POLICING DRUG-RELATED CRIMINALITY WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO BURGLARY IN THE LETLHABILE POLICING AREA

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION IN TERMS OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

In a twenty-year old democratic nation, like South Africa, economic opportunities for various organised markets – both legal and illegal – exist. One such market is the international drug trade, which saw great economic opportunities in the Republic of South Africa – with the dawn of the democratic dispensation. The results of such infiltration are the streets riddled with various sorts of drugs, sub-culture activities in protection of economic profits and drug-related criminality. Drug abuse poses a serious threat to the social cohesion of society, as it contributes negatively to acts of criminality and violence.

The National Commissioner of the South African Police Service – in the overview of the departmental performance for the year 2012, was of the opinion that empirical research all over the world echoes the involvement of substance abuse as a contributory factor to criminality in many communities. The Commissioner further elaborated that the use of illegal drugs is often associated with murders, rapes, robberies, aggravated assaults, burglary and theft, and the SAPS continues to experience an increase in the number of detected cases relating to the possession and dealing in drugs per 100 000 of the population.

For an example, during 2012/2013, these cases had increased by 13.5%; i.e. there were 206 825 cases relating to drugs, which were detected and investigated by the police.
1.2 Choice of the research topic

Mark Simpson (2003: 1), in his article on the relations between drugs and crime, reports that a simple unilateral causal explanation is overly simplistic, because the relationship between drug abuse and crime is not consistent throughout the career of a drug user. Further research into the devastating effects of drug abuse on the lives of the users, the dynamics of this relationship are identified. In the light of the statement made above, the researcher appreciates the importance of undertaking a study of this nature, in an effort to understand and develop knowledge on the nature of the relationship between drug abuse and crime.

In our daily lives, we hear through various communication mediums of cases where drug abuse and its effects have impacted our communities, for example, the havoc brought about by “TIK” in the Western Cape, “wunga” in the greater KwaZulu-Natal, and “Nyaope” in Gauteng province. The annual crime statistics (2010 – 2011), as published by the South African Police Service clearly show that there has been an escalation in drug-related crime in Letlhabile (a township in the North West Province in South Africa, the location under discussion in this research) in 2011, since the major apparent decline in 2008 – 2010.

The statistics also suggest an increase in property crime (burglaries at residential premises and thefts), which is alleged (by members of the community) to have a correlation with drug abuse in Letlhabile. In this
study, the researcher has attempted to understand the nature of the apparent correlation that exists between drug abuse and crime.

According to Hoobler and Hoobler (1988:19), the international drug trade is one of the world’s largest business enterprises. The authors further state, “a chain of drug dealers and their connections extends around the world, linking together an Indian coca planter living in the Andes Mountains, a cocaine-sniffing rockstar in the US, an opium farmer in Burma, and the heroin addict in Amsterdam”.

It is also necessary to bear in mind that there are many middlemen in these trades, who also cut a slice of the fabulous profits for themselves (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988: 19).

The fact that the manufacture, sale and purchase of drugs, such as heroin, cocaine and marijuana is illegal, is what attaches such value to these commodities (products). People must pay more to buy what the law forbids (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988: 20). Upon further dissection of the International Drug Trade, Dube (2007: 9) makes mention of the socio-economic conditions as the underlying reason why so many developing countries tend to have more complex problems with the abuse of substances, like alcohol, marijuana cocaine, heroin and other volatile substances. Increased movement of people, better communication technology, and improved socio-economic conditions influence the drug trade and increase the drug-abuse problem.
The drug trade is alluring to criminals because the profits gained are fantastic; billions of dollars are channelled into the drug trade every year globally. Criminals involved in this business are to be found at all levels; it is reported that they are willing to commit any crime to keep control of the trade and these profits. The researcher is of the view that because the drug trade is so lucrative and is always involved with criminal activities, countries producing drugs or crops, which can be processed, have been besieged by corruption and violence (countries in the middle East and South America) (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988).

1.2.1 Rationale of the research problem

The researcher intends to address the research rationale (the reason for conducting the research) by evaluating the rationale in terms of the research problem, society’s concerns, and personal interest.

Pre-research project observation suggests that the streets of Letlhabile and neighbouring locations/townships have become breeding grounds for youth drug users – with more and more youth falling victim to drugs and staying hooked to the drug for a substantial period of time. Presumably for this very reason, the inhabitants of Letlhabile community are living in fear for their safety, and the protection and preservation of their property. Many
families have fallen victim to the ever-increasing prevalence of property crimes, many of which are thefts, and burglaries, which in pre-research conversations with police officials, are alleged to have been perpetrated by drug users for drug purchases.

As a consequence of the unrest and hostility brought about by the increasing prevalence of drug abuse, the inhabitants of the community have taken measures of intervention to combat the drug abuse. The community has established neighbourhood watch programmes and weekly Community Policing Forum meetings – in anticipation of having a significant preventive impact on the resulting property crimes (Letlhabile Community Radio, 2010).

The drugs have allegedly taken their toll on the youth in Letlhabile, the easy availability through dealers, enticing young males at a tender age of 16 – and turning them into drug addicts, potential offenders – and most significantly, turning their backs on their education, ultimately taking over and destroying their lives.

To give a clear indication of the extent of drugs and drug abuse in schools in South Africa, Joyce Mazibuko (editor of Servamus) states: “South African schools have been rated as the most dangerous in the world by the progress in International Reading Literacy Study. Those ‘in the know’
maintain that buying drugs at South African schools is [sometimes] as easy as buying bread" (Servamus; 2008: 49).

The use of drugs is on the increase in Letlhabile; and a deterrent effect (combat strategy) seems to be absent. It becomes rather evident that a review of the combating strategy is of paramount importance, in order to establish a combatant and deterrent effect required to have the desired (drug-free) environment in the community.

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 52), a research problem is an intellectual stimulus calling for a response in the form of a scientific inquiry. Neuman (1997: 118) was of the opinion that one needs a narrowly focused question before a research project is designed. The devastating scenes of drug abuse and the constant reporting of property crime and violence are problems prevalent in Letlhabile, which made it necessary for such an inquiry. It is for this reason that the researcher sought to establish the existence, or non-existence of the supposed relationship between drug abuse and criminality (i.e. burglary and violent crimes) in the Letlhabile policing area.

The research problem or main question in the study focuses on whether there is, according to relevant experts, a relationship between drug abuse and burglary in Letlhabile, and determining whether police actions could make a positive difference.
With the above-mentioned in mind, the researcher has formulated the following problem statements, which will guide the study:

- The prevailing criminality in the Letlhabile policing area correlates with the increase in drug use; and
- The strategies employed by the South African Police Service to combat criminality in general, and burglary specifically, in the Letlhabile policing area are inadequate and ineffective.

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 8), the ultimate goal of social and all other sciences is to produce a cumulative body of verifiable knowledge. Such knowledge would enable the individual researcher to explain, predict and understand the empirical phenomena that interest him/her. Furthermore, a reliable body of knowledge could be used to improve the human condition and the environment (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996: 8).

The researcher maintains that the study should be of importance to various institutions of society, institutions such as the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, the Department of Social Development, and the South African Police Services in the identification of potential offenders. The study attempts to shed light on the understanding of the relations between drug abuse and crime; and also an appreciation and understanding of the dynamics surrounding the prevailing drug abuse and crime. Furthermore, the researcher is of the opinion that the study will
afford the management of the Letlhabele policing station a basis to initiate, develop and implement an effective strategy to address drug abuse in Letlhabele and its alleged association affiliation with crime. A specific point of focus would be that any interventional efforts would be of importance to secure a safer and more orderly society for all.

The researcher is a full–time student, who resides in the designated topic area (Letlhabele Township). The topic is of specific interest to the researcher, firstly, for the reason that one is daily confronted by multiple scenes of drug abuse in Letlhabele (young males using drugs openly); secondly, also having fallen victim to property crime (burglary) himself, which was allegedly the consequence of sustaining a drug habit (by the offender).

Most importantly, the study will hopefully provide the researcher an understanding of the motives and consequences of drug abuse. The researcher believes the study to be a tool for developing methods of deterrence against the prevalence of drug abuse, and thus halting the large number of youths falling victim to the addiction.
1.2.2 Contributory research questions

Smit (1985) indicated that contributory questions refer to statements, which are usually expressed in the form of questions. These include all the problem aspects of the investigation; and they demarcate the problem area. Berg (1998: 23) states that research problems direct or drive the research enterprise. How one would eventually conduct a research study would depend largely upon what one’s research questions are.

As a result of the above-mentioned rationale, the researcher has identified and formulated the following research questions:

Research question 1: Has drug abuse in Letlhabeile policing area increased over the last few years?

Research question 2: Are the policing strategies employed to combat drug abuse in Letlhabeile ineffectual?

Research question 3: Does the drug abuse habit result in the increase of crime in the Letlhabeile policing area?

Research question 4: Are the policing strategies employed to combat criminality in general in Letlhabeile policing area ineffectual?

Research question 5: Are local High Schools in Letlhabeile policing area targeted for drug distribution?
Research question 6: Is there a correlation between drug abuse and crimes (such as burglary) in the Letlhabile Policing area?

1.3 General research objectives of the study

According to De Vos et al. (2005: 104), “(research) objective denotes the more concrete, measurable and speedily attainable conception of an end towards which effort or ambition is directed”. Keeping the above in mind, the researcher wishes – by applying in the main qualitative methodology, to strive for:

- Determining the nature and extent of drug abuse amongst the youth in the Letlhabile policing area;
- Determining the nature and extent of criminal activities amongst the youth in the Letlhabile policing area;
- Seeking and analysing the correlation between drug abuse and criminality in the Letlhabile policing area;
- Analysing and evaluating current policing strategies to combat drug abuse in the Letlhabile policing area;
- Analysing and evaluating the current policing strategies to combat criminality in the Letlhabile policing area;
- Identifying and formulating hypotheses;
- Generating interpretations and findings, as well as developing recommendations for combating drug abuse and criminality in Letlhabile.
The nature of the research will be descriptive and interpretive, because it strives to yield a clear and comprehensive depiction of the relation between drug abuse and crime in the Letlhabile policing area. Shedding further light on the abovementioned, Neuman (1997: 20) advocates that descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation or social setting, or relationships.

With regard to the interpretive end of the study, Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 134) mention that the interpretive objective enables the researcher to gain new insights into a particular phenomenon and to discover the problems which exist within the phenomenon. The researcher is of the opinion that these objectives will direct and lead the study in the desired direction, and will allow for an understanding of the dynamics of drug abuse and its affiliated criminal activities.

The researcher has attempted to grasp an understanding of the various dynamics involved in such a relationship by conducting a thorough review of the literature and unstructured interviews with respondents who are individuals continuously exposed and involved with the drug-abuse environment in a detection and prosecuting capacity in the Letlhabile policing area.
1.4 Demarcation of the study field

In essence, research demarcation refers to determining or marking of the boundaries or specifications of the study undertaken. This research has been demarcated into three sections, namely: Conceptual demarcation; geographical demarcation; and qualitative demarcation.

1.4.1 Conceptual demarcation

Babbie (1992: 118) states that conceptualisation is the process through which one specifies precisely what is meant when a particular concept is utilised. Babbie maintains that misunderstandings and conflict (from the interpersonal to the international) are the prices of imprecisions, and that conceptualisation curbs such imprecisions. According to Berg (1998: 25), “to ensure that everyone is working with the same definition and mental image, you will need to conceptualize and operationalize the term”.

Berg (1998: 25) elaborates further by stating that such process concretizes the intended meaning of a concept in relation to a particular study, and provides some criteria for measuring the empirical existence of that concept. With the above-mentioned borne in mind, the researcher will conceptualize and operationalize the terms “crime/criminality, drug and abuse”. 

1.4.1.1 Crime/criminality

According to Naude and Stevens (in Smit et al., 2004: 74), “crime can be defined as a phenomenon that includes an act or omission, which is prohibited and punishable by law”. Bartol and Bartol (2008: 1) define a crime “as conduct or failure to act, in violation of the law forbidding or commanding it, and for which a range of possible penalties exists upon conviction”. Burger (2007: 46) clearly defines a crime “as an unlawful act of commission or omission, which results from a number of risk factors, including but not limited to socio-economic, environmental and political factors, and which is punishable by law”.

Snyman (2008: 4) defines a crime as a conduct, which is legally forbidden, which may, in principle, be prosecuted only by the State, and which always results in the imposition of punishment.

The researcher, for the purposes of the study, operationalizes the concept crime as ‘an unlawful, blameworthy conduct punishable by the State’.
1.4.1.2 Victim

The term victim means a persons who individually or collectively has suffered – including physical or mental injury, emotional suffering, economic loss or substantial impairment of their fundamental rights, through acts or omissions that are in violation of criminal laws operative within member States, including those laws proscribing [the] criminal abuse of power.

1.4.1.3 Offender

The word “offender” evokes feelings of disapproval; and according to law, the offender is the person who commits the unlawful act (Fattah, 1991:89).

1.4.1.4 Drugs

The Drug and Drug Trafficking Act 140 of 1992 defines a drug as meaning “any dependence-producing substance, any dangerous dependence-producing substance and any undesirable dependence-producing substance”.

14
The National Drug Master Plan of The Republic of South Africa 1999 – 2004 states that a drug in medicine refers to any substance with the potential to prevent or cure a disease, or to enhance physical or mental welfare; and in pharmacology, it refers to any chemical agent that alters the biochemical or physiological processes of tissues or organisms. In common usage, the term often refers specifically to psycho-active drugs, and often even more specifically, to illicit drugs for which there is a non-medical use, in addition to a medical use.

The researcher hereby refers to drugs as those habit-forming illegal drugs. The researcher thus maintains that in accordance with the research study, drugs refer to dependence-producing substances.

1.4.1.5 Abuse

According to the National Drug Master Plan of the Republic of South Africa 1999 – 2004, “abuse is the persistent or sporadic excessive (drug) use inconsistent with or unrelated to medical practice”. Gilbert (2007: 344) maintains the view that abuse is the excessive consumption of a controlled substance without medical authorisation; this thus defeats the substance’s original intended purposes, and often results in the loss of mental and physical wellbeing.
The researcher defines the concept abuse as the misuse of illegal drugs for recreational purposes – with the potential of criminal behaviour as a consequence thereof.

1.4.1.6  **Burglary**

According to Bartol and Bartol (2008: 452), a burglary is the unlawful entry of a structure, with or without force, with the intent to commit a crime or theft therein.

1.4.1.7  **Violence**

Lauer (in Sempe, 2007: 35) regards violence as the use of force to kill, injure or abuse another, or an attempt to do serious physical injury. Bornman (in Sempe, 2007: 35) states that violence is a behaviour, which by intended action and or outcome harms another person.

1.4.1.8  **Policing**

Burger (2007: 27 – 28) clearly defines policing as all those lawful activities, whether pro-active or reactive, performed by the police in the process of providing their prescribed services, such as reassuring the public; creating
1.4.2 Geographical demarcation: Letlhabile

The Letlhabile policing area is situated approximately 24km from the Brits Central Business District in the Madibeng local municipality of the North West Province. According to Morris (1989), Letlhabile was established in 1985 because the then Oukasie residents had been moved from the proximity of Brits. In December 1985, Letlhabile was ready for occupation. The area has a population of 47,068 residents, of which 11,681 are females between the ages 15 – 44 years, and 12,397 are males of the same age group. There are ten schools in the area, of which seven are primary schools; and the remaining three are high schools.

Middle to lower socio-economic conditions are prevalent in this area, where a large proportion of individuals are unemployed, and depend on Government social grants for their day-to-day life and government-funded (RDP) housing for shelter. A number of individuals are employed in the mining and manufacturing industries in Brits and Rosslyn, respectively.

There is only one police station in Letlhabile, which also provides services to the neighbouring areas. Criminality has taken its toll in Letlhabile; the
official annual crime statistics of the SAPS indicate that 422 incidents of residential burglary were reported at the Letlhabile Police Station for the period between April 2010 and March 2011, 257 incidents of theft (categorised as thefts, which were not mentioned elsewhere) during the same period (April 2010 and March 2011); and 387 incidents of assaults with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm during the same period (April 2010 to March 2011).

1.5 Research methodology

According to Smit (1995), research methodology is the methodological process followed for the gathering of data during the research investigation. The research findings depend directly on the method, which has been followed.

1.5.1 Research approach

“Qualitative research is a situated activity, which locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world into a series of representations – including field notes, interviews, conversations photographs and memos to the self” (Denzin & Lincoln, in Creswell, 2007: 36).
Denzin and Lincoln (in Punch 1998) elaborate on qualitative research where they stress the following: “….. it did not take us long to discover that the field of qualitative research is far from a unified set of principles promulgated by networked groups of scholars. In fact, we have discovered that the field of qualitative research is defined primarily by a series of essential tensions, contradictions and hesitations. These tensions work back and forth among competing definitions and conceptions of the field”.

According to De Vos et al. (2005: 74), qualitative research refers to research that elicits participants’ accounts of meaning, experience or perceptions. It produces descriptive data in the participants’ own written or spoken words. It thus involves identifying the participants’ beliefs and values that underlie the phenomenon. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 133) state that qualitative research focuses on phenomena that occur in the natural settings, that is, in the “real world”. And it involves studying those phenomena in all their complexity.

Qualitative research starts with assumptions, a worldview, the possible use of a theoretical lens, and the study of research problems enquiring into the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem (Creswell, 2007:37). Creswell, emphasising the use of a qualitative research approach states, “to study this problem (human problem), qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative research approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to
the people; and [it] uses scrutiny and data analysis that are inductive; and [it] establishes the patterns or themes”.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 133) emphasise that the researcher – in order to answer some research questions – should not simply skim across the surface, but rather dig deep to get a complete understanding of the phenomenon under study/scrutiny. Furthermore, in qualitative research, one’s mandate is to collect numerous forms of data, and to examine them from various angles, in order to construct a rich and meaningful picture of a complex multifaceted situation.

The researcher maintains that the utilisation of the qualitative research approach should afford the researcher an understanding of the relation between drug abuse and crime, and its affiliated risk factors, as provided from the perspective of the respondents. In this chapter, the researcher attempts/intends to dissect the qualitative research method, thereby encompassing all its essential components.

Alluding to the imperativeness of the understanding of phenomena in social sciences, Creswell (2007: 40) emphasises the importance thereof by stating that “we conduct qualitative research because we need a complex and detailed understanding of particular issues”. “We conduct qualitative research because we want to understand the context or settings in which participants in a study address a problem or issue”.
De Vos et al. (2005: 74) define a quantitative study as an inquiry into a social or human problem, based on the testing of a theory composed of variables, measured with numbers, analysed with statistical procedures – in order to determine whether predictive generalisations of the theory hold true.

The researcher maintains the view that in outlining the difference between the qualitative research method and the quantitative research procedure, it is of imperative importance the researcher provides clarity and significance with regard to the undertaken research project. Fortune and Reid (in De Vos et al. 2005: 73), go on to mention the essential differences between these two approaches to research. These differences are outlined as follows:

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<th>Quantitative Approach: General</th>
<th>Qualitative Approach: General</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. The quantitative approach has its epistemological roots in positivism.</td>
<td>1. The qualitative approach has its epistemological roots in phenomenology.</td>
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<td>2. The essential purpose is testing predictive and cause-effect hypotheses about social reality.</td>
<td>2. Its purpose is constructing detailed descriptions of social reality.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Methods utilise the deductive logic.</td>
<td>3. Methods utilised involve inductive logic.</td>
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<td>4. It is suitable for a study of phenomena, which are conceptually and theoretically well-developed; the approach seeks to control phenomena.</td>
<td>4. The qualitative approach is suitable for a study of a relatively unknown terrain; as it seeks to understand phenomena.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Concepts in this approach are converted into operational definitions; the results appear in numeric form; and are eventually reported in statistical language.</td>
<td>5. The participant’s natural language is used, in order to come to a genuine understanding of their world.</td>
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<td>6. The research design is standardised, according to a fixed procedure, and can be replicated.</td>
<td>6. The research design is flexible and unique; and it evolves throughout the research process. There are no fixed steps to be followed; and the design cannot exactly be</td>
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7. The data are obtained systematically, and in a standardised manner.
8. The units of analysis are variables, which are atomistic (elements which form part of whole).

7. The data sources are determined by information settings; types of observation are modified to enrich one’s understanding.
8. Units of analysis are holistic, concentrating on the relationship between contexts, etc. The whole is always more than the sum of the parts.

(Fortune & Reid in de Vos et al., 2005: 73).

Fortune and Reid (in de Vos et al., 2005: 73) further outline the characteristics of the research approaches unique to each approach; while the author maintains the following with regard to the respective approaches:

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<th>Quantitative Approach: Specific</th>
<th>Qualitative Approach: Specific</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. The researcher’s role is that of an observer, whose involvement with the phenomena being studied is limited to what is required to obtain the necessary data.</td>
<td>1. The researcher attempts to gain a first hand, holistic perspective of phenomena of interest by means of a flexible strategy of problem formulation and data collection, shaped as the investigation proceeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. These studies are focused on relatively specific questions or hypotheses, which remain constant throughout the investigation.</td>
<td>2. Methods, such as participant observation and unstructured interviewing are used to acquire in-depth knowledge of how the persons involved construct their social world (the insider role).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Plans about the research procedures – designs, data collection methods, types of measurement, coding of the data and so on, are developed before the study begins.</td>
<td>3. As more knowledge is gained, the research questions may shift and data-collection methods may be adjusted accordingly. The investigator is constantly analysing data by using formal logical procedures; although the final analysis is completed after the early, immersion phase of the</td>
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expected to collect only the data called for, and to avoid adding their own impressions or interpretations.

6. Measurement is normally focused on variables, which are, if possible quantified through rating scales, frequency counts and other means.

7. Analysis proceeds by obtaining statistical breakdowns of the distribution of variables, and by using statistical methods to identify any associations or (differences) between variables.

(Fortune & Reid in de Vos et al., 2005: 74).

From the above-mentioned tables, the researcher deems it necessary to dissect the qualitative research approach to bring about an appropriate understanding of the study field.

Miles and Huberman (in Punch, 1998: 149) provide a summary of the recurrent elements in qualitative research; and this is reproduced as follows:

- Qualitative research is conducted through an intense and prolonged contact with a ‘field’ or life situation. These situations are typically ‘banal’ or normal ones, reflective of the everyday life of individuals, groups, societies and organisations.
- The researcher’s role is to gain a holistic overview of the context under study, its logic, arrangements, its explicit and implicit rules.
- The researcher attempts to capture data on the perceptions of local actors ‘from the inside’, through a process of deep attentiveness, of
empathetic understanding, and of suspending or bracketing any preconceptions about the topics under discussion. The researcher maintains that the interviews conducted were based on these principles; and the perceptions of the respondents were accordingly captured.

- Reading through these materials, the researcher may isolate certain themes and expressions that can be reviewed with informants, but that should be maintained in their original forms throughout the study.

- The main task is to explicate the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action and otherwise manage their day-to-day life situations.

- Many interpretations of these materials are possible; but some are more compelling for theoretical reasons, or on the grounds of internal consistency.

- Relatively little standardised instrumentation is used at the outset. The researcher is essentially the main ‘measuring device’ in the study.

- Most analysis is done with words. The words can be assembled, sub-clustered, or broken down into semiotic segments. They can be organised to permit the researcher to contrast, compare, analyse and bestow patterns upon them.

For purposes of the study, the researcher adopted a qualitative research approach – with the intention of striving to grasp an imperative
understanding, accompanied by a subjective rationale of the relation (correlation) between drug abuse and crime, thereby also gaining valuable insight and understanding of the underlying dynamics in the Letlhabeli policing area.

The qualitative research paradigm, in its broadest sense, elicits the participants’ accounts of meaning, experience or perceptions. It further involves identifying the participants’ beliefs and values that underlie the phenomenon (McRoy in de Vos et al., 2005: 74). The researcher is more concerned with understanding rather than any explanation; and with naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement.

1.5.2 Research strategy

A research strategy determines the methods to be employed, in order to gather and analyse the research data. Van der Westhuizen (1998:35) postulated that, in other words, the research strategy would imply how the research objectives could be reached, and how the problems encountered with the research should be tackled.
1.5.2.1 Research ethics

While human beings are the objects of study in the social sciences, the researcher understands that it is imperative to understand the ethical and legal responsibilities of conducting research in the social sciences (Sempe; 2007: 22). Gravetter and Forzano (in de Vos et al., 2005: 56) state that a researcher has two basic categories of ethical responsibility:

- A responsibility to both human and non-human participants in the research project; and
- A responsibility to the science, to be as accurate and honest as possible in reporting on the findings of the research.

Strydom (in Sempe, 2007: 22) suggests that research ethics are a set of moral principles, which are adhered to by any individual or by any group, subsequently widely accepted, and which offer rules and behavioural norms on the most correct conduct in experimental subjects, and on the behaviour of respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students.

The researcher undertakes to abide by the ethical code of conduct of the social sciences research council (HSRC); and he undertakes also to abide by the ethical obligations of any other party involved in the research study. The researcher will apply for all necessary and needed permission sought.
The following are known ethical principles, which are honoured by the researcher:

- The researcher understands that he is not supposed to harm, in any way, the experimental subjects or the respondents;
- The researcher must seek informed consent from institutions prior to the conducting of the research. In this research, the researcher has gained informed consent from the respondents of the study.
- In no way is the researcher supposed, or allowed, to deceive the respondents.
- The researcher should not at any instance violate the privacy or confidentiality of the respondents.
- The researcher is not supposed, nor allowed, to release or publish the findings and restorations (detailed accounts) of the subjects and respondents without their consent.

1.5.2.2 Trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

All research must respond to canons that stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of the research project can be evaluated (Marshall and Rossman; in de Vos et al., 2005: 345). Furthermore, these canons can be phrased as questions, to which all research must respond; and the questions are paraphrased as follows:
How credible are the particular findings of the study? By what criteria can we judge them?

How transferable and applicable are these findings to another setting, or group of people?

How can reasonable assurance be guaranteed that the findings would be replicated if the study were to be conducted again with the same participants and in the same context? (Marshall and Rossman; in De Vos et al., 2005: 345).

According to Hammersley (in Silverman, 2010: 275), validity is the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 100), however, maintain that qualitative researchers frequently use triangulation – comparing multiple data sources in search of common themes to support the validity of their findings. The following are the strategies they employ:

- **Extensive time in the field:** The researcher may spend several months studying a particular phenomenon, forming tentative hypotheses, and continually looking for evidence that either supports or disconfirms those hypotheses.

- **Negative case analysis:** the researcher actively looks for cases that contradict existing hypotheses, and then continually revises his or her explanation or theory until all the cases have been fully accounted for.

- **Thick description:** The situation is described as sufficiently rich, with “thick” detail from which the readers can draw their own conclusions from the data presented.
Feedback from others: The researcher seeks the opinion of colleagues in the field, to determine whether they agree or disagree that the researcher has made appropriate interpretations and drawn valid conclusions from the data.

Respondent validation: The researcher takes his or her conclusion back to the participants in the study, and asks quite simply: “Do you agree with my conclusions? Do they make sense based on your own experience?”

The researcher developed the interview schedule in unison with the fundamental themes/variables, which form the basis on which the research questions of the study are based. The researcher utilised a video recorder to record and capture the interviews. Permission to make use of the video recorder was obtained from the interviewees. The researcher transcribed the data gathered and studied the contents thereof. The data were then taken to the study supervisor for approval, and for inclusion in the final document.

1.5.3 Research Methods

The researcher utilised the following qualitative methods: The literature study, the interviews and the observation method.
1.5.3.1 Documentary research

A literature review is a review of the existing scholarship or available body of knowledge; it helps the researcher to see how other scholars have investigated the research problem in which he is interested (Mouton in De Vos et al., 2005: 263). Furthermore, in essence, we conduct literature reviews to familiarise ourselves with the current state of knowledge regarding the research problem, and to learn how others have delineated any similar problems (De Vos et al., 2005: 263).

A review of the literature used in the widest sense of the word, involves the identification and analysis of information resources and literature related to one’s research project. This process includes identifying the relevant sources, an initial assessment of these sources, thorough analysis of the selected sources, and the construction of an account that integrates and explains all the relevant sources (Terre Blanche et al., 2006: 19).

According to Punch (1998: 43), it is only a matter of judgement when a researcher concentrates on the literature. Punch (1998) suggests that factors involved in such judgement include the style of research, the overall research strategy, what the objectives of the proposed study are, the nature of the substantive problem, and how much is known about it, how well developed the literature in the area is, and how closely this study wants to follow the directions established by the literature.
A further important factor is the knowledge that the researcher already has (Punch; 1998: 43).

Marshall and Rossman (in De Vos et al., 2005: 263) stipulate the general functions that literature serves in a qualitative study:

- It demonstrates the underlying assumptions behind the general research questions. Empirically, such assumptions exist in general society, where platforms, such as the media, constantly condition the mindset that drug use results in criminality.
- It demonstrates that the researcher is thoroughly knowledgeable with the related research issues, and the intellectual traditions that surround and support the study. The researcher is knowledgeable of the underlying dynamics and principles surrounding the drug and crime relationship.
- It indicates that the researcher has identified some gaps in previous research, and that the proposed research study will fill a demonstrated need.
- The review refines and redefines the research questions by embedding those questions in larger empirical traditions.

With all of the above-mentioned borne in mind, the researcher maintains the perspective/opinion that a thorough review of the literature has been conducted for the purpose of equipping one with knowledge advances already made regarding this topic environment, and thereby actively
shedding light on the topic matter (the relation/correlation between drug abuse and crime in the Letshabile policing area). The researcher further states that the literature sources consulted are divided in two sections, the Primary and the Secondary Sources.

1.5.3.1.1 The primary source

South African Police Service Case Dossiers were consulted to provide objective understanding of the relationship between drug abuse and criminality. Bless and Higson-Smith (in Melwich, 2007: 10) maintain that primary sources are the data collected – with the primary aim of answering the research question, as posed by the researcher. The researcher consulted primary sources, such as the National Drug Master Plan of the Republic of South Africa (2012 – 2016).

Various policy documents, such as the Drugs and drug trafficking Act 140 of 1992, the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act, (Act no 70 of 2008) have been sought and consulted, as well as the white papers on safety and security; and strategic documents, such as the Annual National Crime statistics of the South African Police Service (as recently as 2011 – 2012) and the World Drug Report 2011 by UNODC have also been consulted.
1.5.3.1.2 Secondary sources

Melwich (2007: 11) maintains that secondary data can be used in a specific study; although they have been collected by different researchers for the purpose of addressing different research problems. Secondary sources also provide second-hand information about events obtained, either from someone else who experienced the event, or someone who obtained the information from a person who has indeed experienced the event first-hand (Melwich; 2007: 11).

The researcher consulted literary texts on drugs and drug abuse to gain knowledge on the phenomenon. The researcher also consulted criminological texts – for the purpose of acquiring some understanding of the perpetration of criminality by drug users from a theoretical perspective. Literary texts on social research were also consulted – to shed light on the area of research, in terms of design and methodological approach.

1.5.4 Research and data-gathering techniques

1.5.4.1 In-depth interviews

According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006: 297), conducting an interview is a more natural form of interacting with people; and it provides an opportunity to know people quite intimately; so that we can understand how they think
and feel. Furthermore, the semi-structured interview allows the researcher to follow up on particular interesting avenues that sometimes emerge in the interview; and the participant is thus able to give a fuller picture, and to share more closely in the direction the interview takes; and s/he can then introduce an issue the researcher never previously considered.

An important matter of note is that it should always be born in mind that the interview has a central focus, but it is not one-sided (De Vos et al., 2005: 287).

The researcher conducted interviews with officials from the South African Police Service who had been involved in drug investigations and crime-prevention activities, prosecutors from the National Prosecuting Authority stationed in the Brits area. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 234) noted that the encounter between the interviewer and the respondent is structured; and that the major aspects of the study are explained; but the respondents are given considerable liberty in expressing their definition of a situation presented to them.

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 237) further mentioned some of the advantages of personal one-on-one interview. These advantages, they stated as follows:
- **Flexibility:** The interview allows great flexibility in the questioning process; and the greater the flexibility, the less structured the interview. Some interviews allow the interviewer to determine the wording of the questions, to clarify terms that are unclear, to control the order in which the questions are presented, and to probe for additional information and detail.

- **Control of the interview situation:** One major advantage of the interview is that it gives the researcher greater control over the interviewing situation. An interviewer can ensure that the respondents answer the questions in an appropriate sequence, or that they answer certain questions before they are asked any subsequent questions. Moreover, in an interview situation, researchers can standardise the environment to ensure that the interview is conducted in private; thus this means that the respondents do not have the opportunity to consult one another before giving their answers.

- **High response rate:** the personal interview results in a higher response rate than the mailed questionnaire. Respondents who would not ordinarily take the time to reply to an impersonal mail questionnaire will often respond to a request for a personal interview. This is also true of individuals, who have difficulties in reading or writing, or do not fully understand the language.

- **Collection of supplementary information:** An interviewer can collect supplementary respondents’ personal characteristics, and their environment; which can aid the researcher in interpreting the results. Moreover, an interview situation often yields spontaneous
reactions that the interviewer can record, which might be useful in the data-analytical stage.

Contrary to the advantages as stipulated above, Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:240) further outline the disadvantages of the personal interviewing observation method, as follows:

- Higher cost: Interviews can be expensive to conduct, especially when the respondents are geographically widely dispersed; furthermore, the cost of recording and processing the data obtained in interviews can be especially high.
- Interview bias: The very flexibility that is the chief advantage in interviews leaves room for the interviewer’s personal influence and bias. Although interviewers are intended to remain objective and to avoid communicating personal views, they nevertheless often give cues that may influence the respondent’s answers — even when s/he avoids verbal cues, interviewers can fail to control non-verbal communication.
- Lack of anonymity: The presence of the interviewer may make the respondent feel threatened or intimidated. Frequently, the interviewer knows some or many of the potential respondents (or at least their names or street addresses).
1.5.4.2 Interview schedule

Nachmias and Nachmias (1996: 234) make mention of the fact that researchers can use interview schedules to make certain that any variations between responses can be attributed to the actual differences between the respondents – and not to any variations in the interviews conducted. In this research study, the researcher made use of an interview schedule, as a measuring instrument to extract the needed data from the respondents/participants in the study. Semi-structured one-on-one interviews were conducted with the respondents; in which the respondents adequately raised their views in terms of the topic matter.

The aim and objective of the interviews was to gather data that would afford the researcher the necessary understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny, thereby providing their meanings attached to daily exposure to multiple scenes of drug abuse and the alleged affiliated criminality. The interview is one of the manners whereby much-needed information can be elicited – if such information cannot be acquired through mere observation. Nachmias and Nachmias (1994) elaborate further by alluding to the three crucial assumptions on which the interview schedule is based:

- For any research objective, the respondents must have a sufficiently common vocabulary, so that it is possible to formulate questions, which would have the same meaning for each of them.
➢ It must be possible to phrase all the questions in a form that is equally meaningful to each respondent.

➢ If the meaning of each question is to be identical for each respondent, then the context must be identical; and since all the preceding questions constitute part of the context, the sequence of the questions must be identical and consistent.

1.5.4.3 Docket schedules

The researcher reviewed and analysed 10 judicially complete case dockets for the period 2005 – 2008 from the Letlhabile Police Station in terms of the following categories:

➢ The charge;
➢ Gender of the accused;
➢ Number of offenders; and
➢ The outcome.

1.6 Sampling technique

For the purpose of this study, the researcher made use of the non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability sampling methods are utilised and, in particular, theoretical or purposive sampling techniques are used, rather than random sampling. The researcher selected the following
individuals at the Letlhabe Policing area and the Brits Magistrate’s Court as respondents to the research interviews:

- Crime investigation Detectives;
- Crime prevention officers; and
- Public Prosecutors at the Brits Magistrate’s Court.

**Respondent 1**

The respondent is male with the rank of Constable, in the Crime Intelligence Unit, and has 6 years of experience in the field of policing.

**Respondent 2**

The respondent is male with the rank of Warrant Officer in the Crime Prevention Unit; and he has 19 years of experience in the field of policing.

**Respondent 3**

The respondent is male with the rank of Constable in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and he has 6 years of experience in the field of policing.

**Respondent 4**

The respondent is male with the rank of Captain (Branch Commander), in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and he has 29 years of experience in the field of policing.
Respondent 5

The respondent is male with the rank of Constable, in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and he has 5 years of experience in the field of policing.

Respondent 6

The respondent is male with the rank of Warrant Officer, in the Crime Prevention Unit; and he has 24 years of experience in the field of policing.

Respondent 7

The respondent is male with the rank of Warrant Officer, in the Crime Prevention Unit; and he has 21 years of experience in the field of policing.

Respondent 8

The respondent is a female with the rank of Constable, in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and she has six years of experience in the field of policing.

Respondent 9

The respondent is a female with the rank of Constable, in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and she has six years of experience in the field of policing.

Respondent 10

The respondent is a female with the rank of Constable, in the Crime Investigation Detective Unit; and she has five years of experience in the field of policing.
Respondent 11

The respondent is a female Advanced Regional Court Prosecutor in the Pretoria Cluster; and she has 13 years of experience in the Prosecuting Authority.

1.7 Problems encountered

The researcher encountered difficulties with the acquisition of the necessary documentation to conduct research from the South African Police Service; but he finally managed to acquire it. The researcher also encountered difficulties with having more prosecutors as participants of the study; since a majority of those asked to participate stated a lack of available time for them to participate in the study.

1.8 The progression of the research investigation

This study will focus on the literature overview on drugs and drug abuse in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3, the researcher deals with the theoretical perspectives regarding the research problem. Chapter 4 presents the gathered data; and in Chapter 5, the researcher presents the epitome of the theoretical perspectives and the empirical findings. Finally, in Chapter 6, the researcher arrives at certain conclusions, and makes recommendations in terms of the phenomenon in question.
CHAPTER 2: THE LITERATURE OVERVIEW ON DRUG ABUSE

2.1 Introduction

“Drug consumption in South Africa is currently twice the world norm.” These words were uttered by an expert from the Central Drugs Authority; it was further maintained that the use of cocaine and dagga has increased by 20% during the last two years (Mail & Guardian, 2009).

In a newspaper article entitled “Zille says drug abuse is everyone’s problem” (Gugulethu [Mail & Guardian], 2008), Ms Zille, leader of the official opposition in South Africa, views drug abuse as a great social problem for every individual in the republic. She makes mention of the fact that drug abuse is costing the republic R20 billion a year, and could pose a greater threat to the country’s future than the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Editor Gugulethu (2008) further quotes the political leader as stating that “the perpetrators of these crimes are either under the influence of substances, or trying to secure money for their next fix. Crime was a key driver of South Africa’s brain drain, with over half of those who had emigrated citing crime as their main reason for leaving the republic”.

In summing up, the prevalent situation would only lead to the “drastic reduction in prospects for economic growth and employment creation”.
In this chapter, there is an attempt by the researcher to compile a body of literature to assist in the exploration and advances in social research, in particular in the field of drug abuse. Matters pertaining to the rationale behind the extent and prevalence of drug abuse, the affiliated risk factors, as well as the various effects (social, physiological and psychological) are discussed in some detail.

2.2 Drug abuse as an international problem

According to Hoobler and Hoobler (1988:19), the international drug trade is one of the world’s largest business enterprises. The authors further state, “a chain of drug dealers and their connections extends around the world, linking together an Indian coca planter living in the Andes Mountains, a cocaine-sniffing rockstar in the US, an opium farmer in Burma, and the heroin addict in Amsterdam”. Also to be borne in mind is the fact that there are many middlemen in these trades, who also cut a slice of the fabulous profits for themselves (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988: 19).

The fact that the manufacture, sale and purchase of drugs, such as heroin, cocaine and marijuana is illegal, is the very element thereof that attaches such value to these commodities (products); for people must pay more to buy what the law forbids (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988: 20). Upon further dissection of the International Drug Trade, Dube (2007: 9) makes mention of the socio-economic conditions as the reason why so many developing
countries tend to have more complex problems with the abuse of substances, like alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, heroin and other addictive substances. The increased movement of people, better communication technology and improved socio-economic conditions – all these factors influence the drug trade and increase the drug-abuse problem.

The drug trade is alluring to criminals because the profits gained are fantastic; at the very least, tens of billions of dollars are channelled into the drug trade every year. Criminals are involved in this business at all levels; and it is reported that they are willing to commit almost any crime to keep control of the trade and to rake in these profits. The researcher assumes that because the drug trade is so lucrative and always involves criminal activity, nations producing drugs or crops, which can be processed, have been besieged by corruption and violence (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988).

The consumption of illegal drugs is much higher in the US than in any other industrialised country; consequently, the crime problem is greatest there (Hoobler & Hoobler, 1988: 20). Dube (2007: 10) echoes similar sentiments, stating that the types of drugs consumed in developed and developing countries also differ. The researcher is afforded the understanding that drug abusers in the developing countries start and often continue a lifetime of drug abuse with legal drugs, such as alcohol and tobacco, and do not move beyond the use of cannabis; whereas abuse in the developed countries might start with the abuse of alcohol and
cannabis, and quickly escalate to more dangerous drugs – or even start with more addictive drugs, such as ecstasy and cocaine (Dube, 2007: 20).

According to Rogers and McGee and Mason and Henningfield (in Dube 2007: 10), the assumption is that no country can claim that drugs are not affecting their culture. The researcher adopts the view that the use of illegal drugs has infiltrated the very fabric of our social existence, so that multiple cases of abuse have become an inevitable matter.

If, for arguments sake, the amount of cannabis seized in the southern African region/countries (1999 – 2001) was used to assess the drug problem, it becomes very clear that the abuse of cannabis in particular countries of the world is indeed a big problem – resulting from activities of the International Drug Trade (Dube, 2007: 10). In essence, widespread drug use has created a market for illicit substances, which are largely controlled by organised crime syndicates.

Hoobler and Hoobler (1988: 20) make mention of the fact that studies indicate that many an American does not consider drug use to be criminal behaviour – and it needs to be borne in mind that even the most casual of drug users is contributing to the world-wide chain of illegal activities related to drugs.
Dube (2007: 10) referring to the United Nations on Drug Control and Crime Prevention (UNODCP, 2001: 10) significantly maintains that the continuation of the drug problems is of minor importance compared to the millions of lives in both the developing and developed countries, which have been destroyed by the illicit drug trade. These are sentiments equally shared by other authors, Gilbert (2007: 348), for instance, states that “the growth in population is not the sole factor responsible for this phenomenon; apparently a wide variety/range of factors are to be blamed, most of which have emotional, social, and economic implications”.

2.2.1 Drugs in the United States of America (USA)

As in other countries, drug abuse in the US often starts with the innocent use of addictive substances. This is perceived by society as being largely acceptable behaviour. Dube (2007) is of the view that the current situation is as such for the reason that individuals start to become addicted to substances, such as alcohol, by using it on a daily/regular basis and cigarettes, which are readily available and largely acceptable for purchase and use.

The researcher notes that the acceptability of substance abuse by society has grievous consequences for the development of society. In an article entitled ‘Teen-drug abuse’ (2002) it was noted that underage drinking costs the US more than 58 billion dollars every year. The article further
elaborates, stating that 40% of those who started drinking at the age of 13 or younger, developed alcohol dependence later in life; and 10% of teens who began drinking after the age 17 also developed dependence. With regard to the school environment, the article reports that more than 60% of teens consulted said that drugs were sold, used, or kept at their school; and 20% of grade 8 learners reported that they had tried marijuana. (www.teendrugabuse.us/teen_drug_use.html).

The article also makes mention of positive developments in terms of the drug trend. “Many teens are re-assessing the dangers and acceptability of drugs; [and] this may be due in part to the increased attention paid to the issue of drugs by parents, communication groups, the media and government” (www.teendrugabuse.us/teen_drug_use.html). Noting the paradigm shift, the article reports one clear change, which is the teenager’s shifting attitudes towards the legalisation of marijuana and other drugs.

It is maintained that the vast majority of high school learners disapproved of legalising the private use of LSD (63%), Heroin (71%), amphetamines and barbiturates (56%) and marijuana (39%): (www.teendrugabuse.us/teen_drug_use.html).

According to Gilbert (2007: 349), much of the drug abuse (in the US) is centred on marijuana and various hallucinogenic compounds, rather than
on highly addictive narcotics. The author further maintains that although there are indications of a levelling trend with some narcotics like cocaine, the drug problem is still extremely serious and costly to all Americans. The monetary cost of drug abuse is high; but the emotional and physical suffering is beyond calculation (Gilbert, 2007: 349).

The 2011 United Nations World Report on Drugs and Crime makes provision for drugs seizures in various regions around the world for the period (2004 – 2009). The document/report is indicative of an increasing trend of drug use adjudication on the basis of the scale of those seized in 2004. As much as 13 17998 kg of cannabis herb was seized, and 20 49274 kg in 2009 in the US. With regard to amphetamines, in 2004, 62 kg were seized in relation to 131 kg in 2009.

Mvubelo (in Dube 2007: 12) maintains that marijuana is the most widely used drug amongst the American youth – to such an extent that the number of teenagers using marijuana doubled between 1991 and 2001: from 1 in 10 to 1 in 5. The author further laments, that amongst the youth who do use drugs, approximately 60% use only marijuana; and that the age of marijuana users has also significantly decreased, with two thirds of new marijuana users in each year now aged between 12 – 17.

The researcher makes mention of an article entitled “troubled teens – the teen-drug problem”, statistical indicators from the National Household
Survey on Teen-Drug Abuse of the year 2002 reflected a slight drop in teenage drug usage to 8.3% for the overall consumption of all illicit drugs. The drug of choice, which still headed the list as being the most commonly used drug for troubled teenagers was marijuana (75% of all teen-users), followed by cocaine (0.9%), and marijuana – combined with one or more other drugs (20%).

The article further elaborated on the findings of the survey, noting that cigarettes were found to be a strong precursor for troubled teens, who used illicit drugs, “representing about eight times the number to those teens who [only] smoked (48.1%), and those who did not (6.2%). Gender differences play a role amongst teenagers, with a greater majority of male teens using illegal drugs (12.3%) than their female counterparts (10.9%) (www.teendrugabuse.us/problem.html).

2.2.2 Drugs in South Africa

In a newspaper article entitled “South African Drug Trade’s Bitter Taste”, it is posited that the fall-out from substance abuse remains the same: the destruction of lives, families and communities (Mail & Guardian, 2011). It is viewed in the article that the use of heroin, cocaine and methamphetamine has increased substantially in the past few years; whilst the use of once-popular drugs, such as mandrax has “waned”, according to a recent report by the South African Medical Research Council.
The article makes mention of the interesting fact that, as listed by the International Narcotics Control Strategy, South Africa has 273 operating crime syndicates, of which at least 132 were/are involved in illegal drug trading.

According to Rob Roone (representative of the regional office for Southern Africa: United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime), in an article: “South Africa, Country Profile on drugs and crime 2002”, it is a fact that South Africa finds itself having to confront the burdens of serving as the regional hub for these illicit and dangerous activities. Roone (2002) further asserts that South Africa is by far the largest market for illicit drugs entering Southern Africa. Drug trafficking and drug abuse have escalated considerably in recent years, with the point of escalation traceable to the liberation of most aspects of society in the years immediately surrounding the country’s first democratic elections in 1994 (Roone, 2002).

As a point of significance, Roone (2002) writes: “This recent period also witnessed a concomitant relaxation of strict controls of land, air and sea borders, the enhancement of international trade and commerce, and the influx of new cultural trends among the more affluent segments of the population” (Roone, 2002: ii). The researcher thus grasps the understanding that the transition of society, in accordance with the introduction of the new South Africa to the international community, also made way for new opportunities for illicit means of business, and in particular, the world drug trade.
With regard to consumption trends in South Africa, cannabis is the most prevalent illicit drug used; mandrax (methaqualone) is the second most prevalent; and the combination of mandrax and cannabis, referred to as “white-pipe” follows thereafter (Roone, 2002).

The researcher sought to consult the literature, which provides substantiating predictions or depictions of the extent of drug abuse in South Africa in recent years. According to a newspaper article (Mail & Guardian, 2011) drug consumption in South Africa is currently twice the world norm; and the use of cocaine and dagga has seen a significant increase by 20% in two years.

Dr David Bayever of the Central Drug Authority, as cited (in the Mail & Guardian, 2011) explicitly states that in the year 2006, 2.52 million people used dagga (marijuana); and the number had increased to 3.2 million in the year 2008.

Dr Bayever further posits that the number of South Africans in treatment for cocaine addiction increased from 1.5% in 1996 to 17.5% in 2008. As many as 15% of the South African population had a drug problem; and Dr Bayever advocates “that the country needed to change the approach to dealing with the issue; as social structures continue to change” (Mail & Guardian, 2011).
The researcher makes mention of the social structures referred to as follows:

- The educational system has taken a great dip; as drug abuse is an addictive habit, and a risk factor of appalling proportions.
- There are more single mothers raising children in the country at present than before. Dr Bayever notes that child-headed households doubled between 2002 and 2007. An increase in child-headed households from 701,000 in 2007 to 5.7 million in 2015 was anticipated; these conditions provide a conducive environment for possible alterations in a teenager’s behavioural development, and growth as a responsible human being in society.

Echoing similar sentiments, Roone (2002) maintains that another factor contributing to the increased prominence of increased drug use in South Africa is high unemployment. The author elaborates further, by stating that among the non-white population, social injustice and weakened family bonds, which resulted from decades of apartheid policies, have created an environment in which temporary escape from the harsh realities of everyday life is often sought through the consumption of psycho-active substances.

Interestingly, the author further reported on the crucial matter that amongst the white population of South Africa, “anecdotal evidence also supports a connection between increased substance abuse and both the increased
availability of drugs and the psychological consequences of adjusting to life in the new South Africa” (Roone, 2002). With reference to the various dynamics prevalent in the drug trade, in the South African market, it is reported that although some increasing ethnic integration is evident, the market, nevertheless, remains ethnically differentiated.

It is further mentioned that the extreme income inequalities between the different broad ethnic segments naturally affect the drug affordability, and with it consumer choice (Roone, 2002). “These differences in disposable income and consumer choice also determine the differentiated marketing practices in various residential suburbs, which are still to a large extent ethnically segregated. As a result, distinct dynamics emerge in the market chain of each major substance group” (Leggett and the ISS, in Roone, 2002).

An example of such dynamics was the emergence of heroin use among the Black/African impoverished communities in South Africa’s urban and peri-urban areas during the second half of 2001.

Dube (2007: 14) made mention of a survey conducted during the period between 1997 and 2003 in Bela-Bela (a rural area in South Africa) and the Greater Pretoria Metropolitan area (urban in South Africa), which found a similar trend in the use of cannabis amongst the youth in both rural and urban areas, respectively. Of the findings generated, it was noted that as
many as 80% of males between the ages of 10 – 14 years, and 71% of Females between the ages of 10 – 14 years, had used cannabis at least once; and this had occurred at home, or at a friend’s home.

Dube (2007: 14) posits that the South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence’s Castle Carey Clinic situated in the Pretoria City, released a report in (2002) on the extent of drug abuse amongst the youth in Pretoria. The report suggests that the white-pipe drug (dagga – mandrax/dagga – low-value heroin) mixture is becoming more popular amongst the youth, especially in townships (Mamelodi, Soshanguve, Mabopane and Ga-Rankuwa) to the north of the city.

2.3 Typology of preferred drugs (most prevalent drug of choice)

The researcher mentions the fact that only alcohol, dagga (cannabis or marijuana), mandrax and heroin are to be dissected and discussed in a thorough fashion, as the literature suggests that these are the most prevalent substances in South Africa.

2.3.1 Alcohol

Bartol and Bartol (2008: 559) argue that despite the public concern over heroin, opium, marijuana, cocaine and amphetamines, the number one drug of abuse has been, and continues to be, alcohol (ethanol, ethyl
alcohol, grain alcohol). These authors continue to elaborate by being of the understanding that, in accordance with the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Administration of 2005, 121 million Americans aged 12 or older, were currently drinkers of alcohol in 2004 – representing 50% of the population. Overall, the authors maintain that alcohol is preferred by teenagers in preference to other drugs by a significant margin.

Weblo, Bray, Getz and Adams (in Bartol & Bartol 2008: 560) further maintain that many studies of gender differences in alcohol use among adolescents have consistently reported that males consume more alcohol more frequently, and in higher quantities than females; and consequently, they are susceptible to more alcohol-related problems. Of imperative importance is the fact that alcohol is responsible for more deaths and violence (it is the third major cause of death) than all other drugs combined (Bartol & Bartol, 2008: 560).

Hoberg (2001: 259) elaborates on the culture of alcohol dependence amongst teenagers with reference to club drugs; the author states that “adolescents often refer to alcohol as juice, booze or dop. Many an adolescent experiments with cocktails of different beverages, together with the club drug ecstasy; and [they] are often caught up in a web of peer pressure, and the chance of earning extra pocket money when they consume alcohol, smoke dagga and influence their friends to sell and use ecstasy".
Alcohol is a depressant and a sedative; and it becomes addictive when ingested in large quantities and at regular intervals. With regard to its societal and even communal acceptance, Dube (2007: 18) asserts that alcohol is the most available drug in the market; and it is not illegal to use, or to be in possession of it.

Du Pont (1984: 103) contends that alcohol is unique; because it is the only non-medical drug in common use, which is taken only by mouth: it is never “shot”, “smoked” or “snorted”. The author further comments that alcohol is also the only drug, which has a large number of regular users, who do not become physically dependent on it; and in this regard, it sharply contrasts with tobacco, the other legal but non-intoxicating drug, which after a few years of use, practically forces smokers to quit altogether, or continue to use it all day and every day.

Weinstein (in Sempe 2007: 26) is of the perception that alcohol causes severe impaired co-ordination, impaired mental functioning, depression and quarrelsomeness. The researcher is of the understanding that alcohol probably contributes to almost half of all vehicle fatalities in South Africa. Edmonds and Wilcocks (in Sempe, 2007: 26) maintain that alcohol is at the forefront and is associated with many violent crimes, child abuse and many industrial accidents.
Hodge et al. (in Dube, 2007: 18) elaborate on the effects of alcohol by stating that alcohol slows down the activities of the nervous system, which controls the bodily functions, causes drowsiness, lack of concentration, slowness in thinking, impaired interpersonal relationships; and it often leads to economic dysfunction and poverty.

The researcher maintains that Bartol and Bartol (2008: 561) provide a cursory review of alcohol abuse; and the authors are of the understanding that at lower doses, alcohol seems to act as a stimulant to the Central Nervous System. Furthermore, initially it appears to affect the inhibitory chemical process of the nervous system transmission, producing feelings of euphoria, good cheer and social and physical warmth (Bartol & Bartol, 2008: 561).

However, when consumed in moderate and high quantities, alcohol begins to depress the excitatory processes of the central nervous system, as well as its inhibitory processes (Bartol & Bartol, 2008). The authors further elaborate that consequently the individual’s neuro-muscular co-ordination and visual acuity are reduced; and s/he experiences pain and fatigue.

Dube (2007: 18) points out the dangers/hazards of alcohol consumption as follows:

- Mental disorientation;
Lack of alertness (hence individuals under the influence of alcohol are prone to vehicle accidents);
Damage to vital organs, such as the liver, kidneys, heart, pancreas and also permanent damage to the foetus – if the user is a pregnant female;
Black-outs;
Convulsions;
Severe psychological dependence;
Death (over-dosage);
Slurred speech: it causes individuals to go into a stupor, and to be too intoxicated to be aware of anything; and
It causes respiratory paralysis that is connected with the gag reflex.

Du Pont (1984: 108) maintained that in larger doses, alcohol depresses the more primitive brain functions, including ultimately, (if the quantity is large enough) the breathing centre, thereby causing breathing to stop. Fortunately, for many users of alcohol, before this fatal level of anaesthesia is reached, the vomiting centre of the brain is activated, and reinforced by the stomach irritation – also produced by over-drinking – it causes the user to vomit. The lives of many who overdose are thus saved (DuPont, 1984: 108).

The researcher makes mention of a fact of note, as outlined in an article entitled “Teen-drug abuse”. It is maintained that many studies have been conducted on the health effects of alcohol use amongst adults. The long-
term risks, as they correlate with those mentioned above, include liver damage, pancreatic damage, certain cancers, and “the actual literal shrinkage of the brain”. The article further importantly notes that alcohol use is the second leading cause of dementia: “One just simply ages quicker [sic] on alcohol” (www.teendrugabuse.us.teensandalcohol.html).

The following are the high risks and the dire consequences of alcohol abuse to an individual and society in general, as outlined in (www.teendrugabuse.us.teensandalcohol.html):

- Drinking and driving: motor vehicle accidents are the leading cause of death amongst the youth aged 15 – 20. The rate of fatal accidents among alcohol-intoxicated drivers aged between 16 – 20 years old is more than twice the rate for alcohol-intoxicated drivers aged 21 years and older.

- Suicide: alcohol interacts with conditions, such as depression and stress to contribute towards suicidal tendencies; and it is the third leading cause of death amongst individuals between the ages of 14 – 25. It is stated that in one study, 37% of grade 8 learners who drank heavily reported attempting suicide, compared with 11% who did not drink any alcohol.

- Sexual assault: sexual assault, including rape, occurs most commonly amongst women in late adolescence and early adulthood, usually within the context of a date. The article maintains that in one survey, approximately 10% of female high school learners reported having been raped in an alcohol-
involving environment. Research also suggests that alcohol use by the offender, the victim or both, increases the likelihood of sexual assault by a male acquaintance.

➢ High-risk sex: the article is of the firm understanding that research associates adolescent alcohol use with high-risk sex, such as, for instance, multiple partners or unprotected sex. The article (www.teendrugabuse.us.teensandalcohol.html) interestingly makes mention that the link between high-risk sex and drinking is affected by the quantity of alcohol consumed, as a recent study suggested. The probability of sexual intercourse is increased by drinking an amount of alcohol sufficient to impair judgement, but decreased by drinking heavier amounts, which result in feelings of nausea, passing out, or mental confusion (www.teendrugabuse.us.teensandalcohol.html).

2.3.2 Marijuana – cannabis

According to the World Drug Report 2011 of the UNODC, cannabis remains the most widely produced and consumed illicit substance globally. The report maintains “the extent of the global cannabis problem did not change significantly in 2009, although the consumption estimates indicate a wider range”. The UNODC estimates that in 2009, between 2.8% and 4.5% of the world population aged between 15 – 64 years, corresponding
to between 125 million and 203 million people had used cannabis at least once in the past year:


The report stipulates that “this (the above-mentioned) is the result of some increases in cannabis use in the US, Africa, South and Central America and Asia, although consumption in Canada, Western Europe and Oceania remained stable and showed a decline”. With regard to its origins, Gilbert (2007: 363) postulates that Marijuana is a drug derived from the flowering tops and leaves of the Indian Hemp plant Cannabis Sativa. The plant grows naturally in mild climates throughout the world, especially in Mexico, South America, Jamaica and the US.

Gilbert (2007) states that approximately 60% of the marijuana used in the US comes from Mexico; and the remaining amounts are grown locally or imported from other parts of the world. Edmonds and Wilcocks (in Sempe, 2007: 27) are of the view that with the exception of alcohol, marijuana (dagga) is the most commonly abused psycho-active substance in South Africa today. The author continues to mention the ingredients of marijuana, stating that marijuana (dagga) contains more than 400 different chemicals, with the major mind-altering ingredients being Delta-9-Tetrahydro-cannabinol; it is also very apparent that dagga has many detrimental effects upon the user, and is highly addictive.
According to Hoberg (2001: 259), the local street name for marijuana (dagga) in the South African context is a joint, grass, zol, boom, skyf, poison, hash and majat. Hoberg (2001) further elaborates that the drug is relatively cheap in South Africa. Dagga is extremely emotionally addictive; and it is very popular, and known for its ability to induce a feeling of wellbeing and euphoria – in order to escape from reality (Hoberg, 2001).

Marijuana (dagga) is one drug that is rife amongst adolescents – for the hallucinogenic feelings and state induced in a user (Sempe, 2007).

Africa continues to be a major source of cannabis found in illicit markets in the region; and it is often smuggled out of the region – mainly to Europe. Approximately 60% of teenagers who are involved in drugs use cannabis. This is an estimate reached by a study conducted in the US (www.teendrugabuse.us.marijuana.html). The article further elaborates that of the 14.6 million marijuana users recorded in 2002; approximately 4.8 million used it habitually on 20 or more days in any given month.

The article laments that between 1991 and 2001, the percentage of grade 8 learners who used marijuana doubled from 1 in 10 to 1 in 5. Research further indicates that the earlier teenagers start using marijuana, the higher the likelihood they are going to be dependent on the drug, or other
drugs later in life. Of the teens admitted in treatment centres for marijuana
dependence, 56% had first used the drug at the age of 14 years; and 26%
had begun using the drug when at 12 years of age
(www.teendrugabuse.us.marijuana.html).

The world drug report 2011 reports on studies undertaken in a few
developed countries (including the US, Australia and the United Kingdom).
The studies provide an indication of the risk factors and cannabis-use
patterns in some high-prevalence countries. The indicators are stipulated
as follows:

- **Experimental:** experimental cannabis users try the drug for the
  first time in adolescence; and they constitute a group of people
  who want to experience illegal drugs; but for the majority of
  these people, a single experience with cannabis suffices. The
  report suggests that poor relations with parents, depression
  symptoms, exposure to drug-using peers and the accessibility of
  drugs are important factors for initiation into illicit drugs.
  However, adolescent’s beliefs and values favourable to the use
  of cannabis and associations with cannabis-using peers are the
  strongest predictors of cannabis experimentation. Sensation
  seeking in adolescence represents a propensity towards novel
  experiences, and could also lead to the experimental use of

- **Recreational:** recreational users use cannabis mostly at
  weekends, and are likely to have used or use other drugs, and
  have a more active night life than other users.
The report states that these users report that the main purpose of their use of cannabis is to reach a social high; and that they also use it to relax, enhance activity, decrease boredom, increase confidence, reduce anxiety and to feel better (World Drug Report, 2011).

- Long-term or chronic use: the world drug report 2011 continues to make mention of the relative fact/opinion that people who start using cannabis at a very early age, and those who have used other illicit drugs are more likely to continue using cannabis in their mid-30’s or beyond, suggesting that cannabis is part of their routine lifestyle choice(s).

These individuals report using cannabis to enhance positive feelings, and perceive the drug as having calming effects on them; and they may use it for stress-coping purposes. It is very evident that greater anti-social behaviour distinguishes chronic users from recreational or experimental users; and it has been reported that psycho-social factors, antisocial personality disorder and alcohol dependence could predict cannabis use (World Drug Report, 2011).

Hoberg (2001) outlined the often severe withdrawal symptoms suffered by individuals addicted to the drug as follows:

- Restlessness;
- Aggression;
- Insomnia;
Mood swings;
Lack of self-control;
Lethargy, irritability, nausea, decreased appetite and headaches.

The physical ailments suffered from marijuana use are stipulated as follows:

- Distortion of perception;
- Leads to toxic psychosis;
- Physical damage through bronchial irritation;
- Increased risk of throat and lung cancer;
- Chromosome damage;
- Interference with ovulation hormones and sterility.

In Du Pont (1984: 78), the author recorded the views of a panel of scientists with regard to the effects of marijuana use on the Central Nervous System; and these views are outlined as follows:

- Acute effects of marijuana smoking include feelings of euphoria, but marijuana use can also cause disturbing mental experiences including short periods of anxiety, confusion or psychosis.
- Marijuana impairs or interferes with short-term memory, slows the learning process, interferes with oral communication, and may trigger temporary confusion and delirium. These effects are of special concern because high school learners who use marijuana
tend to use the drug during school time. The learning defect in particular persists for hours after the euphoria or high has worn off.

- Chronic or heavy use of marijuana is associated with behavioural and mental disorders in people.
- Marijuana has worrisome sometimes harmful short-term effects on reflexes, physical effectiveness and vision.
- Marijuana use significantly impairs motor co-ordination and the perceptual ability to follow a moving object and to detect a flash of light: factors which pose a substantial risk when driving a motor vehicle or other machinery (including industrial).
- DuPont (1984) posits that the panel of experts, as a group, found it difficult to determine whether marijuana use is a cause or an effect to the so-called “amotivational syndrome”, which produces apathy, poor school-work and poor job-performance.
- The panel concluded that there is no convincing evidence of long-term behavioural effects persisting after marijuana use stops, although, it is also not clear that such effects do not occur.
- Marijuana and its by-products can remain in the brain and other organs of the body for long periods of time, even months, with unknown but possibly subtle effects.
- The long-term effects of marijuana on the human brain and on the behaviour are not yet known, but the short-term effects are of sufficient import, as to encourage and accelerate intensive research concerning possible long-term consequences (DuPont, 1984).
2.3.3 Mandrax (methaqualone)

According to Leggett, Louw, Parry and Pluddermann (2004: 160), mandrax is a combination of drugs that were formerly sold as pharmaceutical sedative tablets. Usually sold in tablet form, it contains methaqualone and either diphenhydramine (which is found in the sleep aid “Nytol”) or diazepam (a sedative sold under the brand name “Valium”) (Leggett et al. 2004: 160). According to DuPont (1984: 10), depressants (like methaqualone) depress excitable tissues at all levels of the brain; they relax the body’s muscles and bring on sleep by slowing down messages to the central nervous system.

The UNODC world report 2011 reports particularly on seizures conducted for the period 2004 – 2009, 564kg of mandrax (methaqualone) were seized in South Africa in 2004, and 723kg and 420 000 units were seized in 2009. Law-enforcement sources estimate that the bulk of mandrax consumed in South Africa is mainly imported from overseas, principally China and India (Roone, 2002; as citing ISS 2002). The author further posits, with reference to the ethnical dynamics involved in the South African social environment that wholesaling remains in the control of the Coloureds (particularly organised gangs) and Indian/Asian communities.
Roone (2002) concurs that retail selling and consumption are still found to be found disproportionately high among the Coloured and Indian/Asian populations, although all the ethnic groups participate at this level.

The researcher makes mention of a study conducted by Leggett et al. (2004) entitled “A profile of illicit drug-using offenders and dealers in Gauteng, South Africa: The results of arrestee monitoring and docket research”, in which the essential findings of the study were that 50% of Coloured arrestees and 39% of Indian arrestees were found to be most likely to test positive for mandrax. Furthermore, from the findings, a possible profile of a mandrax user, the study maintains, could be:

- Male
- Indian or Coloured
- Under the age of 25
- Arrested for burglary, shopliftings, theft out of a motor vehicle, drug-related crimes, or has been in violation of the firearms act.

The manner of administration/ingestion of the drug is when it is crushed and smoked with a mixture of tobacco and “majat” (low grade cannabis often dried with a volatile solvent) usually using a broken bottle neck, referred to as a white pipe; and this is a drug usage found only in South Africa (Leggett, 2002). The white pipe is a South African innovation; and it is deep-rooted in the culture of certain South African populations,
especially the Coloured gangs of the Western Cape Province. One unusual requirement of the market is that mandrax only be sold in tablet form, despite the fact that it is crushed back into powder before consumption in any case (Leggett, 2002). The author maintains that the pill presses are closely monitored in South Africa; but the market demand for tablets is so strong that this risk cannot be avoided.

Extensively, Leggett (2002) provides descriptive information about the mandrax tablet; they are branded as a way of telling one manufacturer’s product from another – although the most popular brands have been reused to the point that these markings have meanings only in a given locality at a given time. The author further maintains that some of the more common brands are marked with swastikas (the so-called ‘German mark’), stars (including the stars of David), ‘golf club’ (sometimes resembling the VW logo) and other symbols combining the letters M and X; while most are purple/ blue/grey in colouring (Leggett, 2002).

Hoberg (2001) outlines the hazards of mandrax use as follows:

- Causes aggression
- Mental disorientation and confusion
- Serious respiratory and circulatory collapses
- Characterised by serious physiological dependence
- Can lead to cardio-vascular arrest and coma
2.3.4 Heroin

According to Hoobler and Hoobler (1988), heroin is derived from the poppy flower or “papaver somniferum”, which grows in many areas of Asia and Europe, as well as in Mexico. The authors further postulate that most of the heroin sold in the US comes from the Golden Crescent Area, the region where Pakistan, Iran and Afghanistan meet. The opium-growing regions of these three nations are often not under the control of their respective governments.

According to Bartol and Bartol (2008: 550), heroin is the most-heavily used illegal narcotic in the US. The authors maintain that the data from the 2004 National Survey on drug use and health indicate that 1.4% of Americans (3.1 million) aged 12 and older, had used heroin at least once in their lifetime; and there were approximately 186,000 Americans who said that they had used heroin within the month preceding the survey.

Du Pont (1984: 9) makes provision for a chemical make-up of heroin by stating that it is a substance within the class opioids. The author reports the following with regard to opioids:
“They are also called narcotic analgesics; and these drugs are often used medically to deal with pain. This class includes morphine and other alkaloids of opium. Narcotics like opium, its derivatives or synthetic substitutes, are used medically to relieve intense pain, suppress coughs, remedy diarrhoea, and induce a drowsy euphoric state. These drugs are used non-medically for their intense euphoric effect, a dream-like sense of wellbeing and relaxation”.

According to Annette Hubschle, a senior researcher at the Institute of Security Studies (ISS, 2008), heroin is fast becoming the drug of choice of the youth and adults in many Southern African countries. The author further states that heroin is an opiate, which acts as a depressant of the Central Nervous System. Historically, users have used heroin intravenously by way of injection. Improvements in the purity of heroin and the fear of HIV infection have resulted in more users smoking or snorting heroin. ISS (2008) maintains that of great discomfort is a surge in the consumption of a heroin and cannabis mixture that has been registered in South Africa, and is referred to as “Ungah” in Cape Town, “Sugars” in Durban, “Nyaope” in Gauteng and “Pinch” in Mpumalanga.

A phenomenon referred to as “chasing the dragon” has been emerging in recent drug scenes, as a mode of administration of the drug, this means heating the heroin and inhaling the subsequent fumes; it is no less addictive than injection.
Roone (2002) posits that heroin use was uncommon until very recently, possibly because most South Africans are not familiar with injecting drugs, a trend which remains unchanged. The author elaborates further, making mention of the understanding that the availability of high-purity smokeable heroin has increased the drug’s appeal; and this, coupled with the reported “loss-leader” supply-driven marketing strategies by trafficking groups who deliberately target upper and middle-income consumers, has resulted in dramatic increases in heroin use since 1999.

In fact, the year 2001 witnessed significant escalations in the number of people presenting themselves for treatment who indicated heroin as their primary substance of abuse (Roone, 2002). The author concurs that the second half of 2001 also witnessed a new feature in the local drug scene, the emergence of heroin addicts among the impoverished Black/African communities in South Africa’s urban and peri-urban areas. According to Elliot-Wright (2004) studies indicate that heroin use is still more prevalent in poorer areas; and there is evidence to enhance the understanding that heroin use is increasing in rural areas and across different social groups.

The reason for this is possibly the fact that large crops of opium are available; and street heroin is increasing in purity and falling in price, subsequently resulting in better-quality heroin being available to more people (Elliot-wright, 2004).
With regard to the extent of heroin abuse in different communities throughout the South African society, Pluddermann, Parry, Bhana and Dada (in National Drug Master Plan (2012 – 2016) extrapolate that heroin as a primary drug of abuse remained fairly stable except in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, where it has declined significantly from 30% to 17% of patients reporting as such.

The high proportion in this Province is seen as the result of the use of “sugars” by young Indian males in South Durban. The NDMP (2012 – 2016) further maintains that heroin is mostly being smoked; but there has been an increase in the injection-drug use – with between 9% and 31% of patients reporting as such.

With regard to trends of the number of users of the heroin drug, the NDMP (2012 – 2016) reports that opiates were used by 0.3% (0.079 million) people of the population of South Africa in 2004, compared with a global figure of 0.4% in 2005/6 or 0.12 million people – resulting in an increase of 25%, with the figures of 2008 approximating 0.10 million, resulting in a decrease of 20%.

Fields (2001, 67) stipulates the withdrawal symptoms suffered by drug abusers as follows:
Appetite suppression;
Nausea and vomiting;
Dilated pupils;
Gooseflesh or increased pylomotor activity, the skin resembles a plucked turkey;
Intestinal spasms;
Chills alternating with flushing and sweating;
Crying and tearing, nasal inflammation; and
Depressive moods and tremor.

With regard to the physical effects suffered by heroin users, Elliot-Wright (2004: 33) stipulates the following:

Additives: street heroin may be mixed with various substances, any of which may be a poison or a rather sharp object used to refine the substance; and many of these additives do not dissolve in the blood; and eventually, they may clog the blood vessels, which leads to the lungs, liver, kidneys or brain – and the result of this can be an infection.

Respiratory: Conditions which affect the lungs, such as pneumonia, asthma and tuberculosis.

Hepatitis: it is a serious inflammation of the liver, caused by infection with any one of a number of hepatitis viruses. It can cause fever, fatigue, headaches and jaundice, and can ultimately trigger liver failure and cancer.
➢ Tetanus: it is an infection which enters the body through the puncture wound left by the needle. It acts on the nerves, which control muscle activity, causing muscle stiffness, headaches and fever. As the illness progresses, the muscles may go into painful spasms; and if the throat or chest is affected, breathing difficulties may occur; and there is a risk of suffocation.

➢ Collapsed veins: damage to some veins in an area means that blood is pumped there faster than the remaining veins can carry it away. Another problem associated with collapsed veins is that the user runs out of veins in which to inject; and resorts to injecting in other areas, including the groin, genitals or even the eyeball.

➢ Abscesses: abscesses are inflamed pus-filled areas of the flesh. They are usually swollen and painful; and they may also feel hot to the touch. These develop, as a result of the unhygienic injection of bacteria under the skin. They enter the body through the puncture made by the needle, and set up an infection.

➢ Heroin and pregnancy: In the use of heroin whilst pregnant, the individual is more likely to have a miscarriage (where the foetus dies in the early stages of pregnancy and is expelled by the body).
2.4 Social factors contributing to drug abuse

According to Lawson and Lawson (1992), the interactions between the adolescent and those around him/her, including family processes with the family of origin, nuclear family, and extended family members, affect an adolescent’s substance abuse. The author importantly notes that the education process or involvement with school (peer group and cultural or ethnic background) is often important to an individual’s self-image (social factors determine not only whether an adolescent will drink or use drugs, but also how they will view themselves afterward); and that it also contributes to a person’s motivation to change offensive behaviour.

In the discussion of the sociological factors which are conducive to alter or affect an individual’s decision to start, continue, or stop (alcohol) abuse; Lawson & Lawson (1992: 8 quoting Tarter & Schneider, 1976) have identified 14 variables to this end, as follows:

- Childhood exposure to alcohol and drinking models;
- The quantity of alcohol that is considered appropriate or excessive in his/her family;
- Family-drinking customs;
- The type of alcoholic beverage used;
- Levels of inhibition considered safe by the family;
- The symbolic meaning of alcohol;
- The family attitude toward public intoxication;
The social group associated with drinking;
Activities associated with drinking;
The amount of pressure exerted on the individual to drink and continue drinking;
The use of alcohol in a social or private context;
The individual’s mobility in changing drinking preference groups;
The social rewards or punishments for drinking.

2.4.1 Group norms

Swaim et al. (in Lauer, 1998: 118) maintain the opinion that group norms are one of the most important factors in the drug problem, creating peer pressure that leads individuals to drug use. The author postulates that for the most part, young people do not take drugs to relieve emotional distress, but rather to be accepted by their peers. Being integrated into a group in which drug use is approved is one of the strongest factors associated with drug use at all stages. It is argued that the youth who use drugs find particular rewards in that usage – especially when it is the norm of his/her group, including administration, respect and acceptance.
2.4.2 Role problems

These are a second structural factor in the drug problem (Lauer, 1998). Role problems create stress in the individual, who may then use drugs to deal with the problems and the consequent stress. Hirschman, Leventhal and Glynn (in Lauer (1998: 118) state that once a youth/ an adolescent tries a cigarette – either peer pressure or stress can lead to subsequent attempts, but stress seems to lead the individual more quickly to develop the habit.

The period in transition to adolescence has an element of susceptibility to drug abuse; Condrin (in Dube 2007: 23) contends that during this period, an adolescent’s “sense of self” can influence sexual behaviour, adaptation of unfamiliar practices and reaction to peer pressure; and can be affected by the adolescent’s parents. A “sense of self” is the adolescent’s self-evaluation of his/her progress in four key developmental areas:

- Identity information, independence and peer relationship
- Avoidance of alcohol and drug usage
- Low sense of self-esteem are more likely to lead to the use of alcohol and “hard” drugs, such as ecstasy and cocaine
- Parental involvement strongly correlates with the teen’s sense of self and the decisions they make regarding alcohol and drug use (Dube, 2007: 23).
Oetting and Beauvais (in Hoberg 2001) maintain that school-going adolescents who use drugs hardly ever do so in isolation. Adolescent drug abusers are almost always influenced by their peers; and they usually act in peer clusters. Erikson (in Hoberg 2001) concurs that adolescence is mainly a time when the most important aspect of development is the attainment of an own identity; and peer group opinion often carries the most weight.

Peer-group influence is not exclusively negative; and “these groups (peer clusters) serve as the adolescent’s primary bridge to the future: they provide a sense of belonging, which is especially important during this period of transition between being a child and becoming an adult (Hoberg, 2001; as quoting Wenar, 1990: 61). Currently, the strong emphasis on individuality, together with the breakdown of the family, has led to an adolescent period, which is characterised by reliance on peers as a source of reference and self-definition. Thus, it is of crucial importance that the manner in which the world of the adolescent is influenced by peers, with regard to their socialisation, be understood, a sentiment echoed equally by Hoberg (2001).

2.4.3 Family structures

Family factors are influential in the genesis of adolescent drug abuse and behavioural problems. Poor relationships with parents and inadequate
child-rearing practices are closely linked to adolescent drug abuse (Johnson, in Dube 2007). Lauer (1998: 119) adequately maintains that family experiences are also involved in the use and abuse of drugs. The author is of the view that in a positive way, families, which are strong, healthy and highly cohesive, tend to inhibit the use and abuse of drugs.

Family values, such as strong religious beliefs and practices are far less likely to lead to the use and abuse drugs. During the many years that the family is together, family members develop habitual patterns of behaviour and repeat these behaviours a thousand times (Lauer, 1998). Dube (2007) concurs that in this way each individual becomes accustomed to act and respond in a certain manner within the family; each member’s actions elicit a certain reaction from another – over and over again – over time. The author maintains that these repetitive sequences give the family its own form and style; and thus family influences may be experienced as invisible forces.

Dube (2007) further maintains that these forces include spoken or unspoken expectations, rules for managing conflicts (intra-personal) and implicitly or explicitly assigned roles. The family’s lack of skills to manage a misbehaving youth can create a force that makes the adolescent inappropriately powerful in the family. Lauer (1998:119) noted that there exist three kinds of family experiences, which can contribute to substance abuse: firstly, there is the fact that drug abusers are more likely to come from homes where other family members are abusers. Secondly, drug abusers are more likely to come from broken homes than are non-
abusers; in that, adolescents who grow up in single-parent homes are more likely to use tobacco and marijuana and other illegal drugs than those who live with both their parents (Flewelling and Bauman, in Dube 2007).

Thirdly, drug abuse is associated with various problematic relationships within the family, such problems as severe as sexual abuse in the family. Lawson and Lawson (1992) advocate that if there exists a history of alcoholism or substance abuse in the parents or the grandparents, an adolescent may have a physical predisposition to addiction. The authors further postulate that there is little or nothing of a physical nature that can be done to reduce this predisposition; but it is rather useful for the adolescent to be aware of such a phenomenon; so that s/he can take precautions to avoid undue risks, which may lead to substance abuse.

2.4.4 Drug abuse and the school environment

Drug use is a major problem for the school-attending adolescent for the reason that such use drastically undermines a learner’s academic ability and performance. As reported by a profile of clients receiving treatment for cannabis as their primary drug of abuse/concern in the US (2000 – 2008), provided by the World Drug Report 2011, it is inferred that cannabis users in treatment:
➢ Are most likely adolescents or young adults, single and male with secondary – level schooling (one third of clients are less than 17 years old).

➢ Are most likely not in the work force, that means either unemployed or learners.

➢ Initiated their use of cannabis at a very young age, more than half by the age of 14 and almost 90% before the age of 18 (www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/WDR2011The_cannabis_market.pdf).

According to Dube (2007), making reference to the (Government gazette) postulates that drugs can disrupt the entire school, when several learners in a class abuse drugs or absent themselves because of the drug abuse, the progress of all the other learners is impeded upon. The author further concurs that drug use brings illegal practices affiliated to drugs such as prostitution, theft, and sale of drugs in the schooling environment. None of these practices are to the development of a healthy and productive life.

In a newspaper article (Sunday times) edited by Bheki Luthuli (2011) it is reported that as a measure of opening new markets among school children, Eastern Cape gangsters have begun “lacing” flavoured milk with “tik” (methamphetamine) to get these children hooked on the drug. Law enforcement in the Eastern Cape has had a firm grip on drugs and by so doing; this has resulted in most gangsters running in financial debt due to the steep legal fees they have had to pay out. For this reason, drug lords
have begun targeting/recruiting school children by getting them hooked on “tik” and using them as peddlers. The article maintains that crime intelligence sources state that the recruitment drive was initiated by gang leaders in an attempt to stop rival gangs from moving into their turf whilst their members are sitting in jail awaiting bail.

In the similar newspaper, another article edited by Sipho Masombuka (2011) postulates that school pupils get arrested for the possession of drugs but dealers in Pretoria appear to be operating with impurity. The article argues that the Police raided five schools in Mamelodi and Soshanguve, Pretoria, in the process arresting 18 pupils carrying drugs, and pupils/learners were subjected to urine testing. Parents and various NGO’s regard that very useless to target pupils/learners whilst the suppliers are operating freely. Nomvula Goma, founder of the Sithuthukisa Bonke Drug Crisis Centre, said the police were “targeting the wrong people” by raiding schools, they should instead focus their attention and resources in rooting out the suppliers, the sources of the problems.

2.4.5 Drugs and the culture of violence

South Africa’s complex history of colonialism, industrialisation and militarisation has produced the incumbent conditions for interpersonal and criminal violence of multiple kinds to flourish (Wood, Lambert and Jewkes, 2008). The National Crime Prevention Strategy (1996: 15) echoes similar
sentiment as that of the aforementioned authors, arguing that South Africa’s history of confrontation has bequeathed to the country, “a culture of violence”. Violence in South Africa has become normative rather than deviant and has come to be regarded as an acceptable means of resolving social, political and even domestic conflict.

The researcher confidently concurs that the rising rates of domestic violence incidences, the notable increases in sexual assaults in recent times, the heightened emphases on awareness campaigns for violence against women and children, the atrocious xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals and the vigilantism and brutal violence perpetrated by community mobs on suspected offenders as means of “mob” justice; these incidences all bear testimony to the view that the South African citizenry has been conditioned into regarding violence as the most valid means to resolve disputes. The South African society has been subconsciously instilled with a culture of violence.

According to Pelser and de Kock (2000: 1), violence and crime, which characterised South Africa before the first democratic elections in 1994, have changed in character: from serving a political agenda to unbridled acts of violence and crime – preying on the seeming absence of social control mechanisms. The researcher advertently maintains that the prevalence of, in particular, assaults (with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm) in the Letlhabile area, suggests the great extent to which the phenomenon has infiltrated the very social fabric of the community.
Jones, Peterson and Carolissen (in Parkes, 2007) maintain that apartheid and colonialism have left a legacy of continuing disparities and rates of violent crime that are amongst the highest in the world, particularly in poorer communities, in which people are 80 times more likely to be victims of violent crime than they are in affluent neighbourhoods. The author further postulates that families are now faced with multiple social stresses, with high rates of unemployment, substance abuse, extensive gangsterism and criminal and domestic violence.

The increase in crime is attributed to the destruction of social-control mechanisms, the enormous social and economic disparity, unemployment and underdevelopment – and the continued persistence of a general culture of violence in the country (Hamber, 2000). Kynoch (2008), referring to the culture of violence inherently deep-rooted in South African society, states that: “Much evidence suggests that concepts of South African exceptionalism need to take account of the extraordinary degree of the urban violence that distinguishes South Africa from its colonial contemporaries.

A brutalising mining environment, combined with racial ordinances that criminalised Africans and Coloureds, and exposed vast numbers of men to prison and prison gangs, [has] produced a culture of urban violence unique in Colonial Africa”. According to Interpol (in Naudé 2005: 1), one
out of three crimes recorded in South Africa involves violence, or the threat of violence. “South Africa is the only country in the world where all the major categories of violent crime (murder, robbery, aggravated assaults and rape) have shown an increase during the early 2000s.

The researcher deems it necessary to make mention of the disturbing fact that in the Letlhabile policing area, a total of 387 incidents of assaults (with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm) were reported to authorities for the period between April 2010 and March 2011.

Aggravated assault is defined as the unlawful attempt or attack upon another – with the purpose of inflicting severe bodily injury, usually accompanied by the use of a weapon or some other means likely to produce death or serious bodily harm (Gilbert, 2007: 253). As mentioned before, the prevalence of this phenomenon in the Letlhabile community is a matter that needs stringent attention by authorities, and warrants the thorough scrutiny thereof to understand the reasons for its prevalence.

Pelser and de Kock (2000: 86) advocate that it is internationally accepted that urbanisation of the youth (especially between the ages 15 to 29) and the social processes that accompany such urbanisation, are very conducive to crime. The authors further elaborate that in South Africa, the roles of rapid, almost abnormally high levels of urbanisation and urban employment as contributors to crime should be afforded the necessary
consideration. Pelser and de Kock (2000) stipulate findings, which point to specific social trends in violent behaviour, as follows:

- An analysis of an extensive sample of murder dockets indicates that most murders occur at the weekend, especially on a Saturday afternoon or evening – after the liquor outlets are closed. In most cases, the perpetrator, the victim or both were under the influence of alcohol. An argument ensues, which usually leads to a common assault, with the probability of escalating into serious bodily harm, which may even end in murder. The weapons used are either a knife or a broken bottle. Shape and Virkkunen (in Christoffersen et al., 2005) echo similar sentiments; as they maintain that the well-known association between alcohol and violence is continually reflected in lethal violence.

- Most of the violent crimes against the person have a definite seasonal cycle – with a very high annual peak in December to January – and a low in June to July. Weekends, especially long weekends, also reflect monthly peaks. These time fluctuations indicate that these violent crimes may be influenced by social behaviour over weekends, the Christmas season, and over long weekends (such as the Easter weekend).

- Victimisation surveys and Statistics South Africa (1998) have all indicated that violent crime against the person mostly occurs between victims and perpetrators known to each other.
Wood, Lambert and Jewkes (2008) state: “Violence is shown to configure lives and to be productive of relationships – in particular playing a part in the organisation of inequality within sexual relationships”. The authors explain that the aim of their research was to explore the place and intersection of different kinds of violence in personal and communal lives, and their embeddedness in everyday social hierarchies (most notably those related to gender). They focused on young people’s experiences and understandings of physical violence taking place within their sexual relationships.

According to Hesselink-Louw (2005: 55 – 59), chronic rates of community violence (such as assaults, assaults with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm, rape, robbery and murder) within the immediate neighbourhood reinforce the notion that violent and aggressive behaviour is indeed the largely accepted way of resolving conflict.

Childhood exposure to violent and aggressive behaviour, aggressive role models (negative and aggressive peers) desensitises one into accepting violence and aggression as methods of resolving conflict (Hesselink-Louw, 2005: 58). Rapp-Paglicci et al.; Ponce, Williams and Allen (in Hesselink-Louw, 2005: 58) further assert that research affirms that children who are exposed to violent and aggressive behaviour are four times more likely to suffer from psychological problems, such as anxiety and aggression problems. Experiencing, witnessing and internalising violence increases the chance of becoming a perpetrator of such violent crime later in life.
2.4.6 Dealing with the scourge of drug abuse

The NDMP (2012 – 2016) has echoed the importance of adapting an integrated and balanced approach to the substance abuse problem in our society. **Demand Reduction**: This refers to the reduction of the need for the substance by a variety of means, which include prevention by educating potential users, by making use of substances culturally undesirable (such as has been done with tobacco) and by imposing restrictions on the use of substances, for example by increasing the age at which alcohol may be used legally.

**Supply Reduction**: This could be achieved through the reduction of the quantity of the substances available on the market, or by destroying crops of cannabis (dagga) in the field. Efforts to strengthen and enhance support for the detection and prosecution of drug traffickers and their cargo entering the State through the various national ports of entry need to be stressed.

**Harm Reduction**: Such reduction is the process of limiting or ameliorating the damage caused to individuals or communities who have already succumbed to the temptations of dependence-forming substances. This can be achieved by treatment, after care, and the reintegration of restored addicts into our society.
In an article entitled: “Experts from the South African Development Community (SADC) region endorse the joint SADC-UNODC Regional Programme, aimed at making the region safer from drugs and crime”, it is mentioned that high level experts designated by the governments of SADC member States, UNODC and the SADC-secretariat were hosted by the Department of International Relations and Co-operation of the Republic of South Africa, in order to discuss the final draft of the joint SADC-UNODC Regional Programme aimed at making the SADC-region safer from drugs and crime:


It is recommended that the regional programme be seen as a broad strategic framework, which is divided into three thematic areas:

- Combating illicit trafficking, organised crime and terrorism;
- Criminal justice and integrity;

The WHO/UN-ODCCP (in Dube 2007:31) contends that the worldwide infiltration of drug abuse in our societies is a worrying concern for many. The establishment of the Global Initiative on the Primary Prevention of drug abuse in 1997 came as an answer to the public outcries. Dube (2007) contends that the initiative was a joint project of the United Nations
International Drug Control Programme and the World Health Organisation; and it was aimed at preventing the use of psychoactive drugs by young people.

The project was implemented from 1997 to 2003 in three regions of the world, where rapid/dramatic social change was in progress. It consisted of five sets of interrelated prevention activities based on the mobilisation of local communities, namely:

- Baseline assessments;
- The training of local partners;
- Public health interventions;
- The monitoring of activities; and
- Post-intervention assessments (Dube, 2007).

In essence, the evaluation of the activities led to the identification of best practices, which could be adopted by other communities who wished to address the problem of drug abuse amongst the youth/adolescents.

Dube (2007: 31) maintains that family-based programmes to reach families of children at each stage of development, have been implemented, as well as family programmes to train parents in behavioural skills. These programmes include the improvements to the parent-child relationship, including positive reinforcements, listening skills, monitoring the activities of the children, particularly during adolescence, and the development of consistent discipline and rule-making skills.
With regard to the inputs by the appropriate/relevant legislation, the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act, (Act no. 70 of 2008) makes provision that the Minister and ministers responsible for the Departments and organs of State listed in section 53 (2) (a) to (t), must take reasonable measures within the scope of their line functions and available resources to combat substance abuse through the development and co-ordination of interventions, which would address the demand reduction, harm reduction and supply-reduction needs to deal with substance abuse in society.

Section 5 (1) of the above-stated legislation provides that the Minister must, together with the National Youth Commission and ministers of Finance, Education, Health, Justice and Constitutional Development, Arts and Culture, Sports and Recreation, Local and Provincial Government, Correctional Services and Safety and Security, develop and implement comprehensive intersectoral strategies aimed at reducing the demand for and the harm caused by substance abuse.

The strategies are stipulated as follows:

A. **Strategies which include prevention that provides for:**

- Measures aimed at skills development for individuals, families and communities to enable them to enjoy a better quality of life;
➤ Anticipatory actions to reduce the likelihood of undesirable conditions, which could expose people to substance abuse, including information, communication and the education of members of the public on the risks associated with substance abuse.

➤ Proactive measures targeting individuals, families and communities to avoid the abuse of substances, and to prevent persons from moving to higher levels of substance abuse.

➤ The creation of opportunities for, and the promotion of healthy lifestyles.

B. Early intervention that provides for:

➤ The identification of risky behaviour, which is associated with and predisposes people to substance abuse.

➤ The detection of conditions, such as poverty and other environmental factors, which contribute to crime and substance abuse.

➤ Programmes to interrupt the progression of the abuse of substances, such as recreational drug use, to the higher levels of dependence through skills development and developmental socio-therapeutic interventions.

➤ Referral to treatment programmes where appropriate, to reduce the social, health and economic consequences for service users.
2.4.7 Summary on drugs and drug abuse

Drug abuse is a serious pandemic in many a society internationally. The phenomenon is proving to be a legitimate threat to the stability and growth of the economy, so that the supposed subsequent criminality is proven to be reducing foreign capital/investment. The literature has made mention of the social ills prevailing in our communities, which are affiliated or deep-rooted in drug abuse. Drugs have infiltrated schools – where adolescents are falling prey to drugs, and engage in continuous abuse; and familial environments have turned out to be conducive environments for the continuous abuse of drugs.

Counteracting drug abuse is a matter of importance, not only to the government and our economy, but also for the livelihoods of the individuals affected by the phenomenon. The National Drug Master Plan (2012 – 2016) makes provision for an integrated and balanced approach to the drug-abuse pandemic in our society. The strategy involves the reduction of the demand for drugs, the reduction in quantity of the drugs, and limiting the damage caused to both individuals and communities.
2.5 Burglary

The South African Police Service Act (No. 68 of 1995) stipulates the importance of the safety and security of all persons and property in the national territory, and the need for the ensuring of co-operation between the service and the communities it serves in the combating of crime; and yet it is against this backdrop that this research study was initiated. Property crime (burglaries) and crime against the person (assaults) are crimes on the peak, as mentioned in Chapter 1, the inhabitants of the community of Letlhabe blame the multitudes of drug-using youths for the incumbent crime situation in the community, thereby resulting in a vote of no confidence in the police to safeguard the community against the siege of criminality.

According to the official annual crime statistics, 422 incidents of residential burglary were reported at the Letlhabe Police Station for the period between April 2010 and March 2011, together with 257 incidents of theft (which were not mentioned elsewhere) during the same period (April 2010 and March 2011); and 387 incidences of assaults with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm between the same period (April 2010 and March 2011).

Burglary is a crime of opportunity; and it will occur as often as the opportunity is presented to the burglar, within his area of operation. Pena
(2000: 254) states that residential burglaries are increasing faster than non-residential burglaries, particularly in suburban areas undergoing rapid population growth. Van Zyl, Wilson and Pretorius (2003) assert that residential burglary remains a serious problem in South African society; and it will most probably continue to be so, for as long as large sections of the population are experiencing unemployment, estimated to be as high as 40% of the population; accompanied by the poverty and relative deprivation associated therewith.

It is for this reason, the researcher deemed it necessary to discuss the crime situation, dissecting the prevailing different phenomena (burglary and theft, as well as and assault) in the Letlhabile community. Elaborations or discussions about the social risk factors and all the underlying dynamics involved in the prevalence of such phenomena is of paramount importance – to ensure the understanding needed for dealing with the problems.

According to Bartol and Bartol (2008: 452), a burglary is the unlawful entry of a structure, with or without force, with the intent to commit a crime or theft therein. The authors further maintain that the FBI classifies burglary into three categories:

I. Forcible entry (forcible entries are those burglaries in which some evidence of breakage, prying or other evidence of forceful entry is
found, a broken window, a jimmied door, a loosened air conditioner, all may provide evidence of forcible entry);

II. Unlawful entry, where no force is used (unlawful entry where no force is used occurs when a burglar enters an unlocked residence uninvited, stealing items found there);

III. Attempted forcible entry (attempted forcible entry also shows evidence of force, although the perpetrator may not have achieved the actual entry).

Gilbert (2007:174) informs us that the Uniform Crime Report established that slightly over 2 million burglaries were reported in South Africa in a recent year. The author further postulates that the National Crime Surveys conducted by the Department of Justice indicate that only 50% of all burglary victims actually report the offence to the authorities. It has also been noticed in the US that the rate of occurrence (of burglaries) has significantly decreased in recent years; criminologists speculate that the three main factors responsible for such decreases may be:

- Drug addicts have switched from burglary to the more probable cash-producing crime of robbery;
- There has been a significant increase in the installation of home-security devices, as well as traditional prevention methods;
- A greater number of career burglars have been apprehended and imprisoned for long sentences (Gilbert, 2007).
Bartol and Bartol (2008) concur that 32.4% of burglaries in the US did not involve forced entry in 2004, that is, the offenders were afforded the opportunity to perpetrate such offences, and they entered through an unlatched window or unlocked door or used a key “hidden” in an obvious place, such as under a door mat. According to Hirschfield, Newton and Rogerson (2010), research has identified patterns in the distribution of domestic burglary, both at the area level and at the level of individual properties.

Cohen and Felson, (in Hirschfield, Newton and Rogerson 2010) maintain that the routine-activities theory explains the role of the physical and social environment in the generation of spatial concentrations of burglary. Offenders use available cues to discriminate between potential burglary targets.

According to Burger, Gould and Newham (2010), residential burglary began to increase in 2007/08 after having declined over the four-year period between 2003/4 and 2007/8. Burglaries at businesses began to increase a year earlier, during 2005/06, but unlike residential burglary; there is no history of a sustained decrease in this type of crime.

Accordingly, research informed by the rational choice theory also highlights offenders’ use of available cues, which signal the likely value of goods within the property, the lack of occupancy, poor security and low
levels of natural surveillance (Coupe and Blake; Nee & Taylor; Wright, Logie & Decker, in Hirschfield, Newton & Rogerson, 2010).

Schmalleger (2004) asserts that burglary continues to be a highly prevalent crime; and based on the examination of victimisation data in the US, the author states that 72% of households within the US are burglarised at least once over the average lifetime. “In essence, burglary is accompanied by fear, because the offense invades the sanctity and privacy of the home, and threatens the very existence of businesses.”

2.5.1 Characteristics of burglary

In the US, consistently, year after year, about two thirds of all reported burglaries involve residential property, while the remaining one third involves commercial establishments (Bartol & Bartol, 2008). In 2001, a slight majority of all burglaries occurred during the day; however, Schmalleger (2004) holds the perspective that residential burglaries are rather more likely to occur during the evening. The author further elaborates that most residential burglars commit their offences at a time when residents are unlikely to be home; and the knowledge of such information is important in target selection.
Van Zyl, Wilson and Pretorius (2003) advocate that the occurrence of residential burglaries implies the convergence of various factors in time and space that could create a favourable or conducive environment for the burglary to occur. Four components can be identified in the burglary process, namely: the environment (with reference to the macro-, meso- and micro-environment) in which the burglary occurs, the situational conditions which exist prior to the commission of the burglary, the burglary event and the responses of both the residents and the burglars involved in the burglary event.

Bartol and Bartol (2008) argue that in all property crimes, a psychological aspect of dehumanisation exists. The authors posit the view by stating that “most of them involve a dehumanisation, albeit in a different sense than the dehumanisation that often occurs in violence”. Dehumanisation occurs when a person or a group of persons see and treat certain individuals as objects, rather than as human beings. The authors elaborate on this understanding further by maintaining that when a person is not responding to the human qualities of other individuals, it becomes much more possible to act inhumanely toward them; therefore, offenders find it easier to see their victims as objects rather than as people; hence in most economic or property crimes, the offenders avoid confronting their victims directly.

They do not want to directly observe the economic, social and psychological discomfort suffered by the victims at their hands. The authors importantly note that in the victim’s absence, internal values and
social constraints are less effective, thereby allowing the offender to repress, deny or justify the crime more easily (Bartol and Bartol, 2008).

Gilbert (2007: 175) postulates that burglars are aware that the majority of victims are not at home during normal working hours; and that it is unusual for people to note carefully who is in their neighbourhood. The author reports that burglary rates rise to their peak during the summer months. This is mainly due to a variety of factors, including vacations, open windows and doors for ventilation (Gilbert, 2007).

The researcher makes firm mention of the social dynamics involved in burglary, emphasising/stressing the social ecology perspective of the offence. Schmalleger (2004) cites a study of residential burglary by Lawrence E. Cohen and David Cantor, in which they were interested in testing Michael Hindelang’s hypothesis that the affluence of a household was a more important factor in its selection as a target than was ease of access to the household. The author posits that this hypothesis was offered as a means to resolve the often contradictory findings of previous research on the relationship between the impact of income and race on burglary victimisation.

Cohen and Cantor sought to test Hindelang’s assertion by developing a measure of guardianship that distinguished between homes as more occupied (that is, someone in the home at least 15 hours during the week)
and those that were less occupied. The findings largely confirmed Hindelang’s hypothesis – in that the type of area was found to be the strongest predictor of burglary victimisation; however, the relationship between income and victimisation risk was not linear. The highest income households and the lowest income households in areas both within and outside the Central City had the similar victimisation risks (Schmalleger, 2004: 351).

Schmalleger (2004) further asserts “the ability of an individual’s living arrangements to predict victimisation risk may not be a significant factor in victimisation risk once [the] relevant structural factors are considered. The influence may be more of where the household is located and the nature of the surrounding households than that of a particular household”.

2.5.2 Typology of burglars

Schmalleger (2004) makes mention of Mike Maguire’s three-part typology of burglar types: low-level, middle-range and high-level burglaries. The typology is discussed as follows:

- Low-level: this type is primarily found amongst juveniles, they often perpetrate their crime “on the spur of the moment”. They usually work with others, and are easily dissuaded from a particular target by sound locks, alarms, and/or other security devices. The
rewards gained from offending for this group are generally not significant; and many desist from burglary as they get older, and as they feel the “pull of conventional relationships and fear of more severe adult sanctions”. Members of this group do not develop connections that allow them to move large volumes of stolen goods.

- Middle-range: burglars of this type are generally a bit older; although they might have begun their offending in burglary as juveniles. These offenders quite often go back and forth between legitimate pursuits and involvement in crime. The use of alcohol and other dangerous drugs is more common among middle-range offenders amongst the other groups of burglars. These offenders select targets that take into account both the potential pay-off and the risk involved; however, this groups is not as easily dissuaded by security devices as are the low-level burglars. While their take from their crime may be substantial at times; they lack the type of connections that would permit dealing in stolen goods on a large scale.

- High-level: these are the professionals. Burglary is an offence characterised by a large prevalence of co-offending, and high-level burglars work in organised crews; and they “are connected with reliable sources of information about targets”. Members of this group earn a good living from the proceeds of their crimes, which are carefully planned, including target selection, generally with the assistance of outside sources. These members are characterised as “misfits in a world that values precise schedule, punctuality and
disciplined subordination to authority. High-level burglars/thieves value the autonomy to structure life and work as they wish”. Professional burglars may be known to the police; but due to their “task force approach to organisation”, their activities remain largely concealed from detection. It is only high-level burglars who would attempt such large-scale thefts as art thefts or precious jewellery thefts. According to Bartol and Bartol (2008), this burglar demonstrates technical skill, maintains a good reputation for personal integrity amongst colleagues in the criminal subculture; he gets most of his income from burglary, and has at least been relatively successful at the crime.

The authors further advocate that the professional burglar is primarily motivated by money, but also but by self-satisfaction and accomplishment. When self-satisfaction and self-reinforcement are conditioned on certain accomplishments; these people are motivated to expend the effort needed to attain the desired goal, perhaps even independently of monetary gain. Far from operating from a standpoint of limited rationality, these offenders are calculated and carefully weigh the risks and benefits.
2.5.3 Selection of targets for burglary

According to Wright and Decker (in Schmalleger, 2004: 355), most residential burglars already have potential targets in mind prior to committing their offences. Generally, burglars select a target through their knowledge of occupants, “through receiving a tip”, or through observing a potential target. In Bernasco (2006), Brantingham and Brantingham; Brown and Altman; Cornish and Clarke assert that burglars follow a spatially structured, sequential and hierarchal decision process in selecting their targets.

These authors maintain that in the first stage, they select a suitable area, and only in the second stage, do they start to compare potential targets and then select a suitable one.

Nee and Taylor, (in Bartol and Bartol, 2008: 454) claim that there are at least four broad categories of relevant cues used by experienced residential burglars:

- Occupancy cues: such as letters or newspapers visible in the mailbox, motor vehicle presence, windows, blinds and curtains shut or open.
Wealth cues: such as the appearance of the house, the neighbourhood, the quality of the landscaping, the make(s) of the motor vehicle(s) driven and visible furnishings.

Lay-out cues: such as how easy it would be to gain access to the house or building, as well as to escape.

Security cues: such as the alarm systems, window locks and dead-bolt locks.

Carelessness by citizens in leaving their residences and garages unlocked, or otherwise inadequately secured, permits the opportunity for the burglar to steal. Residences should appear occupied at all times, particularly during the weekend absences of the occupants (some lights should be left both inside and out), bolt-locks on doors and windows can diminish the opportunity, engraved identification on easily pawned entertainment equipment can lessen the ease of conversion of the loot into money.

Ceccato, Haining and Signoretta (2002) cite research conducted by Wiles and Costello (2000), maintaining the understanding that the study showed that the residential areas with high offence and victimisation rates are generally on poorer housing estates and in some socially mixed city areas. The research suggests that the pattern firstly holds because poorer areas contain plenty of suitable targets (cars, home entertainment systems, etc); and secondly, offenders tend to live in these areas and offend close to
home, rather than conducting long-range instrumental searches across a city.

Schmalleger (2004: 355) posits that residential burglars interviewed by Wright and Decker (1994) rarely selected residences of close friends and relatives as targets; however, they did quite often purposefully select as targets residences of individuals otherwise known to them. The context of a job also provided offenders the opportunity to get to know the occupants of the household, and the daily routine, as well as the suitability of the target.

Wealthy areas also have high vulnerability to residential burglary; because they provide attractive targets for offenders, at the same time, multi-family housing areas have high rates of residential burglary – because they may be located close to where offenders live (Ceccato, Haining and Signoretta, 2002). The researcher is of the opinion that target selection is the “trigger” that triggers the conscious rational decision to commit a burglary.

Van Zyl, Wilson and Pretorius (2003) posit that the vulnerability of a particular residential location; and the likelihood that a burglar will target that specific neighbourhood can be explained in terms of the following factors:
The affluence of neighbourhoods: Residences in more affluent neighbourhoods could be more vulnerable to residential burglary than residences in less-affluent neighbourhoods, because of the possibility of an abundance of goods available in the more-affluent neighbourhoods.

Accessibility of neighbourhoods: a residence in a neighbourhood that has good access roads may be more vulnerable to residential burglary than a residence in a neighbourhood that has limited access roads. Good access roads provide the burglar with the opportunity to gain easy access to and exit from the target area. Residences next to or near open fields, green zones, rivers or parks may have added vulnerability; because the burglars can move more freely and unnoticed in these areas. The authors further elaborate that residential areas that are characterised by a diversity of enterprises or activities, as a result of for example, their proximity to public places and shopping centres, and the presence of small businesses and new building projects, may be more exposed to the movement or gathering of relatively high volumes of strangers, than residential areas that have a more homogeneous character.

Suitable targets: the authors maintain that, according to the rational choice theory (Cornish & Clark, 1986: 9; Brantingham & Brantingham, 1981: 28; Brown & Altman, 1981: 58), the process of burglary involves a series of sequential decision-making judgements by the burglar. The initial decision to burgle may be motivated by personal needs; whilst the selection of a suitable
target is taken upon a well-established crime template, based on experiencial knowledge and environmental cues, associated with good targets. It is imperative to understand that once the template is established, it becomes relatively fixed and can influence the search behaviour, thereby becoming self-reinforcing.

- **Situational conditions:** the situational conditions refer to the local conditions prevailing in the micro-environment prior to the commission of the burglary. (Cornish & Clark, 1986: 9; Brantingham & Brantingham, 1981: 28; Brown & Altman, 1981: 58) postulate that the more favourable the burglar perceives these conditions, the greater the likelihood that he will proceed with the burglary. The situational conditions that may have a significant effect on the vulnerability of the residences include these factors: residents’ activities and characteristics, surveillance and visibility, the design features of a residence and security protection.

### 2.5.4 Burglary motives

Research conducted in Texas and St Louis, contends that it is safe to say that active burglars do not as a whole have a conventional lifestyle; furthermore, most of their everyday concerns revolve around maintaining their street status and supporting a lifestyle of self-indulgence; and often the gratuitous consumption of drugs (Schmalleger, 2004: 354).
Schmalleger (2004: 354) confidently asserts that across several research studies on active offenders, the most prevalent rationale behind the offence of residential burglary is economic in nature; a need for fast cash. However, this need for cash is not necessarily characterised by the demand to satisfy the basic necessities of life, or to maintain a conventional lifestyle.

Pena (2000: 254) postulates that many of these young or casual burglars are drug users who support their habits by the proceeds from their burglaries; while others burglarise to augment their income, or for the thrill derived from the stealing. The researcher firmly maintains that one of the accelerants of the offence is the secret connections/associations with fences. (FENCE: this is the receiver of stolen goods; and in many cases, it is an ostensibly legitimate business person. As such, he or she is frequently in a position not only to convert stolen goods into cash; but s/he often can function as a source of information to the burglars, as to low-risk or lucrative opportunities. Many fences function as banks for burglars, by making provision for bail money, hideout money and locations. Without the fences, most of the casual burglary system would most definitely quickly disappear (Pena, 2000: 255).

Bartol and Bartol (2008) echo the same sentiments as the previous authors, stating that when performed competently, burglary is a lucrative business with low risks and monetary rewards far surpassing those the burglar might earn in the straight world. For many burglars however, a
simple conclusion that they participate in their crimes as their sole profession or lucrative business may be unwarranted; since, as mentioned above, a vast majority of burglaries are committed to supplement the offender’s income – and to improve their quality of life. The income gained from burglary enables the offender to purchase drugs, alcohol, expensive goods, and provides more money for partying (Bartol & Bartol, 2008).

Schmalleger (2004: 354) makes important mention of the fact that some offenders selected committing the offence of burglary as their “main line”. The author mentions that in interviews conducted by Wright and Decker, a point of note emerged, in that the offenders regarded themselves as “hustlers” (people who are always looking to get through life by making some fast cash); and they would commit offenses other than burglary if a chance opportunity presented itself; but otherwise, they maintained the stance with the familiar crime, which was burglary.

Repetto; Bennett and Wright; Wright and Decker, (in Van Zyl, Wilson and Pretorius 2003), mention that burglars are motivated by the need for money more than anything else: whether the need is real, or perceived, or by greed. Burglars are very often involved in alcohol abuse and the use of drugs, which drastically increases their need for money.
2.5.5 Summary on burglary

The researcher makes provision for academic studies and criminological theories in an attempt to explain the prevalence of burglaries in our societies from these perspectives. Cohen and Felson; Kennedy and Forde; Koening and Hinden, (in Malczewski & Poetz, 2005) suggest that much evidence shows that residential burglary is largely a crime of opportunity; and criminological studies employ the routine activities hypothesis to argue consistently.

This is based on the understanding that the act of burglary requires three elements: a motivated offender; suitable targets; and the absence of capable guardians. The three elements must be present simultaneously for a burglary to occur. Furthermore, the author posits that the routine activities argument also highlights the tendency of burglars to commit offences in their neighbourhoods, suggesting that communities located close to where offenders live are thus more vulnerable.

Another explanation/interpretation may be based on the affluence or deprivation hypothesis, which suggests that affluent neighbourhoods tend to have relatively less residential burglaries than disadvantaged communities (Sampson and Wooldredge, 1987; Kennedy and Forde, 1990; Milette and Meier, 1994).
The literature also suggests that the area-variability hypothesis indicates that socially mixed neighbourhoods with a high population turn-over experience more crime (Ceccato, Haining and Signoretta, 2002; Herbert 2002; Haining, 2003: 367 – 76).

The local social control hypothesis suggests that ordered and well-organised neighbourhoods with a strong sense of community identity experience less crime (Bursik and Grasmick, 1993; Hancock, 2001; Herbert, 2002). These hypotheses provide the basis for analysing the relationships between the risks of residential burglary and neighbourhood contextual variables (Cohen and Felson; Kennedy and Forde; Koening and Hinden, in Malczewski & Poetz, 2005).

It is important to note that the researcher gives a broad theoretical exposition on the possible reasons for drug abuse and criminality (with specific reference to burglary) in Chapter 5 of this study.

The researcher is of the understanding that criminality is heavily rooted in predisposing and precipitating factors. The predisposing factors referred to are those, which make provision for the motive and the desire to execute or perpetrate an act of criminality. The precipitating factors herein referred to are those factors, which make adequate use of the opportunity (physical
and environmental) and most probably the probability to perpetrate a criminal act.

The literature adequately provides knowledge pertaining to the prevalence of the above-mentioned factors in an individual’s decision-making capacity. During target selection, burglars weigh various options and question the ultimate desire to burgle a specific dwelling. The researcher also makes firm mention of the inherent culture of violence prevalent in South African society. “South Africa’s complex history of colonialism, industrialisation and militarisation has produced the incumbent conditions for interpersonal and criminal violence of multiple kinds to flourish” (Wood, Lambert and Jewkes, 2008).

In anticipation, to devise a strategy to counter this culture of violence, various spheres of society (the political arena, professionals and experts, business and economic sphere, the clergy and various socio-economic clusters of communities) need to integrate and engage in means and efforts to rid society of ills and tendencies, which obstruct social growth, progress and development.

A great deal of value regeneration and value re-orientation needs to be emphasised and instilled into the lives of the citizenry in South Africa. The integration or incorporation of phenomena, such as value regeneration and re-orientation in the education curriculum could prove to be conducive
to learning the values needed to have a peaceful and sustainable society henceforth.
3.1 What is theory?

According to Van der Westhuizen (2011:123), the purpose of a theory is to explain why crime or criminality occurs. The author stresses that people have different opinions about the causes of crime, and that people tend to offer simple (subjective) explanations and solutions to the crime problem. However, it is not that simple. Criminologists develop scientific theories and use empirical data and the testing thereof – in an attempt to find the causes and explanations for all types of criminal behaviour.

For the purpose of this research phenomenon, the researcher decided to discuss the following theories, in order to explain the empirical findings:

- Robert Merton’s Anomie theory; and
- The drug-relation models.
3.2 Robert Merton’s Anomie theory

Seeing that the major focus of this study includes drug abuse, burglary and violence, it will become clear why the researcher decided to highlight Robert Merton’s theory as one of the theories posed.

Robert Merton was influenced by Emile Durkheim’s work on the Division of Labour in Society and Suicide in 1893 and 1897. The term “anomie” was coined from a condition of moral “deregulation” that occurs in society. As stated by Van der Westhuizen (2011:137), the term anomy refers to a state of “normlessness”. This state of normlessness is a breakdown in either the rules of society or the moral norms in that society – and it eventually results in the disruption of “normal” societal conditions.

In other words, anomy/normlessness refers to the rejection of laws, rules, values, beliefs and norms in any particular society.

Every individual in society has dreams (goals); however, not everyone will be able to achieve these dreams due to their restriction of means. Today, the South African society, finds itself immersed in the circumstances and conditions inculcated with influence from Karl Marx, which prompted Merton’s theory (1930’s). During these times, there was a huge emphasis on success in the United States of America. The theory posits that if you
did not have money, power and status, you (as an individual) were nothing. This caused enormous frustration amongst people, with specific reference to their dreams and the opportunities available to them. So much so, that many people rejected the constitutionalised means (the law, rules, norms, morals and beliefs) and opted for disobedience and non-law abiding mannerisms.

The researcher is of the opinion that it does not matter who you are; everyone cherishes the same dreams – irrespective of your class, gender or race. Every individual prefers pleasure rather than pain. Curran and Renzetti (1994:149-150) indicated that (with reference to the above mentioned factors), as a response to the social pressure to meet social standards and norms, people chose or made rational decisions to reject the laws.

In order to achieve the same goals as law-abiding citizens (conformity), some people decided to adopt other forms of behaviour. They rejected the rules or norms of society and decided to follow illegal rules/norms to achieve their goals. Due to their predisposition (for example: poverty; unemployment; and lack of skills, these people became normless and made a rational choice to deviate or act out criminal behaviour, in order to achieve their desired dreams/goals. This phenomenon was referred to as adaptation methods.
Merton identified five major types of adaptation, namely: conformity; innovation; ritualism; retreatism; and rebellion. For the purpose of this research topic, the researcher decided to focus on innovation, retreatism and rebellion. In conformity and ritualism, the public accepts the constitutional goals; however, in ritualism they reject the constitutional means; and therefore, no crime can occur (Van der Westhuizen, 2011:138).

In innovation, the public accepts the dream of being successful. Being rich, having status and being in power. In correspondence with Marxist theory, people opt for innovation, retreatism and rebellion. In terms of the recent scenario in South Africa, many people opt for innovation. The most relevant adaptation method in the qualitative time and space demarcation is criminal behaviour. Criminal behaviour is part of the existence of a 2014 South African population. Everyone accepts the means (dream); but most people’s opportunity restricts their means (legal channels/rules/laws).

Merton stressed that most of these people steal if they are denied the legitimate opportunities. Due to their disadvantaged economic opportunities in life, they commit burglary. After corruption, the most convenient economic crime ever in the history of South Africa, is burglary (see the SA National Crime Statistics report – 19 September 2013).

So, in other words, many people want to achieve the success roles (being powerful, wealthy and in control). However, due to inadequate skills,
unemployment, poverty, etc. (which place a restriction on their dreams), they reject the law and convert to illegal ways for achieving their goals. Therefore, they commit economic crimes (in this case burglary) to gain money, to deliver, and to provide for their basic needs.

Retreatism refers to a state of “withdrawal”. According to researchers, amongst whom are Curran and Renzetti (1994:151-152); Van der Westhuizen (2011:138); and Williams and McShane (1994:92-93), people who cannot succeed in the eyes of society (in terms of money, power and status) see drug/alcohol abuse as a mean to relieve their stressors. As Merton emphasised the huge emphasis on success, based on the fore-mentioned examples, many people (who, originally, were conformist or innovators) turn to drugs.

According to theory, many people experience this as an escape from reality (seeing that our economy does not guarantee any South African citizen a job). People give up hope, and make a rational choice to retreat and to use drugs and alcohol, in order to feel better about their poor life circumstances. However, the drug and alcohol abuse creates new problems for these people, seeing that they lose their inhibitions; and it becomes easier to commit crime and react with violence to certain responses.
With reference to rebellion, people start to reject the goals and the means as set by authorities and society in general. Due to their helpless position in society they act out their frustration through violent actions. In other words, they are not happy with the way in which authority figures become corrupt and “steal” their money that was supposed to be utilised for their basic needs. They want to bring in a new set of rules that includes a new set of goals and means. In this process, they rebel and become very violent.

The relationship between crime/delinquency and the abuse of substances (drugs and alcohol) has received a great deal of attention in recent years.

According to Dawkins (1997), studies have generally revealed a positive association between criminal behaviour and the abuse of substances, such as alcohol and other drugs, noting that an important aspect of this association has been the degree to which violent crime is linked to the abuse of alcohol and drugs.

2.3 The drug-relation models

Various models exist in the literature which provide comprehensive understandings of the nature of the relationship between drug use and crime. Bennet and Holloway (2006) and Brunelle, Brochu and Causineau

- **The use of drugs causes crime model:** This model holds that the pharmacological properties of illegal drugs create an uncontrollable need in users, which – in the absence of any significant legitimate income – compels them to commit crime to finance their habit. Causality is conceived by proponents of this model as an essentially mechanical process, whereby one set of circumstances inevitably leads to (or causes) another. Bennett and Holloway (2005) maintain that one explanation of this model states that multiple-drug use leads to high offending rates – simply because a greater number of drug types cost more to finance than a smaller number of drug types. Users might have limited legitimate sources of income; and they may resort to illegal means to finance the shortfall. Another explanation provides that multiple drug use leads to high offending rates because multiple drug users are more likely to include the use of the expensive drugs, such as heroin, crack and cocaine, which again places pressure on them to commit crime – in order to raise funds for drugs. A third explanation maintains that the most heavily involved multiple drug users are likely to experience a funding shortfall from both the use of more expensive drug types and the range of other supporting drugs used. The authors further suggest that another argument involved is the psycho-pharmacological explanation that multiple drug use can lead to high rates of crime because of the effects of certain types of drugs or certain types of drug interactions. It is
argued that the addictive properties of certain drug types can lead to greater drug use and greater involvement in crime to finance the drug use. Certain drug combinations might moderate or enhance the compulsive effects of addictive drug use, which might in turn moderate or enhance offensive behaviour. Seddon (2000: 97) confidently asserts that an implication of the drugs-cause-crime model would be that a free supply of drugs to “addicts” or frequent users; or the successful treatment should remove the need to commit crime. Bennett and Wright; Jarvis and Parker; Parker and Kirby maintain that several studies show that although prescribing heroin or methadone can reduce criminal activity, it does not, however, stop it altogether. Seddon (2000: 98) states: “the model is derived from a static deterministic conception of human action: a particular combination of factors (drug addiction plus low legitimate income) is held to lead inevitably to a certain outcome (acquisitive crime to fund addiction). This type of causal model fails to address the complexities of how objective conditions are interpreted through the specific subcultures of groups. It is far too deterministic and mechanistic. Brunelle, Brochu and Cousineau (2000) posit that the psycho-pharmacological effects of drugs may cause violence. The authors concur that from this perspective, the intoxicated consumer is impelled towards violence, because a drug’s criminogenic effect provokes such behaviour in him or her, by acting on particular circuits of the user’s Central Nervous System (those which inhibit behaviour). Furthermore, the ingestion of drugs, and in particular alcohol,
makes people do things they would restrain from doing had they been sober. In essence, this model refers to a possible effect of intoxication on excitability, irritability and aggressiveness, which may lead to violent encounters. Equally important and relevant is the economic-compulsive model, which “is explained by the financial disequilibrium that often takes place when legitimate earnings become insufficient to support one’s drug habit” (Brunelle, Brochu and Cousineau, 2000).

Hunt, in Brunelle, Brochu and Cousineau (2000), maintains that many factors influence a drug user’s inclination towards money-oriented crime: the frequency of drug use, the price of consumed drugs, insufficient earnings, a criminal record, and an immersion in an addictive lifestyle. Goldstein et al. assert that “violence may occur during money-oriented crime; and although unintended, this generally results from the circumstances or social contexts in which crime is perpetrated.

➢ **The crime-causes-drug-use model:** Bennett and Holloway (2005) concur that drugs might be one of the items which are purchased from the proceeds of crime; this explanation is most often referred to as the “life-as-a-party” or “hedonistic pursuits” explanation. High-rate offenders might achieve high levels of illegal funds; which might in turn finance “high levels of drug use.” According to Mott and Taylor; Home Office; Bean and Wilkinson; Auld et al.; Blurr; Parker and Newcombe; Parker and Bottomley; Mathews and Trickey (in Seddon, 2000: 99) numerous studies
have indicated that for many drug users, criminality does predate drug taking; and this has led some researchers to suggest that it is involvement in crime, which leads to drug use.

- **Crime and drug use are related to other factors model:** in essence, this model rejects deterministic explanations of the drug-crime link; and instead, it holds that the two are related — either to a single third variable — or to a complex set of factors. The parallel development of drug and crime careers might indicate that both are particular expressions or symptoms of broader delinquent behaviour, which is caused by other factors (family circumstances, employment status and so forth). Essentially, drug use and offending are seen to be influenced by the broader socio-economic context, by the subcultures and lifestyles in which people become involved. And by the individual preferences for particular drugs, and the psychological effects of their long-term use. In other words, they employ a social-scientific approach, which attempts to link macro- and micro-explanations of the drug-crime link. Bennett and Holloway (2005: 77) suggest a similar understanding in that it is very possible that various dispositional factors linked to early development or recent history (e.g. family absence or family breakdown) might predispose certain individuals to high levels of involvement in both drug use and crime.

Parker and Auerahn (1998) reported that the literature suggests a great deal of evidence that the social environment is a far more powerful contributor to the outcome of violent behaviour than are
pharmacological factors associated with any of the substances reviewed. According to Collins and Messerschmidt; White (in Gottfredson, Kearley and Bushway 2008), the common cause explanation of the drug-crime relationship maintains that drug use and crime do not have any causal link; but instead, they are related by a number of common causes. These common causes include genetic or temperamental traits, antisocial personality disorder, parental alcoholism and poor relations with parents.

Ensminger, Anthony and McCord; Fagan; Sampson, Raudenbush and Earls; Skogan (in Gottfredson, Kearley and Bushway 2008) provide additional explanations, which include environmental causes, such as poor densely populated neighbourhoods, which lack social capital and situational causes, such as bars and sporting events, where there is an increased number of motivated offenders and suitable targets. The systemic-violence model equally asserts that it is within the context of supply and distribution that violence occurs in drug milieus; it may therefore be seen and understood as an organisational management strategy (Brunelle, Brochu and Cousineau, 2000).
3.3.1 Drug-crime careers

The researcher makes firm mention of the Mark Simpson (2003) who in an article articulated the relationship between drug abuse and criminality by providing an adequate analysis of both the drug and the crime careers of juveniles involved in such phenomena. The author dissected the drug careers in three phases: Recreational careers; persistent careers; and dependent careers, with regard to their relationship with criminal behaviour. The various careers are discussed as follows:

- **RECREATIONAL DRUG USE AND CRIME**: Parker, Measham and Aldridge; Parker et al.; Redhead; Redhead, Wynne and O’Connor, (in Simpson, 2003: 311) are of the view that recreational drug use is part of a post-modern consumer culture, which crosses class, gender, race, age and geographical divides. Recreational drug use is in itself expensive; and if legitimate means of raising revenue are not present, then illegitimate means may be employed for maintaining the drug habit. Simpson (2003) maintains that the majority of the young people interviewed in his study, who had been involved in recreational drug use, reported engagement in other crime prior to and during their drug use. A point of note, however, is that this not to suggest that recreational drug use is a direct result of other criminal activity; but it does suggest that local context can impact on patterns of juvenile/youth drug use.
According to Simpson (2003: 311), drug careers and criminal careers are intertwined. For some, drug use was funded through both legitimate and illegitimate revenue; however, crime often predated drug use and the involvement in recreational drug use became a further expense to be funded through crime, rather than the crime being drug-driven.

**PERSISTENT DRUG USE AND CRIME:** Simpson (2003) concurs that a strong relationship between persistent drug use and revenue-raising crime does exist. The author reports that persistent drug use often occurs amongst young people who have had little structured time within their lives (in the form of schools or employment). Simpson (2003: 312) states that “due to a lack of structured time, their days were filled with hanging around in local neighbourhoods, in tight-knit friendship networks, and engaging in various activities including drug use”. For some, drug use has evolved into a central method of consuming time; and if its expense could not be funded through legitimate means, then illegitimate revenue was raised consequently. Within persistent drug use, the author in his study/research, noted a pattern of supplying siblings, partners and friends with drugs as a recurrent theme throughout (Simpson, 2003).

The author further postulates that research in this field, therefore, needs to examine interactions within these networks, rather than assuming that individuals who purchase the drugs would
necessarily consume all the drugs purchased; or that patterns of individual consumption can be simply mapped onto assumptions about an individual’s financial needs (for drugs). A point of understanding is the fact or notion that every user will not purchase all the drugs consumed; and that the revenue raised from crime may be used to support more than one individual’s drug-use habit (Simpson, 2003: 312).

In conclusion, (Simpson, 2003: 312) asserts that within persistent drug users, a strong relationship between drug use and crime does exist for some; and that drug use can become a central method to consume time; and revenue is frequently raised through illegal activities. The author postulates that all of the crime committed by persistent drug users is drug-driven. An argument does exist that some persistent drug users may commit drug-driven crime for a period of their persistent drug-using careers.

- DEPENDENT DRUG USE AND CRIME: The relationship between dependent drug use and crime cannot be discussed in terms of a constant or singular causal nature. Pearson, Gilman and McIver (in Simpson 2003: 316) state “there is no such thing as a typical heroin user; nor is there a typical heroin user’s career”, thereby providing the explanation that the dynamics involved in dependent drug use and the involvement of crime in the drug career is quite complex to be marginalised in that manner.
The author further importantly concurs that some key phases can be identified in this relationship, three of which are the initial offer and experimentation, the grey area of transitional use, and the addictive use. According to Simpson (2003), in his research, initial and early involvement with drugs of dependency was not usually funded by drug-driven crime. The drugs may have been purchased with money raised through crime; however, crime was not driven by the desire to earn drug money. Essentially, and more often than not, during these early phases, the drugs were purchased through loans from family or friends, and money that the user had, or by selling possessions.

### 3.4 Summary

With reference to the above-mentioned exposition of Merton’s anomie theory; and the drug-relation models, the researcher should be able to apply these in Chapter 5 in collaboration with the empirical findings (as set out in Chapter 4), in order to explain the devastating effects of drug abuse among the people living in the Letlhabile area in South Africa.
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE GATHERED DATA

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher reports on the data gathered by means of interviews conducted with pre-determined respondents (10 members of the SAPS in Letlhabile policing area and 3 members of the National Prosecuting Authority in the Brits Magistrates Court), as well as the information gained in the dockets that was made available to the researcher for inspection. The respondents offered their own professional views regarding drug abuse, criminality and the supposed relationship between the variables.

All the respondents were asked a similar set of questions – using a semi-structured interview schedule to allow for further probing on those matters, which were not included in the schedule, but were deemed relevant and important to understand the relation between drug abuse and criminality in the Letlhabile Policing area.
4.2 Presentation of the data on the conducted interviews

The researcher conducted the interviews; and the responses to all the questions by the respondents were as follows:

4.2.1 In your own opinion, has drug abuse in Letlhabile reached a level which is beyond the control of the authorities?

- Respondents 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6 all maintain that drug abuse is not beyond the control of the authorities in the area. The respondents state that many police operations are very successful against drug abuse; and many arrests have been made – indicating the efforts the police are putting in to combat drug abuse.

- Respondent 2, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11, respectively, are of the view that drug abuse is definitely beyond the control of the police and other involved institutions. Youths who abuse drugs engage in serious dangerous crimes, such as robberies and housebreaking, in order to obtain goods and property, which they can sell at a fraction of the retail value to purchase drugs with the money thereby made.

4.2.2 Which drug of choice would you regard as the most prevalent amongst the youth in Letlhabile?

- All of the respondents confidently stated that NYAOPE (heroin) and dagga (marijuana) are the most prevalent drugs amongst the youth in Letlhabile. After probing the respondents to ascertain whether
they know about the above-mentioned drugs, respondents 5 and 6 elaborated that NYAOPE (heroin) is a white and brownish powder substance folded in a tiny little plastic bag and sold for R30 – R35 a bag/sachet. They elaborated that dagga (heroin) with the street name “Zol”, is a herbal substance sold in match-boxes or average sized money “ziplocer” plastic bags.

4.2.3 In your professional view, would you agree that local high schools in Letlhabile are being targeted for drug distribution?

➢ The first respondent confidently confirms the notion that local high schools are targeted for drug distribution. The respondent states that in his professional capacity, the police in the Letlhabile policing area have a portfolio of evidence suggesting that particular individuals are suppliers of drugs to two particular high schools. After probing, the respondent maintains that the police are working hard at ridding society of such ills.

➢ The second respondent also confirms that the youth in high schools are being targeted for drugs, for the reason that they have cash on a daily basis.

➢ The third and fourth respondents confirm that the youths in high schools are being targeted for drug distribution. The third respondent based his statement on the observation he has made that many of the individuals arrested for the use of illegal
substances are youths who have dropped out of school because of the need for cash to purchase drugs.

- The fifth respondent disagrees with the view that local high schools are targeted for drug distribution; the respondent states that most of the youth involved in drug abuse are not attending school. After probing, the respondent maintains that those involved in drug abuse just had the wrong friends, who introduced them to drugs.

- Respondents 6 and 7 agree with the observation that local high schools are targeted for drug distribution, for the reason that a great number of the youths who have left school are addicted to drugs, which were introduced to them whilst they were school pupils. The respondents confidently confirm that schools are being targeted to use the pupils as distributors or “peddlers” of drugs amongst their peers.

- Respondents 8, 9 and 10 are also of the view that local High schools are targeted for drug distribution; as it seems that drug suppliers are of the opinion that learners have daily cash on them and are vulnerable.

- Respondent 11 maintains that males between the ages 16 and 22 that are still in school are prime targets of the suppliers; and for this reason, high schools are definitely targeted for drug distribution.

4.2.4 From a Law-Enforcement point-of-view, are there any combative strategies, whether pro-active or re-active, in effect to combat drug abuse in Letlhabele?
Respondent 1 confirms that there are combative strategies in place to counter drug abuse in Letlhabile; since many of their intelligence operations result in many apprehensions and arrests of drug suppliers in the area, which subsequently result in convictions; and these are positive signs that the fight against drug abuse is successful.

Respondent 2 maintains that combative strategies are employed to combat drug abuse. From the beginning of the year, when school commences, many of the police operations take place; and search and seizures operations by K–9 units are conducted in schools and areas, which intelligence has indicated as high-risk locations for drug supply and distribution. School cops have been established in schools to liaise with the educators and school management with regard to drug abuse in the schools.

Respondents 3 and 6 maintain that combative strategies are definitely in place to curb drug abuse in the community of Letlhabile. The respondents refer to the co-ordinated strategy in place, in which the Department of social development provides places of rehabilitation for individuals who have been found guilty of substance abuse; and one such place is called Busasa in Rustenburg. Respondent 6 informs that he is a member of the Substance Abuse Committee of the Madibeng Municipality, where they identify schools to inform learners and pupils of the dangers and hazards of drug abuse.

Respondent 4 states that informative campaigns are held in schools and the community at large, thereby sensitising people on the
scourge that is drug abuse. Symptoms and signs of drug abuse are paid attention to in these campaigns; because parents should be warned of the need to monitor their children, thereby ultimately assisting the police. The community is highly encouraged to contact the police if and when they suspect anything with regard to drug abuse.

- Respondent 5 maintains that there are strategies employed to counter drug abuse. But in his opinion, the desired results are not being achieved. This view was arrived at because of the large number of youths involved in drug abuse.

- Respondent 7 firmly states that such combative strategies are in place; and the respondent also referred to the operations by the K – 9 Unit, which have proven to be very effective in carrying out the drug-combating procedures.

- Respondent 8 firmly confirms that combative strategies are in place, in which the CPO works in unison with the Crime Prevention Unit, attending school and communal meetings, and informing the various stakeholders involved of the dangers of drug use in our community. The respondent further maintains that awareness campaigns are held in community halls and schools to educate the youth about the negative effects of drug abuse on their own lives and on society.

- Respondents 9, 10 and 11 are of the opinion that such combative strategies are ineffective, as drug use takes place on a large scale; and there is an increasing number of youths who continue using drugs in the Letlhakane community.
4.2.5 Are the above-mentioned policing strategies effective?

- The first respondent is of the view that these strategies are most definitely effective in combating drug abuse in the Policing area.

- Respondents 2, 3, 6 and 7 positively maintain that these strategies are effective in combating drug abuse in Letlhabile. Respondent 6 further maintained that the seizures and arrests, which result from the implementation of these strategies, are clearly indicative of this view. Respondent 3, after probing, maintained that these strategies are not only providing a constraining effect against drug abuse, but also act as a social development tool to the youth. The respondent states that the community development sentences they receive in court develop them into better individuals; and the community “warms up” to the behaviour after completion of their sentences; as a majority of the youths, who have been given these sentences, have responded well.

- Respondent 5 states that currently, there is indeed a decline of illegal drug misuse, but maintains that it is not yet at the desired level of decline; where he (the respondent) can confidently state that the employed strategies are effective.

- Respondent 6 maintains that the employed strategies are not effective because the number of youths falling victim to drug abuse is on the rise.

- Respondent 8 is of the opinion that the these strategies are partially (60%) effective, because the community still feels the harsh effects of drug abuse, (parents who have children involved in drug use
steal from their own homes – with a resultant increase in property crime).

- Respondents 9 and 10 maintain a similar view – that there isn’t any effectiveness to refer to; drug abuse is still largely prevalent.

- Respondent 11 asserts that the policing of drug abuse in Letlhabile is not really effective. The respondent maintains that the drug abuse phenomenon is an area that requires specialised policing intervention – as was previously present with the South African Narcotics Bureau. A more pro-active approach by other government departments is needed to combat drug abuse effectively.

4.2.6 In your opinion, which criminal act (offence) is the most prevalent/reported in Letlhabile?

- Respondent 1 states that, in his view, the most reported or prevalent acts of criminality in Letlhabile are residential burglaries and thefts, as well as assaults with intent to cause grievous bodily harm.

- Respondent 2 firmly maintains that residential burglary is the most reported criminal act in Letlhabile.

- Respondent 3 positively states that the most reported criminal offences in Letlhabile are residential burglary and theft (generally). The respondent further asserts that the usual suspects for these offences are the same individuals who engage in drug use.
Respondent 4 states that, in his view, the most reported criminal offences in Letlhabile are assaults to cause grievous bodily harm, and the theft of motor vehicles.

Respondent 5 maintains that the most reported criminal offences in Letlhabile are residential burglaries and the theft of motor vehicles.

Respondent 6 states that, in his opinion, the most reported criminal offence in Letlhabile is the theft of goods and property. The respondent maintains that the youths addicted to drugs steal property from their homes to sell, in order to make a drug purchase.

Respondent 7 confidently maintains that, in his opinion, the most reported criminal offences in Letlhabile are residential burglaries and the theft of motor vehicles.

Respondent 8 maintains that housebreaking and thefts and common robberies are the most reported criminal acts in Letlhabile. The respondent maintains that drug users commit such housebreaking to steal property to be sold for drug purchases; and they also rob elderly people of their social grants.

Respondent 9 is of the opinion that housebreaking and thefts and assaults to cause grievous bodily harm are the most reported criminal acts in the Letlhabile policing area.

Respondent 10 asserts that housebreaking and thefts and assault to cause grievous bodily harm are the most reported criminal acts in Letlhabile.

Respondent 11 states that housebreakings and thefts are the most reported criminal offences in the Letlhabile policing area.
4.2.7 In your professional view, would you agree that the extent of prevalence of the abovementioned criminal acts in the Letlhabile policing area has strained the trust/confidence in the relation the community of Letlhabile has with the Police?

- Respondent 1 firmly disagrees with the asked notion; as he (respondent) maintains that the prevalence of criminality in Letlhabile does not strain the relationship between the Police and the community; since the Police are putting in efforts to involve the community in the prescribed measures to curb these offences. The respondent further asserts that as an example of the efforts, the Police are putting in place to enhance the good relations. The diligence with which the community is served has increased and the reaction time to deal with complaints made has also improved considerably. The Police have become more accessible; as the community finds it imperative to furnish the police with credible and reliable information about suspicious matters in need of police intervention.

- Respondent 2 does admit that community-Police relations do seem strained at times; but he will not concede that the community has lost confidence in the Police. The respondent states that the burden is on the Police to improve and strengthen the relationship by working hard and involving the community in their efforts to combat crime. The respondent maintains the Police cannot combat crime on their own.
 Respondent 3 retains that the relationship between the community and the Police in Letlhabele is in a good state, and that the community is involved with the Police in combatting drug abuse. The respondent stated an occurrence, where the community made citizens’ arrests of individuals known to be drug suppliers in the community. The respondent firmly maintains that the community does have trust and confidence in the Police, because in most of the stolen property occurrences, the property is recovered and returned to the rightful owners.

 Respondent 4 asserts that, in his opinion, the relationship has been strained. When residents in the community lose their property, they most definitely do lose confidence in the police. The respondent, however, does maintain that the police have measures in place to enhance and sustain good relations between the community and the police. The respondent makes mention of CPFs (Community Policing Forums) and Sector Policing as effective strategies, which assist in building and sustaining good relations between the community and the police.

 Respondent 5 agrees with the notion that the community – Police relations have been strained, because the community has lost confidence in the Police. The respondent asserts that the theft of motor vehicles prevalent in Letlhabele strains the relationship even further; because in certain cases the property cannot be recovered. The respondent maintains that the Police are working hard to improve the relations for the better, and to involve the community in combating criminality in Letlhabele.
- Respondent 6 maintains that in his view the relationship between the community and the Police in Letlhabe remains strong. The respondent asserts that the two bodies are working “hand-and-glove” with each other. The effective discharge and execution of duties by the Police (thorough investigations conducted and the recovery of property) results in the strengthening of the community-Police relations.

- Respondent 7 concurs that the relationship between the Police and the Community has been strained in recent times; but the respondent maintains that the Police are taking it upon themselves to work hard in serving the community with due diligence – and in so doing, gaining the community’s trust. The respondent further asserts that Community Police Forums also assist in establishing good relations with the community.

- Respondent 8 maintains that the relation between the police and the community is not strained. The police are working hard towards providing good service to the community of Letlhabe. The community has not lost trust in the police; because inhabitants of the community feel encouraged to report their cases and to seek help from the police. In essence, the police work hand-in-hand with the community – thereby, forming strong bonds.

- Respondent 9 is of the view that the relation between the community and the police is not strained; since the community has confidence in the police. The police do everything possible to attend to the policing needs (service delivery, investigations and arrests are conducted) of the community.
Respondent 10 states that the relation between the police and the community has been strained; and the community has lost trust in the police. The extent of the prevailing criminality in Letlhabile has created a cloud of no confidence amongst the inhabitants of Letlhabile with regard to the police’s competence.

Respondent 11 maintains the view that the relation between the police and the community has been strained; as the community has no confidence in the police. The respondent maintains that during community-outreach programmes, cries are made by the community, and drug abuse is damaging many lives, and the prevalent housebreakings and thefts are intolerable. More policing is needed.

4.2.8 Are the policing strategies employed to combat the prevalence of criminality in Letlhabile effective?

Respondent 1 avers that the strategies employed to combat criminality in Letlhabile are indeed effective. The respondent referred to the annual national crime statistics, which indicate that there has been a significant reduction in the prevalence of drugs. The respondent confidently maintains that the police are working hard to combat criminality and its causes in Letlhabile.

Respondent 2 is of the view that the strategies implemented to combat criminality in Letlhabile are effective. There has been a reduction in certain criminal acts (i.e. burglaries) in recent times.
Respondents 3 and 4 are of the view that associations with the community actually make combatting criminality more effective. Both the respondents are of the opinion that Sector policing and Community policing forums are effective vehicles of communication for the liaison between the police and the community. Respondent 4 maintains that these strategies bring about the desired results (reduction in crime prevalence); and they are therefore effective.

Respondent 5 maintains the view that policing strategies, such as sector policing are effective in combatting crime. The respondent states that the police and members of the community engage in regular patrols, which are effective against the burglaries and thefts prevalent in the Lethlabile area.

Respondent 6 firmly maintains that the strategies implemented to combat criminality are effective; since most of their operations have resulted in the arrests of drug suppliers and drug seizures. The respondent maintains that drug abuse is an accelerant of criminality. Consequently, any strategies aimed at combating drug abuse would result in a significant reduction in criminality.

Respondent 7 maintains that the policing strategies employed to combat criminality in the Lethlabile area are very effective. The respondent states that the police are working hard to combat criminality.

Respondent 8 firmly states that the strategies that are put in place to combat criminality, such as Community Policing Forums – where initiatives, such as Neighbourhood watch programmes and whistle-
blowing are employed, do assist in combating criminality in the Letlhabe police area.

- Respondent 9 maintains that effective strategies to combat criminality are ineffective; the respondent further maintains that these offences occur at different times; and consequently, the police cannot be everywhere at all times.

- Respondent 10 is of the opinion that the strategies employed to combat criminality are not effective, and that a lot still needs to be done to combat criminality in Letlhabe.

- Respondent 11 maintains that strategies to combat criminality in Letlhabe police area are in place; but these need assistance with regard to specialised policing focused on drug-related criminality. The police singlehandedly cannot prevent crime; there is a need for centralised strategy incorporating various government departments, in order to combat criminality effectively.

### 4.2.9 Are the high levels of burglaries and thefts in Letlhabe a consequence of the drug abuse amongst the youth?

- Respondent 1 maintains that the prevailing criminal acts are partially a consequence of drug abuse; because the arrests, which follow, result in the same repeat offenders. The respondent firmly acknowledges the fact that there are burglars and thieves who commit burglaries and thefts for their own monetary motives; and these are not always affiliated to drug abuse.
Respondent 2 firmly states that the high level of burglaries and thefts are definitely a consequence of drug abuse; because in his experience, it is the same repeat offenders who get arrested for these offences; and they themselves admit to having committed these offences for drug purchases.

Respondents 3 and 7 maintain that burglaries and thefts are the consequences of drug abuse. Respondent 3 further states that when conducting interviews with suspected individuals, the suspect firmly states that s/he did indeed commit burglary or theft – in order to sell the goods for drug purchases, and for Nyaope (Heroin) in particular.

Respondent 4 concurs with the previous respondents; as he also maintains that high levels of burglaries and thefts are definitely the consequences of drug abuse. The respondent asserts that arrested suspects admit to having burgled and stolen property to sell for drug purchases. The respondent is of the professional view that the investigation of these offences would result in the arrest of the same individuals who abuse drugs.

Respondent 5 firmly agrees that burglaries and thefts are the consequences of drug abuse. The respondent states that the youth involved are unemployed, and don’t have legitimate means to fund their drug habits. In essence, their involvement in criminality assists them in their drug purchases.

Respondent 6 is of the opinion that burglaries and thefts are partially a consequence of drug abuse. The respondent states that drug abuse leads to theft, and not so much burglary. The
respondent is cognisant of burglars and thieves who commit burglaries and thefts for their own motives; and these are not always based on the need for money for drug abuse.

- Respondent 8 firmly states that the prevalence of the high levels of burglaries and thefts is a consequence of the drug abuse amongst the youth in Letlhabele.

- Respondent 9 echoes similar sentiments, in that the high levels of burglaries and thefts are a consequence of the escalating drug abuse amongst the youth in Letlhabele. The respondent asserts that almost all of the investigations into housebreakings and thefts, and the subsequent investigations thereof lead the police to the same individuals who use drugs.

- Respondent 10 firmly maintains that the high levels of housebreakings and thefts are a consequence of the drug use amongst the youth in Letlhabele; the subsequent arrests support the notion.

- Respondent 11 is of the opinion that the prevailing levels of burglaries and thefts are a consequence of drug abuse. Individuals who are suspects and stand trial for these offences are usually drug addicts.

4.2.10 In your professional opinion, is there a relation between drug abuse and criminality?

- Respondent 1 agrees that indeed there is a relationship between drug abuse and criminality. In his professional capacity, the
respondent states that their sources suggest that a great deal of the criminality in the Letlhabile area emanates from the involvement of a drug (alcohol, marijuana or heroin).

- Respondents 2, 3, 5 and 7 maintain that drug abuse is the cause of the criminal activities in Letlhabile; and the respondents, therefore, maintain that there is a strong relation between drug abuse and criminality in Letlhabile.

- Respondent 4 maintains the view that a lot of criminal cases emanate from drug use. Assaults are common; and those that cause grievous bodily harm, robberies, burglaries and thefts all have the common element of drug use; therefore, the respondent maintains the view that there definitely is a relationship between drug abuse and criminality.

- Respondent 6 also concurs with the previous respondents, maintaining the opinion that there is a strong relationship between drug abuse and criminality. The respondent posits that when operations to combat drug abuse are employed, the reduction in drug abuse resulted in a decline in the level of crime. Therefore, the above-mentioned notion suggests a strong relationship between drug abuse and criminality.

- Respondents 8, 9, 10 and 11 echo similar sentiments. It is maintained that there exists a relationship between drug use and criminality.
4.2.11 Would you regard the nature of the relation as a cause-and-effect (causality), or rather a mere correlation (drug use is not directly the cause for criminality; nor is criminality the cause for drug abuse)?

- Respondent 1 is of the opinion that, as an officer in the Intelligence unit, the analysis of their data suggests that drug or substance abuse is a serious generator of crime. The respondent thus maintains that it would seem that, on paper, the nature of the relation would be that of a cause-and-effect nature; and when drugs are used, criminality will inevitably result as a consequence.

- Respondent 2 maintains that when drug abuse occurs, criminality will subsequently result. The respondent states that the youth in Lethlabile have only criminality to rely on to fund their drug-use habits.

- Respondent 3 states that criminality does take place, irrespective of drug involvement. The respondent does, however, acknowledge that drug abuse has an accelerant effect on criminality; and he does not dismiss the extent of its involvement in criminality in Lethlabile, more especially with regard to offences, such as burglary, theft and assault with GBH. In essence, the respondent maintains that the relation is a mere correlation.

- Respondent 4 is of the view that the nature of the relation is one of cause-and-effect; the respondent maintains this opinion for the reason that practical experience suggests that when an individual is involved in drug use, s/he needs to engage in criminality – in order to fund this expensive habit.
Respondent 5 concurs with respondent 4, where it is maintained that the nature of the drug-crime relation is not a mere correlation, but rather that of a cause-and-effect type. The respondent maintains that for the drug-abuse element involved, criminality will definitely result. The respondent maintains that drug abuse changes an individual into a non-law-abiding citizen.

Respondents 6 and 7 firmly maintain that the nature of the relation between drug abuse and criminality is that of a cause-and-effect nature. Their experience in the police suggests that drug abuse leads to criminality.

Respondent 8 maintains the view that the nature of the relation is one of cause-and-effect, because the respondent’s investigative experience suggests that individuals who use drugs will commit a crime.

Respondent 9 is of the opinion that the nature of the relation is one of cause-and-effect. The respondent further asserts that drug abuse results directly in criminality; and had drug abuse not been as prevalent in our community, the property crimes would not have occurred as they have.

Respondent 10 could not form an opinion regarding the nature of the relation between drug abuse and criminality, but maintained that there exists a strong relationship indeed.

Respondent 11 states that the nature of the relation between drug abuse and criminality is one of cause-and-effect; the respondent posits that should the supply of drugs be cut off, property offences (especially housebreakings and thefts in Letlhabele) would definitely
decrease. The respondent firmly maintains that the re-establishment of the SANB would cut off the supply of and the demand for the drugs – thus reducing the level of criminality.

4.2.12 Which in your professional opinion, would you regard as the risk factors involved in affecting the drugs and crime relation?

- Respondent 1 states that most of the youth involved in drugs and crime succumb to a lot of pressure from their peers. The respondent maintains that these individuals hang around with the wrong individuals. The respondent further elaborates that the young individuals who come from an economically well-off family succumb to pressures from their peers to involve themselves in drug use and crime. In essence, the notion that individuals from a lower socio-economic background involve themselves in drug use and crime more frequently than do their peers from a higher socio-economic background.

- Respondent 2 is of the view that the delinquent nature of the youth leads them to drug use; and the unstable familial structures, such as unemployment in the family, the use of alcohol and marijuana in the family, and the lack of parental supervision have immensely affected the youth as regards the use of drugs. The respondent maintains that these young individuals succumb to peer pressure from their peers.
Respondent 3 is of the opinion that the backgrounds these youths are from, have created a conducive environment for drug use to take place. Parental neglect has led these individuals into drug use. The respondent states that there exists a parental gap in the lives of some of the young individuals. The lack of strategic social development institutions adds to the problem, rather than being a solution. There aren’t any constructive activities young individuals can engage in, to stay away from criminal activities.

Respondent 4 maintains that these individuals undergo a lot of peer pressure; and they hang around with the wrong drug-using/dealing individuals, who in many ways alter their minds into thinking in a certain way and believing in certain things.

Respondent 5 shares the view that peer pressure takes its toll amongst the drug-using circles; the respondent adds that the lack of a proper education and employment further exacerbates the problem – where criminality becomes the norm. The respondent maintains that the socio-economic conditions have influenced these young individuals to become involved in drug use.

Respondent 6 maintains the opinion that a lack of parental care from home, unemployment in the family, a lack of education in the family, and a wrong circle of friends affect an individual’s level of involvement in drug use.

Respondent 7 confidently maintains that the environment, in which these young individuals are in, Letlhabile community, does not have any proactive measures to engage in to assist in the abstinence from drug use. These young individuals have escalating problems
from their homes; and there aren’t any structures in place to alleviate these problems.

- Respondent 8 is of the view that these individuals do not think in the long term; their nature is to take decisions, and not to think about the consequences of their actions for the future. Their involvement in drug use is indicative of the fact that these individuals are incapacitated to think rationally in the long term.

- Respondent 9 maintains that the vulnerability to succumb to peer pressure, in addition to the need to belong in a friendship circle, is a factor that could potentially lead to their involvement in drug abuse.

- Respondent 10 states that varying factors are involved; some individuals grew up in unstable homes (single-parent households, child-led households, a history of alcohol and marijuana use, unemployment and violence); while some individuals grew up in middle-class households with good socio-economic conditions (employment, healthy family structures, good education); but they are now suffering from peer pressure. The respondent maintains that peer pressure is a major factor in their involvement in drug use.

- Respondent 11 firmly maintains that the culmination of poor socio-economic conditions, which exist in most of these youth’s lives, and poor socially rational choices taken, make them susceptible to the involvement in drug use. The respondent further maintains that a lack of recreational activities at their disposal, weak developmental infrastructure, and the unavailability of immediate social structures of assistance are conditions, which render these youths vulnerable to drug use.
4.2.13 In your view, does the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit result in an increase in criminality?

- Respondent 1 confirms that the drug-abuse habit definitely results in increased criminality. The respondent maintains that drug users always need funds to sustain their habits; and criminality is the means used to acquire the funds.
- Respondent 2 completely agrees with the notion that the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit results in increased criminality. The respondent maintains that apart from the fact that the use of illegal drugs is in itself a crime, increased burglaries and thefts are the subsequent results of the need to sustain a drug-abuse habit.
- Respondent 3 positively states that the financial sustenance of the drug-abuse habit definitely results in the increase of crime, and in particular, property crime. The respondent maintains that the drug-abuse habit is very expensive to sustain; and it would, therefore, need a constant cash inflow for drug purchases. Most of the youth engaged in drug abuse are not in school, and are unemployed; some wash cars for monetary gain; but this not enough for drug purchases. Therefore, housebreakings and thefts (burglaries) are the obvious means to gain money to purchase drugs.
- Respondent 4 maintains the view that drug abuse definitely does influence criminality; but at the same time, crime has always taken place, thereby inferring that it would be unclear whether the increase in crime would be directly attributable to drug usage.
➤ Respondent 5 firmly states that the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit definitely does increase criminality. The need for a “fix” equates to the need for money, which outweighs the probable penal sanctions of the offence that the individual is planning to commit.

➤ Respondent 6 is of a similar opinion. The sustenance of a drug-abuse habit definitely does result in increased criminality. The respondent, however, asserts that such a notion is applicable in certain demographic environments, as in more financially affluent communities. In such circumstances, youths who engage in drug abuse have the financial means to sustain the habit. The same would not apply in communities, where the majority of the citizenry are unemployed, and come from impoverished backgrounds. The youths who engage in drug abuse in these communities would definitely commit crime, in order to sustain their expensive habit.

➤ Respondents 7, 8 and 10 firmly maintain that the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit definitely does increase criminality.

➤ Respondent 9 is of the opinion that the financial implications of drug use (having to purchase drugs) definitely leads them to committing crimes.

➤ Respondent 11 states that the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit definitely does result in an increase in criminality. The respondent further states that it is the need for the drug that establishes the means to acquire the drug.
4.2.14 Does the increase in property crime (presumably for monetary gain) result in increased drug use?

- Respondent 1 firmly maintains that it is the initial involvement in drug abuse that would prompt the involvement of criminality in the relation. Individuals who engage in drug abuse commit crime, in order to sustain their drug-abuse habit.

- Respondent 2 firmly dismisses the notion that criminality predates the use of drugs, maintaining it is only drug use that makes it necessary for young drug users to engage in crime. After probing, the respondent maintains that in the case of Letlabile, these thefts and housebreakings occur as a subsequent result of the high levels of drug use in our community.

- Respondents 3 and 4 are of the opinion that it is not criminality that first takes place prior to the drug abuse, but rather the drug use which precedes the criminality. Respondent 3 states that it is the need for funds to purchase drugs that motivates criminality.

- Respondent 5 firmly states that in his view it is not the criminality that results in increased drug use, but rather drug use that increases the likelihood of involvement in criminality. This respondent further elaborates that the cycle of drug-crime relation begins with drug use, which then prompts criminality as a result.

- Respondent 6 asserts that the notion of criminality resulting in increased drug use is unfounded, and firmly maintains that only when a youth abuses drugs does the likelihood exist that he will commit an offence to obtain the needed drugs.
Respondent 7 is of the opinion that it is drug abuse that is the main mechanism at play; the respondent maintains that drug abuse is the force that results in increased criminality. This respondent states that drug abuse first takes place as an initial act – that would then result in the likelihood of crime.

Respondent 8 dismisses the notion that criminality results in the increase in drug abuse, but firmly maintains the point that drug use results in an increase in criminality.

Respondents 9 and 10 concur with the previous respondent; it is maintained that criminality does not result in the increase in drug use; but it is rather drug use that results in increased criminality.

Respondent 11 firmly dismisses the notion that criminality results in increased drug use, maintaining that drug use is the driving force in the equation. Drug use first takes place; and then the criminality element follows thereafter.

All the above responses to the fourteen questions posed are, in collaboration with the theories (in Chapter 3); and these are intertextualised in Chapter 5.

4.3 Presentation of data on the case dockets

In addition to the above-mentioned responses, the researcher had access to ten case dockets, as mentioned in Chapter 1. The following information was of importance to this study.
**Case 1:** The accused in this case was charged with housebreaking and theft. The accused was a young male aged 18, and made a submission in the form of a preliminary statement. In this statement, he did not disclose whether he was intoxicated or not during the crimes; and it seems as if no attention was given to establish whether he was under the influence of any substance. However, the court found the accused guilty as charged; and he was sentenced to imprisonment.

**Case 2:** The accused in this case was charged with murder. The accused was a 28-year old male. In the interviews conducted with the accused during the preliminary investigation, it was not established whether or not he was under the influence of alcohol or any other substance. It appears that the court didn’t deem it necessary to establish whether the accused was under the influence of any substances during the perpetration of the offence. The court found the accused guilty, and charged him with murder.

**Case 3:** The accused, in this case, was charged with housebreaking and theft. The accused was a 16-year old male. In his statement, the accused admitted to have stolen property, and sold the goods for monetary gain. The accused never indicated the purpose for which the money was needed. Even in this case, there was no evidence of the involvement of any substances. The court withdrew the charge.
Case 4: The accused in this case was charged with assault to cause grievous bodily harm. The accused were three males of the ages 28, 25 and 31, respectively. In the victim’s preliminary statement, it was stated that the accused were intoxicated during the offence; as they were at a venue where alcohol is sold. The court found the three accused guilty of assault with the intent to cause grievous bodily harm to the male victim; and they were sentenced by the court to imprisonment.

Case 5: The accused in this case was charged with housebreaking and theft. The accused was a young 16-year old male. From the docket, the researcher could not establish whether there was any involvement of drug use in the case. The court found the accused guilty, as charged; however, based on the age of the accused and other technicalities, the case was withdrawn.

Case 6: The accused in this case was charged with housebreaking and theft, as well as indecent assault. These charges were laid against a 29-year old male. During the preliminary investigation, the victim’s statement maintains that the accused was indeed under the influence of substances. The court found the accused guilty; and he was charged with the above offences.

Case 7: The accused in this case was charged with assault, with the intention to cause grievous bodily harm. From the docket, it was
established that the offence was of a domestic and violent nature. The accused was a 47-year old male. The statement of the primary victim (female) and the secondary victim (male child) is inclusive of the fact that the male accused was heavily intoxicated (excessive alcohol consumption), when he started to become violent against the primary victim. The accused was found guilty as charged, in terms of the Domestic Violence Act of 1998; and he was sentenced to imprisonment.

**Case 8:** The accused in this case was charged with housebreaking and theft. The accused were two young males aged 25 and 24, respectively. The charge against the accused was withdrawn by the public prosecutor, stating a lack of evidence. The researcher finds it necessary to mention that the docket lacked any evidence of the involvement of the abuse of alcohol, or any other substance.

**Case 9:** The accused in this case was charged with rape. The accused was an adult male, aged 27. The preliminary statement made by the victim is inclusive of the fact that the male accused was well-known to the victim. She stated that they were both intoxicated, as they had consumed alcohol when the ordeal took place. The victim further stated that the accused had threatened to kill her, if she reported the matter to the police. The male accused was found guilty of rape, and sentenced to 15 years imprisonment.
Case 10: The accused in this case was charged with assault with the intent to cause grievous bodily harm. The accused was a male aged 26. During the preliminary investigation, the accused made a submission that he was under the influence of alcohol when he perpetrated the offence. The court found the accused guilty of assault with the intent to cause grievous bodily harm. The accused was further ordered to attend drug- and alcohol-rehabilitation programmes.

4.4 Interpretation of the information

The researcher has developed the following interpretations of the research question:

- Research question 1: Has drug abuse in Letlhabe police area increased over the last few years?

  Interpretation: This research question is partially supported. In line with the research objectives, the researcher sought to ascertain a perspective from the respondents regarding the extent of drug abuse in Letlhabe. The data collected suggest that a majority (55%) of the respondents maintain that drug abuse is out of control in the study area. With reference to this answer, the assumption can be made that not all the necessary pro-active crime-prevention strategies of the police seem to have had the desired effect on the
problem in question. According to the respondents, a lot still needs to be done to curb the scourge of drug abuse. NYAOPe and DAGGA were found to be the most prevalent drugs of choice amongst the youth in the study area.

➢ **Research question 2:** Are the policing strategies being employed to combat drug abuse in Letlhabe ineffective?

**Interpretation:** This research question is not supported. In line with the objective to seek and analyse policing strategies to combat drug abuse in Letlhabe, a strong emphasis was put by a majority of the respondents on the existence of the combative-policing strategies. An emerging theme regarding the effectiveness of these policing strategies substantiates the notion that the policing strategies are effective in combating drug abuse in Letlhabe. However, three of the 11 respondents (in other words, 27%) differ in view and maintain that policing strategies to combat drug abuse are absent. One of the respondents stated: “Drug abuse is taking place at a large scale; and the number of youths getting involved in drugs is increasing”. In general, it was maintained that various police operations result in apprehensions and the arresting of offenders dealing in drugs or using drugs; and awareness campaigns are in place to sensitize the community at large on the issue of drug abuse.
Research question 3: Does the sustenance of the drug-abuse habit result in the increase of crime in the Letlhabile policing area?

Interpretation: This research question is supported. The researcher sought to grasp an authoritative perspective of the above-stated research question. The data collected concur with the research question that the means to sustain the drug-abuse habit result in criminality. A majority of the respondents (namely, 91%) maintained that housebreakings and thefts are the most prevalent criminal acts in the study area, which are a consequence of drug abuse. The respondents state that subsequent criminal investigations into these offences lead them to the same repeat offenders, who admit to having committed the offences for the purpose of purchasing drugs. One respondent stated that: “During their court trials, many of the young men who use drugs admit to having broken into houses to steal property to sell for drug money.”

Research question 4: Are the policing strategies employed to combat criminality in general in Letlhabe policing area ineffective?

Interpretation: This research question is supported. As many as 73% of the respondents suggested that the combative strategies in place to combat criminality are not effective. The involvement of the community in efforts to combat crime is regarded as being important; as the police rely on the community to reach the desired objective. The data derived from the interviews suggest that the
policing strategies, such as Sector Policing and the Community Policing Forums are regarded as effective vehicles and liaison mechanisms between the police and the community in the study area. However, a single respondent maintained that “the combating strategies are in place; but a lot still needs to be done; the police alone cannot prevent crime. There is a need for a centralised strategy that incorporates various government departments to combat criminality effectively”.

➢ **Research question 5:** Are the local High Schools in Letlhabele policing area being targeted for drug distribution?

**Interpretation:** This research question is supported by the views of the respondents. The data gathered suggest that local high schools are being targeted for drug distribution. A majority of the respondents (91%) maintain that youths (learners) in schools are vulnerable, and have cash on their persons. One of the respondents stated: “Letlhabele SAPS crime intelligence has established a portfolio of evidence, which suggests that two particular individuals are drug suppliers to [the] local high schools”. The data gathered suggest that males between the ages of 16 and 22, who are still in school, are the prime targets of drug use by suppliers. A single respondent maintained that in his or her view, most of the youths involved in drugs are not attending school and that they just had the wrong friends who had introduced them to drugs.
Research question 6: Is there a correlation between drug abuse and crime?

Interpretation: This research question is supported. In anticipation of gaining a perspective in relation to the relationship between drug abuse and crime, the researcher isolated particular understandings (with regard to the respondents’ perspective on the relationship). The data gathered suggest that the relationship between drug abuse and crime does exist; as a majority of the respondents (namely 100%) maintain that through their professional experience, they have become cognisant of the involvement of drug abuse in criminality. All of the respondents are of the view that the nature of the relationship is that of a cause-and-effect kind; and it is maintained that drug abuse precedes criminality. One respondent stated: “These boys get involved in drug abuse, and start stealing property from their homes to sell for drugs”. The researcher noted an emerging theme regarding the respondents’ practical experience.

“Practical experience suggests that when an individual is involved in drug use, s/he needs to engage in criminality to fund the expensive habit... Drug abuse changes an individual into a non-law-abiding citizen”. Peer pressure was found to be the most prominent risk factor that pressurises the youth in Letlhabile. All of the
respondents maintain that the wrong circle of friends contributes to a person’s involvement in drug use.

One respondent stated that “a culmination of poor socio-economic conditions, which exist in most of these youths’ lives and poor socially rational choices taken, make them susceptible to the involvement in drug use. A lack of recreational activities at their disposal, a poor developmental structure, and the unavailability of immediate social structures of assistance are conditions which put the youth at a vulnerable risk for drug use”.

4.5 Interpretation of the case-docket findings

According to the case dockets made available to the researcher during his investigation, the following might be of great importance regarding the final conclusions of this study.

Charges of burglary (housebreaking and theft), as well as assault were laid against a 28-year old male; and he was prosecuted, and sentenced to prison by the court (see case 6). The victim’s statement included proof that the accused was indeed intoxicated during the offence. It is important to note that this was the only suspect accused of two offences, which included violence and burglary (categorised as a violent and an economic crime. These were the major criminal offences under the spotlight in this study).
Other charges of burglary/housebreaking and theft (categorised as economic crime) were docketed against another five accused males. The ages of these males ranged between 16 and 24 years of age (see cases 1, 3, 5 and 8 respectively). Note that in case 8, two males between 24 and 25 were the accused. In all the above-mentioned cases, no evidence/proof were reported of any intoxication during the offences. It is, furthermore, important to note that in only one case (see case 1) was the accused charged with burglary and sentenced to imprisonment. On the other three accounts of burglary, the court “dropped”/withdrew the charges (due to a lack of evidence/no other apparent reasons) against the accused. This shows that none of the role players in the criminal justice system, at that point in time, e.g. the police/the court, were interested to establish whether or not the accused males had been intoxicated/not intoxicated during the time of the offence.

With reference to dockets 2, 4, 7, 9 and 10 that entailed crimes of a violent nature, the following issues were established:

One male, aged 28 was accused of murder (see case 2). No reference was made in the docket of any intoxication at the time of his criminal actions. However, he was prosecuted and sentenced to imprisonment.
Another male, aged 27 was accused of rape (see case 9). In this case, the victim’s statement indicated that both role-players (the victim and the offender) were intoxicated during the criminal event. This might indicate that the victim had played a role in her own victimisation. However, the court found the accused guilty and imposed a sentence of 15 years imprisonment.

Apart from case 6, where the accused were punished for assault and burglary; and where the victim’s statement indicated that the accused were intoxicated, three other dockets (see cases 4, 7 and 10, respectively) entailed offences of assault. In these cases, five males (between the ages of 25 to 47) were accused of assault – ranging from assault with the intent to cause grievous bodily harm to domestic violence. In case 4, there were three accused males; and in cases 7 and 10, there was one accused male in each offence. In all the above-mentioned cases of assault, either the victim’s (primary/secondary) or the offender’s statement showed that the accused were either under the influence of alcohol or other substances. In all three cases, the accused were sentenced to imprisonment. However, in only one of these cases, was the accused referred to a drug-related/substance-abuse rehabilitation centre by the court.

When the data gathered from the respondents and the data obtained from the dockets are compared, the researcher would like to highlight the following points:
➢ The majority of the respondents indicated that drug abuse is out of control in this study area.

➢ The majority of the respondents indicated that they think that the policing strategies to combat drug abuse are in place and are reasonably effective.

➢ The majority of the respondents maintained that the prevalent burglary is a direct consequence of drug abuse.

➢ The majority of the respondents suggested that the policing strategies to combat criminality in this area are in place, and that they are effective.

➢ High schools and their pupils are definitely vulnerable targets for drug dealers.

➢ One hundred per cent of the respondents indicated that there is a direct correlation between drug abuse and criminality.

### 4.6 Summary

With reference to the data collected, the researcher decided to highlight the following findings: The majority (55%) acknowledge that drug abuse is out of control. Not all the necessary pro-active crime-control strategies of the police have the desired effect. Means of intervention are still needed to
curb the scourge of drug abuse in Letlhabile. Nyaope and Marijuana seem to be the most prevalent drugs in this area. Although most people feel that the police strategies are effective, some had a different view.

There is definitely an increase in crime due to drug abuse in the study area. House-breaking (burglary) and theft are committed as economic crimes to sustain the drug habit. Some “offenders” steal goods from their own homes, in order to buy Nyaope and Marijuana. Crime, as a consequence of drug abuse, has become a prominent social problem in this community. The combative strategies, such as sector policing and community policing forums, are regarded as effective tools between the community and the police in Letlhabile.

High schools seem to be a prime target for drug distribution, because learners are vulnerable, and have cash on their persons. Furthermore, peer pressure was established as a risk factor in youth/learner involvement in drug use. Most importantly, the Letlhabile South African police service’s intelligence unit established a portfolio of evidence proving that high schools are being currently targeted by drug suppliers.

Finally, it is important to note that understandings formulated from professional practical experience indicate that the relationship between drug abuse and crime. It was reported that youths who are involved in
drug abuse start stealing property from their homes to sell for drugs. This changes individuals into non-law-abiding citizens.
CHAPTER 5: INTERTEXTUALITY BETWEEN THE FINDINGS AND THE THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The researcher's original intention was to investigate drug-related criminality (with specific reference to burglary) in the Letlhabe area in South Africa; and it specifically concentrated on issues, such as: the extent of drug abuse in the study area; the correlation between drug abuse and economic, as well violent crimes; understanding the nature of the correlation; and policing strategies to combat drug abuse and the previously mentioned crimes in the study area.

This chapter endeavours to create a synthesis of the empirical findings, the theoretical perspectives, and subsequently the researcher's assumptions of the phenomenon under scrutiny. The crux of the study was the issues related to drug abuse as an international problem, drugs in South Africa, the most prevalent drugs of choice, social factors, burglary and violence. These issues all emphasise the intertwined disposition of the research in question.

5.2 Drug abuse and burglary in the Letlhabe area in South Africa

The researcher has already made mention of the fact that he is a permanent resident of the Letlhabe community, and is in frequent touch
with the youths involved in the daily use of drugs. Therefore, drug abuse in the study area has, according to the gathered data, proved to be threatening to the stability of the community. The accumulated literature provides the understanding that drug abuse is as much an international social problem as it is a national and social problem. Knowledge to the effect of the harm done to society by drug abuse, as provided by the experts – such as Dr Bayever of the Central Drug Authority – is of great significance.

Dr Bayever (Mail and Guardian Newspaper, 2011) had maintained that drug consumption in South Africa is twice the world norm and that the use of specific drugs like dagga and cocaine has increased in recent years. This hard fact is compounded by the observations, as the respondents have set them out, of youths involved in drug use.

Robert Merton’s Anomie theory provides theoretical explanations to conditions, which give rise to states of normlessness. These states are understood to be a breakdown of the rules and principles of society, which ultimately result in the disruption of normal societal conditions. The conditions referred to exist in the Letlhabile community, as the gathered data would indicate. The literature maintains that the educational system has taken a great dip; as drug abuse is threatening the schooling environment. Unconventional parenting models, where there are more single parent or child-headed households are also related to this problem.

These conditions provide a conducive environment for possible alterations in a teenager’s behavioural development and growth as a responsible
human being in society. Such conditions give rise to the adoption of illegitimate views of society and the inability to subscribe to society’s principles. The gathered data also share a basis of understanding that there is an apparent lack of social development mechanisms/tools with which the young people can constructively develop and engage themselves, rather than being vulnerable to illegitimate influences in the harsh environment.

This harsh environment is characterised by the existence of immense forces of peer pressure and various influences, which compensate for the vulnerability to these conditions; as it is perpetuated by the lack of incumbent social development tools of moral and value construction. In essence, the Anomie Theory provides the explanation that a state of anomie exists when society’s principles and objectives are deregulated, as a result of the predisposition that exists. These predispositions seem to be an ongoing process in the Letlhabile community; and they need to be constructively addressed as a societal issue – and not as a crime/policing issue.

5.3 Conclusions and recommendations

1. The researcher is of the view that the implementation of Legislation and public policy developed to address the particular areas of concern in society is imperative for creating a drug-free society.
Public policy, such as the National Drug Master Plan of 2012 – 2016 and its predecessor the NDMP of 2006 – 2010; as well as legislation, such as the Drugs and Drug trafficking Act 140 of 1992 are all aimed at significantly impacting and ultimately reducing drug abuse and its related effects amongst the citizens of South Africa, and even more so, the youth of our country.

The National Drug Master Plan is designed to bring together government departments and involved stakeholders in the field of substance abuse, with the ultimate objective of combating the use and abuse of dependence-forming substances, and other substance-related problems. The United Nations Office of drugs and Crime also condemns the high levels of drug abuse in South Africa, stating that political and economic interventions are of the utmost importance in dealing with the supply and demand markets in the country.

The researcher, therefore, recommends that all stipulated and recommended resolutions assigned to all the stakeholders in the Central Drug Authority be precisely and thoroughly implemented. The Secretariat of the South African Police Service and the South African Police Service must adequately execute its Law Enforcement (the application and implementation of policies and laws, protocols and practices designed to reduce the imminent threat that is drug abuse) and duties, with reference to combating drug abuse.
2. Effective policing is of paramount importance in combating the threat of drug abuse in the study area. The model of intelligence-led policing must be promoted and adapted amongst the management of the South African Police Service in the study area where assessments and management risks are made. The researcher would like to recommend that there be a greater presence of police in the community of Letlhabile – in an effort to create a visible deterrent to users and suppliers of substances. In essence, the South African Police Service ought to take full note of the threat that drug use poses to the stability of a community. The gathered data indicate that drug use precedes criminality in the manifestation of the relationship, thus prompting the need for strict measures of attention and control. The Police need to take cognisance of the criminal elements, which manifest under the “cloud” of drug use. In the majority of Case Dossiers of the SAPS in Letlhabile, the researcher noted that the presence of substance abuse was not established, thus creating an opportunity for an individual to blame their criminal tendencies on drug use. The literature purports that some burglars are professionals, who take full advantage of situational keys, which provide them with success.

3. Policing functions, such as sector policing, should be executed with diligence and sustained professionalism. Police management should organise the community and community structures in a workable sector, establishing neighbourhood and business watches
to have a more structured and organised role in their safety and people’s property. This mechanism strives thereby to keep the community informed as far as issues affecting them are concerned. Sector policing allows for a far more effective manner of the execution of police duties and communal co-operation within the sector. Suspected criminality and social issues arising within a sector should be readily communicated to the sector commander, and be afforded an efficient authoritative response.

4. The researcher recommends the establishment of a national co-ordinating structure, which would be inclusive of all affected and involved government departments, which could then channel information regarding the socio-economic causes of and conditions conducive for criminal and anti-social behaviour, to those government departments or structures, which are in a position to thoroughly and effectively address these causes and conditions.

5. The data reported indicated that a substantial figure of violent criminality is prevalent in the study area. The researcher recommends that the management of the South African Police Service in Letlhabile – in collaboration with various civic movements and Non-Governmental Organisations should launch awareness campaigns, sensitising the inhabitants of the community to the dangers of violent acts of criminality. These campaigns would be able to create awareness and inform members of the community (people) of the avenues of assistance for victims of violent crime –
especially domestic violence and assaults to cause grievous bodily harm. These campaigns must serve as knowledge bases, whence individuals could be informed of the irresponsible use of alcohol and the affiliated implications thereof. It should be thoroughly conveyed that the letter of the law will most definitely be applied to individuals who contravene the laws of the Republic.

6. The researcher recommends that specialised policing (models and methods) be implemented in areas of concern. The researcher advocates the re-establishment of the South African Narcotics Bureau, which would be able to apply specialised skills and training towards the combating of the threat that drug abuse and its effects pose against our communities.

7. The researcher recommends that the North West Provincial government, in collaboration with the local and municipal council, establish a social-development centre, aimed at providing an alternative to the harsh social environment – and one that is conducive for involvement in drug use. The data reported suggest that the average age of substance-using youths is 16 – 22, individuals who are undergoing developmental phases, and are vulnerable to potential influences.

The social development centre should strive to construct and design manners in which the identified risk factors could be countered. Such centres should initiate programmes and curricula
that constructively address behavioural challenges in personal intraspaces.

8. The researcher recommends that efforts be put in place to educate the community of Letlhabele regarding drug use. The SAPS in Letlhabele, in conjunction with other role-players, i.e. provincial safety and security clusters and the municipal public safety department must launch communal safety-awareness campaigns aimed at informing the community of the safety threats that drug use and its affiliated criminality are posing. These campaigns must be innovatively designed to communicate a descriptive and explanatory message on social matters, i.e. school safety, drugs in schools, and school truancy to pursue drug habits. Inclusive in these campaigns would be means and avenues of immediate assistance to at-risk youths, who are the potential offenders or users of substances.

Principles and ethics, which counter the incumbent, must be highly promoted.

9. The researcher recommends that the fundamental pillars of the Criminal Justice System be re-affirmed and strengthened. The researcher calls for the full execution of policing functions and duties without any malice or favour, in order to rid the Criminal Justice System of undue irregularities, and to secure the full and proper implementation of the letter of the law. Inherently important, are police duties, such as the preliminary and main investigations of
a crime. These steps must be thoroughly executed with precision and diligence, in order to secure a positive outcome. The South African Police Service in Letlhabile must establish means to improve response periods to crime scenes. The researcher recommends that the management of the South African Police Service in the study area should efficiently and effectively utilise the resources – in order to address the needs of the community and substantially decrease the period of police response to an offence.

10. The data reported indicate to an extent that local high schools are targeted, in order for establishments to create a demand for substance-abuse procedures for ensuring a sufficient supply of substances. The researcher recommends that local high schools design memorandums of understanding with the South African Police Service – in an effort to make the school environment safe and secure from substance abuse. Thorough police operations, such as unannounced school premise searches and seizures, random urine tests for substance use, and campaigns, such as the Adopt-a-cop are of paramount importance. In addition to the abovementioned, the researcher recommends that professional skills, such as Psychologists and Social Workers be employed in the vicinity of the school premises. This is aimed at the provision of professional assistance for at-risk learners, who exhibit elements or characteristics of potential anti-social behaviour. The early identification and intervention means could be of assistance for
those learners who seem to be unable to cope properly in the schooling environment – due to their particular social problems.
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