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IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE KHULISA DIVERSION PROGRAMME

BY

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of the

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degree

Master of Arts

in

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Supervisor: Dr. Francois Strydom

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the work presented in this dissertation is entirely my own and has not been presented for any other degree or to any other institution previously.

_____

THABO MONYATSI

Dedication

To my Mother, Senkhahli, to you I dedicate this work, as a token of my love. You have always been a guiding force.

I thank you dearly.

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With gratitude, I wish to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to the following people:

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To all participants in the Khulisa Diversion programme. Without you, this study could not have been possible.

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to identify the needs of participants in the Khulisa Diversion Programme. It evaluated the outcomes and impacts of this programme. The researcher set out to determine and explore whether the programme is meeting the needs of its participants. These children have been referred to it by juvenile courts, schools and parents for committing minor crimes that do not require the criminal justice system. The needs identified were based on Maslow's theory of hierarchy of needs.

This research study uses a qualitative research approach. A questionnaire was administered to the participants and a focus group interview was conducted with the group after the main themes were identified from an analysis of the completed questionnaires. Central themes that emerged related mainly to participants' unique understanding of their needs as related to the delinquent acts committed.

The interview was transcribed and analyzed and the data obtained were documented and recommendations were submitted to Khulisa on how the Diversion Programme could be improved by meeting the needs of its participants. The results indicated that Khulisa has developed an intervention programme that is meeting the needs of these young children, provides them with the opportunity to reflect on their wrong behaviours and aims to help them correct their behaviours in future. In particular, the children who participated in this study seemed to have developed an insight into their behaviors and to have realized the importance of accountability and being responsible for their behavior.

The study also highlighted numerous research and methodological difficulties inherent in this study. These problems, and recommendations for future studies, are discussed. The study, while limited, provides initial support for the continued use of the Khulisa Diversion Programme when dealing with juveniles who can be diverted from the criminal justice system.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

South Africa is currently characterized by escalating criminal activities, which has earned it the reputation of being the country with the highest crime rate in the world (Cain, 1997). Some of these crimes are those committed by juveniles and bring with them severe political, economic, legal and social implications. The damaging effects of these crimes cannot be underestimated: businesses are being driven out of city centers, emigration is rapidly increasing, draining South Africa of her most talented and highly qualified professionals, foreign investments are discouraged and the security and safety of citizens are threatened. Jenkins (1997) suggests that the South African crime phenomenon is destroying the very fabric of this society.

Delinquent adolescent behaviour is a pressing problem in South Africa. Thousands of juveniles are arrested annually. Millions of rands per year are required to maintain the juvenile justice system (Swenson and Kennedy, 1995). Adolescents under 18 years of age account for 16% of arrests for violent crimes, and 34% of property crime arrests. (Allen, Sickmund, and Snyder, 1994). The relationship between juveniles and violent crime has varied considerably over time. Between 1988 and 1992 arrests for violent crimes committed by juveniles increased by 47%, while violent crime arrests of adults only increased by 19% (Allen, Sickmund, and Snyder, 1994). However, statistics have indicated a drop in violent crime among juveniles (Sickmund, Snyder, and Poe- Yamagata, 1997).

Studies indicate that juvenile delinquents are more likely than non-delinquents to suffer problems in adulthood, such as unemployment, alcoholism, and involvement

in welfare (Kazdin, 1992). Community-based programmes are available that present a grassroots orientation, geared towards reforming behaviours by attempting to deal with deviant behaviours in juveniles (Eldefonso and Hartinger, 1976). The Khulisa Diversion Programme is an example of these community-based programmes. It is the brainchild of African spiritual leader, Credo Mutwa, and makes use of story telling, art, and life skills exercises as a core means of developing self-esteem, personal power, and restoration. Khulisa has been able to demonstrate the possibility of harmonizing and integrating diverse relationships by means of research, learning and providing a framework for an alternative lifestyle. These relationships include relationships between children and their families, parents, children and prison inmates and authorities and even amongst prisoners themselves.

According to Yablonsky and Haskell (1988), all the varied approaches used to help juvenile offenders rest on the assumption that there are advantages to treating the offender or potential offender in the community. The general advantages of community-based programmes are that they are less costly and have a better chance of success than institutional programmes (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988). Effective planning for community rehabilitation can be done with a careful survey of the needs of participants (Patton, 1990).

Such a survey is not merely an estimate of the probable number of people needing rehabilitation services in the community; it also includes the level of understanding and the degree of cooperation among public and private agencies, the degree of acceptance of rehabilitation and finally, the existing “market” for any enlarged plan of rehabilitation service (Patton, 1990).

The empirical literature strongly supports a socio-ecological view of behaviour in which delinquent behaviour is multi-determined by the reciprocal interplay of personality characteristics of the individual youth and the key social systems in which youths are embedded (i.e., family, peer, school, and neighbourhood). As such, effective treatment approaches must address the multi-determined nature of delinquency. Hence, potentially effective treatments must have (a) the flexibility and comprehensiveness to address variables across the youth's social network that contribute to delinquent behaviour, and (b) the capacity to be individualized to fit the specific strengths, weaknesses, and needs of a particular youth and family, including a focus on cultural influences (Patton, 1990).

1.1. Aims of the study

This study aims to identify the needs of young offenders participating in the Khulisa diversion programme. After the completion of the study, conclusions are drawn as to whether the programme is meeting the basic needs of its participants, and recommendations are made to Khulisa regarding ways of meeting the needs of juveniles participating in this diversion programme.

1.2. Rationale

Since the mid to late 1970s, there has been a significant growth in the global development of intervention programmes for children (Grand, 2000). While very few of these programmes have been comprehensively evaluated, researchers have begun to identify core components that appear to result in successful treatment. This study is also contributing to this field.

While recognizing the potential of rehabilitating juvenile offenders, it is important to consider the potential needs of young offenders in order for them to acquire specific knowledge and life skills so as to be able to serve the community.

In this area, there are few ways of analyzing the needs of juvenile delinquents. The information generated in this study will be used to contribute to the improvement of the Khulisa diversion programme, aimed at helping juvenile delinquents. Since there has been little evaluative research on programmes like this, this study will therefore seek to establish to what extent the programme is effective in meeting participants' needs. Also, due to the fact that little research has been conducted with regard to this area in South Africa, this study was exploratory in nature. The qualitative paradigm facilitates a deeper level of understanding, which the author believes will point to potential future research.

1.3. Definition of Terms

- Juvenile delinquency: children's acts of crime at a young age, normally under the age of 18, which do not classify them as criminals.
- Diversion: A system of placing young children in a programme to help to divert them from criminal activities.
- Reform: to become or make something better by correcting or making improvements.
- Rehabilitation: the process of helping someone to return to a normal life and of restoring his/her former status in human life.
- Crime: the activity of breaking the law and an offence for which one is subjected to punishment by the law.
- Adolescent: the time in the child's life when he/she develops into adulthood.
- Probation: the system by which a person found guilty of a crime is not sent to prison but is legally required to report regularly to an official, and perform community duties during a fixed period.

1.4. Outlines

Chapter 1 of this research study provides an introduction to the topic of juvenile delinquency. It also introduces the juvenile rehabilitation programme, Diversion, which is a programme run by Khulisa for delinquent children. This introductory chapter discusses the needs of juvenile delinquents participating in this programme. The aims of as well as the rationale for this study are given in this chapter.

Chapter 2 considers a background literature that forms the backbone of this study. The review is based on the concept of the causes of juvenile delinquency and on

responses to delinquency as a way of remedying these behaviours. The chapter also attempts to show the relationship between juvenile delinquency and childhood disorders.

Chapter 3 of this study discusses the theoretical framework of the research. In identifying the needs of juveniles participating in the Khulisa programme, the researcher shows how he used Maslow's theory of needs as a framework for his study. This is done by giving the rationale behind the use of this theory as well as a critique of this theory.

Research methodology is the topic of chapter 4. The subjects of this study are discussed in this chapter, as well as the different methods used to conduct the research. The researcher shows how he used qualitative methods to collect and analyze data.

Chapter 5 provides the results of the study, based on two methods of collecting data, questionnaires and focus group discussion.

In chapter 6 the researcher brings together the results of this study by looking at results, which are common to both methods of collecting the data. This is done in the triangulation format.

Chapter 7 concludes this study by indicating to Khulisa that its diversion programme does meet the basic needs of its participants and by providing recommendations to Khulisa regarding how the diversion programme can be improved by further meeting the needs of its participants. The chapter also explores the limitations of this study and gives suggestions for future research in this field.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Delinquent acts are a special category of deviant acts. Every deviant act involves the violation of social rules that regulate the behaviour of participants in a social system (Cloward and Ohlin, 1960). Worldwide, criminal acts of young persons are referred to as juvenile delinquency (Cohen, 1964). In some countries, delinquency includes conduct that is antisocial, dangerous, or harmful to the goals or norms of the society. The general tendency is to limit the term to activities that if carried out by an adult would be called crimes (Cohen, 1964). Juveniles are described worldwide as irresponsible youth who are being influenced by their environment. In the US, since the 1980s, juvenile delinquency has often been referred to as youth offences. The age at which juveniles legally become adults differs from country to country, but in most states, young people are considered juveniles until the age of 18 years (Clements, 1987, cited in Mzinyathi, 1992). However, some countries set the limit at the age of 16 or 17.

In a South African study, it was found that in the Cape Peninsula, juvenile delinquency was proportionately more common in poor neighbourhoods (Mzinyathi, 1992). In an American study of the profiles of delinquents, it was found that fifty percent of delinquents come from neighbourhoods considered below average economically. Some stem from homes where public assistance funds comprised all of the family income (Yablonsky and Haskell,1988).

Delinquent behaviour has been the subject of considerable research in the last 50 years. Significant strides have been made in our understanding of both the antecedents and consequences of delinquent activity, as well as in evaluating the effectiveness of strategies to prevent delinquency or to intervene with delinquent adolescents (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988).

2.2. Definition of juvenile delinquency

A standard youth justice textbook defines diversion as ‘strategies developed in the youth justice system to prevent young people from committing crime or to ensure that they avoid formal court action and custody if they are arrested and prosecuted.’ (Glasser, 1965) Thus, diversion can incorporate a variety of strategies from school-based crime prevention programmes through to community-based programmes used as an alternative to custody. Diversion does not necessarily require a child to be placed in a formal programme but includes interventions such as receiving a police caution, writing a letter of apology, participating in an alternative dispute resolution forum or being placed under supervision.

The practice of diversion developed concurrently with the establishment of separate child justice systems. Different periods have resulted in various diversion practices coming into and out of vogue. Initially, diversion interventions were based within institutions and were designed to provide treatment and moral re-education with the aim of preventing further offences. Later, there was a move towards community-based interventions in response to the criticism that institutions were stigmatizing, dehumanising, criminogenic and costly. With the rise of restorative justice, new

diversion interventions that focus on repairing the harm caused by crime were developed, including processes such as family group conferences.

Despite its varied philosophical roots, the practice of diversion is believed to promote more humanitarian and less stigmatising responses to child offences than punitive sentences (Glasser, 1965). Academics have, however argued that while diversion can be implemented in such a manner, the promotion of more humanitarian and less stigmatising responses to child offending is not necessarily the results.

Considering that these issues are discussed extensively elsewhere, this review will only briefly outline the main criticisms of diversion.

The primary criticism of diversion is that it results in ‘net-widening’. It is argued that diversion can often be a means for expanding the scope of more invasive measures of social control. A counterargument proposes that diversion can be used as part of a process to ‘define deviance down’, which consequently has the opposite effect of net widening. It allows certain individuals, usually those who have committed relatively minor offences or who are first offenders, to experience negligible state intervention (Glasser, 1965). This, in turn, alleviates the pressure on invariably overburdened criminal justice system and the state can appear to be productive with minimal effort and expenditure. Of great concern is the fact that diversion is often initiated without the concurrent provision of measures to ensure the protection of children’s legal rights. Coupled with this is the problem that the power to divert is often given to a limited number of professionals who are granted a wide discretionary authority. This can result in race, class and gender prejudices influencing which children are afforded access to diversion interventions. While these concerns regarding the just implementation of diversion are valid, the establishment of a

suitable legal framework to govern the referral procedures, access to and delivery of diversion interventions can provide sufficient protection. In South Africa, diversion has been practised without such a regulating legal framework.

According to Glasser (1965), a youth may become a juvenile delinquent if his or her life style is based upon consistently meeting one's needs in such a way that it deprives others of the ability to meet their needs. A juvenile delinquent or offender is any person under the age of 17 who commits an act that violates some ordinances or statutes. In South Africa, a child or juvenile is any person under the age of 18 (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Juvenile delinquency involves illegal behaviours such as robbery, drugs, housebreaking and many more, which if committed by an adult would be considered as crimes (Amanda, 1999). However, according to the Human Rights Commission, whether children have committed an offence or not, they are still children and the matter should be dealt with in a way that does not undermine their rights as children. Children need not be placed in the criminal justice system, because they might end up making a career of crime. (*Mail and Guardian survey (nd) Retrieved July 17, 2003 from* www.mg.co.za/mg/news/gangs/html/

2.3. Causes of juvenile delinquency

Regoli and Hewitt (1994) believe that delinquency should not be seen as a surprising phenomenon but as something all adolescents will participate in unless obstacles are placed in their path by a disapproving society.

These obstacles are implanted in most people but less so in others (Regoli and Hewitt, 1994).

Hirshi, 1992, cited in Regoli and Hewitt (1994) mentioned lack of attachment, belief, commitment and involvement as some of the causes of juvenile delinquency. He defines attachment as an emotional element, which refers to how much a person cares about other people.

Children who are attached to parents are less likely to become delinquent because their positive feelings promote acceptance and belief of parents. It stands to reason that children will avoid delinquency because such behaviour may jeopardize that affection. Involvement in conventional activities was viewed as a means of preventing delinquency as early as biblical times. Regoli and Hewitt (1994) argue that the youth will become involved in activities that will keep them away from the street and that if such facilities are available they will have less time for the pursuit of delinquency. As pointed out above, in an American study on the profiles of delinquents, it was found that fifty percent of delinquents come from neighbourhoods considered below average economically. Some come from homes where public assistance funds comprised all of the family income (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988).

This situation is nearly the same as the South African situation, where there is a very high rate of unemployment (Isaacs, 1997). In most families pensioners are the sole providers for such families. The rate of unemployment may be the cause of juvenile delinquency in this country, because owing to the poverty experienced at home, the youth may resort to criminal activities as a means of survival (Isaacs, 1997). The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR) carried out a study during the year 2000, on the causes of juvenile delinquency in South Africa.

Their concern was the high number of youth in South African prisons. According to Department of Correctional Services statistics, there has been an increase in the number of youth that have been arrested since 1997 (CSVR report, 2000).
In this dissertation, the following causes of juvenile delinquency are discussed: family unit and setting, unemployment and poverty, societal factors, peer group, and self-concept.

2.3.1. Family unit and family setting

Juvenile misbehaviour is a social problem that affects all members of society, young and old, at some point in time in their lives. Juvenile delinquency in South Africa could be traced back to industrialization and urbanization, when families were disrupted because of family movements from one place to another, especially from rural to urban areas looking for work (Cronje, Van Der Walt, Retief and Naude, 1986). Thus, fathers had to leave their families and children behind. This changed the family structure and function, which could contribute to juvenile delinquency owing to parents working away from home and being unable to fulfil their responsibility for the socialization of their children.

Socialization means preparation of children for life in society, but because of industrialization and urbanization this had not been possible (Cronje et al., 1986). Family disruptions lowered the child's resistance to becoming delinquent. Families in their smaller communities traditionally handled misbehaviour, but this has more recently been handled by the police (Yablonsky and Haskel, 1988).

Hence if a child misbehaves he or she is taken to the police. In the past the local leaders who were men, would normally punish that child. They would come together to decide on the kind of punishment. Usually, corporal punishment was the most favoured method, depending on the behaviour.

Offenders come predominantly from lower class backgrounds, divorced families, unemployed families and other situations (White Paper For Social Welfare, 1997). However, this does not mean that all children from such families will be delinquent. McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) have identified divorce as one of the causes of juvenile delinquency in South Africa. Young people leave their homes due to a marital break up and travel to large cities in search of employment. In most instances, they do not find it and therefore resort to crime as a way of surviving (McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990). In the South African context, the family is crucial to a child's development and upbringing (Mzinyathi, 1992). Much of what children learn is obtained through their families or guardians. Many children are being brought up by a single parent or in an extended family. According to research conducted in Britain, many delinquents come from homes where parents abuse alcohol and/or drugs or are themselves criminals (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988).

Poverty, physical and verbal abuse, parents with little respect for themselves and erratic discipline patterns emerged as factors contributing to juvenile delinquency. Reports of child abuse in families have increased markedly over the past decade and now stand at over 500 000 per year. Witnessing or being a victim of violence at a very early age can have a demonstrable long-term effect on a child's decision to use physical force therefore possibly leading to delinquent acts (McKendrick and Hoffman, 1990).

2.3.2. Unemployment and poverty

It is evident that unemployment is also one of the many reasons that may lead to our youth becoming juvenile delinquents. Currently, South Africa has a very high unemployment rate. Isaacs (1997) attributes to this high rate of unemployment to privatisation programmes. He also believes that in developing countries, billion jobs will be needed in the next decade. Owing to unemployment, many young people enter any form of labour market to obtain money (Isaacs, 1997).

In certain parts of the country this has led to some young people more youths beginning to make a life for themselves through committing crimes. Other youths, because of the above factors as well as their families being unable to take care of them, are likely to drop out of school to try and survive, adding to the increase in juvenile delinquency.

It was also found that most of the young people who end up in prison had at least one or several family members who were involved in crime and that sometimes this is a form of subsistence for the family (CSVR report, 2000).

2.3.3. Societal factors

In certain situations, societies or even neighbourhoods could be structured in a way that promotes delinquency or even criminal behaviour. Some societal structures exert a defined pressure upon certain persons in that society to engage in a non-conforming rather than conforming behaviour. In the US, Europe and Japan most delinquents were boys though the number of delinquents who are girls has risen dramatically since the early 1980s (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988).

Most female juveniles also come from the lower middle class and the poorest segments of society. In relation to South Africa, there is a similar situation in which most young people come from black township areas that are characterized by overcrowding and unemployment (Mzinyathi, 1992). Therefore, these factors exert a strong pressure upon certain persons to engage in non-conforming behaviour.

2.3.4. Peer group

Peer pressure might also play a role in juvenile delinquency. Peer pressure could influence a child's criminal behaviour just as the family could. Children are extremely vulnerable and can easily be influenced by peers and adults into exhibiting criminal behaviour. If children are viewed as delinquents, then they will act as such and find a sense of self-esteem by doing so (Yablonsky and Haskel, 1988). The peer group is an adolescent's main source of social interaction. It is very important therefore, that they be accepted into the peer group of their choice (Hurrelmann and Engle, 1991).

One study states that if a peer group does not accept a child, it can cause them to participate in deviant behaviour (Hurrelmann and Engle, 1991).

In some cases delinquents reported feelings of being:

- 'Different from others,
- Ridiculed,
- Ganged up on,
- Rejected by the group. (Marcus, 1996, p. 152)

Many peer social groups are established in terms of members' possessions. It becomes very important to posses certain things during adolescence.

If a child in a peer group is not able to afford these material things, this could result in deviant behaviour in order to obtain these desired goods. Such deviant behaviour could include:

- ‘Steeling from other peers,
- Shoplifting,
- Stealing money’ (Marcus, 1996, p. 152)

If an adolescent in a group does not possess what other children have, he or she may not be accepted or might feel not accepted by the group (Hurrelmann and Engle, 1991). For example, a peer group may feel that one cannot be ‘cool’ if he or she does not own a pair of Nike Sneakers. In this situation, the adolescent could resort to stealing the shoes in an attempt to fit in. Another study discussed the level of commitment to each other that non-delinquent peer groups show (Marcus, 1996). Delinquents feel that their friends are not interested in their problems and the latter do not listen to them when they need to talk. The majority of the time that delinquent peers spend together does not predict delinquency (Hurrelmann and Engle, 1991). The time that peers spend together is not focused on emotional intimacy or bonding (Pabon, Rodriguez and Gruin, 1992). It has been found that the less an adolescent is involved in school activities, the greater the chance they will take part in delinquent behaviour. Delinquents have been described as just drifting through school (Downs and Rose, 1991). Compared to non-delinquents, adolescents who involve themselves in delinquent behaviour:

- ‘Tend not to be involved in a college preparatory programme
- Do not plan on going to college in the future
- Are most likely not to enrol in the school’s vocational program’

(Hurrelmann and Engle, 1991).

2.3.5. Self concepts

Many youths do not define themselves as delinquent, even when their behaviour clearly points to that conclusion. Others believe that they are bad or that they are delinquents based on minor norm violation (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988).

There are those youths who commit very few deviant acts yet believe that they are delinquent. This is because they know that what they are doing is wrong and is against the law. However, many young people who are engaged in deviant acts like robbery, drug abuse or violence, which are considered delinquent by the judgement of most community norms, still do not define their behaviour as deviant. The self-concept of delinquency often does not agree with the objective behaviour situation. The self-concept that one is delinquent has a real, personal impact on the young person who believes that he or she is a delinquent (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988). Some deny their status and continue with their behaviour until they are officially defined as juvenile delinquents by the juvenile courts or judicial system. When convicted, juveniles rationalize their behaviour by blaming the system, their parents or even claim that they were victims of discrimination (Mzinyathi, 1992).

2.4. Juvenile delinquency and childhood disorders

There is a relationship between juvenile delinquency and certain childhood disorders. The emphasis on these disorders remains on the inability of the individual to attain certain normal developmental milestones and the functions, capabilities and behaviour associated with those levels (Feuman, 1994). There are 10 subgroups or subcategories of diagnoses in the disorders usually first diagnosed in the child or adolescent groups. However, the purpose of this section will be to look into those disorders that are related to delinquent behaviour, if not treated.

Feuman (1994) classified these disorders as attention and disruptive behaviour disorders. They are characterized by irritating, impulsive, disruptive, defiant or antisocial behaviour that is contrary to acceptable social norms.

2.4.1. Attention deficit disorders

This disorder is a composite disorder that includes two major syndromes, inattention and hyperactivity impulsivity. The two syndromes may occur independently or together. The symptoms begin before the age of 7 years and cause some impairment in two or more settings.

The symptoms of ADD manifest itself in unique passivity or inattentiveness, or uncontrollable, aggressive hyperactivity. (Sue, Sue and Sue (2003). Many people with the ADD symptoms may be unable to sit still, plan ahead, finish tasks, or be fully aware of what is going on around them. Other symptoms of ADD can be summarized as follows:

- Often fidgeting with hands or feet while seated.
- Having difficulty awaiting turn in games or activities.
- Having difficulty in following instructions.
- Having difficulty sustaining attention in tasks or play activities.
- Often talking excessively.
- Often engaging in physically dangerous activities without considering possible consequences.
- Being easily distracted by extraneous stimuli. (Sue, et al., (2003).

According to Sue, et al., (2003), these disorders if not treated at an early stage do result in delinquent acts.

2.4.2. Oppositional defiant disorders

All children are oppositional from time to time, particularly when tired, hungry, stressed or upset. They may argue, talk back, disobey, and defy parents, teachers, and other adults (Sue, et al., 2003).

Oppositional behaviour is often a normal part of development for two to three year olds and early adolescents. However, openly uncooperative and hostile behaviour becomes a serious concern when it is so frequent and consistent that it stands out when compared with the behaviour of other children of the same age and developmental level and when it affects the child's social, family, and academic life. In children with oppositional defiant disorder (ODD), there is an ongoing pattern of uncooperative, defiant and hostile behaviour toward authority figures that seriously interferes with the youngster's day – to – day functioning. This behaviour later in their lives develops into delinquent behaviours (Sue, et al., 2003).

2.4.3. Conduct disorder

This is a complicated group of behavioural and emotional problems in youngsters. Children and adolescents with this disorder have great difficulty following rules and behaving in a socially acceptable way. Other children, adults and social agencies often view them as 'bad' or delinquent, rather than mentally ill (Sue, et al., 2003). School children who exhibit these behaviours should receive a comprehensive evaluation.

Many children with a conduct disorder may have coexisting conditions such as mood disorders, anxiety, post traumatic stress disorder, substance abuse, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, learning problems, or thought disorders which can also be treated. Research shows that youngsters with conduct disorder are likely to have ongoing problems if they and their families do not receive early and comprehensive treatment. Without treatment, many youngsters with conduct disorders are unable to adapt to the demands of adulthood and continue to have problems with relationships and holding a job.

They often break laws or behave in an antisocial manner, and later become delinquent (Sue, et al., 2003).

2.4.4. Antisocial personality disorder

Individuals with this disorder are aged at least 18, have evidence of conduct disorder occurring before the age of 15, and exhibit a pervasive pattern of disregard for violation of the rights of others (Feuman, 1994).

A number of studies on juvenile delinquency have indicated that most juvenile delinquents are failing to comply with social norms with respect to lawful behaviours, as indicated by repeatedly performing acts that are grounds for arrest, deceitfulness, as indicated by repeated lying, use of aliases, conning others for personal pleasure, and/or irritability and aggressiveness as indicated by repeated physical fights or assaults. These individuals therefore meet the diagnostic criteria for antisocial personality disorders (Feuman, 1994).

2.5. Responses to juvenile delinquency

2.5.1. The juvenile crime challenge: Making prevention a priority

Examining research on both prevention of and intervention in delinquent behaviour suggests that early prevention will be more effective than interventions with identified delinquent adolescents (Zingler, Taussig and Black, 1992). Strategies focusing on prevention with young children who have been identified as at risk for future delinquent behaviour have proven effective McCord, 1994). Other effective strategies include focusing on community-based programmes, focusing on social skills and building connections with a community, rather than long-term stays in institutional centres (Mulvey, Arthur and Reppucci, 1993). Family-focused programmes, which help parents to develop and maintain effective monitoring and discipline strategies, have also proven effective, especially when they are sensitive to their specific environments, and involve long-term community efforts (Kumpfer, Molgaard and Spoth, 1996).

2.5.1.1. Juvenile Justice System

In South Africa, diversion is understood as the ‘channelling of prima facie cases away from the criminal justice system on certain conditions’. These usually involve participation in specific programmes, and other extra-judicial programmes, including family group conferencing and victim-offender mediation (Child Justice Bill, 2002).

The decision to refer young offenders is made by the public prosecutor and the diversion option is at his or her discretion. Diversion programmes or options may therefore contain elements of rehabilitation and a restorative justice approach.
The drafting of the Bill has been the most central child justice development in South Africa during the past decade. The Bill, which will hopefully be enacted soon, will be the first piece of legislation to comprehensively manage children accused of committing offences. One of the central objectives of the proposed child justice system is to promote the expanded use of diversion in a consistent and just manner. Before examining how the proposed child justice system intends to accomplish this, some of the significant events and processes that have shaped the drafting of the Bill will be briefly outlined.

Although the campaign for the drafting of separate child justice legislation can be traced back to the 1980s, it was only with South Africa's readmission to the international community that this early advocacy work yielded results. South Africa's new constitution provided special rights to children and on 16 June 1995 the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) was ratified. Hence, South Africa was obliged to develop discrete child justice legislation and in December 1996, the Minister of Justice established a Juvenile Justice Project Committee (hereinafter referred to as the Project Committee) for the purpose of drafting this legislation.

The enshrining of children's rights in the South African Constitution and the ratification of the UNCRC not only provided the impetus to commence drafting the Bill, but also greatly influenced the legislation that was developed. Article 40(3)(b) of

the UNCRC stipulates that child justice systems should develop diversion options when appropriate, and structures to ensure the protection of children's due process rights.

The Project Committee could therefore develop a legal framework that would both improve access to and regulate the administration of diversion. However, it was not just this obligation that led to diversion occupying a central place in the Bill but rather the desire to 'further entrench the reality of diversion as part of child justice practice'.

The Project Committee initially produced and circulated an Issue Paper in May 1997. Submissions were received in response to this Paper and a number of consultative processes were initiated. Feedback was captured in the Discussion Paper, released in December 1998, which also included a draft version of the Bill. Again, thorough consultation followed with the various sectors, including the Departments of Justice and Constitutional Development, Social Development, Safety and Security and also Correctional Services, as well as diversion service providers, other concerned NGOs, legal aid providers, academics, concerned citizen and children.
On 8 August 2000, the Project Committee released their final Report on Juvenile Justice, with a revised Bill. The Bill was introduced into Parliament on 13 August 2002 after the state law advisors had made some changes, which were largely cosmetic and not substantial. By 2005, the Justice and Constitutional Development Portfolio Committee had finished hearing the oral submissions and had begun the process of informally discussing the Bill.

The understanding of diversion in South Africa has evolved by means of these various Project Committee documents. Initially, the Issue Paper developed the IMC's earlier Interim Policy Recommendations by presenting a series of questions designed to obtain feedback concerning how the legislative framework for diversion should be structured. It was in the 1998 discussion paper that diversion was elevated to become a 'central objective of the proposed new system'. In order to accomplish this objective, the Discussion Paper included proposals for a more effective referral process. Regarding diversion, the Bill did not deviate much from the Discussion Paper.

The aims of diverting young people are stated in Chapter Six (6) of the Child Justice Bill (2002), paragraph 43:

* Encourage the child to be accountable for the harm caused,
* Meet the particular needs of the individual child,
* Promote the reintegration of the child into the family and community,
* Provide an opportunity to those affected by the harm to express their views on its impact on them,
* Encourage the rendering to the victim of some symbolic benefit or the delivery of some object as compensation for the harm,
* Promote reconciliation between the child and the person or community affected by the harm caused by the child,
* Prevent stigmatising the child and prevent adverse consequences flowing from being subject to the criminal justice system; and
* Prevent the child from having a criminal record.

(Child Justice Bill, 2002)

The bill supports international instruments regarding Juvenile Justice. These instruments provide for the minimum standards and rules that 'govern' diversion internationally. The United Nations Standards Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justices (UN report, 1986) stipulate the following policy regarding diversion:

- Consideration shall be given, whenever appropriate, to dealing with juvenile offenders without resorting to a formal trial by the competent authority.
- The police, the prosecution or other agencies dealing with juvenile cases shall be empowered to dispose of such cases, at their discretion, without recourse to formal hearings, in accordance with the principles contained in these rules.
- Any diversion involving referral to appropriate community or other services shall require the consent of the juvenile, or her or his parents or guardian, provided that such decision to refer a case shall be subject
  To review by a competent authority, upon application.

2.5.1.2. Juvenile Diversion Programmes

There is a need for the transformation of the child and youth care system to prevent children from getting into trouble with the law. The Act regarding the child justice system deals with offenders appropriately, holding them accountable for their actions and helping to prevent further crimes. This system embodied the spirit of the constitution by protecting human rights (Regoli and Hewitt, 1994). At present there are laws that allow children who have committed minor offences to be diverted away from the criminal justice system to approved programmes. Furthermore, the system allows children the opportunity to pay their debts to society without obtaining a criminal record through a process called diversion (Regoli and Hewitt, 1994).

Diversion programmes are intended for those youth who are in conflict with the law. The objective of such a programme is to divert young people at the earliest possible time in their lives from criminal activities. The criterion for selection to this programme is that the crime should be minor, for example shoplifting, bag stealing, where a child has stolen his/her father's motor vehicle or where two children are fighting at school. Diversion further incorporates a restorative justice approach by promoting the development of the family, improving relationships between parents and children, and encouraging active participation in community projects. The community element of the programme provides an opportunity for compensation through community building.

The diversion programme provides a second chance for a young offender without the child having a criminal record. As can be seen, Diversion therefore meets and advocates the five key elements of restorative justice:

- Face Reality - invite full participation and consensus
- Accept Responsibility - seek full and direct accountability
- Express Repentance - heal what has been broken
- Reconciliation - reunite what has been divided
- Make restitution - strengthen the community to prevent further harm.

(Child Justice Bill, 2002)

Juvenile diversion programmes were started with the aim of addressing, in its widest sense, the high crime rate in most countries (Regoli and Hewitt, 1994).

Diversion can take several meanings. The term commonly describes the process whereby cases are removed from the justice system after they have been admitted to it. Regoli and Hewitt (1994) describe diversion as the process of referring youths

to an existing community programme in lieu of further juvenile justice processing at any point between their being apprehended and their being sentenced. Diversion is designed to suspend or terminate such processing in favour of release or referral to alternative service.

Until children become teenagers, parents take responsibility and make decisions for them. Exposing children to outside influences such as school, friends and other adults, books and many more, provides a passage to other experiences, and the child feels that she needs to make or her own decisions and shape her own future (Yablonsky and Haskell, 1988). With limited life skills, wrong decisions could be made and the young person could end up in regrettable circumstances.
The concept of diversion embodies the idea of a restorative justice system for young offenders. According to Yablonsky and Haskell (1988, p 43), 'diversion is an alternative system to the justice system and a movement to deal with a wide variety of delinquents without referrals to courts and other established agencies'.

Following the arrest the young person is often diverted to an agency or activity providing a service designed to prevent delinquent behaviours (Nicro news, 1983). However, before children are accepted into diversion programmes, they must acknowledge that they have committed the particular crime. This is because they need to be held accountable in a way that is more powerful in outcomes. Diversion seems to be an appropriate way of dealing with juvenile delinquency.

It aims at keeping children away from the brutalizing impact of prisons and at avoiding criminal records (Nicro Annual Report, 1997).

To many, diversion means referral to programmes outside the justice system. It is an effort aimed at reducing state control over youth by decreasing the number of juveniles processed through official justice channels. The nature of the person who is to be screened out, diverted or referred to court differs across communities. As observed earlier, the nature of delinquency varies widely by setting, both in terms of levels of community concern and patterns of juvenile misconduct. Bloomberg (1994) suggests that diversion programme clients tend to be drawn from a group that is predominantly middle class. As a result, many lower class youth who might benefit from diversion are being denied this service.

2.5.1.2.1. Khulisa diversion programme

Khulisa's diversion programme falls within the bigger picture of some of the programmes offered by Khulisa to contribute to crime prevention in South Africa. Khulisa, which means 'let the young child grow' in isiZulu, was developed in response to the demand for effective rehabilitation services, post-release support and reintegration services for South Africa's more than 50 000 imprisoned youths and young adults. Prisons, and particularly the overcrowded conditions in South Africa, are increasingly seen as 'schools' to learn further crime and drug abuse. With recidivism rates estimated at 80%, it is clear that ex-offenders face more than just the stigma to cope with once they have served their prison sentences (Khulisa report 2000).

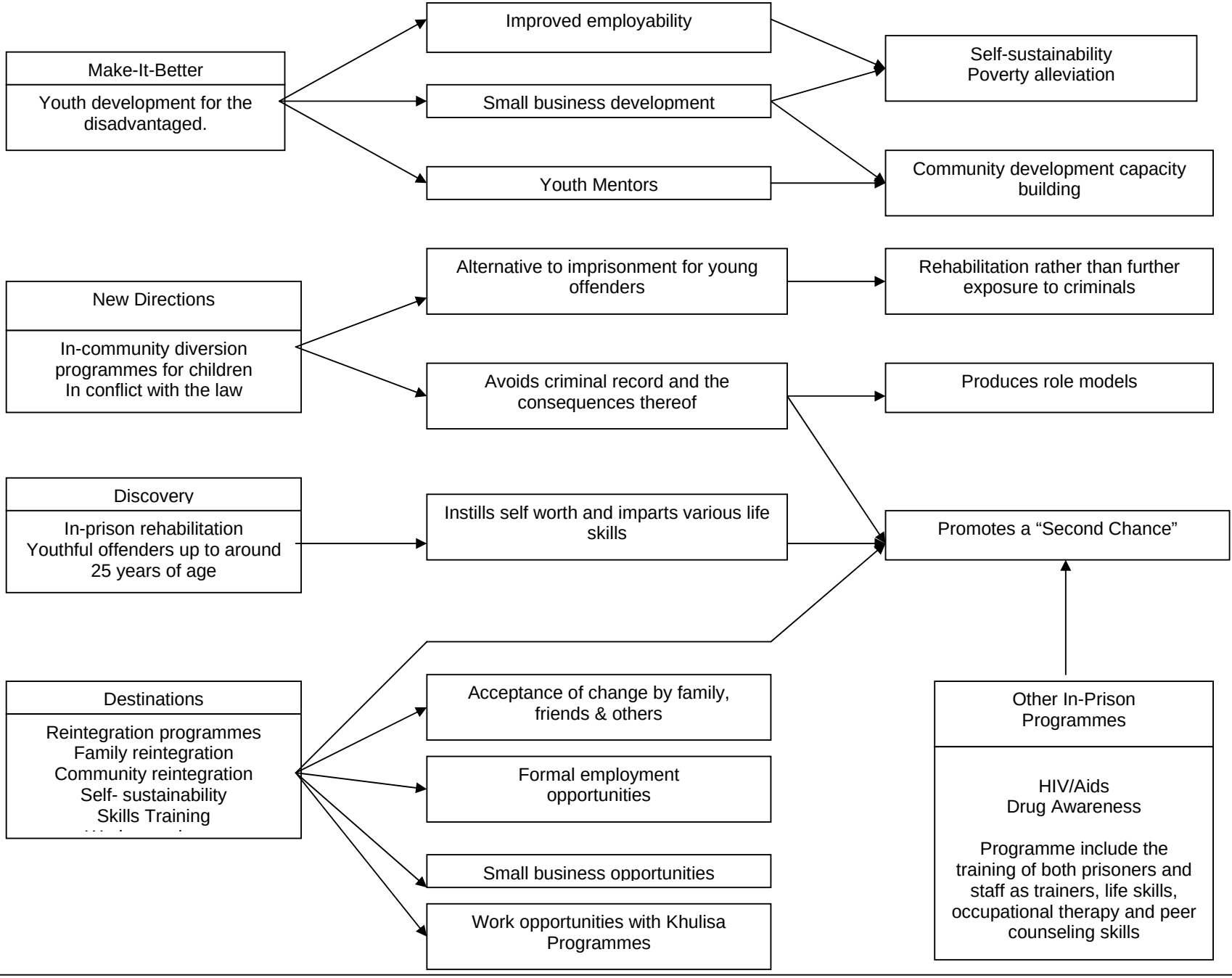
In 1997, the founder and managing director of Khulisa, Lesley Ann van Selm, introduced storytelling as a method of strengthening self-respect to the coordinators of the Management of Juveniles Awaiting Trial (COMJAT) (Tintinger, 1999). The storytelling approach to youth development was initially an educational initiative backed by Telkom (Mulke, 2002). This awareness activity was initiated by the Department of Social Services (DSS) and resulted in a pilot project at the Soweto-based Walter Sisulu Child and Youth Care Centre.

The programme achieved tremendous success and was rolled out to the Leeuwkop Prison near Johannesburg, where its true value among detained youths became evident. The following two years saw 280 workshops being conducted in several prisons. This experience developed Khulisa into a personal transformation programme that is based on the principles of self-renewal (Tintinger, 1999). In 2001, Khulisa's services were approved to provide reintegration services, specifically due to the limited availability of person-specific rehabilitation services and a general lack of personnel at the Department of Correctional Services (DCS). Khulisa operates in all provinces and further replication of its intervention and developmental services is planned for the near future (Introduction to Khulisa, 2000).

At present, all Khulisa programmes are redefined and redeveloped in order to align themselves with the unit standards introduced by different Services Education and Training Authorities and also with the national Qualifications Framework. The programmes are also developed in line with the white paper released by the Correctional service ministry.

The following diagram gives a summary of the programmes offered by Khulisa with the diversion falling within this scope:

Figure 1: Synopsis of Khulisa programme



- Make it Better (M. I. B.) - is a preventative action, which develops youth leaders to run community–level projects which offer group participation and income generation.
- New Directions or Diversion -a non-custodial course for first time child offenders diverted from the criminal justice system, by courts or other competent authorities.
- Discovery-an in-prison rehabilitation programme, which teaches offenders to become accountable for their behaviour. Khulisa also includes HIV/AIDS and drug programmes in the in-prison rehabilitation programme.
- Destination -the reintegration of ex-offenders into society by linking them to training, learnerships and job opportunities.

New Directions or Diversion is a community-based non-custodial intervention for youths diverted from formal legal proceedings or referred by schools, the police or parents (Roper, 2003). The programme was initiated in March 2002 and its pilot phase came to a close in July 2003. New Directions follows a humanistic approach to the management of young offenders. The programme believes in the potential of people and the primary need of young people to belong to caring groups and structures. The driving force behind New Directions is found in the principles of Ubuntu, which direct/underpin the rights and responsibilities of those on the programme:

- Youths have the right to receive care from others. In turn, they have the responsibility to actively participate in the programme and adhere to its requirements.
- Youths have the right to opportunities that promote growth and development. However, they are responsible for applying these new skills to the benefit of others and themselves.
- Participants have the right to be treated with respect, and in turn they are to honour the dignity of fellow-participants.

- Youths have the right to be spared the negative impact of labeling for their actions. In turn, they should take responsibility for their actions and do what they can to advocate the lessons and principles of the New Directions Programme.

The objectives of New Directions are to:

- Create an opportunity for young offenders to take responsibility for their behaviour and to become accountable for their actions.
- Allow for reparation to take place.
- Identify factors that could lead to crime.
- Prevent perpetrators of first-time and minor offences from receiving a criminal record.
- Decrease the case burden of the formal justice system.
- Reduce recidivism.

The primary purpose of the diversion programme is to equip participants with proper life skills and to protect them from negative labeling, criminal records and imprisonment. At the programme's core is the need to address crime, which is caused indirectly by a lack of parental support and community dysfunction.

Four main outcomes guide the implementation of New Directions, namely:

- Learning.
- Personal and systematic change and development.
- Behavioural change.
- Application of knowledge to real life.

New Directions is currently available in Alexandra, Johannesburg and Meadowlands (Gauteng), Ladysmith and Newcastle (KwaZulu Natal), Ledig, Mogwase and Madikwe (North West Province).

This Khulisa diversion option offers a 15-week programme, comprising of the following components:

- Life Skills Facilitation

The component focuses on the development of self-awareness, self-insight and self-management techniques. This is achieved through workshops, sessions, homework, life application tasks, presentations, outings and activities (Roper, 2003).

- Mentoring Support Programme

Mentoring aims to bolster learning by complementing it with a supportive relationship. Each divertee is mentored by a trained, local Khulisa MIB (Make It Better) member. The mentor serves as a friend and role model and therefore models constructive relating. The mentor provides assistance by identifying the possible causes of the deviant behaviour and plays a part in helping the divertee deal with the demands of the programme through offering assistance with assigned homework tasks (Roper, 2003).

- Parenting Support and Skills facilitation

The goal is to empower parents to deal with parenting challenges and thereby foster the health of the family system. Parenting workshops and family conferences are provided (Roper, 2003).

- Restorative Justice and Reintegration

This component emphasizes the law of the land and Human Rights including those of the victim. This paves the way for recognition of the harm caused and an opportunity to make amends. The restorative justice approach seeks to rebuild relationships either in community or family and reintegrate divertees back into these systems once the victims and others harmed as a result of the act have been acknowledged (Roper, 2003).

- Community Service Programme (Ubuntu)

This component provides an opportunity to sensitize participants to their environment and the community. The aim is to encourage a pro-active stance whereby divertees are required to make a positive difference in their communities by participating in community service, support structures and voluntary activities (Roper, 2003).

- Fellowship Network

The goal is to offer on-going support to divertees and parents and to provide an enduring space, in which participants can come together, discuss matters of shared importance and relevance to individuals and the community at large and decide on collective action to address the issues raised. This aspect of the programme is currently being formalized to maximize on-going constructive involvement of participants after the programme's conclusion (Roper, 2003).

A diversion programme accepts divertees who hold themselves accountable for their actions, and provides an opportunity for them to participate in the healing process of dealing with what went wrong, to express repentance and make restitution with the community, if not directly with the victim.

The programme content focuses on the core elements of life skills facilitation, mentoring support, parenting support and facilitation, restorative justice and reintegration, community service and the fellowship network. Underlying the programme is a commitment to impact positively on deviant and criminal behaviour by means of turning negative behaviour into positive outcomes using a strengths-based perspective, providing an integrated youth development approach, and the reintegration of the child into the family and community (Roper, 2003).

2.6. Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature that informed this particular study. Since the study was based on the summative evaluation of a programme that is aimed at helping young children who commit crime, therefore referred to as juvenile delinquents, the concept of juvenile delinquency, its definition, causes, and how it relates to childhood disorders was discussed. The programme is also embedded in the principles of the Juvenile Justice Bill, which paved the way for the introduction of a diversion programme. Therefore, this chapter also considered the Bill, at how it informs the diversion programme and at how Khulisa as an organisation developed its programme based on the principles of this Bill.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

This chapter introduces Maslow `s theory of hierarchy of needs in support of this study. The hypothesis proposes that there is a significant relationship between needs of participants of a particular programme and the success of the programme and its impact on the participants. More specifically, the purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate how different levels of needs of the participants of Khulisa `s diversion programme are met as suggested by Maslow `s theory.

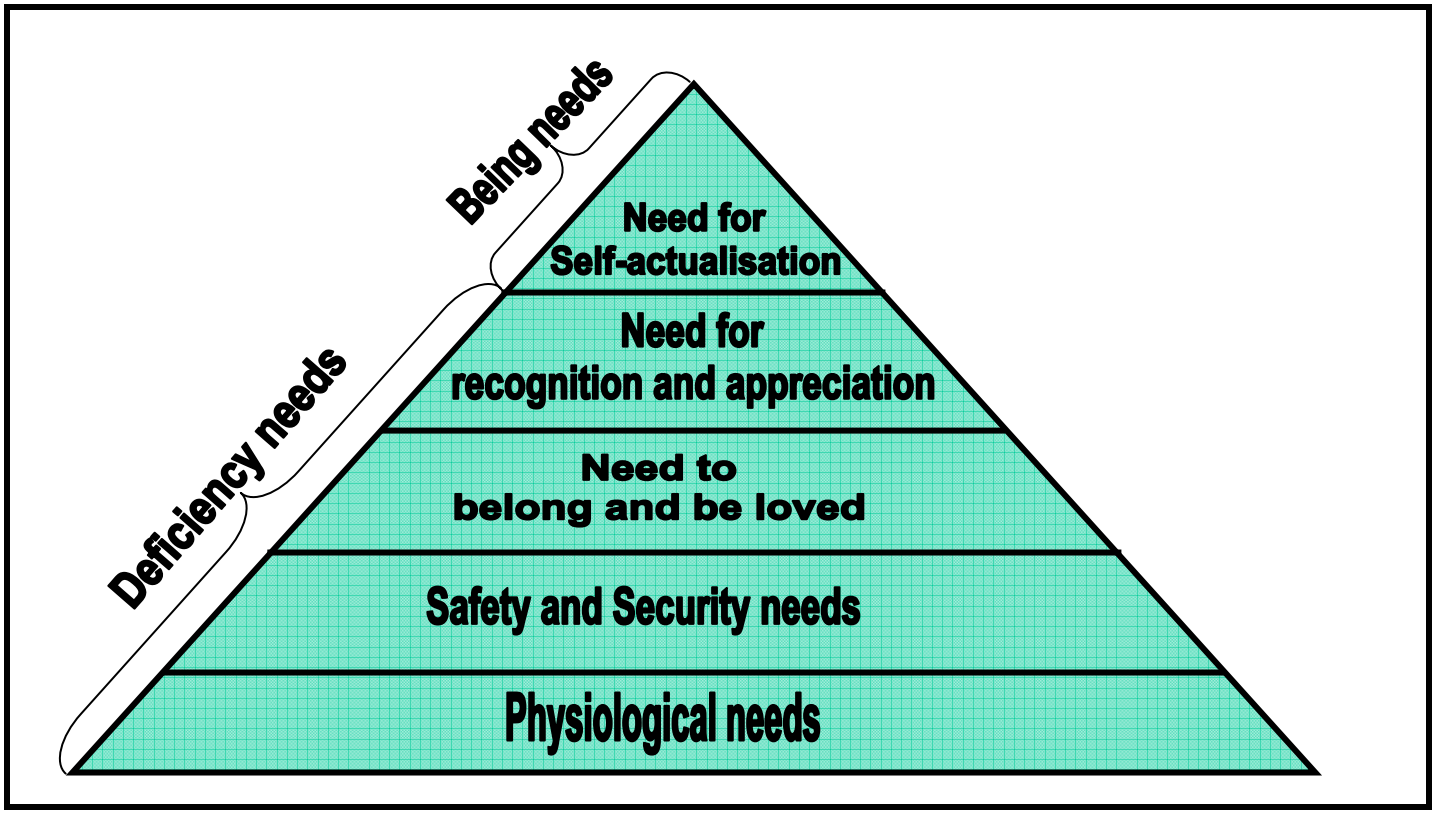
3.2. Maslow's theory of needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory in psychology proposed by Abraham Maslow in his 1943 paper: 'A Theory of Human Motivation'. He formulated a hierarchy of human needs and his theory contends that as their basic needs are met humans desire higher needs. This hierarchy is often depicted as a pyramid consisting of five levels: the four lower levels are grouped together as *deficit needs*; the top level is referred to as *being needs*. While deficit needs can be met, being needs are a continuing driving force. The basic idea that higher needs come into focus only after all needs lower in the pyramid are met. (Du Toit, Aronstam, Erasmus, Grobler and Van Vuuren ,1988).
In support of this,Neher (in Schoeman, 1988,p 20) states that: "Needs on the first four levels are called deficiency needs, because they drive us to gratify the need, at which point the need lapses in it's importance to us until deprivation again motivates us to take action to satisfy the need. Self-actualisation needs (on the fifth and highest level) on the other hand are called being needs, because among other unique features they sustain our interest without us being driven by feelings of deprivation.

In accordance then with Maslow's theory, but from a gestalt perspective, needs are categorised as physiological contact needs and psychological contact needs (Aronstam, 1989).

This hierarchy of needs is schematically presented in figure 2.

Figure 2. Maslow's hierarchy of needs.



- **Physiological Needs**

Physiological needs are the most basic and strongest needs of the individual and have to do with the individual's biological survival. Included in this category are the needs for shelter, food, clothes, health and sensory stimulation (Moore, 1988). Maslow (1970) then mentions that these needs are so basic and strong that if they are not fulfilled on a regular basis all other needs are dominated by the drive to fulfil these specific needs.

Neher (in Schoeman, 1988) adds to this and emphasises the pressing nature of those needs by remarking 'starving people (deprived on level one) will find it difficult to be very concerned about

their relationship with others (needs on level three) until they are fed'. Thus in order for an individual to optimize his or her social functioning and reach self-actualization, fulfilment of the physiological needs is essential.

- **Safety and security needs**

When the physiological needs have been addressed and are sufficiently fulfilled the higher order needs of safety and security will be experienced. Jordaan and Jordaan (1989) mention that usually these needs are more openly experienced by and seen in children, but for adults these needs are a reality too, as all individuals have a need to experience stability, security, order, protection, safety and freedom from fear and anxiety. Until these needs are fulfilled, healthy or optimal social functioning will be difficult.

- **The need to belong and be loved**

Once the individual's physiological and safety and security needs are fulfilled, the need to belong and be loved comes to the fore. Thus this need encompasses being accepted socially, belonging to a group, being loved by someone as well as loving someone. When these needs are not attended to, and stay unfulfilled, the individual's social functioning decreases, as rejection is experienced (Cavanagh, 1997). This experience of rejection exerts a definite impact on the individual's self-concept, which in turn will further obstruct the individual's social functioning (Jordaan and Jordaan, 1989).

- **The need for recognition and appreciation**

Moore (1988) describes the term self appreciation as the individual's need to positively evaluate herself, and states that when the needs to belong and be loved are fulfilled the higher order needs for recognition and appreciation become tangible. With regard to this, Jordaan and Jordaan (1989) note that most individuals exhibit a need for self-respect and self-worth and therefore want to feel that they are respected and recognized by other individuals. Maslow (1970) divides this need for recognition and appreciation into two subcategories, namely:

* Needs that depend on what the individual himself accomplishes and are therefore is related to feelings of capability, achievement, self-confidence and independence.
* Needs that are related to respect from others, which include status, fame, importance, recognition and dignity.

Obstruction of the fulfilment of these needs leads to feelings of helplessness and inferiority, which in turn will have an impact on the social functioning of the individual and prevent him/her from reaching self-actualization.

- **The need for self-actualization**

This need as stressed by Maslow himself is based on 'a desire to become more and more what one is and to become everything one is capable of becoming', thus pointing out that self-actualisation is 'the full use and exploitation of one's talents, capacities and potentialities'. (Mittelman, 1991, p.151).

In addition to this, Lamanna and Riedmann (1988, p.306) describe self-actualisation as follows: 'entailing the pursuit of activities, interests and relationships that bring us pleasure and enrich our personalities.'

It can thus be said that self-actualization is a process through which the individual develops her potential, in order to be true to her own nature and be what she must be (Jordaan and Jordaan, 1989).

Maslow (in Jordaan and Jordaan, 1989) emphasizes that self-actualization differs from individual to individual, as each individual is unique with unique characteristics and potentialities. Each individual determines, then, according to his potential, his own level of functioning. Louw and Edwards (1993) identify the following characteristics of an individual who experiences a high level of social functioning or self-actualization:

* Accurate observation of reality;
* Acceptance of the self, others and human nature;
* Spontaneity, simplicity and naturalness;
* The task involved;
* A need for privacy;
* Autonomy;
* Community involvement;
* Good interpersonal relationships;
* Democratic character;
* Ability to discriminate between good and bad;
* Philosophical sense of humour;
* Creativity; and
* Does not live in the past, but focuses on the here and now.

According to Schoeman (1988, p.21) ‘the individual that reaches self-actualisation is thus a person that is content with himself and his situation and therefore is in contact with and lives in harmony with his environment’.

However, not being able to satisfy any one of the above mentioned needs fully, will not just prevent the individual from experiencing a higher order need, but will also urge the individual to resort to destructive ways of addressing the unmet need, as the need must be fulfilled somehow. This according to the present researcher further implies that even if an individual addresses his needs and moves on to experiencing higher order needs, this does not mean that the individual's social functioning is optimized or healthy as this individual may be satisfying his needs in a destructive way (Moore, 1988). Therefore it is important to remember that healthy social functioning is not only about experiencing and satisfying higher order needs, but that it is also concerned with satisfying these needs through positive interaction with the environment. Perls (in Aronstam, 1988:634), states: he (the organism) must know how to manipulate himself and his environment, for even the purely physiological needs can only be satisfied through the interaction of the organism and the environment.

According to Mittelman (1991), Maslow's theory deal with the individual's striving towards self-actualization. Regarding this, Moore (1988) points out that Maslow is of the opinion that self-actualization is the basic tendency that underlies all human functioning. Consequently most of the individual's social functioning can then be described according to fulfilment of needs, as Maslow sees the individual as a longing character who is rarely satisfied, because as soon as one need is satisfied another immediately comes to the fore (Moore, 1988). This is in line with the Gestalt theory's figure-ground concept. The healthy individual is able to focus on the most dominant need (the figure) and when this is satisfied, it is relegated to the background, where a new need will then come into focus or become the figure (Perls and Aronstam, 1989). Regarding this process, Moore (1988) mentions that needs fulfilment is the basis for growth and eventual attainment of self-actualization. (Du Toit, et al., 1988) state that Maslow indicated that

self-actualization could only be attained when the individual reaches the highest level of the needs hierarchy.

The concept of self-actualization is also endorsed by Gestalt therapy and with reference to this, Perls (in Thompson & Rudolph, 1996) notes that self-actualization can only be reached when the individual moves through the five layers of neurosis, to reach the explosive layer where the individual will then find unused energy that had been tied up in maintaining a phoney existence.

The needs hierarchy implies that needs are placed in order from the lowest to the highest where as a result of this the lower order needs must be met before the individual has energy to focus on the higher order needs (Schoeman, 1988).

3.3 Rationale for Maslow's model

When the research is theoretically grounded, the cumulative findings of different researchers produce a body of knowledge that coheres, which has more integrity. Since the larger picture is often rather vast, it becomes necessary to construct theoretical bridges whose primary purpose is to establish how a particular piece of research is connected to the larger whole. The theoretical rationale is one such bridge whose function is to connect a particular piece of research with the larger body of knowledge (often known as the review of literature).

The theoretical rationale is therefore an essential aspect of a research enterprise whose goal is the production of logically linked and interrelated bodies of knowledge.

A theoretical rationale may take several forms depending on the type of investigation, i.e. a focused literature review, the use of existing theory (theory testing), or exploratory research (theory building). For the purpose of this dissertation, this rationale will be based on an existing theory, Maslow`s Theory of Needs. Hence the researcher describes the theory and explains how it guides

this particular investigation. The particular theory is also used in this study because it helps to provide categories in terms of the needs of Khulisa participants can be analysed.

3.4. Critique of Maslow‘s model

No one can seriously question the impact of Maslow`s theory. Millions of people have been affected by it. But truth is not determined by a head count. How has the hierarchy stood up against under scientific scrutiny? The results are mixed.

Hundreds of empirical studies have supported the motivational force of one‘s physical, safety, love and esteem needs. But the same studies have failed to discover a hierarchical arrangement. Despite the lack of systematic empirical support, it is hard to dismiss the idea that one overriding need governs our behaviour until the desire is satisfied. When the body hurts, concerns for security, love and esteem do seem to be pushed into the background.

A true test of prepotency can only be made in a longitudinal study that lasts over a decade or more. The long time span would give the researcher a chance to observer or not changes in motivation follow the upward pattern that Maslow predicted.

In a scathing critique entitled *‘stepping off Maslow’s Escalator’,* social critic Daniel Yankelovich accuses Maslow of providing an intellectual justification for the selfish individualism of the last two decades (Yankelovich, 1981).

Before agreeing with the charge, one should remember that Maslow ‘s original cluster of self actualized individuals consisted of people who no longer felt the tug of deficiency needs and were freed up to help others. Somehow Maslow`s disciples have ignored this selfless component and self-fulfilment has come to mean ‘look out for number one’. Yankelovich (1981) notes that it is not fair to blame Maslow for the excesses of his followers, yet in the end he does so. Maslow’s theory of motivation does have a healthy emphasis on freedom of choice. He believes that the ability to

respond is what makes us fully human. With this in mind, one might wish that he had placed more emphasis on responsible, unselfish commitment to others (Yankelovich, 1981).

3.5. Summary

It was important for the researcher to base his work on an already existing theory that could scientifically provide a meaningful framework for the study. The research examined at the human needs of participants in the Khulisa diversion programme. This chapter therefore used Maslow‘s theory of basic needs as a foundation.

The theory was discussed, as was the rationale behind using it. The limitations of the theory itself, in the form of critiques of Maslow‘s model, were considered.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction to Qualitative Research

In this chapter, the research design, data collection methods and tools, sampling of subjects as well as procedures that were followed for this research are discussed. The chapter also looks at the ethical issues that were considered when conducting this study as well as the limitations of the methodology used for this study.

This study used the qualitative paradigm as a research tool. This approach focuses on description, interpretation, meanings, concepts, definitions and characteristics unlike the quantitative approach, which is concerned with numbers and measurements (Berg, 1989). Formally speaking, qualitative research can be defined as ‘the interpretative study of a specified problem or issue in which the researcher is central to the sense that is made’ (Berg, 1989).

The qualitative, interpretative paradigm was adopted in this study for several reasons. This approach is sensitive to context, and will therefore allow the researcher to retain some contextual reality with regard to the research area. Each individual possesses a unique background and history, which will ultimately have some bearing on the person‘s interpretation of needs (Neuman, 1997). Also, Guba and Lincoln (1988) advocate the adoption of this paradigm, as it takes into account, one‘s social experiences. The purpose of qualitative research is to form a map of the relevant characteristics of the population rather than creating a mirror of the numbers of people with those characteristics.

A qualitative sample for this kind of study using in-depth interviews is generally 15 participants in size. Smaller samples are required for focused cognitive interviewing (Berg, 1989).

As indicated, this dissertation is an interpretative study of a specified problem: the problem statement or research question for this study therefore asks: is the diversion programme, which is designed for delinquent children, meeting the needs of its participants?

4.2. Research design

This research uses a qualitative research design as a basis for collection and analysis of data. The researcher used the qualitative questionnaire he developed to collect the initial data for the study. The researcher further compiled questions that he then used during the focus group. These questions resulted from the answers subjects gave during the initial stage of data collection. The analysis of this research data is based on the content analysis method, which involves summarizing and classifying data within a thematic framework.

4.2.1. Subjects of the study

The respondents in this study comprised 15 juveniles who had been referred to a Khulisa Diversion programme by the schools, parents or juvenile courts in Alexandra. Since the programme runs for 13 weeks before new participants are admitted, the sample consisted of the youth who were

already in the programme during the period data was collected for this study. The researcher visited the programme venue several times before beginning with this study and informed participants about the intended research.

Respondents were to take part in the study on the basis of their availability during the period data was to be collected and also their willingness to participate in the study by giving consent to participate, to audio recording and to the terms of confidentiality (see appendices C, D, E).
The coordinator of the programme was briefed by the researcher concerning the area of research, including brief overview of the content of the questionnaire and interview and the process.

Through the medium of in-depth interviews and group discussions, qualitative research seeks to provide explanations of attitudes and behaviour rather than quantify their extent in the population. This major difference between qualitative and quantitative research - in terms of intent and output - necessitates a specific methodology for sample design in qualitative research. It is neither necessary nor desirable for qualitative samples to be as large as survey samples or to be statistically representative. Instead, in order to provide robust explanations from which wider inferences can be drawn and to generate conceptual frameworks applicable to the broader population, it is essential that qualitative samples be selected purposively to encompass the range and diversity present in the target population (Berg, 1989).

4.2.2. Data collection

4.2.2.1. The structured questionnaire

Data for this study was collected by means of a structured questionnaire designed by the researcher containing open-ended questions (See appendix A). The questionnaires consisted of questions related to respondents perceived needs based on Maslow’s.

4.2.2.2. The focus group questionnaires

The researcher also prepared the focus group interview schedule. The open and closed questions in this schedule were designed in terms of the main themes identified from respondents' answers to the questionnaires (See appendix B).

During the interviews, the researcher probed in order to obtain more information from the participants and the interview process was audio taped and later transcribed. Throughout the focused interview session, the researcher had a number of topics and themes to cover, but the precise questions and their order were not fixed and were allowed to develop as a result of the exchange with the respondents. The interview also offered the advantage of allowing both the researcher and the respondents to explore the meaning of questions and responses, and misunderstandings were clarified and rectified. According to Smith (1996), interview questions should be as neutral as possible, and should not lead the participants: the aim is to encourage the participants to talk with as little prompting as possible.

The impossibility of interviewer neutrality is discussed by Rubin and Rubin (1995). As these theorists point out, neutrality is probably not a legitimate goal in qualitative research. The researcher is fully involved, and cannot ask for openness from participants without being open and sincere herself. Empathy, sensitivity, humour and sincerity are necessary qualities of the researcher in qualitative interviewing (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Furthermore, qualitative interviewing requires a deep understanding, rendering it difficult for any interviewer to be value free or neutral towards the research (Bowman, Bowman & Resch, in Rubin and Rubin, 1995). Biasness may occur as a result of the face-to-face interaction between the interviewer and the respondent; and possible errors in the interpretation of the verbal responses may result.

In the light of the sensitive nature of the research, a central ethical concern was that of confidentiality and informed consent.

Each participant received an information sheet to sign (see Appendix C), which briefed them on the purpose of and process of the research and about their written consent to participate in this study. Participants were assured of the confidentiality of the research that the audio taped material would remain highly confidential, and that the researcher would be the only person to listen to the tape, which would be disposed of on completion of the study. The tape was transcribed into written text first in Southern Sotho then translated into English in order to translate the data into a form, which could be analyzed.

Using the content analysis – 'a research method that focuses on the message, which is reduced to a set of categories representative of the research problem in order to discover the meanings contained in these messages, in a systematic way' (Du Plooy, 1995 p. 152). More specifically, the aim of content analysis was also to reduce the content to a set of categories that represent some characteristics, which are of research interest (Singleton, 1993).

Group discussions and interviews are the two main data-gathering methods in qualitative research. Group discussions (also called focus groups) usually involve around six to eight respondents, and a moderator or two co-moderators (Smith, 1996). The moderator will ask deliberately open questions of the group as a whole to encourage respondents to share their attitudes and experiences with each other. The exchanges that occur between respondents can highlight common experiences and views, identify differences within the group, and act as a stimulus to further thought among respondents. Group discussions provide an opportunity for researchers to observe social interaction and dialogue. They are also a particularly stimulating environment for using projective techniques or visual aids, and for generating solutions and strategies.

However, they are less useful where the study requires detailed personal accounts, or exploration of complex procedures and organizational systems (Smith, 1996).

The composition of the group is carefully controlled to ensure that there is sufficient homogeneity for respondents to be open about their views and experiences, but also some heterogeneity in order to generate diversity and debate. The researcher uses a topic guide, which lists the key themes to be explored and the sub-themes within each. The group discussion was tape-recorded so that the researcher could pay full attention to the discussion, so that the detail and language of the discussion were captured, and so as to provide a verbatim transcript for analysis.

4.2.2.3. Ethical considerations

Ethics encompasses set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents (De Vos and Strydom, 1998).
The researcher in this study considered the following ethical issues:
When selecting and involving participants, he ensured that full information about the purpose and use of participants' contributions was given. A particular ethical issue to consider in the case of focus groups is the handling of sensitive material and confidentiality, given that there will always be more than one participant in the group. At the outset the researcher had to clarify that each participant's contributions would be shared with the others in the group as well as with the researcher. Participants were encouraged to keep confidential what they heard during the meeting and the researcher took the responsibility to ensure that data from the group remained anonymous.

He obtained permission from Khulisa to conduct research with participants in their diversion programmes. Also, consent was obtained from all the subjects of this study. No personal information such as names, addresses, and identity numbers of participants was requested.

4.2.3. Data analysis

This approach is a method for analyzing qualitative research data and is used in the analysis of material stemming from both in-depth interviews and group discussions. It is a content analysis method, which involves summarizing and classifying data within a thematic framework (Smith, 1996).

The approach involves a number of stages. First, the key themes, which emerge from the questionnaire data, are identified through familiarization with the transcripts. A set of questions is therefore organized to be used during the focus group interviews. These questions are strictly based on the common themes that are identified from the questionnaires and the sets of data collected from both questionnaires and group interviews were triangulated. The themes are further reflected in the subsequent chapter, which also discusses the impact of the research process both on the researcher and the participants.

4.3. Limitations of research methodology

This research study exhibits a number of limitations. Because subjects found it difficult to express themselves in English, the data collected from the questionnaire was not extensive enough for the researcher to analyze. The researcher, because of his familiarity with the group, its cultural background and the language of the subjects, had to interpret their answers in order to provide the meaning.

This could therefore render the data not original and not reflecting the exact feelings of the participants. Also, to overcome and solve the language problem, the researcher decided to conduct the focus group discussion in Southern Sotho. The audio recording was then transcribed in South Sotho and later translated into English, before it could be analyzed and results obtained. In this process and that of interpretation the original data could be easily lost.

It is therefore clear that all data in this research with direct quotes written in Italics are not original but the researcher‘s own translation. During the focus group discussion, it was clear that some subjects were more vocal than others. In this case, they were doing almost all the talking and the data collected might be mistakenly generalized to all the subjects. Limitations of interview data also include possibly distorted responses to personal bias, anger, anxiety, politics and a simple lack of awareness since an interview can be greatly affected by the emotional state of the interviewee at the time of the interview. Interview data are also subject to recall error, the reactions of the interviewee to the interviewer and self-serving responses.

4.4. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the research methodology applied in this study. The writer showed how the qualitative research method was used as the basis for this dissertation. The subjects of the study, the method of collecting data, i.e. the structured questionnaire and focus group discussions, and the way in which the data was analyzed were explored. This chapter was concluded by also outlining the limitations of the research methodology.

CHAPTER 5.

QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

I find myself hesitant to rush in and talk about common themes in the questionnaires. My sense is that the uniqueness of each participant in a group may be lost in general discussion of common themes. I experienced each participant as being different from the others. Each of them carries different scars and views needs differently; although they have common experiences, their contexts are vastly different. Never the less, I have chosen themes from interview questionnaires and have grouped them into five clusters. These clusters deal with participants' interactions and relationships, their views about themselves as expressed by them, and also relate to their positive and negative senses of their delinquent behavior and their participation in the group. This chapter will provide an overview and a summary of the qualitative data obtained during the data collection stage of this study. This data is divided into two sets: first, the results obtained from the questionnaires; second, the results of the focus group discussion.

5.2. Results from the questionnaires

The responses of participants to each question in the respective sets of data are structured into the following categories:

- Majority responses: where the majority of participants expressed similar responses to a particular question.
- Minority responses: this is the smaller number of responses to a particular question.

- Other responses: Where respondents who did not give answers to questions or provided misguided answers to particular questions. The answers are not interpreted and are excluded from analysis.

5.2.1. Demographics of participants

Age: 12 -18

Home Languages: South Sotho and Zulu

Other Languages: English

Area of residence: Alexandra

Education Level/Schooling: Grades 6 – 10

Race: Black

The results were obtained by looking for answer patterns in the 15 responses of participants to each of the 17 questions. This implies that a set of 255 responses had to be summarized to obtain the results.

It must also be stated that the focus group discussion was conducted twice. The first interview represented the responses by some participants who, in the researcher's opinion, experienced great difficulty in expressing themselves in English and therefore were not be able to give the researcher complete qualitative answers to the questions. Such Participants therefore had to be motivated to be more expressive, and encouraged to feel free to give their answers.

The language problem made the interpretation of other participants' responses difficult. To overcome this issue, the researcher had to recall all participants to the venue of the programme and go through each question with them. The researcher was sometimes forced to translate questions into Southern Sotho.

These participants were respondents to the questionnaires and were part of the focus group discussion.

5.2.2. Summary of participants' questionnaire results

From the responses, it appears that participants experienced needs at all levels of human needs as suggested by Maslow.

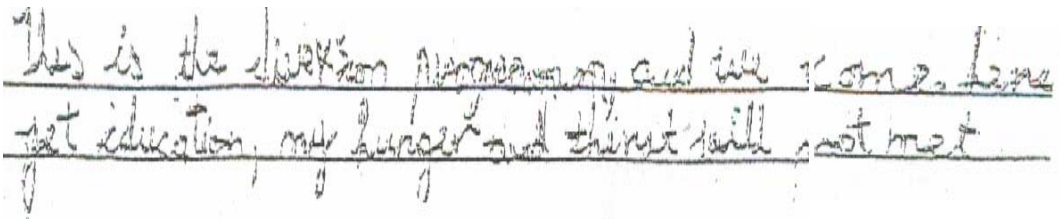
* Physiological needs

The majority of responses identified in this section of the questionnaire indicated that participants received only water to drink while in the programme and that food was only provided if participants had to stay for a longer period in the programme. The minority group believed that their physiological needs were not met at all while only one respondent did not provide an answer to this question.

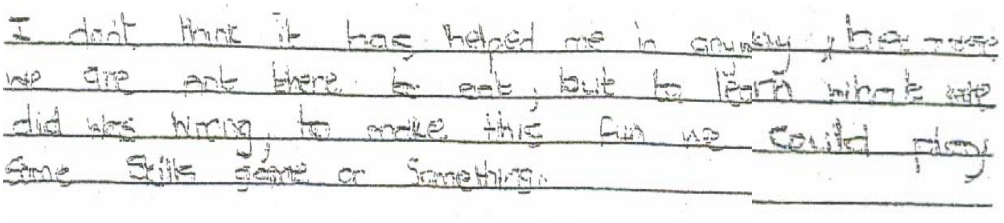
It also appears that participants needed skills to be able to provide for their physiological needs. One respondent believed that skills such as crop farming would be beneficial to them. However, the minority believed that they had learned to control themselves and rather to ask for food than steal it. The following are direct quotes from the research questionnaires completed by the participants:

Physiological needs. (Food, water)

1. Explain how your needs for hunger and thirst are met while taking part in the diversion programme?



1. How has your participation in Khulisa helped you to develop skills to meet your physical needs?



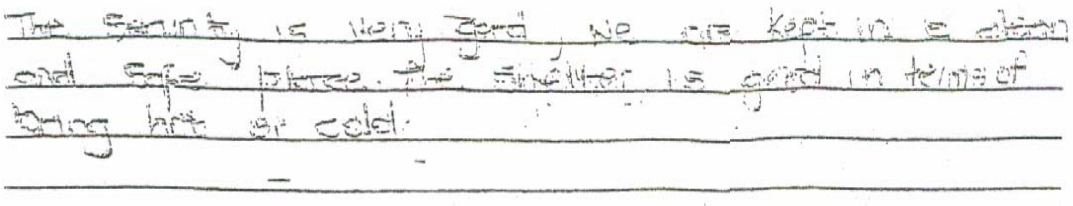
* Safety needs

The majority of respondents believed that participants were provided with safety and security while in the programme. They were happy with the security guards at the main entrance of their programme venue and with the presence of their mentors during the programme. Also participants were satisfied with being taught about their right to be able to defend themselves from unfair practices by authorities like police officers.

Minority of respondents believed that there was no strict control as participants went and came as they wished during the session and said that they felt unsafe to walk alone to and from the programme venue. However, some participants believed that no safety skills were taught. They referred to skills like self-defense physical skills, but added that they had learned to control their behavior and therefore to stay out of trouble. A direct quote from the research questionnaires completed by the participants follows:

* Safety and Security needs. (Shelter, protection)

2. How is your safety insured while participating in the diversion programme?

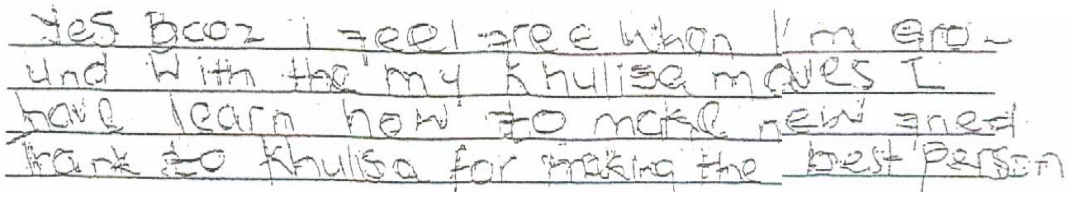


* Social needs

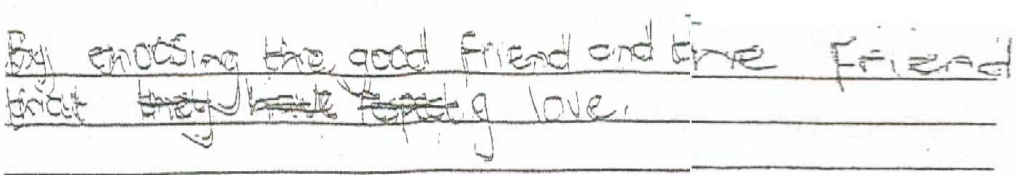
The responses indicated that participants in the diversion programme experienced a social need to feel that they were part of the Khulisa family. It also appears that they made lots of friends while in the programme. Teamwork seemed to satisfy these social interaction needs and in addition the type of treatment they received from their facilitators and mentors was positive. The majority of participants believed that the atmosphere in the programme was positive and friendly and that they felt accepted, as they had also learned to accept others. They had also learned to make good friends and were glad to be given a second chance in their lives. A small number of participants were not impressed by the social interactions in this programme. They were more concerned about finishing the programme and walking free. They believed that this programme was not a social gathering but that they were there here to pay for their wrong- doings the following quotes come directly from the research questionnaires completed by the participants:

* Social needs. (Friendship, to be loved)

3. Does Khulisa make you feel like you belong? How?



4. How has Khulisa changed the way you make friends?



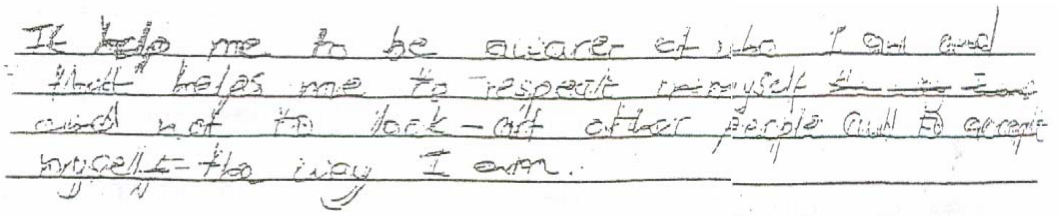
* Esteem needs

The majority of participants expressed self-appreciation regarding their participation diversion programme. Participants indicated that their needs for self-respect and self-worth were satisfied. They indicated that the programme provided skills and made them feel proud of themselves since they continued to become aware of their talents and abilities and therefore felt worthwhile.

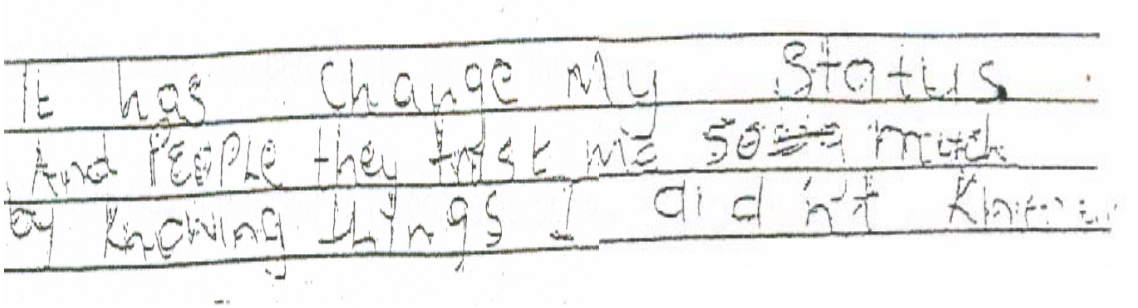
The following direct quotes come from the research questionnaires completed by the participants:

Esteem needs. (Respect, status)

5. How has the diversion programme changed your self-respect?



6. Describe how participating in this programme has changed your status?



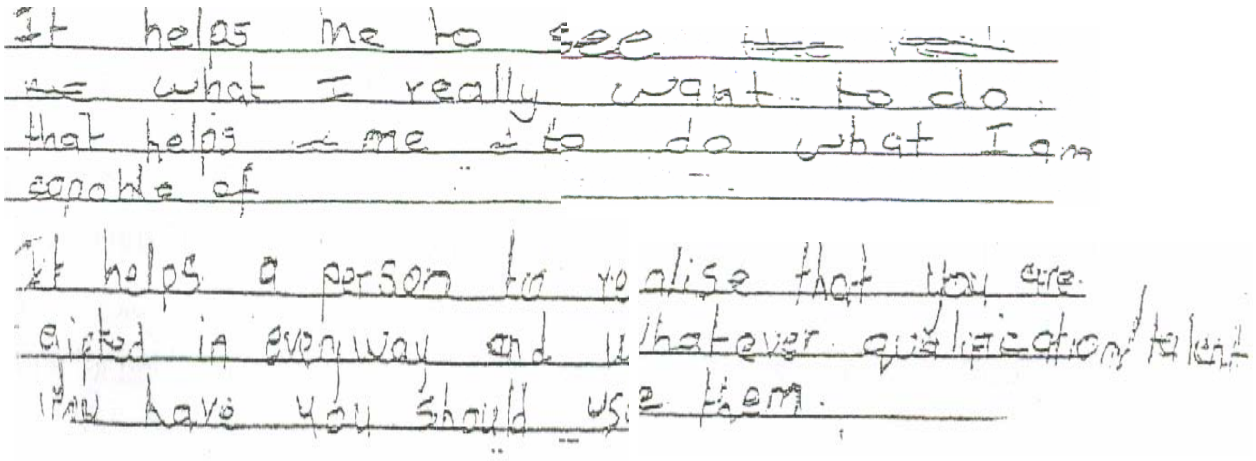
* Self actualization needs

All participants responded positively to the question whether the programme satisfied their needs for self-actualisation. They indicated that they had developed their potentials and became aware of their own talents and skills. The programme taught them to change from bad to good, not to live in the past but to focus on rectifying the wrongs they had committed.

The following quotes come directly from the research questionnaires completed by the participants:

Self-Actualisation needs. (Achievement, growth)

7. How is the diversion programme helping you to become what you are capable of becoming?



5.3. Themes stemming from focus group

Based on the thematic content analysis of the focus group, themes were grouped into four main clusters. This was done to achieve parsimony. The first cluster deals with participants' views of themselves as expressed by them. This cluster is based on respondents' answers to questions on self-esteem, self-respect and self-actualization. The second cluster deals with differences in interaction with others, relating to friendships and belongingness. The third cluster deals with trust and is based on how participants view their relationship and trust with others. The last category covers safety and security and it is based on respondents' responses to their needs for safety and security

5.3.1. Views of self

The researcher discussed the debate regarding low self-esteem being a result of unmet esteem needs in chapter 2. Researchers such as Egan and Perry (1998) and Rigby (1999) claim to have demonstrated a causal link between low self-esteem and unmet needs. The present study refers to the current experience of self-esteem whether esteem needs are met or not. The researcher was therefore interested to see how participants viewed themselves at the time of the research.

Participant 2 identified self-view as problematic:

> *'I think I used to look very very down at myself, and I think diversion has taught me that I must accept who I am'.*

The intensifiers (very, very) provide a clue to this legacy as being an important one for her. She returned to this in the focus group when talking about accepting praise from friends:

> *'I still suffer with this thing. I don't think that they must respect me. But after I have done diversion, I have learned to respect myself'.*

She identified her low self-esteem and poor self-image as her primary legacy. Participant 1 felt that she tended to be self-critical and hard on herself, but that she was 'mostly more sure of herself'. In the interview, she had this to say about her sense of self:

> *'I think I am still not sure with many things and how I see myself. What I am aware of is that I did not know who I am. But now, there are certain things I used to do when I was young, but now I have stopped doing those things. I feel good about myself'.*

Participant 2 added:

> *'I still do not believe in myself. I wish I was confident in doing things. This year I feel confident in doing things. This year I feel better than last year. I do not know why but I think it is because of the work of diversion. I get a lot from it. Even now, I can believe in myself and my own decisions'.*

Participant 5 stated that he was beginning to gain confidence in himself, and was learning to trust himself. Later on in the first interview, he said:

> *'What is important is that I know myself better now. I found that I have ability to pass every problem I get. I'm still suffering and I'm still working at my problems, but at the end of the day. I'm important and that is what is important'.*

He seemed to become more aware of his possibly fragile sense of self during the course of his participation in the focus group. He referred to his self-esteem as being affected to the point where he feared rejection but added that this had changed since participating in the diversion programme.

5.3.2. Friendship and Belongingness

All participants had supportive friendships, although their degree of happiness or unhappiness in relation to their friendship differed. Participant 8 had developed good friendships and experienced a strong sense of belonging to her group and her family. She preferred to use the term, 'sense of family' rather than 'sense of belongingness'. She considered her circle of friends in the programme to be an extension of her family, and saw them as being as 'close to me as my family'. Later, she said she felt '*very, very proud*, I suppose, like in a good sense, *to belong*'. Her sense of belonging was on her terms: *'I fit in, I don't conform, but I fit in, I belong'.* Participant 11 too had developed strong friendships, although he felt that his cautiousness with people had led him to surround himself with a very limited number of close friends. Belongingness was more complex for him. Possibly, his need to fit in was connected to a desire to belong.

> *'I ask especially when I want to buy things … It won't be something cheap and I think because it's a fashion and maybe that's where that thing of own something nice. We all want to belong somewhere*'.

During the focus group, the conversation turned to how we handle social demands. Participant 11's response may indicate his struggle to be himself, and not conform, before participating in this programme:

> *'I started to think, why I was doing what I was doing? I've been so stupid, but I know myself that's what helped me'.*

Participant 6 felt secure with her mentor and her family, but her friendship circle was not where she wanted it to be:

> *'I didn't believe that I can do that and I didn't think that I could create friendship. I'm not happy with that. At times I feel as if I'm one and not able to make it with other people. If people are very clever and they dress nicely, then I was afraid of them; I didn't want to show them that I'm afraid because they were going to think that I'm stupid. So I was making friends with the people that are below to me because I knew they will always respect me and look up to me and accept me. That's how it was, but not now, things have changed'.*

In the focus group, participant 1 said that the impact on friendship was the hardest part for her to come to terms with:

> *'I think for me it is the thing that hurt most, because sometimes it feels I don't have the powers to make friends and people don't want to be friends with me and stuff like that. I think I still feel like that and maybe, not like when I was silly, but I still feel like that'.*

Participant 5 seemed to revel in his friendships now, and believed that he has a strong sense of belonging:

> *'I feel at home with my family, I feel like it's wonderful for me to know that I'm a child. They think I'm important and they are important to me'.*

Participant 4's sense of belonging was growing. This was his response to the question in this regard:

> *'Yes, again it's your own thing. I'm friends with these two girls here and very good friends with both of them. I now made some really good female friends, you see, and that feels good'.*

5.3.3. Trust

Difficulty in trusting others, interwoven with the 'walls of safety and security' theme, was a theme that occurred constantly in the focus group. Even those participants who said they were able to trust others expressed caveats concerning this trust. Participant 12 considered that lack of trust was his major problem particularly in a group of people.

> *'I think what it has done; sometimes it takes me a long time to trust somebody because of that fear possibly that the friendship will change. Even when we break up into smaller groups, with some work that we are doing, I don't become free. I actually don't trust. But with making friends, I never, still now, I never show too much about myself, I'll keep distance'.*

Participant 6's views on trust were different from those of the other participants, in that she felt she experienced less trust in befriending people as time went on. Her earlier friendships had involved an intense desire to be liked and accepted, and this had changed over time:

> *'I still think I need to be liked and I think it's a natural thing as a person that you need to have your people. But I've also learned not to trust people in what they're doing and be more careful at what they're doing. But when I enter a new place, then that makes me feel afraid. I wonder how is this person going to see me and say I don't want to be your friend," and how will I take that?'*

Participant 2 felt that her trust in others was growing: *'Emotionally, I couldn't make friends with anybody, to trust; since then it's a lot easier'*. But although she considered herself to be positive about people, this was on a superficial level.

> *'How I see people is personal: sometimes a friend of mine feels I am unfair you know, I'm slow to trust, on the other side but I trust on the other side'.*

5.3.4. Walls of safety and security

The researcher chose this sub-category to explain how participants find ways to protect themselves and keep themselves safe in their social worlds. Many of the extracts quoted here are interwoven with trust, and using the extracts in either category is a somewhat arbitrary choice. Participant 1 thought that her main way of keeping herself safe was her 'wall'. In the group interview, she said:

> *'I'm used to not trusting people. I have a wall. But once I feel safe, I do trust – it's not like something that happens always. However, things have changed the Diversion programme helps with that need to trust as one feels free to be with others.'*

Another of participant 2's protective devices seems to be using a clown mask. She thought that maybe this was part of her legacy:

'I do tend to be a bit of a show-off sometimes, you know.' She spoke about finding out how to use the mask: '*so it was not really me who they were seeing. But in a sense it was a way of, he is cool after all*'.

Participant 2 played this role in the focus group: her intense interest and involvement combined with her clown mask on occasion led to her downplaying the seriousness of what was being said by herself and by others.

She used the second person to refer to herself, possibly as a way of distancing herself from the emotion of the words:

> *'You are sometimes aware of what you are doing although you don't want people to take you seriously'.*

Participant 3 thought that her way of keeping herself safe was by talking about superficial things in social interaction. It seemed, too, that she found safety in making herself 'fit in'. Like participant 2, she was articulate. Social 'fit' seemed to play a role in her life. She had to learn to put on a mask to cope but she is now more confident in being transparent about herself.

Participant 4's way of keeping himself safe also involved building something around him, and is interwoven with self-disclosure and trust.

> *'I was threatened like when to tell something about myself. For me it was difficult. I wouldn't say anything about myself … like I built something around and didn't want anyone to know anything about myself because I felt if they got into that, they were going to have the chance to reject me or say there is something wrong with me or they don't like me, but if I just keep there, I mean they can't do anything'*

Later in the interview, he said that he would keep himself safe:

> *'I will put those things behind my back and just not think about it, just to pull myself away from other people, I don't want people to know too much about me'.*

Participant 5 saw his way of keeping himself safe as being able to lean on his mentor. In fact, he felt secure because of his mentor. His mentor now gave him a sense of protection and security.

This was his response to the question concerning how he keeps himself safe in social relationships:

> *'I think that my mentor cares for me … he supports me, he stands by me and this is where I feel really safe. It is the fact that I know he will be there for me, which protect me a lot'.*

I was interested in the emphasis he placed on the word 'me'. I wondered about other areas in his world, when his mentor is not around, and how he protects himself in those contexts. It is clear therefore that this feeling of safety and protection can originate from the fact that these children are in one way or the other afraid of revenge, most probably by their victims.

5.4. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was twofold. Firstly, it discusses the research results that were collected by means of the research questionnaire completed by participants as well as in terms of the participants` demographics.

Secondly, it illustrates how the researcher used the data he collected through these questionnaires, to arrive at the themes that were used as the basis for the focus group discussions. The results of these discussions are also outlined in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSIONS

6.1. Introduction

The focus of this chapter moves towards the triangulation of these preceding results. The triangulation process involves the combination of methods of collecting data based on the assumption that no single method can ever reveal the different aspects of empirical reality (Patton, 1990).

6.2. Qualitative data triangulation

According to Patton (1990), qualitative data triangulation is a process that involves comparing and cross checking the consistency of data from different sources at different times using different means. He also warns that the process does not lead to single, totally consistent picture. In the present study the data triangulation process consisted of making a comparison between data obtained from the qualitative questionnaires, then comparing the results with the in from the focus group interviews.

6.3. Discussion of triangulation results

The researcher here decided to present the results of the triangulation process in a matrix format, firstly by indicating what the results were, and secondly, by identifying similar patterns in different data sets, which are then used to generate triangulation results. This is presented in Table 1.

The first column of the table represents the basic needs dimensions according to Maslow's original hierarchy, while the next column summarizes the results of the qualitative questionnaire.

The third column summarizes the results of the focus group interviews and the fourth column consists of the patterns that were confirmed in the data triangulation process involving the qualitative questionnaire and focus group results.

Although Table 1 gives an account of all the results derived from the triangulation process, it is necessary to elaborate on the display of results in the matrix. This elaboration will centre on the main results of the process, since these are the core findings of the triangulation. These core findings are stated as broad guidelines and therefore the data that was not confirmed by triangulation, as well as the qualitative patterns which were not confirmed, will be used to contextualize these guidelines in greater detail.

Table 1. Summary of the data and results of the data and the triangulation

Needs Level	Method 1 Questionnaire	Method 2 Focus Group	Patterns/Results of Method 1+2
Physiological Needs	Khulisa sometimes supplies food and water.	Their role is to admit their wrong and focus on rectifying that. (Theme: food, water and other basic needs)	The participants understand that meeting this need is not a must for Khulisa but can serve as a motivation.
Safety and Security Needs	Venue of the programme and guards are a good source of security.	The role that is played by Mentors is important. (Theme: shelter, protection)	Needs for safety and security are met as participants have different views with regard to their source of security.
Social Needs	Their families and society meet social needs by accepting them.	Other participants in the programme provide for friendship. (Theme: friendship and belonginess)	Participants have a good relationship with their families and other participants and this addressed their social needs.
Self Esteem Needs	The programme has given them confidence.	Participants are having high self esteem as provided by their confidence in taking part in the programme. (Theme: respect and status)	Participants are now confident and have high self-esteem. Positive responses show their level of growth and maturity and are an indication of their esteem needs being met
Self- Actualization Needs	Participants are confident about who they are and what they have achieved from the programme.	There is a need to display skills by contributing and living positively. (Theme: achievements and growth)	Programme plays a role in discovering their skills and talents. Participants are becoming more independent using these talents to help themselves to live positively in life.

6.3.1. Physiological needs

Participants' physiological needs reveal diverse understandings and should be addressed. It is evident from the two methods of collecting data that diversion participants understand physiological needs differently. Some argue that Khulisa must meet their need for food by providing it. This may be because of their family backgrounds, which possibly experience poverty. In this instance, these participants can excuse their behaviour, such as theft or shoplifting, as a result of poverty. However others are taking responsibility for their actions and see this programme as a chance to correct their wrongs and not as a place where they come to be fed.

6.3.2. Safety and security needs

Needs for safety and security are met. Diversion participants generally feel safe in participating in this programme. They referred to practical matters when describing how these needs are met here. Because of the nature of their behaviours and since that they have caused harm to others they experience constant worry that their victims could take revenge. Owing the security at their programme venue and the availability of their mentors during and after the programme, they felt safe from outside harms.

6.3.3. Social needs

Participants' social needs are of diverse origin and need to be understood and addressed accordingly. These children display different understandings of their social needs and lives. Perhaps due to their different family and social backgrounds, the need for friendship, to belong somewhere, to be loved and trust others is a sensitive matter for some people. While some participants feel safe to talk openly about friendship, others, because of the issues of trust, are a little reserved in social encounters.

6.3.4. Esteem needs

Participants are now confident and possess high self-esteem. It is evident that this programme has played a major role in improving their confidence. Good public speaking skills and being bold during the sessions are amongst the evidence for confident participants. They now believe in themselves and are assertive enough to talk freely about their delinquent behaviours and their need to change and lead a better life.

6.3.5. Self-actualization need

The programme played a role in discovering their skills and talents. Children participating in the diversion not only learn life skills in order to become to able change their wrongs but are also exposed to a number of skills and talent search exercises. Art, drawing, singing and drama are some of the talents displayed by these children.

6.4. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the research results that were outlined in the previous chapter in terms of triangulation. The results of both the research questionnaires and the focus group discussion are compared in order to perceive the patterns derived from both methods of collecting data. This triangulation of the results is discussed in detail under each level of the needs of the participants, which was identified.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter concludes this study and summarises the key recommendations for Khulisa‘s diversion programme, which flow from the principles contained in the Child Justice Bill, which obviously Khulisa considered when implementing its diversion programme. They also build on work already undertaken by the juvenile justice system, government, NGOs and development partners in South Africa.

The chapter further supports Khulisa and emphasizes the least possible exposure to the police and to custody in prison for children. Ideally children should not be held in prisons at all. In addition, the recommendations further encourage community-based measures such as prevention, diversion, non-custodial sentencing and restorative justice. These are increasingly accepted as the most effective ways of dealing with children in conflict with the law, which Khulisa has also identified as key elements and principles of its diversion programme. The section will also highlight the limitations of this study and provide views in relation to future research in this field.

The aim of this study was to identify the needs of the participants in the Khulisa Diversion programme, and to see if the programme was meeting these needs. The study was embedded in the Maslow’s theory of needs. The said programme is successful as a juvenile diversion option for those participants who attend and participate in it. It was found during the research process that it was particularly successful for juvenile offenders, as their participation in the programme has resulted in them not receiving a criminal record and consequently not being labeled criminals. The programme has brought about enormous changes in the lives of its participants, which include:

- An increase in self-awareness demonstrated through greater levels of self-esteem, confidence and an understanding of what is right and wrong.
- Being able to change attitudes, morals and values and participating in meaningful community activities.
- An improvement in the interpersonal relationships through developing communication skills and strengthening interaction between peers and family members.

In addition the programme has had a wider impact in that the participants' behaviour has also changed. In b bringing this about, it was also addressing the esteem and social needs of its participants. It is also clear that the range of behavioural change differs for individual cases. It appears that if the participant does not accept responsibility for his behaviour, the programme is limited in facilitating change in behaviour and attitude. Overall data from this study provides initial support for the Khulisa diversion programme as an effective intervention for juvenile delinquents. In relation to children who participated in this study, the Khulisa diversion programme seemed to have accomplished its central aims of teaching the participants to take responsibility for their offences and to develop insight into the effect that their behaviour has had on others.

7.2. Recommendations

It is therefore recommended that participants whose behaviours do not fall within the expected range be assessed to determine underlying causes in order to provide further intervention opportunities.

The information gathered from this assessment can be used to inform specific responses and course content so as to address specific identified needs. It is clear from this study that most juveniles also resort to delinquent behaviours because of a lack of leadership and for the sake of conformity. The critical element for combating juvenile crime in the long run is leadership. Khulisa must therefore continue to establish a high profile, powerful tool like its Make It Better (M.I.B.)

programme, which can provide the youth leadership needed to put prevention at the top of its list of crime fighting strategies.

Because of the many roots of crime and delinquency, no single preventative measure will be the “silver bullet” that will halt juvenile crime. When the lives of troubled youth are examined the triggers for their actions are multiple: parents have failed, schools have failed, public organizations have failed and communities have failed. The concept that there are consequences linked to decisions and actions is not passed down to children. Reinventing elements of society so that they may provide children with solid values and good decision making skills requires multiple strategies that can be put into place according to the specific needs of families, neighbourhoods and communities.

To devise a for more effective diversion programme, the following recommendations are made to Khulisa:

- Children who are at high risk should be identified as early as possible and receive special attention, and should not be placed in the same programme as low risk children. This should make Khulisa more able to meet the different needs of these children.
- Outreach community activities for these children should be extended and expanded, with the aim of re-integrating them within their families and communities.
- A review of each juvenile case should be conducted.
- A pre-programme assessment of every case should be aimed at diverting all cases where possible, to different diversion programmes meeting the varying needs of different children.
- The assessment panel should include the prosecutor, a probation officer or social worker, and parents, guardians or community members, as this will give all stakeholders the opportunity to contribute what they perceive as important to meet the needs of the individual child.

- Victims should be consulted wherever possible and a restorative justice
- Programme could be introduced to meet children's needs for safety and to encourage the process of reconciliation between the child and the victim.
- In this way, the programmes will take into account the needs of the victim, the offender and the community and should be restorative in approach.
- Khulisa diversion programmes could include community service (servicing the community at large or the victim himself or herself), life-skills training programmes, victim-offender mediation or family group conferences or other innovative schemes to make young people accountable for their actions and help them to repair the damage caused by their crimes.
- Compensation in terms of money or labour should be encouraged as this will encourage the rendering to the victim of some symbolic benefit or the delivery of some object as compensation for the harm done.
- It is also recommended that Khulisa organize pre-programme screening. This can be done in terms of the administration of standard questionnaires to apprehended children by trained screeners, who could be social workers or psychologists. Two questionnaires could be administered which can be;

- the case information questionnaire

- the monitoring questionnaire.

The purpose of screening would be to:

- Identify the circumstances of the child
- Determine the nature of the crime
- And therefore to structure a specific programme for each individual child to meet his/her needs.

7.3. Limitations of the study

The impact of other existing programmes being offered to diversion participants. e.g. community service was not evaluated. This is an essential element in understanding what is effective or not in juvenile correction. The results of this study could be questioned, as there are a number of programmes that could be effective in meeting the human needs of diversion participants.

However, this was beyond the scope of this study. But the study has provided a baseline needs analysis of the type of the programme required, and examined the opinion of the diversion participants as to what works.

The study was unable to examine the needs of juvenile delinquents from a broader psychological and mental health approach. This remains a gap in the possible range of activities and interventions to facilitate juvenile correction.

7.4. Future Research

The Child Justice system is an interesting concept in the history of South Africa, especially as it is geared towards rectifying the ills of the past. As it is still based on and informed by the Child Justice bill, future research in this field could be important to legislators makers working in this field. After the researcher became interested in researching this field and has himself trained facilitators and mentors in the Khulisa diversion programme, it became evident that decreased interest has been shown by the justice authorities in referring children to the diversion programme. The researcher `s understanding is that since this is a new field which must be informed by the new child justice law, everybody working in this field is still new and not sure of exactly what to offer. More studies of this area could therefore be an eye opener for all stakeholders in terms of how the programme could be run in order to produce the expected results.

International experience has highlighted the importance of providing children with specialized intervention at the point where delinquent behaviour is first detected.

Considering the absence of specialized services in South Africa and in line with the child justice developments taking place in South Africa at this time, future research in this field is strongly advocated as it will be building on the Child Justice bill, which is due to pass as the law for effective diversion of young children from the criminal justice system. Programme developers have consulted lot of international literature throughout the process of developing first diversion programme (Cavanang-Johnson, 1988). This information has been useful in informing the development of material for the programme that would directly address the specific nature of delinquent behaviour.

Future developments in South Africa also had to take into consideration the constraints placed on service provision by context specific variables such as poverty, rural/urban disparities, cultural differences, language barriers, and varying levels of literacy. Further research in this field will also assist in the development of a diversion programme that is could easily be implemented in South Africa with groups of children of varying educational and literacy levels, especially in addressing the political ills of the past. Continued research in this field will also be ideal in addressing the researcher‘s question that arises as to who should be involved in the referral process.

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APPENDIX A.

STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE.

The most well know theory of needs is Maslow ‘s hierarchy of needs. He hypothesized that within every human being, there exists a hierarchy of needs. These are:

1. Physiological needs include hunger, thirst and other bodily needs.
2. Safety and security needs include security and protection physical and emotional harm.
3. Social needs include affection, belongingness, acceptance and friendship.
4. Esteem needs includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy, and achievement, and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention.
5. Self-actualization is represented by the drive to become what one is capable of becoming; includes growth and self-fulfillment.

The questionnaire given below assesses your needs using the above-mentioned five categories:

Physiological needs. (Food, water)

1. Explain how your needs for hunger and thirst are met while taking part in the diversion programme?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

2. How has your participation in Khulisa helped you to develop skills to meet your physical needs?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

   Safety and Security needs. (Shelter, protection)

3. How is your safety insured while participating in the diversion programme?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

4. Do you feel protected while taking part in the diversion programme?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

5. How has Khulisa provided you with skills to protect yourself?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Social needs. (Friendship, to be loved)

6. Does Khulisa make you feel like you belong? How?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

7. How would you describe the atmosphere amongst Khulisa participants?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

8. Explain how participation in this Khulisa diversion programme is making you feel about yourself?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

9. How has Khulisa changed the way you make friends?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Esteem needs. (Respect, status)

10. How has the diversion programme changed your self-respect?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

11. Describe how participation in this programme has changed your status?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

12. Explain how the programme helps you to develop respect for other people and yourself?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Self-Actualisation needs. (Achievement, growth)

13. How is the diversion programme helping you to become what you are capable of becoming?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

14. How have you grown from participating in the diversion programme?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

15. Is the diversion programme helping you to achieve your potential? Explain.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

16. Explain how Khulisa makes you feel about your skills and capabilities?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

17. How do think this programme can be improved?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire.

THABO MONYATSI.

(RESEARCHER)

APPENDIX B

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What makes one to survive in this world?
2. What is that that Diversion taught you that made you to have self-image?
3. How do you command respect from others?
4. How did you end up saying that you can now be able to respect yourself?
5. And how do you see yourself at present?
6. What do you consider to be your primary legacy?
7. How do you think Diversion programme has helped you to find worth in you
8. Do you consider yourself belonging somewhere?
9. How have you developed friendships whilst in the Diversion programme?
10. What provide you with more friendship in the Diversion programme?
11. Do you find people willing to befriend you again?
12. Is the programme helping you to trust others and to also trust you?
13. What is you r view of people?
14. How do you personally keep yourself safe?
15. Any information you would like to provide on how this programme is meeting you basic human needs?

APPENDIX C.

INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE.

Dear Madam/ Sir.

My name is Thabo Monyatsi. I am currently completing a research report in fulfillment of my Masters degree in Counseling at the University of the Witwatersrand. This research study aims to identify the basic needs of participants in Khulisa‘s diversion programme. All participants in this study will remain anonymous and their identities will remain confidential. Participants will be asked to complete the questionnaire and the interview process will take place in a focus group for approximately two hours. All participants will be asked to sign a letter undertaking to keep confidential the identity of other participants and the information. Although I cannot guarantee that participants will abide by this undertaking, I will remind participants again at the beginning of the group about their undertaking not to disclose any information. Interviewees may refuse to answer certain questions and may withdraw from the study at any point in time. Interviews will be recorded and later transcribed and the general results will be used to improve the programme. All data will be destroyed after completion of the questionnaire.

Your signature below indicates that you understand conditions and accept to participate in this study.

Yours faithfully

_____

Participant.

_____

APPENDIX D.

CONSENT FOR RECORDING.

The interviews to be conducted with the focus group will be audio recorded. The recordings will help the researcher to transcribe what was said during the group, and all the recordings will be deleted once the transcriptions are completed. Please note that no participant will be identified in the recordings.

Your signature below is an indication that you understand the above conditions and accept to audio recordings.

Yours faithfully.

_____

Participant.

APPENDIX E.

CONSENT TO TERMS OF CONFIDENTIALITY.

Dear Madam/ Sir.

I am conducting research on the identification of the needs of participants in Khulisa diversion programme. The aim of this research is to identify what the needs of participants of Khulisa diversion programme are and to what extend is Khulisa meeting these needs.

The confidentiality of volunteers will be ensured since no identifying information will be reported in the research report and all the data will be destroyed.

Yours faithfully.

_____
T. S. Monyatsi.
(Researcher)

_____
Participant

APPENDIX F

LETTER OF PERMISSION FROM KHULISA

Khulisa
crime prevention initiative

telephone: (011) 788 8237
facsimile: (011) 788 3353
e-mail: info@khulisaservices.co.za
website: khulisaservices.co.za

7th Floor - Nedbank Gardens,
33 Bath Avenue,
Rosebank 2196
PO BOX 412560
Craighall 2024

9 September 2003

Thabo Monyatsi,

Dear Thabo,

RESEARCH - IDENTIFYING THE NEEDS OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE KHULISA DIVERSION PROGRAMME

This letter serves to confirm that the author of this letter is in possession of the research proposal and has granted permission for you to continue accordingly.

Yours sincerely,

LESLEY ANN VAN SELM

Khulisa Crime Prevention Initiative
Directors: LA van Selm (Managing), T Bohali, M Gaffoor, Dr. T Nxumalo

Reg. No. 98/01994/08 (Section 21)

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