reproductive and Infant Psychology*. 33 (1): 54-68.

Karam, E.A., Sterrett, E.M & Kiaer, L. (2017). The integration of family and group therapy as an alternative to juvenile incarceration: *A quasi-experimental evaluation using parenting with love and limits*. 56:331–34.

Kauser, R. & Pinquart, M. (2010). Gender differences in the associations between perceived parenting styles and juvenile delinquency in Pakistan. Pakistan Journal of psychological research. 31 (2) 549-568.

Keramati, S.Y. (2014). Attachment: bringing childhood behaviour to real life. 37(4).

Khaman, R. & Nghiem, S. (2016). *Family income and child cognitive and noncognitive development in Australia: Does money matters?* Journal of demography.53: 597-612.

Knox, M., Burkhart, K. & Cromly, A. (2013). Supporting positive parenting in community health Centre's: the act raising safe kids programme. Journal of community psychology. 41(4)395-407.

Koolaee, A.K., Shahi, A., Navidian, A. & Mosalanejad, L. (2015). The effects of positive parenting program training in mothers of children with attention deficit hyperactivity on reducing children's externalising behaviour problems. Foundamental of mental health. 17(3) 135-141.

Lachman, J.M., Cluver, L.D., Boyes, M.E., Kuo, C & Casale, M. (2014). *Positive parenting for positive parents: HIV/AIDS, poverty, caregiver depression, child behaviour, and parenting in South Africa.AIDS care.* 26 (3): 304-313.

Lausen, B., Zukauskiene, R., Raiziene, S. Hiatt, C. & Dickson, D. (2015). *Perceived parental protectiveness promotes positive friends influence. Journal of infant and child development.* 24: 452-465.

Law, J. & Quick, M. (2012). Exploding link between juvenile offenders and social disorganisation at a large map scale: a Bayesian spatial modelling approach. Journal of Geographical system. 15: 89-113.

Lee, R. (2012). Community violence exposure and adolescent substance abuse: does monitoring and positive parenting moderate risk in urban communities. Journal of Contemporary justice review. 40 (4): 406-421.

Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2014). *Practical research planning and design.* (10th ed). USA: Pearson Education Limited.

Lucero, J.L., Barrett, C. & Jensen, H. (2015). *An examination of family and school factors related to early delinquency. Journal of children and schools.* 37(3) 165-173.

Mabasa, M.A. (2018). Impact of socio-cultural practices on substance abuse amongst the rural youth: Towards the development of a school-based intervention programme. Doctoral thesis. University of Limpopo.

Mahajana, L. (2013). Exploring the risk factors associated with offending behavior in Cape Town. University of Cape Town.

Marsh, I., Melville, G., Morgan, K., Norris, G. & Walkington, Z. (2006). *Theories of crime*. Canada: Routledge.

Masilo, D.T. (2012). The impact of substance abuse on learners from dysfunctional families at Impelegeng Location in Schweizer-Reneke. Masters Dissertation.

University of Limpopo.

Maughan, D. & Moore S.C. (2010). *Dimension of child neglect: An exploration of parental neglect and its relationship with delinquency*. Journal of child walfare. 89: 4.

McDonald, S.M. (2011). *Perception: A concept analysis.* Doctoral theses. University of Texas.

Mdhuli, E. (2012). *Drug use by children in foster care placement at the Oaks community Limpopo Province: application for social work practice.* Masters Dissertation. University of Limpopo.

Mills, A.J, Durepos, G. & Wiebe, E. (2010). *Encyclopedia of case study research*: LZ; Index, Volume 2. London: SAGE.

Mohajana, I. (2013). Exploring the risk factors associated with youth offending behavior in Cape Town. Mini dissertation. University of Cape Town.

Monette, D.R., Sullivan, T.J. & Dejong, C.R. (2008). *Applied social research*. 8th ed. Belmont, USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Mouton, J. & Marais, H.C. (1996). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences.* (5th Ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Nash, E.S., Stoch, M.B. and Harper, G.D. (1990). *Human Behaviur: guidelines for Health Professionals*: Capr Town, South Africa.

Neuman, W.L. (2000). Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. (4th ed). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, W.L. (2006). Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. (6th ed). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, W.L. (2011). Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. (7th ed). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, W.L. (2014). Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. (7th ed). USA: Pearson Education Limited.

Ngomane, S.M. (2005). *The impact of environmental violence on family well-being*. Masters Dissertation. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

Norona, A.N. & Baker, B.L. (2017). *The effects of early positive parenting and developmental delay on child emotion dysregulation*. Journal of interlactual disability research. 61 (2):130-143.

Ntshangase, M.P. (2015). The study of juvenile delinquency against adolescents in secondary schools in Gauteng (Masters Dissertation). Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Odongo, A.A., Aloka P.J.A. & Raburu, P. (2016). *Influence of parenting styles on the adolescent students: academic achievement in Kenyan day secondary schools.*Journal of Education and practice. 7 (15).

Omboto, J.O., Ondiek, G.O. Odera, O. & Ayug, M.E. (2012). Factors influencing youth crime and juvenile delinquency. International Journal of research in social science.1 (2): 18-21.

Omae, O.A., Kathuri, N.J. and Kiboara, T.C. (2018). Effects of Dysfunctional families on public secondary school's student academic performance in Habaswein Sub Country. Journal of advance research in eduction and literature. 4 (7): 59-83

Önder, F. C. & Yimaz Y. (2012). The role of the life satisfaction and parenting in predicting delinquent behaviours among high school students. Journal of educational theory and practice. 12 (3): 1744-1748.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J. & Leech, N.L. (2006). Linking research questions to mixed methods data analysis procedures 1. *The Qualitative Report*, 11(3): 474-498.

Partridge, B. C. (2010). Adolescent psychological development, parenting style, and pediatric decision making. Journal of medical philosophy. 35: 518-525.

Pastorelli, C., Lansford, J.E., Kanacri, B.P.L., Molane, P.S. Di Giunta, L., Bachini, D., Bombi A.N., Zelli, A., Miranda, M.C., Bornstein, M.A., Tapanya, S., Tirado, L.M.U., Alampay, L.P., AL-Hassa, S.M. Chang, L., Deater-Deckard, K., Dodge, K.A., Oburu, P., Skinner, A.T. & Sorbring, E. (2016). *Positive parenting and children's prosocail behaviour in eight countries. Journal of child psychology and psychiatry.* 57:7 824834.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. (3rd Ed). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Pickering, J.A. & Sanders, M.R. (2015). The triple P-Positive parenting program: An example of a public health approach to evidence-base parenting support. Journal of Family matters. (96) 53-63.

Poduthase, H. (2012). *Parent-adolescent relationship and juvenile delinquency in kerala, India: a qualitative study.* Doctoral dissertation: University of Utah.

Racz, S.J., McMahon, R.J. (2011). The relationship between parental knowledge and monitoring and child and adolescent conduct problems: A 10-Year Up. *Journal of clinical child and family of psychological review*. 14:377-398.

Ralph, A. and Sanders, M. (2006). The team Triple P. Positive parenting program: A preliminary evaluation. *Journal of youth studies Austalia*. 25 (2) 41-48.

Reichle, B., Backes, S. & Dette-Hagemmeyer, E. (2012). Positive parenting the preventive way: Transforming research into practice with an intervention for new parents. European journal of developmental psychology. 9(1): 33-46.

Republic of South Africa. (1996). Constitution. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Robert, J.V. (2014). Harmonizing the sentencing of young offenders and adult offenders: A comparison of the youth criminal justice Act and part XXIII of the criminal code. Canadian Journal of criminology and criminal justice. 301-306.

Roche, K.M., Ghazarian, S.R. Little, T. D. & Leverthal, T. (2010). *Understanding links between punitive parenting and adolescent's adjustment: the relevance of context and reciprocal associations*. Journal of research on adolescence. 21 (2): 448-460.

Roskam, I. (2014). Enhancing Positive parenting through metacognition with the program. Lou & us. Journal of child family and students. (24) 2496- 2507.

Rousseau, D. (2015). General system theory: it's present and potential: general system theory. System Research and Behavioural Science, 32(5). 522-533.

Sadock, B.J. & Sadock, V.A. (2007). *Synopsis of psychiatry.* 10th ed. New York: Lippincott Williams & Williams.

Safodien, M.R. (2010). Youth at risk. In Nicholas, J. and Maistry, M. *Introduction to social work*. Cape Town.

Salari, R., Ralph, A. & Sanders, M.R. (2014). An efficacy trial: positive parenting program for parents of teenagers. Journal behaviour change. 31(1) 34-52.

Sawar, S. (2016). *Influence of parenting style on children's behaviour*. Journal of Education and Educational development.3 (2) 222248.

Schofield, T.J., Conger, R.D., Donnellan., M.B. Jochem, R., Widaman, K.F. & Conger, K.J. (2012) parent *personality and positive parenting as predictors of positive adolescent personality development over time*. Journal of Merrill-palmer quarterly. 58 (2):255-283.

Scott, S. Doolan, M., Beckett, C., Harry, S. Cartwright, S & HCM team. (2010). How is parenting related to childhood and child anitisoacil behaviour? Preliminary findings from the helping children achive study. Research report DFE-RR 185a.1-17.

Semmdroth, C. (2008). Anger habit in parenting. USA: Sourcebook.

Siegel, L.J. & Welsh, B.C. (2009). *Juvenile delinquency: theory, practice, and law.* Wadsworth, USA: Cengage Learning.

Singh, A. & Kiran, U.V. (2014). Effects of single parent family on child delinquency. International Journal of Sience and Reasrech.3 (9): 866-868.

Smith, L. (2011). An exploration of the relationship between poor parent-child attachment and callousun emotional traits in a sample of high-risk young offenders. Theses. University College London.

Smokowski, P.R., Bacallao, M.L., Cotter, K.L. & Evans, C.B.R. (2015). The effects of positive and negative parenting practice on adolescent mental health outcomes in an multicultural sample of rural youth Journal of child psychiatry and human development. 46.p:333-345.

Souden, G. (2007). Youth identity in contemporary South Africa: race, culture, and schooling. Cape Town: New Africa Education.

South African Police Services. (2011). *Crime Report 2010 / 2011*. Available at: www.saps.org.za. Downloaded: 23rd July 2018.

Statistics South Africa. Vulnerable group serial: The South African profile of youth. *Report No 03-19-01*, 2009-204.

Stormont, M. (2002). Externalizing behaviour problems in young children: Contributory factors and early intervetions. Journal of Psychology in school. 39(2) 127-138.

Strydom, H. (2011). Ethical aspects of research in the social sciences and human service professions. In de Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B., & Delport C.S.L. (eds.), *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions*, 4th. Pretoria: Van Schaik.491-506.

Tabengwa, M. (2016). Harmonisation of law relating to children. Botswana.

Tolou-Shams, H.W., Conrad S.M. & Brown, L.K. (2012). *The role of family in juvenile substance use and HIV risk. Journal child family and students.* 21: 49-56.

Tough, P. (2016). Helping children succeed. London: Random House Books.

Turner F.J. (2017). Social work tretamnet, interloking theoratical approaches, 6th addition, usa Oxford.

Ugwuoke, C.U. & Onyekachi, D. (2013). Family instability and juvenile delinquency in Nigeria: A study of Owerri Municipality. 20 (1) 40-45.

Van Domburghz, L., Doreleijers, T.A.H., Guluk, C. & Vermeiren, R. (2011). Correlates of self-reported offending in children with some first police contact from distinct sociodemographic and ethnic groups. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 1-12.

Van Staden, N. (2015). Psychosocial factors contributing to juvenile delinquency in the ZFM-region, Northern Cape, South Africa. (Masters dissertation). University of the Western Cape.

Van Vugt, E., Loeber, R. and Pardini, D. (2015). Why is young maternal age at first childbirth a risk factor persistent delinquency in their male offspring? Examining the role of family and parenting factors. *Journal of criminology and mental health* 10 1-13.

Wahl, K. & Metzner, C. (2012). *Parental Influence on the prevalence and development of child aggression*. Journal of child family and students. 21: 344-355.

Waller, R. Gaedner, F., Hyde, L.W., Shaw, D.S., Dishion, T.J. & Wilson, M.N. (2012). Do harsh and positive parenting predict parent reports of deceitful-callous behaviour in early childhood? Journal of child psychology and psychiatry. 53(9): 946-953.

Waller, R., Shaw, D.S. & Hyde, L.W. (2017). Observed fearlessness and positive parenting interact to predict childhood callous-unemotional behaviours among lowincome boys. Journal of child psychology and psychiatry. 58: (3) 282-291.

Wang, H. (2014). The relationship between parenting styles and academic and behavioural adjustment among Urban Chinese adolescents. Chinese sociological review.46(4):19-40.

Weaver, N.L, Weaver, T.L., Nicks, S.E., Jupka, K.A., Sallee, H., Jacobsen, H., Henley, W. & Jaquest, M. (2016). *Developing tailored positive parenting messages for a clinic-based communication programme*. Doi 10. 1111 289-297.

Zarra-Nezhad, M., Kiuru, N., Annola, K., Zarra-Nezhad, M., Ahonen, T., ZarraNezhad, M., Ahonen, T. Poikkeus, A., Lerkkanen, M. & Nurmi, J. (2014). *Social withdrawal in children moderates the associations between parenting style and children's own socioemotional development*. Journal of child psychology and psychatry. 55(11): 1260-1269.

Zhou, J., Witt. K., Cao, X., Chem, C. & Wag, X. (2017). Predicting reoffending using the structure assessment of violence risk youth (SAVRY): A 5 Year follow-up study of male juvenile offenders in Human province, China.PLOS

ONE/DOI:10.1371/Journal.pone0169251.

6. APPENDIXES

Appendix 1a: Consent Form

Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour

Dear participant

My name is Babane Zondi Thelma. I am a student doing master's in social work at the University of Limpopo. The research study on perceptions of Young Offenders Regarding Parental Influence on their criminal behaviour is part of my master's degree programme. For the success of this study, I am required to gather information from selected participants, including you. Information will be gathered using an interview schedule.

- Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw from the study at any given time.
- You have the right to decline to answer any question(s) that you are not comfortable with.

- Your answers to the questions will be treated as anonymous and will only be used for research purposes. The identification such as surname and names will be kept from public knowledge.
- The researcher will not harm you emotionally and physically. The researcher will be sensitive to you as a participant.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Mrs Babane Zondi Thelma Masters S	ocial Work	Candidate	University	of Li	mpopo,
Turfloop Campus Contact number: 071	1099207.				
Signature:	Date:				

Xiyengenkulu 1b: Papila Ra Mpfumelelo

Eka munghenelwa

Mavonelo ya vana lava tluleke nawu mayelana ni nkucetelo wa swa vutswari eka mahanyelo ya vugevenga.

Vito ndzi Babane Zondi Thelma ndzi xichudeni eYunivhesiti ya Limpopo, naswona ndzi endla ndzavisiso hi nhlokomhaka leyi yi nga laha henhla leswi ku nga ku hetisisa Digiri ya Dyondzo ya Masitasi.

Vanghenelwa va dyondzo leyi va fanele ku lemuka leswi landzelaka:

- Ku nghenela dyondzo leyi a swi bohi naswona ma pfumeleriwa ku tihumesa nkarhi wun'wana ni wun'wana loko mi nga ha tsakeli ku ya emahlweni na dyondzo leyi.
- Tinhlamulo ta n'wina ti tekiwa tanihi xihundla naswona vito ra n'wina a ri nga boxiwi hambi ko va njhani.
- Tlhandlakambirhi tinhlamulo ta n'wina a ti nga hlanganisiwi na vito ra n'wina hikuva mulavisisi u ta hlonipha mfanelo yo hlayisa vito ra n'wina tanihi xihundla.

 A ku na ku vaviseka emiehleketweni kumbe emirini loko nga erivaleni loku yelanisiwaka ni ku nghenela ka n'wina ndzavisiso lowu.

We wena loyi a tshembekaka

Nsayino wa munghenelwa

Mrs Babane Zondi Thelma

Siatari-nyengedzedzwa lc: lunwalo lwa thendelo Lunwalo lwa thendelo

Kha Mudzheneleli

Thodisiso ya vhatshinyi vhane vha vha vhaswa ho sedzwa thuthuwedzo ya vhabebi kha vhudifari ha vhugevhenga.

Dzina Įanga ndi Babane Zondi Thelma, ane nomboro ya vhudinwalisi hawe ya vhutshudeni Yunivhesithi ya Limpopo ya vha 201832440. Ndi khou ita thodisiso yo disendekaho nga thoho yo bulwaho afho ntha hu u todou fusha thodea dza digiri ya masitasi kha social work.

Uri vha dzhenelele kha thodisiso ino, vha humbelwa uri vha dzhiele nzhele zwi tevhelaho:

 U dzhenelele kha thodisiso a zwi kombetshedzwi, vhone vhane vha tou nanga nahone vho tendelwa u dibvisa tshifhinga tshinwe na tshinwe arali vha pfa vha si tsha funa u bvela phanda na thodisiso ino.

- Phindulo dzavho ndi tshidzumbe nahone dzina javho a ji nga do bulwa kha muthu na muthihi.
- Phindulo dzavho a dzi nga do livhanywa na dzina lavho, mutodisisi u do thonifha pfanelo yavho ya u dzumba vhune havho.
- A hu na khuvhalo i vhonalaho lwa muhumbulo kana lwa nama yo badekanywaho na uyo ane a do dzhenelela kha ngudo ino.

Wavho	Tsaino ya Mudzheneleli
Mrs Babane Zondi Thelma	
Appendix 2a: Declaration of Consent Form by particles of the following series of the s	arent (s) on behalf of the young
I the parent	t of the participant, out of my own
will, hereby agree that my child(ren) voluntarily	participate(s) in the study about
perceptions of young offenders regarding pare	ental influence on their criminal
behaviour with the following understanding:	
 I have been informed that this interview is en 	ntirely voluntary.
 My child is entitled not to answer what he/sh 	
withdraw if he/she feels the need to do so.	
 It was also explained that my child (ren)'s 	answers to the questions will be
treated anonymously and will only be used for	or research purposes.
 The researcher will not harm my child emotion 	onally and physically.
She will be sensitive to my child as a particip	pant.
Signature of parent: Do	ate:

Xiyengenkulu 2b: Mpfumelelo wa mutswari hi ku yimela n'wana
Mina mutswari wa munghenelelwa, ku nga ri
hi ku bohiwa, ndza pfumela leswaku n'wana wa mina a nghenelela hi ku tsakela ka
yena eka vulavisisi bya mavonelo ya vana lava tluleke nawu mayelana ni nkucetelo
wa swa vutswari eka mahanyelo ya vugevenga hi ku twisisa leswi landzelaka:
Ku nghenela dyondzo leyi a swi bohi naswona n'wana wa mina wa pfumeleriwa
ku tihumesa nkarhi wun'wana ni wun'wana loko a nga ha tsakeli ku ya
emahlweni na dyondzo leyi.
 Tinhlamulo ta n'wana wa mina ti ta tekiwa tanihi xihundla naswona vito ra yena
a ri nga boxiwi hambi ko va njhani.
 Tlhandlakambirhi, tinhlamulo ta n'wana wa mina a ti nga hlanganisiwi na vito ra
yena hikuva mulavisisi u ta hlonipha mfanelo yo hlayisa vito ra yena tanihi xihundla.
A ku na ku vaviseka emiehleketweni kumbe emirini loku nga erivaleni loku
yelanisiwaka ni ku nghenela ka n'wana wa mina eka ndzavisiso lowu.
We wena loyi a tshembekaka Nsayino wa munghenelwa
<u> </u>
Mrs Babane Zondi Thelma

Munambatedzo 2c: Ļiṅwalo Ļathendelo ya mubebi khau yimela nwana
Nne:Mubebi wa mudzheneleli nga lufuno
lwanga ndi khou tenda uri nwana wa nga nga u funa hawe a dzhenelele kha Ngudo
ya thodisiso ya vhatshinyi vhane vha vha vhaswa ho sedzwa thuthuwedzo ya
vhabebi kha vhudifari ha vhugevhenga nga u pfesesa zwi tevhelaha:
U dzhenelele ha nwananga kha thodisiso a zwi kombetshedzwi, enne mune u
tou nanga nahone o tendelwa u dibvisa tshifhinga tshinwe na tshinwe arali a
pfa a si tsha funa u bvela phanda na thodisiso ino.
Phindulo dzavho ndi tshidzumbe nahone dzina la Nwananaga a li nga do bulwa
kha muthu na muthihi.
Phindulo dzawe a dzi nga do livhanywa na dzina lawe, mutodisisi u do thonifha
pfanelo yawe ya u dzumba vhune hawe.
 A hu na khuvhalo i vhonalaho lwa muhumbulo kana lwa nama yo
badekanywaho na nwana wa nga.
Today a Maria a salah
Wavho Tsaino ya Mudzheneleli

Mrs Babane Zondi Thelma

Appendix 3a: Child Assent

Dear child/minor

My name is Babane Zondi Thelma, doing master's in social work at the University of Limpopo. The study entitled "Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behaviour" is part of my master's degree programme. For the success of my study, I have to gather information from selected participants using an interview schedule. Your best interest as a child is paramount in decisions that affect you to make a choice and to agree to participate in the study. As a child, proper written permission should have been obtained from parents for you to be approached and invited to participate. This consent is obtained from you after your parents have given and signed permission for you to participate.

The researcher is investigating a problem that is relevant to you as an initiative to prevent criminal behaviour by young people. The study poses no risks of harm as the researcher will not reveal your information as a participant to avoid embarrassment and psychological harm. The researcher will not harm you emotionally and physically. The researcher will be sensitive to you as a participant and will make referrals to other social workers and psychologists in cases where you are harmed emotionally and psychologically. You are protected from abuse. In the case of abuse, the matter will be reported to the area social worker or nearby police station. The collection of data will take place at Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre through interviews. You are

invited to take part in the study. The session will be conducted for thirty minutes to one hour. You are requested to read and sign the child consent form provided. Your participation is voluntary.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Mrs. Babane Zondi Thelma Masters Social Work Candidate University of Limpopo, Turfloop Campus Contact number: 071 1099 207

Signature:	Date:

Xiyengekulu 3b: Mpfumelelo wa n'wana

Eka n'wana

Mavonelo ya vana lava tluleke nawu mayelano ni nkucetelo wa swa vutswari eka mahanyelo ya vugevenga

Vito ndzi Babane Zondi Thelma. Ndzi muchudeni wa Masitasi ya Social Work eYunivhesiti ya Limpopo. Ndzavisiso wa dyondzo ya mina i mavonelo ya vana lava tluleke nawu mayelano ni nkucetelo wa vutswari eka mahanyelo ya vugevenga i xiphemu xa purogireme ya digiri ya masitasi ya mina. Tanihi xiphemu xa dyondzo ya mina, ndzi languteriwa ku hlengeleta vuxokoxoko ku suka eka vanyikavuxokoxoko lava hlawuriweke ku katsa na wena. Hi nkarhi wo hlengeleta vuxokoxoko, mulavisisi u ta tirhisa nhlokohliso wa swivutiso lowu lulamisiweke. Ku tsakela ka wena i swa nkoka eka ku teka xiboho xo nghenelela eka dyondzo leyi tanihi n'wana. Tanihi n'wana, mpfumelelo wo tsariwa wu kumekile eka mutswari wa wena ku va hi fikelela na ku ku rhamba ku nghenelela. Mpfumelelo lowu wu kumekile eka wena endzhaku ka loko mutswari a sayinile ni ku nyika mpfumelelo wa ku u nghenelela.

Mulavisisi u lavisisa hi xiphiqo lexi fambelanaka na wena leswaku ku papalatiwa ku tlhela ku dyohiwa hi vana lavantsonga. Ndzavisiso lowu a wu na nxungeto wo vavisa tanihileswi mulavisisi a nga ta ka a nga paluxi vuxokoxoko bya wena tanihi mungheneleri ku sivela ku khomisa tingana ni ku vavisa swa miehleketo. Mulavisisi a nge ku vavisi emoyeni na le mirini. U ta va ni vurhon'wana eka wena tanihi mungheneleri naswona u ta hundzisela eka vatirhelavaaki van'wana na vatirhi va swa miehleketo loko wo tshuka u vavisiwile eka emoyeni na le miehleketweni. Leswi swi katsa ku pfumela ka wena ni mpfumelelo wo huma eka mutswari wa wena. Loko ko tshuka ku va ni ku xanisiwa loku kumekaka, mhaka leyi yi ta mangariwa eka mutirhelavaaki wa ndhawu yaleyo kumbe eka xitichi xa maphorisa xa le kusuhi. Nhlengeleto wa vuxokoxoko wu ta endliwa eka Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre hi ku tirhisa nhlokohliso wa swivutiso. U komberiwa ku teka xiave eka ndzavisiso lowu. Vuxokoxoko byi ta tekiwa ku ringana kwalomuya ka makhumenharhu wa tinete ku fika eka awara. U komberiwa ku hlaya ni ku sayina mpfumelelo wo nghenela wa n'wana lowu u nyikiweke wona. Ku nghenela ka wena i ku tiyimisela naswona ku ta va ka xihundla.

Ndza khensa.

Mrs, Babane Zondi Thelma Muchudeni wa Masitasi ya Muterhela Vaaki eYunivhesiti ya Limpopo, Turfloop Campus Nomboro ya riqingho: 071 1099 207

Nsayıno:	 	
Siku:	 	

Munambatedzo 3c: Linwalo Lathendelo

Kha nwana / mutuku

Ngudo ya thodisiso ya vhatshinyi vhane vha vha vhaswa ho sedzwa thuthuwedzo ya vhabebi kha vhudifari ha vhugevhenga

Nne ndi pfi Zondi Thelma Babane. Ndi mutshudeni wa Masitasi kha muhasho wa zwa Vhushumelavhapo kha Yunivesithi ya Limpopo. Ngudo ya thodisiso ya vhatshinyi vhane vha vhaswa ho sedzwa thuthuwedzo ya vhabebi kha vhudifari ha vhugevhenga ndi tshipida tsha magudwa anga a digrii ya Masitasi. Sa tshipida tsha ngudo iyi, ndi lavhelelwa u kuvhanganya mafhungo u bva kha vhathu vho tou nanguludzwaho, vhane munwe wa hone ndi inwi. Hu tshi kuvhanganywa mafhungo, mutodisisi u do shumisa mbudziso dzo dzulaho dzo lugiselwa. Dzangalelo lanu sa nwana ndi la ndeme kha tsheo dzine dza ni kwama arali no nanga u shela mulenzhe kha heino ngudo. Sa nwana, thendelo yo tou nwaliwaho yo wanala u bya kha mubebi wanu uri inwi ni kwamiwe na u rambiwa u shela mulenzhe. Thendelo yanu i khou tevhela ya mubebi wanu yo sainiwaho ye ya ni tendela uri ni shele mulenzhe. Mutodisisi uyu u khou todisisa thaidzo yo livhanaho na inwi sa ndila ya u thivhela ndovhololo ya vhukhakhi nga vhathu vhaswa. Kha hei ngudo a hu na khonadzeo ya u vhaisa muthu vhunga mutodisisi a sa do tana zwidodombedzwa zwanu sa musheli wa mulenzhe hu u thivhela u shoniswa na u vhaiswa muhumbulo. Mutodisisi ha nga vhaisi zwipfi na nama yanu. Mutodisisi u do vha na vhulondo kha inwi sa musheli wa mulenzhe lune arali ha nga vha na u vhaisala kha zwipfi kana muhumbulo, u do ni rumela kha vhashumelavhapo na vhadivhi vha muhumbulo uri ni wane thuso. Izwo zwi do itwa ho dzhielwa ntha thendelo yanu na ya muofisiri wa ndulamiso. Zwa itea na tambudzwa, mulandu u do swikiswa ha vhashumelavhapo kana tshititshini tsha mapholisa tsha tsini. Mafhungo a do kuvhanganyiwa u bva kha tshiimiswa tsha 'Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre' nga ndila ya nyambedzano. Ni khou rambiwa u shela mulenzhe kha ngudo iyi. Nyambedzano na inwi i nga dzhia tshifhinga tshi edanaho awara na hafu. Ni khou humbeliwa u vhala na u saina linwalo ili la thendelo le na nekedzwa. U shela hanu mulenzhe ndi nga u tou funa nahone a zwi nga divhiwi nga munwe muthu uri ndi inwi.

Ndi a livhuwa ndi na ndavhelelo.

Mrs. Babane Zondi Thelma mutshudeni wa Masitasi kha muhasho wa zwa Vhushumelavhapo kha Yunivesithi ya Limpopo University of Limpopo, Turfloop Campus nomboro ya lutingo: 071 1099 207

Tsaino ya Mudzheneleli:	
·	
Duvha:	

Appendix 4a. Interview schedule

- What types of crimes do young people commit in your area?
- In your view, explain how parental practices influence criminal behaviour amongst young offenders?
- How were rules set to guide young people's behaviour by parents?
- What kind of disciplinary measures did parents apply in controlling the criminal behaviour?
- What are the disciplinary measures used by parents that you are in support or not in support of?
- Can you explain how parental control influences criminal behaviour?
- How do young offenders react to physical punishment used by parents in controlling criminal behaviour?
- How can responsive parenting contribute to your positive behaviour?
- What kind of training do you think would help in child-rearing?
- What intervention initiatives that you attended assisted you and your parents?

Xiyengekule 4b. Nhlokohliso wa swivutiso lowu lulamisiweke

- Xana i muxaka wihi wa vugevenga lowu endliwaka hi vana lavantsongo eka ndhawu ya ka n'wina?
- Hi mavonelo ya wena, hlamusela mitolovelo leyi vatswari va kucetelaka mahanyelo ya vugevenga eka vana lavantsongo hayona?
- Xana milawu yi vekiwile njhani ku letela mahanyelo ya vana lavantsongo hi vatswari?
- I muxaka muni wa mpimo wa matshinyelo lowu tirhisiwaka hi vatswari ku lawula mahanyelo ya vugevenga?
- Xana i mpimo wa matshinyelo wahi lowu tirhisiwaka hi vatswari lowu u wu seketelaka kumbe u nga wu seketeliki?
- Xana u nga hlamusela leswaku i malawulelo ma njhani ma vatswari lama ma kucetelaka mahanyelo ya vugevenga?
- Xana vatshovi va nawu lavantsongo va hlamula njhani eka ku tshinyiwa hi ku biwa leswi tirhisiwaka hi vatswari eku lawuleni ka mahanyelo ya vugevenga?
- Xana hi ndlela yihi vutswari byo pfuleka byi nga hoxaka xandla eka mahanyelo ya wena ya kahle?
- I ku leteriwa ka njhani loku u nga ku ehleketaka ku nga ku pfunaka ku kurisa n'wana?
- Xana i ku nghenelela ka njhani u nga ku nghenela loku ku pfuneke wena na mutswari?

Siatari-nyengedzedzwa la 4c: mbuziso dza inthaviuwu

- Ndi tshaka dzifhio dza vhugevhenga vhune vhaswa vha khou vhu ita vhuponi ha hanu?
- U ya nga inwi, talutshedzani uri zwiito zwa vhabebi zwi tutuwedza hani vhudifari ha vhugevhenga kha vhatshinyi vhane vha kha di vha vhaswa?
- Ndayo dza vhaswa dzo vhekanywa hani nga vhabebi?
- Ndi afhio maga a ndaţiso e vhabebi vha vha vha tshi a dzhia u langa vhudifari ha vhugevhenga?
- Ndi afhio maga a ndatiso nga vhabebi ane na vha khao, ane na si vhe khao kana ane na a tikedza?
- Ni nga talutshedza uri ndango nga vhabebi i nga tutuwedza hani vhudifari ha vhugevhenga?
- Vhafariwa vhane vha kha di vha vhaswa vha zwi dzhia hani zwa u rwiwa nga vhabebi kha u langa vhudifari ha vhugevhenga?
- Ndondolo nga vhabebi i nga shela hani mulenzhe kha vhudifari hanu havhudi?
- Ndi dzifhio ngudo dzine na vhona dzi tshi nga thusa kha u alusa nwana?



University of Limpopo

Department of Research Administration and Development
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
Tel: (015) 268 3935, Fax: (015) 268 2306, Email: anastasia.ngobe@ul.ac.za

TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

MEETING:

06 March 2019

PROJECT NUMBER:

TREC/54/2019: PG

PROJECT:

Title:

Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their

criminal behavior.

Researcher:

ZT Babane Prof JC Makhubele

Supervisor: Co-Supervisor/s:

N/A

School: Degree: Social Sciences Masters Social Work

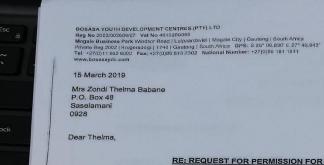
CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: REC-0310111-031

Note:

- This Ethics Clearance Certificate will be valid for one (1) year, as from the abovementioned i) date. Application for annual renewal (or annual review) need to be received by TREC one month before lapse of this period.
- ii) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee, together with the Application for Amendment form.
- iii) PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

Finding solutions for Africa





RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Thank you for choosing our facility to conduct your research, permission is granted and may your good work bear fruit. As we are in partnership with the Department of Social Development in the province of your study, it would be appropriate if you can copy the Provincial Coordinator responsible for the facility so that he/she can know when you will be conducting your study.

I pray that you continue to do well in your studies.

Kind regards,

Ms Yyonhe Spandiel Head of Social Work Services Bosasa Youth Development Centres Tel: +27 (0)11 662 6897 Fax: +27 (0)11 662 6891 Mobile: +27 (0)82 714 3962

Ms Thandi Makoko
Executive Chairperson
Bosasa Youth Development Centres
Tel: +27 (0)11 662 6891
Fax: +27 (0)162 6691
Mobile: +27 (0)82 607 1543



DIRECTORS: JSA Leyds (Ms), NLT Makoko (Ms), MS Dlamini, LCS Scholtz (Dr), M Oliveria (Ms)

BOSASA CHILD & YOUTH CARE CENTRES: MOGALE LESEDING (HEAD OFFICE) +27(0):11:685-1247 | CLANWILLIAM | HORIZON | NAMAQUA | DE AAR | SIKHUSELEKILE | JOHN X MERRIMAN | MAFIKENG | MATLOSANA | RUSTENBURG | POLOKWANE | MAYAMBE



DEPARTMENT OF

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

TO: RESEARCH COMMITTEE

APPROVAL TO USE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT'S FACILITIES

This certifies that Ms Babane ZT has presented the significance of her research study titled: 'Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behavior".

Ms. Babane ZT research study

- 1. The findings of the study
 - The study will assist in the prevention and treatment of criminal behaviour
 amongst young offenders and parenting skills programmes for the parents. It
 will give an opportunity to young offenders to take part in taking decisions that
 affect their lives. It will also make parents aware of possible contributory factors
 between them and their children in child rearing.
- 2. Population and area of study

The researcher is targeting 16 respondents young people will be interviewed. The study will take place in the Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, in particular at Vhembe District.

 In view of the above, this letter grants Ms. Babane permission to use the Department of Social Development facilities in Vhembe District.

Deputy Director: Population Development Unit

Mokobane R

22 07 19 Date

Facility Letter Babane July 2019



OFFICE OF THE PREMIER

Office of the Premier

Research and Development Directorate

Private Bag X9483, Polokwane, 0700, South Africa

Tel: (015) 287 6564, Email: mokobij@premier.limpopo.gov.za

LIMPOPO PROVINCIAL RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Meeting:

24th June 2019

Project Number: LPREC/03/2019: PG

Subject: Perceptions of Young Offenders Regarding Parental Influence on their Criminal Behaviour

Researcher: Babane ZT

Dr Thembinkosi Mabila

Elm

Chairperson: Limpopo Provincial Research Ethics Committee

The Limpopo Provincial Research Ethics Committee (LPREC) is registered with National Health Research Council (NHREC) Registration Number REC-111513-038.

Note:

- This study is categorized as a Low Risk Level in accordance with risk level descriptors as enshrined in LPREC Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs)
- Should there be any amendment to the approved research proposal; the researcher(s) must re-submit the proposal to the ethics committee for review prior data collection.
- The researcher(s) must provide annual reporting to the committee as well as the relevant iii.
- The ethical clearance certificate is valid for 12 months. Should the need to extend the period for data collection arise then the researcher should renew the certificate through LPREC secretariat. PLEASE QUOTE THE PROJECT NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES



DEPARTMENT OF

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

TO: RESEARCH COMMITTEE

APPROVAL TO USE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT'S FACILITIES

This certifies that Ms Babane ZT has presented the significance of her research study titled: 'Perceptions of young offenders regarding parental influence on their criminal behavior".

Ms. Babane ZT research study

- 1. The findings of the study
 - The study will assist in the prevention and treatment of criminal behaviour amongst young offenders and parenting skills programmes for the parents. It will give an opportunity to young offenders to take part in taking decisions that affect their lives. It will also make parents aware of possible contributory factors between them and their children in child rearing.
- Population and area of study

The researcher is targeting 16 respondents young people will be interviewed. The study will take place in the Mavambe Child and Youth Care Centre, in particular at Vhembe District.

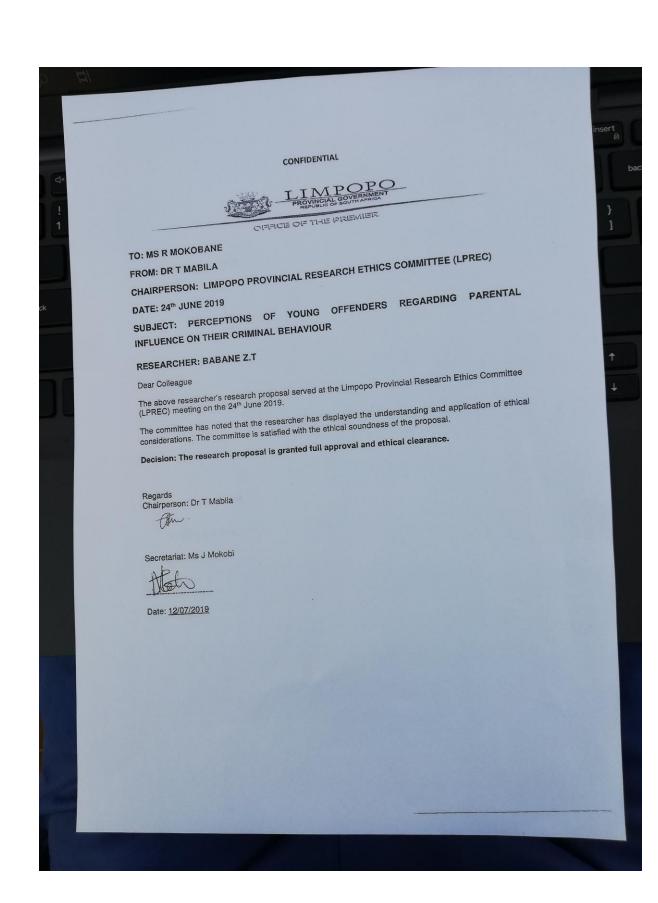
3. In view of the above, this letter grants Ms. Babane permission to use the permission of Social Development facilities in Vhembe District.

Deputy Director: Population Development Unit

07 19 Date

Mokobane R

Facility Letter Babane July 2019



CONFIDENTIAL



TO: MS R MOKOBANE

FROM: PROF S MAPUTLE CHAIRPERSON: LIMPOPO PROVINCIAL RESEARCH COMMITTEE (LPRC)

SUBJECT: PERCEPTIONS OF YOUNG OFFENDERS REGARDING PARENTAL

INFLUENCE ON THEIR CRIMINAL BEHAVIOUR

RESEARCHER: BABANE Z.T

The above researcher's research proposal served at the Limpopo Provincial Research Committee (LPRC) meeting on the 24^{th} June 2019.

The committee has noted that the researcher has displayed the understanding and application of scientific research. The committee is satisfied with the research proposal.

Decision: The research proposal is granted full approval.

Regards Chairperson: Prof S Maputle

Willapulle

Secretariat: Ms J Mokobi

Date: 12/07/2019