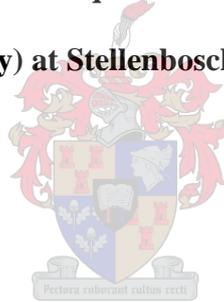


PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPERIENCES OF PLACEMENT IN CORRECTIONAL
FACILITIES WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA: AN
EXPLORATORY STUDY OF INCARCERATED YOUTH

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Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts

(Psychology) at Stellenbosch University



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April 2014

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own original work, that I am the authorship owner thereof and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

.....

H. J. Slabber

.....

Date

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ABSTRACT

Focusing on the social-psychological level, where the focus is on negative relationships with others, Agnew's General Strain Theory (GST) is internationally one of the most widely employed criminological theories explaining the onset and manifestation of youth offending. GST contends that youth are pressured into criminal behaviour by the negative affective states generated by negative relationships, which are characteristically defined as either aversive or not from the perspective of the youth; where especially anger motivates the youth to engage in maladaptive behaviour, resulting in maladaptive coping.

Applying data from 81 incarcerated youth from three correctional centres located in the Western Cape province of South Africa, the study focussed on the criminogenic effects of four variables to explain youth offending under the auspices of GST: self-control (using the Self-Control Schedule [SCS]), coping (using the Coping Strategy Indicator [CSI]), perceived social support (using the Social Support Appraisal scale [SSA]) and anger (using the State-Trait Anger Scale [STAS]).

Results displayed significant positive correlations between self-control and the use of problem-solving coping, followed by significant positive correlations between self-control and perceived social support from family members, significant positive correlations between anger and the use of avoidant coping, as well as significant positive correlations between self-control and the use of avoidant coping. The results furthermore displayed significant negative correlations between anger and self-control, followed by significant negative correlations between anger and perceived social support from family members and friends respectively. In addition, the problem-solving coping strategy emerged as a significant positive predictor of self-control, whereas the avoidant coping strategy emerged as a significant positive predictor of anger. Anger, however, emerged as a significant negative predictor of self-control, where

the social support-seeking coping strategy emerged as a significant negative predictor of perceived social support from family members.

Support for the possible application of Agnew's GST to the context of South Africa was found and inferences made for the implications for intervention, where it was suggested that psychologists and social workers working with the rehabilitation of youth offenders consider the application of multisystem therapy (MST) with youth offenders, as MST aims to influence maladaptive behaviour by changing key aspects of the youth's social context in ways that promote pro-social behaviour rather than maladaptive behaviour.

The study concluded with a recommendation for further longitudinal research to gain a better understanding of the strain-crime relationship that influence youth to engage in maladaptive behaviour, as is mentioned in GST literature.

OPSOMMING

Met fokus op die sosiaal-sielkundige vlak, veral op negatiewe verhoudings met ander, word Agnew se Algemene Spanningsteorie (AST) internasionaal as een van die mees gebruikte kriminologiese teorieë beskou, wat die ontstaan en die verskyning van jeugmisdaad verduidelik. AST beweer dat jeug druk ervaar om deel te neem aan kriminele gedrag as gevolg van die negatiewe affektiewe toestande wat deur negatiewe verhoudings bepaal word, wat kenmerkend gedefinieer word as óf negatief of nie uit die perspektief van die jeug; waar veral woede die jeug motiveer om betrokke te raak by wanaangepaste gedrag, wat lei tot wanaangepaste omgaan.

Deur die toepassing van data van 81 jeuggevangenes van drie korrektiewe sentrums geleë in die Wes-Kaap provinsie van Suid-Afrika, het die studie gefokus op die kriminologiese gevolge van vier veranderlikes wat jeugmisdaad onder leiding van AST verduidelik: selfbeheer (met behulp van die Selfbeheer Skedule [SCS]), omgaan (met behulp van die Omgaanstrategieskaal [CSI]), waargenome sosiale ondersteuning (met behulp van die Sosiale Ondersteuning Erkenningskaal [SSA]) en woede (met behulp van die State-Trait Woedeskaal [STAS]).

Resultate vertoon beduidende positiewe korrelasie tussen selfbeheer en die gebruik van probleemoplossingsomgaan, gevolg deur 'n beduidende positiewe korrelasie tussen selfbeheer en vermeende sosiale ondersteuning van familieledede, 'n beduidende positiewe korrelasie tussen woede en die gebruik van vermydingsomgaan, sowel as 'n beduidende positiewe korrelasie tussen selfbeheer en die gebruik van vermydingsomgaan. Die resultate vertoon verder 'n beduidende negatiewe korrelasie tussen woede en selfbeheer, gevolg deur 'n beduidende negatiewe korrelasie tussen woede en vermeende sosiale ondersteuning van familieledede en vriende onderskeidelik, sowel as tussen waargenome sosiale ondersteuning van familieledede en die gebruik van sosiale ondersteuningsoekende omgaan. Verder, met die

regressie-ontleding het probleemoplossingsomgaan na vore gekom as 'n beduidende positiewe voorspeller van selfbeheer, terwyl vermydingsomgaan na vore gekom as 'n beduidende positiewe voorspeller van woede. Woede het egter na vore gekom as 'n beduidende negatiewe voorspeller van selfbeheer, waar die sosiale ondersteuningsomgaan na vore gekom het as 'n beduidende negatiewe voorspeller van waargenome sosiale ondersteuning van familieledede.

Ondersteuning vir die moontlike toepassing van Agnew se AST in die konteks van Suid-Afrika was gevind en afleidings gemaak vir die implikasies vir ingryping, waar dit voorgestel word dat sielkundiges of sosiale werkers, wat met die rehabilitasie van jeugmisdadigers werk, gebruik maak van multi-sisteen terapie (MST), aangesien MST die doel het om wanaangepaste gedrag te beïnvloed deur die verandering van die belangrikste aspekte van die jeug se sosiale konteks op maniere wat pro-sosiale gedrag, eerder as wanaangepaste gedrag, bevorder.

Die studie het afgesluit met die voorstel dat verdere longitudinale navorsing aanbeveel word om 'n beter begrip van die spanning-misdaad verhouding te kry wat 'n invloed speel op jeug betrokkenheid by wanaangepaste gedrag, soos genoem in AST literatuur.

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* In order to protect the identity of any of the correctional centres visited during the present study, and those of its personnel, the researcher has advisedly decided to only provide the initials of the heads of each correctional centre and to refer to the correctional centres as Centres A, B, or C.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Research into youth's socially aberrant behaviours seems to have dominated the domain of international studies on youth behavioural- and mental health to date (Agnew, 1985, 1992, 1993, 1995a, 1997, 2000, 2002; Agnew, Brezina, Wright, & Cullen, 2002; Aseltine, Gore, & Gordon, 2000; Baron, 2006, 2008, 2009; Brezina, 1996, 2010; Froggio, 2007; Kim & Wiesner, 2006; Rosario, Salzinger, Feldman, & Ng-Mak, 2003). From these studies, the common theme on youth behaviour has been that, without a stable home and social environment, the youth becomes susceptible to mental and social ills such as depression, aggression, anxiety and criminal behaviour (Brezina, 1996; Froggio, 2007; Kim & Wiesner, 2006; Rosario et al., 2003), where certain strains experienced by these youth are related to behavioural problems. Scholars also argue that these behavioural acts, while maladaptive in themselves, can be regarded as functioning as problem-solving mechanisms in which youth negotiate the challenges they encounter in their daily lives (Agnew, 1985, 1997, 2002; Agnew et al., 2002; Brezina, 1996; Froggio, 2007).

In the context of South Africa, youth who live in marginalised communities are faced daily with hardships accounted for by a low socio-economic status. According to Baron (2006), "living on the margins of society for long periods of time, lacking adequate shelter, and being dissatisfied about their economic condition leaves these youth's fear of apprehension diminished and their perceptions of the severity of punishment undermined" (p. 422). It is through this experience that youth incorporate the idealisation of achieving monetary success in order to 'escape' from the confines of their environment. In essence, these youth seek to promote their status within their communities by taking part in activities which may lead to

the accumulation of wealth, whether through legitimate channels, such as finding employment, or illegitimate channels, such as becoming part of a street-gang culture. The idea that monetary success solely defines an individual, and what that individual can achieve, may therefore lead these youth in following the get-rich-quick life paths that involve crime (Cloward & Ohlin, 1961; Cohen, 1955; Merton, 1938). Considering the latter perspective of the youth's pursuit for monetary success – which often includes the commission of crime, as a means of escaping the socio-economic hardship and its inherent social deprivation – a psychological postulation can thus also be posited. For many youth from disadvantaged and marginalised communities found in South Africa, involvement in criminal activities at a young age could be seen as symbolically representing a means of psychologically 'claiming back' the love, nurturance and containment that many of these youth may feel have been 'taken away' from them. It is thus important to try and see how these socio-environmental and contextual factors might be playing a role in South African youths' involvement in criminal activities. As Merton (1938) has long attested:

It is only when the full configuration is considered, poverty, limited opportunity and a commonly shared system of success symbols, that we can explain the higher association between poverty and crime in our society than in others where rigidified class structure is coupled with differential class symbols of achievement. (p. 681)

One interesting theory that claims crime to be the result of youth ineffectively managing strain experienced within their communities is the General Strain Theory (GST) of Robert Agnew (Agnew, 1992), a sociologist and now president of the American Society of Criminology. With empirical support from studies conducted in the United States of America, and in other countries, such as Canada, China, England, Iceland, Italy, Israel, Greece, Russia and the Ukraine (Bao, Haas, & Pi, 2004; Bao & Haas, 2009; Botchkovar & Hughes, 2010; Cheung & Cheung, 2008; Froggio, 2007; Liu & Lin, 2007; Maxwell, 2001; Morash & Moon,

2007; Sigfusdottir, Farkas, & Silver, 2004), GST's main aim is to explain the inter-personal motivations behind youth offending.

Since no studies or publications of note could be found that studied Agnew's GST in the context of South Africa, the present study aimed to explore whether the assumptions of GST could be applied to South African youth. It would be of interest to determine the extent to which marginalised youth struggle to positively cope with the challenges and material conditions within their home environment and its surroundings when they experience high levels of anger, experience a general lack of self-control and perceive diminished social support from their family and friends. With reference to GST, the present study sought to gain more insight into the underlying psychological aspects behind the motivation for youth offending, especially within the Western Cape province of South Africa. Such a study could enable psychologists and other mental health professionals working with the rehabilitation of incarcerated youth, to ascertain the degree to which maladaptive behaviour may function as a poor coping mechanism against experienced strain, and how to best reintegrate these offenders into society after release from prison or to prevent them from engaging in maladaptive coping behaviour.

1.2 Chapter preview

This chapter acts as an introduction to the present study and opens with a brief discussion on the background and context of the current study. This is followed by the rationale for the study, in which the main aims and objectives of the study are also discussed. In addition, key concepts are defined and the chapter concludes with a summary of the succeeding chapters.

1.3 Background and context

The psychological motivation behind criminal behaviour has always been difficult to comprehend. Within the context of South Africa, with its high levels of crime (South African

Police Service, 2013) and the history of apartheid with its socio-economic conditions imposed on the low-income communities, research needs to be conducted on the motivations behind the increasing prevalence of criminal activity among those dissatisfied with their circumstances. If it could be understood why individuals choose to participate in criminal activity when dissatisfied and angry, and how to best act to meet the needs of those individuals, government and community-based organisations or projects might be able to make a meaningful difference in the lives of individuals living within South Africa.

When considering the latest obtainable statistics regarding crime in South Africa (South African Police Service, 2013), it is noteworthy that there has been a reported decrease in crime rates in general since 2008, but that from April 2011 to March 2012 the total cases of crime *reported* to the police were still an alarming 2,180,391 cases. These included 623,486 cases of contact crimes (murder, sexual crimes, assault, robbery), 536,093 cases of property-related crimes (burglary, theft of motor vehicle and motorcycle, theft out of motor vehicle, stock-theft), and 43,013 cases that were part of the subcategories forming part of aggravated robbery (carjacking, truck hijacking, robbery at residential and non-residential premises (South African Police Service, 2013). In addition to these statistics, it was also found that the Gauteng province has the highest rate of reported crimes (595,994 cases), with the Western Cape province having the second highest rate of reported crimes (460,139 cases) (South African Police Service, 2013). Moreover, according to the Department of Correctional Services' (DCS) latest annual report (Department of Correctional Services, 2013a), the average number of sentenced offenders for the 2011/12 financial year was 112,748 and remand detainees at 46,062, with a combined 2.9% decrease in offenders from the previous 2010/11 financial year.

Although these statistics represent the criminal population of South Africa, limited information is indicated for the incarcerated youth (in other words, those aged between 14

and 25 years). It is mentioned that 2,441 youth are remand detainees who were recorded as placed in correctional facilities within the 2011/12 financial year. However, 2,370 were released during that same time, which led to a final number of 386 youth being remand detainees as at 31 March 2012 (Department of Correctional Services, 2013a). In Table 1.1, the latest crime statistics available from the DCS on both male and female youth, in comparison to the total of all male and female offenders, are tabulated.

Table 1.1

Department of Correctional Services Database: Gender Incarceration Levels as on the Last Day of 2011/02

	Unsentenced youth	Sentenced youth	Total of unsentenced offenders	Total of sentenced offenders
Male	22,589	31,040	48,596	109,804
Female	450	638	1,099	2,663

As can be seen in Table 1.1, the youth constitute 35.6% (31,678) of the total population of sentenced detainees and almost half of unsentenced offenders (46.4%). These statistics present a concern for the future of South Africa: Not only do these statistics indicate a general trend in youth choosing an 'easy way out' of their circumstances through the commission of crime, but it also shows a general lack in social responsibility among South African youth (who are expected to be the future leaders of South Africa). In a media statement by the Minister of Correctional Services, Mr. Sibusiso Ndebele, it is mentioned that in the year 2012 children as young as 17 have committed serious crimes ranging from murder to rape and that it is society's responsibility to question where society has failed in protecting children (Ndebele, 2013). According to Mr. Ndebele, preventing a life of crime begins with the

family, social fibre and the opportunities for growth that children can access, but that a lack of education and inadequate skills to find legitimate employment often force some to engage in criminal activity to provide for needy families (Ndebele, 2013). The question, however, remains as to what psychological factors underlie the individuals from marginalised communities to engage in criminal activity?

1.4 Rationale for the study

To date, how youth effectively cope with the demands of their circumstances, through the commission of crime, remains unexamined (Agnew, 2002; Brezina, 1996), even though international research has established that contextual factors (such as ethnicity, exposure to violence in the home and maladaptive behaviour of friends) influence the youth's exposure to community violence (Rosario et al., 2003). The international research has also cited social support from parents and friends, and the behavioural strategies employed for coping with exposure to violence as central to the potential for increased risk of behavioural problems (Cheung & Cheung, 2008; Rosario et al., 2003; Sigfusdottir et al., 2004; Turanovic & Pratt, 2013). Within the context of South Africa, however, no study of note could be traced from literature that focused on maladaptive behaviour as a function of coping among incarcerated youth. It would thus be interesting to note how the principles of GST would be applicable to the South African context. Generalisations based on the findings of studies conducted in other nations would not suffice for such a multi-cultural nation as South Africa; it is therefore a matter of the research findings and the interpretation thereof that would determine the applicability of the theory to the South African context, hence the need for research on this under-studied area.

Consequently, through the application of the basic assumptions of GST to maladaptive behaviours of youth in the Western Cape, the present study examined the extent to which

strains contributed to the incarcerated youth's levels of anger, perceived social support and self-control, and the likelihood of socially aberrant behaviours functioning as maladaptive coping. Such a study would enable social scientists to understand the degree to which behavioural problems could serve as a protective factor against strain, as well as the extent to which behavioural problems could be regarded as a substitute for the expression of anger and the lack of self-control and social support in incarcerated South African youth. It is hoped that knowledge gained from the present study would enable social scientists and mental health practitioners involved in the rehabilitation of the incarcerated youth to draw important lessons that would help enhance interventions aimed at helping the incarcerated youth to be reintegrated to their communities.

1.5 Defining key concepts

To facilitate in the reading and understanding of the present study, within the context of GST, a descriptive list of the main terms used in this study are provided:

Strain: Any event or situation in which positive or valued stimuli are removed or threatened or negative stimuli are presented, especially situations or relationships in which the individual is not treated as he or she would like to be treated (Agnew, 1992; Aseltine et al., 2000).

Maladaptive behaviours: Criminal acts that serve to reduce strain experienced; where what may be felt, relates, inter alia, to incapacity to meet certain goals set, with subsequent inherent social rejection that youth may encounter in their communities, and being occasioned chiefly by failure to attain success (financial and other) while in many cases living in socio-economically disadvantaged communities. This conceptualisation is in line with Agnew's (1995a) GST of criminal behaviours, in which behavioural problems of youth is explained as a means of achieving positively valued goals, for protecting or retrieving

positive valued stimuli, or for terminating or escaping from negative stimuli – in inherently disempowered and deprived contexts.

Anger: A negative emotion elicited when a goal is perceived to have been obstructed, often accompanied by appraisals of unfairness and attributions of blame, and characterised by extreme displeasure, rage, indignation or hostility (Granic & Butler, 1997).

Avoidant coping mechanisms: Activities an individual engages in when seeking diversion or distraction from the experienced strain (Green, Choi, & Kane, 2010).

Problem-solving coping mechanisms: An attempt to actively solve or minimise the effects of experienced strain (Green et al., 2010).

Social support-seeking coping mechanisms: The conscious behaviours related to affect regulation when experiencing strain (Green et al., 2010).

Perceived social support: Generally considered either positive or negative, perceived social support is the belief that social support is available and that it provides what is considered needed in the given situation (Jang & Lyons, 2006).

Self-control: An individual's ability to control his or her emotions and behaviour and to limit his or her impulses (Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010).

Youth: The post-adolescent period referring to a developmental period from the late teenage years through to the mid-twenties, with a focus on ages in the range of 18–25 years (Arnett, 2000).

Offender: An individual sentenced to the care of the Department of Correctional Services by means of incarceration in a correctional centre (Department of Correctional Services, 2011b).

Youth offenders: Individuals who, even after serving a lengthy sentence, still have the chance to make something of their lives (Department of Correctional Services, 2011b).

1.6 Overview of chapters

The research report will be presented as follows: Starting with a brief introduction to Agnew's GST, Chapter 2 focuses on a review of the literature available on four variables explored within GST literature (anger, self-control, social support and coping) and its influence on youth offending. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology used to explore the current study's research questions, including ethical consent, the research design, sampling procedures, a description of the participants, the data collection process, what measuring instruments were used and how the questionnaires were translated. In Chapter 4 the results of the data analyses are presented. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the results of the data analyses, relevant limitations of the present study and recommendations for future research, as well as concluding remarks to the present study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

While behavioural problems, a specific area within the broader study of youth behavioural patterns of development, have generally remained neglected in social science research, youth behavioural problems have produced substantial interest amongst social scientists (Agnew, 2001, 2003, 2006, 2012; Baron, 2004; Bao & Haas, 2009; Bao, Haas, Chen, & Pi, 2012; Botchkovar & Hughes, 2010; Cheung & Cheugh, 2008; Rebellon, Manasse, Van Gundy, & Cohn, 2012). In particular, the Classic Strain Theory (CST), formulated and propagated by Merton (1938), Cohen (1955), and Cloward and Ohlin (1961) sought to explain strain as leading to the maladaptive behaviour of lower- and middle-class youth due to their actual or expected failure to attain financial success. However, as CST lacked empirical support, Agnew argued against this form of reasoning by proposing that maladaptive behaviour of youth may be the result of negative affective relationships within their immediate environment (Agnew, 1992). Agnew therefore formulated his General Strain Theory (GST) on the basis of the CST not adequately explaining trends of criminality throughout the youth's life. Agnew argued that focusing on monetary success as the youth's goal in life prohibited CST from noticing the youth's concern with more intimate goals, such as the anger felt when confronted with strain, the anguish of not being able to control their behaviour and hurting those they love, the social prestige that stems from being noticed by peers, or how to cope in the most efficient and rewarding manner in the context of diminished hope (Agnew, 1997).

Accordingly, after introducing the main theory on which the present research is based, which is Agnew's GST, the present chapter addresses four areas related to understanding possible psychological motivations behind youth offending in the Western Cape province of South

Africa when experiencing strain within their communities. The first section will address three variables related to the youth's motivation to engage in criminal activity: anger, self-control and social relationships. The second section then discusses research related to the youth's use of crime as a possible coping mechanism against strain experienced within his or her environment. Finally, concluding remarks drawn on GST literature are discussed.

2.2 Background to Agnew's General Strain Theory

In an attempt to challenge the basic assumptions of Merton, Cohen, and Cloward and Ohlin's Classic Strain Theory (CST) (Cloward & Ohlin, 1961; Cohen, 1955; Merton, 1938), Agnew (1985) revised the CST to account for a varying degree of social- and personal factors which might influence the individual to commit illicit activities.

According to Agnew (1985), the general argument of most revisions of CST is that youth do not merely pursue the goal of monetary success (as previously noted in Cloward & Ohlin, 1961; Cohen, 1955; Merton, 1938), but a variety of goals; where goal commitment should be regarded as a variable instead of a given. Agnew (1985) further attests that individuals do not only seek certain goals, they also try to avoid painful or aversive situations. Individuals therefore engage in both reward-seeking and punishment-escaping behaviours. One of the many characteristics of youth, which differentiate them from adults, is that they lack social and economic power and as a result are often compelled to remain in situations which they find aversive (Agnew, 1995b), for example, a violent domestic environment. It is therefore possible that cues provided by the social environment of the youth might cause these youths to experience emotion-arousing encounters that are either pleasant or aversive (Agnew, 1985). According to Agnew (1985) the youth from backgrounds characterised by exposure to pervasive unpleasant experiences may thus turn to maladaptive behaviours for two reasons: First, to escape from the aversive environment or of removing the source of aversion (for

example, theft and drug abuse); and second, when escape from or removal of the aversive environment and source is not possible, the individual may experience anger or frustration and react through rage at the source of aversion or a related target (for example, assault).

According to Agnew (1992) his General Strain Theory (GST) focuses on the social-psychological level, where the focus is on negative relationships with others. Accordingly, the youths are pressured into maladaptive behaviours by the negative affective states often resulting from these negative relationships, which are characteristically defined as aversive, resulting from not receiving adequate affection from others or stemming from experiencing feelings of hurt or anger. Therefore, the youths do not only commit crimes for their secondary gain contingencies (such as the accumulation of financial or material wealth), but also to *symbolically express* the intensity of the hurt and anger (Agnew, 1992). In addition, by becoming part of a peer group where anger and resentment guide certain norms, emotionally vulnerable youth become familiarised with the use of maladaptive coping strategies that include commission of criminal activities (Boman IV, Ward, Gibson, & Leite, 2012). According to the prevailing perspective, these strategies occur specifically in situations where others: (a) prevent one from achieving positively valued goals; (b) remove or threaten to remove positively valued stimuli that one possesses; or (c) present or threaten to present one with noxious or negatively valued stimuli (Agnew, 1992, 1993, 1995a, 1995b, 1997; Agnew et al., 2002; Agnew & White, 1992; Aseltine et al., 2000; Brezina, 1996; Froggio, 2007; Hay & Evans, 2006; Mazerolle, Burton, Cullen, Evans, & Payne, 2000; Sealock & Manasse, 2012). In particular, Agnew (1992) suggests that the motivation for maladaptive behaviour is not evenly distributed and that the above-mentioned three social-control variables influence the motivation for maladaptive behaviours.

It is also argued, however, that strains are more likely to result in maladaptive behaviours when they: (i) are seen as unjust; (ii) are seen as high in magnitude; (iii) are associated with

low social control; and (iv) create some pressure or motivation to engage in criminal coping (Agnew, 2001, 2002; Baron, 2007; Froggio, 2007; Hay & Evans, 2006; Kaufman, Rebellon, Thaxton, & Agnew, 2008). According to Agnew (2001), injustice applies to *all* types of strain; where it is possible to classify *any* type of strain according to the extent to which it is seen as unjust. Unjust treatment should therefore not be regarded as distinct from the other types of strain, but rather as more likely to lead to maladaptive behaviour because they are more likely to provoke emotions conducive to crime, such as anger. Scholars seem to agree that there is a strong link between unjust treatment and anger (Agnew, 2002; Agnew et al., 2002; Brezina, 1996; Froggio, 2007; Hay & Evans, 2006; Jang & Lyons, 2006), and that anger increases the likelihood of crime, particularly violent crime (Aseltine et al., 2000; Mazerolle & Piquero, 1997; Mazerolle et al., 2000). Agnew (2001) furthermore argues that a strain that is experienced as high in magnitude influences the youth's ability to cope in a non-criminal manner. The youth compares the perceived costs of non-criminal coping to those of criminal coping, where the perceived magnitude of the strain will influence the youth's disposition towards engaging in criminal coping. Agnew assumes that when youth cognitively minimise the impact of severe strain, and cope with the use of emotional and behavioural techniques of a non-criminal nature, they might regard it as being difficult and ineffective. It is therefore not only difficult for the youth to legally cope with severe strain, but such strain may unconsciously reduce the youth's ability to cope (Agnew, 2001). As GST is built on the assumption that some youth are substantially more motivated to engage in maladaptive behaviour than others, Agnew (1993) sought to explain the effects of social- and self-control on the maladaptive behaviour of youth who experience adverse environments. Consequently, Agnew concludes that maladaptive behaviour is directly affected by social- and self-control variables because of the freedom of youth to associate with 'criminal patterns' supported by these variables. In particular, these variables allow youth to associate

with others who might reinforce or provide models for maladaptive behaviour and teach them skills that can be administered in violating the law (Bao et al., 2012). Agnew therefore argues that youth who experience low levels of attachment, commitment and belief do not turn directly to maladaptive behaviour, but rather become more likely to associate with troubled peers; this in turn may cause the youth to engage in maladaptive behaviour (Agnew, 1993).

Agnew's (2001) GST, therefore, argues that the strain experienced influences the availability of, and appeal to, adaptive and maladaptive coping options, thereby affecting the motivation of whether or not the individual engages in maladaptive behaviour. More specifically, GST (Agnew, 2001) argues that certain types of strain (for example, poverty) are associated with exposure to other individuals who model maladaptive coping to that type of strain (for example, gangsters), and who present beliefs favourable to maladaptive coping to that type of strain (for example, armed robbery). Furthermore, maladaptive coping may be regarded as the only, or the most effective, way to address negative emotions arising from the perceived injustice (for example, anger), and to reduce the intensity of that type of strain when the youth is exposed to models that present the beliefs favourable to maladaptive coping (Froggio, 2007).

2.3 Possible social and emotional predictors of youth offending

2.3.1 Anger and youth offending

Within GST literature, the emotional trait most relevant to criminal activity by youth is negative emotionality, especially anger (Agnew et al., 2002; Barn & Tan, 2012; Francis, 2013; Hollist, Hughes, & Schaible, 2009; Patchin & Hinduja, 2010). According to Agnew et al. (2002), individuals high in negative emotionality are more likely to regard aversive situations as the malicious behaviour of others and to respond in an aggressive or antisocial manner. In addition, negative affective states are also argued to be the result of the youth's

reaction to noxious stimuli (for example, failure to achieve a desired goal), and lead to the youth engaging in 'corrective' behaviour as a means of managing or alleviating the effects of these negative affective states (for example, stealing that which cannot be easily accrued by legitimate means; Agnew, 1992). Various research studies have therefore focussed on the mediating and moderating role of negative emotionality, especially anger and aggression, on crime (Agnew, 1995a, 1995b, 2000, 2001; Agnew et al., 2002; Barn & Tan, 2012; Brezina, 1996; Capowich, Mazerolle, & Piquero, 2001; Francis, 2013; Hay & Evans, 2006; Hollist et al., 2009).

Drawing on the assumption that the experience of high levels of anger, when confronted with strain, increases the possibility for criminal behaviour among youth, Mazerolle et al. (2000) explored the relationships between exposure to strain, anger and criminal behaviour. Exploring whether strain has direct or indirect effects, through the mediating effects of anger on violence, drug use, and school-related crime, data were gathered from high school learners attending a suburban high school located in a large, metropolitan area in the Midwestern United States. After completing a Youth Lifestyle Survey, a total of 263 valid questionnaires were obtained from the learners, with an average age of 16.4 years, 85% of whom resided in middle- and upper-class households. Measures consistent to GST were designed to measure two major forms of strain: exposure to noxious stimuli and the loss of positively valued stimuli. A measure for anger was included in the study, as well as two scales measuring social bonds to either family or school. Proceeding through a series of stages, a baseline model for anger, to examine the extent to which anger is related to youth offending, was included, along with additional models including both strain and anger to assess whether anger mediates the effects of strain on youth offending, consistent with Agnew's (1992) GST. The results of the Mazerolle et al.'s (2000) study indicated no significant relationship between anger and violence. The effects of anger on violence also appeared to operate

through strain, where strain and anger were not related to drug use and no mediating effects were observed. In addition, both anger and strain were not related to school-related crime and anger did not mediate the effects of incentive to engage in school-related crime due to strain. Consequently, findings from Mazerolle et al. (2000) were not supportive of GST, as no evidence was observed that strain and anger interacted in their effects on youth offending. However, the results of Mazerolle et al.'s study provided mixed support for GST, because the results were consistent with literature observation that youth high in anger selectively experience aversive situations and events that may lead to violence.

Of particular interest to note in Mazerolle et al.'s (2000) study, is that two aspects of strain were measured: that of the removal of positively valued stimuli and the presentation of negative stimuli, but no reference was made to strain as a result of the youth's failure to achieve positively valued goals (Agnew, 1992). According to Agnew (1992) there are three types of strain worth mentioning that fall under this category: Strain as the disjunction between aspirations and expectations or actual achievements, strain as the disjunction between expectations and actual achievements, and strain as the disjunction between just or fair outcomes and actual outcomes. Agnew (1992) argues that strain results from the incapability to achieve certain ideal goals emphasised by the sub-cultural system, and as a consequence accentuates the set disjunction between aspirations and actual achievements. Where the focus is on the disjunction between expectations and actual achievements, it can be argued that such expectations place enormous stress on the youth's experience of themselves as burdened with personal responsibility. In particular, it has been argued that such expectations are derived from the individual's past experience or from comparisons with referential others who are similar to the individual (Agnew, 1992). It is therefore continuously a game of "envy versus reality", where the youth bases his or her existence on the perceptions of the "better" lives of others. As the sample of Mazerolle et al.'s study were

attending secondary school at the date of the interview, an age characterised by the developmental task of emotional development (Wait, Meyer, & Loxton, 2005), it was puzzling that the variables of strain as a result of the youth's failure to achieve positively valued goals were not included in the measurement of strain within their study. As opined by Agnew (1992), youth residing in communities characterised by adverse socio-economic conditions may turn to illegal behaviour for two reasons: First as a means of escaping from his or her adverse community (for example, drug abuse); and secondly, when escape from the adverse environment is infeasible, the youth may experience feelings of anger or frustration, and react with rage (for example, assault). Agnew (1992) therefore argues that anger occurs when the youth places the blame of his misfortune on others and increases the impact on the youth's level of felt injury, creates a desire for revenge, lowers inhibition, and energises the youth to act, in part because he believes that others will agree that his aggression is justified. In addition, one must suppose that each type of strain may in turn create a predisposition for maladaptive behaviour, or function as a situational event that instigates a particular maladaptive behavioural act. One such example is a study by Brezina (1996), which found evidence suggesting that strain is positively associated with the experience of anger, resentment, anxiety and depression (see also Francis, 2013); where the effects of strain on anger are many times greater when maladaptive behaviour is low and not when maladaptive behaviour is high (Brezina, 1996). It is consequently argued that maladaptive behaviour reduces the effects of strain on negative affect; as a result, youth who respond to strain with socially maladaptive behaviour appear to be less likely to experience the negative emotional consequences of strain than their non-maladaptive counterparts (Brezina, 1996). It is important to note, however, that the effects of strain on dimensions of negative affect were all significant, even when maladaptive behaviour was set at its highest level. This suggests that maladaptive youth still experience the negative emotional consequences of strain, although

somewhat less so than their non-maladaptive counterparts. Brezina (1996) therefore suggests that maladaptive behaviour may actually serve several functions; it may provide relief from strain-generated negative affect but also be a means of dealing with problems involving self-derogation.

One can thus argue, in line with Agnew's (1997) conceptualisation of aggressive behaviour following thwarted aspirations, that angered youth would be more inclined to focus on negative environmental cues, regard the behaviour of others as hostile, produce less alternative solutions to their problems, breed more hostile responses, fail to recognise the harmful consequences of illegal behaviour, and experience a lack in the social skills to enact pro-social responses. As a result, it stands to reason that not only do these negative personal and social circumstances underpin maladaptive behaviour by unsatisfied youth; they also rationalise the individual's subsequent actions as representing 'coping behaviour'. Therefore, due to the relationship between negative stimuli and behavioural problems, the presentation of negative stimuli might include a wide assortment of stressful life events and negative relations. For example, maladaptive behaviour and aggression have been associated with negative stimuli that include child abuse and neglect (Agnew, 1995b), adverse or negative school experiences (Agnew, 2000; Barn & Tan, 2012), low levels of social support (Capowich et al., 2001), criminal victimisation (Agnew et al., 2002; Francis, 2013), and a wide range of stressful life events (Agnew, 1992, 2001; Hay & Evans, 2006; Rosario et al., 2003; Warner & Fowler, 2003).

It is worth noting that, within the literature of GST, the majority of studies have focussed on youth that are not in incarceration, with some specifically focussing on those in school, college or university (Baron, 2008). For example, Capowich et al. (2001) explored the extent to which the experience of anger influenced the effect of strain on criminal behaviour among 315 undergraduate students of the College of Arts and Sciences in Washington, DC. Having

measured the variables that included the intentions to commit crime, strain, negative emotions, anger, and perceived social support, it was found that participants reporting more strain within the past year were more likely to report higher intentions to engage in violent behaviour. Moreover, anger was a significant predictor for violent behaviour. Anger was therefore found to be an important variable for GST, but its effects may be limited to specific (violent) offences or situations, while general negative emotions are related to other non-violent offences. Similarly, in a study on 1,423 United States youth, which assessed the extent to which anger, depression, and anxiety mediated the effect of maltreatment on youth offending and substance abuse, Hollist et al. (2009) found that maltreatment had a significant positive effect on maladaptive behaviour, and that anger, anxiety, and depression were all associated with an increase in maladaptive behaviour patterns. Furthermore, Rebellon et al. (2012) examined the relations among perceived injustice, anger, and rule-violation among data from three waves ($n = 941$; $n = 867$; $n = 867$) of the New Hampshire Youth Study collected from eight middle schools and four high schools throughout four Southern New Hampshire communities. In this study, youth offending, strain and anger measures were analysed, in which a strong relation was found between perceived injustice and youth offending, and that this relationship was mediated by situational anger. One can therefore argue that the youth experiencing their circumstances as unjust (for example, being maltreated by peers) might turn to criminal behaviour because of the negative emotions (notably, anger) evoked by the negative stimuli.

The above-mentioned studies all converge on the idea that strain leads to the experience of anger, but that anger is more likely to lead to violent behaviour than non-violent offending. However, given that none of these studies focussed on marginalised youth, the question remains of whether the findings in the above-mentioned studies (Baron, 2008; Capowich et al., 2001; Hollist et al., 2009; Rebellon et al., 2012) could be applied to the marginalised

communities found in South Africa. In light of the literature reviewed, it would therefore be interesting to ascertain whether or not the South African youth offender experiences any kind of strain whether anger experienced, if any, serves to deal with the strain. It would also be interesting to determine whether our understanding of their experienced anger could be in any way conceptualised to how committing criminal offence that leads to their incarceration is linked to anger as maladaptive coping with the strain of living in adverse socio-economic conditions.

2.3.2 Self-control and youth offending

With limited studies having been conducted on the effects of self-control on the youth's involvement in crime, from a GST perspective, research suggests that lack of self-control remains an important contributor to the commission of crime (Botchkovar & Broidy, 2010; Cheung & Cheung, 2008; Wikström & Svensson, 2010). Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) described self-control as one key ingredient part of the decision process in which an individual engages prior to violating social norms. Defining self-control as a "persistent individual behavioural tendency [that] is established early in life through socialization experiences and pressures, largely located in the family...", Gottfredson and Hirschi (quoted in Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010, p. 245) argued that self-control interacts with situational opportunities that might result in the commission of criminal behaviour. Related to this point, and drawing on a random sample of 340 youth and adults from Nizhni Novgorod, Russia, Botchkovar and Broidy (2010) investigated the extent to which environmental strain contributes to the commission of crime and argued that there are two ways in which self-control may affect the strain-crime link. Firstly, low self-control may influence individuals to be particularly averse toward strains or to demonstrate particularly strong, possibly lingering, emotional reactions to strain. Secondly, individuals with low self-control may be more inclined to engage in maladaptive coping because of their lack of insight into their behaviour

and a general preference for quick, sometimes risky, solutions. However, Botchkovar and Broidy (2010) found that strain does not consistently predict criminal behaviour. For example, although it was found that adverse life events increase the likelihood of violent behaviour and general crime, these events do not have statistically significant effects on theft. Findings in Botchkovar and Broidy's study therefore generally confirm the general hypothesis of GST, of strain increasing the likelihood of negative emotional responses, and indicate that both anger and other negative emotion increase the likelihood of property theft, whereas general crime (for example, assault) is associated with negative emotions, but not with anger (as also mentioned previously in the literature review). The results of Botchkovar and Broidy's study are therefore mixed, albeit with modest support for the hypothesis that strain leads to offending when negative affect runs high. Additionally, self-control was mentioned as a salient aspect in offending, but was merely included in the variable of general negative emotionality. Consequently, whether self-control affects the individual's motivation to engage in criminal behaviour as separate from general negative emotionality needs further study.

Jang and Rhodes (2012) examined relationships between GST and three other theories of crime: self-control (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), social bonding (Hirschi, 1969) and social learning theory (Akers, 1998). Jang and Rhodes drew on Agnew's (2006) assertion that while strain affects an individual's motivation to engage in criminal activity, primarily through negative emotional responses to the experienced strain, the effects of strain are also mediated by other predictors of crime, which include low self- and social control. That is, strain may influence an individual to engage in criminal activity not only because it influences the individual to engage in criminal coping due to negative emotionality, but also because it decreases self- and social control and may increase pro-criminal learning. It is therefore that strain affects criminal behaviour due to the individual's traits conducive to crime (for

example, low self-control), social control, and pro-criminal learning as well as negative emotions such as anger. In Jang and Rhode's study it was found that the effects of strain on crime and drug use are mediated by low self-control and, to a lesser extent, social bonds, but not by peer drug use. Low self-control was also found to increase the effect of strain on violent crime, and anger still has significant indirect effects on property crime via low self-control, social bonds, and, to a lesser extent, peer drug use. It can thus be argued that strain experienced in the form of maltreatment and criminal victimisation tends to indicate lower levels of self-control and to weaken self-control, which in turn increases the probability of engaging in criminal behaviour. For example, youth in marginalised communities confronted with emotional strain, such as mistreatment from significant others, might experience a decline in values and identity formation. This is likely to have a direct and indirect long-term impact of high magnitude over the youth's life by contributing to future strains and leading to antisocial traits, such as anger or low self-control (Agnew, 1992; Agnew, Scheuerman, Grosholz, Isom, Watson, & Thaxton, 2011). In light of these findings, it stands to reason that, in addition to indicating lower levels of self-control, criminal victimisation, which is also usually seen as unjust, is among the types of strain that are most likely to cause socially maladaptive behaviour (Agnew, 2002; Baron, 2004; Froggio, 2007). As Kaufman et al. (2008) also found, the youth who witness violence, particularly violence perpetrated against their friends or family, are at higher risk of victimising others. Additionally, marginalised youth are also more inclined to engage in situations where victimisation is common – for example, being part of an illicit gang. In another study focussing on street youth and unemployment, Baron (2008) established that strains associated with low self- and social control inevitably led to maladaptive behaviours because maladaptive behaviour is most likely in situations of low commitment. However, Baron also argued that some factors might generate strain through an alternative causal pathway, for example through continuously

applying for work, adopting a work ethic, and showing commitment to work, but not being able to secure employment. The unemployed person may consequently believe that the costs of engaging in maladaptive behaviour are low (where the odds of apprehension and punishment are minimal) and the benefits are high (where the social and material rewards are regarded as substantial). In addition, the interaction between maladaptive peers and criminal values was a significant predictor of property crime and violent crime (Baron, 2008), where it was argued that by having more maladaptive friends who hold criminal values within a group, involvement in a greater number of violent offences is encouraged. One can thus argue that whether self-control influence the criminogenic pathways of marginalised youth is of great importance, for if the effects of self-control on criminal behaviour are associated with a culture of low commitment to social norms, it can be argued that self-control might also influence the youth's involvement in criminal peer associations (Baron, 2008).

According to Hirschi (quoted in Agnew, 1993), all individuals have needs and desires which are naturally antisocial; where socially maladaptive behaviour is said to be the direct outcome when self- and social control is low. The individual is then not constrained to violate the law, but instead is more inclined to violate the law when it allows for youth to satisfy certain needs or wants in the most immediate and convenient manner (Agnew, 1993, 2006; Baron, 2008). It can therefore be supposed that low self-control merely creates the motivational *possibility* for behavioural problems; where only criminally inclined motivated youth act on this possibility. However, according to Agnew (2001), low self-control can also reduce the ability to cope in a non-criminal manner. It is therefore argued that individuals who experience low levels of direct control, conventional attachments, and conventional commitments generally lack the social support and resources that facilitate non-criminal coping, in addition to the youth's self-control continuously being malleable (Meldrum, Young, & Weerman, 2012; Meldrum, Young, Burt, & Piquero, 2013). For example,

Mazerolle and Maahs (2000) found low self-control to increase the effects of strain on youth offending, whereas Peter, LaGrange, and Silverman (2003) reported self-control's offense- and gender-specific conditioning effects. Furthermore, Agnew et al. (2011) found victimisation to reduce self-control, suggesting that self-control mediates the effects of strain on crime. Any complete explanation of maladaptive behavioural patterns must therefore consider variations in both the restraints to maladaptive behaviour and the motivation for maladaptive behaviour.

The above-mentioned studies all address the idea that self-control influences involvement in offending, but given that none of these studies focussed on South African youth, the question remains of whether the findings in the above-mentioned studies could be applied to the behaviour of South African youth. In light of the literature reviewed, it would therefore be interesting to ascertain whether self-control could be perceived as central to the measure in which the goals, values, needs, activity and central identity of the youth might be deemed threatened by strain, especially among marginalised youth in South Africa. It would also be interesting to determine whether our understanding of their experienced self-control could be in any way conceptualised to how committing criminal offence that leads to their incarceration is linked to maladaptive coping with the strain of living in adverse socio-economic conditions.

2.3.3 Social relationships and youth offending

Vast literature on youth criminal behaviour has highlighted the role of pressure from peers, especially in the context of the dearth or inadequacy of emotionally and socially supportive relationships that the youth have with significant others (Agnew & Brezina, 1997; Boman IV et al., 2012; Hay & Meldrum, 2010; Sigfusdottir, Gudjonsson, & Sigurdsson, 2010). In GST, Agnew (1992) argues that strains, particularly those experienced within social relationships,

produce negative affective states (for example, anger, fear) that pressures the youth in engaging in corrective action. Agnew's GST makes no assumptions about the internalisation of cultural values and simply focuses on the mistreatment of youth by others (Agnew, 1993). As GST is based on the theoretical formulation of strain as a situation in which the youth is not treated as he or she would like to be treated by others, Agnew (1995a) argues that youth have a tendency to respond to strain with maladaptive behaviour because it may help them avoid or alleviate strain directly, or the negative emotional consequences generated by strain. Likewise, being treated unfairly in terms of just and equitable outcomes represents an important component contributing to criminal outcomes, dependent upon, or moderated by, several neighbourhood conditions (quoted in Warner & Fowler, 2003), including:

The level of public knowledge of one's personal affairs, the availability of alternative goals or identities, the presence of subcultures encouraging external attribution of blame, the number of models for effective coping available in the community, the level of social support or social capital, the level of informal social control of behaviour, opportunities for crime, values conducive to crime, and the presence of criminal groups. (p. 512)

However, according to Baron (2006), strain is not only the result of the failure to achieve positively valued goals, but also an indication of the achievements of those in an individual's comparative reference groups. Individuals compare themselves with one another. They do not determine whether they are strained or frustrated in isolation. It is these comparisons that impact their level of strain and as a consequence the motivation of relative deprivation, which is thought to generate feelings of resentment and hostility, can ultimately be expressed through violent crime. It can thus be assumed that whether youth conform to socially maladaptive behaviour or not depends on the accuracy with which they perceive reality, rather than objective deprivation. The association between strain and crime therefore

ultimately depends, in part, on how an individual *chooses* to interpret strain (Kaufman et al., 2008).

A study that investigated the relationship between criminal behaviour and strains in important relationships was conducted by Aseltine et al. (2000), on 1,208 students from Grades 9, 10 and 11 in three communities within the Boston metropolitan area in the United States of America over a period of three years. Results indicated that exposure to stresses and relationship strains were positively associated with youth offending, where negative life events, family conflict and peer conflict were also strongly associated with both anger and anxiety, with family conflict being the strongest predictor of youth offending. In addition, it was found that strain due to association with criminal peers did not predict youth offending and that anger had a stronger association with youth offending among those with low levels of family attachment than those with high levels of family attachment. One could thus argue that if the youth's perceived levels of social support condition the strain-crime relationship, different effects of strain on crime will occur among groups with different levels of social support, not merely family versus peers. In their study, Capowich et al. (2001) found within the preliminary analysis that respondents in lower social support groups reported higher levels of strain, as well as higher mean levels of intentions to engage in several aggressive and maladaptive scenarios. Bao et al. (2012) also found support for this argument, where they found that repeated negative treatment by teachers in China increased maladaptive behaviour among youth, through either the co-occurrence or co-existence of weakened conventional bonding and heightened association with maladaptive peers. In support of these assumptions, findings of Baron (2008) suggest that youths' peers and values have an impact on *all* forms of maladaptive behaviour. In other words, maladaptive peers may provide pressure for, and support in, carrying out maladaptive activities. It can therefore be argued that living on the margins of society for long periods of time, lacking adequate shelter, being angry and

dissatisfied about one's monetary condition, and associating with peers experiencing the same circumstances, may cause the youth to experience less fear of the severity of the expected punishment. In turn these experiences may serve to educate victims on the use of criminal behaviour and provide a rationale for values supportive of criminal behaviour, which justifies criminal acts as seeking social appraisal in addition to not caring about the eventual punishment. For example, in a study Barn and Tan (2012) conducted on foster youth in England, it was found that youth who experienced instability in foster care (loss of a stable home environment) were more prone to maladaptive behaviour; where one youth commented:

The majority [of my friends] have ended up on drugs, prostituting, things like that. I'm not going to say that I haven't pros-... like I've done escorting, when I was in care... So I had to do escorting when I was actually in care, and then from that you get on drugs and everything. (p. 217)

Here, once again, one can argue that the loss of emotional support and security presented by a loved one (removal of positively valued stimuli) constitutes a major role within the youth's subjective experience of their circumstances. One should therefore consider that not only do these negative personal and social circumstances underpin maladaptive behaviour by unsatisfied youth; they also rationalise the individual's subsequent actions as representing that of 'coping behaviour' to situations out of their control.

Therefore, drawing on information from the above-mentioned studies, considering youth living in South African marginalised communities characterised by social conditions seeming deceptively difficult and unpredictable, and having devastating psychological consequences on the youth's identity development, factors such as socio-emotional disadvantages should be regarded as placing youth at risk for a number of poor developmental outcomes, such as

psychological maladjustment (for example, “acting out” when feeling they were treated unfairly in comparison to others). One can thus argue that if their outcomes are equal to those of their peers, the youth will feel that the outcomes are fair or just. Conversely, if the outcomes of the youth are not equal to those of others in the relationship, the youth will feel that the outcomes are unjust and, as a result, will experience dissatisfaction, distress or anger (Agnew, 2006). This may be especially relevant to marginalised youth, especially because these youth might feel that they have been under-rewarded rather than over-rewarded. It is thus natural to assume that inequity between peer relationships may lead to youth offending for several reasons: To increase their outcomes (for example, by theft), to lower their inputs (for example, withdrawing from school), to lower the outcomes of others (for example, assault) and to increase the inputs of others (for example, by being incorrigible or disorderly) (Agnew, 1992). However, given that none of the above-mentioned studies focussed on South African youth, the question remains of whether findings such as in the above-mentioned studies could be applied to South African youth. In light of the literature reviewed, it would therefore be interesting to ascertain whether our understanding of their experienced social support from friends and family could be in any way conceptualised to how committing criminal offence that leads to their incarceration is linked to a lack in social support as maladaptive coping.

2.4 Coping and youth offending

Various studies seeking to provide possible explanations for the commission of crime by youth have emphasised the use of maladaptive behaviour as constituting that of coping behaviour; where maladaptive behaviour could be regarded as methods for reducing or escaping from strains (Agnew, 1992, 1995b, 1997, 2000, 2006; Baron, 2008; Sealock & Manasse, 2012; Turanovic & Pratt, 2013). Particularly within GST literature, an argument exists that criminal behaviour among youth serves a certain purpose in which it can operate

as a problem-solving mechanism when interpreted against interpersonal problems (Agnew, 1992, 1995a, 1995b, 1997, 2000, 2006). It is argued that even though a number of coping strategies might be employed to combat strain, only some involve criminal behaviour (Agnew, 1992); where certain types of strain might not be adequately addressed through conventional coping strategies. For example, in a study by Mazerolle et al. (2000) it was found that when strain and anger occurred simultaneously, when strain occurred in conjunction with a weak social bond, or when strain occurred in conjunction with exposure to maladaptive relationships, maladaptive responses to curb the immediate effects of those strains are more likely to occur. However, in contrast, Aseltine et al. (2000) found negative life events, stresses and relationship strains to be significantly positively correlated with criminal conduct, and that with stressful experiences in the absence of instrumental problem-solving behaviour, efforts to manage distress tend to increase the probability of maladaptive behaviour. Furthermore, in a study examining the moderating roles of guardian and peer support and behavioural coping strategies on youths' community violence and their maladaptive behaviour, Rosario et al. (2003) found that the youth who experienced increased community victimisation, with high levels of peer pressure, engaged in more maladaptive behaviour than youth with low levels of peer pressure. These findings suggest that through experiencing the stresses associated with maladaptive behaviour, these maladaptive youth are almost incapable of adaptive coping with the strains provided by the pressures induced by criminal peers; hence the high levels of negative emotional status. As an example, one can consequently argue that a marginalised youth who experiences abuse within his peer group as a means of showing the extent to which he can be regarded as part of the team, internally experiences anger and frustration, and therefore uses these negative emotions as a resource with which to vent his source of aversion towards another as a means of releasing the tension he experiences. The youth might therefore engage in maladaptive coping behaviour bordering

on emotion-avoidance (as maladaptive behaviour represent maladaptive ways of dealing with conflicted emotions surround, inter alia, a sense of alienation and inadequacy of support) where the focus is not on solving the problem, but on transferring the impact of the strained experience to another. With the main function of coping strategies being the provision of psychosocial adaptations to a crisis situation, coping refers to the conscious or unconscious thoughts and actions of the individual that help him deal with a stressful event (Green, et al., 2010). Coping behaviour continuously changes the cognitive and behavioural efforts of the youth to manage a specific strenuous event, such as being assaulted, where the youth's social and emotional health depends on the coping strategies used.

In a study by Jang and Lyons (2006) the purpose was to examine the discrepancy between effects of inner- and outer-directed emotions on withdrawing behaviour among African Americans, and the conditioning effects of social support among maladaptive coping. Results indicated that strain has significant positive effects on angry and non-angry emotions, whereas potential support has significant negative effects on angry and non-angry emotions. In addition, it was found that neither perceived nor potential social support has significant strain-buffering effects; where the conditioning effect of social support is more likely to occur when measured in terms of the potential availability of social support in an individual's personal networks rather than perceived social support. Within Jang and Lyons' study it was therefore found that the effects of social support (for example, potential support) on withdrawing behaviour are indirect via negative emotions. It was therefore implied that individuals who experience social support from others are less likely to feel pressured to turn to maladaptive coping strategies, such as withdrawal from others, than those who lack such support. One can consequently argue that perceived positive social support constitute an important coping mechanism against strain, especially in light of Agnew's conceptualisation of strain constituting that of situations in which the youth is not treated as he wants or expects

to be treated. According to GST, if the youth experiences a lack in social support, strain is likely to ensue which creates motivation to engage in maladaptive coping behaviour. In other words, an interaction exists between the effects of strain on negative affect and the levels of participation in maladaptive behaviour. However, it is important to note that in the long run involvement with peers encouraging criminal behaviour may also result in the youth antagonising others, thereby worsening interpersonal problems and creating additional strain which might be experienced as high in magnitude. As Agnew (2001) argues, strain which is experienced as high in magnitude influences the youth's ability to cope in a non-criminal manner. The youth compares the perceived costs of non-criminal coping to those of criminal coping, where the perceived magnitude of the strain will influence the youth's disposition towards engaging in criminal coping. When youth cognitively minimise the impact of severe strain, and cope with the use of emotional and behavioural techniques of a non-criminal nature, they might regard it as being difficult and ineffective, which may unconsciously reduce the youth's ability to cope and lead to the experience of anger (Agnew, 2001). One can thus argue that anger promotes criminal behaviour because it disrupts cognitive processes in ways that obstruct non-maladaptive coping. For example, it leads youth to disregard information that may help solve the problem and may reduce the youth's ability to cope in a non-maladaptive manner. Therefore, the type of strain experienced influences the availability and appeal of non-maladaptive coping options, thereby affecting whether the youth will engage in criminal behaviour. Furthermore, Froggio (2007) promotes a variety of internal and external factors which restricts youths' choice of coping with strain, including strain which affects goals that are high in actual and relative importance, while few alternative goals or values can be achieved; the level of individual coping resources available, such as intelligence, temperament, and self-esteem; and conventional social support which might facilitate the major types of coping. Sealock and Manasse (2012) therefore argue that some

types of strain are more likely to result in maladaptive coping than other types, because it can influence the youth's ability to cope in either a maladaptive manner or not due to the perceived cost of non-maladaptive versus maladaptive coping, and the disposition between these forms of coping.

It must be noted, that whilst studies have examined the role of coping mechanisms among youth offenders (Green et al., 2010; Ireland, Boustead, & Ireland, 2005; Ireland, Brown, & Ballarini, 2006; Ngo & Paternoster, 2012; Sealock & Manasse, 2012), the actual coping effectiveness of maladaptive behaviour remains unexamined, with seemingly one study exploring the coping effectiveness of maladaptive behaviour (Brezina, 1996). In addition, no study of note could be found that explored whether the choice in coping mechanism influenced the youth's levels of anger, self-control and perceived social support, thus indicating a further need in the exploration of youth offending as constituting that of coping behaviour.

2.5 Conclusion

This review of the literature on Agnew's GST (Agnew, 1985, 1992, 1997, 2002, 2006, 2012) reports on work done by renowned scholars in investigating the role of strain factors in maladaptive youths' experience of anger, self-control and social support, and the effectiveness of maladaptive behaviour to counter such strains. The extent to which youth might resort to maladaptive behaviour as a means of coping within their particular environmental circumstances were discussed, while maladaptive behaviour was argued to not only result from the frustration of future goals, but also because of negative relationships and the negative affective states that often result from these relationships. Scholars (Agnew, 1985, 1997, 2002; Agnew et al., 2002; Brezina, 1996; Broidy, 2001; Froggio, 2007; Jang, 2007) seem to agree that certain strains experienced by youth are related to behavioural

problems, and that these behavioural acts, while maladaptive in themselves, can be utilised as problem-solving mechanisms in which youth negotiate the challenges they encounter in their daily lives. It therefore becomes clear that emotional-situational strains central to the youths' experience within their immediate environments influence the way in which these victims of different degrees of strain get caught up in maladaptive behavioural patterns, where maladaptive behaviour may be a means of escaping from the aversive environment or of removing the source of aversion.

Chapter 3

Research methodology, research aims, questions and hypotheses

3.1 Research questions, aims and hypotheses

3.1.1 Research questions

In light of the literature reviewed and the GST, the following research questions formed the cornerstone of the present study:

Firstly, what is the psychological functioning of the youth incarcerated in the Western Cape correctional centres (what is their level of anger, self-control, perceived social support, and how do they cope with the experienced strain associated with life both inside the correctional centres and their livelihood before incarceration)?

Secondly, is there a relationship between the three variables (anger, self-control, perceived social support) and coping in the context of criminal behaviour of these incarcerated youth?

3.1.2 Research aims

Firstly, and focussing on negative emotionality, the main aim of the present study was to explore whether Agnew's GST could be used to explain the criminal behaviour of South African youth offenders (with the focus on anger, self-control, inadequacy of supportive relationships, and maladaptive coping as central to the commission of criminal activities of the youth incarcerated in Western Cape correctional facilities).

Secondly, the study sought to explore whether and/or how these incarcerated youth experienced the commission of crime as a means of coping with the negative emotional strain associated with life in their respective communities.

Thirdly, the study aimed to investigate the extent to which youth offenders' levels of anger could be associated with their perceived social support, self-control and coping strategies.

3.1.3 Research objectives

To achieve the above-mentioned aims, the study had the following research objectives:

Firstly, to determine which of the three coping strategies were predominantly used by the sample of incarcerated South African youth.

Secondly, to examine the nature of the statistical relationship between anger, self-control, perceived social support and coping strategies used.

Thirdly, to determine which of the three coping strategies predicted anger.

Fourthly, to determine which of the three coping strategies predicted perceived social support.

Finally, to determine which of the three coping strategies predicted self-control.

3.1.4 Research hypotheses

The proposed research study tested eight hypotheses:

1. There will be a significant negative correlation between anger and self-control.
2. There will be a significant negative correlation between anger and perceived social support.
3. There will be a significant positive correlation between anger and avoidant coping.
4. There will be a significant positive correlation between self-control and problem-solving coping.
5. There will be a significant positive correlation between self-control and avoidant coping.

6. There will be a significant negative correlation between perceived social support and social support-seeking coping.
7. Perceived social support will emerge as a significant positive predictor of self-control.
8. Anger will emerge as a significant negative predictor of self-control.
9. Social support-seeking coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of anger.
10. Problem-solving coping will emerge as a significant positive predictor of self-control.
11. Avoidant coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of self-control.
12. Social support-seeking coping will emerge as a significant positive predictor of perceived social support.
13. Avoidant coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of perceived social support.

3.2 Research design

In this study quantitative research methodology was used, in particular a correlational research design. Quantitative research generates statistics, which relies upon measurements and the use of various scales (Bless, Higson-Smith, & Kagee, 2006). The correlational research design is a non-experimental method that allows the researcher to determine whether two variables are related to each other (Jackson, 2009; Kumar, 2011), for example anger and self-control. According to Bless et al. (2006), within quantitative research meaning is assigned to the interpretation of the systematic 'changes' in scores. Quantitative research uses descriptive and inferential statistics, which in turn consists of facts expressed in the language of measurement (Bless et al., 2006). A strength of quantitative research is that it is said to be replicable; where quantitative instruments are often used in further research due to the rigors of creating an instrument effectively measuring a certain construct that can be used in different social contexts, while also being valid and reliable (Creswell, 2003). In addition, it

is also suggested that quantitative research tests and validates theories presently constructed to explain how and why phenomena happen (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004) and that, if properly done, produce answers that are solid, unlike an opinion (Ratnesar & Mackenzie, 2006). Furthermore, even though a correlational research design can be regarded as often preventing the possibility to reveal any unknown dynamics beyond the measurement setting (Bong, 1996), it allows the researcher to make predictions from one variable to another (Jackson, 2009), thus enabling the researcher to establish the relationship between two or more aspects of a situation (Kumar, 2011).

3.3 Sampling

Within this study convenience sampling, as well as non-probability, particularly availability, sampling was used. These sampling methods involves taking in all available participants until the sample reaches the desired size (Bless et al., 2006).

While I, as the researcher, had to wait in the designated interview room, prison officials randomly gathered participants by means of selecting anyone who was available at the time and brought them, one at a time, to meet with me. To ensure that no participant was there against his or her will, I asked each participant, in private, whether he or she would like to participate.

3.4 Participants

Within the study's framework, selecting a sample which is credible and representing of at-risk youth living in South Africa was of empirical value. Therefore, even though female youth only represent 2% of the youth prison population (Department of Correctional Services, 2011a), the present study regarded females as equally important to males regarding what contributes to their decision to engage in maladaptive behaviour.

The original sample of this study comprised 85 participants, which included males ($n = 62$) and females ($n = 23$) from three correctional centres* within the Western Cape province: Centre A ($n = 27$), Centre B ($n = 31$) and Centre C ($n = 23$). The age of the participants ranged from 18–27 years old ($M = 22$ years, $SD = 1.994$). However, three male participants did not fit the description of youth, as defined in Chapter 1, and because these three individuals were aged above the 18-25 year range, they were excluded from the final analyses. A further one (male) participant was removed from the sample due to substantial information missing from his questionnaires. The sample size was thus reduced to 81 participants.

In terms of literacy, 74 participants (91.4%) indicated they could read, 4 participants (4.9%) indicated they could only read ‘a little bit’ and 3 participants (3.7%) could not read at all. In terms of writing ability, 72 participants (88.9%) indicated they could write, 6 participants (7.4%) reported that they could only write ‘a little bit’ and 3 participants (3.7%) reported they could not write at all. When asked about the highest level of education attained before being arrested, the results ranged from Grade 4 to second year in College ($M = 9.07$ Grade, $SD = 1.88$). Regarding racial identity of the participants, 53 (65.4%) identified themselves as Coloured, 26 (32.1%) as African and 2 (2.5%) as White. With regard to their home language, 49 (60.5%) of the participants reported that they spoke Afrikaans, 23 (28.4%) spoke isiXhosa, 8 (9.9%) spoke English and 1 (1.2%) spoke isiZulu.

When looking at the sample’s demographic area of residence, only one participant (1.2%) indicated he was not from the Western Cape, but from the Eastern Cape. In addition, all participants indicated they lived in underprivileged households. Regarding the number of people residing in the participants’ household, the total number ranged from 1 to 17 people

* In order to protect the identity and preserve the anonymity of participants in the three correctional centres, the researcher decided to simply refer to these centres as Centres A, B and C

($M = 6$ people, $SD = 2.769$). In terms of previous employment before incarceration, 43 participants (53.1%) indicated that they were not employed when they committed their respective crimes and 38 of the participants (46.9%) indicated they had a job at the time of their arrest. The demographic results are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 81)

	n	(%)
Age		
18–19	6	7.4
20–21	23	28.4
22–23	25	30.9
24–25	27	33.3
Gender		
Male	58	71.6
Female	23	28.4
Language		
English	8	9.9
Afrikaans	49	60.5
Xhosa	23	28.4
Zulu	1	1.2
Race/Culture		
Coloured	53	65.4
African	26	32.1
White	2	2.5
Literacy		
Yes	74	91.4
No	3	3.7
A little bit	4	4.9
Lexicality		
Yes	72	88.9
No	3	3.7
A little bit	6	7.4

Table 3.1 (*continued*)

	n	(%)
Academic Qualification		
Primary School (Grade 4 to Grade 7)	15	18.5
High School (Grade 8 to Grade 12)	65	80.3
Tertiary Education (1st or 2nd year)	1	1.2
Residential location		
Western Cape	80	98.8
Eastern Cape	1	1.2
Total members in household*		
1–5	37	45.7
6–10	35	43.2
11–15	6	7.4
16–17	1	1.2
Employment Status		
Previously Employed	38	46.9
Previously Unemployed	43	53.1

*Two missing values (2.5%)

Noteworthy, when asked whether they had had any ‘problems with the law’, meaning whether they were ever convicted of a crime prior to the one they were arrested for on the date of the interview, 49 participants (60.5%) reported that they were not previously convicted of any crime and 32 participants (39.5%) indicated that they have previously been arrested for crimes committed and that this was not their first time incarcerated. However, all participants were living out their sentence(s) on the date of the interview. In Table 3.2, the particulars of the crimes for which the participants were incarcerated, as well as their prison sentences and the time they had already spent in prison on the date of the interview, are presented.

Table 3.2

Crime Statistics of the Sample

	N	(%)
Prison sentence*		
1–5 months	5	6.2
6–11 months	3	3.7
1–5 years	37	45.7
6–10 years	22	27.2
11–15 years	9	11.1
16–18 years	4	4.9
Time spent in prison*		
1–6 days	1	1.2
1–3 weeks	2	2.5
1–6 months	19	23.5
7–11 months	5	6.2
1–2 years	28	34.6
3–4 years	14	17.3
5–6 years	7	8.6
7 years	4	4.9
Crimes committed**		
Aggravated assault	2	2.5
Armed robbery	16	19.8
Assault	2	2.5
Attempted murder	4	4.9
Hijacking	1	1.2
Housebreaking	7	8.6
Kidnapping	2	2.5
Murder	15	18.5
Possession of a firearm	4	4.9
Possession of Tik (Crystal Meth)	1	1.2
Rape	9	11.1
Robbery	11	13.6
Sexual assault	1	1.2

Table 3.2 (*continued*)

	N	(%)
Shoplifting	2	2.4
Sold marijuana	1	1.2
Theft	14	17.3
Theft of motor vehicle	3	3.7

*One missing value (1.2%)

**Please note that some offenders were convicted for more than one crime

3.5 Measuring instruments

3.5.1 Translation of questionnaires

All the questionnaires were available in English and Afrikaans and were translated from English to Afrikaans by an associate of the researcher using the Brislin method of translation (Brislin, 1976), a back translation method in which the translated questionnaires were translated back from the target language (Afrikaans) to the original language (English) to ensure the validity of the translated Afrikaans questionnaires. All the scales were found to be equal to the original English scales in terms of content and meaning.

3.5.2 Demographic questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was used to acquire information on participant variables including age, language, level of education, place of residence outside of prison, employment status, the nature of the crime(s) for which they were prosecuted, whether they had committed any previous offences for which they were prosecuted and the length of their incarceration.

It is important to note that no personally identifying data such as names, identity numbers or physical home addresses were included in the questionnaire.

3.5.3 Self-Control Schedule (SCS) (Rosenbaum, 1980)

To measure the extent to which youth exerted self-control methods to the solution of behavioural problems, the Self-Control Schedule (SCS) was administered. This instrument has 36 items which are rated on a 6-point scale, with +3 indicating "very characteristic of me" and -3 indicating "very uncharacteristic of me" (Rosenbaum, 1980). The reliability for this scale has been reported in terms of test-retest correlations, with total scores correlated .86 (Rosenbaum, 1980). In addition, Rosenbaum (1980) reported the convergent and discriminant validity of the SCS through comparing scores obtained on the SCS to scores obtained on a number of other existing scales, for instance the Irrational Beliefs Test (Jones, 1986) and Rotter's I-E scale (1966). According to Agnew (1995a, p. 124), low self-control predisposes the youth to crime, and that "crime is a function of low self-control *and* those situational variables that lead predisposed individuals to engage in crime". The SCS was therefore used to measure the extent to which the youth's involvement in criminal activities can be a reflection of the deficits in self-control.

3.5.4 State-Trait Anger Scale (STAS) (Spielberger, Jacobs, Russel, & Crane, 1983)

To assess anger as both an emotional state that varies in intensity, and as a relatively stable personality trait, the State-Trait Anger Scale (STAS) was administered. The STAS is a 30-item instrument with two subscales of anger temperament and anger reaction which is rated on a 4-point scale, with 1 indicating "almost never" and 4 indicating "almost always" (Spielberger et al., 1983). The STAS has very good reliability, with internal consistency of .87 and consistency coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Spielberger et al., 1983). The concurrent validity of the STAS was also established through correlations with three measures of hostility, measures of neuroticism, psychotism and anxiety (Spielberger et al., 1983). Since Froggio (2007) reported that individuals who responded to strain with anger had

an increased likelihood of adopting illegitimate or criminal outcomes, the STAS is a suitable instrument for measuring the extent to which anger can influence the youth's coping mechanisms.

3.5.5 Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI) (Amirkhan, 1990, 1994)

The Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI) employs a self-report format that instructs respondents to select a stressful event from their lives and briefly describe it (Amirkhan, 1990). After which respondents read a list of 33 specific coping behaviours, indicating the extent to which each was used to deal with the stressor. The CSI has three subscales: Problem-solving, Social Support-seeking, and Avoidance, with each scale having high internal reliability respectively (.894; .928; .839) (Amirkhan, 1994). Scoring is multidimensional, with scoring done on a 3-point scale, with 3 indicating “a lot”, 2 indicating “a little” and 1 indicating “not at all” (Amirkhan, 1994). With test-retest correlations averaged .56 the CSI has an adequate degree of stability (Amirkhan, 1994; Spangenberg & Theron, 1999). In addition, by using large community samples, Amirkhan (1990) found the internal consistency of the CSI to be equal to- or superior to other coping questionnaires (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Beckham & Adams, 1984; Miller, 1987); where tests of discriminant validity revealed the CSI to be resistant to social desirability biases (Amirkhan 1990). As it was established that youth are more likely to cope with hardship in immature or maladaptive ways (Agnew, 1997), the CSI was used to measure the extent to which youth make use of different coping strategies in order to deal with the strains in their lives.

3.5.6 Social Support Appraisals scale (SSA) (Vaux, Phillips, Holly, Thomson, Williams, & Stewart, 1986)

The Social Support Appraisals scale (SSA) is a 23-item instrument consisting of total score and three subscales: SSA-Family, Friend and Other subscale (Vaux et al., 1986). The SSA

has very good internal consistency, with alpha coefficients ranging from .81 to .90, and very good concurrent, predictive, known-groups, and construct validity, and is significantly correlated with various measures of social support and psychological well-being (Vaux et al., 1986). According to Rosario et al. (2003) social support and other forms of coping are hypothesised to restrain the effects of negative outcomes on stress by buffering or protecting the individual from the negative consequences of stress. The SSA therefore measured participants' perceptions of social support received from significant others.

3.5.7 Reliability analysis of measuring instruments in present research study

Using Jose M. Cortina's research article on coefficient alphas as a guide to rate the reliability analyses results for measures used in the present study (Cortina, 1993), the scales that demonstrated excellent internal consistency were the State-Trait Anger Scale ($\alpha = .94$) and the Social Support-Seeking Subscale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($\alpha = .84$). Those scales that demonstrated good internal consistency were the Social Support Appraisals scale ($\alpha = .79$), the Family Support Subscale of the Social Support Appraisals scale ($\alpha = .72$), the Friends Support Subscale of the Social Support Appraisals scale ($\alpha = .79$) and the Problem-solving Subscale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($\alpha = .76$). The Self-Control Schedule ($\alpha = .67$) and the Avoidance Subscale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($\alpha = .67$) both demonstrated modest internal consistency, with the Other Support Subscale of the Social Support Appraisals scale ($\alpha = .43$) demonstrating weak internal consistency; with the result that the exclusive use of this subscale was excluded from analyses. The internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha), mean and standard deviation (SD) for each of the measures are summarised in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3

Cronbach's Alpha, Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) for Each Measure

	N	α	Mean	SD
SCS	68	.67	21.4	22.1
CSI – Problem-solving subscale	77	.76	23.9	4.5
CSI – Social support-seeking subscale	81	.84	21.4	5.5
CSI – Avoidance subscale	80	.67	23.8	4.3
SSA	72	.79	69.1	8.8
SSA – Family support subscale	75	.72	25.7	4.2
SSA – Friends support subscale	79	.79	19.2	4.7
SSA – Other support subscale	78	.43	24.0	3.3
STAS	80	.94	61.7	19.9

Note. SCS = Self-Control Schedule; CSI = Coping Strategy Indicator; SSA = Social Support Appraisals scale; STAS = State-Trait Anger Scale

3.6 Research procedure

Within this study, to collect data, self-administered (or interviewer-administered) questionnaires were individually administered in a safe environment, at a time and venue determined by the officials at each correctional facility.

In addition, to prevent any participant errors and to place the participant at ease, each participant was given a clear explanation (both by means of the informed consent form and by means of a verbal explanation), in a simple and youth-friendly language, of what the aims, objectives and instructions of the questionnaires are. Each interview lasted approximately 30–45 minutes; the first point of data collection took place in August 2012 at Centre A, a

correctional centre that comprised about 762 male youth offenders. In September 2012, the second point of data collection took place at Centre B, a medium admission and detention centre comprising male offenders aged 18–21 years. The third and last point of data collection took place in October 2012 from Centre C, a medium admission and detention centre comprising about 375 female offenders ranging from children to adults.

Before participants could complete the questionnaires, they were briefed on the purpose of the study, why they were invited to participate, and about their rights as participant, including the freedom to discontinue the study at any given moment when desired, without any harm caused. In addition, all participants were treated with the utter most respect, fairness, fidelity, and equity throughout the research process and were also guaranteed confidentiality, with their answers used only for research purposes (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009; Graziano & Raulin, 2010).

3.7 Data analyses

The data were statistically analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows (Version 20), with the supervision and guidance of qualified statisticians from the Centre for Statistical Consultation, and Mr. H. R. Steel of the Department of Psychology, at Stellenbosch University.

First, basic statistics was used to clarify the nature of the difference between the clusters in terms of demographic variables (such as sex, age, literacy, areas of residence prior to incarceration, crimes committed for which currently incarcerated, and previous offences for which incarcerated). Secondly, reliability analysis was conducted on each scale (the Self-Control Schedule, Social Support Appraisals scale, Coping Strategy Indicator and State-Trait Anger Scale). Thirdly, the Pearson and Spearman's correlation coefficients were used among the study variables (self-control, anger, perceived social support and coping strategies) to

measure the strength and direction of the linear relationship between anger and self-control, anger and perceived social support, self-control and perceived social support, and anger, self-control, perceived social support and the three coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI). Lastly, multiple regression analyses were used to determine which of the three coping strategies of the CSI would emerge as significant predictors of the three variables, anger, perceived social support and self-control.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval to conduct this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee (REC): Human research (Non-medical) of the University of Stellenbosch; and further ethical clearance by the National Department of Correctional Services was also obtained.

In addition to obtaining ethical clearance from the University of Stellenbosch and the Department of Correctional Services, written permission to conduct research at Centre A, Centre B and Centre C was obtained from the heads of the respective centres.

Before the administration of the questionnaires, the researcher explained the nature, purpose and procedures of the study to the participants and encouraged them to read the informed consent form and to give them an opportunity to ask questions for clarity. To ensure the ethical principle of voluntary participation, each participant was made fully cognisant of the fact that their participation was at their free will, and that they had the choice to participate or not, and that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point without consequences or penalties to them. Each participant was therefore asked to give their written and verbal consent for their participation in this study. The ethical principle of confidentiality and anonymity was adhered to by instructing the participants not to write their names on the questionnaires and to conduct the interview in a private room, where only the participants and researcher were present.

Although there was provision to refer participants exhibiting acute emotional upheavals due to participating in this study, it is worth stating that no participant was deemed as requiring such referral.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1 Introduction: Overall use of coping strategies and general key findings

The results on the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI), which was used to measure the extent to which youth make use of different coping strategies in order to deal with the strains in their lives, revealed that 37 participants (45.68%) predominantly used avoidant coping strategies, 22 participants (27.16%) predominantly used problem-solving coping strategies and 13 participants (16.05%) predominantly used social support-seeking coping strategies. Interestingly, of the remaining nine participants, six participants (7.41%) indicated an equal use of both problem-solving coping strategies and avoidant coping strategies, two participants (2.47%) indicated an equal use of problem-solving coping strategies and social support-seeking coping strategies and one participant (1.23%) indicated using all three coping strategies equally.

In addition, results also displayed various significant positive correlations between self-control and the use of problem-solving coping, between self-control and perceived social support from family members, between anger and the use of avoidant coping, as well as between self-control and the use of avoidant coping. Furthermore, the results revealed significant negative correlations between anger and self-control, as well as between anger and perceived social support from family members and friends respectively. The problem-solving coping strategy furthermore emerged as a significant positive predictor of self-control, whereas the avoidant coping strategy emerged as a significant positive predictor of anger. Anger, however, emerged as a significant negative predictor of self-control, whereas the social support-seeking coping strategy emerged as a significant negative predictor of perceived social support from family members.

In light of the above-mentioned findings, this chapter focuses on how certain variables (anger, self-control and social support) influence the coping strategies of youth offenders. First, the Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and Spearman's correlation coefficients will be discussed, after which the regression analyses between the study variables will be presented.

4.2 Correlational analyses of results

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient and Spearman's correlation coefficient were used to investigate the relationship between the various variables examined within the present study, namely anger, self-control, perceived social support and coping.

4.2.1 Correlation between anger and self-control

In order to investigate the nature of the relationship between anger and self-control, Pearson's correlation was calculated between anger and self-control, with a significant negative correlation found between anger and self-control ($r = -.337, p < .01$) (see Table 4.1). This implies that the higher the levels of experienced anger for the youth offenders, the less inclined they were to exert self-control. As the result indicates, the following hypothesis was thus supported:

- *There will be a significant negative correlation between anger and self-control.*

Table 4.1

Correlation Between Scores on the Self-Control Schedule and Scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale (N = 81).

	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Self-control	-.337	.002**

** $p < .01$

4.2.2 Correlations between anger and perceived social support

To determine the nature of the relationship between anger and perceived social support, the Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature of the relationship between anger and the incarcerated youth's perception of social-support from family and friends (Table 4.2). A significant negative correlation was found between anger and perceived social support from family members ($r = -.253, p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of anger experienced by the youth offender, the lower were their perceptions of social support received from their family members, and vice versa.

As also shown in Table 4.2, a significant negative correlation was found between anger and perceived social support from friends ($r = -.245, p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of anger experienced by the youth offender, the lower were their perceptions of social support received from their friends, and vice versa.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus supported:

- *There will be a significant negative correlation between anger and perceived social support.*

Table 4.2

Correlations Between Scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale and Scores on the Family Subscale and Friends Subscale of the Social Support Appraisal Scale (N = 81).

Social Support Appraisals	r	p
Support from Family	-.253	.023*
Support from Friends	-.245	.028*

* $p < .05$

4.2.3 Correlations between self-control and perceived social support

The Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature of the relationship between self-control and the youth offender's perception of social support from family and friends. The results of the analyses are presented in Table 4.3. The results illustrated a significant positive correlation between self-control and perceived social support from family members ($r = .253, p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of self-control experienced by the youth offender, the higher were their perceptions of social support received from their family, and vice versa. However, also shown in Table 4.3, the results illustrated that the positive correlation between self-control and perceived social support from friends was not significant.

Table 4.3

Correlations Between Scores on the Self-control Schedule and Scores on the Family Subscale and Friends Subscale of the Social Support Appraisal Scale (N = 81).

Social Support Appraisals	r	p
Support from Family	.253	.023*
Support from Friends	.048	.669

* $p < .05$

4.2.4 Correlations between anger and coping strategies

To investigate the nature of the relationship between anger and the three coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator, the Spearman's correlation coefficients were calculated (see Table 4.4). The results illustrated a significant positive correlation between scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale and scores on the avoidant coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($r = .233, p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of experienced anger for the incarcerated youth, the more they made use of avoidant coping strategies.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus supported:

- *There will be a significant positive correlation between anger and avoidant coping.*

Table 4.4

Correlations Between Scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale and Scores on the Three Coping Strategy Scales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 81).

Coping Strategy	r	p
Problem-solving coping strategy	-.160	.155
Social support-seeking coping strategy	-.043	.703
Avoidant coping strategy	.233	.036*

* $p < .05$

As also shown in Table 4.4, the results illustrated that the negative correlation between the scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale and scores on the problem-solving coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator, and the negative correlation between scores on the State-trait Anger Scale and scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator were both not significant.

4.2.5 Correlations between self-control and coping strategies

The Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to investigate the nature of the relationship between the youth offender's levels of self-control and the coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator subscales (see Table 4.5). The results illustrated a significant positive correlation between scores on the Self-Control Schedule and scores on the problem-solving coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($r = .383, p < .01$). This implies that the higher the level of self-control for the incarcerated youth, the higher was the use of problem-solving coping strategies.

Table 4.5

Correlations Between Scores on the Self-Control Schedule and scores on the Three Coping Strategy Scales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 81).

Coping strategy	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Problem-solving coping strategy	.383	.000***
Social support-seeking coping strategy	.157	.080
Avoidant coping strategy	.193	.042*

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

As also shown in Table 4.5, the results illustrated a significant positive correlation between scores on the Self-Control Schedule and scores on the avoidant coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($r = .193, p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of self-control for the incarcerated youth, the more pronounced was the use of avoidant coping strategies.

As the results indicate, the following hypotheses were thus supported:

- *There will be a significant positive correlation between self-control and problem-solving coping.*
- *There will be a significant positive correlation between self-control and avoidant coping.*

Furthermore, as also shown in Table 4.5, the results illustrated that the positive correlation between scores on the Self-Control Schedule and scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy of the Coping Strategy Indicator was not significant.

4.2.6 Correlations between perceived social support and coping strategies

The Spearman's correlation coefficient was used to determine the nature of the relationship between youth offenders' perceived social support from family members and the coping strategies they used (Table 4.6). The results illustrated a significant negative correlation between scores on the family subscale of the Social Support Appraisal scale and scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy scale of the Coping Strategy Indicator ($r = -.221$, $p < .05$). This implies that the higher the levels of perceived social support from family members for the incarcerated youth, the less they made use of social support-seeking coping strategies.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus supported:

- *There will be a significant negative correlation between perceived social support and social support-seeking coping.*

Table 4.6

Correlations Between Scores on the Three Coping Strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator and Scores on the Family Subscale of the Social Support Appraisals scale (N = 81).

Coping strategy	r	p
Problem-solving coping strategy	.054	.633
Social support-seeking coping strategy	-.221	.047*
Avoidant coping strategy	-.055	.623

* $p < .05$

In addition, as illustrated in Table 4.6, the positive correlation between scores on the perceived social support from family subscale and scores on the problem-solving coping

strategy scale, as well as the negative correlation between scores on the perceived social support from family subscale and scores on the avoidant coping strategy scale were not significant.

The Spearman's correlation coefficient was also used to determine the nature of the relationship between youth offenders' perceived social support from their friends and the coping strategies they used. The results illustrated non-significant positive correlations between perceived social support from friends and all three coping strategies (problem-solving, social support-seeking and avoidant) of the Coping Strategy Indicator.

4.3 Regression analyses

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the nature of the predictive relationships among the main variables, namely anger (State-Trait Anger Scale), self-control (Self-Control Schedule), perceived social support (Social Support Appraisals scale) and coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator.

4.3.1 Coping strategies that functioned as predictors of anger

Multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to ascertain which of the three coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI) predicted anger. The results of the analyses are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Multiple Regression of Anger on the Three Subscales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 80).

Coping Strategies	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i> ratio	<i>p</i>
Constant	55.629	15.232		3.652	.000***
Problem-solving coping strategy	-.846	.565	-.194	-1.497	.138
Social support-seeking coping strategy	-.013	.453	-.004	-.029	.977
Avoidant coping strategy	1.106	.538	.238	2.056	.043*

Note. $F(3, 77) = 1.828$, $R = .258$, $R^2 = .066$, adjusted $R^2 = .030$, $SE = 19.527$

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

As illustrated in Table 4.7, the avoidant coping strategy emerged as a significant positive predictor of anger ($\beta = .238$, $p < .05$). This implies that the use of avoidant coping strategies was associated with heightened levels of anger.

As also illustrated in Table 4.7, the negative associations between scores on the problem-solving coping strategy scale and scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale (STAS), as well as between scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy scale and scores on the STAS, were not significant. The results therefore imply that both the problem-solving coping strategy and the social support-seeking coping strategy played no predictive role in the experience of anger by youth offenders.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus not supported:

- *Social support-seeking coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of anger.*

4.3.2 Coping strategies that functioned as predictors of self-control

Table 4.8 illustrates the results of the multiple regression analyses that were conducted in order to ascertain whether any of the three coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI) predicted self-control.

Table 4.8

Multiple Regression of Self-Control on the Three Subscales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 80).

Coping Strategies	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i> ratio	<i>p</i>
Constant	-37.669	17.944		-2.099	.039*
Problem-solving coping strategy	1.999	.666	.370	3.003	.004**
Social support-seeking coping strategy	-.129	.534	-.029	-.242	.809
Avoidant coping strategy	.490	.633	.085	.773	.442

Note. $F(3, 77) = 4.657$, $R = .392$, $R^2 = .154$, adjusted $R^2 = .121$, $SE = 23.003$

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

As illustrated in Table 4.8, the problem-solving coping strategy emerged as a significant positive predictor of self-control ($\beta = .370$, $p < .01$). This implies that the use of problem-solving coping strategies was associated with heightened levels of self-control.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus, supported:

- *Problem-solving coping will emerge as a significant positive predictor of self-control.*

As also illustrated in Table 4.8, the negative association between scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy scale and scores of self-control on the Self-Control Schedule (SCS), as well as the positive association between scores on the avoidant coping strategy scale and

scores on the SCS, were not significant. The results therefore imply that both the social support-seeking coping strategy and the avoidant coping strategy played no predictive role in the levels of self-control among youth offenders.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was not supported:

- *Avoidant coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of self-control.*

4.3.3 Coping strategies that functioned as predictors of perceived social support

Table 4.9 illustrates the results of the multiple regression analyses that were conducted in order to ascertain whether any of the three coping strategies of the Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI) predicted perceived social support from family members as indicated in the Social Support Appraisals (SSA) scale subscale.

Table 4.9

Multiple Regression of Perceived Social Support from Family Members on the Three Subscales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 80).

Coping Strategies	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i> ratio	<i>p</i>
Constant	28.518	3.620		7.878	.000***
Problem-solving coping strategy	.214	.134	.205	1.592	.116
Social support-seeking coping strategy	-.239	.108	-.275	-2.219	.029*
Avoidant coping strategy	-.140	.128	-.126	-1.094	.277

Note. $F(3, 77) = 2.087$, $R = .274$, $R^2 = .075$, adjusted $R^2 = .039$, $SE = 4.640$

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

As illustrated in Table 4.9, the social support-seeking coping strategy emerged as a significant negative predictor of perceived social support from family members ($\beta = -.275$, p

< .05). This implies that the use of social support-seeking coping strategies was associated with diminished perceptions of support from family members.

As also illustrated in Table 4.9, the positive association between scores on the problem-solving coping strategy scale and scores on the family subscale of the SSA, as well as the negative association between scores on the avoidant coping strategy scale and scores on the family subscale of the SSA, were not significant. The results therefore imply that both the problem-solving coping strategy and the avoidant coping strategy played no predictive role in the youth offender's experience of support from family members.

Furthermore, regression analyses were conducted to determine which of the three coping strategies of the CSI would emerge as significant predictors of perceived social support from friends. The results of the analyses are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Multiple Regression of Perceived Social Support from Friends on the Three Subscales of the Coping Strategy Indicator (N = 80).

Coping Strategies	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i> ratio	<i>p</i>
Constant	16.148	3.683		4.385	.000***
Problem-solving coping strategy	.228	.137	.218	1.670	.099
Social support-seeking coping strategy	.027	.110	.031	.248	.804
Avoidant coping strategy	-.128	.130	-.115	-.985	.328

Note. $F(3, 77) = 1.402$, $R = .228$, $R^2 = .052$, adjusted $R^2 = .015$, $SE = 4.721$

*** $p < .001$

As illustrated in Table 4.10, the positive association between scores on the problem-solving coping strategy scale and scores on the friends subscale of the SSA, as well as between scores on the social support-seeking coping strategy scale and scores on the friends subscale of the

SSA, were not significant. In addition, the negative associations between scores on the avoidant coping scale and scores on the friends subscale of the SSA were also not significant. This implies that none of the three coping strategies played a predictive role in the youth offenders' perceptions of social support from their friends.

As the results indicate, the following hypotheses were thus not supported:

- *Social support-seeking coping will emerge as a significant positive predictor of perceived social support.*
- *Avoidant coping will emerge as a significant negative predictor of perceived social support.*

4.3.4 Social support appraisals and anger as variables that functioned as predictors of self-control

Multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to ascertain whether perceived social support from family members or friends, as subscales of the Social Support Appraisals scale (SSA), and anger predicted self-control. The results are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Multiple Regression of Self-control on Perceived Social Support and Anger (N = 80).

Predictor	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i> ratio	<i>p</i>
Constant	37.813	21.254		1.779	.079
Anger	-.403	.139	-.326	-2.894	.005**
Perceived social support from family	.394	.583	.076	.675	.501
Perceived social support from friends	-.215	.574	-.042	-.375	.709

Note. $F(3, 77) = 3.476$, $R = .345$, $R^2 = .119$, adjusted $R^2 = .085$, $SE = 23.465$

** $p < .01$

As illustrated in Table 4.11, anger emerged as a significant negative predictor of self-control ($\beta = -.326, p < .01$). This implies that heightened levels of anger were associated with diminished levels of self-control.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus supported:

- *Anger will emerge as a significant negative predictor of self-control.*

As also illustrated in Table 4.11, the positive association between perceived social support from family members on self-control and the negative association between scores on the State-Trait Anger Scale and perceived social support from friends were not significant. This implies that neither perceived social support from family members, nor perceived social support from friends played a predictive role on the youth offender's self-control.

As the results indicate, the following hypothesis was thus not supported:

- *Perceived social support will emerge as a significant positive predictor of self-control.*

Chapter 5

Discussion, recommendations and conclusion

5.1 Introduction

The aim of the present study was to explore the application of Agnew's General Strain Theory (GST; Agnew, 1992) to explain the behaviour of youth offenders incarcerated in Western Cape correctional facilities. The primary focus of the study was exploring ways in which these incarcerated youth experienced the commission of crime as a means of coping with the negative emotional strain, and the extent to which their levels of experienced anger could be associated with their perceived social support, self-control and coping strategies. This thesis, therefore, reports on a quantitative study designed to understand why incarcerated South African youth engaged in criminal behaviour. Examining whether the arguments behind Agnew's GST can be applied to the maladaptive behaviour of South African youth offenders, four variables discussed within GST literature are highlighted as contributing to maladaptive behaviour among youth: a) the effects of experiencing anger towards an individual or situation; b) the experience of self-control; c) perceived social support from family members and friends; and d) the coping mechanisms employed when experiencing strain. The results section looked at the nature of the statistical relationship between these variables. This chapter provides a discussion of the relevant findings of the study, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Overall use of coping strategies

In the present study it was found that 45.68% of the participants made a predominate use of

avoidant coping strategies, with 27.16% making a predominant use of problem-solving coping strategies, and 16.05% making predominant use of social support-seeking coping strategies. From the remaining participants, 7.41% indicated an equal use of avoidant and problem-solving coping strategies, 2.47% indicated an equal use of problem-solving and social support-seeking coping strategies and 1.23% indicated an equal use of all three coping strategies (avoidant, problem-solving and social support-seeking).

The predominant use of avoidant coping was consistent with findings from previous research on youth offending (Ireland et al., 2005, 2006; Kort-Butler, 2009; Ngo & Paternoster, 2012; Turanovic & Pratt, 2013) in which youth were found to make high use of maladaptive coping when confronted with maladaptive behaviour in the wake of strain. Notably, in their study of 141 male offenders, Ireland et al. (2005) found offenders reported more use of avoidant coping when experiencing psychological distress. Furthermore, studying 5,954 male youth and 6,316 female youth, Kort-Butler (2009) found avoidant coping to be significantly related to maladaptive behaviour for female youth, where avoidant coping increased maladaptive behaviour among female youth. With regard to male youth, Kort-Butler found avoidant coping to have a buffering effect on the stress male youth experienced when engaging in maladaptive behaviour.

Avoidant coping is said to enable youth to minimise the time they spend in aversive interactions and encounters and thereby reduce the likelihood that such relationships would give rise to negative affect (Brezina, 1996). In a study by Herman-Stahl, Stemmler and Petersen (1995), consisting of 603 adolescents, they examined the structure of coping behaviour and the relationship between coping style and depression during adolescence. Within this study the researchers looked at the effects of different combinations of active coping (problem-solving coping) and avoidant coping, and found that a high use in active coping was important for positive adaptations to an experienced strain. It was consequently

found that a high use of avoidant coping behaviour could be effective as long as behavioural efforts were initiated as well. Therefore, a possible explanation for the present finding (the predominant use of avoidant coping strategies) for youth offenders is that youth experiencing strain could find avoidant coping strategies to be effective at the onset of the experienced strain because it allows the youth to gather resources which might aid him or her in alleviating the stress (for example, forgetting about one's troubles through drug abuse). As youth are in a period in their life recognised as difficult, where the youth strives for independence and learns to adopt appropriate social roles within his or her community (Ireland et al., 2005), engaging in behaviour which alleviates the youth from an experienced strain without having to become actively involved (for example, running away from a violent domestic environment) could possibly be regarded as a naturally fearful and maladaptive, yet pro-active, response.

5.2.2 Anger and self-control

Consistent with the hypothesis, results from the present study showed a significant negative correlation between anger and self-control. Moreover, also in line with the hypothesis, regression analyses revealed anger to be a significant negative predictor of self-control. The present finding was consistent with previous research on the effects of strain on youth (notably, Ackerman & Sacks, 2012; Hay & Evans, 2006; Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010) in which anger and lack of self-control are generally associated with an increase in antisocial behaviour. For example, examining predictions from GST about the effects of victimisation on later involvement in maladaptive behaviour, Hay and Evans (2006) found lack of self-control to have a significant negative effect, with anger to have a significant positive effect, on each measure of maladaptive behaviour (including substance abuse, violent property offending and general maladaptive behaviour). On a similar note, when focussed on

recidivism among registered sex offenders in America, Ackerman and Sacks (2012) found those high in anger to be much more likely to reoffend (demonstrating a lack of self-control).

The possible explanation for the present finding (of a significant negative association between anger and self-control) is that when the youth experienced the emotion of anger at themselves, others, and/or, the perceived injustice or unfairness of the world around them, the focus might have been more on how aggrieved they subjectively felt, and less on the extent to which they could exert some measure of control over their life, with the result that life for them became both unbearable and uncontrollable. Related to this, literature has shown that anger is known to lower inhibition and to create a desire for revenge for the perceived injustice (Agnew, 1992), where reaction without prior thought of one's actions justifies the angered response as just and fair, coupled with a sense of expectation that others should agree with this worldview. For the youth, this emotional response makes them feel powerful in a situation where they were being dominated and subdued. As Hirschi (quoted in Agnew, 1993) mentioned, all individuals have needs and desires that are potentially antisocial. Anger is therefore a medium through which the youth can justify that reacting through maladaptive behaviour will be most advantageous for his or her own peace of mind. Reacting emotionally to the situation, with complete disregard for exerting self-control becomes the hallmark of antisocial behaviour for the youth.

It is possible that the incarcerated youth in the current study had lowered levels of self-control when anger was high because they inherently felt an inward urge to 'act out' their anger in behaviours characterised by diminished self-restraint, lest they became the victim and lose their sense of power and self-worth within the context of their peer relationships. In a society where gang membership plays an important part in these youths' lives, the culture that also plays itself out in the South African correctional facilities (Department of Correctional Services, 2011b; Haysom, 1981; Houston & Prinsloo, 1998; Lewis, 2010), it

could be argued that showing dominance when experiencing strain (through ‘acting out’ their experienced anger, rather than exercising self-restraint) render them weak and ineffectual within the prevailing gang culture of correctional centres. Anger is therefore all the reason the youth needs to react impulsively toward someone who, or something which, made the youth ‘lose face’ in front of peers; where low self-control forms part of the hedonic calculus – “the decision process in which an individual engages prior to violating social norms” (Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010, p. 245). One may therefore, referring to literature and the finding of this study, conclude that low self-control created the possibility for anger to lead to maladaptive behaviour; where only motivated youth (perhaps youth pressured by their peers) would impulsively act on this possibility (Agnew, 1992; Sacks, 2012; Vazsonyi & Huang, 2010).

5.2.3 Anger and perceived social support

Consistent with the hypothesis, results from the present study showed a significant negative correlation between anger and perceived social support. The present finding was consistent with previous research on Agnew's General Strain Theory (GST) (notably, Capowich et al., 2001; Hollist et al., 2009; Mazerolle et al., 2000; Sigfusdottir et al., 2004; Warner & Fowler, 2003), in which anger, in the context of maladaptive and antisocial behaviour, was reported to be associated with attenuated perceptions of social support received from significant others. For example, in a study of the conditioning influence social support and anger have on University students' intentions to engage in behaviour which may lead to incarceration, Capowich et al. (2001) found situational anger to be statistically significant for students who experience low levels of social support. Sigfusdottir et al. (2004) explored whether exposure to arguments and fights at home was related to depressed mood and anger among adolescents, and found family conflict (regarded here as signifying attenuated social support from family) to have a direct inverse relationship with depressed mood and anger. Moreover, Hochstetler, DeLisi and Pratt (2010) studied the mediating and moderating influences of

social support on American prison inmates' perceptions of prison conditions and parolees' feelings of hostility upon release. Hochstetler and associates found discomfort in prison increased hostility for those who lacked social support, but not for those who had high levels of social support.

In exploring the psychological motivation behind maladaptive behaviour, it is necessary to note that levels of experienced support can only be meaningfully interpreted in relation to contextual processes. With the present study, it is worth noting (as already indicated in the Participants section) that all participants indicated they lived in households where adults struggled to financially support their families. Given that the incarcerated youth reported that they relied on their peer associations and their family to manage negative experiences, it is therefore plausible that the anger experienced and expressed (in the anger scale) was directly related to diminished support from friends or families in the wake of incarceration. Agnew (1992) has argued that chronically angry or frustrated individuals are suspicious of others and are more inclined to be averse to meaningful social encounters. It is possible that, with incarceration, with subsequent attenuation and control of social contact with people who are outside the prison, the incarcerated youth might have experienced a sense of alienation with the familiar environment, which would have resulted in their heightened sense of anger (possibly at being abandoned), with subsequently reduced perceptions of social support from significant others (including friends and family).

5.2.4 Self-control and perceived social support

Findings from the present study showed that, at bivariate correlational analyses, self-control was significantly positively correlated with support from family, but that (inconsistent with the hypothesis) regression analyses showed both social support appraisal from friends and family did not emerge as significant predictors of self-control. The present finding (of a

significant relationship between self-control and perceived social support, as shown by bivariate analyses) was inconsistent with previous research on the relationship between subjective appraisals of social support and self-control in the context of antisocial behaviour (notably, Jang & Rhodes, 2012; Lin, Cochran, and Mieczkowski, 2011; Meldrum et al., 2012). Yarbrough, Jones, Sullivan, Sellers, and Cochran (2011), for example, wanting to advance an understanding of the applicability of social learning theory across individuals with varying levels of criminal propensity, assessed whether differential association, differential reinforcement and pro-criminal definitions are moderated by self-control and found the effects of peers to be stronger at lower levels of self-control compared to higher levels.

Providing a plausible explanation for the present finding (of a positive relationship between self-control and perceived social support from family) necessitates reference to GST and its three social control variables that are considered to influence the motivation for behavioural problems among youth. These include: (a) strain as the failure to achieve positively valued goals; (b) strain as the removal of positively valued stimuli; and (c) strain as the presentation of negative stimuli (Agnew, 1992). Agnew argues that strain results from the youth's incapability to achieve certain ideal goals emphasised by the sub-cultural system, where strain directs the youth's focus to the failure to achieve all positively valued goals and where negative experiences are perceived through a heightened sense of felt injury. It is possible that the unconditional support and acceptance that the incarcerated youth might have subjectively experienced from family members, albeit this being limited by incarceration, as directly related to their sense of control. Related to this, Colvin, Cullen and Van der Ven (2002) have argued that when the youth experience honest social support from significant others this prevents the occurrence of strain and anger and, more importantly, induces strong,

internalised self-control, occasioned by learning that socially acceptable behaviour can result in more positive social support.

5.2.5 Anger and coping strategies

Consistent with the hypothesis, results from the present study showed a significant positive correlation between anger and avoidant coping. Moreover, inconsistent with the hypothesis, regression analyses revealed the avoidant coping strategy to be a significant positive predictor of anger. The present findings were consistent with findings from previous research done on the effects of both positive and negative coping mechanisms among youth experiencing strain on anger (notably, Broidy, 2001; Ngo & Paternoster, 2012). For example, Broidy (2001), in examining the relationship between strain, negative affect (particularly anger), positive coping and maladaptive behaviour, found no significant relationship between strain-induced anger and legitimate coping; where findings indicate that individuals who respond to strain with anger increase the likelihood of maladaptive coping.

Within literature on GST, particular attention has been paid to anger as a mediating emotion because it tends to create the desire for corrective action and lower constraints against negative coping strategies (Rebellion et al., 2012). One can therefore suggest that when youth experience anger they may also be prone to experience similar negative emotions such as distrust and may become cynical. This, in turn, may cause them to rather avoid negative situations than confront them through either talking to a friend or trying to personally solve the problem. For the present sample, it is possible that engaging in maladaptive behaviour as a consequence of experienced strain might represent the incarcerated youth's emotional disengagement and -detachment from the problem at hand, thus expressing their emotions through behaviours that would serve to satiate the short-term feelings of anger, with subsequent avoidance of confronting (and directly dealing with) that which brings conflicted

emotions. This is in line with GST's postulation that youth tend to engage in criminal behaviour because they regard the consequences to be less important than the immediate satisfaction of their behaviour. As Agnew (2001) argues, maladaptive coping (such as avoidance) may be regarded as the only or the most effective way of coping with the perceived strain (that is acted out in anger).

5.2.6 Self-control and coping strategies

Consistent with the hypothesis, results from the present study showed a significant positive correlation between self-control and problem-solving coping. Moreover, consistent with the hypothesis, regression analyses revealed the problem-solving coping strategy to be a significant positive predictor of self-control. Furthermore, while there was a significant positive correlation between self-control and avoidant coping, which was consistent with the hypothesis, at bivariate level the avoidant coping strategy did not emerge as a significant predictor of self-control, thus inconsistent with the hypothesis.

No study of note could be found that explored the statistical relationship between coping and self-control when experiencing strain among youth. It is, however, important to note the literature evidence regarding youth offenders who lack self-control, which suggests that these youth are impulsive, insensitive, more prone to react physically (rather than mentally) to stressful encounters (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). There has also been evidence to suggest that low self-control is linked to low social control early in life (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), a scenario that is thought to result in behavioural problems. The likelihood therefore exists that youth who react to strain with strong negative emotions may have trouble coping with such strain through legitimate channels and may find maladaptive behaviour an attractive option (Agnew et al., 2002). It can consequently be argued that engaging in problem-solving coping when self-control levels are high is to be expected. For it is as

Froggio (2007) argues: Adaptive coping (for example, problem-solving coping) results when it is involved in the reduction or removal of the stressful situation, reduces the impact of the strained experience, keeps the youth's negative emotions under reasonable control, causes the youth to act in a manner that reflects his or her realistic evaluation of the events, encourages the youth to have a positive self-esteem and enables the youth to experience the positive consequences of his or her behaviour (Froggio, 2007).

As the GST is built on the assumption that there are differences in the motivation for maladaptive behaviour, it stands to reason that, even though there is a significant association between self-control and avoidant coping, the present sample of South African incarcerated youth do not experience strain as necessitating high levels of self-control when wanting to avoid the strain (evident in the insignificant results of the regression analysis). Self-control is therefore only necessary when trying to alleviate the effects of the strain through solving the 'problem' it generates. It may therefore be assumed that maladaptive behaviour could be the consequence of the youth actually employing self-control when contemplating how to alleviate the effects of the strain. Especially within the confines of this study's participants' demographic areas of residence, it may be argued that parents of youth offenders often do not provide their children with the skills necessary to succeed in life, because the only education available to the children are that of low-profile institutions. Likewise youth who have to actively overcome such obstacles when wanting to achieve their goals are under an incredible amount of pressure or strain, and they therefore may respond by engaging in maladaptive behaviour, violent acts, and even crime like theft and selling of illegal drugs (Froggio, 2007). These youth therefore need to solve the problem and maladaptive behaviour is possibly the easiest solution, even though self-control levels are high.

5.2.7 Perceived social support and coping strategies

Consistent with the hypothesis, results from the present study showed a significant negative correlation between perceived social support from family members and social support-seeking coping. Moreover, inconsistent with the hypothesis, regression analyses revealed the social support-seeking coping strategy to be a significant negative predictor of perceived social support from family members. Although no study of note was consistent with the present finding, previous research had focussed on the youth's maladaptive coping in the context of experienced strain (Brezina, 1996; Broidy, 2001; Jang, 2007; Rosario et al., 2003), and on the effects of perceived social support on the intention to engage in criminal activity (Capowich et al., 2001; Cernkovich, Lanctôt, & Giordano, 2007; Moon, Blurton, & McCluskey, 2008). Findings from these studies revealed that maladaptive coping strategies appeared to be adopted in response to different experiences with strain, where Rosario et al. (2003) found increased victimisation in the home and community was associated with the use of more self-defence and confrontational coping strategies and involvement in maladaptive behaviour. Data in a study by Agnew and Brezina (1997) suggested that the quality of relationships with peers is a significant source of maladaptive behaviour in male youth, with poor-quality friendships associated with higher levels of maladaptive behaviour. Moreover, Capowich et al. (2001) found that respondents who experienced lower levels of social support were more likely to report higher levels of strain and intentions to engage in criminal activity. Consequently, when attempting to explain the current study's results of youth indicating the less social support they received from family members, the more they were inclined to employ social support-seeking coping strategies when confronted with strain, one should note that the youth's observation of a given situation is a dimension of social support that is different from the actual level of support that may be given to the youth. The youth might have experienced the support received from family members as negative and strain inducing

when it might, in fact, have been meant as positive support (for example, if parents scolded their child when he or she associated with peers they deemed unfit). The youth might therefore have engaged in social support-seeking coping in compensation for the social support that they might have subjectively experienced as less forthcoming. Especially with gangsterism forming part of many societies within the Western Cape, youth who associated with other members of gangs might have experienced their family as being unsupportive towards their choice of friends. With this lack in support from family members, the youth turned to friends for support and thus coped with the strain his or her family caused by complaining to those they regard as either friends or someone who cares.

5.3 Implications for intervention

The present study therefore has important implications for psychologists, social workers and other mental health professionals whose role is to facilitate rehabilitative work of the youth offenders (with the aim of helping them to reintegrate in society after release from incarceration).

The youth interviewed in the present sample presented a general trend in avoidant coping behaviour, coupled with anger and a lack of self-control and perceived social support from family members. It can therefore be deduced that intervention programmes and psychological services need to focus on the youth's subjective experiences of his or her physical and interpersonal environments, as well as their disposition towards negative emotionality and coping behaviour. For example, the Department of Correctional Services' (DCS) needs-based approach to rehabilitation (Department of Correctional Services, 2011b) includes "types of interventions that specifically balance the causal factors with the unique offence profile of the individual offender to adopt a positive and appropriate norms and value system, alternative social interaction options, and to develop life, social and vocational skills which will equip

the offender to function effectively without having to return to crime" (p. 129). Therefore, when assessing the youth's needs, the psychological variables of self-control, negative emotionality and coping mechanisms should be central in the consideration of appropriate rehabilitation, in order to enhance the youth's self-control, foster emotional expression that is optimal for social cohesion and reinforce coping strategies that promote adaptation to his or her community. The Department of Correctional Services (2011b) highlights that rehabilitation is a process that needs to address the psychological development and interpersonal history of the youth concerned in order to be successful and that rehabilitative work requires commitment and voluntary participation of the youth. However, when youths experience high levels of anger and are more inclined to make use of avoidant coping behaviour to cope with strain, voluntary participation and commitment would be difficult to attain. It is therefore suggested that before the process of rehabilitation could start, or before social integration programmes such as the DCS' After-Care plan (Department of Correctional Services, 2011b) could be implemented, psychologists and social workers need to focus on the coping mechanisms these individual youths employed when faced with strain before committing their respective crimes. This may support personnel in understanding how to best approach the youth offender in partaking in the DCS' social integration programmes.

Furthermore, psychologists based at the South African correctional centres could help manage programmes aimed at assisting the youth offenders to learn new coping skills (such as problem-focused coping, rather than making use of avoidant coping in dealing with the problem at hand), find ways of acknowledging the range of emotions they experience in order to be able to control them, to constantly monitor the emotion of anger that is considered central in the commission of criminal activities. Given that these avenues would help to prevent re-offending behaviour (Department of Correctional Services, 2013b), it is recommended that emphasis be placed on understanding the youth's motivation for

maladaptive behaviour in light of Agnew's (1992) postulation of strain as situations in which the individual is not treated as he or she would like to be treated. As it was found in the present study that youths sought social support from others (notably, peers) when they perceived the social support from their family members as inadequate, it is suggested that focussing on the individual youth's relationship with his or her family members and how to improve that relationship will be of paramount importance for his or her successful reintegration into society. It is suggested that, for example, psychologists, social workers and other mental health practitioners engage in multisystem therapy (MST) with youth offenders (Huey, Henggeler, Brondino, & Pickrel, 2000). MST aims to influence maladaptive behaviour by changing key aspects of the youth's social context in ways that promote pro-social behaviour rather than maladaptive behaviour (Huey et al., 2000). Through MST, psychologists and social workers could work to prevent future maladaptive behaviour by inducing change in the multiple systems surrounding the youth – in particular family and peers. According to Huey et al. (2000), MST is designed to increase family structure and cohesion and provide parents with the necessary skills and resources in which to effectively monitor and discipline their children, without their children experiencing this discipline as unjust. As youth offenders tend to regard the social support they receive from their family as inadequate, psychologists and social workers could assist youth offenders and their parents in developing skills to communicate more effectively and to develop skills to disperse family interactions engrossed in conflict. In addition, through MST (Huey et al, 2000) it is advised that psychologists and social workers focus on increasing the youth's association with pro-social peers while assisting parents in separating their child from maladaptive peer associations. For example, youth who participated in sports activities whilst incarcerated could continue to participate in organised sport through partnerships with non-governmental organisations.

Furthermore, to improve problem-focused coping among youth, rather than them engaging in avoidant coping, psychologists could engage in problem-solving therapy (PST), a positive approach focusing on training in constructive problem-solving attitudes and skills (D’Zurilla & Nezu, 2010). Depending on the nature of the strain a youth offender experiences, problem-solving therapy could involve either improving the situation (for example, through trying to resolve the conflict between the youth and his or her family) or reducing the emotional distress resulting from the youth’s experienced strain (for example, helping the youth accept or tolerate the behaviour of others and learn from that behaviour). Here, psychologists could focus on fostering the youth’s self-efficacy, for example, through using visualisation exercises to assist the youth in experiencing having successfully solved a problem, instead of avoiding the problem (D’Zurilla & Nezu, 2010).

5.4 Recommendations and conclusion

5.4.1 Strengths of the study

The present study, which investigated the psychological functioning of the incarcerated youth in the Western Cape correctional centres, explored the applicability of the GST to explain the criminal behaviour in terms of this behaviour being representative of the maladaptive coping with strain within their environment. The strengths of this study are discussed briefly below.

Firstly, youth maladaptive behaviour as constituting that of coping behaviour with strain (as postulated by Agnew in his GST) has received seemingly no attention within the South African context to date, whilst internationally youth maladaptive behaviour has received attention from numerous researchers (notably, Bao et al., 2004; Bao & Haas, 2009; Baron, 2004, 2007; Barn & Tan, 2012; Botchkovar, Tittle, & Antonaccio, 2009; Cheung & Cheung, 2008; Froggio & Agnew, 2007; Landau, 1998; Liu & Lin, 2007; Moon, Hayes, & Blurton, 2009; Moon, Morash, McCluskey, & Hwang, 2009; Morash & Moon, 2007; Sigfusdottir &

Silver, 2009). As a result, the present study, reflecting the unique psychological experiences of anger, self-control, perceived social support and coping for the youth offender population in the Western Cape, holds value by serving to expand our understanding of youth maladaptive behaviour in the Western Cape.

Secondly, the present study's participants consisted of youth who were incarcerated at the date of the interview and did not focus on youth who did not yet commit a crime. The present study therefore did not merely make inferences regarding the possibility that youth might engage in maladaptive behaviour when experiencing strain, but explored how anger, self-control and perceived social support have contributed to the youth's choice in coping behaviour and their subsequent involvement in maladaptive behaviour. As a result, findings from the present study could provide valuable insight for intervention programmes implemented within the South African prison context.

5.4.2 Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research

Despite the strengths of the study, a few limitations need to be highlighted.

Firstly, although the study enabled an understanding of how the incarcerated youth experienced anger, self-control, perceived social support from important relationships and coped with strain, the sample size (of 81 participants) was rather limited and the results could not be generalised to the broader South African population of incarcerated youth. Research with larger samples of incarcerated youth could therefore benefit future investigations of these constructs in the South African context.

Secondly, the quantitative nature of the study meant that the exploration of the subjective experiences of the construct under investigation could not be done. It would therefore be

beneficial for future research to explore these subjective experiences through conducting open-ended interviews.

Finally, the cross-sectional and exploratory nature of the study meant that data could be gathered at only one time, and as such it was impossible to ascertain if the findings yielded on the constructs of anger, self-control, perceived social support and coping were due to life in the correctional centres, or that they predated incarceration. As such it was impossible to determine if the trends yielded by research could be sustained over a period of time. Future studies could therefore benefit from longitudinal research, in which data were gathered over a number of phases to the same group of participants, including after release from prison.

5.4.3 Concluding remarks

Throughout the present study continuous emphasis was placed on the possibility of maladaptive behaviour constituting that of coping behaviour among South African youth. It was argued that the central notions of Agnew's GST could perhaps be applied to the context of South Africa in explaining why youth who experience strain engage in maladaptive behaviour. Results confirmed the postulation of GST that negative emotionality, especially anger, contributed to the youth offender's motivation to engage in maladaptive behaviour as a consequence of not being able to cope with strains experienced. It was also found within the present study that social support and self-control played an important role in how the youth decided to cope with strain, but that the interaction between these variables were not supported by GST literature. Whether GST could seemingly be applied within the context of South Africa was therefore supported, but not in its entirety. As the present study showed, South African youth offenders were more inclined to utilise negative coping mechanisms than positive coping mechanisms; where coping mechanisms deemed positive (such as social support-seeking coping) were also more often than not regarded negatively through

engagement in maladaptive peer associations. Within the present study it was also evident that South African youth offenders regarded strain as something which could not be addressed immediately without engaging in some form of maladaptive behaviour. This, in turn, again supported GST's argument that youth engage in maladaptive behaviour because the immediate satisfaction of that behaviour disregards the legal repercussions.

GST has therefore received a degree of support within the context of South Africa, but whether it could explain *why* South African youth engage in maladaptive behaviour as a coping mechanism, needs further exploration.

However, the study does yield interesting information for intervention within the South African context. The results of the present study clearly indicate that anger is an inherent problem amongst South African youth, affecting not only the youth's choice in maladaptive, avoidant, coping, but also association with peers encouraging maladaptive behaviour. In addition, self-control also affects the mediating role of anger on involvement in criminal behaviour. Through applying this knowledge of the effects of avoidant coping on anger, and anger on self-control, as well as social support-seeking coping, psychologists and social workers working with the rehabilitation of incarcerated youth might adjust their treatment programmes to include these causal pathways of offending and focus on ways in which to adjust the youth offender's choice in coping strategy when confronted with strain.

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Appendix A: Demographic questionnaire (English)

Section A: Demographic Questionnaire



Date of interview: _____

1. Can you read? Yes No

2. Can you write? Yes No

3. How old are you? _____

4. What is your racial/cultural background? _____

5. What is your first language
(the language you speak at home)? _____

6. What is your highest school
grade passed? _____

7. Including yourself, what is the current
total number of people currently living
in your household? _____

8. Did you have a job before you were sent
to this correctional facility? Yes No

9. If yes, what did you do for a living? _____

10. Where did you stay before you were sent
to this correctional facility?
What town or community? _____

11. Why were you sent to the correctional
facility? _____

12. How long have you been in a correctional
facility so far? For how long will you be? _____

13. Have you ever had problems with the law before this time?

Yes No

14. If yes, in what year did this happen?

15. If you answered yes in question 13, what was the reason for you having problems with the law?

Appendix B: Demographic questionnaire (Afrikaans)



Afdeling A: Demografiese Vraelys

Datum van onderhoud: _____

1. Kan jy lees? Ja Nee
 2. Kan jy skryf? Ja Nee
 3. Hoe oud is jy? _____
 4. Wat is jou ras / kulturele agtergrond? _____
 5. Wat is jou eerste taal
(die taal wat jy by die huis praat)? _____
 6. Wat is die hoogste graad wat jy op skool
geslaag het? _____
 7. As jy jousef by tel, hoeveel mense is daar
tans in jou huishouding? _____
 8. Het jy 'n werk gehad voordat jy na hierdie
korrektiewe fasiliteit toe gestuur is? Ja Nee
 9. Indien ja, watter werk het jy gedoen? _____
 10. In watter dorp of gemeenskap het jy gebly
voordat jy hierna toe gestuur is? _____
 11. Hoekom is jy na hierdie korrektiewe fasiliteit toe
gestuur? _____
-
12. Hoe lank is jy al in hierdie korrektiewe fasiliteit?
Hoe lank gaan jy hier wees? _____

13. Het jy al ooit probleme met die wet gehad
voor hierdie tyd?

Ja Nee

14. As jy ja geantwoord het, wanneer het dit
gebeur? In watse jaar?

15. As jy ja geantwoord het in vraag 13,
hoekom het jy probleme met die wet gehad?

Appendix C: Self-Control Schedule (English)

Section B: Self-Control Schedule (SCS)



Instructions: Indicate how characteristic or descriptive each of the following statements is of you by using the code given below.

- +3 = Very characteristic of me
- +2 = Rather characteristic of me
- +1 = Somewhat characteristic of me
- 1 = Somewhat uncharacteristic of me
- 2 = Rather uncharacteristic of me
- 3 = Very uncharacteristic of me

(Circle one number in each row)

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 1. | When I do a boring job, I think about the less boring parts of the job and about the reward I will receive when I finish. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 2. | When I have to do something that make me anxious, I try to imagine how I will overcome my anxiety while doing it. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 3. | By changing my way of thinking, I am often able to change my feelings about almost anything. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 4. | I often find it difficult to overcome my feelings of nervousness and tension without outside help. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 5. | When I am feeling depressed, I try to think about pleasant events. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 6. | I cannot help thinking about mistakes I've made. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 7. | When I am faced with a difficult problem, I try to approach it in a systematic way. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 8. | I usually do what I am supposed to do more quickly when someone is pressuring me. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |

9.	When I am faced with a difficult decision, I prefer to postpone it even if I have all the facts.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
10.	When I have difficulty concentrating on my reading, I look for ways to increase my concentration.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
11.	When I plan to work, I remove everything that is not relevant to my work.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
12.	When I try to get rid of a bad habit, I first try to find out all the reasons why I have the habit.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
13.	When an unpleasant thought is bothering me, I try to think about something pleasant.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
14.	If I smoked two packs of cigarettes a day, I would need outside help to stop smoking.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
15.	When I feel down, I try to act cheerful so that my mood will change.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
16.	If I have tranquilizers with me, I would take one whenever I feel tense and nervous.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
17.	When I am depressed, I try to keep myself busy with things I like.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
18.	I tend to postpone unpleasant tasks even if I could perform them immediately.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
19.	I need outside help to get rid of some of my bad habits.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
20.	When I find it difficult to settle down and do a task, I look for ways to help me settle down.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
21.	Although it makes me feel bad, I cannot help thinking about all sorts of catastrophes.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
22.	I prefer to finish a job that I have to do before I start doing things I really like.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
23.	When I feel physical pain, I try not to think about it.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3

24. My self-esteem increases when I am able to overcome a bad habit.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
25. To overcome bad feelings that accompany failure, I often tell myself that it is not catastrophic and I can do anything.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
26. When I feel that I am too impulsive, I tell myself to stop and think before I do something about it.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
27. Even when I am terribly angry at someone, I consider my actions very carefully.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
28. Facing the need to make a decision, I usually look for different alternatives instead of deciding quickly and spontaneously.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
29. Usually, I first do the thing I really like to do even if there are more urgent things to do.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
30. When I realize that I am going to be unavoidably late for an important meeting, I tell myself to keep calm.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
31. When I feel pain in my body, I try to divert my thoughts from it.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
32. When I am faced with a number of things to do, I usually plan my work.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
33. When I am short of money, I decide to record all my expenses in order to budget more carefully in the future.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
34. If I find it difficult to concentrate on a task, I divide it into smaller segments.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
35. Quite often, I cannot overcome unpleasant thoughts that bother me.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
36. When I am hungry and I have no opportunity to eat, I try to divert my thoughts from my stomach or try to imagine that I am satisfied.	-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3

Appendix D: Self-Control Schedule (Afrikaans)

Afdeling B: Selfbeheer Skedule (SBS)



Instruksies: Dui aan hoe kenmerkend of beskrywend elkeen van die volgende stellings is van jou, deur om gebruik te maak van die kodes hieronder.

- +3 = Baie kenmerkend van my
- +2 = Redelik kenmerkend van my
- +1 = Ietwat kenmerkend van my
- 1 = Ietwat onkenmerkend van my
- 2 = Redelik onkenmerkend van my
- 3 = Baie onkenmerkend van my

(Omkring een nommer in elke ry)

- | | |
|--|-------------------|
| 1. Wanneer ek 'n vervelige werk doen dink ek oor die minder vervelige dele van die werk en oor die beloning wat ek gaan ontvang wanneer ek klaar is. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 2. Wanneer ek iets moet doen wat my angstig maak, probeer ek om te visualiseer hoe ek my angs sal oorkom terwyl ek dit doen. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 3. Deur om my manier van dink te verander, is ek dikwels in staat om my gevoelens oor byna enigiets te verander. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 4. Ek vind dit dikwels moeilik om my gevoelens van senuagtigheid en spanning te oorkom sonder hulp van buite. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 5. Wanneer ek depressief voel probeer ek om aan aangename gebeurtenisse te dink. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 6. Ek kan nie help om aan foute te dink wat ek gemaak het nie. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 7. Wanneer ek met 'n moeilike probleem gekonfronteer word probeer ek om dit op 'n sistematiese wyse te benader. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |
| 8. Gewoonlik doen ek wat ek veronderstel is om te doen vinniger wanneer iemand druk op my plaas. | -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3 |

- | | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| 9. Wanneer ek gekonfronteer word met 'n moeilike besluit, verkies ek om dit uit te stel selfs al het ek al die feite. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 10. Wanneer ek sukkel om te konsentreer om te lees, soek ek vir maniere om my konsentrasie te verbeter. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 11. Wanneer ek beplan om te werk, verwyder ek alles wat nie relevant tot my werk is nie. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 12. Wanneer ek probeer ontslae raak van 'n slegte gewoonte, probeer ek eers om alle redes te vind hoekom ek die gewoonte het. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 13. Wanneer 'n onaangename gedagte my pla, probeer ek om aan iets aangenaams te dink. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 14. As ek twee pakkies sigarette 'n dag rook sal ek hulp van buite af nodig hê om my te help ophou rook. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 15. Wanneer ek ongelukkig voel, probeer ek maak asof ek gelukkig is sodat my bui sal verander. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 16. As ek kalmeermiddels by my het, sal ek een enige tyd neem wanneer ek gespanne en senuweeagtig voel. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 17. Wanneer ek depressief voel probeer ek myself besig hou met goed waarvan ek hou. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 18. Ek is geneig om onaangename take uit te stel al kan ek dit onmiddelik afhandel. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 19. Ek het hulp van buite af nodig om ontslae te raak van sekere van my slegte gewoontes. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 20. Wanneer ek dit moeilik vind om rustig te raak en 'n taak te doen, soek ek vir maniere om my te help kalmeer. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 21. Al laat dit my sleg voel, kan ek nie ophou dink aan alle soorte moontlike katastrofes nie. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |
| 22. Ek verkies dit om 'n taak wat ek moet doen te voltooi voordat ek begin om goed te doen waarvan ek regtig hou. | -3 | -2 | -1 | +1 | +2 | +3 |

23. Wanneer ek fisiese pyn voel probeer ek om nie daaraan te dink nie. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
24. My selfbeeld neem toe wanneer ek 'n slegte gewoonte oorkom. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
25. Om slegte gevoelens wat mislukking vergesel te oorkom, vertel ek dikwels vir myself dat dit nie katastrofies is nie en dat ek enigiets kan doen. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
26. Wanneer ek voel dat ek te impulsief is sê ek vir myself om te stop en te dink voordat ek iets daaraan doen. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
27. Selfs al is ek verskriklik kwaad vir iemand, oorweeg ek my aksies baie versigtig. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
28. Wanneer ek 'n besluit moet neem soek ek gewoonlik vir verskillende alternatiewe in plaas daarvan om vinnig en spontaan 'n besluit te neem. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
29. Gewoonlik doen ek eerste dit waarvan ek regtig hou, al is daar meer dringende goed om te doen. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
30. Wanneer ek besef dat ek onvermydelik laat gaan wees vir 'n belangrike afspraak sê ek vir myself om kalm te bly. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
31. Wanneer ek pyn in my liggaam voel probeer ek om my gedagtes van dit af weg te hou. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
32. Wanneer ek 'n klomp goed moet doen beplan ek gewoonlik my werk. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
33. Wanneer ek min geld het besluit ek om al my uitgawes op rekord te hou sodat ek in die toekoms versigtiger kan begroot. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
34. As ek dit moeilik vind om op 'n taak te konsentreer verdeel ek dit in kleiner dele. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
35. Redelik gereeld kan ek nie oor onaangename gedagtes kom wat my pla nie. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3
36. Wanneer ek honger is en nie kans kry om te eet nie, probeer ek om my gedagtes weg te skuif van my maag en om myself te verbeel dat ek vol is. -3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3

Appendix E: Coping Strategy Indicator (English)



Section C: Coping Strategy Indicator (CSI)

We are interested in how people cope with the problems and troubles in their lives.

Below you will find several possible ways of coping. We would like you to indicate to what extent you, yourself, has ever used each of these coping methods. All of your responses will be kept a secret.

Try to think of any problem you have had just before you were sent to this correctional facility. This should be a problem that was important to you, and that caused you to worry.

Please describe this problem in a few words (remember, your answers will be kept a secret):

When you think of the problem you just described, please show us how you coped with that problem by marking with a cross the appropriate box for each coping behaviour listed on the following pages. Please answer each and every question even though some may sound familiar.

Keeping that stressful event in mind, indicate to what extent you...

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--|--------------------------|-------|--------------------------|----------|--------------------------|------------|
| 1. | Let your feelings out to a friend? | <input type="checkbox"/> | A lot | <input type="checkbox"/> | A little | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not at all |
| 2. | Rearranged things around you so that your problem had the best chance of being resolved? | <input type="checkbox"/> | A lot | <input type="checkbox"/> | A little | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not at all |
| 3. | Thought of all possible solutions before deciding what to do? | <input type="checkbox"/> | A lot | <input type="checkbox"/> | A little | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not at all |
| 4. | Tried to distract yourself from the problem? | <input type="checkbox"/> | A lot | <input type="checkbox"/> | A little | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not at all |
| 5. | Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone? | <input type="checkbox"/> | A lot | <input type="checkbox"/> | A little | <input type="checkbox"/> | Not at all |

6. Did all you could to keep others from seeing how bad things really were? A lot A little Not at all
7. Talked to people about the situation because talking about it helped you feel better? A lot A little Not at all
8. Set some goals for yourself to deal with the situation? A lot A little Not at all
9. Considered your options very carefully? A lot A little Not at all
10. Daydreamed about better times? A lot A little Not at all
11. Tried different ways to solve the problem until you found one that worked? A lot A little Not at all
12. Confided your fears and worries to a friend or relative? A lot A little Not at all
13. Spent more time than usual alone? A lot A little Not at all
14. Told people about the situation because just talking about it helped you to come up with solutions? A lot A little Not at all
15. Thought about what needed to be done to straighten things out? A lot A little Not at all
16. Turned your full attention to solving the problem? A lot A little Not at all
17. Formed a plan of action in your mind? A lot A little Not at all
18. Watched television more than usual? A lot A little Not at all
19. Went to someone (friend or professional) in order to help you feel better? A lot A little Not at all
20. Stood firm and fought for what you wanted in the situation? A lot A little Not at all
21. Avoided being with people in general? A lot A little Not at all

22. Buried yourself in a hobby or a sports activity to avoid the problem? A lot A little Not at all
23. Went to a friend to help you feel better about the problem? A lot A little Not at all
24. Went to a friend for advice on how to change the situation? A lot A little Not at all
25. Accepted sympathy and understanding from friends who had the same problem? A lot A little Not at all
26. Slept more than usual? A lot A little Not at all
27. Fantasized about how things could have been different? A lot A little Not at all
28. Identified with characters in novels or movies? A lot A little Not at all
29. Tried to solve the problem? A lot A little Not at all
30. Wished that people would just leave you alone? A lot A little Not at all
31. Accepted help from a friend or a relative? A lot A little Not at all
32. Sought reassurance from those who know you best? A lot A little Not at all
33. Tried to carefully plan a course of action rather than acting on impulse? A lot A little Not at all

Appendix F: Coping Strategy Indicator (Afrikaans)

Afdeling C: Streshanteringstrategieskaal (CSI)



Ons is geïnteresseerd in hoe mense omgaan met die probleme en moeilikhede in hul lewens.

Hier vind u verskeie moontlike maniere van dinge hanteer. Ons wil hê jy moet aandui tot watter mate jy ooit elkeen van hierdie hanteringsmetodes gebruik het. Al jou antwoorde sal 'n geheim bly.

Probeer om aan enige probleem te dink wat jy gehad het net voordat jy na hierdie korrektiewe fasiliteit toe gestuur is. Hierdie moet 'n probleem wees wat vir jou belangrik was en wat jou bekommerd gemaak het.

Beskryf asseblief hierdie probleem in 'n paar woorde (onthou, jou antwoorde gaan 'n geheim bly):

Wanneer jy dink aan die probleem wat jy sopas beskryf het, wys asseblief vir ons hoe jy die probleem hanteer het deur om 'n kruis te trek in die toepaslike boks langs elke hanteringsmetode. Antwoord asseblief elke vraag al lyk dit vir jou asof die vraag alreeds gevra is.

Terwyl jy daardie stresvolle gebeurtenis in gedagte hou, dui aan tot watter mate jy...

1. Jou gevoelens met 'n vriend gedeel het? Baie Min Gladnie
2. Dinge rondom jou herrangskik het sodat jou probleem die beste kans gehad het om opgelos te word? Baie Min Gladnie
3. Aan al die moontlike oplossings gedink het voordat jy besluit het wat om te doen? Baie Min Gladnie
4. Probeer het om jou aandag af te lei van die probleem? Baie Min Gladnie

5. Simpatie en begrip van iemand anders aanvaar het? Baie Min Gladnie
6. Alles gedoen het wat jy kon om te maak dat ander nie sien hoe sleg dit werklik gaan nie? Baie Min Gladnie
7. Met mense gepraat het oor die situasie, want om met mense daarvoor te praat het jou gehelp om beter te voel? Baie Min Gladnie
8. Vir jouself doelwitte gestel waarmee jy die situasie kon hanteer? Baie Min Gladnie
9. Jou opsies baie versigtig oorweeg het? Baie Min Gladnie
10. Gedagdream het oor beter tye? Baie Min Gladnie
11. Verskillende maniere om die probleem op te los probeer het totdat jy die een wat werk gevind het? Baie Min Gladnie
12. Jou vrese en bekommernisse aan 'n vriend of familielid vertrou het? Baie Min Gladnie
13. Meer tyd alleen spandeer het as gewoonweg? Baie Min Gladnie
14. Mense van die situasie vertel, want om oor dit te praat het jou gehelp om oplossings te vind? Baie Min Gladnie
15. Gedink het oor wat om te doen sodat dinge uitgesorteer kan word? Baie Min Gladnie
16. Jou volle aandag aan die oplossing van die probleem gegee? Baie Min Gladnie
17. 'n Plan van aksie gevorm in jou verbeelding? Baie Min Gladnie
18. Meer as gewoonlik televisie gekyk? Baie Min Gladnie
19. Na iemand toe gegaan (vriend of professioneel) om jou te help beter voel? Baie Min Gladnie

20. Ferm gestaan en geveg het vir wat jy wou hê in die situasie? Baie Min Gladnie
21. Dit vermy het om saam met mense in die algemeen te wees? Baie Min Gladnie
22. Jouself begrawe het in 'n stokperdjie of sport aktiwiteit om die probleem te vermy? Baie Min Gladnie
23. Na 'n vriend toe gegaan het om jou te help beter voel oor die probleem? Baie Min Gladnie
24. Na 'n vriend toe gegaan het vir raad oor hoe om die situasie te verander? Baie Min Gladnie
25. Simpatie en begrip aanvaar het van vriende wat dieselfde probleem gehad het? Baie Min Gladnie
26. Meer as gewoonweg geslaap het? Baie Min Gladnie
27. Gefantaseer oor hoe dinge anders kon gewees het? Baie Min Gladnie
28. Met karakters in boeke of fliëks geïdentifiseer? Baie Min Gladnie
29. Die probleem probeer oplos? Baie Min Gladnie
30. Gewens dat mense jou net alleen los? Baie Min Gladnie
31. Help van 'n vriend of 'n familielid aanvaar? Baie Min Gladnie
32. Gerusstelling gesoek van die mense wat jou die beste ken? Baie Min Gladnie
33. Versigtig probeer om 'n plan van aksie te ontwerp eerder as om op impuls te reageer? Baie Min Gladnie

Appendix G: Social Support Appraisals scale (English)**Section D: Social Support Appraisals Scale (SSA)**

Below is a list of statements about your relationships with family and friends. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement as being true.

	(Circle one number in each row)			
	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My friends respect me.	1	2	3	4
2. My family cares for me very much.	1	2	3	4
3. I am not important to others.	1	2	3	4
4. My family holds me in high esteem.	1	2	3	4
5. I am well liked.	1	2	3	4
6. I can rely on my friends.	1	2	3	4
7. I am really admired by my family.	1	2	3	4
8. I am respected by other people.	1	2	3	4
9. I am loved dearly by my family.	1	2	3	4
10. My friends don't care about my welfare.	1	2	3	4
11. Members of my family rely on me.	1	2	3	4
12. I am held in high esteem.	1	2	3	4
13. I can't rely on my family for support.	1	2	3	4
14. People admire me.	1	2	3	4
15. I feel a strong bond with my friends.	1	2	3	4
16. My friends look out for me.	1	2	3	4
17. I feel valued by other people.	1	2	3	4
18. My family really respects me.	1	2	3	4
19. My friends and I are really important to each other.	1	2	3	4
20. I feel like I belong.	1	2	3	4

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| 21. If I died tomorrow, very few people would miss me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I don't feel close to members of my family. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. My friends and I have done a lot for one another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Appendix H: Social Support Appraisals scale (Afrikaans)**Afdeling D: Sosiale Ondersteuning Erkenningskaal (SSA)**

Hier is 'n lys stellings oor jou verhoudings met familie en vriende. Dui asseblief aan hoeveel jy saamstem of nie saamstem met elke stelling.

(Omkring een nommer in elke ry)

	Stem beslis saam	Stem saam	Stem nie saam nie	Stem beslis nie saam nie
1. My vriende respekteer my.	1	2	3	4
2. My familie gee baie om oor my.	1	2	3	4
3. Ek is nie belangrik vir ander mense nie.	1	2	3	4
4. My familie ag my baie hoog.	1	2	3	4
5. Ek is baie geliefd.	1	2	3	4
6. Ek kan op my vriende staatmaak.	1	2	3	4
7. Ek is werklik bewonder deur my familie.	1	2	3	4
8. Ander mense respekteer my.	1	2	3	4
9. My familie is baie lief vir my.	1	2	3	4
10. My vriende gee nie om oor my nie.	1	2	3	4
11. Lede van my familie maak staat op my.	1	2	3	4
12. Ek word hoog geag.	1	2	3	4
13. Ek kan nie op my familie staat maak vir ondersteuning nie.	1	2	3	4
14. Mense bewonder my.	1	2	3	4
15. Ek voel 'n sterk band met my vriende.	1	2	3	4
16. My vriende kyk uit vir my.	1	2	3	4
17. Ek voel gewaardeer deur ander mense.	1	2	3	4
18. My familie respekteer my werklik.	1	2	3	4
19. Ek en my vriende is baie belangrik vir mekaar.	1	2	3	4

20. Ek voel asof ek iewers hoort.	1	2	3	4
21. As ek more doodgaan, gaan min mense my mis.	1	2	3	4
22. Ek voel nie naby aan my familieledede nie.	1	2	3	4
23. Ek en my vriende het al baie vir mekaar gedoen.	1	2	3	4

Appendix I: State-Trait Anger Scale (English)



Section E: State-Trait Anger Scale (STAS)

6.1 State-Anger Scale (SAS)

A number of statements that people have used to describe how they feel are given below. Read the statements below and indicate how you feel *at the moment* by placing the appropriate number next to each item.

1 = Not at all

2 = Somewhat

3 = Moderately so

4 = Very much so

- _____ 1. I am mad.
- _____ 2. I feel angry.
- _____ 3. I am burned up.
- _____ 4. I feel irritated.
- _____ 5. I feel frustrated.
- _____ 6. I feel aggravated.
- _____ 7. I feel like I'm about to explode.
- _____ 8. I feel like banging on the table.
- _____ 9. I feel like yelling at somebody.
- _____ 10. I feel like swearing.
- _____ 11. I am furious.
- _____ 12. I feel like hitting someone.
- _____ 13. I feel like breaking things.
- _____ 14. I am annoyed.
- _____ 15. I am bitter.

6.2 Trait-Anger Scale (TAS)

A number of statements that people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read the statements below and indicate how you *generally* feel by placing the appropriate number next to each item.

1 = Almost never

2 = Sometimes

3 = Often

4 = Almost always

- _____ 1. I have a fiery temper.
- _____ 2. I am quick tempered.
- _____ 3. I am a hot-headed person.
- _____ 4. I get annoyed when I am singled out for correction.
- _____ 5. It makes me furious when I am criticized in front of others.
- _____ 6. I get angry when I'm slowed down by others' mistakes.
- _____ 7. I feel infuriated when I do a good job and get a poor evaluation.
- _____ 8. I fly off the handle.
- _____ 9. I feel annoyed when I am not given recognition for doing good work.
- _____ 10. People who think they are always right irritate me.
- _____ 11. When I get mad, I say nasty things.
- _____ 12. I feel irritated.
- _____ 13. I feel angry.
- _____ 14. When I get frustrated, I feel like hitting someone.
- _____ 15. It makes my blood boil when I am pressured.

Appendix J: State-Trait Anger Scale (Afrikaans)



Afdeling E: State-Trait Woedeskaal (STAS)

6.1 State-woedeskaal (SAS)

'n Aantal stellings wat mense gebruik het om te beskryf hoe hulle voel word hieronder gegee. Lees die onderstaande stellings en dui aan hoe jy voel *op die oomblik* deur om die toepaslike nommer langs elke item te skryf.

- 1 = Glad nie
- 2 = Effens
- 3 = Gemiddeld so
- 4 = Ja, baie

- _____ 1. Ek is woedend.
- _____ 2. Ek is kwaad.
- _____ 3. Ek voel warm binne van die woede.
- _____ 4. Ek voel geïrriteerd.
- _____ 5. Ek voel gefrustreerd.
- _____ 6. Ek is vies.
- _____ 7. Ek voel asof ek enige oomblik gaan ontplof.
- _____ 8. Ek is lus om met my vuiste op die tafel te slaan.
- _____ 9. Dit voel asof ek op iemand wil skree.
- _____ 10. Ek wil vloek.
- _____ 11. Ek is siedende.
- _____ 12. Dit voel asof ek iemand wil slaan.
- _____ 13. Dit voel asof ek iets wil breek.
- _____ 14. Ek voel ontstig.
- _____ 15. Ek is bitter.

6.2 Trait-woedeskaal (TAS)

'n Aantal stellings wat mense gebruik het om hulself te beskryf word hieronder gegee. Lees die onderstaande stellings en dui aan hoe jy oor die *algemeen* voel deur die plasing van die toepaslike nommer langs elke item.

1 = Amper nooit

2 = Soms

3 = Gereeld

4 = Amper altyd

- _____ 1. Ek het 'n vurige humeur.
- _____ 2. Ek is liggeraak.
- _____ 3. Ek is 'n heethoof.
- _____ 4. Ek raak geïrriteerd wanneer ek uitgesonder word vir korreksie.
- _____ 5. Dit maak my woedend wanneer ek voor ander gekritiseer word.
- _____ 6. Ek raak kwaad wanner ander mense se foute my terughou.
- _____ 7. Ek word woedend wanneer ek goeie werk doen maar nie daarvoor beloon word nie.
- _____ 8. Ek is opvlieënd.
- _____ 9. Ek raak geïrriteerd wanneer ek nie erkenning kry vir goeie werk nie.
- _____ 10. Mense wat dink hulle is altyd reg, irriteer my.
- _____ 11. Wanneer ek kwaad raak sê ek nare dinge.
- _____ 12. Ek voel geïrriteerd.
- _____ 13. Ek is kwaad.
- _____ 14. Wanneer ek gefrustreerd raak voel dit asof ek net iemand wil slaan.
- _____ 15. My bloed kook wanneer ek onder druk is.

Appendix K: Informed consent form (English)

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT OF PARTICIPANTS AGED 18 TO 25 TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Psychological Experiences of Placement in Correctional Facilities within the Western Cape Province of South Africa: An Exploratory Study of Incarcerated Youth

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Ms. Hesti Slabber, from the Department of Psychology at Stellenbosch University. This research study forms part of Ms. Slabber's degree in Master of Arts (Psychology) at Stellenbosch University; where the results of this research study will contribute to her thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are currently placed at one of three correctional facilities and your age falls somewhere between the ages of 18 years and 25 years.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to find out whether South African youth, who have had problems with the law, commit crime in order to feel better about the problems they face daily. In other words, we are interested in finding out in which ways youth commit crimes as a means of feeling better or safer within their community.

2. PROCEDURES

If you agree to participate in this study, we would ask you to complete a couple of questionnaires which will help us in knowing and understanding how you feel while placed in a correctional facility. If you agree that we ask you these questions, the researcher will go to your correctional facility to ask you and the facility manager for time to see you so that the researcher can give you questionnaires in which you will answer questions about how angry you sometimes feel, how much your friends and family support you, whether you do things without thinking of what will happen and how you handle the things happening in your life. This will take no longer than 45 minutes (depending on how long it takes for you to answer all the questions). There are no right or wrong answers here.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

We do not foresee any risks for you taking part in this research, but some people (and some youth) do feel uncomfortable after completing questionnaires which focus on sensitive feelings and memories about the specific events that have led them to be brought before the court of law or to be placed in a correctional facility (or those that they have witnessed on others). However, at all the correctional facilities there are counsellors available if you feel too stressed, anxious or upset.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Even though there are no immediate benefits for you to participate in this study, we hope that by participating in this study you will be able to think about how you feel being in a correctional facility and how these feelings might affect your behaviour towards others within the correctional facility, as well as towards family and friends. In addition, with the information gathered from this research, future youth who are also placed in a correctional facility may benefit as other professionals will also make use of the information gathered from this study to help other youth.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

We would like to mention that there are no material benefits (no money, rewards, etc.) for taking part in this research.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain a secret and will only be shared with others with your permission or as required by law. We will therefore give your questionnaires a number, so that when we collect all the questionnaires of all the participants we will be able to know what they all mean individually and as a group. You will therefore not be asked to give your name at any time.

Nobody will see your answers except for the primary researcher, Ms. Slabber, and her supervisor, Dr. Somhlaba. Your answers will also be kept safely with Ms. Slabber in a safe environment which only Ms. Slabber can access.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose to be in this study or not. If you choose to be in this study, you may withdraw your participation at any time without anything happening to you. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

You can contact **Ms. Hesti Slabber** (Principal Investigator) at 072 227 0017 or 15138097@sun.ac.za if you have any further questions or concerns about the research.

You can also contact **Dr. Nceba Z. Somhlaba** (Supervisor) at (021) 808-3552 or nzs@sun.ac.za if you have any further questions or concerns about the research.

You will also be able to reach us at the Department of Psychology, R.W. Wilcocks Building, Ryneveld Street, Stellenbosch.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue your participation without anything bad happening to you. You are not giving up on any legal claims or rights because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT/PARTICIPANT

The information above was described to me by Ms. Hesti Slabber in English and I am in command of this language. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent to participate in this study.

Name of Subject/Participant

Signature of Subject/Participant

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____
[*name of the participant*]. [*He/she*] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions.
This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix L: Informed consent form (Afrikaans)

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITEIT TOESTEMMINGSVORM VIR GEBRUIK DEUR JEUG 18 TOT 25 JAAR OUD

Psychological Experiences of Placement in Correctional Facilities within the Western Cape Province of South Africa: An Exploratory Study of Incarcerated Youth

Jy word genooi om deel te neem aan 'n navorsingsprojek uitgevoer deur Me. Hesti Slabber, van die Sielkunde Departement by die Universiteit van Stellenbosch. Hierdie navorsingsprojek vorm deel van Me. Slabber se Meesters Graad in Sielkunde by die Universiteit van Stellenbosch; waar die resultate van die navorsingsprojek sal bydra tot haar tesis. Jy is gekies as 'n moontlike deelnemer aan hierdie studie omdat jy huidiglik 'n inwoner van een van drie korrektiewe fasiliteite is en tussen die ouderdom van 18 en 25 val.

1. DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE

Die hoofdoel van die navorsing is om vas te stel tot watter mate Suid-Afrikaanse jeug, wat met die gereg gebots het, misdaad pleeg as 'n poging om beter te voel oor hul daaglikse probleme. Met ander woorde, ons wil uitvind op watter wyses jeug misdaad pleeg in 'n poging om beter of veiliger te voel in hul gemeenskap.

2. PROSEDURES

As jy toelaat om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingstudie, sal ons van jou vra om 'n paar vraelyste te beantwoord. Hierdie vrae sal ons help om te leer en te verstaan hoe jy voel terwyl jy in 'n korrektiewe fasiliteit aangehou word. Indien jy saamstem dat ons vir jou hierdie vrae mag vra, sal die navorser na jou korrektiewe fasiliteit toe gaan om vir jou en die fasiliteitsbestuurder vir die geleentheid te vra om vir jou vraelyste te kan gee waarin jy vrae gaan antwoord oor hoe kwaad jy soms voel, hoe baie jou familie en vriende jou ondersteun, of jy dinge doen sonder om te dink oor wat gaan gebeur as jy dit doen en hoe jy dinge wat in jou lewe gebeur hanteer. Hierdie behoort nie langer as 45 minute te neem nie (dit sal afhang van hoe lank jy gaan vat om die vraelyste in te vul). Geen antwoorde is reg of verkeerd vir die lys van vrae wat ek vra tydens die onderhoud nie.

3. POTENSIELE RISIKO'S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEDE

Ons sien geen risiko's vir jou deur deel te neem aan hierdie navorsing nie. Sommige mense (en sommige jeug) voel wel soms ongemaklik nadat hulle vraelyste of onderhoude voltooi het wat fokus op sensitiewe gevoelens en emosies omtrent spesifieke gebeure wat daartoe gelei het dat hulle voor die hof gedaag is of in 'n korrektiewe fasiliteit geplaas is (of waar hulle as getuie van ander was). Alhoewel, by elke korrektiewe fasiliteit is daar beraders beskikbaar indien jy te gestres, ongemaklik of ongelukkig is.

4. POTENSIELE VOORDELE VIR DEELNEMERS EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING

Alhoewel daar geen onmiddellike voordele vir jou is om aan hierdie navorsingstudie deel te neem nie, hoop ons dat jou deelname aan die studie jou sal help om te kan nadink oor hoe jy voel binne 'n korrektiewe fasiliteit en hoe hierdie gevoelens jou optrede teenoor ander binne die korrektiewe fasiliteit, so wel as jou familie en vriende, mag beïnvloed. Alhoewel, met al die inligting wat ons gaan kry deur hierdie navorsing, kan iets goed gebeur met toekomstige jeug wat in 'n korrektiewe fasiliteit geplaas is, aangesien ander mense ook die inligting van hierdie studie gaan gebruik om ander jeug te help.

5. BETALING VIR DEELNAME

Dit is nodig om te noem dat daar geen materiële voordele vir jou sal wees om deel te neem aan die studie nie (geen geld of vergoeding nie).

6. KONFIDENTIALITEIT

Al die inligting wat bekom is in verband met hierdie navorsingsprojek, sal 'n geheim bly en sal net bekend gemaak word met jou toestemming of as die wet dit vereis. Om jou identiteit 'n geheim te hou, gaan ons vir jou vraelyste 'n nommer gee sodat dit ons kan help wanneer ons al die vraelyste van al die deelnemers het en wil weet wat hulle almal as 'n groep of individueel beteken. Jy sal dus nie gevra word om ooit jou naam te gee nie.

Niemand sal jou antwoorde sien nie behalwe vir die primêre navorser, Me. Slabber, en haar studieleier, Dr. Somhlaba. Die data sal veilig deur Me. Slabber bewaar word in 'n omgewing wat net vir Me. Slabber toeganklik is.

7. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING

Jy kan kies om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingstudie of nie. Indien jy toelaat om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingstudie, kan jy nog steeds enige tyd sonder enige gevolge onttrek van die studie. Jy mag ook weier om enige vraag te beantwoord wat jy nie wil antwoord nie, en steeds deel neem aan die navorsingstudie. Jy mag gevra word om van die studie te onttrek voordat dit voltooi is in die geval waar die navorser van mening is dat dit in jou beste belang sal wees.

8. IDENTIFIKASIE VAN NAVORSERS

Jy kan gerus vir **Me. Hesti Slabber** (Hoofnavorser) by 072 227 0017 of 15138097@sun.ac.za kontak indien jy enige verdere vrae of bekommernisse het oor die studie.

Jy kan ook vir **Dr. Nceba Z. Somhlaba** (Promotor) by (021) 808 3552 of nzs@sun.ac.za kontak indien jy enige verdere vrae of bekommernisse het oor die studie.

Jy sal ons ook kan bereik by die Sielkunde Departement, R.W. Wilcocks-gebou, Ryneveldstraat, Stellenbosch.

9. REGTE VAN DEELNEMERS

Jy kan jou toestemming enige tyd onttrek en jou deelname staak sonder dat jy gestraf gaan word. Jy doen geen afstand van enige wetlike eise of regte as gevolg van jou deelname aan die navorsingstudie nie. As jy enige vrae het rakende jou regte as 'n deelnemer aan 'n navorsingstudie, kan jy Me. Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] by die Afdeling vir Navorsingsontwikkeling kontak.

HANDTEKENING VAN NAVORSINGSRESPONDENT

Die bogenoemde inligting was vir my deur Me. Hesti Slabber in Afrikaans, 'n taal wat ek bemeester het, beskryf. Ek het die geleentheid gehad om vrae te vra en al my vrae is bevredigend beantwoord.

Ek gee hiermee toestemming om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingstudie.

Naam van Navorsingsrespondent

Handtekening van Navorsingsrespondent

Datum

HANDTEKENING VAN NAVORSER

Ek verklaar dat ek die inhoud van hierdie dokument verduidelik het aan _____ [*naam van die navorsingsrespondent*]. [*Hy/Sy*] was aangemoedig om vrae te vra en ek het die vrae deeglik beantwoord deur genoeg tyd daaraan af te staan. Hierdie gesprek was in Afrikaans afgelei en daar was van geen vertaler gebruik gemaak nie.

Handtekening van Navorser

Datum

Appendix M: US REC Letter of ethical clearance



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

7 March 2012

Tel.: 021 - 808-9183
Enquiries: Sidney Engelbrecht
Email: sidney@sun.ac.za

Reference No. 655/2011

Ms H Slabber
Department of Psychology
University of Stellenbosch
STELLENBOSCH
7602

Ms H Slabber

LETTER OF ETHICS CLEARANCE

With regard to your application, I would like to inform you that the project, *Psychological experiences of placement in correctional facilities within the Western Cape province of South Africa: An exploratory study of incarcerated youth*, has been approved on condition that:

1. The researcher will remain within the procedures and protocols indicated in the proposal, particularly in terms of any undertakings made in terms of the confidentiality of the information gathered.
2. The research will again be submitted for ethical clearance if there is any substantial departure from the existing proposal.
3. The researcher will remain within the parameters of any applicable national legislation, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of research.
4. The researcher will consider and implement the foregoing suggestions to lower the ethical risk associated with the research.
5. This ethics clearance is valid for one year from 3 October 2011 to 2 October 2012.

We wish you success with your research activities.

Best regards



S Engelbrecht
MR SF ENGELBRECHT



REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humaniora)
Registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council (NHREC): REC-050411-032

Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling • Division for Research Development

Privaatsak/Private Bag X1 • Matieland 7602 • Suid-Afrika/South Africa
Tel: +27 21 808 9184 • Faks/Fax: +27 21 808 4537
www.sun.ac.za/research

Appendix N: DCS Letter of ethical clearance



correctional services

Department:
Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X136, PRETORIA, 0001 Poyntons Building, C/O Church and Schubart Street, PRETORIA
Tel (012) 307 2000, Fax (012) 328-5111

Ms. HJ Slabber
Albury Crescent 54
Pinehurst
Durban Ville
7550

Dear Ms. Slabber

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ON: "PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPERIENCES OF PLACEMENT IN CORRECTIONAL FACILITIES WITHIN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF INCARCERATED YOUTH"

It is with pleasure to inform you that your request to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services on the above topic has been approved.

Your attention is drawn to the following:

- The relevant Regional and Area Commissioners where the research will be conducted will be informed of your proposed research project.
- You are requested to include male youth offenders on the objective no. 1 in your proposal.
- Your internal guide will be **Regional Head: Development and Care, Ms. V Kokong**. You are requested to contact her at telephone number (021) - 5506 006 before the commencement of your research.
- It is your responsibility to make arrangements for your interviewing times.
- Your identity document and this approval letter should be in your possession when visiting.
- You are required to use the terminology used in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (February 2005) e.g. offenders not prisoners and Correctional Centres not prisons.
- You are not allowed to use photographic or video equipment during your visits, however the audio recorder is allowed.
- You are required to submit your final report to the Department for approval by the Commissioner of Correctional Services before publication (including presentation at workshops, conferences, seminars, etc) of the report.
- Should you have any enquiries regarding this process, please contact the Directorate Research for assistance at telephone number 012-307-2770/2359.

Thank you for your application and interest to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services.

Yours faithfully

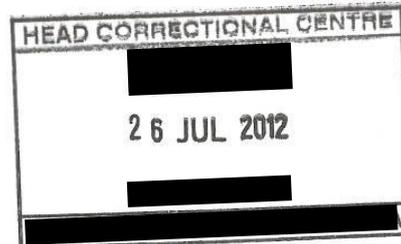

Dr. S.N.V BENGU
Act DC: POLICY CO-ORDINATION & RESEARCH
DATE: 25/05/2012

Appendix O: Centre A letter of consent

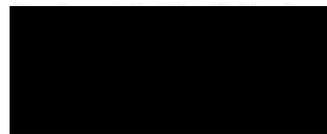


correctional services

Department:
Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA



Head of Centre



Chair of the Research Ethics Committee
c/o Prof. J.P. Hattingh
REC: Human Research (Humanoria)
Stellenbosch University

Ref: 5/1/1/R dated 26 July 2012

Tel number: [REDACTED]

Dear Prof. Hattingh,

**Confirmation of acceptance of Ms. Hesti Slabber's visit to [REDACTED]
[REDACTED] for research purposes:**

This letter serves to confirm that Ms. Hesti Slabber (student number: 15138097) has been granted institutional permission, by the Department of Correctional Services, to visit [REDACTED] in order to gather the data necessary for her research titled *Psychological Experiences of Placement in Correctional Facilities within the Western Cape Province of South Africa: An Exploratory Study of Incarcerated Youth*.

Yours sincerely,

Deputy Director

Mr. [REDACTED]

Head of Centre: [REDACTED]

Appendix P: Centre B letter of consent



correctional services

Department:
Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Head of Centre



Chair of the Research Ethics Committee
C/o Prof. J.P. Hattingh
REC: Human Research (Humanoria)
Stellenbosch University

Ref: 5/1/1/R
Date: 2012/08/30

Dear Prof. Hattingh

RE: CONFIRMATION OF ACCEPTANCE OF MS. HESTI SLABBERT'S VISIT TO
[REDACTED] FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

This letter serves to confirm that Ms. Hesti Slabbert (student number: 15138097) has been granted institutional permission, by the Department Correctional Services, to visit [REDACTED] in order to gather the data necessary for her research titled *Psychological Experiences of Placement in Correctional Facilities within the Western Cape Province of South Africa: An Exploratory Study of Incarcerated Youth*.

Yours sincerely.


[REDACTED]
HEAD OF CENTRE

ASD

Appendix Q: Centre C letter of consent



**DEPARTMENT: CORRECTIONAL SERVICES
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

Research Ethics Committee c/o Prof. J P Hattingh REC : Human Research (Humanoria) Stellenboch University	Your ref : My ref : 5/1/1/R Enquiries : [REDACTED] Contact nr : [REDACTED]	Date : Date : 2012.09.27
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CONFIRMATION OF ACCEPTANCE : MS HESTIE SLABBER : VISIT TO [REDACTED] FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

The letter serves to confirm that Ms. H Slabber (student number 15138097) has been granted permission to gather the necessary information for her research “ Psychological Experiences and Placement in Correctional Facilities within the Western Cape Province of South Africa “ done on incarcerated youth.

For your information.

.....SCO
CC Operational Support : [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]