Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of their adolescent children who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of M.A. Social Work in the Department of Social Work at the University of the Western Cape

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August 2019
ABSTRACT

Substance abuse remains a debilitating social issue for many people in South Africa. It generally has a devastating effect on family life, and especially so when adolescents become dependent on substances, as it can have an adverse impact on their development. Interventions with adolescents include dealing with often complex developmental issues, dependence on family, and their support, which requires therapists to have special skills and patience to engage them in often complex treatment outcomes. The parent of a substance abusing adolescent is considered a role player in the aftercare of a substance abuse treatment programme as defined by the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act, 70 of 2008. The role of the parent is defined by their ability to monitor and supervise the adolescent and susceptible they are to adapt their parenting style to suit the developmental needs of the child. The study sought to explore and describe the dynamics involved with parents and adolescents who have been through such a programme and how that can be utilised to influence their sobriety. This qualitative study, embedded in an exploratory descriptive research design, explored the role of the parent in the aftercare of their adolescent children who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse. The population for this study included parents of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse and living in Port Elizabeth, Uitenhage and Despatch, in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. Purposive sampling was utilised to access 17 participants, and focus group, group and individual interviews were conducted as the data collection methods. The research interviews were transcribed and thematically analysed according to Moustakas (1994), and nine main themes emerged. The findings of the study will inform service providers and organs of State regarding the services needed to ensure continued support for adolescents who have been abusing substances. The main themes relating to the goal of the study were understanding the term ‘aftercare’, reflections on why adolescents were abusing substances, reflecting on experiences while the adolescent was abusing substances, parents’ experiences after the adolescent returned home, expectations of adolescents after treatment, parents’ views of what the adolescent in recovery needs, parental roles and responsibilities in recovery, informal support to the adolescent and his/her parents and descriptions of social workers in aftercare.

Keywords

Adolescent, aftercare, parent, treatment programme, substance abuse, social worker
## ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>Alcoholics Anonymous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSD</td>
<td>Department of Social Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>Narcotics Anonymous</td>
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<tr>
<td>NIDA</td>
<td>National Institute of Drug Abuse</td>
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<tr>
<td>SACENDU</td>
<td>South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAMHSA</td>
<td>Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>SANCA</td>
<td>South African National Council on Alcohol and Drug Abuse</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUD</td>
<td>Substance Use Disorder</td>
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<tr>
<td>SU</td>
<td>Service User</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNODC</td>
<td>United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime</td>
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DEFINING KEY WORDS AND CONCEPTS

**Adolescent**: Adolescence is a development phase that occurs at approximately 11 to 21 years of age. This study focused on the middle adolescence (14–18 years) which, is generally characterised by continued brain development and psychosocial development (Ruffin, 2009:2–3) as well as transformational parental relationships and increasing scope of emotions (Curtis, 2015:16–17).

**Aftercare**: The ongoing professional support to a service user after a formal treatment episode has ended in order to enable him or her to maintain sobriety or abstinence, personal growth and to enhance self-reliance and proper social functioning as defined by the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act 70 of 2008 (RSA, 2008).

**Social worker**: A person registered with the South African Council for Social Service Professions (SACSSP), in terms of chapter 2, section 17, of the Social Service Professions Act 110 of 1978 (RSA, 1978), to provide social work services generally within a welfare organisation or registered as a private practitioner.

**Substance use disorder**: The continued use of substances despite the significant harmful effect it has on the individual in terms of cognitive, behavioural and physiological aspects of the person’s life. It is characterised by the increased tolerance to achieve the desired effect of euphoria, withdrawal, craving and periods of lapses and relapses Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5, 2013:483).

**Treatment services**: The provision of specialised social, psychological and medical services to service users and to persons affected by substance abuse with a view to addressing the social and health consequences associated therewith as defined by the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act 70 of 2008, (RSA, 2008).

**Treatment centre**: A private or public treatment centre registered or established for the treatment and rehabilitation of service users who abuse or are dependent on substances as defined by the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act 70 of 2008, (RSA, 2008).
Parent: The caregiver of a child who is responsible for the care, contact, maintenance and guardianship of that child as defined by Section 18 (2) (a–d) of the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005). A parent can be biological, adoptive, step or ancestral (grand- or great-grandparent).
DECLARATION

I declare that the study entitled ‘Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of their adolescent children who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse’ is my original work; that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other University, and that all the sources I have used, or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

KAREN FELKERS

DATE: May 2019
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like thank the Heavenly Father for taking me through this journey and helping me to reach my goal. It was not always easy, many times lonely and frustrating, but an experience of Grace and Growth.

To my study supervisors, Professor Catherina Schenck and Prof Veonna Goliath, thank you for all your guidance and support on this journey. I especially want to thank Prof Goliath for her patience, counselling and available space and ear whenever I so desperately needed it.

My family, especially my mother Marlene, thank you for being there and understanding when I needed to spend time away from you. Thank you for your support especially during the last few months.

To my fellow colleagues and ‘post-grad group’, thank you for being a source of support these past years. Riefqah Casker, you are amazing. Thank you for being my soundboard and encouraging me so many times when I wanted to give up.

To my friends, thank you for checking in with me, encouraging me and understanding when I could not be with you, offering support and space to work when I need it. To Manisha Campbell, thank you for always being my patient listener and helping me guide my thoughts. You are a very treasured part of my life.

Last but in no measure the least, to my participants, thank you for sharing your experiences with me. Without your stories this study would not have been possible. Thank you for being open about your challenges and vulnerabilities, I will endeavour to hear and act on your pleas and together really make a change in the lives of our children.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Rationale

“… drug and alcohol problems do not discriminate. They occur in good and bad families as well as in happily married couples; they happen to the rich and the poor; to single divorced parents, to the young and the old and to men and women alike” (Hitzeroth & Kramer, 2010:ix).

Substance abuse has become a common occurrence in many environments and is the one social ill that can be linked to any and almost all other social issues in nearly any community and society. Its harmful effect is felt throughout all spheres of life, especially within the family unit. It is this common occurrence and social acceptance of substance use and abuse that makes children, and specifically adolescents, particularly vulnerable (Hitzeroth & Kramer, 2010:16). This often leads them to explore and experiment with substances because of their developmental stage and their susceptibility to putting greater reliance on the influence and acceptance of the peer group (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter & McWhirter, 2004:119). Caught between what they perceive as social acceptance and greater independence, adolescents often become addicted to substances, which results in impaired judgment, poor decision making, health problems and risky behaviour (Van der Westhuizen, Alpaslan & De Jager, 2013:2).

When adolescent substance abuse reaches the point where it forms dependency, parents will often seek the assistance of professionals. In most cases these adolescents are not aware of the dangers of their substance abuse (Hitzeroth & Kramer, 2010:126). Interventions often include activities like group work, outpatient or residential treatment. In South Africa there are few support structures for parents with substance abusing children, especially for those who do not have a medical aid and are thus dependent on public health and government social care services (Maluleke, 2013:v–vi). When the adolescent does participate in some form of treatment programme, it is in most cases under duress from their school authority or some other statutory mandate.
Although the adolescent may benefit from a treatment programme, the threat to recovery is often greater and the rate of relapse is higher when aftercare services are neglected. When they have completed the programme, they are often faced with the lure of the substances again, as well as the possible difficulty of adapting to family life. It is in this milieu that the support of significant others is most needed. Families and practitioners alike have found there to be a great lack in aftercare and support services, as shown by several studies on the subject (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:103, Trout, Hoffman, Huscroft-D’Angelo, Epstein, Hurley & Stevens 2012:310, Naobes, 2016:3 and Carelse, 2018:148). The aftercare and support services aid them in assisting the adolescent with the skills needed to maintain a sober and healthy lifestyle. An aftercare service or programme is generally aimed at ensuring that the adolescent does not return to the harmful practice of substance abuse (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:103, Chapter 7 of the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, Act 70 of 2008, Reintegration and Aftercare Model for Substance Abuse Services, Department Social Development [DSD] 2008).

It is in this setting that the parent is considered a vital part of treatment when the formal programme has been completed. The parent, being in the primary environment of the adolescent after discharge from the treatment programme, plays a vital role in ensuring that reintegration goals are implemented and that he or she receives the necessary support in order to promote recovery. The study aimed to explore and describe the role of the parent in aftercare, their perceptions and what the theoretical and legislative frameworks prescribe.

In this chapter the researcher provides a brief introduction to the study, including the theoretical framework, the literature review, the problem statement, research question and aims as well as the research approach and methodology that were employed. The four chapters that follow define the literature, methodologies, discuss the findings and literature control and finally summarise, conclude and provide recommendations based on the findings.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

The paradigm for the research employed social constructivism as a way of understanding how participants have understood their respective experiences. Constructivism appreciates that individuals construct knowledge for themselves rather than passively receiving it from others (Loftus & Higgs, 2010: 379). Social constructivists accentuate the role that culture plays in helping to shape that knowledge (Loftus & Higgs, 2010: 377–388). This means that, based on
cultural values and ethics, perceived experiences and perceptions may differ from person to person regardless of whether the processes were identical. The researcher viewed this as an added advantage as participants’ perception of their lived experiences varied based on cultural, societal and economic upbringing. For example, in some instances they may have viewed themselves as agents, sources or victims of a particular situation.

Tobin and Tippins (1993, cited in Slezak, 2010:102) postulate that people attempt to give meaning to particular experiences through the imaginative use of existing knowledge. This means that when confronted with a particular situation, people may revert to how they reacted in a previous, similar occasion and build on that experience to apply to their current circumstance. The relevancy of this concept to the study relates to how participants perceived and coped with their circumstances in terms of their substance abusing children. Constructivism refers to ordering our acuity into a world where the reality is built on our perception. That experienced phenomena are therefore the only reality we know for sure (Husserl 1997, 1999; Glasersfeld, 2007, as cited in Brier, 2009).

1.3 Literature Review

A healthy and productive society requires that its members maintain healthy and responsible lifestyles. In 2010 it was reported that South Africa had one of the highest levels of alcohol use in the world with more than 25% of users engaging in risky drinking (Hitzeroth & Kramer, 2010:37). In 2012 South Africa reportedly experienced an increase in the use of heroin, methamphetamine and methcathinone, with treatment facilities across the country reporting that specifically heroin use was a growing concern. Polydrug use was also reported as a common phenomenon among drug users in treatment, e.g. the use of cannabis and methaqualone among methamphetamine users and methamphetamine among heroin users, as was the use of benzodiazepines, narcotic analgesics and codeine-containing preparations which mostly encompass over-the-counter (OTC) drugs (United Nations Office on Drugs [UNODC] and Crime World Drug Report, 2013).

One of the major challenges, especially in economically deprived communities, is the relatively easy access to alcohol and other drugs (Morojele, Parry, Brook & Kekwaletswe, 2012:202). This, together with poor control measures, has a direct effect on the level of usage within a particular community. Legislation, for instance, prohibits the sale of alcohol to persons under the age of 18 years, yet they are able to purchase alcohol easily from local
taverns and shebeens managed illegally (Mudavanhu & Schenck 2014:386). Although the income derived from the sale of illegal drugs and illegal sales of alcohol often provide a much needed resource to poor families, the lack of control in most cases has a negative effect on their communities (Naobes, 2016:35). Potgieter, Goliath & Pretorius (2010) assert that children who are exposed to environments where substance use and abuse has become a societal norm are more likely to engage in using as well.

The Eastern Cape, as one of the poorest provinces in South Africa, is also familiar with the negative effects of alcohol and drug abuse. The South African Community Epidemiology Network on Drug Use (SACENDU) reports that between January 2014 and June 2018 a total number of 4 742 documented persons accessed professional help from various treatment centres in Port Elizabeth (SACENDU, 2019:32). The number of those who accessed informal help, support groups, and support services outside these documented treatment centres far exceeds this number. These statistics reflect that alcohol remains the most prevalent abused substance with cannabis (dagga) and methamphetamine (tik) following closely. The statistics for adolescents of the Eastern Cape show that for the age group 15–19 years and reporting period January 2015–June 2017 approximately 469 adolescent accessed services and that cannabis and methamphetamine are the most prevalent substance of use, with alcohol use following but fluctuating based on time of the year, for example school holidays, especially December (SACENDU, 2019:39).

Poor parenting can have a detrimental effect on how the adolescent develops. Baumrind (1991) postulates that certain parenting styles have a better outcome on the development of adolescents based on how parents apply and are involved in the lives of their children. For example, adolescents from authoritarian parents are less likely to display problem-like behaviour and are more prone to demonstrate cognitive differentiation. It is these characteristics that form part of the building blocks of responsible human development. The lack of strong parental involvement and poor support has a direct influence on the success of any intervention aimed at the adolescent. Looking at the influence of parenting styles and the components linked to parenting, the research project aimed to define the role of the parent in the aftercare of the adolescent child who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse.
1.4  Problem Statement

Substance abuse services to adolescents remain a challenge especially in the South African context. This is mainly due to the few treatment facilities available and insufficient support for adolescents and their families as experienced in practice setting. The public service sector in particular does not provide adequate treatment services to especially vulnerable and indigent populations. Most preventative programmes are aimed at those who already live healthy lifestyles, with few awareness programmes aimed at their peers who present with risky behaviour. Despite a clear legislative framework and governmental model, aftercare and reintegration services are generally very poorly delivered (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:124, Maluleke, 2013:5). It is in this everyday environment that the adolescent faces the biggest challenge to society. Anecdotal evidence indicates that organisations that render substance abuse treatment programmes do so with relative success while the child is participating in the programmes, as this is often a controlled environment limiting opportunities for substance use. The duration of such programmes is generally four to six weeks, after which aftercare services should ideally last six to eighteen months, but it is an ongoing intervention aimed at preventing relapse (Smook, Ubbink, Ryke & Strydom, 2014:75). The lack of support and aftercare services essentially impacts negatively on the ability of the adolescents to prevent relapse (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:34) and consequently results in readmission to treatment. This makes the role the parent plays in relapse prevention and abstinence from substances all the more vital. The literature review and practice experience suggest that parents and caregivers are often unaware of the impact they have on ensuring that these adolescents maintain a healthy lifestyle after their participation in a treatment programme. Although several studies have been conducted on aftercare services and the perceptions of service practitioners (Van der Westhuizen, 2007, 2010; Naobes, 2016; Maluleke, 2013), only a few studies focus on the role of the parent. This gap has been addressed in this study.

1.5  Research Question

The research question was formulated as follows:

*What is the role of parents in the aftercare of their adolescent children who participated in substance abuse treatment programmes?*
1.6 Research Aim

The aim of this study was to explore and describe the role of parents in the aftercare of adolescent children who participated in a substance abuse treatment programme.

1.7 Research Objectives

The objectives of this study were the following:

- Explore and describe the experiences of the parents regarding their adolescent children’s substance abuse;
- Explore and describe the experiences of parents of their adolescent children’s participation in the substance abuse treatment programmes;
- Explore and describe the perceptions of parents about their role in aftercare treatment of their adolescent children who have participated in a treatment programmes for substance abuse;
- Explore and describe the expectations parents have of support structures for their adolescent children and the family as a whole.

1.8 Research Approach

The research approach for the study was qualitative, which is defined as understanding “human action from the social actors themselves” (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:270). De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport (2005:74) describe qualitative research as studies that give meaning to perception and experience. The researcher chose this approach as it is descriptive in purpose and generally gives more meaning to the study. The researcher views qualitative studies as allowing conversations with its participants which enables the collection of richer data and opens for opportunity to truly understand the world from the point of view of the participants.

1.9 Research Design

The research design is described as the strategic framework of the research process (Babbie & Mutton, 2011:647), and coherent with the specific research purpose. The research design of the study was exploratory which can be defined as setting out to learn about a given subject
when the subject itself may be poorly defined (Stebbins, 2001:8). Due to limited literature available on the subject of the role of the parent in aftercare the researcher wanted to explore and describe their perceptions of the significant role they could play in the recovery of their adolescent. It is based on this gap and practice experience that the researcher decided to embark on an exploratory study, as described and supported by Babbie (2010: 92) as having three basic purposes namely “(1) to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding, (2) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study, and (3) to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study”.

1.10 Research Methodology

Research methodology in concerned about the process of finding out what we believe there is to know Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999 cited in Goliath 2014:126 ) and can further be described as the methods and techniques implemented as part of the research design (Babbie & Mouton. 2011:647). As the study was a qualitative research project, data was collected through focus group interviews with five participants and group interviews consisting of two participants per session. These methods were adapted as the researcher had initially anticipated to conduct at least two or three different sessions whereby participants could choose a date most suitable to their schedule, but due to availability of participants had to accommodate participants in different sessions. Each participants only attended one session.

1.10.1. Research Setting

The researcher is a social worker in the Department of Social Development in the Nelson Mandela Metropole of the Eastern Cape Province. She is involved in the field of Restorative Services with a specific focus on substance abuse prevention and treatment. Through this exposure the need for a study to explore the topic was identified. The research project consequently took place in Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape, South Africa.

1.10.2 Population

Arkava and Lauer (1983 in De Vos et al., 2005:193) define ‘population’ as a concept that sets boundaries for the study units. It refers to individuals in the population who possess specific characteristics and are a set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the researcher are represented. The population group for this study included parents and
caregivers of adolescents who participated in a substance abuse treatment programme and were living in Port Elizabeth, Uitenhage and Despatch. A total number of 17 participants formed part of the study.

1.10.3 Sampling

Sampling refers to any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe (Kerlinger, 1986, in De Vos et al., 2005:196). In this study, purposive sampling was applied. This type of sampling is informed by the judgment of the researcher, and allows the researcher to recruit participants that would add the biggest value to the study (De Vos et al., 2005:202).

The criteria for selection were as follows:

- Parents and caregivers of adolescents who are between the ages of 13-17 years who had participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse during the last 18 months;

- Parents who resided in the Nelson Mandela Metropole and were available and willing to participate in the research study;

- Parents whose adolescents had been living with them since the completion of the substance abuse treatment programme.

Sampling was done by the researcher through contact with both organisations that render social services and who had referred clients for substance abuse treatment. Participants were contacted through their databases. Although the study initially intended to utilise the databases of two organisations, only one facility was used as the other had closed its services. Contact and preparation were made with the participants before the actual interviews in order to invite them and prepare for the interviews.

The interviews were be done in order to meet the participants and establish rapport with them. The first interview was an orientation meeting where the researcher shared general, specific information regarding the research process and the ethical protocols of qualitative research. In keeping with qualitative research, the researcher planned to include 16 participants, on condition that data saturation would be reached. The final sample comprised 17 participants.
1.10.4 Data collection

Data collection is a process whereby information is retrieved from a chosen sample. The study included three methods of data collection, namely semi-structured individual interviews, group interviews (two participants) and focus group (three and more participants) interviews, as deemed most suitable by Neuman (2003, in De Vos et al. 2005:350–351) for qualitative studies. These semi-structured interviews allowed for the flexibility to probe in order to gain a deeper understanding of the parent’s views surrounding the research topic (Rubin & Babbie, 2005) and allowed the researcher to adjust the method in order to suit the study and participants. Bless and Higson-Smith (2004:97) refer to data as “facts expressed in a language of measurement” and differentiate between primary data – the process when the researcher collect their own data – and secondary data, which are collected by other researchers, for example in a census.

Focus groups and group interviews were used for data collection. During the interviews the researcher made use of interviewing skills and communication techniques to effectively draw the participants’ involvement in the interview. Interviews were recorded and the researcher also made use of field notes during the interviews. Permission was sought from the participants to record the interviews to ensure accuracy in capturing the participants’ responses. Refer to Appendix E for the interview guideline.

1.10.5 Pilot study

A pilot interview was conducted to test the feasibility of the study and semi-structured interview guidelines were applied. The purpose of the pilot interview was to explore how the participants would respond to the interview questions and whether the researcher would be able to extract the relevant data. Based on the outcome of the pilot study, the researcher was able to modify the questions to best gather the data. The participants of the pilot study were asked to comment on the interviewing method and whether they were able to understand what was expected from them.
1.11 Data Analysis

Thematic data analysis was conducted according to the framework presented by Moustakas (1994, in Creswell, 2010:80–82), as data analysis is concerned with building on the data of the research questions. The procedure was as follows:

- The researcher went through the data collected through the interviews and transcriptions and highlighted significant statements, sentences and quotes that provided understanding of how the participants experienced the problem.
- The researcher then developed clusters of meaning from these statements into relevant themes.
- These statements and themes were used to write a description of what the participants experienced and a description of the context or setting that influenced the participants’ experience, also referred to as imaginative variation, or structural description.
- Using the structural and textural descriptions, the researcher wrote a composite description that presents the fundamental nature of the problem, also called the ‘essential invariant structure or essence’ (Creswell, 2010:82). This area focused on the common experiences of the participants and is a descriptive passage, comprising a paragraph or two aimed at satisfying the reader with the understanding of the participants’ experiences.
- An independent coder was used to ensure that the findings were free from bias.

1.12 Trustworthiness

The value of any research study is that it is a true and reliable interpretation of the subject. Guba (1981, in Krefting, 1991) identifies truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality as four criteria applicable to the assessment of research of any. These are explained and were applied as follows:

1.12.1 Truth value

Truth value depends on whether the researcher has established confidence in the truth of the findings within the context of the study and shows how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, research participants, and context. The researcher was involved in the data collection process and could guide the process in terms ensuring that the participants understood what was expected of them.
1.12.2 Applicability

Applicability refers to the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups. Guba (1981, in Krefting, 1991) further recognise two perspectives to applicability that is appropriate for qualitative research. It defines each situation as unique and thus less open to generalisation and also refer to “fittingness, or transferability” (Krefting, 1991:217) as the decisive factor against which applicability of qualitative data is assessed. This criterion is met when the research findings fit into contexts outside the study situation and are determined by the degree of similarity or goodness of fit between the two contexts. The selection criteria of participants were persons who had been through the experience, together with how the applicability of data collected was deemed to be appropriate.

1.12.3 Consistency

The consistency of the data is the extent to which the repeated administration of an interview guideline in this study provides the same data and how the value of repeatability of the testing procedures does not alter the findings. The key to qualitative research is to learn from the participants rather than control them in order that the instruments that assess the consistency in qualitative research are the researcher and the informants. Consistency was measured through data collected from the participants as well as comparison to literature collected on the subject.

1.12.4 Neutrality

Neutrality is the freedom from bias in the research procedures and results and refers to the degree to which the findings are a function exclusively of the participants and conditions of the research. It is free from other biases, motivations, and perspectives. Qualitative researchers attempt to increase the worth of the findings by decreasing the distance between the researcher and the participants though prolonged contacts and lengthy interviews. The researcher had several contact opportunities with the participants to establish rapport and to create an environment of trust, ensuring that the interpretation of the collected data was contextually relevant.
1.12.5 Reflexivity

Erlinda, Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas, & Caricativo (2017:427) refers to reflexivity as the researcher's investigative and logical attention to their role in the research process. That it is a continuous process and entails self-awareness and introspection. The authors further state that reflexivity infers of the role of subjectivity by the researcher as well as their reflection on their values (Parahoo, 2006 in Erlinda et al. 2017:427). On deciding to embark on this research journey, the researcher looked at an everyday issue in her working career. Looking at the devastating effects on substance abuse, the multiple interventions undertaken and the poor outcome inspired her to look at the missing link in the chain. As researcher, she envisages that her role is to ensure that the information gained through this study will help equip the community at large on how to deal the negative effects of substance abuse in society.

1.13 Ethics Statement

Ethical considerations, according to Creswell (2003:62–63), are the codes of ethical practice that the researcher needs to take into account when undertaking a study. These are issues that affect the study and especially those who participate in it. As the study fell under the auspices of the University of the Western Cape, ethical considerations and aspects complied with the requirements of the UWC Senate Research Committee.

1.13.1 Preparation of participants

Participants were informed of the nature of the study as well as their role in gathering the information. They were consequently invited to share based on their own experience and perceptions on the subject. Participants were informed that this study was not an extension of the treatment programme but rather that the information gathered during this study would be used to guide the practice strategies on the service needs of parents of adolescents who had received treatment for a substance abuse disorder. The researcher requested permission from participants to record the interviews in order to extract the maximum exact data. She also assured participants of confidentiality.
1.13.2 Voluntary participation

It was explained to the participants before the commencement of the interview that they had the right to withdraw at any time should they choose. Each participant also signed an informed consent form which confirmed this agreement (Creswell, 2003:64).

1.13.3 Anonymity

The researcher ensured the participants that they would remain anonymous throughout the study and beyond; Holloway & Wheeler (2003:61) suggests that this is done in order assure participants that their names would not be revealed to external sources. The researcher therefore also ensured that neither she nor the readers could identify which responses belonged to which participants, as supported by Babbie (2004:65). Extra care was taken to assure participants of their anonymity in cases where they might have felt that exposure might prejudice them; especially should they need services in the future.

1.13.4 Confidentiality

Along with anonymity, confidentiality plays a vital role in the protection of participants’ identities. Babbie (2004:66) states that confidentiality must be applied even when the researcher knows what response was from which participant, and needs to let that participant’s identity remain unknown. The participants were assured that the information gathered would remain confidential and would only be used for the purposes intended. Participants were also informed that the anonymity and confidentiality of each person participating was highly valued and that particular care would be taken in sharing any information regarding the study with others outside the study. The records of the study, transcripts and recordings, were kept in the possession of the researcher and she is the only person that has access to these records.

1.13.5 Beneficence

The researcher took special care to protect the participants from any form of harm. Participants in the study were considered a vulnerable population in their communities; therefore the researcher had to ensure that all the ethical aspects were adhered to. Although participation was voluntary, participants were informed of what the study entailed as well as how the researcher aimed to interpret the data collected. This is also referred to as ‘informed consent’ (Babbie & Mouton, 2007:522) although participants had to agree to the study as well.
1.13.6 **Debriefing**

At the end of each session participants were probed on their experience of the interview, to ensure that they were not left traumatised by what they shared in the research interview. Participants generally reflected a positive experience of the interviews and no further follow up was required. Debriefing is aimed at terminating the interview in such a manner that the participant feels empowered in the end. The researcher was also prepared to refer the participants to appropriate organisations should the need arise for any form of supportive intervention. In addition, the researcher had approached two social workers, a veteran and a social worker in non-profit practice, to assist with debriefing of participants as required.

1.13.7 **Ethics of sensitivity**

Weaver, Morse and Mitcham (2008:607) define ethics of sensitivity as the ability of professionals “to recognise, interpret and respond appropriately to the concerns of those receiving professional services”. In the research setting, with particular care of the participant as a client, and the researcher as a helping professional, a deliberate effort was made by the researcher to take cognisance of the participants’ vulnerability to the study. The researcher ensured as far as possible that participants would understand their role as data collection agents rather than clients advocating for services, and the researcher as that of researcher rather than therapist.

1.14 **Significance of the Study**

Substance abuse remains a debilitating social issue for many people in South Africa. The effect it has on the family life, especially when adolescents become dependent on substances, can have an adverse impact on the adolescent’s development. If sufficient support structures are not in place the intervention through substance abuse treatment programme becomes a fruitless exercise. The methodology selected for the study was aimed at best extracting the role of the parent after this treatment programme. The researcher endeavoured to add value to the plight of children addicted to substances in South Africa, and hopefully globally.

1.15 **Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided an introduction for the study as well as the methodologies used to conduct the study. An overview of the aim and objectives of the study was discussed as well
as the ethical considerations. The following chapter (Chapter 2) covers the literature review related to the topic of the research project. The chapter defines the adolescent and substance abuse, treatment and aftercare and looks at the role of the parent as described by the different theories, models and legislative frameworks. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology in further detail while the research findings and literature control are presented in Chapter 4. The final chapter, Chapter 5, provides a summary, conclusions and recommendations for the study as well as a concluding statement and self-reflection by the researcher.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The introductory chapter provided an overview of the study, a brief literature review and a description of the methodology followed. This chapter provides a literature review related to the specific components as comprised in the research topic.

In order to contextualise the study and with the aim of validating the research data against previous and existing knowledge and studies, the researcher reviewed available literature on the research topic. Henning (2004:27) postulates that the purpose of a literature review is to synthesise the literature with the research study and critically appraise it in relation to an existing body of literature. In looking at the instance of substance abuse in society, significant therapeutic value of aftercare services, the role of the parent in this intervention – especially in relation to the unique developmental stage of the adolescent – it was imperative for the researcher to review the scientific body of knowledge available to identify the gap the literature as supported by Babbie & Mouton (2011:565–566).

In doing so, a number of data sources were used in order to obtain relevant literature. The researcher, being a registered student at the University of the Western Cape, utilised the online library database available, as well as books from the library at the university. She also resides in Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape and as an alumnus, and then later registered as an external user, of the Nelson Mandela University, she utilised their online database and library material as well. Other sources of literature were the researcher’s own collection that was used in the context of the work place, especially legislation, books from the study supervisor’s own collection as well as those of colleagues, text books used for course material in undergraduate studies, various referrals of studies that were conducted in the related field, websites of credible organisations and bodies working in the substance abuse field, consultations with researchers who had conducted studies in similar fields as the research components, conversations with practitioners, and online material including videos and practice experience. All these sources contributed to the basis of the literature map.
In sourcing information, the researcher looked at the different components that made up the research title and study and formulated questions she aimed to answer using literature. In this chapter an overview is given of the literature as it pertains to the research topic, the phenomenon of substance abuse, the adolescent and substance abuse, parenting and aftercare, and treatment and aftercare.

2.2 The Substance Abuse Phenomenon

The World Health Organization (https://www.who.int/topics/substance_abuse/en/) defines substance abuse as the harmful or hazardous use of legal or illegal psychoactive substances that can lead to dependence when consumed and has a physical, social or emotional effect on that person. The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fifth Edition (DSM-5, 2013:483) defines a substance use disorder as a chronic, relapsing brain disease that is characterised by compulsive drug seeking and use, despite harmful consequences. It is a global phenomenon that during 2016 affected about 275 million people globally which comprises roughly 5.6% of the world population, according to the 2018 World Drug Report released by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2018:7). This report further states that an estimated 13.8 million people aged 15–16 years old used cannabis in 2016 alone, but it should however be noted that these figures are merely the recorded numbers and that the reality of use, especially among young people, is likely to exceed this number by far. That number reaches 63,223 for total persons accessing services at treatment centres in South Africa for the period July 2013 to December 2018 (SACENDU, 2019).

2.3 The Adolescent and Substance Abuse

Spano (2004:1) defines adolescence is a development phase that occurs at approximately 11 to 21 years of age. It is defined by three major stages, namely early adolescence (11–13 years), middle adolescence (14–18 years) and late adolescence (19–21 years). For the purpose of this research project, the focus was on the involvement of the middle adolescence group as this is the age group the researcher engages in in practice setting. According to the 2018 mid-year population estimates released by Statistics South Africa (2018:10) there are currently 4,733,790 persons between the ages of 15 and 19 living in South Africa, approximately 8.2% of the entire population.
This developmental stage is characterised by the formation of identity as described by Erik Erikson (1968, cited in Louw & Louw, 2007:309) in which the adolescent develops an awareness of him- or herself as an independent person. It is here where they need to define who they are, what is important to them and what course in life they want to take. Erikson further proposes that experimentation, exploring and questioning not be viewed as negative development outcomes, but deems it as an important component of how the adolescent forms personal and social identity. It is this search for identity that is often influenced by environmental factors, support, and concept of self that has a significant impact on the adolescent’s ability to navigate risk. This ability can be subjected by their capacity to cope with anxiety and stress, sense of connectedness, exercise control, their decision making skills and their sense of purpose in life (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter & McWhirter, 2013:135–141).

In many ways both parents and professionals have a subconscious expectation of adolescents to be accountable for their actions and to demonstrate discernment about what is perceived as right and wrong. However, science supports the observation that biology fails them in this regard. Figure 2.1. illustrates the development of the human brain and how the prefrontal cortex, the part of the brain that controls executive functions like decision making is only fully developed during early adulthood.

![Brain development diagram](https://etd.uwc.ac.za)

**Figure 2.1: Brain development** [Source: Gogtay, Giedd, Lusk, Hayashi, Greenstein, Vaituzis, Nugent, Herman, Clasen, Toga, Rapoport, & Thompson, 2004]
In a study conducted by Dr Adriana Galvàn, a scientist at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) (Galvàn, 2013) it is suggested that adolescent behaviour is therefore principally guided by a reward-related neural circuitry system and that seeking pleasurable experiences is paramount to this developmental stage. In a more practical setting this means that the average adolescents’ behaviour is guided by their perception of the sense of pleasure and feeling good. This illustration clarifies the poor insight levels and adolescents’ underestimation of the effects of substance use.

Another equally significant feature of adolescence is the importance of peer influence and acceptance (Hoberg, 2003; Christie & Viner, 2005; Oser, Leukefeld, Tindall, Garrity, Carlson, Falck, Wang, & Booth, 2011). It is this peer influence, together with parental control measures, that ultimately has a significant impact on the adolescent’s ability to maintain a healthy lifestyle with healthy habits, or whether they would engage in risky or challenging behaviour. The prevalence in society of substance abuse and lack of alternate stimuli often hinders the adolescent’s ability to navigate safely through at-risk situations. Hoberg (2003:245–246) refers to the relation of peer influence in drug abuse with specific reference to how drug abuse with adolescents very seldom takes place, or is initiated in isolation, but generally within a peer group. The author further suggests that peer groups form an essential part of belonging especially when it comes to adolescents. Substance use is therefore seen in most settings in the adolescent spheres as a mode of seeking reassurance and acceptance (Carey & Knight 1990, in Hoberg, 2003). It therefore stands to reason that when substance use is the norm of a particular group, the adolescent is inclined to conform to that norm and will be given recognition when giving in to peer pressure, which at this developmental stage is a core need for the adolescent. It is then this negative influence and pull of the peer group together with the adolescent’s need for acceptance within the group and often going against the principles of parental guidelines that become an area of conflict between the parent and child, negatively influencing their relationship. It therefore become incumbent on the parent to try and steer the adolescent away from the inclination to associate with a negative peer group and assist him or her in acquiring new, healthy habits during the aftercare phase.

When there is understanding of how the adolescent brain is wired, we are then able to gain insight on how the harmful effects of the substances especially on the body and the decision- and thought-making processes should be dealt with. Various studies and literature (Spano, 2004:3; Ruffin, 2009:350, Hitzeroth & Kramer, 2010:21–25; Galvàn, 2013:89; Melgosa, 2016:96–99) have supported how the development of the adolescent brain has influenced their
ability to make appropriate emotional and judgmental decisions and how it is geared toward seeking pleasurable experiences. This information can now be used in planning appropriate interventions in the relevant environmental milieu they are part of.

2.4 The Role of Parenting and Aftercare

For the purpose of report in this thesis, both parents and caregivers will henceforth be referred to as only ‘the parent’ and no legislative distinction is made between the two. The researcher acknowledges that the adolescent child is not always cared for by the natural parent but will refer to any primary carer of the adolescent as the parent. In trying to define the role of the parent in the aftercare of their adolescent, the researcher will attempt to define the role of a parent and unpack to some degree how parenting influences this role. South African legislation, in terms of the Children’s Act, 38 of 2005 Section 18 (2) (a–d) (RSA, 2005) defines the responsibilities and rights of parents as to care; maintain contact, act as guardian and contribute to the maintenance of a child. Brock and Barnard (2008:94) suggest that one of the reasons parents tend to abuse or neglect their children is their misconception of their role as a parent. These authors further contend that parenting by definition is a continuous and involving activity requiring the parent to comprehend the imbalances of the relationship, in which they have to give more than they take, and in nature, it is a very difficult job. This challenge is exacerbated by the generation gap that demands efforts be aimed at continuously fostering a good communication system (Melgosa, 2016:63).

In attempting to elucidate the role of the parent the researcher uses Maslow’s hierarchy of needs model to illustrate that in order for a person to reach his or her full potential, each level on the hierarchy needs to be met, implying that the role of the parent in fulfilling these needs is paramount to the adolescent as a developing person. Winek, Dome, Gardner, Sackett, Zimmerman and Davis (2010:51) argue that before higher needs (self-actualisation) can be fulfilled, basic needs must be met and in the case of the person with a substance use disorder (SUD) their recovery will be stunted when those needs are unattended, keeping in mind that the adolescent is still dependent on his or her parents to provide these needs. The diagram in Figure 2.2 depicts Maslow’s hierarchy of needs.
Upon completing the treatment programme the adolescent is discharged back into the care of the parent or caregiver. It is generally expected that during the treatment period, the family will also be able to participate in structured programmes (Katouziyan, 2017:38) as family involvement is an evidence-based practice guideline as mandated by the various legislative frameworks (Children’s Act 38 of 2005, [RSA, 2005], Department Social Development’s Integrated Service Delivery Model for Developmental Social Services (ISDM), [DSD, 2005] and The Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse, Act, 70 of 2008 [RSA, 2008]). These programmes are aimed at preparing the environment for the return of the adolescent and especially at equipping them to deal with secondary needs necessary for the life stage development. This is the ideal, but most often does not happen in practice for various reasons. Anecdotal evidence would suggest that many social workers do not follow up with parents and family while the adolescent is in treatment (Van der Westhuizen, iv:2010 and Carelse 138:2018). Another contributing factor is that parents of adolescents, being overwhelmed with their substance dependency and/or delinquent behaviour (Swartbooi, 2013:53), often become resistant in participating in treatment programmes and abdicate this responsibility to those offering such programmes (Levinthal, 2008:410; Abdulla & Goliath, 2015:214). Meanwhile, these social workers have other cases to manage as well, and if the parental participation is not mandatory it will seldom take place.

The goal of such programmes is also to attempt to address factors that may have contributed to the substance abuse, which often include parent–adolescent relationship difficulties. The
aim is to help parents regain control and empower them with the necessary skills to raise a successful adult and meet their basic, psychological and self-fulfilment needs along the way. The parent’s ability to supervise and control is often also where conflict arises (Abdulla & Goliath, 2015:214) because the adolescent is finding his or her own voice and seeks greater independence but is still dependent on the care and protection of the parent.

Taking Maslow’s model as foundation for human development, and working on the assumption that the role of a parent is to nurture and protect, attention is now given to how all other activities fall into these two basic categories. This section focuses specifically on how individual parenting styles influence the parent–child relationship. Figure 2.3 illustrates the relational components.

![Figure 2.3: The influence of parenting styles in nurturing and protecting](https://etd.uwc.ac.za)

Parenting outcomes can be measured by factors such as the relationship between parent and child, the parent’s presence or absence and the level of parental support and control (Snyder, Glaser & Calhoun, 2015:467–468). Section 7 of the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) looks at the relationship as well as the attitude between parent and child when determining the best interest of the child and how that relationship influences the parent’s right to exercise decision making on the child’s behalf.

In attempting to understand what parenting is and how it is done, parenting styles are examined as explained through Baumrind’s model (1960) and the evolvement of theory by
Maccoby and Martin (1983) that are seminal sources in the development of the theory. The following diagram (Figure 2.4) illustrates the four most common parenting styles and how children are likely to respond to parental monitoring based on each style.

![Figure 2.4: Responsiveness and monitoring in parenting styles](source)

Although the literature does not provide clear and concise functions the parent needs to fulfil, various researchers have identified key aspects of parenting that enhance the recovery and sobriety of the adolescent. The role of the parent is therefore encapsulated in their ability to maintain and foster good communication levels, and an awareness about their adolescents’ supervision and monitoring needs (Yang, Stanton, Cottrel, Kaljee, Galbraith, Li, Cole, Harris, & Wu, 2006:359–30; Abdulla, 2014). These authors postulate that parents’ tendency to over- or underestimate adolescent risk involvement has a direct impact not only on their ability to withstand risk behaviour but also to turn to their parents for advice.

Parental monitoring plays a significant role in building a meaningful relationship with adolescents (Yang et al., 2006:359–30) but is also fundamentally influenced by the parenting style exercised over their adolescent child (Abdulla, 2014:40). Higher parental monitoring
often results in a lowered risk behaviour which ultimately acts as a protective mechanism for adolescents (Li, Fang, Stanton, Su & Wu, 2003:130–131).

Ellis, Stein, Thomas and Meintjies (2012:240–242) identified protective factors against risky behaviour as parental monitoring, disciplined parenting, parental support, mutual attachment, a nurturing home environment, parental involvement, a strong family structure, high family connectedness, low familial stress, and family member non-substance abuse. On the other end of the spectrum high levels of conflict, low education levels, poor parenting practices, parental neglect, and poor role modelling have a significantly negative impact on adolescent development (Ellis et al., 2012:2). If parents play a more active role in their children’s lives, monitor their activities, support them and emphasise academic achievement often prompt them to choose peer groups who are more productive. Positive parenting combines a healthy balance of higher and lower parental monitoring generally viewed as the preferred method and directly related to adolescents engaging in healthy lifestyle behaviours (Davids, 2015:187).

In describing the different parenting styles, the terms ‘adolescents’ and ‘children’ will be used interchangeably, children referring to the general relation to the parent, and adolescent referring to the specific impact the parenting style has on that particular developmental stage and the role in aftercare.

2.4.1 Authoritative parenting

Authoritative parents encourage autonomy and are more willing to listen and consider the viewpoint of the adolescent (Kopko, 2007:2; Louw & Louw, 2007:194. They tend to be more responsive to their children’s needs, demonstrate greater consistency (McWhirter et al., 2013:88–91) and will engage their adolescents in discussion regarding expected behaviour. Adolescents of authoritative parents are generally more successful academically with better decision-making ability (Nyarko, 2011:279; Davids, 2015:275–276). This style of parenting may result in greater interaction during the recovery process of the child and may yield the best results towards recovery. Parents may be more susceptible to changes in behaviour and act accordingly.
2.4.2 Authoritarian parenting

Authoritarian parents are strict and highly demanding, not responsive, and place a high value on obedience and rules. They do not consider their child’s views and feel no need to explain their decisions (Smetana, 2011:194). Parental control and monitoring are high with this parenting style and nurturing and protection are therefore perceived as setting rules and the adolescent’s ability to adhere to those parental rules. During substance abuse aftercare this style of parenting may result in greater control and monitoring of the adolescents’ movements and behaviour changes. However for some children this confinement might be counterproductive especially in the absence of a nurturing environment.

2.4.3 Permissive parenting

Permissive parents are generally found to display low levels of responsiveness and are less demanding towards their children (Abdulla, 2014:41). They are often also referred to as indulgent parents and display more nurturing and forgiving characteristics; they rarely punish and their disciplinary methods are intended to support and encourage assertiveness. Children of parents with this style of parenting are often impulsive, rebellious, disobedient, confused and have no clear sense of boundaries (Louw & Louw, 2007:195; Smetana, 2011:194; Davids, 2015:266). This style of parenting may yield poor results during aftercare as adolescents may easily manipulate their parents regarding their recovery results and changed behaviour.

2.4.4 Neglectful parenting

Uninvolved parents are emotionally detached, less attentive to the needs of their children, make no demands on their children, do not carry out their parental responsibility and demonstrate little or no supervision, support or monitoring (Kopko, 2007:2–3; Louw & Louw, 2007:195; Smetana, 2011:194; Mudavanhu & Schenck, 2014:369). For children of parents who display this parenting style change is dependent on their own motivation to recovery as there is little to no involvement in the aftercare process, and dependence of change is transferred to other entities as experienced in practice setting.

The limited available literature on the role of parents in any at-risk behaviour may imply that the significance the of parents’ skill sets and resources in the lives of their children is not
always valued as an option. Parents are often not empowered enough to deal with the issues of their children.

There are, however, various sources of relevant literature available, including magazine and scholastic articles, blogs, vlogs and internet sites on how parents should nurture their children. This falls mainly in the top half of the hierarchy of needs model. Nurturing the adolescent, as with a child at any developmental stage, means that there is unconditional love and support, positive role modelling, involvement and interest, physical contact, intentionality about the future and consistent parenting, to name but a few nurturing techniques.

2.4.5 Dysfunctional Family Systems

In examining the role of the parent, one also needs to take cognisance of the role that dysfunctional family systems have in supporting sobriety. Dysfunctional family systems are characterised by being unresponsive and/or non-receptive to change and less probable to receive external motivation (McWhirter et al., 2013:86). Levinthal (2008:411) refers to these family dynamics as enabling behaviour that causes obstacles to rehabilitation in which behaviour like avoiding and shielding, attempting to control, taking over responsibilities, rationalising and accepting, cooperation and collaboration have become a family’s way of managing a member’s drug use.

Another significant role the parent plays in many cases is that of enabler, as defined by Wegscheider (1981, cited in Barsky, 2006:173). In this role, as it applies to the parent and the adolescent with the SUD, the parent will often cover up, protect and overcompensate for the SUD and work hard at keeping the peace and creating the illusion that everything is fine. The Melgosa (2016:62) supports the notion that many adolescents with a SUD stem from where parents also either use or abuse substances.

2.4.6 Parental Monitoring and Supervision

Monitoring and supervising adolescents can be a particularly stressful activity for many parents (Abdulla & Goliath, 2015:214; Snyder et al., 2015:468). In addition to the normal physiological and emotional development adolescents go through, substance abuse and other behavioural challenges can put further strain on the relationship. A study conducted by Abdulla in 2012 on the experiences of parents in monitoring their adolescents’ compliance
with diversion orders found that although they had a reasonable understating of what monitoring entailed; parents often experienced emotional and financial strain when it came to monitoring their adolescents (Abdulla & Goliath, 2015:216). Most parents fail to recognise that they still have a significant role in transferring positive influence in the life of the adolescent and that peer acceptance is a very important social validation for them (Melgosa, 2016:89) but that the two do not have to compete for influence on the adolescent. It is this misjudgement that tips the balancing scale of influence in the wrong direction. Various forms of communication are needed in order to maintain control and keep the interaction between parent and adolescent open. Other factors like single parenting, environmental tolerances to substance abuse, availability of resources and family support, however, also contribute to the parent’s inability to exercise supervision and control (Abdulla, 2014:131; Jarman, 2017:69).

The relationship between parents and adolescents, especially in the face of disagreements, can become so stressed that their submissive attitude is exchanged for open confrontation about their parents’ opinions. Often this confrontation can become so uncontrolled that the family needs professional help (Melgosa, 2016:62). Hilarski (2005:208) argues that substance abuse and challenging behaviour are often a result of poor family management, lack of positive parenting skills, and dysfunctional caregiving, however family support on the other hand can act as a protective factor.

2.5 Treatment and Aftercare

Interventions in substance abuse are categorised in four levels as adapted by the Department of Social Development’s Integrated Service Delivery Model for Developmental Social Services (ISDM) (Department Social Development, 2005) and The Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse (RSA, 2008), namely: 1) prevention programmes aimed at preventing a person from using or continuing to use substances that may lead to abuse or result in dependence, 2) early intervention to identify and treat potentially harmful substance use prior to the onset of overt symptoms associated with dependency on substances, 3) treatment, which is the provision of specialised social, psychological and medical services to service users and to persons affected by substance abuse with a view to addressing the social and health consequences associated therewith and 4) aftercare, the continuation of services upon the conclusion of the formal treatment intervention. As part of the continuum of care, most practitioners of SUDs consider aftercare one of the most important components.
of treatment as it extends beyond the time frames and auspices of the general treatment interventions (Carelse, 138:2018).

The Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, 2008) defines treatment as “the provision of specialised social, psychological and medical services to service users and to persons affected by substance abuse with a view to addressing the social and health consequences associated therewith”. It further defines rehabilitation as “a process by which a service user is enabled to reach and maintain his or her own optimal physical, psychological, intellectual, mental, psychiatric or social functional levels, and includes measures to restore functions or compensate for the loss or absence of a function”. Effective treatment needs a multidisciplinary approach (McNeece & Dinitto, 2012:100) aimed at assisting the person with a SUD in maintaining a healthy lifestyle, free from substance abuse and sustained recovery through the acquiring of new skills that will help them to cope and manage their dependence (Perkinson, 2008:77–80; Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, 2008) Section 35 (7)). Due to the complexity of SUD, its treatment needs and costs implications, services is often out of the reach of most people who need it, leaving the person with a SUD as well as his/her family feeling hopeless and despondent (Groenewald, 2016:7).

SUD is a very complex issue that can only be unpacked in understanding how it takes root in a person’s life. Understanding that it is a “chronic disease of the brain” indicates how to approach treatment, which, in essence should be done in the same manner as with any other chronic illnesses like hypertension, asthma or diabetes (Perkinson, 2008:xv). These common everyday diseases are treated as lifelong illness and not as “short-term” interventions lasting three to six weeks (as in the case with most voluntary interventions) or six to twelve months (the duration of mandated period for legal admissions as prescribed in terms of Section 35 (7) (c) of the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, 2008) as is the case with most substance abuse treatment programmes (Perkinson 2008:83–87; McNeece & Dinitto, 2012:125–127; Doweiko, 2015:426).

The challenge for many social workers in rendering an effective aftercare programme is that it does not enjoy the same set of urgency as other generic interventions might have. There is a growing sentiment, especially in the South African context, that services to persons with a SUD should be a specialisation field (Burnhams, Meyers & Parry, 2009:6; Van der Westhuizen, 2010:176–175; Maluleke, 2013:v–vi; Carelse, 2018:182). Such an approach would have a significant impact on the intensity of the services rendered.
Globally there are several substance abuse treatment options available for adolescents, based on a number of contributing environmental factors. The National Institute of Drug Abuse (NIDA) issued a practice guideline (NIDA, 2014:9–11) in which it identifies 14 main elements of substance abuse treatment for adolescents:

1. Adolescent substance use needs to be identified and addressed as soon as possible.
2. Adolescents can benefit from a drug abuse intervention programme even if they are not addicted to a drug.
3. Routine annual medical visits are an opportunity to ask adolescents about drug use.
4. Legal interventions and sanctions or family pressure may play an important role in getting adolescents to enter, stay in, and complete treatment.
5. SUD treatment should be tailored to the unique needs of the adolescent.
6. Treatment should address the needs of the whole person, rather than just focusing on his or her drug use.
7. Behavioural therapies are effective in addressing adolescent drug use.
8. Families and the community are important aspects of treatment.
9. Effectively treating SUD in adolescents requires also identifying and treating any other mental health conditions they may have.
10. Sensitive issues such as violence and child abuse or risk of suicide should be identified and addressed.
11. It is important to monitor drug use during treatment.
12. Staying in treatment for an adequate period of time and continuity of care afterward is important.
13. Testing adolescents for sexually transmitted diseases like HIV, as well as hepatitis B and C, is an important part of drug treatment.

In South Africa it is important to note that most programmes are aimed at preventative intervention as a method of treatment as experienced in practice setting. The outpatient and residential treatment options are aimed at offering a more intense and structured therapeutic intervention. Understanding that adolescent drug use and treatment requirements are not similar to those of adults as their usage and dealing with withdrawal differs and gives a platform to gear services towards their unique set needs is supported by van Zyl 2008 in van der Westhuizen (6:2010). Their perception of use, inability to recognise behaviour and need for help makes it necessary to address their treatment needs differently. These Principles of Adolescent Substance Use Disorder Treatment (NIDA, 2014:6) state that any treatment
interventions, regardless of the person’s age, need to take into account factors such as development and needs, cognitive abilities, and influence of family, friends, and other support systems in addition to mental and physical health. Interventions with adolescents include dealing with often complex developmental issues, dependence on family, and their support, which requires therapists to have special skills and patience to engage them in often complex treatment outcomes.

The Department of Social Development, through Section 8 of the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, 2008) together with the National Drug Master Plan (NDMP) 2013–2017 (DSD, 2013) and Ke-Moja Integrated Strategy (DSD, 2008) in partnership with the Department of Education in South Africa, have a prevention programme that is implemented in schools. The programme focuses on those learners who maintain healthy lifestyles and do not use substances. Its aim is to function as a peer educator system whereby teens will reach out to other teens. However, the programme is only implemented in a few schools per town and involves approximately 15–20 learners per school.

Figure 2.5 illustrates the components of drug abuse treatment as identified by the NIDA. And reflects how different types of services the person with SUD are needed within the clinical setting (inner circle) and extended support (outer circle).
The figure 2.5 illustrates that for each SUD a multitude or basket of support services are needed in order to ensure recovery however the demographic or economic context does influence the available of these resources as experienced in practice setting. All services are needed in order to implement an effective treatment programme. Most treatment facilities do offer most of these services depending on the entity it operates, for example government or private. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (UNODC, 2003) has identified an ‘Open access service’ as an integral part of the treatment response. The purpose of these types of services is not to provide formal treatment, but to offer a first contact point for persons affected by SUD. Those with a substance abuse problem are offered services such as accessing information and advice, community outreach, overdose prevention education, prevention services, counselling service, helplines for anonymous and confidential advice, referral information, advocacy self-help groups, family support groups, and general community aftercare and support services (UNODC, 2003:1–2). In South Africa these services take place through mainly White Door Centres of Hope, a Victim Empowerment Programme in the Department of Social Development, National and International bodies such as Alcoholics Anonymous (AA) and Narcotics Anonymous (NA), or faith-based groups and community-based organisations.

Adolescents in South Africa affected by a SUD have scant recourse to treatment, with few facilities rendering treatment services, most of them in the Western Cape and another few scattered throughout the country as supported by (Van der Westhuizen, 2010, Smook et al, 2014, Carelse, 2018 and SACENDU, 2019). The Eastern Cape Province in South Africa, for example, has only one public residential treatment facility for children aged 13 to 18 years. The only other registered facility rendering service to children is SANCA East London but this is also just on an outpatient basis and it is not a free service. Although several organisations may render services to children, few are substance abuse treatment orientated. Parents are therefore more reliant on the services rendered by the State organs.

Aftercare programmes are primarily aimed at promoting abstinence, maintaining sobriety and preventing relapse (Doweiko, 2015:437). These programmes are often not implemented because of existential causes like poor attendance, poor support and lack of interest by service users (SUs) (Maluleke, 2013:89–90), and professionals are not able, mainly for logistical reasons, to attend to these initiatives (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:185). Section 1 of the
Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act (RSA, 2008), which is the main legislative framework for SUD in South Africa, defines aftercare as an “ongoing professional support to a service user after a formal treatment episode has ended in order to enable him or her to maintain sobriety or abstinence, personal growth and to enhance self-reliance and proper social functioning”. When aftercare services are rendered to users and their families it not only significantly increases the potential of the person with a SUD to recover successfully but could also reduce the need for re-admission to a treatment facility (Rosenberg, 2008:126) in addition to offering the necessary support needed to maintain sobriety.

Section 30 of the Act (RSA, 2008) further states that reintegration and aftercare care services play a major role in the lives of service user (SU) who have completed their treatment programme. These services are important because they attempt to achieve the following:

- Provide SUs with guidance and support in rendering reintegration and aftercare care services.
- Link SUs with resources and services in the community.
- Equip and empower SUs with coping mechanisms to adapt to the family and community environment.
- Help SUs develop a healthy lifestyle and sustain their sobriety.
- Reintegrate SUs back into their families and communities.
- Broaden the provision of community-based services and create linkages with other relevant services.

In 2008 the Department of Social Development developed a Reintegration and Aftercare Model for Substance Abuse Services (Department Social Development, 2008) that guides how reintegration and aftercare care services and programmes needs to be formulated. It prescribes how it should ideally enable recovering SUs to interact with other recovering persons with a SUD as well as their families and communities while also enabling recovering SUs to share long-term drug-free and sobriety experiences, thus fulfilling the ultimate goal of any government, which is to have responsible citizens that actively and positively participate in their community, contribute to the economy and are able to have meaningful life experiences, which substance abuse negates.

The in- or out-patient treatment of adolescents, as with any other persons with a SUD, must not be viewed as a ‘quick fix’ hoping that entry to these interventions are the sum total of
treatment, but must recognise that it is only a part of systems of care and that relapse potential must always be realistically considered.

Figure 2.6 illustrates the treatment phases in days according to the Matrix Model’s Stages of Recovery as adopted by United States of America’s Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) (SAMHSA, 2013). The stages of recovery focuses on the physical and emotional changes people in recovery are likely to experience with the symptoms of each stage varying from person to person but that each stage brings particular relapse risks and is aimed at repairing people in recovery and their support with what to expect during recovery (SAMHSA, 2013:44). A brief description of each significant recovery component during the stage and duration follows.

**Figure 2.6: Matrix Model: Stages of recovery (Source: Adapted by Gorski, 2014)**

**Withdrawal:** This takes place just after the adolescent has entered the treatment programme and is characterised by inconsistent behaviour, poor concentration, depression/anxiety, and mutual hostility upon ceasing of drug use (SAMHSA, 2013:73). Parental support here can include being aware of these behavioural changes, having activities in lace to address lethargy and isolation and having open communication channels to symptoms experienced.

**Honeymoon:** For most adolescents this phase covers the bulk of their treatment programme and discharge (SAMHSA, 2013:77). It usually entails a high level of unfocused energy, the inability to prioritise, and overconfidence. Establishing daily schedules and structured
activities may help decrease lack of focus. In this stage parents and adolescents can discuss goal setting and explore avenues for productive involvement.

**The Wall:** Adolescents usually experience a low level of energy, relapse justification, feelings of depression, anhedonia, irritability, blame and impatience (SAMHSA, 2013:74). Parental support and control activities are crucial during this stage. It also calls for a higher involvement in recovery support activities.

**Adjustment:** This phase is characterised by returning to a sense of ‘normalecy’, drifting from commitment to recovery and loss of momentum, experiencing normalising emotions, considering it safe to use a secondary drug, neglecting self-care issues and acknowledging that recovery is a long-term issue (SAMHSA, 2013:75). Aftercare services should here be aimed at encouraging the SU to remain abstinent, acquire new skills or build on existing ones in order to improve functionality. The parental role is here to continue to supervise and monitor the activities of the adolescent, have periods looking at progress and discussing setbacks and setting new goals. Both parties should actively and openly talk about knowing how to avoid relapse.

**Resolution:** This phase is characterised by return to pre-addiction behaviours, struggling with the ‘lifelong disease’ concept, emotional control, and returning dysfunctional patterns (SAMHSA, 2013:54). It usually occurs a year after the treatment period and lasts approximately a year or longer. Communication is key during this stage and parents need to be attentive and realistic about changes in behaviour and routine.

**New Life:** This is the belief that change is possible once the SU accepts that the disorder is a ‘lifelong disease’, learns new skills, practises abstinence and has the support and desire to pursue his or her dreams. During this phase, parental support as well as other interventions aimed at prolonging sobriety play a vital role. Aftercare services are aimed at identifying areas of weakness and building competencies to strengthen them.

In summary: the role of the parent, as supported by the literature in this section, is therefore to ensure that the basic needs of the adolescent are met and that the parent maintains contact with the children taking into account the dynamics of substance abuse, the recovery process, its roles players and treatment needs. It is to be noted that the adolescent’s secondary needs are influenced by the parents’ particular approach to parenting and external factors in
interactions may influence the parents’ ability to execute their parenting role. The role of the parent is further defined by their ability to monitor and supervise the adolescent and susceptible they are to adapt their parenting style to suit the developmental needs of the child. That the level of engagement, interaction and communication has a direct effect on building the self-esteem of the adolescent (Zakeri & Karimpour, 2011:758) and ultimately building on their resilience against negative environmental factors. The role of the parent therefore is encapsulated in ensuring the optimum development of the child but what methods and means is necessary to do so.

2.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the manner in which the different role players in aftercare care influence the recovery journey of the adolescent. The chapter focused on the prevalence of SUD, policy and legislation that guides treatment and specifically aftercare treatment services and interventions. Parenting styles and the impact of these in treatment was also a focus and how their unique role has a direct implication on the risk and protective factors of the adolescent. The different styles of parenting and the various components thereof that make up the sum total of the parent’s role were elucidated.
3.1 Introduction

Research is a scientific process aimed at understanding and explaining everyday occurrences and events (Fox & Bayet, 2010:7). It attempts to make sense of things that affects our daily lives and to give meaning as to why they occur. In conducting research, a clear methodological process needs to be followed in order to ensure that the study protects its research participants, has scientific merit and practical and educational value relating to the social phenomenon that was investigated.

In the previous chapter the relevant literature available was reviewed in order to form a theoretical basis and support for the study. This chapter comprises a comprehensive discussion of the methodology that was applied in this qualitative study.

3.2 Research Problem

Fox and Bayat (2010:22) define research problems as “issues or difficulties that researchers experience within a practical situation and to which they need to find solutions”. It is often these challenges that propel ordinary practitioners into researcher roles in an attempt to understand and generate solutions (Friedman, 2006:13). The research problem for this study entailed enhancing an understanding of how parents can facilitate and support the recovery process of adolescents with a SUD following their completion of a treatment programme.

3.3 Research Question

In attempting to understand the impact of social work interventions, with specific reference to substance abuse treatment and aftercare services, and how these interventions with services users can make a difference in their lives (McLaughlin, 2012:1), the researcher sought to explore the question: What is the role of parents in the aftercare of adolescent children who participated in substance abuse treatment programmes?

McLaughlin (2012:10) states that apart from the research topic being a technical question involving specific methodologies, it is also a philosophical one in which the researcher attempts to make a statement about human nature. In qualitative studies the research questions are often exploratory and descriptive in order to better understand the phenomenon (Hesse-
Biber & Leavy, 2011:39). Research questions and how they are formulated have intrinsic value in determining the research methodology (Fox, Martin & Green, 2007:115), as will be illustrated in section 3.6. It is in the context of this notion that the researcher wanted to know what those roles and resources parents have or need that will assist their adolescents on their road to recovery with a SUD.

3.4 Research Aim and Objectives

The research aims and objectives are a set of guidelines related specifically to the outcomes of the research question (Fox et al., 2007:115). These guidelines are open ended and intended to add value to addressing the research problem.

3.4.1 Aim

The aim of this study was to enhance an understanding of the role of parents in the aftercare of their adolescent children with a substance use disorder who participated in substance abuse treatment programmes.

3.4.2 Objectives

The objectives of this study were the following:

- Explore and describe the experiences of the parents regarding their adolescent children’s substance abuse;
- Explore and describe the experiences of parents of their adolescent children’s participation in the substance abuse treatment programmes;
- Explore and describe the perceptions of parents about their role in aftercare treatment of their adolescent children who have participated in a treatment programmes for substance abuse;
- Explore and describe the expectations parents have of support structures for their adolescent children and the family as a whole.

3.5 Research Approach

The researcher applied a qualitative research approach since it allowed for an in-depth exploration and understanding of the parents’ perceptions of the role they can fulfil in the
aftercare of their adolescent children following their participation in substance abuse treatment. This resonates with the focus of qualitative research, which is aimed at describing and generating an enhanced understanding of participants and how their actions, beliefs, context and history influence them (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:271). It used the narratives of the research participants to arrive at conclusions and offer recommendations following the research. The researcher chose this approach as it is descriptive in purpose and generally gives more meaning to the study. The researcher views qualitative studies as allowing conversations with its participants which enables the collection of richer data and opens for opportunity to truly understand the world from the point of view of the participants.

3.6 Research Design

A qualitative research approach is aimed at understanding human experiences as people perceive them (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2002:57). It uses methods suited for exploring new or poorly understood settings employing inductive reasoning to arrive an understanding of the social phenomenon being investigated (Engel & Schutt, 2005:418). An exploratory-descriptive research design was applied for the study because the subject matter was still new to most practitioners and researchers. Yegidis and Weinbach (2002:106) postulate that exploratory research is suitable when a particular issue has been identified but the general understanding of the phenomenon is still limited. Such a study has intrinsic value in laying the groundwork for building on knowledge and will help us understand when “we often don’t even know what it is we need to know”. Due to limited literature available on the subject of the role of the parent in aftercare the researcher wanted to explore and describe their perceptions of the significant role they could play in the recovery of their adolescent. It is based on this gap and practice experience that the researcher decided to embark on an exploratory study, as described and supported by Babbie (2010: 92) as having three basic purposes namely “(1) to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding, (2) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study, and (3) to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study”.

3.7 Population

The population group of a study is defined as a selection of persons based on the populace of interest to the study of whom the researcher seeks to draw conclusion (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:100). This group of people is those familiar with the research topic and therefore able
to contribute to the study. In the current study, the group comprised parents and caregivers of adolescent children who attended a residential treatment programme at a treatment facility in Port Elizabeth. The total population for the study was approximately 350 parents and caregivers who could have been interviewed. This size of the population was derived from the number of adolescents who could access treatment for a SUD over the past two years in the Nelson Mandela Metropole.

3.8 Sampling

‘Sampling’ is the term used to define the part of the population that is best placed to answer the research question (Friedman, 2006:53). Participants were sourced from the database of one institution only as this was the only facility rendering services to children at the time of the study. Permission was obtained by means of a written request to the Head of the Department of the Department Social Development, Eastern Cape Province and the researched was able to gain permission to use the data base of the facility to conduct the study (see Appendix F and G).

Participants were sourced through non-probability purposive sampling which Neuman (2003:210) defines as the researcher selecting participants based on their relevance to the subject matter and how they fit the particular sampling criteria. Non-probability sampling is most appropriately employed in exploratory research studies (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:166), since the selection of participants is generally intended to include those with exposure to the particular problem (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2002:106).

The researcher initially intended to use snowball sampling in addition to purposive sampling, but the former did not materialize as all participants were recruited through the data base of the organization. Snowballing refers to one participant referring another for the study (Neuman, 2003:210) and is utilised when members are difficult to locate (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:167). The nature of contact between parents was so that they did not often meet with each other in order for them to recommend other participants. The second institution that was approached as gatekeeper did not yield participants who met the sampling criteria. The criteria for selection were the following:

- Participants who were parents and caregivers of adolescent children (between the ages 13 and 17 years)
• Parents of adolescent children who had participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse during the last 18 months
• Parents who resided in the Nelson Mandela Metropole and were available and willing to participate in the research study
• Parents whose adolescent children have been living with them since the completion of the substance abuse treatment programme.

Sampling was done by the researcher through contact with the centre manager and director of two organisations that rendered social services and who had referred clients for substance abuse treatment. The researcher made telephonic, in-person and written contact with the centre manager and director of these organisations informing them of the intention to utilize their client base for research participants. Although two treatment facilities were identified as potential research sites, only one was used as the other had closed shortly after the onset of the research study, and was no longer operational.

The first participant was recruited by a non-governmental organisation rendering services to adolescents in the Nelson Mandela Metropole. The researcher followed the necessary research engagement procedures and telephonically prepared the research participant for the interview. However, upon meeting with the research participant, the researcher realised that the participant did not meet the sampling criteria as her adolescent had only been assessed by the organisation, but no service had yet taken place. She then explained to the participant the significance of the sampling criteria and how she could therefore not proceed with the research interview. The researcher spent the remainder of the session listening to some concerns she had, realising that both the researcher and parent had been misinformed or could possibly have been misunderstood by the initial gatekeeper regarding the criteria for the study. The researcher subsequently referred her to a social service practitioner in the area for further services should she feel the need to access them. In order to avoid a recurrence of recruited participant not meeting the criteria, the researcher assumed primary responsibility for contacting potential research participants by means of sourcing the data base and contacting qualifying participants.

The researcher approached case managers and requested them to recruit parents and caregivers who met the sampling criteria. One oversight was that the case workers did not phone the parents directly to request permission for their recruitment as research participants. Instead, the case workers identified the parents who adhered to the sampling criteria and
handed their respective contact numbers to the researcher. The ethically correct procedure would have been for the case workers to contact the parents directly and request their permission to be contacted by the researcher. The rationale for the researcher managing this sampling recruitment process herself was to avoid engaging parents who did not meet the sampling criteria. The researcher contacted the potential research participants twice. The first contact was to invite them to participate in the research study; and the second contact was to remind them of the focus group interview dates which were to take place in sessions that were suitable to them. The researcher initially anticipated to conduct at least two or three different sessions whereby participants could choose a date most suitable to their schedule.

This was done in order to meet the participants and establish rapport. During the first interview, general information was shared by the researcher regarding the research process, discussing participation and details of the interview. During this session the consent and related ethical issues involved in the study were discussed with participants as well. For the study, participants were sourced from one facility only, as the other had closed. Prior to its closure the researcher was granted permission to conduct interviews with the parents and caregivers of adolescents who participated in their programmes.

The researcher also approached potential research participants at the treatment facility on the day of their adolescents’ discharge from the treatment programme. The researcher being proficient in Afrikaans and English, sourced the assistance of colleagues with regard to recruitment of Xhosa-speaking participants. This distinct inclusion was done for demographic representation in order to add further richness to the study. The purpose of this approach was to have the study and subject introduced in the mother tongue of the participants, with a follow-up introduction by the researcher once they had agreed to participate.

### 3.9 Pilot Study

Pilot studies are conducted to refine research instruments like questionnaires and interview schedules and reinforce the rationale for the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011: 95–96). The pilot interview was conducted with a parent who was recruited from a treatment centre database in order to test the questions and elaborate or adjust them accordingly. From the pilot study the researcher was able to establish that the research questions were applicable and she was able to formulate follow-up questions that were useful when conducting the focus group interviews (see Appendix E). The participant for the pilot interview was also articulate and
was able to give appropriate responses to the questions that guided the researcher during the group interviews. The interview allowed the researcher to identify possible misunderstandings in posing the research questions to the participants and she could therefore note areas of clarification for further interviews as postulated by Neuman (2011:304).

3.10 Data Collection

Research interviews are used to collect accurate data about a human phenomenon (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2002:130). In qualitative studies, the researcher hopes to bring to light the lived experiences, behaviour, attitude and perceptions related to a particular issue with the participants. The researcher used focus groups, as well as group and individual interviews as the method of data collection. It should be noted that the researcher initially intended to conduct two to three focus group separate session with different participants based on their availability, but these methods had to be adapted due to availability of participants. Each participants only attended one session. Focus groups, which are research settings where multiple participants are interviewed together, have a distinct advantage over other available research methods when the researcher does not have knowledge related to the issue of the topic (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011:163–165). It is a unique form of data collection and generates information through interaction of more participants over a shorter time frame (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2002:130; Neuman, 2011:459).

In the current study, data collection took place over the course of a year from when ethical clearance was granted by the University of the Western Cape Research and Ethics Committee to conduct interviews. Qualitative studies rely greatly on the narrative and during data collection the researcher uses emotional encouragement to further draw on participant experiences for better understanding (Yegidis & Weinbach, 2002:131). Marshall & Rossman (2011:149) state that focus groups are selected because they share certain characteristics that are relevant to the research question. The researcher employed interview skills and communication techniques to effectively ignite the participant’s involvement in the focus group. The researcher, being an employee of the facility, also had to prepare participants with regard to her role for the purpose of the interviews: that she was, in this case, an independent researcher and not a member of the therapeutic team of the facility. She further encouraged them by emphasising that their input during the study added richness not only to the study, but to the treatment programmes as a whole. The researcher made use of a whiteboard and flipchart to note key points and used them as a visual tool. This enabled the research
participants to track the conversation and to provide feedback on whether their inputs were captured correctly. The visual mapping furthermore not only triggered new ideas, but also served as scaffolding to similar ideas and perceptions. All interviews were audio-recorded and permission to do so was requested verbally from the participants. For the most part participants were proficient in either English or Afrikaans. One session was conducted with two Xhosa-speaking participants. During this session the researcher made use of an interpreter. The interpreter was one of the child-care workers at the centre. He was familiar with the content of the subject matter and for this reason was approached to facilitate the translation because of his ability to be able to generate qualitative data through translation processes and was competent to do so (Squires, 2008:265). Permission was requested verbally from the participants to utilise the interpreter and they insisted on following this approach as they did not feel confident about conducting the interview and expressing their experiences in English. The downside to this was that responses were significantly condensed. However, relevant content was still shared.

The researcher employed two methods of data collection which entailed two focus group interviews consisting of five participants each, and three semi-structured interviews with groups of two parents per session. In conducting the focus group interviews, notes were taken and reflection was done on points identified during the group interviews. The researcher employed probing, clarification, reflecting and summarising as interview techniques to validate responses. The researcher initially wanted to conduct only focus group interviews but due to logistical reasons and availability of participants, opted for the group interviews as well. Besides the pilot interview no one-on-one interviews were conducted as the researcher wanted the interaction between participants to serve as catalyst for sourcing information and reflection. The purpose of utilising small group settings is supported by literature to gain an in-depth understanding of research topic (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011:45). Some earlier scheduled group sessions were not attended and as a result the later sessions had to be adjusted: instead of aiming for big groups of eight participants, the researcher tried smaller groups with five members and ended up having two parents participating at a time. This did not have the same effect as when the bigger group exchanged views and ideas but still produced valuable information.
3.10.1 Research setting

The research project took place in Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape, South Africa where there are two registered treatment programmes for children. One was an in-patient treatment facility while the other was an outpatient programme. In the course of the study one of the facilities was closed down so participants were sourced from only one facility. Since many of the adolescents also hailed from outside the area, the researcher considered conducting interviews outside the boundaries of the city should data saturation not be met, but this was not necessary.

3.11 Data Analysis

During data collection the role of the researcher needs to create a supportive environment with focused questions that will encourage discussion through interviews which may be conducted several times with different individuals. The researcher then identifies trends in the perceptions and opinions expressed. The strength of the focus group is that it is socially orientated, where participants are studied in a reassuring and more relaxed atmosphere than in a one-on-one interview. After the data were collected, analysis followed according to the steps described by Engel & Schutt (2005:386).

3.11.1 Documentation of the data

Data for qualitative studies is collected through observations and field notes obtained in interviews and transcribed from recordings. Documentation is critical as it provides a way to outline the analytical process, conceptualisation, and forming strategies about the text (Engel & Schutt, 2005:386–387). For this study all interviews were recorded electronically and then transcribed into workable documents. Other documentation included field notes the researcher collected through participation of the group during the interviews. Data collection took a place in a workshop format and ideas as main themes were written down on a flipchart and used for reflection and expansion.

3.11.2 Organising and categorisation of the data into concepts

Conceptualising, coding and categorising are an important component of the qualitative process and includes identifying and refining key concepts (Engel & Schutt, 2005:386–387). From the transcriptions the researcher went page per page noting concepts mentioned by the
participants from the individual interviews, focus group sessions and the group interviews. From these notes they were grouped into similar topics and themes.

3.11.3 Connection of the data

Examining the correlation of data is a key part of the analytic process as it explains why things happened within a certain setting. The use of a matrix allows the researcher to ascertain linkages between different concepts (Engel & Schutt, 2005:389). After identifying the different topics and themes, the researcher used a matrix scale to note similarities, and to understand why they appear to be possibly connected.

3.11.4 Corroboration and legitimisation

In authenticating the conclusions, the researcher needs to consider the evidence and methods carefully and assess the information based on the credibility of the participants, how the involvement of the researcher in the process influenced actions and statements and whether those statements were as a result of the researcher’s questions, or a spontaneous result (Engel & Schutt, 2005:391). Although the researcher had a set of questions prepared for the study, questions were open-ended and responses were used to build on and extract more information. There was much accord among the participants which also resulted in their building and elaborating on each other’s responses.

3.11.5 Representing the account

For the most part the biggest challenge the researcher encountered was managing to conduct the interview. Since this was a group setting it was difficult to find an appropriate time that would suit everyone scheduled for a particular interview session. For some participants transport would be a problem they would commit to attending the session but then they would not come. The researcher offered to transport some who indicated that they would like to participate but they did not have transport. Most participants had insight into the subject matter, they could think about and respond on their experiences which was encouraging to the researcher, especially when it took some effort to have an interview session. Interviews were generally conducted at the organisation as this was a central venue. A few could not attend sessions, although they would commit, as most interviews took place on a Saturday afternoon. When parents could not attend for various personal reasons, they tendered their
apologies. One interview focus group was hosted by one of the families at their home, offering a larger group of 5 participants. This had a significant impact on the dynamics of the group, and members were relaxed and interacted well.

### 3.11.6 Reflexivity

Reflexivity refers to the confidence the researcher has in the conclusions derived from the field study. It gives an account of what the experiences of the researcher during the study, how challenges were overcome, what learning took place and how this illuminates the context of the study (Engel & Schutt, 2005:393). Erlinda, Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas, & Caricativo (2017:427) refers to reflexivity as the researcher's investigative and logical attention to their role in the research process. That it is a continuous process and entails self-awareness and introspection. The authors further state that reflexivity infers of the role of subjectivity by the researcher as well as their reflection on their values (Parahoo, 2006 in Erlinda et al. 2017:427).

### 3.12 Ensuring Trustworthiness

The value of any research study is the fact that it is a true and reliable interpretation of the subject. Guba (1981, cited in Krefting, 1991) identified truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality as four criteria applicable to the assessment of research of any type.

#### 3.12.1 Truth value

In validating the truth value of research, it is necessary to determine whether the researcher has established confidence in the truth of the findings within the context of the study and how confident the researcher is with the truth of the findings based on the research design, informants and context.

#### 3.12.2 Applicability

Applicability refers to the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts and settings or with other groups. Guba (1981, cited in Krefting, 1991) recognise two perspectives to applicability that are appropriate for qualitative research. It define each situation as unique and thus less open to generalisation and also refer to “fittingness, or transferability”, as the decisive factor against which applicability of qualitative data is assessed. This criterion is met when the research findings fit into contexts outside the study situation and is determined by
the degree of similarity or goodness of fit between the two contexts. The selection criterion for participants is that they have been through the experience. This implies that the data that were collected are deemed to be appropriate and applicable.

3.12.3 Consistency

The consistency of the data is the extent to which the repeated administration of a measure will provide the same data and the value of repeatability of the testing procedures does not alter the findings as postulated by Guba (1981, cited in Krefting, 1991:215). The key to qualitative research is to learn from the informants rather than control them and that the instruments that assess the consistency in qualitative research are the researcher and the informants. Consistency is measured by data collected by the participants as well as comparing from literature collected on the subject. The researcher endeavours to determine whether the data collected from the participants and the perceptions shared will be mostly similar.

3.12.4 Neutrality

Neutrality is the freedom from bias in the research procedures and results and refers to the degree to which the findings are a function exclusively of the informants and conditions of the research. They are free from other biases, motivations, and perspectives. Qualitative researchers attempt to increase the worth of the findings by decreasing the distance between the researcher and the informants though prolonged contacts and lengthy interviews. The researcher had several contact opportunities with the participants to establish rapport and to create an environment for trust, ensuring that the data collected would be interpreted in context.

3.12.5 Credibility

Truth value is obtained by lived human experiences as they are perceived by those persons subjected to the study. When research is conducted it needs to focus on testing the findings against different groups of data collection or those persons who are familiar with the phenomenon being studied. Credibility therefore requires sufficient submersion in the research setting in order to identify and verify recurring patterns (Krefting, 1991:214–216).
3.12.6 Transferability

The extent to which conclusions can be applied in other contexts, populations, demographic and geographic, and how observations are defined in the context in which they occur is referred to as transferability (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:277; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011, cited in Abdulla 2014:75).

3.12.7 Dependability

Dependability is ensured when the study is conducted in a similar or same context involving likewise subjects, the findings would be alike (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:278). The study was done in different group settings and still yielded results that were similar in nature.

3.12.8 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the findings are related to the inquiry and not the particular influence of the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2011:278) but also how this study can relate to others. The researcher triangulated and verified the findings against the research question, objectives and the interview questions to ensure confirmability and could therefore provide evidence that confirms the research findings and interpretation thereof.

3.12.9 Presentation of the researcher

The researcher is a social worker in the Department of Social Development in the Nelson Mandela Metropole, Eastern Cape. She is employed in the special programmes section – Restorative Services in the substance abuse treatment and rehabilitation section. The need for the study was identified based on her involvement in this unit.

3.13 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations are the set of guiding principles that determine the professional conduct of the researcher but more than that should also be consistent with the values of the social worker as a professional (Corby, 2006: 139). The study was conducted under the auspices of the University of the Western Cape, clearance was granted by the University, and ethical considerations and aspects complied with the requirements of the Senate Higher Degrees research regulatory body ensuring the safeguarding of researchers and participants, ethical
and scientific quality and preventing poor performance and misconduct. Formal approval was obtained from the researcher’s employer as this was the research setting (see Appendix G). Permission to use participants from a public service facility was also requested. Permission was granted by the relevant department in the head office of the researcher’s employment on condition that the information would be available to disseminate and for future use.

3.12.1 Voluntary participation

Research participants should have the right to withdraw from a study if and when they wish (Corby, 2006:140). The principle of voluntary participation was explained to the participants prior to the interview. The researcher informed them that they had the right to withdraw at any time should they choose (see Appendix B).

3.13.2 Informed consent

In order to protect the subjects and participants of a study, consent needs to be obtained from persons regarded as potential participants to the research (Friedman, 2006:62). They must be told what will be investigated, what will be done with the information gained, and assured that their privacy will be protected. If they agree, they will sign a consent form. In the current study, each participant signed an informed consent form which confirmed this agreement (see Appendix C).

3.13.3 Preparation of participants

Participants were informed of the nature of the study and well as their role in gathering the information. They were invited to share their own experience and perceptions on the subject. Participants were informed that this study would not attempt to offer additional treatment, but rather that the information gathered during this study would be related to the relevant organs of Government.

3.13.4 Anonymity

Anonymity must be safeguarded to ensure that participants’ identity is not revealed by the research (Fox et al., 2007:103). It can be challenging when data collected may make a participant identifiable but effort should nevertheless be made to protect the identity of the participant (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:150; Fox et al., 2007:103). The participants remained
anonymous throughout the study and beyond. Participants were not identified in the transcriptions. The only distinction was that between participant and researcher.

3.13.5 Confidentiality

Along with anonymity, confidentiality plays a vital role in the protection of the participants’ identities. The participants were assured that the information gathered would remain confidential and only used for the purposes intended, as explained to them: to explore and describe what their experiences had been as parents of SUs in the substance abuse treatment programmes. Participants were also informed that the anonymity and confidentiality of each person is highly valued and that particular care should be taken in sharing any information regarding the study. In addition, the researcher would ensure that any possible identifying information will not be published (Engel & Schutt, 2005:299) to a wider audience. Confidentiality was also discussed in the beginning of each interview session with participants.

3.13.6 Beneficence

Beneficence refers that the research will do no intentional harm to the individual and will provide opportunity to benefit the individual or the groups the individual represents in society, and that possible risks will be minimised (Friedman, 2006:65). Special care was taken by the researcher to protect the respondents from any form of harm. Participants in a study are considered a vulnerable population in their communities therefore the researcher has to ensure that the all ethical aspects are adhered to. Although participation was voluntary in this study, that researcher informed participants of what the study would entail as well as how she aimed to interpret the data collected. Consequently, the researcher anticipated that the participants would be comfortable in the study knowing that their contributions would add value to their situation rather than harm them.

3.13.7 Debriefing

Debriefing means that once the interviews have been conducted participants will be probed on their experience of the interview as suggested by Babbie (2010:69). The author further supports that this process is aimed at ensuring that the participants do not leave the interview feeling wanting, but that the process has been completed (Babbie, 2010:69). Debriefing is
aimed at terminating the interview in a manner that the participants feel empowered in the end. The researcher will also refer the participants to appropriate organisations should the need arise for any form of supportive intervention. In this study, the researcher also requested two social workers, a veteran and social worker in non-profit practice, to assist with debriefing of participants where and when needed.

3.13.9 Ethics of sensitivity

Weaver et al. (2008:607) define ethics of sensitivity as the ability of “professionals to recognize, interpret and respond appropriately to the concerns of those receiving professional services”. In the research setting, with particular care of the participant as a client, and the researcher as a helping professional, a deliberate effort was made by the researcher to take cognisance of the participant’s vulnerability to the study. The researcher ensured, as far as possible, to have participants understand their role as data collection agents rather than as clients advocating for services. Inference is made to the participant the researcher referred to alternate services and how the researcher found she needed to balance the separation of social worker and researcher especially in the light of being employed at the organization, although she was not directly involved with the participants as she is directly involved with services to them.

3.14 Dissemination of Results

Corby (2006:152–153) argues that in determining the value of research, practitioners should be engaged in the discussion and dissemination of research, otherwise there would be no point to the research. These practitioners are the people who will ultimately implement that which have been researched. The research should be put out in the public domain but also in an in-house report (Fox et al., 2007:160). In the case of this study, results will be disseminated through a research report to the Department of Social Development, Eastern Cape Province but also presented at conferences, seminars, workshops and journal publications.

3.15 Chapter Summary

In this chapter the methodology and research process were discussed. The significance of each of the components of a research study adds to the value of the results. In applying all the methods and procedures, the researcher ensured that the integrity of the process, the value of
the study, the protection of both participants and researcher and the credibly of the study were safeguarded. The research process followed in this study was explained to gives insight into the steps the researcher took to gain information and reach conclusions about the research question. The next chapter presents the research findings.
CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND LITERATURE CONTROL

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to share the findings that emerged from the data analysis, supported by the relevant quotes by the research participants and discussed against a literature control. Although the study had four main objectives, the richness of the data resulted in nine themes, each of which will be discussed in sequence as per Table 4.3.

The sample comprised 17 parents. The biographical information of the participants is categorised under gender, marital status, and parental/care giver position in the table below.

Table 4.1: Biographical profile of the research participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Biographical profile of the research participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The biographical profile of the research participants reveals that the majority of participants were female (13 females compared to 4 males). The dominance of female participants is an interesting observation which could resonate with the research findings about the absence of fathers in the lives of adolescents presenting with at risk behaviours. This furthermore concurs with the majority of participants being single/not married, which underscores the findings that single parenthood is closely associated with adolescent at risk behaviour (Katouziyan, 2017:13). Only three of the participants were not biological parents of the adolescents and were grandparents.
4.2 Revisiting the Research Objectives in Relation to the Research Themes

Table 4.2 below provides a mapping of the research objectives and research themes introduced in section 4.3.

**Table 4.2: Mapping of the research objectives and themes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To explore and describe the experiences of parents regarding their adolescents children’s substance abuse</td>
<td>Theme 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore and describe the experiences of parents regarding their adolescent children’s participation in the substance abuse treatment programmes</td>
<td>Themes 2 and 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore and describe the perceptions of parents regarding their role in the aftercare of adolescent children who have participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse</td>
<td>Theme 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explore and describe the expectations parents have of support structures for their adolescent children and the family as a whole</td>
<td>Themes 5 and 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Themes 6, 8 and 9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table illustrates that only theme 1 was not directly linked to any of the research objectives. The theme is included notwithstanding, since it provides the context against which the other themes were interpreted.

4.3 Overview of the Research Themes, Subthemes, and Categories

The interviews with parents generated rich data. Analysis of the data resulted in the emergence of nine main themes and related subthemes, as outlined in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Themes, subthemes and categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme 1: Understanding of the term ‘aftercare’</td>
<td>Sub-theme 1.1: Ongoing services an integral part of treatment</td>
<td>Exposure to trauma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 1.2: Inclusion of the family</td>
<td>Acceptability and tolerance towards substances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 2.1: Contributing factors to adolescent substance abuse that impact on aftercare</td>
<td>Influence of peers and gangsterism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 2.2: Reflection on parenting</td>
<td>Parental substance abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 3.1: Disappointment</td>
<td>Efforts made to provide the best for the adolescent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 3.2: Fear for the child’s safety</td>
<td>Parent experience of a sense of failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 3.3: Influence on household and other children</td>
<td>Impact of absent parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 3.4: Previous efforts and experiences of treatment opportunities</td>
<td>Parent–child relationship influenced by the substance abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 2: Reasons for adolescents’ substance abuse</td>
<td>Sub-theme 4.1: Stress, owing to fear of relapse</td>
<td>Fear resulting in a lack of trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 4.2: Hope, owing to signs of change</td>
<td>Signs of possible relapse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 4.3: Obstacles experienced when adolescents return home after treatment</td>
<td>Behavioural change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Linking with support systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A change in parent-child relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not being available all the time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Adolescents’ attitude and behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 5: Parents’ expectations of adolescents after treatment</td>
<td>Sub-theme 5.1: Taking responsibility</td>
<td>Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-theme 5.2: Being honest about past</td>
<td>Unrealistic expectations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dealing with disappointment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stop blaming others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Choosing company carefully</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 6: Parental roles and responsibilities in recovery</td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.1: Awareness and observation</td>
<td>Interest relates to showing respect for his/her opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.2: Parental involvement and interest</td>
<td>Related to spirituality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.3: Having hope</td>
<td>Related to trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.4: Communication</td>
<td>Encouragement and motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.5: Love, support and care</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 6.6: Discipline</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 7: The needs of adolescents in recovery</td>
<td>Sub-theme 7.1: Role models</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 7.2: Guidance</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 7.3: Support systems</td>
<td>Advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 7.4: Opportunity to be an example to others</td>
<td>Assistance with time management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 7.5: Trust</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 8: Informal support for the adolescent and his/her parents</td>
<td>Sub-theme 8.1: Working together as a family</td>
<td>From family and friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 8.2: External support systems</td>
<td>Support groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 8.3: Support groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme 9: The role of social workers regarding aftercare</td>
<td>Sub-theme 9.1: Experiences with social work services</td>
<td>Unsure about the role of the social worker and the term ‘aftercare’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 9.2: Expectations from social workers</td>
<td>No experience of support by the social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sub-theme 9.3: Reference to resources</td>
<td>Contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Motivate parents to become involved in the whole process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Work with the whole family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accept without judgement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Give advice and information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Structured support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Discussion of the Research Findings

4.4.1 Theme 1: Understanding of the term ‘aftercare’

To explore and describe this research theme in terms of the lived experiences of the participants, it was important to ascertain parents’ understanding of aftercare and its related services. It was on this basis that the first scheduled interview could not be conducted. The specific adolescent had not participated in a treatment programme; therefore, the parent would not be able to infer on her experiences or perception. The question posed to participants during the interview sessions was: What is your understanding of aftercare?

The majority of parents were able to give some indication of what they think aftercare was. Responses included statements recognising that it is part of the treatment programme and should include a component of empowering parents to deal with adolescents post discharge. The two subthemes which emerged from the analysis will be discussed below, supported by quotes from participants and a literature control.

4.4.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1 Ongoing services an integral part of treatment

Section 1 of the Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act, 70 of 2008 (RSA, 2008) defines aftercare as the ongoing professional support to a service user after a formal treatment episode has ended. This sentiment was supported by the majority of participants who indicated that aftercare services are essential to ensure the adolescent’s best possible chance of sustaining a successful pathway to recovery.

“Aftercare also mean supporting that child every step of the way.”

In the practice setting it is also apparent that aftercare cannot serve as a treatment or maintenance intervention, but needs to build upon or be considered an extension of a structured programme. This essentially means that the therapeutic groundwork has already
been done and what follows during aftercare is the maintenance of that which has previously been imparted in the service user.

Participants also indicated that additional external support is needed to monitor and supervise the adolescent’s reintegration and recovery progress. This monitoring function is supported by Maluleke (2013:33) who suggests that regular monitoring and supervision of clients in aftercare not only supports sobriety, but also assists with support and identification of additional services. The following comments were made by parents regarding the monitoring function of aftercare:

“For me the supervision is about the child and the circumstances at home.”

“My understanding would be, aftercare would mean that there would be people that is the people that, uh, the child went to for treatment that will also be part of this aftercare programme – who will at times come and see how he is doing.”

Naobes (2016:102–103) and McNeece & Dinitto (2012:149) support the need for follow-up visits and contact, which they view as essential for maintenance, monitoring and adjusting treatment needs. The reality is, however, that organisations often do not have enough resources to conduct such activities, which frequently results in parents experiencing a lack of support. It also emphasises the importance of the role of caregivers as support and safety net.

4.4.1.2 Sub-theme 1.2 Inclusion of the family

Aftercare programmes should target the families of adolescents, not only to render therapeutic support, but also to enable family members to deal with the challenges associated with aftercare and recovery (McNeece & Dinitto, 2012:251). The findings revealed that parents generally felt overwhelmed by adolescents’ return to the family environment after discharge from the treatment centre. They reported feeling ill-equipped to support adolescents in their recovery and thus requested that they be empowered with skills for managing the challenges adolescents may face when reintegrated into the community environment. The following are reflections from parents regarding this need:

“And it also involves you as a parent or the family to see that the child, whatever the child has learned in that centre, to apply it in his or her life.”
“While the child is going through that programme, maybe have the parents also go through a programme to equip them better with the tell-tale signs.”

“Uhm, my understanding is that, uhm, if the child was in rehab, that the rehab should actually send us as the parent on a programme or something to be able to deal with the children.”

In addition, a smaller group of parents specifically indicated the need for some preparation on what to expect once the child was discharged. The narratives of the following two parents reflect on the anxiety they experienced, feeling that the treatment programme ended abruptly, and that treatment was possibly not completed:

“You know. Uhm, we do, the… the… like… with this time around, the… the programme wasn’t. I feel it wasn’t finished. Finished… And then we were just given these kids… and, uh, a few of, uh, uh, the parents that I walk into, bump into… They say they are still knocking their heads with the kids, you know. And I’m also still knocking my head.”

“You know, and… and… and… nobody is telling what is going on. They went in there, they came out… And that was it.”

The anxiety experienced by parents could possibly be due to insufficient preparation by the social worker regarding reintegration. It could also be ascribed to parents sometimes not feeling ready to receive the child, thinking that the treatment programme should extend to a longer period. Parents, having experienced how structured and efficient the treatment environment was, may also perceive that they might not be able to provide the same environment and feel ill-equipped to continue treatment. In studies conducted by Abdulla (2014) and Jarman (2017), parents also identified the need for support in monitoring adolescents with regard to their specific statutory or therapeutic interventions.

4.4.2 Theme 2: Reasons for adolescents’ substance abuse

In the previous theme, participants established their understanding of aftercare and what it should entail. In the following two themes the data respond to the first objective of the study, which is to explore and describe the experiences of the parents regarding adolescents’ substance abuse. During the interviews, parents were able to specifically identify reasons why
they thought their children were using substances. Two subthemes emerged from the data, namely the contributing factors to adolescent substance abuse that impact aftercare and a reflection on parenting.

4.4.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1 Contributing factors to adolescent substance abuse that impact aftercare

Four categories of contributing factors to adolescent substance abuse were identified, namely (i) exposure to trauma, (ii) acceptability and tolerance towards substances, (iii) the influence of peers and gangsterism, and (iv) parental substance abuse.

(i) Exposure to trauma

The association of trauma in substance abusing adolescents is supported by Feldstein and Miller (2006:637) who state that the use of substances may aid as coping mechanisms in victimised adolescents. The lack of sufficient support after traumatic events is often identified as a contributing factor to substance abuse, as is also experienced in the practice setting. The correlation between substance abuse and trauma is further supported by Van der Westhuizen (2010:11) and McNeece & Dinitto (2012:446–447) who identify traumatic experiences as a prevalent factor in substance abuse which should be treated in aftercare as well. The following observations by parents reflect their perceived connection between trauma and adolescent substance use:

“Die een sister se boyfriend het sy pa, toe hy vyf jaar is, dood gesteek ... maar hy`t nie counselling gehad nie.”

[The one sister’s boyfriend stabbed his father to death when he was five … but he never received counselling.]

“Yes, this children used drugs, yes, they were raped.”

The practice setting often shows that the majority of female service users have been subjected to sexual trauma, while in most cases the males have witnessed acts of violence that eventually contributed to substance use and further risky behaviour. McNeece & Dinitto (2012:447) suggest that trauma-specific interventions be implemented to support service users with these co-occurring disorders.
(ii) Acceptability and tolerance towards substances

Most communities in South Africa show general acceptance of and tolerance towards substance abuse, regardless of the negative effects thereof (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:161, Goliath, iv:2014 and Moloi, 16:2017). In a study conducted by Van der Westhuizen (2010:160), participants identified the availability of and tolerance towards substances in the community as obstacles to recovery. Substance abuse is often normalised in certain social settings. Such settings provide ideal opportunities for adolescents to engage in substance use – everyone is using – thus, the setting itself normalises the usage (Hayman, 2013:93–94). Parents identified substance use as something that happens around them in their communities as either a trend or a normal part of life.

“Weed\(^1\) is half n trend.”

“…and I mean die kinders rook dagga asof dit niks is…”

[...and I mean the children are smoking dagga as if it is nothing...]

In many settings the phenomenon of substance abuse has become part of life and is often not even viewed as dysfunctional anymore. This poses a challenge, particularly to adolescents in communities where recreational resources are limited, and where peer influence still plays a major role in development. The normalisation of substance use in communities discourages the adolescent to go against the norm, especially when there are certain risks involved, as described in the next section.

(iii) Influence of peers and gangsterism

The parents identified peer influence as a significant contributor to substance use. Peer acceptance plays an important role in developing adolescents. The need of belonging and self-identity is what makes them vulnerable to fall prey to negative peer influence or gang involvement. Substance use may be significantly influenced by gang involvement, especially when adolescents are selling drugs as well (Reisinger, 2004:252). While this was not

\(^1\) Weed is a commonly used street name for cannabis.
specifically identified during the interviews, the reality in most vulnerable communities is that many youths do fall prey to substance abuse because of gang involvement (Carelse, 2018:131–132). This view is supported by Morojele et al. (2012:202) who identify substance use as a feature of adolescent gangs.

“He was friends with gangsters’ brothers in Jacksonville.”

The combination of the need for peer acceptance and gang involvement not only contributes to substance use and risky behaviour, but also impacts on recovery when the adolescent does not have the necessary support structure in place to deter from and replace involvement and substance abuse with positive activities.

(iv) Parental substance abuse

Studies have shown that children who are raised in an environment where parents use substances have a higher chance of following that pattern later in life, especially when parents fail to recognise the severity and influence of their substance use (Mudavanhu & Schenck, 2014:380). This view is supported by Morojele et al. (2012:202) and Goliath (2014:282) who postulate that adolescents who are exposed to parents who use substances are likely to model that substance-using behaviour and that these parents ultimately act as negative role models. The substance use in the family, especially if it is not in a controlled environment, creates the opportunity for the child to imitate parental behaviour or use opportunities within the setting to also consume. For instance, adolescents will consume alcohol or cigarettes with their parents or steal these items from their parents. The following narratives reflect on parents’ perception of their substance use:

“I drink but I drink red wine... but for me it’s, it’s nothing...because I can go weeks without it. But evens my smoking, I don’t smoke in the house.”

“It’s to relax, then my husband drinks his beer.”

One parent also reflected on the changes she felt she needed to make regarding her substance abuse.

“My smoking, I wish I can stop. Really, because, like now I need to be an example.”
The abuse of substances by parents has a detrimental effect on adolescents and their recovery as there is often lack of control and limited insight into the specific set of challenges adolescents face daily. One of the caregivers, for instance, directly attributed the adolescent’s inability to achieve success in recovery to the substance abuse by the biological parent.

"But now with me there’s a obstacle... the mother. The mother is continuously using drugs. When I ask her, ‘What are you doing? Why? Where are you taking this child to?’”

It is interesting to note that only a minority of the parents who participated in the study admitted to using substances and thereby exposing their adolescent children to domestic substance use. It could, however, mean that those adolescents were exposed to substances in the other categories previously mentioned.

4.4.2.2 Sub-theme 2.2 Reflection on parenting

Overall, the parents were able to introspect on parenting with regard to adolescent substance abuse as supported by Bertrand, Richer, Brunelle, Beaudoin, Lemieux & Ménard (2013:27). The general consensus was that parents had tried their best to rear their adolescent children in a nurturing and positive developmental environment.

Participants’ reflection on parenting comprises four categories, namely (i) the efforts made to provide the best for the adolescent, (ii) parents’ experience of a sense of failure, (iii) the impact of absent parents, and (iv) how the parent–child relationship is influenced by the substance abuse.

(i) Efforts made to provide the best for the adolescent

The literature suggests that differences exist between parents’ perceptions of child rearing best practices and those of adolescents (Kuar, 2013:17). Dunn & Keet (2012:90) conclude that certain factors, like socio-economic environment, also have a significant impact on what parents will perceive as good parental practices, as opposed to the perceptions of their children. In lower income communities, such as the community from which the sample of the current study is drawn, mothers play the dominant parental role, often characterised by focusing on meeting the basic needs of the adolescent rather than providing support to master developmental challenges (Dunn & Keet, 2012:89). The literature further indicates that
adolescents generally respond positively to parental warmth (Deković & Meeus, 1997:163; Bertrand et al., 2013:29; Kuar, 2013:23; Mogonea & Mogonea, 2014:190) and monitoring. Moreover, they usually react to their perception of parenting as opposed to the actual parenting (Kuar, 2013:17). This is echoed in the participants’ sentiments that, in spite of providing for their adolescent children to the best of their ability, they still engaged in substance abuse.

“I did my best as a mother. For my daughter. I didn’t abuse her... I didn’t neglect her. I gave her, I put her in a good school...”

“Me as a mother, I must struggle, I must strive, I must do everything I can for my children.”

Practice experience informs that parents often approach child rearing according to their own frame of reference, as opposed to the individual needs of the adolescent. They apply practices based on their own upbringing and thus make child-rearing decisions regardless of the relevance or environmental factors. This is echoed by the following narrative of a parent regarding the adolescent’s request to have a sleepover at her cousin’s house:

“Then I will say because my mother always said, a dau ... a teenager never sleep out of the house.”

The researcher does not discredit the child-rearing practices of participants, but, literature suggests (Goliath, 2014: 32), that efforts by parents should relate to the needs of the adolescent rather than the perceptions of the parent. The researcher therefore concurs with the literature.

(ii) Parent experience of a sense of failure

Some parents expressed that, despite their best effort, they feel pressure regarding their child’s substance use and recovery goals and felt responsible for their failure. Feelings of shame, guilt, and failure are often experienced by parents when their children show signs of disturbance and dysfunction (Smith & Estefan, 2014:427) as parents generally want their children to succeed and develop into successful adults. Fear of failure after discharge and during the aftercare period was identified by parents as a major area of concern.

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“And it’s, you’re the, you the parent, it’s your responsibility. So, what is gonna happen if this child is starting to use again? It will just show that you are not competent, not a good parent because the child wasn’t even long in your care, and there he or she goes again and using. So there’s that expectation.”

“That’s why maybe sometimes I feel like I’m the failure maybe that is why he is being like that.”

This links to the previous category which showed that parents do experience a sense of failure when their child-rearing expectations are not met because of differentiating perceptions on what support the adolescent needs.

(iii) Impact of absent parents

The significant impact of absent parents was mentioned by several participants. This usually meant that there was inconsistency in rearing methods and most often a lack of support from the absent parent. The research sample was comprised of eleven single parents. Some of these parents had hopes that, with the onset of substance abuse, the absent parent would become more involved, and that such involvement would render some support for the adolescent. However, the disappointment was greater when the absent parent remained uninvolved.

“The … my difficult part is, my son and his father doesn’t have a relationship. And I will tell him (father), you know what? A … a … a son’s identity comes from a father, not from the mother.”

Support from spouses usually helps parents to cope with their role (Mulford & Redding, 2007 in Abdulla, 2014:114). However, most of the parents who participated in the study were single parents who felt the absence of the other parent with great frustration. Absent and uninvolved parents are not involved in the lives of their children, either because they do not accept their parental responsibilities, or are so involved with their own issues that there is little time and energy left for their children (Mudavanhu & Schenck, 2014:379).

“He know his father doesn’t care … care for him, he knows that. And it’s very painful to them.”
The strain of single parenting can be particularly difficult. There is a lack of a supportive structure to share the caring responsibility, while all rearing issues are dependent on one parent.

(iv) Parent–child relationship influenced by the substance abuse

A particular parenting style will often determine how parents respond to adolescents engaged in substance abuse (Hayman, 2013:89) and will have a direct influence of the parent’s ability to a particular stressful situation. According to Groenewald (2018:8), the relationship between the parent and adolescent is significantly affected by the adolescent’s substance use, which often leads to feelings of confusion and frustration. In many cases it leads to a diminished parent–child relationship. The majority of participants expressed frustration at and disappointment in the broken relationship that ensued once the child started using substances.

“When my husband is there then he will know exactly how to behave him, really. And I will tell him no it seems like you’re also against my child ... But it’s not ... No, no, not to him. I was protect, like protecting my child but in a wrong way ...”

“And I just need to deal with it, and like I said, when I, when I heard X is doing all these things, I had to came down to earth.”

In practice it has also been found that the relationship between the parent and adolescent is affected by the substance use due to the parents’ perception of a loss of control. Parents feel that they were not able to protect their child from the substance abuse as well as the effects thereof, and consequently experience strain on their relationship.

4.4.3 Theme 3: Experiences of parents during adolescents’ substance abuse

Four subthemes emerged from the data on parents’ experiences during adolescents’ substance abuse, namely disappointment, fear for the child’s safety, the extent to which the household and other children are influenced, and previous efforts and experiences of treatment.

4.4.3.1 Sub-theme 3.1 Disappointment

Studies have shown that the attitudes of some parents significantly change towards their substance abusing adolescents in an effort to motivate them to self-actualisation regarding the
consequences of their actions (Groenewald, 2018:8). Parents in this study shared their disappointment in their children and how their children’s substance use reflected badly on them as parents. They also indicated their disappointment in their unfulfilled expectations for their children.

“I’m telling you, the places – I couldn’t believe a child of mine ... can go into places like this. When I came back (from finding the child), I just, I cried so much.”

“Because I had high expectations for her. Because I wanted my daughter, ask my husband ... She was supposed to go to NMMU this year. She was supposed to been driving this year. All these things I had that, but unfortunately it didn’t happen.”

“Maybe I’m pushing hard; maybe I want them to live my life. Maybe that’s a reason. That’s why I’m saying like sometimes I feel like I’m blaming myself.”

Parents often do not know how to deal with the disappointment of an adolescent child abusing substances. One participant reported that she almost felt ashamed, while another blamed herself for doing what parents are supposed to do, namely to believe in their children and expect the best for them.

4.4.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2  
Fear for the child’s safety

Because of the social environment where substance abuse takes place, many parents expressed their concern for their child’s safety. Bertrand et al. (2013:29) maintain that inadequate monitoring not only contributes to increased opportunities for substance use, but also heightens risks for the adolescent’s safety. Of the respondents, two families were directly affected by gang involvement due to the adolescents’ substance use. Consequently, they experienced a genuine grounded fear for the lives of the family members and the adolescents.

“Every night I went after, I came out of work and then I went to go look for her with the police Van. I couldn’t find her and this one day, the third day I think, I said, now, tonight, I’m not gonna rest, until I find her.”

“Nou dink ek, al die goete gaan deur my mind. Waar was die kind? Wat het die kind oogekom?”

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[Now I think, all the stuff going through my head. Where was the child? What happened to the child?]

Some parents also expressed fear for their own safety as they often had to go out and look for their children, not knowing where they were, fearing confrontation with gangs.

"Nou staan hy op, maar nou met ek weer bid, Here asseblief laat hy ook tog nie iets oorkom nou in die nag... Daar waar hy nou gaan loop en soek nie. Want obvious loop hulle by die verkeerde plekke..."

[Now he gets up, but now I have to pray again: God, please do not let anything happen to him during the night …There where he is going to now. Because obviously they are going to the wrong places …]

"You can’t fight because they’re really going to hurt you."

Innate to the parent’s caring and monitoring role is the desire to protect the adolescent from harm, as well as the family from consequent risks. From the narratives of some of the parents is was clear that the fear for the safety of their children caused them great distress, as did endangering their own lives in search of them.

4.4.3.3 Sub-theme 3.3 Influence on household and other children

Evidently, the impact of the adolescents’ substance abuse is not only experienced by parents, but also by other members of the household, especially the siblings. Parents reported that they needed to juggle managing one child while maintaining control over the other children. The influence of substance abuse on sibling relationships is underpinned by research which shows that central to the substance use is the loss of relationships, loss of trust, the perception of being selfish and not considering the needs of the family, conflict, embarrassment, being ashamed, and exposure to substance abuse (Barnard, 2005:17–21). One of the respondents, for instance, was called to the school because the younger sibling had experienced a change in school progress.

"Ja, and you have to be careful because the other one is gonna worry a lot. Like my one, his schoolwork did went behind. And so, they phoned me, and I told the Sir there what’s going on."
“Uhm, sister and brother can’t get along. Brother swears ‘N’s’ and ‘P’s’ and stuff to sister. They don’t get along. They just wanna kill each other all the time. So family intervention is... is... is... is the main thing.”

It can be stressful for parents to maintain order in the household while focusing on supporting a substance abusing adolescent. The challenge is to support the substance abusing child while not appearing to favour that child to ensure that the remaining siblings do not engage in harmful attention seeking behaviour.

4.4.3.4 Sub-theme 3.4 Previous efforts and experiences of treatment opportunities

Not all adolescents who formed part of this study had received multiple treatment opportunities. However, parents of those who have had the opportunity expressed their frustration at not seeing results, with the consequent relapses. Reisinger (2004:249–250) notes that adolescents who are addicted and had moved past denial of their addiction are not vested in how others experience their use, but rather in how they view their own use. For the developing adolescent with an impaired sense of judgement, that fine line between recreational use and addiction, the frequency, and the environmental contributors and tolerance towards use often negate the guilt from relapsing.

“I send X to, three, three times, she was in a private rehab. Three times ... That doesn’t help at all.”

“You pay thousands of rands for ... private rehabs, you can take you daughter. No when she was, no she was fine, it’s a hotel that mommy. She goes in with a packet of cigarettes. Every night you can take her something ... luxuries, uhm ... it didn’t help, and every time ... It just got worst.”

In the practice setting, relapse and readmission is generally not viewed as a failure but rather as an opportunity for the treatment programme and skills to be emphasised. Yet, Hennessey and Fisher (2015:92) maintain that readmissions can be costly if the services are paid for services, and state that community-based programmes could offer a cheaper or even free solution to treatment interventions.
The second objective of the study was to explore and describe how parents experience their children’s participation in the substance abuse treatment programmes. In this regard, one main theme emerged from the data and will be discussed in the section that follows.

4.4.4 Theme 4: Experiences of parents when adolescents return home from treatment

Three subthemes became apparent when analysing the data for parents’ experiences after their children had returned home from treatment: stress, owing to fear of relapse; hope, owing to signs of change; and obstacles experienced when adolescents return home after treatment.

4.4.4.1 Sub-theme 4.1 Stress, owing to fear of relapse

The majority of parents expressed anxiety caused by a fear of relapse. As they felt responsible for avoiding a relapse, they were in a constant state of vigilance and needed to be attentive of the adolescent’s every move.

“To be totally honest it is a bit nerve wrecking.”

Stress experienced by parents can be categorised into (i) fear resulting in a lack of trust and (ii) signs of possible relapse.

(i) Fear resulting in a lack of trust

The lack of trust following treatment intervention is supported by previous studies that included the narratives of parents (Groenewald, 2016:88) and adolescents (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:155). These studies highlighted the challenging dynamic of parents being cautious to trust their children again and adolescents perceiving that their parents do not trust them. Overall, most of the participants were cognisant of the fact that the adolescent had participated in the treatment programme and that change had occurred; however, they also indicated that at times they could not fully trust the adolescent because of fear of relapse.

“No, trust is not easy. It’s a challenge. Because miskien kan ek pretend [maybe I can pretend] I trust but I will also ... It’s the doubt ... it’s the doubt.”

From the narrative of this particular parent is was evident that, owing to the adolescent’s previous behaviour, the parent doubted whether real change had taken place.
(ii) Signs of possible relapse

Most of the participants shared that they were vigilant for changes, due to the reality of relapse. Some of the parents indicated that they would sometimes confront the adolescent about possible changes they observed, while others were just hoping that what they were observing was normal. This is supported by the narrative of parents in similar studies who shared that post treatment they started to adopt a more watchful, controlling and responsive approach (Groenewald, 2016:93).

“He is still not eating like he should. He won’t eat for two three days and it makes me worry ... are you using?”

Yet, being observant post treatment could mean that parents were now more willing to engage their adolescent child in constructive communication rather than using an accusative tone, as might have been the case before treatment. This is supported by previous studies which indicated that better communication skills between parents and their children were attained consequent to the adolescents’ participation in a treatment programme (Katouziyan, 2017:84).

4.4.4.2 Sub-theme 4.2 Hope, owing to signs of change

Although many parents experienced anxiety towards subtle changes, most of them also expressed their sense of hope when they saw positive changes in the adolescent. The following narrative echoes the sentiments of participants who experienced hope at seeing changes in their adolescents:

“And then you also have feelings of, when you uh, when you see the child and you see how much the child have changed for that time between when the child was at home and in the programme – it also gives you great joy to see how the child have changed.”

As parents experienced changed behaviour, especially in the first weeks after discharge, it was evident that they mostly experienced a sense of relief as hope crept in, guided by the fact that change was possible. Ultimately, that hope had a positive effect on the relationship.

From the data, three categories came to the fore from the subtheme of hope, namely (i) behavioural change, (ii) linking with support systems, and (iii) a change in parent–child relationship.
(i) Behavioural change

Relationships started to improve when behavioural changes were experienced, and these changes contributed towards rebuilding trust in the parent–child relationship. The joy these parents shared were contrasted by the frustration shared by parents in a similar study regarding their frustration and disappointment when the treatment programmes their children participated in had not changed their lives or behaviour (Mathibela, 2017:88).

“Okay, some of the changes, before he did the, uh, I, I teach him everything, like to clean, to cook. He knows everything so he didn’t do that before. But now he do everything. If I came home late, he’s gonna cook.”

“I didn’t, I never lock my room. I just leave and I can even leave my wallet. If he wants maybe R1 to buy chips, he is gonna ask for it.”

However, it was observed by the researcher that parents were perceptive to previous issues of trust and measured the adolescent’s current behaviour against that to determine whether actual change had taken place.

(ii) Linking with support systems

Most parents expressed the need for support systems in helping to maintain a successful recovery. This sentiment is supported by parents and adolescents in a related study regarding aftercare needs. The study identified substance-free environments and activities as an essential factor in recovery and maintaining abstinence (Acri, Gogol, Pollock & Wisdom, 2012:124). In the current study, one parent, for instance, indicated how the church and religious activity serve as an additional support system to her adolescent.

“And, he’s going to church and things that he didn’t wanted to do, don’t come tell me about what, but now, no when you tell him come to church or he would get up on his own – I want to go to church now, mommy, let’s go.”

“It’s still God’s Word, if he wants to go to that church, go with him, just to you know, he need a shoulder to lean on.”
Although religious activities had been identified as the main source of substance-free activities, other sources like sport and art may also be explored. Unfortunately, in practice settings it has been found that these activities are not always available in most communities.

(iii) A change in parent–child relationship

As parents observed behavioural changes, they were able to discuss it with their children, and consequently their relationship was able to grow. The importance of this is highlighted by previous research that identified poor communication between parents and adolescents as a possible cause of relapse (Van der Westhuizen & De Jager, 2009:81). Conversely, improved communication between the parent and adolescent contributes to an improvement in the relationship and can ultimately support recovery needs. This is illustrated by one of the participants as follows:

“Now the child is better than before. Because I’m not sure, if, if there’s something wrong I just, uh, calm down and sit with him, talk to him nicely, then it goes, all the things goes well. Before, he didn’t talk if he want something ...”

From the responses by the parents it was evident that the parent–child relationship suffered immensely because of the substance use. Yet, it was observed through the narratives that parents were eager to restore the relationship post treatment and were seeking opportunities do to so. This initiative is supported by literature that indicates that, despite substance abuse, parental love and care does not subside (Katouziyan, 2017:29).

4.4.4.3 Sub-theme 4.3 Obstacles experienced when the adolescent returns home after treatment

From the data it became apparent that most parents experienced unexpected challenges once the adolescent was discharged and back in their care. These challenges are encapsulated in the following categories: (i) lack of information, (ii) not being available all the time, (iii) lack of support, (iv) adolescents’ attitude and behaviour, (v) trust, (vi) unrealistic expectations, and (vii) dealing with disappointment.
Some parents felt out of their depth with the substance abuse phenomenon and needed some education on the subject. The need for substance abuse training and workshops is supported by studies conducted by Swartbooi (2013:42), Groenewald (2016:97) Mathibela (2017:126) and Katouziyan (2017:40). Most treatment programmes for adolescents have a parental education component and are geared towards empowering parents and families to identify and deal with substance abuse (NIDA, 2008:16–17). Yet, the general sentiment from parents were that, although it was prevalent in their communities, they still lacked the necessary information to really deal with substance abuse.

“I don’t even know how tik looks like.”

“I never even have heard about it, uh, they tell me how they use it but I don’t know anything about it.”

These narratives are supported by a similar study by ahead Swartbooi (2013:44–45) which identified parents’ lack of knowledge about substances and substance abuse, as well as how to access resources, as area of contention. The study indicated how this lack of knowledge added to parents’ disappointment, feelings of guilt, and being ill-prepared for the challenges that lay. Practice experience has highlighted that parents who participate in support groups and services rendered by professionals not only feel more empowered but are also able to support other parents dealing with the same challenges.

Not being available all the time

As monitoring becomes an important part of the role of the parent in aftercare, some parents were worried about whether their children were coping on their own, as they were not available all the time. Social ills and environmental and economic factors contribute to parents’ concern about not being able to continuously supervise their adolescents (Swartbooi, 2013:83). From the narratives of parents, it was evident that they worried about receiving bad reports regarding their children since they were unable to be available at all times.

“And even at work I’m worried if I came back I’m gonna get bad news.”

“Because I’m working I can’t do that, because he is alone the whole day.”
The guilt of not being available and the worry about the adolescent relapsing or getting into trouble need to be carefully navigated so that when parents do check up on their children it is not viewed in a negative light. Monitoring should be carried out in a constructive and caring fashion, minimising the potential conflict that might arise.

(iii) Lack of support

Although most parents received support from their families, some felt that the lack of support from extended family members made the journey a lonely one. The lack of support, especially from extended family, often leads to emotional exhaustion for parents. This provides an opportunity for manipulation from the adolescent, often resulting in further conflict between family members (Swartbooi, 2013:11–12). The following narrative from one parent illustrates her need for support from family members:

“My wish was always that the support of the family would be so that if they see that I’m weak in that area there would be someone that can step up and be a support. You need someone who act, for example, you are a woman, you need someone like a man who can also talk some sense into, if it’s a boy or a girl, talk some sense into that person.”

The additional support from extended family can strengthen the parent’s ability to not only deal with the recovery needs of the adolescent, but also tap into a network of support for their own emotional needs, as well as the needs of the adolescent.

(iv) Adolescents’ attitude and behaviour

Changes in behaviour, mood swings, poor communication and manipulation are often the signs of substance abuse (Goliath, 2014:207). However, these characteristics can also be ascribed to normal adolescent development (American Psychological Association, 2002:15–18), which is why in many cases parents do not relate such changes in behaviour to substance abuse (Mathibela, 2017:10). Parents described their observations of their adolescent children’s behaviour as follows:

“She’s got a bad attitude. She don’t know how to talk to people.”

“And he knows how to push my buttons, you see?”
“You know and ... uhm ... he’s manipulative. How to stop that. That is difficult to deal with ...”

Post treatment parents are generally more aware of these behavioural challenges and are able to address them in the hope that the adolescents will change their behaviour. Parents who participated in a similar study supported this, but also identified additional feelings like guilt and blaming themselves for not being more involved in order to influence behaviour (Mathibela, 2017:83–84). Van der Westhuizen (2010:135) maintains that aftercare programmes should focus on helping the adolescent acquire new skills that will develop better coping skills and improve behaviour. However, changing the behaviour of the adolescent will also require the necessary parenting skills for fostering such change, as identified by the participants of the study. This will be discussed later in more detail.

(v) Trust

The substance use of the adolescent not only puts stress on the family dynamics, but also affects lower levels cohesion between members (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:179). Parents expressed their concern with trust and the negative effect thereof on the relationship between themselves and the adolescents. Some participants disclosed that they were conflicted between wanting to believe that the adolescent would make the better decisions and thinking that not enough time had passed in their recovery. Others felt that they should be more trusting, but feared that they might be taken advantage of and that the adolescent would start using again.

“Explaining it to child: “Ja you are not at the point, I am not at the point where I am at ease when you go out. Give me some time, give me at least two months... So we can build this relationship up. Uhm, so you need to also get that, help me now, this is for me, help me. Just give me time so I can also get to the point where you are. In our trust.”

“I trust him but I don’t trust him fully, because I have that fear if I give him that trust, that’s whereby he’ll say, okay, I can do this thing and my mother won’t know because she trust me.”
These narratives may also indicate that parents are concerned that their children might not honour the trust they so much wanted to demonstrate towards them, which might end up in a lack of respect. Parents feared being manipulated if they trusted too much in the early stages of recovery.

(vi) Unrealistic expectations

Although not all parents verbalised it, some parents felt that they needed to take the recovery process in their stride and not expect a full recovery without incidents. This is supported by literature which shows that parents will often experience a sense of disappointment when their children fail to meet their expectations of sobriety, as they believe that their own strengths and believes should be a moral compass for their adolescent children (Swartbooi, 2013:45–56). The following narrative from a parent who felt that they still needed to support the adolescents through their struggles and not have unrealistic expectations of recovery or restored relationships is a sentiment shared by other participants:

“Maybe we ... we ... we expect too much. You see? You think that when the child comes back from (the treatment centre), he ..., he must be super. But it’s not like that. That is not natural.”

Parents realised that they needed patience to deal with the recovering adolescent.

“You need to have patience.”

Realising that they need patience with the recovery journey of adolescents, parents will put less pressure on them to achieve recovery results and establish a more realistic set of recovery goals. This is supported by the treatment guidelines of the SAMHSA (SAMHSA, 2015:23). These guidelines indicate that unrealistic expectations from parents can result in feelings of not being able to live up to expectations or just giving up trying.

(vii) Dealing with disappointment

Learning to deal with the disappointment and embarrassment of adolescent substance abuse was an issue most parents could identify with. Parents who participated in a related study also indicated their disappointment at their substance abusing adolescent children who were hindering their own chances of a successful life. The hopes and dreams they had for their
children were challenged by the substance use (Mathibela, 2017:87–88). This stems back to the fear they have of the adolescent relapsing and not being able to manage it.

“And I just need to deal with it, and like said, when I, when I heard X is doing all these things, I had to came down to earth.”

“You need to accept that there will be disappointments also.”

Learning to be patient, supportive and realistic about recovery goals will enable parents experiencing disappointment to deal with challenging recovering needs. In addition, it will create a safe environment for adolescents to meet those needs, even should they lapse or relapse in the process.

The third objective of the study was to explore and describe the perceptions of parents about their role in the aftercare of adolescents who have participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse. During the interviews, monitoring of behaviour of both the parent and the adolescent and the need to educate themselves were identified by parents as what they considered to be their role in the aftercare process.

4.4.5 Theme 5: Parents’ expectations of adolescents after treatment

From the theme of parents’ expectations of adolescents after treatment, two subthemes emerged, namely taking responsibility and being honest about the past.

4.4.5.1 Sub-theme 5.1 Taking responsibility

In Chapter 2 we discussed that in adolescent development the prefrontal cortex, the part of the brain which regulates behaviour and emotions, is not yet fully developed. This influences the adolescent’s ability to make informed decisions based on consequential outcomes. Most parents in the current study believed that their adolescent children needed to take responsibility and not blame others for their actions. In addition to parents’ expectations of their children to be accountable for their own role in their substance abuse, other factors also influence parents’ perception regarding taking responsibility. These factors will be discussed in more detail in this section. The undertone of the narrative below again illustrates a sense of disappointment in the adolescent’s substance use.
“But they ... need to take responsibility. We can do just so much for our children.”

This sentiment is echoed in related studies where parents indicated that they felt they were judged for the actions of their adolescent children when they had done their best to rear them well (Mathibela, 2017:97).

Regarding taking responsibility, parents expected that their children should (i) stop blaming others and (ii) choose their company carefully.

(i) Stop blaming others

One parent in particular felt that they had made the best effort to rear their adolescent child to the best of their ability and could not be blamed for any actions the child entered into while being alone. In this regard, literature shows that it is not uncommon for substance abusing adolescents to blame others, including their parents, for the problems they experience in life. Consequently, parents feel angry and victimised (Usher, Jackson & O’Brien, 2007:427). The following narrative echoes the frustration of a parent at being blamed for the adolescent’s substance abuse:

“All these children want to blame the mothers and the fathers... There’s nothing wrong, most of us we don’t do these things, but we gets the blame for ...”

While this sentiment was only shared by a minority of the participants, others also expressed a sense of frustration at being held accountable for the adolescent’s substance use. In addition to the adolescent’s developmental ability to make sound and mature decisions, literature suggests that low self-image can also cause inability to take responsibility for mistakes and accepting blame and may thus also be a contributor to substance use (MacTavish, 2004, cited in Van der Westhuizen, 2010:336). When taking into account that the adolescent might use substances to deal with difficult situations, a well-founded reason for blaming the parents (even from the adolescent’s perspective) could be discovered during therapeutic intervention. This dynamic can often be used as an intervention starting point, as often experienced in practice setting.
Choosing company carefully

Most parents shared concern regarding their adolescent children’s choice of friends and hoped that post treatment they would rather chose peers that would add value to their lives and could assist in their recovery. Peer influence, a major component in adolescent development, can lead to risky behaviour. In this regard, studies have found that increasing self-esteem amongst adolescents would have a greater impact in promoting healthy behaviours than providing opportunities for change or fostering healthy peer relationships (Wild, Flisher, Bhana & Lombard, 2004:1464). The following narratives from parents illustrate their concerns regarding their adolescent children’s ability to choose and maintain supportive and positive peer groups:

“Because he’s gonna mengel [mix] with those friends and you know, they’re on the right path and that.”

“Sometimes he wants to be with his friends, then he has to... to change his ways now.”

“For me, she needs to be responsible and she needs to be matured.”

Conflicting perceptions of a positive peer group often become an area of contention between parents and adolescents, as experienced in practice setting. Parents and adolescents may have different views on acceptable friends, either because of compatibility or different interests.

4.4.5.2 Sub-theme 5.2 Being honest about the past

Two parents expressed the desire to know about their adolescent children’s substance abuse. They felt that they had better communication lines with their children post treatment and were ready for a discussion about what had led to the substance abuse. They expressed that although it was difficult, learning about what the adolescent experienced gave them empathy and improved the relationship.

“Waar het dit begin, wat het sy alles gedoen, wat het sy deur gegaan, hoekom het sy dit gedoen het. Ek wil ook graag dit weet.”

[Where did it start? What did she do? What did she go through? Why did she do it? I would also like to know.]
“Sy sê ma, dan sit ons heel nag daar. Haai tyd wanneer ma-hulle ons so gaan soek, ma gaan mos nie daar kom soek nie.”

[She says mom, then we sit there all night. Those times when you guys went looking for us, mom won’t go looking there.]

One participant said that she wanted to impart on her son what she had learned from life and wanted him to have a better life.

“The purpose of this is to make him, uh, uh feel secure, his family is there for him, he don’t have to go mengel [mix] with wrong friends because he see now, now my parents guide me in a better way. And, beforehand, they told me about wrong friends... And I didn’t listen and now I got a picture, because look now, they have to run around with me, where’s the friends? And, I hurt my parents and I don’t want to do it anymore else, so I will follow now in their footsteps.”

The need to know and understand why the adolescent became involved in substance abuse as well as to be informed about their experiences may be driven by the parents’ own sense of guilt or sense of failure for not being able to protect them or steer them away from the harm of substance use. Research narratives suggest that parents generally raise their children with the hope and expectation that they will mature into successful adults but feel their dreams are shattered by the negative effects of substance abuse (Usher et al., 2007:427).

4.4.6 Theme 6: Parental roles and responsibilities in recovery

Parental influence is believed to have a significant role to play in the general and, in particular, emotional wellbeing of the adolescent and may promote various supports depending on how they choose to exercise that influence. (Acri et al., 2012:120).

From the data on parental roles and responsibilities in recovery, three subthemes emerged, namely awareness and observation, parental involvement and interest, and having hope.

4.4.6.1 Sub-theme 6.1 Awareness and observation

Most treatment models and practice guidelines incorporate a component of equipping family members and significant others, especially in aftercare care and the identification of early
signs of relapse (Rawson & McCann, 2006:29; Groenewald, 2016:103). Empowering parents to identify the possible signs of relapse might prevent it. Parents shared the following narratives on how they became more aware of adolescents’ behavioural patterns post treatment, fearing signs of relapse:

“You must just observe sometimes, you know?”

“For the signs, because, joh, the drugs have a lot of signs, you know your child...”

“You know mos your child only, but now he’s eating normal.”

Observation and vigilance is a typical protective sign of parenting. Although it might not always be appreciated by adolescents, knowing that their parents are observant towards behavioural changes can be a deterrent for relapse. In this regard, literature indicates that parents should be trained to support adolescents in dealing with stress, to motivate them to maintain changes towards recovery, and to identify and avoid triggers (Barber, 2002 & Keegan & Moss, 2008 cited in Van der Westhuizen, 2010:201).

4.4.6.2 Sub-theme 6.2 Parental involvement and interest

Increased interest and involvement in the adolescents’ activities had a positive impact on most of the parents, and consequently the adolescents as well. Participants disclosed how they realised that sharing experiences can improve relationships. Through interaction they were also able to encourage adolescents to adopt healthy habits and learn new socialisation skills which are essentially part of the aftercare integration process. The following narratives of parents reflect the shift that had taken place in their own approach to engagement:

“When the child is at home you must like give him some chores to do, uhm, you must participate with him in, in stuff like go shopping, play with him or reading or watch TV together, go to church. Maybe play in the yard, maybe tennis...”

“Be involved, and like reading, maybe he ask you, mommy, read for me or daddy read for me. Don’t say no because although he’s big, read, because maybe something he want to see...”
“And that’s how you participate and maybe when he’s washing the dishes, you say, come let me help you wipe off your dishes. Come let me help you or you clean that room or you would say, I’m gonna clean that side and that side, it’s fine.”

Parental involvement and interest are directly related to protective factors in parenting and integrated with parental monitoring, which is considered an important intervention tool aimed at reducing adolescent risk behaviours (Li et al., 2003:56). By being involved in the lives of adolescents, parents are able to foster channels of communication, understand the adolescents’ emotional and other supportive needs, and to positively engage them. However, this continuous intended involvement might also pose a challenge to some parents, especially single parents or parents in complex family dynamics where parental time, energy, or emotional wellbeing and support may be strained or lacking.

(i) Interest relates to showing respect for his/her opinion

One of the identified roles of parents was that they needed to demonstrate more interest in the adolescent as a person. Parents revealed that showing interest in the adolescents not only gave them a sense of importance but also left the impression that their parents cared about their wellbeing. McNece & DiNitto (1998), Gouws & Mans (2000, cited in Van der Westhuizen, 2010:204) argue that reintegration services with families should include parental interest, understanding, approval, acceptance, trust, guidance, role modelling, and discipline in order to foster developmental and interactional skills to aid in recovery. The following narrative demonstrates the parent’s view on how her interaction with the adolescent can lead to greater communication and understanding:

“Don’t say no to him and that and maybe you got a garden in the yard, help out there, he’s helping you out there. What must I plant or so? Don’t say no, you can’t plant that and that. Help him and so, that’s how the child, you know, and there are sometimes outside, outdoors sports and such things like that. Let him participate in that and go with him. It will, you know, he will feel like, ooh, my parents are here. I see they got interest.”

In demonstrating interest in the adolescent, the parent not only fosters the prospect for improved communication and interaction, but also the opportunity to influence behaviour and understanding. This is supported by the narrative of a mother in a similar study who shared
her experiences of changing her attitude and mind-set regarding her interaction with her child. She realised that she had not succeeded in controlling his behaviour, but then shifted her approach to treating him with the respect he needed in the hope of influencing his behaviour in that way (Usher et al., 2007:425). For many parents the shift does not always happen and the methods they use to gain trust are not always effective, resulting in frustration and eventually disinterest by both parties.

4.4.6.3 Sub-theme 6.3 Having hope

Hopelessness is experienced by many parents when they first realise their adolescents are involved in substance abuse and they lack services and support. However, the strain in the relationship does not negate the parent–child bond, which upon the successful completion of the treatment programme receives a new injection of hope (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:200). The following narrative from a parent is a sentiment that is shared by most of the participants in the study:

“En wat ek sê is, jy is nooit te goed om sleg te raak nie... En jy is nooit te sleg om goed te raak nie.”

[And what I say is, you are never too good to become bad … And you are never too bad to become good.]

Many parents do remain hopeful that their children will recover and encourage them to endure the journey of recovery. This hope is evident in their interaction with and care of the adolescent, which is often the lifeline adolescents need to realise that their parents are there to support them and will be there for them unconditionally.

Having hope can be related to (i) spirituality and (ii) trust.

(i) Hope related to spirituality

Most South Africans have spiritual connectedness and find a source of strength, comfort and hope though their religious and spiritual beliefs. It is ingrained in many of our cultural and value systems (Carelse, 2018:189) and for many communities an essential part of everyday activities and life.
For the majority of participants in this study, that set of beliefs was an important component of remaining hopeful for change.

(ii) Hope related to trust

Rebuilding trust was one of the challenging areas that most parents could identify with and a recurring theme when it comes to aftercare and recovery. Parents’ hyper vigilance towards their children’s activities and movement can be a result of a lack of trust and consequently become a source of anxiety when parents fear relapse (Groenewald, 2018:7). The following narratives illustrate how parents exercise and understand the trust component of the relationship:

“So but, most, mostly is, you, you just need to trust that she will make the right decisions and trust that she doesn’t go with the wrong people or meet the wrong people and all that.”

“And I gave her the R2. She said to me, come stand by the gate. Ek se, jy het lus vir rook, neh? Wil jy n pakkie cigarettes se geld hé? Nee ma. [I say, you really crave to smoke, hey? Do you want money for a packet of cigarettes? No mom] You’re know, that child again, and I opened the door and I was standing at the gate and she came back with this two R1 packets of chips … And she came to go sit again. She’s still a child.”


[Keep praying for our children. Not give up hope. Just trust.]

“So, ons moet net in ons se spiritual life ook kyk …”

[So, we must only look at our spiritual life too …]

“En ons moet glo. Dat dinge gaan weer regkom.”

[And we must believe. That things will come right again.]
More stringent monitoring of behaviours and activities become an additional role parents needed to adopt in order rebuild trust.

4.4.6.4 Sub-theme 6.4 Communication

Most parents agreed that communication had improved post treatment. This can be ascribed to new skills learnt during treatment where assertiveness and communication are encouraged. Parents also realised that they needed to make effort to reach out and communicate with the adolescent in order to maintain good communication lines. Choi, Miller-Day, Shin, Hecht, Pettigrew, Krieger, Lee & Graham (2017:27) argue that parents who discuss substances with their adolescent children have a better chance of a positive outcome regarding substance abuse. Parents noted the following:

“Yes, we never talked about it. She sometimes spoke about how it was there and it was nice and what they did … But then we just listened. And so afterwards she felt free.”

“We never spoke about her. She sometimes spoke about how it was there and it was nice and what they did … But then we just listened. And so afterwards she felt free.”

“As we were maybe eating, we sit and talk about anything and everything … And then afterwards she also joined in … And then she came out with the things herself.”

“I make sure that I give him the time, you see? I sit with him, I talk to him.”

“And I think what’s easy was, was that you could, can communicate with them better, this time around.”

“You should be different now from accusing, uhm shouting, getting angry – to knowing how to deal with someone who have been in a, in a...
rehabilitation programme. So, there is a different approach, so it is very important because it depends on how you approach, how you, uhm, approach that person.”

From these narratives it was evident that changes in the parents’ approach to communication also had a positive effect on their relationship with the adolescents. The following category was identified under communication.

(i) Encouragement and motivation

Acri et al. (2012:126) identify lack of motivation as one of the contributors to relapse. During the interviews, one of the most important roles parents identified was to motivate and encourage their adolescent children in order to maintain a positive self-image, but also to promote their recovery. Parents had the following to say in this regard:

“And you need to encourage them.”

“En wanneer jy ook iets sê, sê dit in n goeie ding. Moenie laat hulle minderwaardig voel nie.”

[And when you also say something, say it in a good way. Don’t let them feel inferior.]

“This, to also just give some acknowledgement, because she was away from you. Because it was not easy for my child. And we often tell her we are proud of her.”

[This, to also just give some acknowledgement, because she was away from you. Because it was not easy for my child. And we often tell her we are proud of her.]

“Give compliments or something.”

Adolescents do not always have the emotional intelligence for self-motivation and therefore rely on external ‘cheerleaders’ to give them a sense of accomplishment.
4.4.6.5 Sub-theme 6.5 Love, support and care

Parents, being the legal custodians of adolescents, principally remain responsible for their physical, emotional and psychological wellbeing (Douglas & Michaels, 2004, cited in Smith & Estefan, 2014:427). Before treatment, the parent–child relationship had been severely affected by feelings of frustration, hopelessness and disappointed in the adolescents’ behaviour. However, this changed significantly for most parents post treatment as they made concerted efforts to re-establish bonds of love, support and care.

“You need to show love.”

“And say, come give Ma a drukkie.”

[And say, come give Mom a hug.]

“Uhm, uhm, asking them, maybe how their day was.”

“To show that I am here, I support you and whatever you do I will assist you.”

“Like with... then like, even at night when he go to ... when he go to bed, I will go to him and I will tell him, I will kiss hiss and I will tell him you know what? I love you.”

Literature often supports the notion that adolescents engage in risky behaviour and substance abuse because they experience a lack of care and love from their parents (Mathibela, 2017:65). Although this generalisation is true in most instances of adolescent substance abuse, the researcher through practice experience has perceived that this notion is based on circumstantial perceptions of the adolescent. Substance use and it causes often contribute to frustration, disappointment, and adolescents and parents feeling isolated from each other; however, very few cases demonstrate hate and animosity. Literature, research studies and practice experience show that, regardless of the challenging behaviours and breakdown in relationships, adolescents still express their need for love, care and support from their parents as a contributing factor to support recovery (Van der Westhuizen & De Jager, 2009:85).
Most parents agreed that their approach to discipline had become more stringent post-treatment. It was, however, not clear whether this was because of new skills they had acquired through professional intervention or if it was a natural progression of the reintegration process. Acri et al. (2012:120) maintain that parents of adolescent substance abusers need to set rules in order to fulfil their role and have a positive effect on their recovery journey. Clear boundaries and roles influence nurturing and caring as opposed to a strict environment where the parental emphasis is on enforcing respect and consequently diminishing the parent–adolescent relationship (SAMHSA, 2015:119). Parents had the following to say in this regard:

“And then sometimes you have to be strict because you love them.”

“You need to set the boundaries …”

“And then discipline ... I can like maybe give him the phone and if he’s not behaving, take it away.”

“When you that to say, okay, this is what I’d like you to ... to do or to improve on because the thing is ... is wrong and it’s gonna lead to this.”

It is a common misconception that adolescents who abuse substance lack discipline or are not disciplined by their parents. This often refers to parents using corporal punishment on their children. Most of the participants in the current study offered a nurturing environment with expectations and set boundaries they expected the adolescents to adhere to. However, external and environmental factors influenced the control measures and after the treatment period parents generally felt that they needed to ‘reset’ the terms of boundaries.

The fourth objective of the study was to explore and describe what parents expected from support structures for their adolescent children and the family as a whole. During the interviews, parents were able to indicate the needs of adolescents in recovery, the need for informal support to the adolescents and their parents, and what was required of social workers in aftercare.
4.4.7 Theme 7: The needs of adolescents in recovery

Most parents could articulate what they felt the adolescents needed to support them in their recovery. The principles of relapse prevention consider the family as an integral part of the recovery capital (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2011:359). In this section we discuss the mechanisms required by adolescents to aid them in a successful recovery, as indicated by participants. Parents identified these mechanisms as: role models, guidance, and support systems.

4.4.7.1 Sub-theme 7.1 Role models

Parents noted that in the current milieu of the adolescents’ environment there were not many positive role models. Since peer influence still plays a significant role in the development of the adolescent, parents felt that they needed to step up to fill that role. According to literature, parents identify the social worker as having a role in role modelling (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:126); however, in reality few adolescents really ascribe that attribute to the social worker. Hence, the onus falls on the parent to demonstrate healthy lifestyle habits to foster positive and desirable role modelling. The following narratives echo parents’ insight into their role modelling function:

“And children needs, uhm, people to look up to.”

“They need, uhm, like example…”

“Let’s start with your behaviour in... in the home itself, parents now. How you conduct yourself and all of that.”

“You need to set the example.”

“He was telling the social worker he would like to go back to church, so there we come in as parents, by the spiritual aspect. There we come, so we must lead by example.”

Besides the fact that adolescents need positive role models to imitate desirable behaviour, they need to be role models themselves, especially for younger siblings. This could set right the poor role modelling displayed while they were still actively using substances, which often...
leads to guilt and regret once the adolescent is in recovery (Barnard, 2005:26; Groenewald, 2016:34).

4.4.7.2 Sub-theme 7.2 Guidance

From the data, adolescents’ need for guidance can be categorised into (i) information, (ii) advice, (iii) assistance with time management, and (iv) motivation.

(i) Information

Parents pointed out that adolescents do not consider the dangers of the substances they consume and felt that a better understanding of the harmful effects may be a deterrent to usage. Literature shows that when parents and adolescents have information about the substances and their effects, it helps them to cope better and minimise the feeling of helplessness (Groenewald, 2016:8–10). Parents shared the following regarding how they tried to bring their adolescent children to insight on the dangers of substance use and its effects on the body:

“X (adolescent who received treatment) told me about that child (who was admitted to hospital). Now, what, what’s the cause of that child? She asks me. I said, ‘You know what, that stuff went into her lungs most probably or into the intestines or it’s blocking somewhere.’”

“We sit and talk. I said, it’s dangerous that stuff, it will eat your liver up. It will eat your intestines up.”

Although it can be generally accepted that adolescents are able to identify the different types of drugs available, very few know the harmful effect of the drugs. Prevention campaigns aimed at drug awareness will often briefly focus on the identification and symptoms to wide audiences comprising of users and non-users. During treatment, information about substance use and its harmful effects on the physical, psychosocial and psychological compartments is provided more in detail. It should however be noted that, even with education and multiple warnings available, such information is not necessarily considered a deterrent for substance use.
Advice

One parent specifically shared the challenge her daughter had experienced when she was due to return to school – how she would be received back and how she would account for her absence. The parent was able to encourage and motivate her by giving her advice on how to handle the situation. This intervention turned out to have a successful outcome in the end.

“It was 'n bietjie, uh, ongemaklik toe X mos nou vir die eerste keer huistoe kom en veral waar sy mos nou moes terug gaan skool toe. En as, sy was ook n bietjie ongemaklik hoe gaan sy aanpas by die mense en, uh, ma hoe moet ek nou sê waar was ek? En, uh, gaan die mense nou nie praat van my en haai nie? Ek is n bietjie bang. Nou se ek, nee baby, jy hoef nie bang te wees nie, ek dink die beste is die, as hulle vir jou vra waar was jy, want die skool het mos nou al oopgemaak en toe was sy mos nou by die rehab en haai ... So, jy gee vir hulle self die informasie, so, dan gaan hulle nou nie nog agteraf praat en dan gaan jy ongemaklik voel en haai nie. En sy sê vir my toe sy terugkom, ma, dit was nogal baie beter om dit te doen ...”

[It was slightly, uh, uncomfortable when X came home for the first time, especially where she had to go back to school. And as she was also slightly uncomfortable regarding how she would adapt to the people and, uh, what will I now say regarding where I was? And, uh, are the people not going to talk about me? I am a little scared. Now I say, No baby, you don’t need to be scared. I think the best is that if they ask you where you were (because the school has opened while she had been in rehab) ... So you yourself give them the information so then they cannot speak behind your back and then you will not feel uncomfortable. And on her return she said to me, Mom, it was actually much better to do that.]

Adolescents who participated in a similar study also identified the need to be able to talk to their peers about substance abuse and their recovery journey (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:138–139). They wanted to know how to talk to their peers about substance use, not only to tell them about the dangers of substance use but also to create a platform to share their own story. When considering the value peer acceptance has on the adolescent, identifying and meeting this need is well founded by the parents.
(iii) Assistance with time management

Parents indicated that during the treatment programme the adolescents participated in skills development, and that time management was one of the areas that received specific attention. This created the platform for change and accountability upon reintegration. Recognising the need to manage and acquire new skills to support the recovery plan, which should include time management, building relationships and dealing with finances, is supported by relapse prevention guidelines as well as literature (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2013:9; Witkiewitz & Marlatt, 2004:228). One parent particularly reflected on the way they were able to use the existing information to implement strategies at home.

“It’s the first thing, but, in his, when he ... when he gets out of bed he used to make his bed up ... he wanted ... But now he wants to go and watch tv first ... So he did that in the first week and then there ... After that, the third week ... He used to slip. Then he tell, mommmy my arms are so sore and say make up my bed. I say no, make up your bed and your arms will become right. Because the moment I was thinking the moment I’m gonna make up your bed, you’re gonna relapse again.”

“Because the first thing is to ... to ... to be bored, then you will ... will ... will relapse.”

“Because wake up in the morning, quiet time, reading your Bible, after that you’re watching movie, after that you go and ... and ... and ... and ... give the dogs food and then you go to gym, you come back, twelve o’clock you wash. And like on Tuesday and Thursday we ... we ... he will go play soccer by the church. The church have its own soccer team ... So I organise him there.”

Effective time management involves more than just filling the day with activities, but also needs the support from families and significant figures to populate activities. The goal of time management is not to occupy time, but to use time meaningfully and to be able to report at the end of the day that it had been spent productively. Parents therefore need to play an active part in ensuring that the adolescent is able to execute set goals and avail the resources to achieve them. For example, if the youth plays soccer, parents should make sure that he has means to get to the place of practice as well as the necessary gear to play with, ensuring that a lack of these resources will not cause the adolescent to loiter and end up with the wrong group again.
Motivation

Most parents agreed that motivation had a positive impact on the adolescent. Being able to believe in their ability to change would give them the confidence needed in their recovery. The following narratives were offered by parents:

“We must never stop motivating our children.”

“Ons sê, hulle gaan nie weer drugs gebruik nie. Ek sê, my kind gaan nie weer drugs gebruik nie. 2018 is haar jaar, ek sê vir haar, You will prosper.”

[We say they will not use drugs again. I say, my child will not use drugs again. 2018 is her year, I told her, you will prosper.]

During aftercare, parents often need to navigate the delicate balance between motivating adolescents in their recovery journey and not pushing them too hard, expecting unrealistic results, as discussed earlier in this section. They need to remain patient, caring and warm regarding recovery goals, especially when a lapse or relapse occurs.

4.4.7.3 Sub-theme 7.3 Support systems

Parents identified multi-tiered support systems as a source of strength for sobriety. This is supported by literature which indicates that various levels of support increase the recovery potential of the adolescent and negate the need for re-admission to treatment services (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2013:2). The data from the current study indicated that the support systems required by adolescents can be categorised into (i) support from family and friends and (ii) support groups.

(i) From family and friends

Although not all of the participants enjoyed active support from their extended families, most of them had the support of immediate family and friends. Emotional support from family and friends has the potential to promote long term sobriety for the service user (Witkiewitz & Marlatt, 2004:228–229). Parents identified the following coping mechanisms to deal with support from family and friends:
“And my wife is alone at home with her.”

“With her sister and with her cousin …”


[Because we already spoke to the families. How they must act towards her and such. And it actually worked. When she went to sleep there and stuff, no quite calm up until now. I cannot believe my eyes.]

“But, they (friends) give me a lot of support, and even with him also, when he did came out, they were also there for him, gave him lot of support. And, that, that make him really strong ... Because they were there for him, beforehand they were also there but that time he didn’t mos, now when he’s with them also he’s interacting and he’s understanding them.”

As adolescents still greatly rely on the acceptance and influence of peers, ensuring that a positive peer group supports the adolescent becomes imperative.

(ii) Support groups

Due to lack of service support, groups have not been available to adolescents during aftercare. Parents felt that participation in such programmes and groups would have been beneficial to them. In addition to assisting a lot in the adolescent’s recovery, parents would have been supported in their caregiving responsibility. Van der Westhuizen (2010:159) highlights the advantages of support groups, namely that they provide the service users with role models, provide the opportunity to form new and healthy interpersonal relationships and gain understanding of the addiction and the recovery process, allow them to interact socially, give them a sense of belonging, and provide an opportunity of shared experiences of recovery. The following narratives illustrate the parents’ identified need for support groups geared towards the adolescent:

“I think when they came out, they must start to be part of the support group immediately.”
“It should have been also nice if there were a support group. I mean, the children coming from that centre in that period of time, have a, have a support group running in a certain area. There must still be a link attached ... that something that attach that child to the centre.”

Because participating in support groups is a voluntary activity, practice experience has found that adolescents do not always see the need for the service as much as adults do. Support groups must therefore be geared towards attracting and maintaining the interest of the adolescent. Unfortunately, organisational resources are not always available for such interventions.

4.4.7.4 Sub-theme 7.4 Opportunity to be an example to others

As part of recovery, many adolescents used their experiences as an opportunity to be an example for others. This gave them a sense of meaning and purpose. Parents were particularly proud when these opportunities were created and felt that this enhanced sense of responsibility might have a positive effect on the adolescent.

“Sien jy, sy is ’n testimony vir anders nou weer.”

[You see, she is a testimony for others now.]

“Wat een outjie sê, hy kom by die trappe af nou sit sy onder by die trappe met ander meisiekinders, en hy hoor haar praat maar hy staan doodstil, en sy praat met die kinders, sy sê vir hulle, weet julle wat doen rook alles? Joh, weet jy wat doen die tik en dit? En sy lê netso uit... en hy staan doodstil, hy staan en luister. Toe hy afkom sê hy, joh X, maar jy praat mos mooi jong.”

[What one guy says, he came down the stairs and there was a girl the bottom of the stairs speaking to other girls, and he heard her talk, but he stood still. And when she spoke to the other children, she told them, do you know what smoking does? Joh, do you know what tik and that does? And she laid it all out … and he stood still and listened. When he came down he said, Joh, X, but you speak well.]

“En jy kan net reg mense, uhm, bemoedig wanneer jy deur dit gegaan het. So, hulle, die Here, hulle is gebruik gewees om dit te doen... Sodat hulle ander mense se kinders
Van der Westhuizen et al. (2013:6) report that adolescents identify the need to be able to relate to their peers. Hence, it is important that service users are able to comfortably share their story and act as role models to others during the recovery stage.

4.4.7.5 Sub-theme 7.5 Trust

Trust was an issue that manifested in many areas in the recovery process. Parents acknowledged that in order for the adolescents to grow, they needed their parents to be more trusting towards them. Parents needed to let go of their own fears and act towards the needs of the adolescents, regardless of the outcome.

“*It will always be trust and communication, really, because I would ask him to go to shop – can I trust this child with this money? And then you see this child come back with this loaf of bread, with the change and everything. So then you realise I need to change here also in this area.*”

“So trust becomes very important, because you need to show them... you, that child have went for that programme but now the child comes back and then he sees certain things that didn’t change in, in this house with the parents or whatever because my mother is now checking the change or she is asking questions, things that happened before when I was on drugs and now it’s still happening.”

Adolescents who participated in a similar study confirmed this. In addition, they also indicated that they needed help from their social worker to assist them in restoring trust with their families (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2013:6).
4.4.8 Theme 8: Informal support for the adolescent and his or her parents

The informal support required by adolescents and their parents can be divided into three subthemes, namely working together as a family, external support systems, and support groups.

4.4.8.1 Sub-theme 8.1 Working together as a family

Literature supports the evidence that parents and families play a significant role in treatment and outcome. Furthermore, studies have shown that families of adolescents who commit to participate in a programme are more likely to benefit from the intervention (Row & Liddle, 2003 and Liddle, 2004 cited in Baharudin, Hussin, Sumari, Mohamed, Zakiria, & Sawai, 2014:304). Research has indicated that the service user’s ability to benefit from a treatment programme is enhanced by the involvement of the family who is also affected by the member’s use and may, as a result of the intervention, create the necessary environment for change (Winek et al., 2010:46). The following narratives by parents confirm what literature suggests:

“So, the whole family needs to be on board.”

“It’s a team effort, because it’s not the wife and the husband alone in the house… There’s other children also.”

“I received a lot of support from my husband.”

The advantages of including the whole family in aftercare services is that they get exposure to the same information and are able to participate collectively in the intervention. As the effect of substance use is not isolated to the adolescents, the process of recovery should involve the whole family to create the best possible opportunity for change.

4.4.8.2 Sub-theme 8.2 External support systems

Literature in the South African context suggests that current support models do not adequately recognise the significance of support to parents (Groenewald, 2018:8). Studies on parental monitoring revealed that in their effort to solicit external support, parents enlisted extended family and even teachers to monitor adolescents (Abdulla, 2014:102). Trout et al. (2012:310)
highlight that services and support for families in terms of relationship building, education and health would enhance adolescent recovery. Parents in the current study shared how they were able to source external support systems to help them cope:

“Is, party mense het ek ‘getrust’ maar daar is party wat sy nie ‘getrust’ het nie en wat sy ken... En ek begin praat want daai een het n pobleem dan kom hulle probleme ook uit.”

[I trusted some people, but there are other people that she did not trust and people that she knows … And I start to talk because that person also has a problem and then their problems also come to light.]

“Haai mense was so oop met my gewees, elke dag gevra, gaan dit all right daar met jou? Nee dit gaan all right, is dit wat ons doen, dit probeer ons doen. En ons het mekaar begin help.”

[Those people were so open with me, asked every day, are things going alright with you over there? No, everything is alright, it is what we do, what we try to do. And we started to help each other.]

“My church group, my friends, you can see mos in times of difficulties...”

For many South African families, religious and spiritual support act as an important coping mechanism. As reflected by the parents in this study, and echoed by participants in a similar study, the religious practices and environment to which they adhere to became a source of strength when the challenges of their adolescent children’s substance use became overwhelming (Swartbooi, 2013:156). Single parents who do not have a supportive family system or whose family system is absent turn to this kind of external support as a source of strength. Previous research has highlighted the need for multifaceted interventions and support services for parents. It is imperative that such services include mechanisms that empower them with the skills to identify and prevent the adolescent’s relapse (Groenewald, 2016:103).
4.4.8.3 Sub-theme 8.3 Support groups

Trout et al. (2012:310) argue that families will benefit from and commit to structured support groups for up to a year if the service is offered. Smith & Estefan (2014:421) concur that parental involvement in support groups contribute to increased skills and positive recovery potential. In the current study, parents expressed the identified need for support groups and showed the source of strength they had found them to be.

“But when I attend the support group, I do get something, what to do, for example, before he came here, I used to shout at him ... uh, but when I attend the support group.”

“I think the worse part for a parent is that, that is the worse part, going through it alone and you obviously you feel like you are going through it alone. That’s why I attend support group every time because I’m alone.”

In support of this, participants in a related study pointed out that support groups offer a sense of comradery, revealing that other parents are experiencing similar challenges and that they are therefore not going through this alone (Katouziyan, 2017:78).

4.4.9 Theme 9: The role of social workers regarding aftercare

For most treatment interventions, referrals for adolescent services were done by social workers. These professionals are essentially responsible for facilitating the application process, ensuring that the adolescent accesses services, rendering support to the family while the adolescent is in treatment, and formulating reintegration strategies together with the family and residential case manager. The majority of parents who participated in the study shared that they experienced poor support from social workers during aftercare and reintegration. From the data, six subthemes emerged regarding the expectations and perceptions of parents with respect to the role of the social worker in aftercare, namely their experiences with social work services, their expectations from social workers, reference to resources, support for adolescents, and the establishment of community education and awareness programmes.
4.4.9.1 Sub-theme 9.1 Experiences with social work services

In this section some of the direct experiences parents shared regarding social work services and their perception of the social worker’s role and support in aftercare are discussed. Participants’ experiences with social work services can be divided into two categories, namely (i) that they are unsure about the role of the social worker and the term ‘aftercare’, and (ii) that they have no experience of support by the social worker.

(i) Unsure about the role of the social worker and the term ‘aftercare’

Recently, several studies have been conducted to determine the role of the social worker in aftercare in the South African context (Van der Westhuizen, 2010; Maluleke, 2013; Naobes, 2016 and Carelse, 2018). The roles identified included case management and support, motivating clients, providing emotional support and ensuring linkage with relevant resources (Maluleke, 2013:100–101). In addition, it is important that the social worker addresses clinical issues, such as the service user’s readiness for change (Naobes, 2016:130). This requires a professional assessment before the service user completes the treatment programme. Furthermore, the social worker must have insight into and understanding of the systems in which the service user interacts, such as family, peers, work and the community in order to provide appropriate support and skills development in these areas (Carelse, 2018:134). The role of the social worker in aftercare further includes providing psycho-education, identifying warning signs, empowering the service user to develop skills to deal with risks, promoting lifestyle changes, and enhancing self-efficacy (Dodgen & Shea, 2000, cited in Van der Westhuizen, 2010:10). One of the parents in the current study shared the following opinion of service delivery during aftercare:

“Is die social worker... Hulle doen nie dit (aftercare) nie.”

[It’s the social worker… They do not do it (aftercare).]

From this narrative and the general tone of the parents, as well as the following themes and categories in this section, it is evident that most parents did not receive any services from social workers post treatment and therefore had negative experiences regarding their service and role.
No experience of support by the social worker

From the interviews it also became apparent that many parents felt abandoned by the social worker and particularly felt the lack of support for a task they felt was somewhat overwhelming. In the following narratives, parents share how they could not get hold of the social worker when they would call or that social workers did not bother to follow up on the progress of the child:

“My social worker antwoord nie eens nie die phone baie keer nie.”

[My social worker does not even answer the phone most of the time.]

“Because, uhm, even my social, my outside social worker... Didn’t phone me when my child was out. Since then till now. She doesn’t know how is the child, the child doing.”

“I went to the social worker, I phoned several times but she was not picking up the phone, you see? Then I only got to see her when I overhear that they will be an intake on the fourth. That is, that is the only time I got to see the social worker, you see? Otherwise there was never any follow-up after the child was released from, from, from the treatment.”

This sentiment is not restricted to parents, as adolescents who participated in a similar study also reflected on their negative experiences with social workers (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:115–116).

The lack of support by the social worker can be particularly demotivating as parents may feel isolated in the recovery journey of the adolescent. One parent felt that, had the social worker been in contact, the relapse might not have happened or be prolonged.

“Not having the contact. Then after he was released, I had those expectations that he is going to be a good child, he’s gonna behave. Yes, for the first four or five months he behaved.”

Parents reflected on their initiatives to keep the external social worker up to date with progress, but not all parents were successful in this endeavour.
“Nee, ek hou my social worker op hoogte van sake.”

[No, I keep my social worker up to date on the situation.]

“I went to the social worker, I phoned several times but she was not picking up the phone, you see? Then I only got to see her when I overhear that they will be an intake on the fourth. That is, that is the only time I got to see the social worker, you see? Otherwise there was never any follow-up after the child was released from, from, from the treatment.”

The challenge or misconception regarding the expectations of the social worker can be ascribed to the social workers not knowing what is expected of them and how to go about rendering aftercare services. This is supported by previous studies on the perceptions of social workers in aftercare in which they identified the lack of a manual or standard operation procedure on how aftercare services should be rendered (Maluleke, 2013:101). This is very much unlike the structured programme followed in the treatment setting.

4.4.9.2 Sub-theme 9.2 Expectations from social worker

From the data it was evident that social workers were expected to (i) make contact, (ii) motivate parents to become involved in the whole recovery process, (iii) work with the whole family, (iv) accept without judgement, and (v) give advice and information.

(i) Contact

Literature suggests that, regardless whether the social worker is rendering direct aftercare or services or has linked the service users with additional referral resources, it is recommended that contact, even telephonically, is made at least once a week (Maluleke, 2013:33). During the interviews, parents indicated the type of contact they expected from the social worker.

“Ons verwag net daar moet n phone call gemaak word of, uh, of gesê word of gevra word, gaan alles goed en is daar enige probleme.”

[We only expect that a phone call is made or that we are told or asked, is everything fine and are there any problems.]
“Like in our case, you need to be in contact with, let’s say, CMR and the centre just for feedback... But, uhm, the problem is, I think there should be uhm a home visit of some sort...”

The researcher is not sure whether the desire for contact was conveyed to social workers or whether parents experienced the lack of contact on their own without verbalising it to the relevant social workers. In practice setting, the lack of resources often makes it difficult for social workers to do weekly visits; however, most social workers have access to telephones which could be utilised to negate some of the isolation anxiety parents were experiencing.

(ii) Motivate parents to become involved in the whole process

Because aftercare takes place in the family environment, parents felt that they had a responsibility to be involved in the intervention process instead of relying on the social worker alone. Previous studies highlight the social worker’s role in motivating the family system as an essential part of reintegration services (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:120; Maluleke, 2013:75).

“The parent have a responsibility even if it’s outside aftercare or the, if it’s still during the programme. The parent have a responsibility so it can be, uh, compulsory.”

“When you really are involved from the beginning, things will be easier for you, because then you won’t have that fear. You do your things on your own and live with this thing on your own that the child might be ba ... relapse and now you are so embarrassed, scare... embarrassed, scared or whatever to go back to the people. But, if you were involved from the beginning, you know there is a, a relationship that was built, not only between you and, and your child but between the professionals as well. It’s a relationship that was built, is, is something that is gonna make it easy.”

(iii) Work with the whole family

During the treatment period of the adolescent it is expected that similar services will run concurrently with the family as well. Parents have expressed the need for social workers to also render services to the family that would ultimately offer a more conducive support network for the adolescent upon discharge. Literature supports the involvement of any significant individual, group, or family member who may benefit from social work services
aimed at supporting the user’s recovery journey, as the adolescent’s substance use generally affects the persons in these spheres as well (Carelse, 2018:6,139). This is echoed by the following narratives of parents who identified the need that services should extend to the whole family:

“Also, I would think you would emphasis on the family unit because I think it’s important to see how the child is ... is ... is behaving in the family unit.”

“The family intervention is, look, mother and father can’t get along ... So how’s the child gonna get better? So, you know, to look at this family intervention.”

Thus, the social worker is expected to render services to the family as a whole, addressing specific dynamic and relational issues between family members (Van der Westhuizen et al., 2011:359). The adolescent, as part of a family system, should receive services aimed at supporting recovery goals within the family context so that the family support system is able to recognise recovery threats and negate challenges.

(iv) Accept and no judgement

Participants felt that they also needed affirmation on their role as parents as well as support from the professionals to be able to take care of their adolescent children. Social work values prescribe that an acceptance of and respect for client systems should always be upheld regardless of class, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation and age (Carelse, 2018:115). Smith & Estefan (2014:425–427) postulate that parents of substance abusing adolescent are already faced with feelings of guilt, shame, and failure which can be exasperating when the professional is not empathic of compassionate. The responses below reflect on parents’ need for support.

“I think they’ve (parents) got that fear ... That you are considered a failure...”

“I’ve sometimes I feel like I’ve failed as a parent, but I can’t figure it out how did I fail, you see? I think it’s a element of like I do need uh, uh, support as a parent.”

Supporting the parent in this regard can deter them from employing self-protective coping mechanisms which may be detrimental to the intervention.
(v) Give advice and information

Participants indicated a need for more information about substances and felt that social workers played a vital role in educating them. The Matrix Model for Intensive Outpatient Treatment (Rawson, & McCann 2006) identifies the importance of incorporating family education in their treatment programmes in order to educate them on the effects of drugs, not only with respect to the pharmacological and psychical consequences, but also on how the dynamics of relationships, social functioning, and socioeconomic status are affected (Rawson & McCann, 2006:16). Parents shared their concerns about insufficient education on how to deal with substance abuse upon discharge and were also able to identify specific methods for gaining information and having a tool to assist them in aftercare.

“Or the previous children that was on the rehab, you can help the parents of, like what we did after she came out of rehab. What we did as parents ... Help maybe that people also because maybe they are clueless. It’s a on-going process.”

“Maybe come up with a maintenance plan together of how we do thi s...”

“On ... on ... on the ... on the substance abuse and then how handle children.”

Based on this observation, the need of the participants for assistance during aftercare treatment to deal with cravings must be seriously considered, as also supported by literature (Van der Westhuizen, 2010:148). A maintenance plan is a prerequisite of any aftercare plan and needs to identify specific plans, persons and recourses that can be accessed as part of recovery capital. In addition to the need for these resources, parents also identified the need for the social worker to provide them with parenting skills, as evident in the responses below.

“Ons moet nou ons leer hoe om nou die kinders te handle.”

[We now need to learn how to handle the children.]

“Ja, I think the, the, the most important thing is, mostly for, for me, I never worry about me, because I’m always. I always have something, but for them, to keep them busy...”
“Education. Also how to act, when to act, and how to act if, with aftercare and if it’s not working out. Like sometimes you will notice something and you will just let it slip you but maybe that was a time for you to act, you know, so you need to be educated on things like that. And where you start doubting yourself. It’s very difficult actually, because you can so easy just let it go and then it might have been the wrong move.”

The researcher was inspired and encouraged by the parents’ realisation that they needed guidance on how to deal with their adolescent children. This meant that they were conscious of the fact that the approaches they had previously applied in child rearing needed support. It also meant that they were willing to change in order to support the recovery of the adolescent. As discussed in Chapter 2, parenting style has a significant impact on risk and protective factors of the adolescent. The fact that parents indicated that they needed assistance in applying parenting methods supports the argument that parents need to be involved in services aimed at aftercare. Mathibela (2017:127) argues that parenting sessions rendered by social workers or members of a multidisciplinary team can be utilised to improve parenting skills and resolve relationship issues between parents and adolescents. These programmes result in improved childrearing practices and enhance support for the adolescent during transitional challenges.

4.4.9.3 Sub-theme 9.3 Reference to resources

As social workers work in the field and have access to more information, parents expected to be referred by them to available resources in their respective communities. The Minimum Norms and Standards for Inpatient Treatment Centres (Department Social Development, 2008:35) mandate adequate referral and linking of the service users to their original referral social workers, local community services and groups prior to discharge. This should also include appointment dates, addresses, and contact details of the respective support agents. This need was expressed by the parents as follows:

“For parent as well as … referral, uhm, as in an outside support group. I mean, if they can have that where they know where to refer the child as well as the parent to, because aftercare support groups is important.”

“Because they expect you as a parent to know these things.”
Widening the support network not only minimises the treatment burden on the social worker, but also makes provision for a variety of appropriate services.

4.4.9.4 Sub-theme 9.4 Support for adolescents

Participants indicated that during aftercare adolescents required (i) structured support, (ii) time management support, and (iii) emotional support.

(i) Structured support

The legislative mandate for substance abuse treatment, Prevention of and Treatment for Substance Abuse Act, 70 of 2008 Section 30 (2) (e) (RSA, 2008), states that aftercare services should be based on structured programmes. Parents expressed the need for a structured aftercare programme as part and extension of the treatment programme that would support the recovery needs of the adolescent. They believed that a structured aftercare programme would afford adolescents the required support to prevent relapse and maintain recovery.

“My wish after the child was released was to get, uh, uh, more structured, uh, programmes for the child ...”

“Social worker, because there was no follow-up – as a result my child relapsed again, you understand? So, I kind of blame, you see, the social worker for not doing a follow-up.”

A structured programme communicates to adolescents what their recovery plan entails and provides access to services based on the intervention strategies. Carelse (2018:163) substantiates research findings which indicate that structured interventions by social workers should assess and plan recovery goals for service users in order to prevent and deter the onset of relapse. These interventions should also include empowering parents to develop and implement activities that will create structure in the familial environment.

(ii) Time management support

Since many of the adolescents did not attend school anymore, participants viewed time management as an important component of aftercare. Parents felt that if the social worker
provided support for keeping it manageable and relevant, adolescents would be able to find more meaningful activities to occupy themselves with.

“Or like ... something like activities ...”

“Something like a timetable, or time management, to put it that way, how to manage your time ...”

Learning how to effectively manage time is generally one of the skills covered in treatment. Therefore, upon discharge the adolescent does not need to acquire a new skill of time management, but should, together with the parents and social worker, formulate a schedule of activities aimed at optimal utilisation of time.

(iii) Emotional support

Being emotional is part of adolescent development. Research findings indicated that adolescents felt more prepared for aftercare than their parents (Trout et al., 2012:309). The researcher supports this from her experience in practice setting. However, this does not mean that adolescents are fully capable of implementing recovery goals, but rather that they are more cognisant of the challenges that lie ahead upon discharge.

“I think handling their emotions ...”

Emotional development is very much part of adolescent development and programmes should include providing the adolescent with the necessary skills to be able to appropriately deal with everyday emotions. It is also important that parents also be educated on the emotional development of the adolescent so they are also better equipped to deal with the emotional needs as this often also becomes frustration to both parties as experiences in practice setting.

4.4.9.5 Sub-theme 9.5 Establishment of community education and awareness programmes

Parents identified the need for community intervention in creating awareness and education of substance abuse. This would shorten the risk period as people would immediately know what to look for and where to access services. In addition, the availability of resources would
help to promote healthy lifestyles to families, which could aid in emotional and even economic upliftment (Mudavanhu & Schenck, 2014:387–389).

“To equip and educate the community with the children that are, are, are, are residing in those community, so that they can be exposed in, in, in more drug activities, you see? And, and, and, and, and the recovery and the relapse, so that they can know more about substance abuse.”

“The communities aware and where they can go to for help.”

Similar to the findings in this study, participants in a study by Usher et al. (2007: 426) also expressed concern at being perceived by society as being responsible for their adolescent children’s substance use. This caused them to shy away from much needed support.

4.5 Chapter Summary

During data collection for the study it was evident that parents experienced adolescent drug use with great stress. They were able to identify the causes for use as well as the requirements for recovery and their role in the process. Participants also indicated the need for support in various aspects of the recovery process. The study provided the researcher with the opportunity to explore and describe the perceptions of these parents regarding their role in the aftercare of their children, but also regarding auxiliary issues contributing to challenges experienced.

The themes that emerged from the data collection could be linked to the objectives of the study and could be supported by a sufficient literature base. Participants were able to define their understanding of the term ‘aftercare’ and reflected on reasons for substance abuse by adolescents. They commented on their experiences when adolescents returned home and verbalised their expectations post discharge. Participants were also able to state what adolescents needed during recovery, identify their own roles and responsibilities, and indicate the different levels of support needed to maintain a successful recovery journey.

This chapter was preceded by an introduction to the study, a literature review, and a dissemination of the methodology employed in the study. The following chapter will present the summary, conclusions, findings, and recommendations to relevant entities.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the researcher presents a summary and conclusions derived from the research, and discusses the strengths and limitations of the study as well as recommendations for further research, practice and policy implementation. The findings of the study are discussed against the goal of the study and the objectives the researcher aimed to achieve.

5.2 Summary and Conclusions Derived from the methodology

The researcher is of the opinion that the research question, “What is the role of parents in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in substance abuse treatment programmes?” has been answered sufficiently through the methodology employed to conduct the study. The qualitative research approach allowed for a richer data collection process as the narratives from participants enabled the researcher to explore the research topic. The exploratory and descriptive research design prompted the researcher to collect thick descriptions since the subject matter was still new and needed further exploration on the phenomenon. The most significant conclusion from the applied methodology was to ensure that gatekeepers had a comprehensive understanding of the research topic and process, failing which, for the researcher to build in an orientation session with the research participants before the data generation process started. The focus group interviews were deemed a suitable data collection method as participants were able to share common experiences and build on each other’s responses through the sharing of their own experiences. During the data collection process, however, the researcher also conducted both focus group and group interviews, involving two different parents. The latter was a consequence based on logistics and availability of participants.

The sample size of 17 participants was sufficient for data collection until saturation. By the second last interview the researcher experienced duplication of responses which was an indication that data saturation had been reached. The variation in the research participants’ profiles and relationship to the adolescents contributed to a variety of viewpoints regarding the participants’ experiences. The data analysis method was suitable for the selected research
design and culminated in the emergence of nine research themes. Ethical principles were adhered to and several measures of trustworthiness were employed to enhance the reliability and validity of the study.

5.3 Summary and conclusions derived from the literature

Both international and national sources were consulted, and it was concluded that there is insufficient research evidence on specifically the role of the parent in aftercare of an adolescent with a chemical addiction. The available literature emphasised aftercare as an essential component of the treatment process following the completion of the formal treatment programme. It was further found that there was no indication of how long aftercare service should take place. The literature confirmed the vulnerability of adolescents to substance abuse given their developmental phase which is associated with more risk-taking behaviour and closer association with peers as opposed to parental figures.

5.4 Summary and conclusions derived from the research findings

The research goal of the study was to explore and describe the role of parents in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse. The researcher derived the following conclusions with regard to each of the objectives:

5.4.1 Objective 1: Explore and describe the experiences of the parents regarding their adolescents’ substance abuse

In exploring the experiences of parents regarding their adolescents’ substance abuse most of the participants shared a sense of disappointment in the adolescent. They experienced the substance use as a significant stressor in the life of the family with negative effects on sibling and parental relations and the family at large. Parents attributed the adolescent’s substance use mainly to poor decision-making ability, negative peer influence and in some cases involvement in gangsterism. A minority of the parents attributed the adolescent’s substance use to parental modelling and influence despite parental substance use by some of the participants themselves. Another factor contributing to the substance use was the experience of trauma to which some of the adolescents had been subjected. Reports of the adolescent’s exposure to violence and rape were cited during the interviews. Parents reported experiencing an overwhelming sense of failure in their child-rearing practices and expressed the wish to
rear the adolescent in a healthy environment. Many of them felt that the parent–child relationship had been negatively influenced by the substance use. Their frustration was exacerbated by the absence of a supporting parent, and their unmet expectation of parental control during times of crisis triggered by the adolescent’s substance abuse.

Families were further fearful for the adolescent’s safety, and in some cases, that of the family too. This emanated from parents often encountering dangerous situations involving confronting gangsters or fleeing from them; trying to locate adolescents late at night, fearing their whereabouts and safety. A minority of the parents was able to reflect on multiple treatment interventions but this was shared with a general sense of frustration that the first intervention had not been successful.

Parents were able to sufficiently explore and describe their experiences regarding their adolescent’s substance abuse, articulate reasons they perceived as causes of the substance use, its effect on the adolescent’s family relations as well as the impact on the parent as well. It is concluded that adolescent substance abuse has far-reaching consequences for the parent and family as a whole, thus necessitating preparation and support for aftercare with the whole family unit.

5.4.2 Objective 2: Explore and describe the experiences of parents of their adolescent’s participation in the substance abuse programmes

Parents’ overall sentiment in exploring and describing their experiences of the adolescent’s participation in the substance abuse programmes was that they (the parents) were anxious upon the return of the adolescent after treatment. The majority of parents shared a sense of fear that the adolescent would relapse. This fear further resulted in a lack of trust between the parent and the adolescent, and was often associated with heightened vigilance toward possible changes in behaviour that in some cases resulted in direct confrontation.

Parents also shared their sense of hope over signs of change which were evident in behavioural changes observed by the parents. These changes included the adolescent doing household chores, being able to trust them with money and an improved attitude towards the parent–child relationship. Parents were also able to link the adolescent with support systems, especially in the religious segment that offered an additional activity towards sobriety.
The findings revealed the following: parents were anxious about the adolescent relapsing due to their discharge from the sheltered treatment centre into high-risk environmental conditions; parents’ inability to provide 24-hour monitoring; the absence of support systems to the parents; and the eroded trust between the parent and the adolescent. Parents expressed the desire for more information and education on the treatment programme to enhance their own level of preparation to support the adolescent in aftercare. The lack of support from the extended family identified the need for additional input other than the parents in the hope that these members might be able to have a positive impact and influence on the adolescents.

The conclusion is that parents need to be more actively included during the adolescents’ engagement in the treatment programme, and that parents should be linked to support systems to transform their anxieties into capabilities and to give them active hope in supporting adolescents in aftercare.

5.4.3 Objective 3: Explore and describe the perceptions of parents about their role in the aftercare of adolescents who have participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse

Parents expected the adolescents to take responsibility for lifestyle choices they had made while the majority felt that peer influence was a significant factor and the adolescents needed guidance in choosing friends that would add value to their lives. They demonstrated insight into the reason for drug use as well an improved relationship with the adolescents. Parents were more protective, expressing support challenges.

Roles and responsibilities were identified in managing and preventing relapse and they felt the need to familiarise themselves with the behavioural patterns of the adolescents in order to observe changes and be able to act on them. Consequent to becoming more observant of their behaviour, parents felt the need to demonstrate interest and involvement in the lives of the adolescents in order to foster a trusting relationship that yielded an improvement in the relationship. This was mainly achieved through sharing experiences and activities together as well as showing respect and considering the opinion of the adolescents as having worth.

Parents felt they needed hope support the adolescents’ recovery journey. This was mostly related to their spiritual and religious connectedness. Related to this was that parents realised they needed to make a concerted effort to trust the adolescents again, which was supported by more stringent measures of monitoring behaviour and activities. Communication improved
after treatment which was enhanced by parents’ efforts to encourage and motivate the adolescents by giving compliments and encouraging them. Parents identified the need for them to demonstrate love, care and support to re-establish broken relations and affirm the bonds of love between parent and child. They believed they could achieve this by being more affectionate, showing interest in their activities and affirming their intent to support the adolescent.

In summary: the perceptions of parents about their role in the aftercare of the adolescents showed they were cognisant that their intended role was to be aware and observant of behavioural changes, be involved and show interest, have hope, foster open channels of communication, be supportive, demonstrate love and care, and set up disciplinary measures in order to support recovery needs.

5.4.4 Objective 4: Explore and describe the expectations of parents of support structures

The final objective of the study was to explore and describe parents’ expectations of the support structures. Parents primarily expressed the view that the adolescent needs positive role models and education about the dangers of substance abuse to build on their recovery capital. Parents also need assistance to advise the adolescent on how to deal with difficult situations and to assist with life skills associated with boredom, like managing time. Family and friends were found to be a source of support together with the support groups.

Included in the trust were the informal support systems parents identified that included starting with the family and involving them as part of the therapeutic intervention. The substance use of the adolescent affected the whole family therefore the unit as a whole should be beneficiaries of services. This is specifically relevant when there are dysfunctional and broken relationships in the family that could have a ripple effect on other members. Most parents viewed the support from religious and spiritual groups as vital, and also mentioned available resources in the community as well as neighbours and community members who shared the same challenges.

Parents felt it was necessary for families to have access to support groups that provide the necessary care in enable them to support the adolescent. Support groups also offered parents an educational medium on how to deal with the adolescents as well as a sense of understanding knowing that other parents shared experiences similar to theirs.
With reference to services and support experienced by social workers, parents overwhelmingly shared a negative experience in this regard. They expressed uncertainty of what the role of the social worker was in the aftercare since they received little or no support from them and would often struggle to get hold of them. They indicated that they expected the social worker at least to make regular contact with them once the adolescent had returned home, that they would motivate parents to become involved in the process, and that they would render services to the family as a whole in supporting the needs of the adolescents by enhancing a positive and well-functioning familial environment. This would mean that parents would be supported in their own challenges and feelings of failure through the social worker’s display of acceptance and non-judgement and giving advice and information on what to expect and how to deal with challenging situations related to the adolescents’ recovery needs. Parents particularly also expressed the need for parenting skills in the light of the adolescents’ acquiring new skills during the treatment period.

It was found that the social worker, as information resource, was to link parents with other resources in the community as part of an extended network of services. Related to this, the parents identified structured support in the form of planned activities as part of aftercare services for the adolescents. Those activities should include time management and emotional intelligence as part of the recovery capital available to the adolescents.

Lastly, parents identified the need for community education and awareness to offer a further support network for the recovery of the adolescents and to safeguard against future relapse.

In terms of the fourth objective of the study, the researcher concluded that parents were very well aware of what their general expectations of support structures were. They were able to identify not only what the adolescents needed to prevent relapse, but also what extended systems like the family and community needed to put in place in order support the recovery of the adolescents.

5.4 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The research afforded parents an outlet through which they could express their experiences, fears and hopes to other parents during this facilitated research process. It should be noted that while this was not the aim and or objective of the study, parents found it to be an outlet.
The researcher was a practitioner in the field and could therefore interpret the parents’ experiences using relevant theoretical lenses.

Limitations of the study included that the participants were sourced from one institution only as the other possible source for participants had closed just weeks into the initiation of the interview and a database was never provided to include these participants. Another limitation was the difficulty to secure collective appointment with the parents that suited all, thus the researcher elected to interview them in pairs when group interviews were not possible. The study also only included the voices of parents in Port Elizabeth and Uitenhage in the Eastern Cape.

5.6 Recommendations

Based on the study, the following recommendations are put forward:

5.6.1 Recommendations for further research

- Future practitioner research should be conducted with organisations rendering aftercare services to evaluate the efficacy of their programmes.
- Future postgraduate studies could explore the role that Alcohols Anonymous (AA), Narcotics Anonymous (NA) and similar support organisations play in aftercare and the efficacy thereof in helping the adolescent maintain sobriety.
- Future postgraduate studies could explore the efficacy of the punitive disciplinary practice endorsed by the Department of Education to suspend learners from school for using or testing positive for substance.
- Practitioner research could explore the influence of exposure to gangs and violence in the onset of drug use.
- Similar studies by universities in South Africa could also be conducted in other provinces and areas of South Africa or other countries in order to test the outcomes.
- Practitioner research and postgraduate studies could explore the influence of different parenting styles on recovery.

5.6.2 Recommendations for practice

- It is suggested that field practitioners and organisations in collaboration with academic institutions develop a training programme be put in place for social
workers in a CPD activity that will include better strategies for aftercare services and to make community-based resources available.

- Utilisation of the community-based (CB) approach to supporting aftercare services should be implemented by practitioners and substance abuse sector- and CB organisations.
- Parenting programmes that focus on current rearing practices should be made available and cultural, societal and economical dynamics should be included in interventions by practitioners.
- Evidence based approaches in dealing with challenges facing parents in the current milieu should be considered practitioners/social workers/organisations offering substance abuse services to adolescents and their parents.

5.6.3 **Recommendations for policy**

- Resources ought to be made available for capacity building for social workers, linking services in the relevant communities, and transport.
- Substance abuse treatment should be a designated activity and substance abuse registered as a specialised field of practice.
- The community-based model should be strengthened by funding organisations in the communities. This will result in a greater network at grassroots level, and government will then monitor that services are in line with legislation.
- There should be effective collaboration especially between Departments of Health, Education, Labour and Social Development since recovering service users will need some sort of industry and mental health support in maintaining sobriety.
- Intervention plans should be put in place for the current practice in Department of Basic Education with regard to expelling a learner for using or testing positive for substance in South African schools.

5.7 **Concluding Statements**

Through this research study the researcher found that parents do in fact perceive what their role is, although it might not always be practised. However, there are multifaceted components of what that role would entail, based on the support structures of the parents themselves. Parents are living in a constant state of fear: fear that the adolescent will relapse, that there is not enough support, and fear for the adolescent’s safety. Trust is a major issue
related to fear: there is an innate desire to trust the adolescent, but it is difficult and needs to be a concerted effort. Parents expect adolescents to take responsibility for their actions but the adolescents often do not have the emotional maturity to do so. Consequently, this becomes a point of conflict. It would be interesting if the outcomes from this research study could be tested in a programme to confirm or challenge its findings.

5.8 Reflexivity

The study was a very good experience. The researcher set out to explore and describe how parents can play a part in the recovery from substance abuse of their adolescent and engaged in a very enlightening conversation with these parents regarding their experiences. The researcher is eager to apply these findings to the practice settings in the aim of helping adolescents and their families fight the detrimental effects of substance abuse.
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https://etd.uwc.ac.za


Appendix A

19 April 2017

Ms K Felkers
Social Work
Faculty of Community and Health Sciences

Ethics Reference Number: HS16/5/45

Project Title: Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse.

Approval Period: 13 April 2017 – 13 April 2018

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extensions or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval. Please remember to submit a progress report in good time for annual renewal.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

PROVISIONAL REC NUMBER - 130416-049

FROM HOPE TO ACTION THROUGH KNOWLEDGE.
Appendix B

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-959 2011 Fax: 27 21-959 2911
E-mail: cschenck@uwc.ac.za

INFORMATION SHEET

[Instructions: This template can be used to assist you in preparing your information sheet. Please ensure that your information sheet addresses any of the ethical issues that you feel participants of your study should be aware of. Bolded, italicized text found throughout this document offers guidance and suggestions. Replace this text with the appropriate wording for your study.]

Project Title:
Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse

What is this study about?
This is a research project being conducted by Karen Felikers at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you a parent/caregiver of an adolescent who has participated in a substance abuse treatment programme. The purpose of this research project is to explore your perceptions and expectations on your role in the aftercare of the programme.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?
You will be asked to participate in a focus group with other parents/caregivers like yourself. The purpose of the group is to discuss the topic and share what are your views.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?
We will do our best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, the interviews and audio data will be kept in my possession. Your name will not be included on the surveys and other collected data and a code will be placed to each item. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. The group will also be briefed to keep all information confidential and to protect the identity of each person involved including their children.
If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

In accordance with legal requirements and/or professional standards, we will disclose to the appropriate individuals and/or authorities information that comes to our attention concerning child abuse or neglect or potential harm to you or others. In this event, we will inform you that we have to break confidentiality to fulfil our legal responsibility to report to the designated authorities. This study will use focus groups therefore the extent to which your identity will remain confidential is dependent on participants in the Focus Group maintaining confidentiality.

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https://etd.uwc.ac.za
What are the risks of this research?
There may be some risks from participating in this research study. You might feel embarrassed to share your story with others.

All human interactions and talking about self or others carry some amount of risks. We will nevertheless minimise such risks and act promptly to assist you if you experience any discomfort, psychological or otherwise during the process of your participation in this study. Where necessary, an appropriate referral will be made to a suitable professional for further assistance or intervention.

What are the benefits of this research?
The results may help the investigator learn more about the perceptions of the role of parents in the after care of their children. The results of the study will be used to guide future parents and social services practitioners in their role in the aftercare of adolescence after the have participated in substance abuse treatment programmes. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of the challenges they face.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?
Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

What if I have questions?
This research is being conducted by Karen Felkers in the Department of Social Work at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Karen Felkers at: 0723125563
Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prof C. Schenck</th>
<th>Prof José Frantz</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head of Department</td>
<td>Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>University of the Western Cape</td>
<td>University of the Western Cape</td>
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<td>Private Bag X17</td>
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Appendix C

Title of Research Project: Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant's name

Participant's signature

Date

Consent Form Version Date: 15 September 2014
FOCUS GROUP CONFIDENTIALITY BINDING FORM

Title of Research Project: Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone by the researchers. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits. I understand that confidentiality is dependent on participants' in the Focus Group maintaining confidentiality.

I hereby agree to uphold the confidentiality of the discussions in the focus group by not disclosing the identity of other participants or any aspects of their contributions to members outside of the group.

Participant's name ..............................................................

Participant's signature .....................................................

Date ..............................................................

Focus Group Confidentiality Binding Form Version Date: 15 September 2014
Appendix E

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE
Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-959 3674, Fax: 27 21-959 2845

Interview Guideline

Title of Research Project: Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse

1. What is your understanding of aftercare services?
2. What do you think aftercare entails?
3. What has been your experiences of aftercare as a parent whose adolescent has participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse?
   a. Was it easy?
   b. Was is difficult?
   c. Elaborate why you say so?
4. What was your perceptions of aftercare?
   a. What has worked?
   b. What hasn't worked?
   c. What is needed to enhance the success of aftercare?
5. What would you as parent, consider your role to be in the aftercare of your child?
   a. What made it easy/difficult for you to fulfil your role?
   b. What did you need to fulfil your role as parent:
   c. If you were giving advice to another parent, what would you tell them about how parents could assist their adolescents in the aftercare to help their adolescent’s recovery from substance abuse
Appendix F

2 May 2017

The Superintendent General
Department Social Development
Eastern Cape

Subject: Request for research participants

My name is Karen Felkers and I am a Social Worker in Substance Abuse Treatment at the Ernest Malgas Treatment Centre. I am currently also a Masters student at the University of the Western Cape. My research title: “Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse” aims to explore the role the parent plays in maintaining the sobriety of their adolescent.

The study focusses on parents and care givers in the Nelson Mandela Metro whose adolescent children participated in treatment programmes for substance abuse. As the Ernest Malgas Treatment Centre is a treatment facility for such programmes I would like to request if I could recruit participants from their data base in order to participate in the study. The participation is voluntary and would involve a minimum of 8 and maximum of 20 persons for at least 2 contact sessions, 1) introduction and confirmation of participation and 2) focus group interview. Participants should meet the following criteria:

1. Be the parent or care giver of an adolescent (14-17 years) who have participated in substance abuse treatment programmes within the last 18 months.
2. Have been living with them since the completion of the programme.

The focus group interview will be conducted in a neutral venue that will be accessible to all participants. Please note the study is not aimed at evaluating the services of the organization, but the parents’ general understanding and perception of their role in the aftercare of their adolescent.

Should you have any questions regarding the study, you are welcome to contact either myself or my study supervisors Prof. Catherine Schenk or Dr. Veonna Goliath at the contact details listed below. The study has been approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences at the University of the Western Cape (see attached letter). Should your questions or concerns not sufficiently addressed by me, you are free to contact the Chairperson of the Research and Ethics Committee as indicated on the letter.

In light of the above, I would like to request your assistance to introduce me by means of a data list to parents and caregivers who meets the criteria above in view of participation in this study.

Kind regards

Karen Felkers
072 312 5593
Karen Felkers@ecdsd.gov.za

Prof. Catherine Schenk
HOD Department of Social Work
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag x17
Bellville
7535
021 959 2011
cschenck@uwc.ac.za

Dr Veonna Goliath
Senior Lecturer
Social Development Professions
NMMU
South Campus
Main Building, 5th Floor Room 21
041 5042197
Veonna_goliath@nmmu.ac.za
29 May 2017

Ms K. Felkers
Department of Social Development
Port Elizabeth
6000

Dear Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF THE PARENT IN THE AFTERCARE OF ADOLESCENTS WHO PARTICIPATED IN TREATMENT PROGRAMMES FOR SUBSTANCE ABUSE

The Department considered your request for permission to access departmental files on parents whose children participated in the treatment programme at Ernst Malgas Centre.

Permission for the research is hereby granted with the following conditions:

1. Adherence to confidentiality at all times.
2. Voluntary participation and observance of research ethics.
3. You must liaise with the social work manager, Ms Grace Nqwabe (Mobile Nr: 0824444262) and Mr Jacobs, Head of the Treatment Centre, to obtain access to the database as requested.
4. The Department must be afforded a fair opportunity to respond to any issues that might arise from the research.
5. After completion of your research, you must provide the Department with a written report for the Department to consider integration of your findings and recommendations in our programmes.
6. You avail yourself, should the need arise, to make a presentation of the findings and recommendations to the Department.

The Population and Research directorate is looking forward to working with you and assures you our support. We wish you all the best with the proposed study.
Please acknowledge receipt and agreement to the above by counter signing and returning the correspondence via e-mail to the undersigned.

Yours sincerely

D. TATELL
DIRECTOR POPULATION POLICY PROMOTION
DATE: 29/11/17

MS K. FELKERS
M.A. CANDIDATE: UWC
DATE: 8 June 2014
Appendix H

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083 264 8393  
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DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the Master’s thesis mentioned below has been properly language edited. The author was responsible for the final checking of the references.

Title of thesis

‘Exploring the role of the parent in the aftercare of adolescents who participated in a treatment programme for substance abuse’

Student

Karen Felkens

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Student number 3111417

University of the Western Cape

ELLA BELCHER  
Somerset West  
27 May 2019