

**FAMILY CONNECTEDNESS AND FAMILIES DEALING WITH
ADOLESCENTS IN CONFLICT WITH THE LAW**

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A full thesis for the fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Master's
in Child and Family Studies at the Department of Social Work,
Faculty of Community and Health Sciences,
University of the Western Cape

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Date: December 2017

KEYWORDS

Adolescents in conflict with the law

Adolescence

Connectedness

Delinquent behaviour

Family

Family connectedness

Family functioning

General systems theory

Parents

Qualitative research



ABSTRACT

Every human being has the need to be connected to another to ensure optimal development and progress in life. Adolescents, therefore, are connected to their parents and siblings, and need consistent interaction in their quest to feel valued and accepted, and to have warm and supportive relationships. In South Africa, particularly the Drakenstein area, adolescents are constantly in conflict with the law, which influences family connectedness. Limited research has been done in the South African context on this phenomenon. For this reason, the researcher sought to address this gap in the literature by means of this study. The purpose of the study was to explore and describe the perceived link between family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. This addressed the research question: “How is family connectedness perceived to be linked to families dealing with adolescents that are in conflict with the law?” A qualitative approach, to gain a deeper understanding of families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law, was employed. A purposive sampling technique was used to recruit participants from the Department of Social Development database in Paarl. The selected sample consisted of 10 parents, 10 adolescents, and 5 social workers. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews and was carried out in a setting where they felt most comfortable. Participants reported that the bi-directional interaction amongst family members was challenged by the dysfunctionality in the households. This then influenced the availability of parental figures and parental engagement with the adolescent. Furthermore, parental participants revealed that they felt shame and disappointment towards the behaviour of the adolescent. The results of this study clearly show that the level of connectedness amongst families influences how they deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.

Therefore, this study's findings are particularly relevant and beneficial for professionals assisting families in dealing with adolescents that are in conflict with the law.



DECLARATION

I declare that the study entitled '*Family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law*', is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Name: Merle Danhouse

Date: December 2017

Signed: M Danhouse



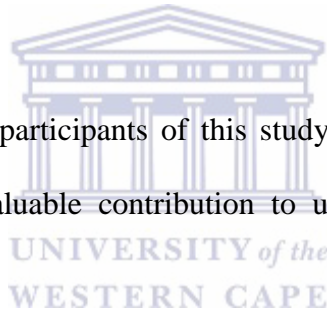
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This journey has no doubt been a challenging one; I would therefore like to express my sincere thanks to those who helped me in one way or another to complete this degree.

First and foremost, I wish to give thanks to the Lord Almighty for giving me the strength, ability, and opportunity to undertake this study and carry it out successfully.

I also wish to extend my gratitude to my supervisor Dr C. Erasmus for embarking on this journey with me, and for her fruitful contribution to my work. Thank you for your endless patience and guidance throughout the process.

I am sincerely thankful to the participants of this study. Their time, commitment and unique experiences made a valuable contribution to understanding the phenomenon being studied.



My deepest thanks to all my colleagues and friends for their constant encouragement and motivation, and for making sure that I stay committed to this task.

A special note of thanks to Dianne Ferrus and the “mengelmoes” poets; listening to you inspired me to pick up the pen and continue refreshed whenever writing my thesis.

Last but not least, a warm and heartfelt thanks to my family, and especially to my dear husband and my son, without you this journey would not have been possible. Thank you

for the love, support and encouragement you have given me, and for helping me achieve my goal.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACWL	Adolescent in conflict with the law
ACF	African Child Forum
ICAS	Independent Counselling Advisory Services
PNP	Policing Needs and Priorities
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WCYD	Western Cape Youth Development Strategy
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
DSD	Department Social Development
DCS	Department of Community Safety

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Family relationships create the environment where family interaction takes place; it is also where support and warmth are rendered, which protects the adolescent during development and the acquisition of independence and autonomy. However, in families where the necessary love and acceptance is not provided, it has a negative influence on the adolescent's behaviour, thus increasing challenging behaviours such as involvement in law-breaking behaviour. This in turn affects the quality of family relationships, family closeness, and how families deal with these adolescents. Therefore, this chapter provides, the background, problem identification, theoretical framework and the aims and objectives of the study, as a framework in understanding the perceived link between family connectedness and adolescents in conflict with the law. The aim of the study is to explore the perception of family connectedness as a link to families dealing with adolescents (14-17 years) in conflict with the law in Drakenstein, an area within the Western Cape. The background of the study is discuss in more detail below.

1.2 Background

Adolescents in conflict with the law often have behavioural problems, and either land up arrested or are suspected of being involved in crime (Skrzypiec, 2013). In their research, the Centre for Crime Prevention found that 50.2 % of adolescents have committed a crime or were planning to commit a crime (Pelser, 2008). The African Report on Violence Against Children found that more than a million children all over the world are in conflict with the law and are arrested by police (African Child Policy Forum (ACPF),

2014). Those arrested are kept in places of detention, such as a police station, a pre-trial facility, and other places of detention (African Child Policy Forum (ACPF), 2014). The 2011 census data found that adolescents in the Western Cape were involved and arrested for contact crimes related to robbery, assault, murder, and sexual offences (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Furthermore, the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy (2013) indicated that the second highest number of children (624), are awaiting trial in the country, and that the most juvenile cases to go to court were found in the Western Cape between 2010-2011 (Department Social Development (DSD), 2013). The Policing Needs and Priorities Report (PNP) 2015/16 showed that in Drakenstein, property related crimes increased by 39 % (Department of Community Safety (DCS), 2016), leading to the increase of juvenile crimes. This high rate of adolescents in conflict with the law within South Africa, led to the implementation of the Child Justice Act, 2009. This Act is based on restorative justice principles that emphasize the importance of the family in the rehabilitation process, as well as in the care and protection of the adolescent (Clark, 2010). The Family Policy in South Africa further affirms the notion that the family is an important structure to effect behavioural change and strengthen the adolescent's sense of belonging (Makiwane & Berry, 2013). South African legislation too supports the notion that family connectedness influences adolescent behaviour. The term 'family connectedness' describes the relationship between family members, and is sustained through their daily interactions, trust, closeness, and dependency (Barber & Schluterman, 2008).

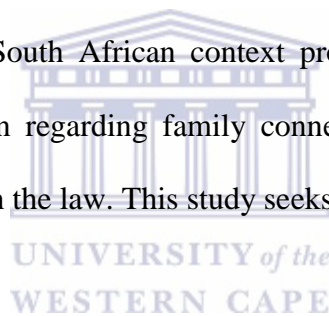
However, several researchers describe the family composition as an important element in the development of risky behaviours, which influences the quality and closeness of

relationships (Schermerhorn, Chow & Cummings, (2010); DSD, 2013). Furthermore, the availability of both parents in the lives of adolescents are emphasize as an important facet to the building of connectedness and the wellbeing of adolescents. The composition of South African households consists of: 28, 4 % of adolescents living in poor households being cared for by a single parent, 23 % are cared for by unrelated persons, 50 % of biological fathers have daily contact with their child/children. The number of families that stay with their extended family increased to 36 % since 2011 (Holborn & Eddy, 2011; Hui, Molden, & Finkel, 2013; DSD, 2013). Holborn and Eddy, (2011) in their research found that women headed most single parent households in South Africa. The research identifies the negative implications this has on the child's education and well-being (Ellis & Adams 2009; DSD, 2012). The ability to form a stable relationship with the adolescent is affected by the availability of the parent, his/her working conditions, and the educational level of the parent (Han, Miller & Waldfogel, 2010; Ponappa, Bartle-Haring & Day, 2014). In their research, Noble-Carr, Barker, McArthur and Woodman (2014) found that the physical presence of parents in the life of an adolescent leads to well-being and a sense of connectedness. The White Paper on Families (2012), however, noted that most of the marriages that ended in divorce during 2010 came from the African, Coloured and Indian communities, where 27,3 % of these families had been married for a period of between five to nine years (DSD, 2012). Therefore, the quality of the parental relationship is positively associated with a range of child and family outcomes, which could lead to family disintegration and the adolescent withdrawing from their family (Moore, Kinghorn, & Bandy, 2011). Families that have hostile family environments experience ineffective communication and tend to have poor personal relationships with an inability to manage conflict effectively. Tension amongst

family members intensifies with poverty, unemployment, limited love, affection, and support (Holborn & Eddy, 2011; Makiwane & Berry, 2013; Riggs, 2013).

Children living in conditions where there is financial deprivation are at high risk for health-related problems; they also struggle academically, experience behavioural problems, and have parents that are unable to provide adequate care (Shanks & Danziger, 2011). Furthermore, the high rate of substance abuse in South African families hinders the independence, care and support of adolescents, as parents are unable to consistently monitor their children or develop strong cohesive relationships (Muusha, 2012). Substance abuse in families is linked to depression, violent behaviour and various forms of crime; adolescents are therefore never able to experience parental affirmation, encouragement or support. Substance abuse affects the daily organization, communication, and support of families; these are regarded as symptoms of a dysfunctional family. Furthermore, the adolescent is unmonitored and there are no visible measures of control in the family (Jesuraj, 2012). Families with dysfunctional relationships are unable to understand the adolescent's need for comfort, security and exploration; this affects their closeness and increases their risk for substance abuse (Hummel, Shelton, Heron, Moore & Bree, 2013). Adolescents living in dysfunctional families tend to experience feelings of abandonment, anxiety, fear, anger, concern, embarrassment, and/or guilt, which lead to problem behaviours (Haghdoost, Abazari, Abbaszadeh, & Rabori, 2014). Adolescents, especially boys, show externalized behaviour, and are in constant conflict, fights and disagreements with significant others in their lives, whereas girls internalize their behaviour or become withdrawn (Laizane, 2012).

In their research Haghdoost et al., (2014) found that family connectedness is a significant factor in protecting adolescents from risky behaviour. Shehata and Ramadan (2010) looked at patterns of relationships and daily interactions between parents and found that parental affection is a key element in the adolescent's response and pattern of interaction. Furthermore, in their research Ponappa et al., (2014) and Noble-Carr et al., (2014) found that character building and parent-adolescent closeness prevents risky behaviour. However, South African research is limited, and focuses on the adolescent's connectedness to school, culture, allocation of tasks within the household, and leisure (Wittenberg, 2009; Rawatlal & Petersen, 2012; Schulze & Naidu, 2014). The dearth of research on this topic in the South African context provides the opportunity for the generation of more information regarding family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. This study seeks to fill this gap.



1.3 Theoretical framework

General systems theory is the theoretical framework that underpins this study. A system is a group of components that are bound by their connections to achieve a common goal (Royce & Buss, 1976; Miley, O'Melia & DuBois, 2009; Skyttner, 2005). The components within the system influence and affect one another, and therefore, it also influences the whole system (Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Strom-Gottfried & Larsen, 2009; Lewis, 2005; Kieran, Munford, O'Donoghue & Nash, 2005). According to O'Gorman (2012), behaviour and interaction are essential to family life, and the behaviour of one family member affects other family members. The family could be seen as a system with its members being the elements creating the whole (Hepworth et al., 2006; Lewis, 2005; Spray & Jowett, 2012). General systems theory is motivated by

the relationship between the components that constitute the whole (Royce & Buss, 1976; Miley et al., 2016). However, Taplin (1980) states that general systems theory gives direction to the flow within these relationships, influencing behaviour. These relationships generate interaction by sharing and giving information, determining boundaries, and creating order (Skyttner, 2005; Parrish, 2009). Biological relationships within the system nurture a sense of belonging between siblings, parents, and the adolescent (King, Boyd & Thorsen, 2015).

Boundaries are influenced by subsystems, for example, children and parents that construct the greater family system (Miley et al., 2016). Boundaries within the system are either open or closed, depending on whether they are permeable or impermeable (Royce & Buss, 1976). Permeable or open boundaries allow the family as a system to share resources, and therefore, enable them to address their family needs in contrast to closed (impermeable) boundaries, where the family has to rely on themselves for their own resources (Miley et al., 2016). Most systems have open boundaries, enabling them to obtain assistance and support in situations where the family experiences stress (Royce & Buss, 1976). Subsystems and systems do have boundaries and are determined by the rules, roles and decision-making processes within the family (Hepworth et al., 2009). Furthermore, Lewis (2005) states that roles and rules determine the quality of these relationships and influence the functioning of and change within the system. Rules within the family ensure appropriate behaviour and organization within the system, thus giving direction to the family (Hepworth et al., 2009). In addition, decision-making influences the exchange that is experienced within the boundaries of the family system, influencing the equilibrium of the family (Fitch, 2004). Families strive to maintain

balance in their lives; therefore, if conflict does arise, systems use behaviour that is known to ensure that the family experiences a state of balance (Hepworth et al., 2009). This interaction, organizational capacity, and need for equilibrium within the system, especially in the subsystem, leads to connectedness (Fitch, 2004; Parrish, 2009). The systems perspective will be explored further in Chapter 2.

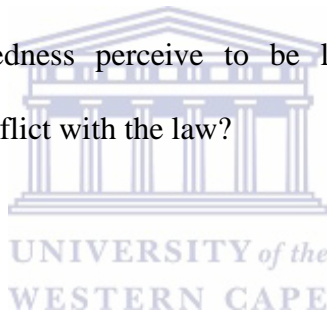
1.4 Problem statement

According to the Western Cape Youth Development Strategy (2013), the Western Cape has the largest, and Drakenstein the second largest involvement of youth in delinquent behaviour. In addition, most of these youths stay in single-parent households or come from divorced families where, from an early age, they were exposed to substance abuse, family and community violence, overcrowding, and parental strain. A family environment filled with parental tension and emotional turmoil has a significant impact on the development of the adolescent and their involvement in delinquent behaviour (Shehata & Ramadan, 2010). For instance, adolescents withdraw from their families, making them vulnerable to the influence of negative friends. This in turn weakens the family bond and breakdowns family connectedness. Social work professionals have to deal with adolescents in conflict with the law on a daily basis, as well as with parents who are unable to deal with these children effectively (Maschi, Schwalbe & Ristow, 2013). Practical experience in the field shows that this behaviour reoccurs despite intervention. In studies done internationally it was found that there are several researches that could be coupled with the phenomenon of family connectedness (Haghdoost et al., 2014; Cavendish, Montague, Enders, & Dietz, 2014; Noble-Carr et al., 2014; Shehata & Ramadan, 2010). In South Africa research regarding family connectedness and how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law is almost non-existent with most

research studies focussing on adolescents' connectedness to school, culture, their involvement in daily activities, and spending leisure time with family (Witteberg, 2009; Rawatlal & Petersen, 2012; Schulze & Naidu, 2014). Cauffman, Farruggia and Goldweber (2008) indicate that not enough research has been done on family connections in relation to the behaviour of children in conflict with the law. Therefore, this study intends to explore the perception of family connectedness as a link to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law to broaden the understanding of this phenomenon.

1.5 Research Question

How is family connectedness perceived to be a link to families dealing with adolescents that are in conflict with the law?



1.6 Aim and Objectives

1.6.1 Aim

The aim of the study is to explore the perception of family connectedness as a link to families dealing with adolescents (14-17 years) in conflict with the law in Drakenstein.

1.6.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

- Explore the role of family connectedness in families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- Explore the family routines, rituals and traditions guiding parents that deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- Explore how families deal with adolescents that are in conflict with the law.

1.7 Research Methodology

This study employed a qualitative research methodology to understand the phenomena of family connectedness and the world of the participants that were interviewed. Furthermore, it made use of an exploratory and descriptive design. The exploratory design gave the researcher the opportunity to obtain a deeper understanding of the participant's thoughts, sensitivities and experiences that related to the phenomenon of family connectedness (Stevens, Loudon, Cole & Wrenn, 2013). Explorative research seeks to identify the reasons why a phenomenon occurs (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2005; Creswell, 2013), and provides the opportunity for participants to be studied in their natural environment (i.e. home) or wherever they feel most comfortable, in order to obtain in-depth data to the research questions (Creswell, 2013; Lietz & Zayas, 2010). The descriptive research design allowed the researcher to describe the details of the participants' situation, social setting and their interrelatedness (De Vos et al., 2005). The purpose of descriptive research is to observe, describe and document the phenomenon.

1.8 Significance of the study

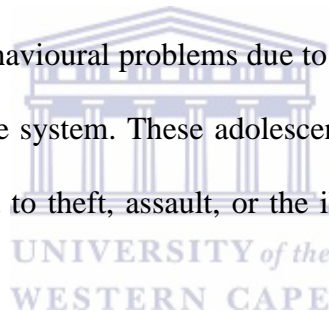
The intellectual, emotional and physical development of adolescents depends on their family environment. Therefore, family connectedness and how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law are important factors in the prevention of re-offending behaviour and further breakdown of family relationships. Legislation provides the basis for family preservation and the protection of adolescents, as illustrated by the Family Policy in South Africa (2012) and the Child Justice Act, No. 75 of 2008, which emphasises these specific needs (Clark, 2010; Makiwane & Berry, 2013). The findings

of this study seek to address the gap in South African literature regarding the perceived link between family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law in the Drakenstein area. Professionals (i.e. social workers and probation officers) rendering youth diversion services or involved in fieldwork to families (parents and children) could then use this as a resource in their assessment and development of programmes to preserve families.

1.9 Defining key concepts and terms

Adolescents in conflict with the law:

Adolescents in conflict with the law are defined as young persons between the ages of 14-18 years who experience behavioural problems due to their involvement in crime and contact with the criminal justice system. These adolescents are arrested or suspected of being involved in crime related to theft, assault, or the illegal possession of substances (Skrzypiec, 2013).



Adolescence:

Adolescence is the period that starts from puberty (14- 17 years) and is the phase of exploration and seeking independence (Bezuidenhout, 2008).

Connectedness:

This is the closeness that one individual experiences with another on a mental and emotional level. It influences how they value, respect and acknowledge the belief system of others (Bernat & Resnick, 2009).

Delinquent behaviour:

These refer to unacceptable behaviours that violate the laws of society. These behaviours include stealing, possession of dangerous weapons, abuse of alcohol and drugs, assault,

the use of offensive language, abusive conduct, or young people running away from home (Bezuidenhout, 2008).

Family:

A family is a group of persons united by the ties of marriage, blood, adoption or cohabitation, characterised by a common residence. Families have a relationship with one another and through their interaction and communication learn family roles, share and maintain a common culture, and are governed by family rules (DSD, 2006:25).

Family connectedness:

Connectedness in families could be described as the relationships between family members that are sustained through their daily interactions and present trust, closeness, and dependency (Barber & Schluterman, 2008).

Family functioning:

Family functioning describes the way family members interrelate, interact, and communicate when carrying out daily tasks or family goals (Walsh, 2006).

General systems theory:

General systems theory follows a systems approach; it focuses on the dynamic interaction within systems and seeks to understand their organizational patterns and processes. All systems have a commonality in terms of structure, for example, human beings, plants, organizations, and societies, including cells, human beings, human social groups and organizations. The emphasis of this theory is on holism, where the relationship between the components constitutes the whole (von Bertalanffy, 1951; 1968; Connors & Caple, 2005).

Parents:

Parents are persons who take responsibility for children, through nurturing, caring and controlling them in their development to adulthood (Brooks, 2011:6).

1.10 Structure of Thesis

Chapter 1: This is an introductory chapter that reflects on the context and background of the study. It includes the theoretical framework used, as well as the problem statement, aims and objectives, research question and methodology. The significance of the research is clearly stated, and important concepts are defined.

Chapter 2: This chapter introduces the general systems theory as a theoretical framework in the context of family connectedness. It provides a framework from which to understand the family as a system, as well as the inputs, processes and outputs that determine relatedness and influence behaviour.

Chapter 3: This chapter provides a review of literature related to family connectedness, and families and adolescents in conflict with the law.

Chapter 4: This chapter contains the methodology used in this study. It considers the sampling procedures, instruments, data collection process, data analysis, and the ethical considerations. An exploratory and descriptive design will frame the in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of family connectedness.

Chapter 5: This chapter presents the results and a discussion of the findings. This is integrated with previous research identified in Chapter 3, and linked to the theoretical framework guiding this study, as discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 6: The final chapter concludes the study and provides recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Families need interaction and dependence on one another in order to build connectedness. Hence, this study adopts the general systems theory, which offers a suitable theoretical framework to understand the behaviour of the family and their environment. It shows that the behaviour of one component of the system affects the behaviour of other components. Hepworth and Larson (1982), state that all members within a group influence one another through the flow of continuous interaction and connectivity between one another, impacting how they deal with problematic situations within the system. Meadows (2008), defines a system as an organized whole made up of different components that are in constant interaction. This organizational pattern emphasize the interaction and interdependence within the system, and will divert the focus from isolating problematic behaviour of individuals. The family as a system will be central to the discussion here on connectedness and the influence the system has on the input, process, output and feedback of family interactions. Furthermore, the historical background and interaction within the system will be highlighted to shed light on the relatedness of the system's components and the influence this has on emergent behaviour. Key concepts relating to the general systems theory for example the environment, input, throughput, process and output will be discuss in further detail to broaden the understanding of the general systems theory and it applicability within this study.

2.2 History of general systems theory

Aristotle was the first to describe the whole being more than its parts, and emphasized order within a system (von Bertalanffy, 1972; Broderick, 1993). Several philosophers from the seventeenth century, e.g. Cartesian, Galilean and Newton made groundbreaking findings in the field of science known as chemistry and introduced the concept of ‘life processes’ (Weckowicz, 2000). Mathematical concepts were then used to describe the processes of a system, for example, wholeness, sum, growth, differentiation, progressive mechanization, centralization, hierarchical order, finality and equifinality (von Bertalanffy, 1972).

During the 1920’s, von Bertalanffy argued that more should be learned about the rules governing living systems and the environment within which they operate (von Bertalanffy 1969; Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012). For example, he mentioned that living things should not be seen as isolated individual parts and processes. Subsequently, scientists in their different fields started to introduce the different concepts related to systems. Köhler (1924-1927), with his *physical gestalten* theory indicated the relationship between non-living and living systems, and acknowledged the value of open systems, but restricted his theory to physics (von Bertalanffy, 1969). Alfred Lotka, a mathematician, observed communities as systems and the individual human system as the sum of cells (von Bertalanffy, 1969). Furthermore, Alfred Lotka and Volta focused on the dynamic forces and equilibrium in human systems, while Whitehead introduced the concept of philosophy, and Walter Cannon dealt with homeostasis in human systems (von Bertalanffy, 1969). Von Bertalanffy first proposed the ideological framework of ‘open systems’ in biology and recognized the diversity and the organizational patterns

between living and non-living entities (von Bertalanffy, 1969, 1972; Weckowicz, 2000). This dynamical thinking process became a powerful framework to understand different ideas and concepts in the development of systems thinking.

2.3 General systems theory

According to Chen and Stroup (1993), systems are physical, biological or symbolic. For example, systems are either conceptual, which are symbolic in nature (mathematics), or abstract, that is, theoretical, but does relate to reality or social systems, which could be a plant, human being, or a family (von Bertalanffy, 1972). Brandell (2010) and Miley et al., (2009) state that all systems have components that are identifiable, interact with their environment, and have boundaries. The organizational structure of the system increases the dynamic interaction of the system (Mesarovic, 1964; Royce & Buss, 1976; Broderick, 1993; Miley et al., 2009). A system is therefore defined as the relationship between more than one component and does not focus on individual elements in isolation (Visser, 2007; Patterson & Sexton, 2013). Systems are multifaceted elements that are in constant interaction with each other, which is part of a greater system that functions as a whole (von Bertalanffy, 1969; Broderick, 1993).

Systems thinking are concerned with 'holism'. In this regard, von Bertalanffy (1969) explains the system as the sum of its parts. Similarly, Sidelinger, Bolen, Frisby and McMullen (2011) and Spray and Jowett (2012) explain that due to the relationship that exists amongst its components, a system is more than the sum of its parts. Polkinghorne (1983) indicates that to understand the whole it is necessary to understand the functioning of the system and its elements. The general systems theory made the concept

of holism applicable to all systems, regardless of how the components were organized and what the conflicts between them were (von Bertalanffy, 1969; Pouvreau, 2014). Systems are organized into various smaller parts (subsystems); these are related and in continuous interaction with one another (Visser, 2007). The components of systems are interdependent and reliant on each other to complete tasks, bounded by support from one another (Broderick, 1993).

According to von Bertalanffy, interaction between systems is circular, and is based on the effect that each individual has on the change and growth that takes place within the system. Systems theory can be applied to different relationships within society leading to integration of elements to ensure optimal functioning and connection (Ritzer, 2008) This means that the behaviour of one of its parts influences the interaction and behaviour of the whole. Thus, any problematic situation cannot be blamed on one person within the system (Wulczyn et al., 2010; Lander, Howsare & Byrne, 2013). Systems are reflected in the exchanges occurring between the parts that make up the system, and the amount of exchange between parts determines the connectivity amongst its members. All systems have certain characteristics that ensure a flow of information influenced by their inputs, processes, outputs and feedback. These circulatory flows of information are directed by the following: interdependence of the members within the system, the availability of subsystems, family rules, homeostasis, system boundaries and the system's ability to achieve equifinality, morphogenesis and entropy.

2.4 Key components of a system

Each system consists of an input, throughput, output, feedback, and the environment in which the system exists in the building of connectedness. Figure 1 below illustrates the various components of general systems theory.

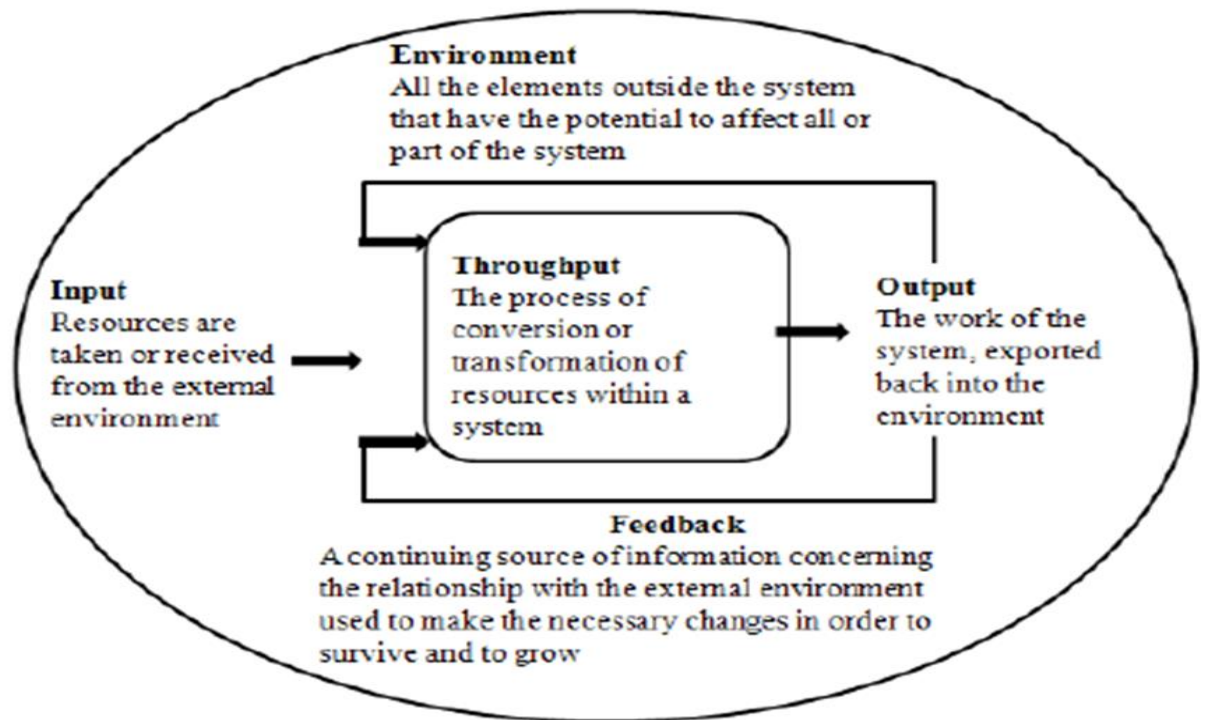


Figure 1 Diagrammatic illustration of general systems theory

(Source: Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Each component will be elaborated on in more detail in the subsections below.

2.4.1 Environment

Each system has boundaries that define its environment. A system's environment contains events or conditions that have a direct influence on interaction and determine the functioning of the system (Raphesu, 2005). In understanding the family environment, each family has different individuals, hierarchical structures, roles and subsystems that

determine their boundaries and their unique family setting. Adolescents are primarily involved with their parents, siblings and peers, which form their environmental interaction and determine their boundaries. Families can be identified as either single parent, married, or divorced with a specific relatedness amongst them that determines how they deal with problematic matters. Consequently, the bi-directional relationship between the environment and the system influences one another and changes behaviour within the system (Meadows, Randers & Meadows, 2004). For example, if families are experiencing conflict within their family environment it is difficult to separate or differentiate it from their daily interactions with one another.

According to the literature, family environments that experience transition or where youth are exposed to disadvantaged family backgrounds result in less stable family relationships and limited social support (Ryan, Williams & Courtney, 2013). Furthermore, exposure to persistent poverty and substance abuse contributes to a dysfunctional family setting that is linked to delinquent behaviour (Aneshensel, 2009). Stressful events within the family environment disrupt the connectedness in families and influence their coping abilities. As such, the environmental influences within the system determine adolescent outcomes and the parent's ability to deal with their behaviour. Thus, the environment has a major influence on the system's input, throughput, output and feedback.

2.4.2 Inputs

In terms of general systems theory, input is defined as the movement of information from the environment into the system (Katz & Kahn, 1978). An open system has a dynamic relationship with its environment; it receives various inputs from the

environment, transforms these inputs into outputs, and produces processes and feedback. Schippers, Zuna and Brown (2015) define inputs as the ideas, resources and abilities within systems as well as the availability of family members for optimal use in the system. From a systems viewpoint family inputs influence each other and create connectedness amongst its members (Patterson & Sexton, 2013).

According to Chen and Stroup (1993), system inputs influence the larger system—the family and its subsystems—when dealing with problematic behaviour. An open system is in continuous exchange with its environment, importing inputs from other systems to ensure that the system is able to have optimal growth (Brandell, 2010). The degree and type of inputs depend on how open or closed the system is (Visser, 2007). Inputs are dependent on the needs of the family and the resources they receive from the external environment. A family is an open system and is in continuous interaction with its environment to help it achieve its goals.

2.4.2.1 Needs

All systems are organized and goal-driven; they seek to accomplish these through the tasks they are allocated and by means of controlling mechanisms within the system (Bloem, 2006). Goals are defined as the family's ability to achieve positive results, for example, that their children stay in school and have a sense of connectedness with their family. These system goals are affected by the needs and resources within the context of the family environment that are based on cultural practices, values, and beliefs that affect the behaviour of components within the system on a daily basis (Schippers, et al., 2015). These behavioural components provide the background for relational formation and how

individuals are managed within the system. Therefore, a noteworthy point here is that if systems have a common purpose, it will ensure that the family stays connected.

Emotional and social needs are a second category of inputs that provide warmth, love and protection to its members within the family environment (Schleider & Weisz, 2016). Vandeleur, Jeanpretre, Perrez and Schoebi (2009) are of the opinion that the degree of closeness experienced by family members is linked to interpersonal well-being and family life satisfaction. Satisfaction within the family environment is determined by the boundaries, which are the protective layers of the system controlling the flow of information and the interaction between the subsystems or within the system and its environment (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012; Parrish, 2009; Lander, Howsare & Byrne, 2013). Families with a strong sense of connectedness create and sustain value and belief systems through the socialization of their children and the inhibition and promotion of certain behaviours among all family members. Parenting style and parental monitoring determines the emotional climate and serves as a protection factor for risky behaviour in the adolescent (Nrugham, Larsson & Sund, 2008; Freudsteinstein et al., 2011). However, if the parent has an authoritarian parenting style, the parent becomes restrictive, punitive and lacking in warmth (Westbrook & Harden, 2010). In addition, permissive parenting where the parent displays low levels of both warmth and control is indicative of the adolescent involvement in crime (Asmat, Ali & Shah (2017). In their research, Leiber, Mack and Featherstone (2009) refer to the quality of the relational bond as valuable input to connectedness and involvement in delinquency.

Flood (2010), states that leadership in families encourages involvement in the family and provide for the development of autonomy. Parents that experience a high level of conflict and less marital satisfaction are less likely to be involved in authoritative parenting and see to their children's needs (Ahmadi & Saadat, 2015). Furthermore, mothers in conflictual marriages are less likely to control the behaviour of adolescents or know their children's whereabouts (Cartwright, 2006). Adolescents raised in a divorced environment are more exposed to boundary diffusion than those living in intact families with parenting being affected and the adolescent parent relationship being challenged (Perrin, Ehrenberg & Hunter, 2013).

In addition, these enmeshed relationships between the parent and child result in over-involvement in each other's lives making it difficult for adolescents to become independent and take responsibility for their own actions (Kerig, 2005; Schrodt & Afifi, 2007). Girls that are unhappy with the parenting style of their parents and are exposed to conflict in the household seem to be more sensitive to stress and display behavioural problems within the family, whereas boys tend to express their unhappiness outside the home environment (Amato & Afifi, 2006). Exposures to harsh parenting, parental outbursts or family violence result in adolescents becoming unsatisfied with their family life and more involved with their peers (Hinnant, Erath & El-Sheikh, 2015). Subsequently, if the emotional needs of the adolescent are not met within the system, the behavioural feedback received affects the closeness within the family (Klimes-Dougan & Zeman 2007; Jobe-Shields, Parra & Buckholdt, 2013). Therefore, it could be said that the system is highly dependent on the fulfilment of its needs in the formation of strong bonds, and if there are absent members, dysfunction occurs.

2.4.2.2 Resources

Resources are tangible (food, money and shelter) or intangible (knowledge, educational level and skills of its members) (Raphesu, 2005). It is noted in the literature that the financial incapacity of families is related to parental stress and has a detrimental impact on the spousal relationship, leading to depression in single mothers and affecting the parenting process (Yoshikawa, Aber & Beardslee, 2012). Resources control the system's ability to achieve its goals, for example, the family is reliant on the availability of time parents allocate to their children, and the knowledge and skills that are available to the individual family members to ensure adaptation and connection with one another (Carlson & Berger, 2013). Poverty, unemployment, and substance abuse lead to an under-resourced family who are not able to satisfy the needs of the family, contributing to high family stress and early school dropout (Baker & Mutchler, 2010). For example, the educational level of the parent determines the family income (Erola, & Lehti, 2016); a higher income would mean more needs and goals of the family are met, increasing their capacity to cope with problematic behaviour.

Friction occurs within the family's boundaries when resources are scarce or inadequate to meet the needs of members (Chhabra & Sodhi, 2012). For example, poverty experienced in single-parent households affects the availability of resources and level of satisfaction of family life; as a result, adolescents become disconnected from school and family life. Families with closed boundaries are forced to rely on their own resources. Isolating themselves creates dysfunctionality and unclear or inflexible boundaries that leads to confusion, instability, and disconnectedness (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012).

The inputs that are provided within the system depend on the system's goals, as well as subsystems, boundaries, and communication within the system.

2.4.3 Hierarchical structures

Systems are hierarchical structures or a nested structure of subsystems that form part of a larger system. Mizikaci (2006) states that subsystems are organised into subgroups within the family, for example, the mother and father form the parental subsystem, brothers and sisters form the sibling subsystem (brother and sister), or the mother and son/daughter form the parent-adolescent subsystem. These subsystems are interdependent and have consistent interaction with one another on a daily basis that provides the family with the opportunity to achieve balance and stability (Lindahl, Bregman & Malik, 2012). Furthermore, Brooks (2011) noted that the position of family members and the way in which they are organised are dependent on the age and gender of the specific family members. For example, in the family, the parental subsystem is responsible for the parenting of the adolescent due to the role allocated to them according to their position within the family. Therefore, each subsystem within the family has different interactional patterns based on the quality of their relationship and the connectedness amongst family members (Parrish, 2009; Schulze & Naidu, 2014).

Schulze and Naidu (2014) note that adolescents experience a decline in their connectedness to their parents, but stay more connected to their mothers, siblings, and thereafter, their fathers. However, if the family is concerned about one member in the household, it affects the relationship with all the other members, which leads to friction; some members even experience feelings of rejection (Walker, 2012). For example, if the parents within the family experience discord and conflict it influences their relationship

with the adolescent, causing the adolescent to become more reliant and dependent on the other subsystems within the family (Lindahl et al., 2012; King, Boyd & Thorsen, 2015). These types of interaction or relationships within the family are filled with intricacies that lead to family members becoming disconnected from one another or experience pressure within the family environment, developing stronger relationships with one another (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012). For example, when the adolescent gets involved in the parental relationship, intervening when there is conflict between the parents, and when the roles between the parent and the adolescent become blurred, it leads to family dysfunction or delinquency.

Components within a system view themselves and their environment through their organizational structure, affecting their connectedness. Therefore, the parenting style of parents controls the information that flows through the system, transfers skills, and creates a value system for the interaction between its components. Parental absence within the family structure influences the power structure and role division, since each position has a specific function and influences the relational element between family members, specifically the adolescent (Putnick et al., 2008).

Single mothers experience higher levels of depression and stress than married mothers (Turner, 2006). This influences their connection with other members of the household (Putnick et al., 2008), which in turn influences the parent-child connectedness. Parental breakdown and a dysfunctional family environment that includes substance abuse and neglect, leads to feelings of anger, depression, and withdrawal from the family, and puts the adolescent at high risk for involvement in crime (Walker, 2012; Lander et al., 2013).

In their meta-analysis of 161 published and unpublished manuscripts, Hovee et al., (2009) found a correlation between parental monitoring, psychological control, and negative aspects of support. Similarly, Vuorenmaa, Perälä, Halme, Kaunonen and Åstedt-Kurki (2016) state that parental self-confidence and emotional support received reinforces the coping skills and well-being of the family.

The involvement of the extended family in parenting roles when one or both parents are absent gives family members the opportunity to fulfil specific roles, and thereby provide additional support and resources (Martinez, Ayers, Kulis & Brown, 2015). Families that do not have clear family roles could weaken the parent-child relationship if the intervention of extended family or older siblings exceeds the norm (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012). However, Visser (2007) states that despite the physical absence of members there is still the opportunity to experience affection through other subsystems by means of family interaction. It could therefore be said that the parts within the family cannot be understood without the other connected elements (Walker, 2012).

2.4.3.1 Communication

Dynamical interaction or communication within the system produces openness, which create a flow of energy, the sharing of information, as well as distressing messages that pass back and forth across boundaries, creating a specific pattern, thereby shaping the system and generating tension (Broderick, 1993; Ritzer, 2008). Lishman (2007) states that the individual experiences of its members are shaped by how they interact with their environment. A systems approach highlights the importance of the context in which an action occurs in order to understand its implementation and potential impact (Kumanyika, Parker & Sim, 2010). Communication between the systems and subsystems

in the family develops connection but are altered by the dysfunctional actions of individuals in the system (Syce, 2016).

Parental values and communication of their goals determine their interaction within the subsystems and guide the behaviour of the adolescent. Family environments where traditional patterns of communication are absent, i.e. showing respect and the sharing of feelings, have less cohesion and acceptance of organizational family structures (Givertz & Segrin, 2014). Spera (2005), states that the adolescent's reaction towards parental values influences the behaviour of the family. The behaviour of the adolescent in conflict with the law leads to more conflict between the parents or minimize the conflict due to the focus being on the child (Lindahl, 2012). Families that are disconnected from each other show less emotion towards the adolescent, which influences connectedness. As a result, adolescents feel ashamed, and blame and criticize themselves (Lindahl, 2012). The energy within the system becomes emotionally drained by the internal conflict that exists, creating entropy. The dysfunctional family environment that contains substance abuse, physical abuse and neglect, lead to feelings of anger, aggression and withdrawal from the family and involvement in crime (Lander et al., 2013). Substance abuse and family conflict affect the family environment; it leads to a lack of showing love and affection, and a sense of disconnection between household members. Dysfunctional families create an environment where members feel disconnected from each other, and negative communication patterns are formed, resulting in parents being unable to deal with problematic behaviours (Brooks, 2011; Lander et al., 2013).

It is essential that all the elements of the system are available to form interrelatedness and are a valuable input to the family. Inputs in the family system tend to assist the

family in achieving their goals and to ensure that family members have a sense of well-being. Inputs have a direct link to processes and outcomes, and therefore, the input and output involve crossing the boundaries that define the system (Broderick, 1993).

2.5. Process in the system

Process is the vehicle that transforms inputs into outputs. Process in systems is repetitive patterns of behaviour that assist the family to maintain equilibrium through alignment with system goals (Broderick, 1993). These processes are the natural way the system takes action; for example, maintain balance through their relationships, communication patterns, time spent together, and satisfaction with family life (Lander et al., 2013). In the results of their research, Everri, Fruggeri and Molinari (2014) indicated that families have different patterns of interaction and different ways of dealing with change. Interactional patterns are guided by the inputs received within the system, influencing decision-making and role divisions in the family to achieve balance (Miley et al., 2016; Hepworth et al., 2009) Chen and Stroup (1993) note that general systems theory recognizes system dynamics, the period in which the behaviour has taken place and the change that may happen in the system. Similarly, Kumanyika et al., (2010) are of the opinion that a systems approach focuses on the circumstances or setting that determines the action taken, to understand the implementation and impact of behaviour.

Process in systems provides the basis for understanding the diversity of living entities, how they interact and perform their daily interactions (Broderick, 1993). Interactional processes transpire through decision-making processes that are framed by family belief systems, organizational patterns, and family connectedness (Walsh, 2006). Decision-

making is the process whereby families make choices and ultimately conclude that behaviour must change (Devaney & Spratt, 2009). These decisions require input from all its members and are guided by the authority and status of family members, as well as rules and values of the system. For example, if the parent responsible for the household has no relationship with the other members, it affects the decision-making process and the ability to make and implement decisions in the household. Dysfunctional interactional patterns hinder the system's ability to problem solve and maintain stability (Cross & Barnes, 2014).

Parents change their parenting practices and may become parent-centred in their approach, focusing on how they want things to be done and excluding the child in the decision to change behaviour, for example, the house rules become stricter (Westbrook & Harden, 2010). They further state that the emotional climate determines equifinality, for example, where parental behaviour has different outcomes and meanings within the context of the system. Equifinality is determined by the way in which the conflict or actions of the parent are perceived depending on the relationships between the parent and the child (Choi, Kim, Pekelnicky, Kim & Kim, 2017). Parents unable to handle the problematic behaviours of their children become indifferent and evade the process of addressing dysfunction in the system, which creates leniency in the relationship. Parents that are permissive or indifferent show less interest in the child and avoid their responsibility of taking action (Baumrind, 1987). Parents adjust their parenting style in response to dysfunctional behaviour, and become punitive and show less warmth, which is strongly link to aggressive and risky behaviour in adolescents (Palkovitz, Trask &

Adamsons, 2014). The quality of the parent's relationship has an impact on co-parenting, the parent-child relationship, and the family process (McHale, 2009).

2.6. Family rules and roles

Rules and roles within the system refer to the patterned interaction that regulates, stabilizes and illustrates family functioning (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 2012). System rules determine the framework for organization, order, and what is allowed (Skytner, 2005). Family rules govern the values and norms upon which the family's interactions are based, and regulate appropriate behaviour, interpersonal relationships, and the organizational patterns of the family (Hepworth et al., 2009). The functionality of the rules determines the flexibility of the family and the pattern of interaction, assisting with the handling of stress and problem solving within the family (Hepworth et al., 2006). However, if a family member does behave differently, dysfunctional patterns evolve that influences the roles of family members. Families re-organize themselves and create change to ensure that equilibrium is achieved (Miley et al., 2016).

Dysfunctional families sustain problems in the family, for example, not dealing with the child in conflict with the law, and thus prevent changes in the family pattern (Hepworth et al., 2009; Lander et al., 2013). Lander et al., (2013), states that if the behaviour of one person within the system is changed it influences the whole system, leading to change. Families then put restrictions on their members to prevent problematic behaviour and to keep the family in balance (Hepworth et al., 2009). In addition, systems depend on the loyalty of family members to cooperate and to manipulate its members through the

enforcement of discipline (Hepworth, Rooney, Rooney, Strom-Gottfried & Larson, 2006).

In their study, Brody, Yu and Shalev (2016) mention that risky family processes have a negative impact on the emotions of family members, which can affect their health. In comparison to this, Shonkoff, Boyce and McEwen (2009) in their research showed that the emotional climate that characterizes family life and the parent-child relationship contribute to chronic diseases in later life. The lack of warmth or emotional support and an unpredictable home environment leads to high parent-youth conflict and risky behaviour. Marital conflict or substance abuse in the family environment changes the behaviour within the subsystems, and adolescents tend to become over-involved with the one parent and in an enmeshed relationship with the other parent, transforming interactional patterns in the system (Dallos & Vetere, 2012). Adolescents in their externalizing of dysfunctional interactional processes, for example, start to shout at their parents, become hostile, and participate in crime (Snyder, Cramer, Afrank & Patterson, 2005). Therefore, family conflict and tension in the family is a major contributor to change and the connection amongst its members, as seen in adolescents that are at risk in Korea and America (Qin, Rak, Rana & Donnellan, 2012).

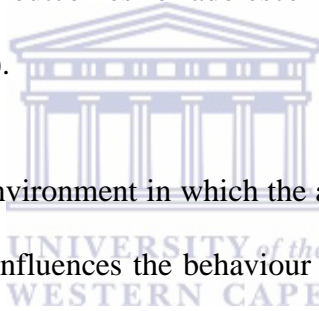
Roles are bound by family organizational patterns, such as how the parent and child communicate or how they interact with peers (Parrish, 2009). Families have specific roles for each person; roles are the normal behaviours a specific member is expected to fulfil based on their position in the family. For example, the work schedule of the mother determines the roles, gender allocation, and involvement in tasks, i.e. girls are allocated

more household tasks than boys during the week (Hutchison & Charlesworth, 2003). Furthermore, in their study, Telzer, Gonzales and Fuligni (2014) found that adolescents with a working mother are more responsible for the care of siblings and are more involved in household tasks. Adolescents in Mexican families, however, have specific roles that they need to accomplish, containing the value of respect and strengthening family connection (Hardway & Fuligni, 2006). It is evident that the behaviour of one component in the subsystem affects the transactional patterns within the whole system, leading to transformation in the system (Lewis, 2005; Hepworth et al., 2009; Wulczyn et al., 2010).

2.7. System Outputs

Output is the movement of information from the system to the environment. Both input and output involve crossing the boundaries that define the system, and therefore, outputs rely on daily inputs that could be exported to energy. Outputs are the result of the processes that evolve through the adaptations made within the system and are open to change (Schippers et al., 2015). Boundary settings that are exporting too many outputs tend to close, protecting the system leading to entropy. Entropy is the mechanical operation that leads to a gradual decline into disorder, a lack of resources, and transformation or loss, whereas negentropy is the system's way of creating order (Ritzer, 2008). Families that experience entropy are unable to attain family goals and become dysfunctional as a unit. The dysfunctionality is the output delivered from the inputs and processes in the system. In their research, Choi et al., (2017) showed that if the well-being of adolescents is affected, it influences the bond between a parent and their child, and results in adolescent depression and anti-social behaviour. Hadžikapetanović, Babić

and Bjelošević (2017) mentioned that the marital relationship has a major influence on the behaviour of the adolescent with them experiencing stress and anxiety, and an inability to deal with the parenting behaviour. Consequently, the conflict within the household has a significant influence on girls because they tend to have more emotional tension and self-blame, while boys show more aggression and anger (Amato & Afifi, 2006). The lack of consistency in parenting influences family functioning and the inability to achieve system goals. Furthermore, adolescents become involved with negative peers and drop out of school, affecting their quality of life and family well-being. In contrast to the above, if the parental subsystem provides the opportunity for healthy boundary formation, the outcomes for adolescents is positive with well adaptive functioning (Lander et al., 2013).



System outputs determine the environment in which the adolescent develops. It could be noted that the system's output influences the behaviour of the adolescent, and if this is negative, it influences the connectedness with the parent and how deviant behaviours are handled. According to Estévez and Emler (2010), adolescent exposure to significant risk factors increases the possibility for substance abuse and delinquent behaviour. However, this particular study also noted that some adolescents do reach adulthood, despite exposure to these risk factors. Adolescents that experience their parents as less warm and as having limited support become detached from their parents. They tend to seek friendships outside of the household and partake in delinquent behaviour (Kariuki, Aloka, Kinai, Gatumu & Ndeke, 2014). Adolescents that become detached from their parents become less motivated to listen to their parents and ignore their request and violate rules, for example, they have a greater inclination to being aggressive, and they tend to get involved in theft and drug use (Siegel, Welsh & Senna, 2009). Thus, systems

outcomes lead to an unhealthy family environment with adolescents becoming more involved in delinquent behaviour. Outputs therefore reflect the behaviour of the system that alters the functioning of its members.

2.8. Feedback

Feedback is essential for the functioning of the system and allows the system to remain active. Systems need feedback from outputs to ensure that there is a flow of inputs for decisions and processes that need to take place within the system. The movement of information in and out of the system produces feedback, which is the system's reaction to the input and output received from its environment (Broderick, 1993). Similarly, Visser (2007) refers to feedback as a regulatory behaviour where information that enters the system, is transform and fed back into the system. The dynamic interaction ensures that stability is achieved, even though there may be periods where the system may experience turmoil (von Bertalanffy, 1972). The entire feedback process of a system is governed by feedback loops that are either negative or positive.

2.8.1 Positive and negative feedback loops

Positive feedback is the ability of the system to deviate from their original goal and become self-reinforcing, whereas negative feedback loops are self-correcting (Visser, 2007). Connors and Caple (2005), state that the family receives feedback in different ways, which could either be a verbal or non-verbal indicator, for example, through gestures or facial expressions. They further explain that these feedback patterns in the family indicate whether the family as a system is open to change, or not. Therefore, chaos and dysfunction put strain on the system and affects the decisions that they make

to control their boundaries, which create a feedback loop that optimally changes the behaviour within the system.

Feedback loops that are positive present change and encourage the components within the system to break their homeostatic balance. Homeostasis is the system's way to ensure ongoing interaction based on family norms and reinforce feedback. Family homeostasis is the ability of the system to achieve equilibrium in a family after change has occurred (Kim & Rose, 2014). This then provides the system with the ability to encourage desirable behaviour and to adapt to change. Feedback loops control the behaviour of a system over time and influence stability. It is the system's way of taking corrective action through the process of morphogenesis, morphostasis, and wholeness (von Bertalanffy, 1969). Morphogenesis is the flexibility that occurs within the system to adapt to internal and external change, whereas morphostasis is the system's way to preserve or maintain its given form. Families that deviate from equilibrium or homeostasis have more transformations within the system, and this ensures the completion of a positive feedback loop (Broderick, 1993). For example, problematic situations in families are the result of the continuation of positive feedback loops that are not controlled, and which could transform behaviour only through the interruption of the loop. Healthy families counter their positive feedback loops with negative feedback loops. Families with positive feedback loops become unstable without the existence of clear rules. Systems that are healthy have flexible boundaries (Visser, 2007).

Negative feedback loops are associated with patterns of interaction and communication that keep the family system functioning in its current way (McGoldrick & Carter, 2003).

These feedback loops operate to restore or maintain equilibrium (Connors & Caple, 2005). For example, families that have experienced a breakdown in the parental relationship may expect the father's availability to the household to be the same, although the father has left the home. When any deviation from homeostasis occurs, the system responds by enacting negative feedback to bring the system back to a state of equilibrium. In families, negative feedback is often seen when one or more family member attempts to change. Components within a system will try to maintain their transactional patterns to maintain their sense of balance, even if it means the system stays dysfunctional (Ingram, 2007).

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to provide an exploration of the general systems theory and the perceived link to family connectedness. Systems interaction and the feedback that circulates within the system determine the connectivity amongst its members. The system's components and their functioning within their environment are a reflection of the interaction among its members. To have a better understanding of the phenomenon, the concepts regarding adolescence in conflict with the law, how families deal with their behaviour, and the connectedness within these families will be discussed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the literature on the perceived link between family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law will be discussed. This overview of the fundamental elements of family connectedness will highlight the link between these concepts. This literature review provides a breakdown of the important concepts commonly used in this study, such as adolescence, families, family connectedness, and adolescents in conflict with the law.

3.2 Adolescence

The United Nations defines an adolescent as a person between the ages of 10 and 19 years, commencing from the onset of puberty into adulthood (UNICEF, 2011). According to Curtis (2015), all definitions relating to adolescence include the ages of 14-17 years, and it encompasses the period of development from childhood into adulthood. In addition, adolescence is a developmental period that involves a number of changes in various areas, i.e., physical, emotional and social, and shapes the growth and adaptation of the adolescent in all facets of their life (Rawatlal, Pillay & Kliewer, 2015; Ogwo, 2013; Adam et al., 2011). The physical, emotional and social factors affect the choices made by adolescents, and also influences impulsive, insensitive and risk-taking behaviour, which leads to their involvement in delinquent acts (Nilsson, 2016). These factors are discussed in more detail below.

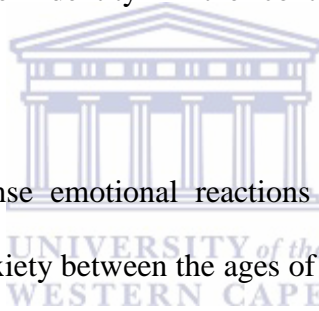
3.2.1 Physical development

Physical development in adolescence refers to bodily changes that occur with the onset of puberty and are influenced by genetic and biological factors (Steinberg, 2007). Furthermore, these physical changes are altered by traumatic life events, the socioeconomic status, as well as the nutrition and diet of the adolescent (Schneiders et al., 2007). Physical changes create sexual awareness, as girls tend to focus on their weight and boys on their length and physical build (Ohannessian & Hesselbrock, 2008). In addition, boys that mature late, experience feelings of insecurity and are dissatisfied with their physical appearance, whereas girls that mature fast are in constant conflict with their parents due to the overemphasis of their sexuality. Parents that do not spend time with or lack connection with their child are unable to manage the risks of early maturation and the social demands that the adolescent must deal with (Schock-Giordano & Gavazzi, 2010). The inability of the parent to address the needs of the adolescent leads to risky behaviour, unsafe sex, and the constant testing of family values (Barbot & Hunter, 2012). Relationships within the family sphere are altered when conflicts occur due to a clash with the family's values, roles and belief system (Johnson, Giordano, Manning & Longmore, 2011; Barbot & Hunter, 2012). Consistent with this Carlson (2012), states that this developmental period further leads to emotional agony that is evident in the other stages of life.

3.2.2 Emotional development

Brooks (2011) states that adolescents experience emotional growth when they start to change the way they think, behave, perceive life, and when their relationships with significant others are transformed. Adolescents seek autonomy and freedom by wanting to be involved in their own decision-making within the framework of the family

environment (Hoyt, Chase-Lansdale, McDade & Adam, 2012; Johnson et al., 2011). These behavioural attitudes are bound by adolescents' search for identity and feelings of insecurity, and are affected by the reaction of family members, for example, if the parent is disapproving or supportive, and the frequency of family conflict (Barbot & Hunter, 2012; Johnson et al., 2011; Ogwo, 2013). Self-concept refers to the set of beliefs an individual has about themselves, including the attributes, roles, goals, interests, values and beliefs, whereas self-esteem is how one feels about the things one knows, dislikes or likes (Brooks, 2011). Barni, Ranieri, Scabini and Rosnati (2011) and Shehata and Ramadan (2010) are of the opinion that adolescents that experience emotional change have a consistent need for self-identity in the context of their relationships and interaction with family.



Emotional change causes intense emotional reactions, and mood swings, leading to unhappiness, depression and anxiety between the ages of 15 to 18 years, with differences being experienced by girls and boys (Malaquias, Crespo & Francisco, 2014). Adolescents need emotional development to explore their world and gain experience in dealing with their world, as well as to develop confidence, independence and handling stressful situations (Inguglia, Ingoglia, Liga, Coco & Cricchio, 2014; Blanco-Vega, Castro-Olivo & Merrell, 2008). Relationships with family members, especially the parents that involve communication, interaction, listening to one another and sharing of love and support, assists the adolescent in dealing with situations of conflict (Malaquias et al., 2014). Adolescents exposed to conflict and unstable family conditions report higher levels of depression, low self-esteem and loneliness (Brooks, 2011). Adolescent girls, despite their socio-economic background, experience a high level of depression

and anxiety, whereas boys have an increase in violent and aggressive behaviour (Carlson, 2012). Houlberg, Henry, Merten and Robinson (2011) found that the relationships within the family contributed to the way the adolescent handles depressive symptoms. Similarly, Kao, Gibbs, Clemen-Stone and Duffy (2013) are of the opinion that connectedness within the family functions as a protective factor for adolescents dealing with risky behaviour and will protect them from depressive behaviour. Parental emotional control, for example, where the parent restricts the adolescent's thinking process impacts his/her independence (Hollman, Gorges & Wild, 2016) and contributes to behavioural problems, depression, poor academic performance and relationships with peers (Schwartz, Lansford, Dodge, Pettit & Bates, 2013).

3.2.3 Social development

Adolescents experience a shift from being family-oriented to having increased contact with peers, which leads to their social development (Brooks, 2011). During this period, the adolescent becomes preoccupied with peer groups and experiences an intense desire to belong to a social group. Here, the family values and moral judgements they learnt as a child are challenged (Bireda, 2014). However, although the adolescent becomes more focused on their friends, they still value the connectedness within the family. Similarly, Barbot and Hunter (2012) posited that families that have a close relationship with one another have a positive influence on the behaviour of the adolescent and tend to provide the necessary coping skills for managing peer pressure during adolescence. It also prevents smoking, reduces the use of substances (alcohol and drugs) as well as involvement in risky sexual behaviour. In their study, Lansford, Laird, Pettit, Bates and Dodge (2014) indicated that if the parent maintains awareness and interest in the actions of the adolescent in the family, the adolescent will keep the parent informed about whom

their friends are and their interests. The attitude and respect that the family shows towards the adolescent's need for autonomy, determines how he/she responds to the rules and discipline in the household (Hardway & Fuligni, 2006).

Connectedness with parents, friends, and siblings is therefore important for the sharing of decisions and for healthy development. The absence of these leads to negative behaviour and adolescents becoming more reliant on friendships outside of the home. This in turn fosters antisocial behaviour that brings them in conflict with the law (Portner & Riggs, 2016).

3.3 Adolescence in conflict with the law

Adolescent criminal behaviour is a worldwide concern; it is considered a major social problem that has no racial or cultural boundaries (Deutsch, Crockett, Wolff & Russell, 2012). China and Thailand have experienced an escalation of youth becoming involved in criminal activities and violence (Weng, Ran & Chui, 2016; Sukyirun, 2016). In Eastern European countries, male adolescents are mostly involved in crimes related to the possession of stolen goods, while girls in Latin American countries are intolerant, show less concern for others, and express their behaviour through acts of violence (Cuervo, Villanueva, González, Carrión & Busquets, 2015). In a study done in Gauteng, a province in South Africa, it was found that most crimes that involved adolescents consisted of rape (11.3 %), housebreaking (11.3 %), theft (11.3 %), assault (10 %), and robbery (8.2 %) (Roestenburg & Oliphant, 2012). These adolescents are referred to as 'juvenile delinquents'. According to the South African criminal justice system, this is the umbrella term used for all undesirable behaviour. For the purpose of this study, adolescents in conflict with the law are defined as those adolescents that have been in

conflict with the law through law-breaking or rule-breaking activities and could be held liable for their actions by the criminal justice system (UNICEF, 2008; Skrzypiec, 2013; Petrosino, Turpin-Petrosino, Hollis-Peel & Lavenberg, 2013).

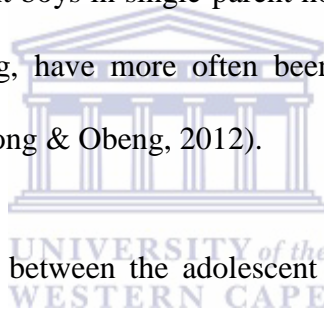
Furthermore, adolescents in conflict with the law are individuals under the age of 18 that are allegedly linked to crime or blamed for crimes that they have committed. These crimes include begging, truancy, running away from home, drug or alcohol abuse, stealing, shoplifting, taking material possessions without asking the owner for consent, bullying, or hurting a person with the intent to mug or steal (UNICEF, 2008; Syngelaki, Fairchild, Moore, Savage & van Goozen, 2013). These adolescents, who are in a transformative stage of their lives, tend to challenge acceptable family and community norms, and become self-centred in their decision-making processes (UNICEF, 2008). Adolescents that are unhappy in their family environment either internalize their feelings, becoming anxious or withdrawn, or externalize their behaviour, becoming more involved in conflicts, having fights and disagreements with other family members (Laizane, 2012), bringing them into conflict with the law. The internalization and the externalization of their behaviour contribute to a lack of emotional control and aggressive behaviour. Several factors contribute to the offending behaviour of adolescents and could be related to gender, socio-economic status, school achievement, peer relationships, and family influences.

3.3.1. Factors influencing adolescents in conflict with the law

3.3.1.1. Gender

In their study, Thompson and Morris (2016) found that males and females differ in their risk-taking behaviour, and that males are more prominent in studies related to

involvement in law-breaking activities, such as theft and assault. In addition, Nilsson (2016) and Harris-McKoy & Cui (2013) report that there are gender differences in the offending behaviour of adolescents, and that adolescent boys are more visible in the committing of crime in comparison to girls. Boys that are in conflict with the law are linked to weak family attachments and show more aggression in comparison to girls (Hoeve et al., 2009; Kruttschnitt & Giordano, 2009; Loeber, Capaldi & Costello, 2013; Weerman, Bernasco, Bruinsma & Pauwels, 2015). According to Blomberg, Bales and Piquero (2012) and Pelsler (2008), most of these adolescent boys in conflict with the law have parents that are divorced, struggle financially, or they experience learning difficulties at school. Adolescent boys in single-parent households, where there is a lack of warmth and less monitoring, have more often been found to be associated with offending behaviour (Wong, Wong & Obeng, 2012).



The relationship and closeness between the adolescent and the parent determines the behaviour outcomes of both boys and girls and are a determining factor for involvement in risky behaviour (Destin, Richman, Varner & Mandara 2012; Nilsson, 2016). Even though boys are traditionally associated with offending behaviour, girls who experience unhappiness with themselves or in their home environment tend to become involved in risky behaviour (Zahn-Waxler, Shirtcliff & Marceau, 2008). Female adolescents exposed to trauma or disruptive experiences within their home environment are predisposed to status offending, meaning they run away from home or become truant (Puzzanchera, 2010; Thompson & Morris, 2016).

Furthermore, sexual abuse or abusive family environments have an effect on the behaviour of female adolescents and their involvement in antisocial behaviour (Smith, Chamberlain & Deblinger, 2012; Leve, Chamberlain & Kim, 2015). According to Harden and Mendle (2011), adolescents that are sexually active or drawn into early sexual behaviour are easily susceptible to delinquent behaviour. Adolescents exposed to poor parenting skills in the household, lower socioeconomic status, below average intelligence, or low academic achievement levels in reading and math have a tendency to be involved in crime (Thompson & Morris, 2016; Skowrya & Cocozza, 2007).

3.3.1.2 Socio-economic status

Several studies have linked low socio-economic status with the delinquent behaviour of adolescents (Loeber & Farrington, 2012; Hay, Fortson, Hollist, Altheimer & Schaible, 2007; Rekker, Pardini, Keijsers, Branje, Loeber & Meeus, 2015). Rekker et al., (2015) found a direct link between the socio-economic status of the parent and the socio-economic status of the adolescent and their involvement in risky behaviour. Research done by Defoe, Farrington and Loeber (2013) and Low, Sinclair and Shortt (2012) showed that lower socio-economic status is not necessarily a direct cause of adolescent delinquency but only a contributing factor to their involvement in law-breaking activities. However, Hanson and Chen (2007) and Veselska et al., (2010) found that adolescents with lower socio-economic status are found to have a low self-esteem, poor health outcomes, reduced physical activity, and involvement in risky behaviour.

Furthermore, in families where the adolescent's needs are not met, they tend to become anxious, depressed, develop a low self-esteem, and seek external validation (Olson, Miropolsky & Knutson, 2012). These factors are exacerbated by their living conditions,

for instance, the lack of privacy, and community factors that expose them to family violence and access to dangerous weapons (Loeber & Farrington, 2012; Sukyirun, 2016). In addition, exposure to strained family relationships, poor parenting, and the inability to be affectively monitored affects how and when they are supervised by their parents (Thompson & Morris, 2016; Skowyra & Coccozza, 2007).

3.3.1.3 School outcomes

The school environment provides the opportunity for the positive development of the adolescent and serves as a protective factor for risky behaviour (Chapman, Buckley, Sheehan & Shochet, 2013). However, several factors within the school environment, such as school size, relationships, support received from teachers and acceptance from peers, provide a negative impact on adolescents and the possibility for risk taking behaviour (Yuen et al., 2012; Zhang, Willson et al., 2010). Teachers that are not satisfied with the behaviour or academic progress of the adolescent contribute to the adolescent's disconnection from school, which may lead to risk taking behaviour (Henry, Knight & Thornberry, 2012). The suspension or expulsion from school is a strong predictor of engagement in delinquent behaviour, which includes substance abuse (McAra & McVie, 2007; Smith, Crosnoe & Chao, 2016; Estévez & Emler, 2010)

Most adolescents in conflict with the law have been found to have low academic performance in comparison to their peers (Thompson & Morris, 2016). Poor school performance has been linked to high risk behaviour, and means that these adolescents have lower grades, are unable to cope with the demands of the school curriculum, become more involved in activities outside of school, or spend more time with peers,

seeking their approval and acceptance (Tyler et al., 2008). Adolescents involved in risk-taking behaviour (smoking cigarettes, substance abuse, drug abuse, sexual promiscuity and delinquency) while at school, associate with negative peers and struggle to complete their schooling (Sweeten et al., 2009). Furthermore, adolescents in conflict with the law have a high rate of absenteeism. This may be due to the lack of parental resources or being unmotivated to attend school, which influence their performance at school or creates anxiety about their underperformance (Schoeneberger, 2012). Adolescents that struggle academically report low self-esteem, lack goals, are unmotivated to proceed with schooling, and are vulnerable to commit delinquent acts. Family support and connectedness with the parent has a significant impact on whether the adolescent still stays in school (Stoddard et al., 2011). Parents who spend time with their children and assist their children in developing positive family values ensure good school attendance, whereas dysfunctionality, such as substance abuse and conflict in the family, contribute to adolescents not being able to complete their schooling (Zhang et al., 2010). Adolescents that have not completed their schooling have a strong reliance on their friends and a minimum level of interaction with their family.

3.3.1.4 Peer involvement

Peer connections have been identified as a strong predictor of delinquent behaviour (Vitulano, Fite & Rathert, 2010). Adolescents who have a close connection with a delinquent peer are more likely to engage in delinquent behaviour, than those who do not (Piehler & Dishion, 2007; Vernig, 2011; Vazquez, 2010). In their search for identity, adolescents want to be autonomous and place a high regard on the choices that they make, for example, the friends that they choose and the clothes that they wear (Brown &

Baken, 2011; Svensson & Oberwittler, 2010). Their desire to be accepted by their peers becomes overwhelming. They therefore adhere to the norms and behaviour of their friends to gain acceptance, for example, participate in drug use or the use of illegal substances (Newman, Lohman & Newman, 2007; Martinez et al., 2015). Adolescents that have the need to be admired by their peers become sensation seekers, more aggressive, and engage in gang-related activities as a form of identity formation (Dmitrieva, Gibson, Steinberg, Piquero & Fagan, 2014).

Adolescents that lack parental supervision and monitoring are vulnerable, experience feelings of insecurity and spend most of their time on the streets with their friends where they are exposed to high risk friendships, drugs, or conflict with the police (Vitulano et al., 2010; Mulvey et al., 2010; Blomberg et al., 2012). Boys spend more time unsupervised and are more dependent on peer relations in personal identity formation than girls (Nawaz, 2011; Weerman et al., 2015). Adolescents that spend more time socializing in public unsupervised by adults are at greater risk (Weerman et al., 2015). Similarly, Rubin, Bukowski, & Bowker (2015) state that peer relations become increasingly important to the adolescent and that this influences the adolescent's behaviour, skills, attitudes, and interaction with their parents.

Exposure to disruptive peer behaviour (as well as that of significant others) has an influence on adolescent offending behaviour (Tatar II, Cavanagh & Cauffman, 2016). Adolescents do not function in isolation; their social environment and family background directly influence their decision-making and behaviour (i.e. delinquent acts) (Yucel & Yuan, 2016). However, in their study, Goldweber, Dmitrieva, Cauffman, Piquero and

Steinberg (2011) indicate that not all adolescents involved in criminal activities collaborate with a social group, some act independently, others involve another person, while still other do it both ways. Most adolescents in conflict with the law have peer relations that have the intention to defy adult norms, are organized, and react in specific ways that indicate their cohesiveness (Poulin & Chan, 2010).

3.3.1.5 Community influences

Community influences are two-fold, in that they produce structural stability through the consistency and duration of social relationships, but also provide instability and adolescent behavioural problems through the weakening of social networks and adolescents' ties to key institutions (Thorlindsson & Bernburg, 2009). Neighbourhood conditions, for example, the selling of drugs, abandoned buildings and crime predefines the possibility of gang membership and the association with negative peers (Gilman, Hill, Hawkins, Howell & Kosterman, 2014). Adolescents living in disadvantaged communities are deprived of resources, such as the lack of library and sport facilities and creative spaces, which contributes to the exposure of negative influences and demoralization (Jackson, 2014).

In addition, adolescents in disadvantaged communities are more exposed to violence, weapon carrying, alcohol, marijuana and early sexual intercourse than youth in advantaged communities (Braithwaite, Steele, Spjut, Dowdle & Harper, 2015; Stoddard et al., 2011; Stoddard, Whiteside, Zimmerman, Cunningham, Chermack & Walton, 2013). Adolescents that experience their community as safe and supportive, and whose parents care about them are able to develop self-control and are less likely to get

involved in risky behaviours, such as alcohol and drug use (Mayberry, Espelage & Koenig, 2009). Family disruption and transition influences adolescent outcomes and undermines the durable features of the community (Bernburg & Thorlindsson, 2007; Thorlindsson & Bernburg, 2009).

3.3.1.6 Impact of adolescent behaviour on the family

Delinquent adolescents are constantly in conflict with their parents creating an atmosphere in the home environment filled with unhappiness, tension and rage, which influences the time parents want to spend with them (Gault-Sherman, 2012; Bessa, Eldemire & Pleth-Suka, 2015). The bi-directional relationship between the parent and the adolescent is disrupted by the tension, and feelings of inadequacy lead to change within the family setting (Gault-Sherman, 2012; Keijsers, Loeber, Branje & Meeus, 2011; Abar, Jackson & Wood, 2014). The behaviour of the adolescent in conflict with the law changes the parental vision, and these parents become less interested in the views, ideas, hope or choices of the adolescent (Hollmann, Gorges & Wild, 2016). Furthermore, mothers that constantly worry about how their children are perceived experience fatigue and maternal stress (Grolnick & Seal, 2008; Bessa et al., 2015). Parental distress leads to anger, and the parenting process is thus experienced as a burden to the family (Low et al., 2012). Kim and Page (2013) are of the opinion that the parent-adolescent relationship is the basis for all family interaction.

Kubacka, Finkenauer, Rusbult and Keijsers (2011) state that the quality of the parenting relationship impacts parental monitoring and control, for example, if there is a lack of attachment, it is difficult to ensure that chores are done. Adolescents that receive less

emotional support from the parent tend to be more involved in violent actions and do not adhere to rules (Kim & Page, 2013). The adolescent's unwillingness to complete tasks may prevent the parent from making the same requests, preventing the adolescent from personal growth or taking co-responsibility for family tasks. According to Calvete et al., (2014), adolescents react aggressively towards parents, especially in families where family violence is evident, taking control of the household and influencing sibling behaviour in a similar manner. Parental attitudes become controlling, unemotional and disapproving in their reaction to the behaviour of the adolescent, which leads to an increase in delinquent behaviour (Cook, 2013). Families that are experiencing high stress levels tend to make use of punitive parenting, for example, verbal abuse (name-calling) or physical punishment (Hinnant et al., 2015; Parent, McKee & Forehand, 2016). Verbal abuse from the parent is a form of blame and an expression of disapproval towards the adolescent. Collins, Cox and Leonard (2015) add that non-delinquent siblings are treated differently from the adolescent in conflict with the law, creating frustration, which leads to increased delinquency. Having discussed how adolescents in conflict with the law are constructed, the next section will focus on how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.

3.4. Families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law

3.4.1 Family structure

Families are crucial to the development of the adolescent and provide the opportunity for social learning through role modelling behaviour and the formation of close relationships (Dufur, McKune, Hoffmann & Bahr, 2007; Walper & Wendt, 2015). A family is defined as two or more individuals that share the following commonalities: biological

connections, common identity, collective values, and household (Crosnoe & Cavanagh, 2010; Mckie & Callan, 2012). Family members have interdependent relationships; their behaviour provides an essential element for normal physical, cognitive and emotional development by providing support and warmth, and nurturing to its members (Sohail & Shamama-tus-Sabah, 2016). In addition, adolescents are shaped and transformed through their interaction with others. Family resources, such as time and support, also affect transformation. Thus, the adolescent does not function or develop in isolation (Arnold, Lucier-Greer, Mancini, Ford & Wickrama, 2017).

Families are constructed according to various groupings, for example, the nuclear family (two-parent married family), single-parent family, and the extended family (grandparents, uncles or aunts), and have a diverse setting where family interaction and growth takes place (Walsh 2012). These interactions are based on the parental figures that are present in the household, available resources, and parental practices, affecting the relationship with the adolescent. These family interactions within the different family structures both have advantages and disadvantages for the physical, emotional, and social development of the adolescent (Craigie, Brooks-Gunn & Waldfogel, 2010).

3.4.1.1 Nuclear family

Nuclear or two-parent married families present the most stability, especially if the biological parents are physically and emotionally present in the adolescent's life since birth. Nuclear families are the oldest and most traditional form of family formation where both the mother and father are wed by law and live with their children (Bilal, Tariq, Aleem, Shabbir & Parveen, 2013). The literature is replete with studies documenting that when an adolescent is living with both his/her biological mother and

father present in the household, the family is intact and positive behavioural outcomes are envisaged, such as strong parent–child relationships, attachment to school, and less involvement in delinquency (Dufur et al., 2007; Kierkus & Hewit, 2009; Frantz, Smith & Sixaba, 2015). Similarly, Ikäheimo, Laukkanen, Hakko and Räsänen (2013) noted that when both biological parents are present in the household, the adolescent’s involvement in crime is delayed or postponed. Furthermore, adolescents that share a household with their biological married parents tend to have a strong conformity to religion and are able to cope better in times of adversity compared to those that live with only one parent (Low et al., 2012; Sohail, & Shamama-tus-Sabah, 2016).

Married couples experience the benefit of sharing their financial income and are able to divide the labour and time spent with their children, putting less strain on one partner in comparison to single-parent families (Roman, 2011; Stoleru, Radu, Antal & Szigeti, 2011; Cheung, 2015). Parents that assist one another in household tasks and caregiving responsibilities reflect the interdependency of their relationship, and their role modelling of behaviour influences the adolescent (Barnett & Gareis, 2007; Butler, Bass & Grzywacz, 2009). Healthy spousal relationships and positive feedback within the household positively influences the adolescents coping abilities in a stressful environment, assist with the regulating of emotions, minimalizes conflict in the household, and delays his/her involvement in offending behaviour (Ikäheimo, Laukkanen, Hakko & Räsänen, 2013). Married families are able to provide consistent and balanced monitoring of the adolescent, which deters involvement in conflict behaviour (Booth, Scott & King, 2010) and facilitates communication between parents and their children, strengthening the child-parent bond.

The amount of time parents spend with the adolescent promotes a close connection between family members, which fosters positive socio-emotional well-being and decreases health problems (Bzostek, 2008). Married families in relation to single-parent families provide more stability and ensure that the adolescent's material and physical needs are being met (Fomby & Bosick, 2013). For example, an environment that provides the adolescent with housing and food security, and secure relationships, fosters positive behavioural patterns, as the adolescent feels loved and accepted in such relationships (Osborne & McLanahan, 2007). Furthermore, children in married biological parent families cope better with developmental challenges in comparison to single or cohabitating families (Parks, 2013).

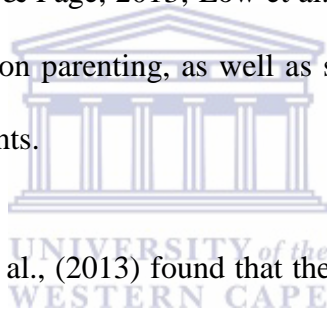
It should, however, be noted that some married families experience marital conflict, parental dysfunction, and instability due to financial insecurities or relational problems. Children who grow up in environments where married parents are constantly arguing or fighting, tend to struggle academically, psychologically, and have behaviour problems, showing a diminished difference between adolescents that live in single-parent and step-parent families (Musick & Meier, 2012). Dysfunctional marital relationships expose adolescents to violence and abuse, which causes unhappiness and the externalizing of behaviour, involvement in substance abuse, or becoming sexually active at an early age. This is in contrast to adolescents that have a parental environment that is more stable (Pike, Coldwell & Dunn, 2005). Dysfunctional married relationships present a lack of warmth and exposure to substance abuse and financial constraints in the household, similar to families with only one parent.

3.4.1.2 Single-parent families

Single-parent families are families headed by one biological parent who is widowed, divorced, not remarried, or has never been married (Gotea & Busioc, 2016; Fučík, 2016). The defining characteristic of single-parent families is the absence of one biological parent, with mothers being responsible for the raising of their children in the absence of a father in the household (Minnotte, 2012; Goldscheider, 2014; Chapman et al., 2013). According to Statistics South Africa (2015) and confirmed by Holborn and Eddie (2011), most South African households are managed by single parents, usually headed by single mothers. Adolescents within these households are primarily reliant on the mother, the sole caregiver, to provide their basic and developmental needs, due to the absence of their biological father (Bastaitis & Mortelmans, 2014; Chang, 2013).

Economic deprivations experienced by single-parent families lead to instability. Most often, renting rather than owning a house becomes the norm, and mothers tend to develop a low self-esteem, which affects their relationship with their children (Roman, 2011). In a report by the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA), 10,789,595 million women were dependent on child support grants to support their children (UNICEF, 2014), meaning that these families are more than twice as likely to have stressful family environments compared to dual-parent families (Moore, Jones & Alemi, 2016; Hornberger, Zabriskie & Freenman, 2010). According to Magnuson and Berger (2009), single-parent households typically have the least amount of resources and are thus expected to have worse outcomes for adolescents in relation to children in married or cohabiting unions.

Single parents are unable to adequately provide for the physical needs of the adolescent, for example, food, clothing and shelter, which also results in the inadequate provision of attention, physical contact, or affection (Malik & Irshad, 2012). Ineffective parenting or neglect causes adolescents to become more dependent upon themselves, increasing the risk for delinquent behaviour (Berger, 2006). For adolescent's living in under-resourced communities, poverty, low income, and inadequate living conditions influence the time spent with them and leads to inconsistency in the parenting relationship (Gustavsen, Nayga & Wu, 2015; Goldscheifer, 2014). Financial strain, the absence of the father, and poverty contribute to conflict between family members, influencing parenting and the adherence of family rules (Kim & Page, 2013; Low et al., 2012; Leve et al., 2015). This influences the time they spend on parenting, as well as supervising and monitoring the behaviour problems of adolescents.



A study done in Chile by Ho et al., (2013) found that the biological fathers contribution in the lives of their children enhanced positive relationships and had better academic and social outcomes for adolescents. However, the relationship between the unwed father and the biological mother of the adolescent determines the father's involvement and relationship with the adolescent, affecting what the father wants and how they contribute to the development of the adolescent (Ryan, Kalil & Ziol-Guest, 2008; Tach, Mincy & Edin, 2010). Fathers that live apart from their biological children get involved in other relationships, have other children, and are less involved in their children's lives; this heightens the strain experienced by single mothers (Skevik, 2006).

Lerman (2010) is of the opinion that the input and relationship educated fathers have with their child is more positive, despite mothers having relationships with others, i.e. a sibling or another partner. The father's ability to handle conflict and the constructive way in which it is done contributes to the emotional safety and the adolescent's perceptions and handling of conflict (Cheung, Cummings, Zhang & Davies, 2015). Biological fathers that are in conflict with a cohabitating father or husband of the mother or the biological mother, relates to a stressful environment, and results in less involvement from the biological father and behavioural problems in the adolescent (Bzostek, 2008). Adolescents living in these conflicting environments are filled with frustration, anger, and struggle to accept the void in their lives, but seldom voice their feelings (Nduna & Sikweyiya, 2015). Stressful situations and chronic stress creates a heightened state of arousal, which influences their brain functions, result in poor academic performance, and deters the adolescent's ability to regulate their emotions (Evans & Schamberg, 2009). High levels of conflict and low levels of cohesion amongst family members are a strong contributor to conduct problems in relation to socio-economic status, stress level, and parental satisfaction (Street, Harris-Brit & Walker-Barnes, 2009).

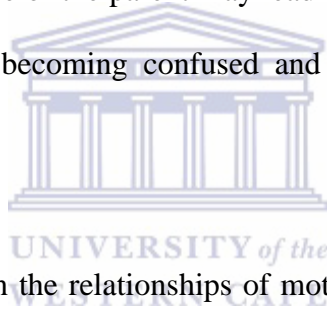
The absence of fathers in the lives of single mothers and the lack of connection with the adolescent contributes to early school dropout, offending behaviour, and impedes the transition into adulthood (Holborn & Eddy, 2011; Ratele, Shefers & Clowes, 2012). Furthermore, adolescents staying in a single-parent family with an uninvolved father tend to experience hardship, inconsistent family relationships, and mothers that are experiencing continuous difficulty, thus influencing their externalizing behaviour (Tach et al., 2010; Nepomnyashy & Garfinkel, 2011). Boys living with only one single parent

are prone to delinquent behaviour, in relation to girls who are more vulnerable when they have to live in a stepfamily (Vanassche, Sodermans, Matthijs & Swicegood, 2013). In addition, the absence of the father tends to influence the formation of secure attachment, the adolescent's need for control, parental support, and adequate role models, which are prevalent in intact settings (Dufur et al., 2007; Sohail & Shamama-tus-Sabah, 2016; Waldfogel, Craigie, & Brooks-Gunn, 2010).

3.4.1.3 Extended families

The extended family is a grouping related by descent, marriage, or adoption, and is broader than the nuclear family. It is a structure of collective responsibility for its members, even if all of them do not live together in the same household. Grandfathers and uncles within the extended family exert a large influence on male adolescents, and grandmothers and aunts on female adolescents. This contributes to emotional development and provides support, especially in low socio-economic families (Alexander, 2008; Kiralya & Humphreys, 2013). In addition, grandparents provide increasing care and support in households where both parents have to work, where families experience breakdown, and where there is only one parent taking responsibility for the children (Attar-Schwartz, Buchanan, Flouri, & Griggs, 2009). Adolescents that stay in households where the extended family is supportive and both parents are married experience limited depression or anxiety, and reduced involvement in risky behaviour (Antonucci, Birditt, Sherman & Trinih, 2011). The extended family is an important resource for adolescents and provides protection against high-risk behaviours during parental divorce, re-marriage or family transitions (Attar-Schwartz & Fuller-Thomson, 2017)

However, these families are large and have to share the same space. They comprise demanding relationships that hinder family interaction and lead to family disagreements (Marteleto & de Souza, 2012). Large families create a lack of privacy and overcrowding, with adolescents being less prominent in their households. Due to the lack of resources and the family being unable to meet their emotional needs, the adolescent may become withdrawn from the family (Abella, 2016). This presents the risk of forming negative peer connections and being exposed to destructive community influences in disadvantaged communities (Lonardo, Giordano, Longmore & Manning, 2009). Furthermore, negative interactions between family members, for example, interference or criticism of the parenting style of the parent may lead to dissatisfaction within the kin relationships with adolescents becoming confused and disrespectful (Taylor, Brown, Chatters & Lincoln, 2012).



Extended family involvement in the relationships of mothers that are very young when they gave birth are overtly responsive towards the romantic partners of these mothers, leading to partner separation and adolescents having to grow up without one biological parent (Mollborn & Jacobs, 2015; Furstenberg, 2007). However, if the extended family has a positive relationship with the parents of the adolescent, they will promote parental involvement and provide an environment for positive growth (Ryan et al., 2008). Typically, these families are characterized by overcrowding, large numbers, and poor parental supervision. These factors create conflict and frustration, and contribute to delinquency (Serewicz & Canary, 2008).

3.4.1.4 Divorced families

In sub-Saharan Africa, parental divorce is linked to poor health, development, and low survival rates for adolescents in relation to their peers that have married mothers in a supportive environment (Smith-Greenaway & Clark, 2015; Chae, 2013). Most South African families are fractured, meaning the families struggle with divorce, death of a partner, violence, and substance abuse in families, which affects family relationships (Holborn & Eddie, 2011). Chhabra and Sodhi (2012), in their study done with 500 male adolescents in rural and urban areas, found that 39.5 % of adolescents in age group of 14-16 years' experience family problems and conflict on a daily basis. Family conflict resulting from parental conflict and divorce has a direct influence on family relationships and the social adaptation of adolescents in relation to their peers who stays in stable intact families (Hadžikapetanović et al., 2017).

A disruption in their relationships as a result of divorce, especially with paternal grandparents, is a predictor of adolescent behavioural problems (Attar-Schwartz & Fuller-Thomson, 2017). It is reported that parental separation is associated with a wide range of adverse effects on children's well-being (Amato, 2010; McGuirk & Mai, 2016). Adolescents that come from broken homes tend to display anger, conflict, addictive behaviours, and show a strong dependence on the mother in the absence of the father (Mooney, Oliver & Smith, 2009). Anger towards one parent for leaving the household has a detrimental effect on the psychological development of the adolescent, such as constantly feeling sad, insecure, depressed, and abandoned (Motataianu, 2015). Marital conflict forces the adolescent to choose sides, which leads to emotional detachment from the parent and a weakening of the family bond (Ellison, Walker, Glenn & Marquardt, 2011). Mothers, who are the custodian of their children after divorce struggle to adapt to

their new lifestyle without support from the other parent, and these powerful demands reshape the mother's relationship with her children and the quality of her parenting (Wallerstein, Lewis & Packer Rosenthal, 2013).

When change is experienced, adolescents become unsure about the support of both the mother and the father, and this influences their conflict and problem-solving abilities (Düşek & Ayhan, 2014). The quality of the father's relationship with his children is affected when the marital relationship is legally terminated (Sandler, Wheeler & Braver 2013). Furthermore, parental remarriage and the relocation of one parent contributes to the deterioration of parent-child interaction and the psychosocial functioning of the adolescent (Juby, Billette, Laplante & Le Bourdais, 2007; Modecki, Hagan, Sandler & Wolchik, 2015). Additionally, mothers who are divorced live in reduced economic circumstances, which subsequently lead to suffering in many female-headed households (Teachman & Paasch, 1994; Grall, 2013). Parental remarriage and marital discord increases the risk of behavioural, emotional, social and academic problems amongst children (Amato, 2010) and a decline in the father-child relationship (Wallerstein et al., 2013). Furthermore, divorced families show the most instability, family dysfunction, and contain elements of child neglect, abuse, or disruptive behaviour, which results in conflict on a regular basis (Arkes, 2015).

There is a direct link between family structure and adolescent development and outcomes. The availability of members to adequately provide support, family dysfunction, and family instability in all families contribute to adolescent development, to adolescents being involved in conflict with the law, and are further affected by substance abuse and conflict within these households.

3.4.1.5 Substance abuse in families

Parental substance abuse provides the environment for child abuse, neglect and substance abuse (Chen & Gueta, 2016; Skeer, McCormick, Normand, Buka, & Gilman, 2009), as well as poor physical development and adolescent behavioural problems (Thornberry, Henry, Ireland & Smith, 2010). Caregivers that are abusing substances tend to be chaotic, unpredictable and inconsistent in their family environments, and contribute to adolescents getting involved in friendships away from the family (Slomkowski et al., 2009; Spaeth, Weichold, Silbereisen & Wiesner, 2010). In such families, individual family members are not able to express their needs, feelings and wishes. There is therefore a lack of communication and understanding in such families (Schultz & Alpaslan, 2016). The family environment and inconsistent rule setting by parents, contribute to adolescent dysfunction, frustration and adolescents being consistently angry (Cousins et al., 2007). For example, parents that are not consistent in their rule setting tend to be strict at one time and indifferent at other times, with no family promises being kept. These family environments affect adolescents physically and emotionally, and they tend to seek love, attention and support outside the boundaries of their family environment (Lukman et al., 2011). Adolescents whose parents have a favourable attitude toward substance use are more likely to use substances themselves; for example, boys that have alcoholic fathers tend to have a likelihood of becoming involved in substance use. Parental substance abuse intensifies family conflict and influences the closeness and lack of involvement or interest in their children. Similar to this, Van de Rakt et al., (2009), mentioned that there is a link between parental involvement in crime and the criminal behaviour of their children. Furthermore, it is noted that the parental

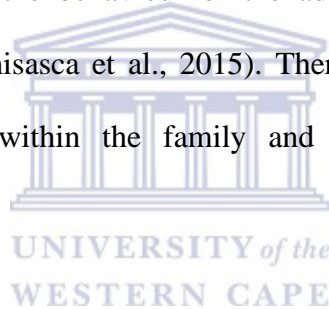
role modelling of behaviour has a direct influence on the behaviour of the adolescent. Families that live in an environment where substances are abused, experience an atmosphere of hatred, less adoration, have fewer friendships and reduced optimism (Burstein, Stanger & Dumenci, 2012).

In their studies, Bergman, Cummings and Davies (2014) and Kelley et al., (2016) found that adolescents that witness parental conflict (the thrashing of objects, physical beating, and verbal abuse) do not develop coping skills, and become anxious and troubled. However, Liu, Yu, Zhen, Zhang, Su, & Xu, (2016), noted that not all adolescents reacted the same towards the adolescents conflicting behaviour. An increase in conflict between parents heightens the risk of deviant behaviour for boys, and substance use for girls (Vanassche et al., 2013; Snyder, Cummings, Gonzalez-Guarda, & Sandoval, 2013). Zinzow et al., (2009) further indicate that constant exposure to violence in the family and community, influences the family's boundary setting, as well as values and respect that family members have for each other, and the parental hope for the family. Adolescents in conflict with the law, who witness violence and drug abuse in the home tend to run away from the home, roaming around with friends, and become involved with drugs and alcohol (UNICEF, 2008; Wilson Woods, Emerson & Donenberg, 2012).

3.4.1.6 Violence and conflict in families

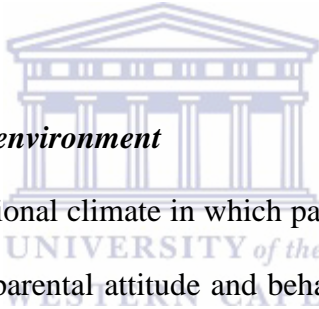
Conflicts in families are normal and rely on positive problem-solving and the showing of affection in well-functioning families, which lead to feelings of happiness amongst its members. Most of the conflict in families is based on the lack of financial resources, substance abuse, poverty and involvement in crime (Roestenburg & Oliphant, 2012).

Inter-parental violence is the damaging interaction between parents that involves continuous arguments, physical fights, and parents not talking to one another or the use of bad language, which predicts violence and aggression if witnessed by adolescents (Lohman, Stewart, Gundersen, Garasky & Eisenmann, 2009; Black et al., 2011). The relationship between the mother and the adolescent is altered by parental conflict, increasing maternal stress (Gibson-Davis & Gassman-Pines, 2010; Camisasca, Miragoli & Di Blasio, 2016). Maternal stress is when the mother is frustrated, concerned or fixated with the behaviour of the child (Camisasca, Miragoli & Di Blasio, 2014). Ponnet et al., (2013) state that the stress experienced by the father is increased by marital conflict, and tends to worsen the behaviour of the adolescent, resulting in negative parent-child relationships (Camisasca et al., 2015). Therefore, parental conflict has an impact on the relationships within the family and specifically the parent child relationships.



Families that experience high levels of marital conflict tend to use negative ways to address conflict, become unsympathetic, behave violently, and withdraw from their children (Camisasca et al., 2015). The family interaction is comprised of threats and blame, and children become sad, angry, and vulnerable to negative peer influences (Buehler & Welsh, 2009; Camisasca et al., 2014). Adolescents that live in an environment filled with conflict and tension have difficulty connecting to parents and significant others, resulting in assault and verbal abuse towards parents (Kennedy, Edmonds, Dann & Burnett, 2010). Consistent with this, a study in Spain by Calvete et al., (2014) found a link between parent-child violence, conflict between spouses, the

violence that exist within the family, and lenient parenting. Adolescents respond to violence between parents by running away from home, or abusing alcohol and drugs, which leads to emotional separation from their parents (Fosco & Grych, 2008). In addition, the lack of connection and the emotional tension within the family contributes to adolescent alcohol abuse. It is important to note that research shows a link between parental monitoring and parental warmth and the affect that this has on the adolescent's beliefs system and his/her use of substances (Hemovich, Lac & Crano, 2011). Due to dysfunctional family behaviour, the parenting environment results in negative adolescent behaviour and adds to the extensive violence and abuse that occurs within these families (Hou, Kim & Wang, 2016).



3.4.1.7 Parenting in a stressful environment

Parenting is defined as the emotional climate in which parents interact and transfer skills to the adolescent through their parental attitude and behaviour (Bastaitis & Mortelmans, 2014). Kauser and Pinquart (2016) and Pearl, French, Dumas, Moreland and Prinz (2014) found that the parenting style of the parent influences the child's reaction, the quality of the family relationship, and the social environment in which children are raised. For example, if the parent experiences stress, it influences their parenting role, as well as their ability to satisfy the emotional needs of their children and the way they deal with problematic behaviour. Furthermore, high amounts of tension, anger and stress prevent parents from sufficiently supporting and protecting their children. As a result, they inconsistently enforce parental rules and lack positive responses, such as approval and praise for positive behaviour by the adolescent (Camisasca et al., 2015).

Inconsistent discipline in families causes risky behaviour. For example, if the adolescent becomes truant at school, and there are no parental rules to enforce or a lack of discipline, the adolescent's behaviour will escalate, and he/she will rely on their own decision making, which has less boundaries. Parents that are inconsistent in their disciplining style communicate the message that the desires of the adolescent are paramount to those of other individuals in society, and that the consequences of their actions are irrelevant (Halgunseth, Perkins, Lippold & Nix, 2013). Furthermore, non-responsive parents that do not address the adolescent's needs, use manipulation by shaming or withdrawing physical affection, which has a detrimental effect on the development of the adolescent (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). This demonstrates a permissive parenting style, where the parent has few expectations and little control or accountability towards their children (Baumrind, 2005; Ahmadi & Saadat, 2015).

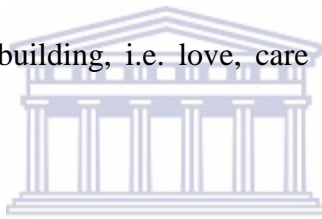
However, the instability within the parent-adolescent relationship causes parental depression, which is transferred to the adolescent through their interaction (Branje, 2017). Depression and the low socio-economic environment of the parents leads to harsh and punitive parenting, resulting in disruptive adolescent behaviour (Rochelle & Cheng, 2015; Lansford, Wager, Bates, Pettit & Dodge, 2012). According to the study done by Lansford, et al., 2014, disruptive behaviour is related to the frequency of parental discipline. Harsh parenting is defined as a family environment where the parent is extremely punitive, controlling the behaviour of the adolescent, deterring the adolescent's ability to self-regulate or control their own behaviour (Papp, Kouros & Cummings, 2010; Skeer, McCormick, Normand, Buka & Gilman, 2009). Harsh punitive parenting in a single-parent environment results in less control over the adolescent, who

in turn tends to become rebellious or withdrawn from family interaction (Hamama & Arazi, 2012). Parents then go to the extreme when disciplining the adolescent, which leads to physical abuse, especially when corporal punishment is used (Bosmans, Braet, Beyers, Van Leeuwen & Van Vlierberghe, 2011). In addition to corporal punishment, parents deprive adolescents from privileges, use penalty tasks, or use inductive discipline, for example, ignoring misbehaviour as a means to control the adolescent's behaviour (Bosmans et al., 2011).

Mothers who abuse substances and experience family conflict are linked to harsh parenting and behavioural problems in children (Connors-Burrow et al., 2012). There is a direct link between single parents, especially mothers, who have a high degree of stress, depression and anxiety, and adolescent behaviour problems, in contrast to children living with both parents (Malik & Irshad, 2012). Similar to this, Kauser and Pinquart (2016) found that maternal parenting styles had a stronger link to juvenile delinquency than paternal parenting style. Therefore, if adolescents experience an insecure relationship with their mother, it influences all their other relationships, including their romantic partners in adulthood (Walper & Wendt, 2015). In executing the parenting role, positive parenting is an effective support strategy, and enforcing discipline lessens anxiety and stress (Jongerden & Bögels, 2015). Phillips (2012), states that the emotional environment of the family is more important for adolescent development than the persons who are in the family. However, research indicates that an unbalanced and dysfunctional family environment leads to parental stress, adolescent behavioural problems, and the weakening of the relationship between the adolescent and the family (Staton-Tindall, Sprang, Clark, Walker & Craig, 2013; Akin, Brook & Lloyd, 2015).

3.5 Family Connectedness

Connectedness is defined by the adolescent's attachments and engagement with others in his/her environment and is fostered by support and a sense of belonging (Bernat & Resnick, 2009). Connectedness is the showing of interest, assisting with distress or through the valuable communication with another human being that provides mutual satisfaction (Walsh, 2012). Trust and dependency is fundamental in the building of a connection that is sustainable and provides the opportunity for socialization (Barber & Schluterman, 2008). Connectedness, therefore, occurs when two people, for example, an adolescent and his/her mother, father, extended family member or older sibling share the basic elements of relationship building, i.e. love, care and support (Ratele, Shefer & Clowes, 2012).



Family connectedness is the broader concept for the interaction between these significant other subsystems (parents, brothers, sisters and extended family) that are based on a biological identity and where the adolescent feels supported, cared for, and a sense of closeness (Stoddard et al., 2011). Connectedness among families ensures that relationships are built and maintained, creating a sense of fulfilment through the space and affection that they share (Houlberg et al., 2011; Abubakar, de Vijver, Mazrui, Murugami & Arasa, 2014). Families that are connected share a particular family bond that is characteristic of the closeness between the parents, support, warmth and the availability of its members (Manzi & Brambilla, 2014).

3.5.1 Connectedness between spousal partners

Love, support and care are fundamental to the adolescent feeling satisfied with the family relationships. The role modelling of these values is present in the quality of the relationship between the mother and father, how they respond and show affection towards each other (Rosenberg & Wilcox, 2006). Fathers that are invested in the marital relationship are physically present in the family and spend time with their children, resulting in positive behavioural outcomes (Givertz, Segrin & Hanzal, 2009). For example, if a mother receives warmth, love and attention from the father of her children, she will feel supported, have less stress and be able to parent effectively. The quality of the relationship between the spouses has an influence on parenting. It helps support and deal with conflict as well as the adolescent's need for autonomy and relatedness (Ehrenberg, Robertson & Pringle, 2012). Adolescent boys whose fathers are present and who have a respectful relationship with their mother, show less aggression, whereas girls become less involved in relationships that are dysfunctional. Adolescents that are closely connected to family members have a sense of belonging, feel emotionally supported, and are protected from hopelessness, worthlessness and unhappiness (Houlberg et al., 2011). The value of the relationship between the adolescent and his/her family is measured by the degree of family connectedness within the family (Stuart & Jose, 2014). Bernat and Resnick (2009) found that it is essential for adolescents to have one parent that they can rely on and provide them with warmth. Dysfunctional spousal relationships that include extramarital affairs, divorce, and/or separation are destabilizing, weaken the family bond, and affects how the adolescent deals with stress and anger (Rhoades, Stanley, Markman & Ragan, 2012). Furthermore, alcoholism, abuse or violence leads to family dysfunction

and disconnection when adolescents become dissatisfied with family relationships. Parental relationships with the adolescent are affected by the presence of a half sibling or siblings from different partners, meaning that these parents become less available and supportive of their own children (Tillman & Nam, 2008). Parental figures in these relationships are unhappy, with constant threats being made; they react unfairly to their children, project rejection, and show anger and disapproval (Konishi & Hymel, 2014). Ryder (2007) found that adolescent girls that have a lack of connection with their caregivers have parents that are emotionally unavailable. Furthermore, those who are exposed to violence in the household tend to be involved in anti-social behaviour. Adolescents become withdrawn from their parents and are unable to handle the parental strain or stress factors in the family, which contributes to less parental warmth, disconnection from school, and involvement in delinquent behaviour (Youngblade et al., 2007). Parents that become disengaged in their interactional processes promote further disconnection in the family. As a result, adolescents and parents become depressive and dysfunctional in their behaviour (Sheftall, Mathias, Furr & Dougherty, 2013). Adolescents that experience parental disconnection perceive their world as unloving, experience an inability to believe in change, and become withdrawn in their relationship with their parents (Micucci, 2006).

3.5.2 Parent-adolescent connectedness

The bond or attachment between the parent and the adolescent is pivotal to stay connected and to maintain their relationship. Parent-adolescent connectedness takes place through parental interaction that involves the parent showing fondness toward the adolescent, taking interest and getting involved in the life of the adolescent, lessening

conflicting and risky behaviour (Bernat & Resnick, 2009). Securely connected adolescents feel warm and accepted and reach out to their parents when they are troubled or even just to make contact. Securely attached adolescents have a reciprocal relationship with the parent swaying behavioural outcomes with fewer mental health problems such as anxiety, depression and conduct disorder (Gault-Sherman, 2012). The parent-adolescent relationship has an impact on their participation in delinquent behaviour; however, the distinctive contributing factor is not definable (Hoeve et al., 2009).

Parental interest in the life of the adolescent is important for the development of healthy relationships and independence, even though adolescents need some distance from the parental relationship (Shehata & Ramadaan, 2010; Ponappa et al., 2014). Adolescents need to develop distance from the parent but derive comfort from the closeness and physical availability of the parent to maintain a secure connection. Parents that are actively involved in caring for their children through the giving of advice, sharing of activities, and spending time with them tend to have satisfying connections with their adolescents (Yoo et al., 2013; Hennesy et al., 2012). The support that is being rendered by the parent ensures that the adolescent is able to adapt within society and stay connected to their parents. They also willingly provide information about their whereabouts and accept the parent as an agent for social learning. Secure parent-adolescent relationships help the adolescent to be more understanding, tolerant and sympathetic towards his/her siblings and other family members (Yeo et al., 2011).

Adolescents that have a positive relationship with their parents accept their values, show trust and share their activities and interests with their parents, in contrast to parents that have no or limited interest in the lives of their children (Ponappa et al., 2014). Parents

that are uninvolved have the least parental limitations and interaction with their children and provide the opportunity for negative peer influences and involvement in crime (Dynes et al., 2015). Uninvolved parents consistently show a lack of interest in the adolescent and are physically unavailable or absent in their lives, which facilitates negative peer connections (Junger-Tas, 2012; Lucia et al., 2012). Consequently, adolescents need the presence of family members in the household, as well as communication, interaction and respect to build continuous and sustainable connectedness between its members (Walsh, 2006; Houlberg et al., 2011).

Permissive parents set limited boundaries and do not acknowledge or are uninformed about their developmental impact on the life of the adolescent, prompting adolescents to have a stronger reliance on their own decision-making without parental guidance (Baumrind, 2005). Parents that are uninvolved and unavailable implicitly communicate to the child that to be loved is unacceptable, widening the relationship gap between the adolescent and his/her family (Barker, 2009). Families that show a lack of interest in the adolescent have difficulty physically expressing or demonstrating love, meaning they don't hug or kiss their children. They are thus presented as showing less warmth in their relationships (Konishi & Hymel, 2014).

Adolescents that feel that their individuality is valued, respected and supported by family members, especially by parents, have more connectedness with their families (Umaña-Taylor, Alfaro, Bámaca & Guimond, 2009). Parental styles and parenting practices that are visible within the household affects family cohesion through the parent-child interaction and the commitment the parent has towards the child (Hennessy et al., 2012).

Parents that are using an authoritative parenting style stay connected to the adolescent. They also provide support and understand the developmental needs of the adolescent. This creates the opportunity for adolescents to learn to respect and accept the viewpoint of other members in the family, by being available and interactive within the family (Baumrind, 2005).

Parenting style and deviant peer interaction directly contributes to adolescent antisocial behaviour (Dynes et al., 2015). The three parenting styles, for example, parental warmth/affection, behavioural control, and psychological control have been associated with the adolescent's adjustment and closeness with his/her family (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005). Therefore, if parents are controlling and invade the privacy of the adolescent it prevents the development of independence and individual decision-making, which affects the quality of the parent-child relationship (Hawk, Hale, Raaijmakers & Meeus, 2008). In addition, overt control of the parent lends itself to trust and communication difficulties between the parent and child, which influences the formation of all other relationships (Shek & Lin, 2016; Yoo et al., 2013).

3.5.3 Sibling relationships

Siblings have the longest relationships with each other, starting from birth and outlasting any other relationship, for example, those with one's parents and spouse (Milevsky, 2016). These relationships create atmosphere, the opportunity for positive interaction, the development of self-esteem, and the acquiring of skills. McDonald and Martinez (2015) found that these relationships are based on confrontation, teasing, and physical fighting on a daily basis, which is socially accepted and makes it difficult to determine whether it is destructive or abusive. In family settings where parental figures have to

work or are not physically available, older siblings or adolescents take co-responsibility of the younger siblings and render care and support (Robertson, Shepherd & Goedeke, 2014).

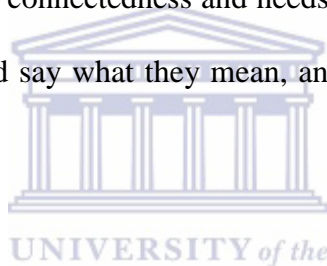
Sibling interaction and communication determine the atmosphere within the family; however, limited research has been done to understand these relationships (Yucel & Yuan, 2016). Most siblings born from a single parent tend to have a brother or sister from a different father (Tach & Edin, 2011). These children experience negative adaptation when the single parent gets married or cohabitates with a spouse that has children, even though they are staying with one biological parent (Sweeney, 2010). Adolescents in blended families have to share overcrowded households and become confused, angry, and experience anxiety, prompting involvement in offending behaviour, especially in contrast to those in stable homes where the siblings have the same biological parents (Ikäheimo et al., 2013). Siblings influence one another, for example, a sibling convicted for a criminal act could be detrimental to the externalizing behaviour of another sibling (Van de Rakt et al., 2009).

Connectedness within the family is a major contributor to the developmental outcomes of the adolescent. Dysfunctionality in these relationships leads to disengagement between the parents as well as between the adolescent and his/her siblings. Furthermore, other contributing factors, family communication and time spent with the adolescent, will be discussed in the next section.

3.6 Factors contributing to family connectedness

3.6.1 Family communication

Communication is a voluntarily process between members within the family and is defined as the transmission of information that requires a sender, receiver, and feedback, building connectedness (Le Poire, 2006). The messages that are conveyed between the members of the family are intentional and have a shared meaning among related individuals who are responsible for nurturing or controlling adolescent behaviour. Communication can be verbal and non-verbal and is primarily responsible for the behaviour of related individuals. Communication within the family environment is an essential part of building family connectedness and needs clear and consistent messages; in other words, members should say what they mean, and be honest and direct (Walsh, 2012).



Families with high conversation orientation are constantly in interaction with each other; they can discuss a wide variety of issues without any time limit (Hashemi, Kooshesh & Eskandari, 2015). These open discussions in the family environment allow the family to address difficult issues, stimulating moral reasoning of the adolescent and a stronger connectedness with the family (Vieira, 2015). Families that are conversation driven are actively involved with one another through continuous dialogue and decision-making, encouraging adolescents to show respect and acceptance (Houlberg et al., 2011). Adolescents who have financially stable and educated families communicate the most with their mothers and siblings, and the least with their fathers, in relation to adolescents from low socio-economic environments (Dwairy & Achoui, 2010). Parents who discuss the adolescent's behaviour by showing interest in what they are doing and with whom

they spend their time, have well-adjusted children with positive behaviours and are less likely to be involved in delinquent behaviour (Willoughby & Hamza, 2011). Mothers spend more time with the adolescent and their relationship involves constant communication and the showing of affection (Houltberg et al., 2011). Sher-Censor (2015), states that the mother-adolescent interaction influences connectedness with girls and boys. However, De Los Reyes, Ohannessian and Laird (2016) are of the opinion that parents and adolescents have different perceptions regarding the openness of their communication. Similarly, in their research, De Los Reyes et al., (2016) found that adolescents engaging in risky behaviour report lower levels of family cohesion, family satisfaction, parental monitoring and communication with parents.

Communication that is primarily focused on the decision-making of the primary caregiver, who determines the rules, beliefs and values of the family through the use of power and control, causes adolescents to feel less valued and doubt their decision-making skills (Laible, Eye & Carlo, 2008). These families speak less to one another and just follow the guiding rules of the primary caregiver, leading to families becoming disconnected and the externalizing of adolescent behaviour (Yeo et al., 2011). The clarity of the message influences how the rules and roles within the household are interpreted. If the communication is vague, distorted, or left unresolved, it breeds anxiety, confusion and misunderstanding. Blurred boundaries and the blockage of the sharing of information lead to secrecy and the internalizing of behaviour in the adolescent. Parents that remarry or experience marital conflict tend to avoid discussions that could lead to conflict and become withdrawn or disengaged from their marital

partners, impacting the relationship with the adolescent (Brimhall, Wampler & Kimball, 2008).

Female adolescents have a need for discussions with parents to verbalize their feelings of unhappiness and experience closeness with the parent, especially in relation to adolescent boys (Dwairy & Achoui, 2010). Adolescents respond negatively if the communication they receive is critical, negative or harsh (Roestenburg & Oliphant, 2012). The quality of family conversations has a larger influence on the violent behaviour of girls than boys, because girls focus more on interpersonal relationships (Calvete et al, 2014). It is further mentioned that girls that have a lower level of connectedness with the home environment and tend to show more aggression at home, whereas boys are more aggressive outside the home (Zahn-Waxler et al., 2008). However, if families do not speak to one another and if the parents are not interested or motivated to address family values or beliefs, family members tend to withdraw from one another and adolescents become self-reliant and turn to their peers.

3.6.2 Time spent with family

Adolescents spend most of their time with their family, i.e. parents and siblings, and it is within this environment that relationships are built. Relationships are built by spending time with one another and sharing family values. This keeps members satisfied with their lives and facilitates affection towards one another (Houltberg et al., 2011; Abubakar et al., 2014). The time families spend with one another is influenced by the financial position of family members and their income (Crosnoe & Cavanagh, 2010). Financial problems in families create tension and lead to depression and inconsistent parenting, affecting the

quality of interaction and time spent with one another (Kim, LaTaillade & Kim, 2011). However, these interactional exchanges that take place within families create mutual understanding, acceptance of one another and support that is visible and acknowledged even when the adolescent is not physical present in the household (Yoo et al., 2013; Yoo, 2017; Barber & Schluterman, 2008). Family time, therefore, does not only comprises the amount of time spent together but also the notion that time spent together adds value to family connectedness (Migliorini, Rania, Tassara & Cardinali, 2016).

Mother-adolescent interaction and time spent with the adolescent has an influence on connectedness with girls and boys and their social interaction, whereas fathers in households focus more on the factual gathering of information and the sharing of leisure time (Sher-Censor, 2015). The findings of Choi (2010) indicated that if the mothers are satisfied with the time the father spends with their children, mothers feel less depressive and a smaller number of children become involved in behavioural problems. Parents that stay interested in their children's whereabouts contribute to a decline in disruptive behaviour even when adolescents spend more time with friends and challenge parental rules (Keijsers & Laird, 2010). Families that spend time with one another interact daily; they also have rituals and traditions in place that facilitate continuous involvement in one another's lives, and thereby render support during stressful periods of the adolescent's life (Manzi & Brambillia, 2014).

3.6.3 Family routines

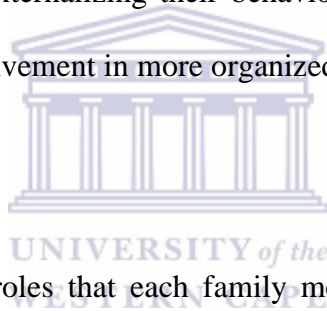
Family routines include daily interaction and behaviours that involve more than one family member resulting in an organized family pattern and provide stability (Mayberry, Shinn, Benton & Wise, 2014). Routines in households are constructed within the

completion of household tasks, for example, the emptying of the bins, washing of the dishes or adolescents making up their own beds. Daily routines of adolescents are their first exposure in taking responsibility, being accountable, strengthening their self-esteem and building connectedness in their family (Umaña-Taylor, et al., 2009). The involvement of adolescents in daily tasks and the amount of responsibility they have to take for certain tasks diminish the prospect for risky behaviour (Gault-Sherman, 2012).

Connectedness is formed, and sibling cohesion strengthened in families that engage in daily routine activities where they are expected to talk to one another, i.e. explain tasks that need to be done (Crespo et al., 2013; Migliorini et al., 2016). The mutual completion of tasks reminds family members of their values and identity and provides a sense of belonging and co-dependency. Family mealtimes provide the largest opportunity for communication and socialization in the family and reinforce parenting roles. Thus, the lack of participation in family mealtimes is a predictor of alcohol abuse, lack of school commitment, and involvement in risky behaviour (Taylor et al., 2012). Fulkerson et al., (2006) showed that the frequency of family dinners was positively associated with developmental assets in adolescents, such as support, commitment to learning, positive values, social skills and positive identity, and negatively linked to depression and high-risk behaviours, such as substance abuse.

Poverty and the lack of resources in the household are linked to a low level of routines in the household as well as adolescent impulsivity, helplessness and social problems (Lanza & Taylor, 2010; Taylor, Budescu, Gebre & Hodzic, 2014). Disruption of family tasks, for example, preparation of meals, resulting from parental substance abuse or parental

absence leads to the adolescent becoming withdrawn and not accepting parental requests. Routines are not carried out on a regular basis, which creates tension and disagreements between adolescents, parents and other family members within the household (Spagnola & Fiese, 2007; Shehata & Ramadaan, 2010; Cheung, Ngai & Ngai, 2007). Furthermore, the non-adherence to the completion of household tasks has an impact on the organizational functioning of the household, resulting in chaos and a lack of cohesion in the family. Routines create predictability and family organization, which in turn structure behavioural outcomes; thus, disorganization leads to chaos (Manczak, Williams & Chen, 2017). Furthermore, the lack of structure and disorder in these households contributes to adolescents internalizing and externalizing their behaviour, becoming withdrawn from their family, and promotes involvement in more organized structures, for example, gangs (Lohman et al., 2009).



Routines are assigned by the roles that each family member has and determines the boundaries, organization, and controlling measures in the family. Therefore, if parental monitoring is consistent, the adolescent will envisage positive behavioural outcomes (McGrath & Zook, 2011). Dysfunctional families with blurred boundaries tend to shift more responsibility to the adolescent for routine functioning in the household and adolescents need to adapt to ensure that the family has a minimum level of functioning (Vernig, 2011). Similarly, Kelly et al., (2013), as well as Kelley and Fals-Stewart (2007) found that the boundaries in alcohol dependent families, specifically where both parents are using alcohol, determines the adolescent's involvement in drug use and sexual risk-taking behaviour. In addition, Wilson et al., (2012) in their study with female caregiver's and their daughters found that the drug use and the risky sexual behaviour of the parent

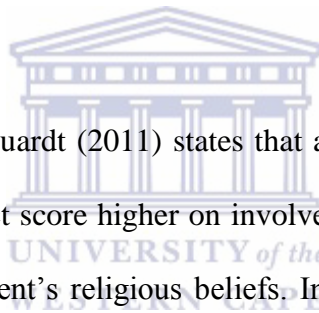
contribute to adolescent girls having to perform stronger parental roles in the family. However, little research is available on how adolescents perceive the imbalance of family relationships and the division of labour (Sinno, Schuette & Killen, 2009; Sinno & Killen, 2014; Brose, Conry-Murray & Turiel, 2013). Wilkinson-Lee, Zhang, Nuno and Wilhelm (2011) found that adolescents who are involved in routines at home experience a positive connectedness in all facets of life in comparison to those that aren't. Routines and rituals in the family are activities that are a key element of connectedness and routines are easily visible and controllable in life (Fiese, Foley & Spagnola, 2006).

3.6.4 Family rituals and traditions

Family rituals are describe as family activities; they may be frequent or symbolic reflections of daily routines, such as the celebration of a birthday, a graduation, a family tradition, or part of the family's daily meal (Spagnola & Fiese, 2007). All rituals have meaning, are adaptable to the available resources of the family, and are based on the family's interests (Kiser, Benett, Heston & Paavola, 2005). Family rituals have a historical value; they strengthen the sense of personal identity and create the opportunity to share memories (Mckie & Callan, 2012). Rituals are done in a specific way and involve more than one family member (Malaquias et al., 2014). They are patterned interactions involving family traditions and family celebrations that strengthen family values, beliefs, and the sense of belonging (Fiese 2006; Fiese, 2007; Roos & Van Rensburg, 2008).

Families that do not perform family rituals, for example, do not celebrate a birthday or significant accomplishments in the life of the adolescent, feel less validated, endure more

stress, and experience instability in their relationships. Adolescents that are less involved in family rituals become distant from the family as well as unknown to family members. They do not share a communal interest with the family and become involved in risky behaviour (Izenstark & Ebata, 2016). Rituals have a symbolic meaning for family members and foster a sense of belonging and sharing. However, single-parent families, or families that struggle financially or share a household with other families are not able to engage in rituals (Mason & Muir, 2013). Adolescents involved in delinquent behaviour seldom partake in rituals that foster family belonging (Rimkus, 2008). Family rituals are important for the well-being of adolescents and are a protective factor against risky behaviour (Fiese, 2006).



Ellison, Walker, Glenn & Marquardt (2011) states that adolescents from intact families where there is minimum conflict score higher on involvement in religious activities and are more accepting of their parent's religious beliefs. In addition, family structure is a major contributor to involvement in religious activities; for example, children in two parent families are more likely to be exposed to religious teachings than children raised in other types of families (Regnerus & Ueker, 2006; Ueker, Regnerus & Vaaler, 2007). However, Mahoney & Cano (2014) argue that less affluent families rely on church attendance and prayer. It is further stated that women tend to be more religious, which influences their parenting style, adherence of family values, and the transference of positive values to their children. Adolescents who lack religious training or do not attend church have limited resources or social control to deal with stressful events. They tend to become involved in risky behaviour, or are disrespectful towards their parents, which discourages family connectedness (Loser, Klein, Hill & Dollalite, 2008). Research has

found that the family's religious involvement is linked to the quality of family relationships and the parenting of adolescents, which are contributing factors to building family connectedness (Loser, Klein, Hill & Dollahite, 2008).

Factors that contribute to family connectedness are visible in the way family members communicate with one another, spend time together, and engage in religious interaction. Dysfunctionality, poverty, and a lack of interest in family activities contribute to further dysfunction and instability, and the eventual breakdown of connectedness within families.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter provided a comprehensive literature review and survey of the key elements of family connectedness and the impact thereof on the behaviour of the adolescent and their families. The ensuing discussion on behavioural outcomes centred on factors that influence adolescent behaviour, for instance, gender, socio-economic status, as well as school and community influences. Family structure, substance abuse, and the absence of the biological father were concepts highlighted in the literature. Furthermore, in understanding family connectedness, parent-adolescent connectedness and time spent with the family were central to the discussion. This enabled the researcher to obtain a better understanding of how families deal with the problematic behaviour of adolescents and shed light on the formation of connectedness and adolescent behavioural outcomes.

The next chapter will deal with the research methodology that was used to explore and describe the phenomenon of family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.



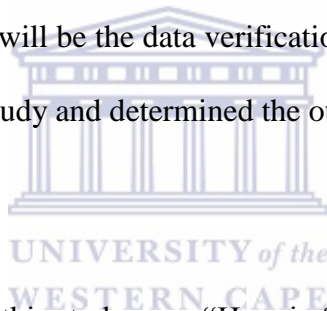
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CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 3 provided the conceptual background of the study by means of a comprehensive literature review. The literature review aimed at providing an overview of issues related to the phenomenon of family connectedness. In the current chapter, the researcher will describe the methodology that was used to achieve the aims and objectives of the study. This process will be discussed in more detail under the headings: sampling, data collection, and data analysis; these will be linked to the outcomes of the study. Central to the discussion will be the data verification process, trustworthiness, and ethical aspects that guided the study and determined the outcome of the research.



4.2 Research Question

The research question for this study was: “How is family connectedness perceived to be linked to families dealing with adolescents that are in conflict with the law?”

4.3 Aim and Objectives

4.3.1 Aim of the study

The aim of this study was to explore the perception of family connectedness as a link to families dealing with adolescents (14-17 years) in conflict with the law in Drakenstein.

4.3.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- Explore the role of family connectedness in families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- Explore the family routines, rituals and family traditions guiding parents that deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- Explore how families deal with adolescents that are in conflict with the law.

4.4 Research Approach and Design

This study utilized a qualitative research approach, which entailed in-depth-discussions and answered complex questions by describing the phenomenon from the participants' perspectives (De Vos et al., 2011; Creswell, 2007; Flick, 2009). The advantage of using a qualitative approach is that it generates rich, detailed data, giving meaning to the participants' beliefs, feelings and experiences in their natural environment (Lietz & Zayas, 2010). In addition, it enabled the researcher to understand the deeper meaning of the phenomenon through the participants' personal expressions, and thereby address the questions of 'what, why, where and when' (Krysiak & Finn, 2010; Pugsley, 2010; Golafshani, 2003).

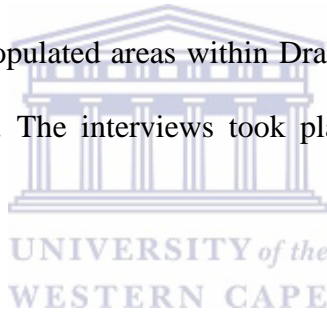
This study made use of an exploratory and descriptive research design. An explorative design provides insight in the phenomenon being studied, especially if there is limited research done on the subject or when the subject is not well understood (Van Wyk, 2012). This design provided the opportunity to obtain a broader understanding of the phenomenon (Babbie, 2013) as well as an understanding of how the participants

perceived their own life experiences (Creswell, 2013). Descriptive research provides the background and details surrounding the phenomenon through the participants' description of their specific family and their relationships (De Vos et al., 2005). The participants were able to describe their view of family connectedness by addressing the “how” and “why” of the phenomenon.

4.5 Research methodology

4.5.1 Research setting

The research setting is the location where the data is collected. This study was carried out in the Drakenstein area, which forms part of the Cape Winelands. The participants of this study were from densely populated areas within Drakenstein and with youth at risk most prominent in these areas. The interviews took place in a safe and comfortable environment, away from home.



4.5.2 Population and sampling

Population of the study is determined by the specific characteristics of the subjects and the sum of cases or individuals in a particular setting that are important to the study (De Vos et al., 2011; Kumar & Matsusaka, 2009; Burns & Grove, 2010). The population reflected the context and gave purpose to the study based on the criteria of who needed to be interviewed or observed (Pugsley, 2010). The population was selected from the database of the Department of Social Development in Paarl. Families, meaning a parent and an adolescent (a child/young person between the ages of 14-17 years), as well as social workers, that rendered a service to families in dealing with this phenomenon, were

involved in the study. The selected families lived in Drakenstein and adhered to the criteria of having an adolescent that had been in conflict with the law.

Sampling involves the selection of a smaller group of participants that represent the larger population for inclusion in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2003). Tlale (2013) refers to a sample as the “*subset of measurements*” drawn from a specific population that represents the population. The participants selected and included in this study had a specific focus, shared a common characteristic, and had personal experience in dealing with the above-mentioned phenomenon (Rubin & Babbie, 2005). **Purposive sampling** was used to select participants that could purposefully provide in-depth information that is relevant and valuable to achieve the purpose of this study (Creswell, Klassen, Clark & Smith, 2011; Rubin & Babbie, 2008). The researcher approached the supervisors within the Department of Social Development from the Drakenstein area and explained the purpose and the criteria for the inclusion of participants from their databases into the study. Further discussions took place with the social workers within the Drakenstein area who supported the researcher in the identification of the participants according to the studies criteria and availed themselves for participation within the study. Through interaction with these social workers, the sample size was derived at based on the research question and the research objectives.

Samure and Given (2008) note that the sample size should be large enough to attain data saturation, where new and additional information will not add value to the study. This study made use of a sample size that consisted of 10 adolescents, 10 family members, and 5 social workers. The selection criteria included:

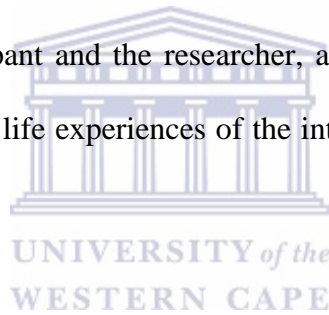
- Families that are dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- Adolescents that belong to the selected families, are between 14-17 years, and have been in conflict with the law; and
- Social workers that have dealt with families who have an adolescent that has been in conflict with the law.

4.5.3 Pilot study

A pilot study, a small-scale preliminary study done with a small group of participants, makes it possible to test the interview guide, assess the time needed for the interview, determine whether the research instrument will function accurately (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delpont, 2005), and assess whether adjustments need to be made to the interview guide (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2011). The interview guide was tested with one parent, one adolescent and one social worker that attested to the criteria of the study but did not form part of the final sample of the study. After the conclusion of the pilot interview, the researcher asked the interviewees to reflect on the clarity of the questions and the way in which the interviews were conducted. Their feedback was used to re-arrange and revise the questions. The questions were arranged from the least sensitive to the questions that were more intense and complex and needed more thought from the participant. The researcher ensured that the participants clear and easily understood the wording of the questions. The pilot study assisted the researcher to ensure that the interview guide could be used for the main study, and that it would provide valuable data. The pilot study was conducted before the final process of the data collection.

4.6 Data Collection

In qualitative research, data collection involves interaction between the researcher and the interviewee (Blanche, Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006; Polkinghorne, 2005). Semi-structured interviews with an interview guide were employed to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon of family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. Semi-structured interviews allowed participants to tell their stories in a flexible environment, the aim being to collect relevant information specifically related to the study (De Clerck, Willems, Timmerman & Carling, 2011). Furthermore, semi-structured interviews created the opportunity for interaction between the participant and the researcher, and lead to the gathering of in-depth information based on the life experiences of the interviewee (De Vos et al., 2011, 2012).



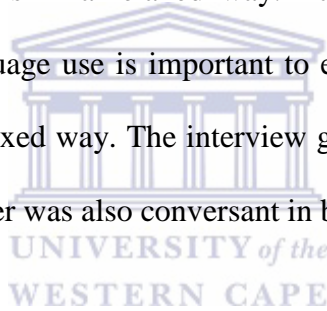
Three sets of separate semi-structured interview guides were used in the interview, one for the parents (Appendix E), one for the adolescents (Appendix D), and one for the social worker (Appendix F). An interview guide is a set of questions that guide the interview process, determine the conversation (two-way communication) between the interviewer and the interviewee (De Vos et al., 2012), and ensure that important aspects related to the study are discussed (De Clerck et al., 2011). A predetermined set of questions were used, which allowed flexibility throughout the interviewing process, where further questions could be answered, and data could be clarified (Swartz, Rey & Townsend, 2011).

4.6.1 Preparation of the participants

A meeting was scheduled with social workers from the Department of Social Development who render a service to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law to seek their voluntarily participation in the study and assistance with the recruitment of participants from their database. Individual discussions with the families and the adolescents followed, with appointments made to determine their availability to participate in the study. Due to the lack of privacy at home and to maintain confidentiality, interviews took place at a venue away from home, yet close by. Appointments were scheduled indicating a specific time and place convenient for each participant. The purpose aim and objectives of the study were discussed with all the participants at the commencement of the first interview (Information sheet, Appendix C) and participants were given a voluntary consent form (Appendix H). In addition, adolescents were given an assent form (Appendix G) to complete (Creswell et al., 2011; Creswell, 2013). The researcher informed the participants that they will remain anonymous, their information will be handled with confidentiality, and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Furthermore, the participants were informed that they would be referred to support counselling or debriefing if emotional anguish is experienced after the interview. Permission to audiotape the conversations to ensure the accuracy of the data captured during the interview process was obtained prior to the interview. The participants were reminded that the audio-recordings are available on request and that all recordings will be treated as confidential to protect their privacy. Finally, all participants administered consent.

4.6.2 Individual interview sessions

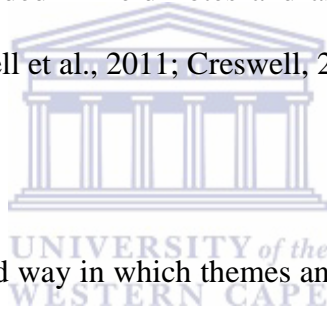
Individual interview sessions were conducted with all the participants in an environment of care, respect and emphatic understanding (Creswell, 2013). An interview is a conversation between the researcher and the participant that involves an exchange of information that is managed by the researcher and involves the building of a trusting relationship (Creswell, 2003). The interview process started with an open-ended question that was non-threatening and that built trust between the interviewee and the participant (Rosenthal, 2016). Most of the participants were Afrikaans speaking, and therefore, the questions were asked in Afrikaans to ensure that the participants felt comfortable and capable to answer the questions in a relaxed way. Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Seidman (2006) state that language use is important to ensure that the participant is in the position to respond in a relaxed way. The interview guide was developed in English and Afrikaans, and the researcher was also conversant in both languages.



The duration of each interview was approximately 45-60 minutes. Communication was an important interviewing technique used to keep the interview between the researcher and interviewee active. The researcher ensured that the participants were able to tell their story without being interrupted, kept the conversation flowing, and ensured they felt comfortable to speak. The researcher paraphrased facts, probed if necessary, and clarified what was said. Debriefing was done with the participants after the interviews to determine what they disliked or liked about the interview, and whether they should be referred for further services.

4.6.3 Field Notes

Field notes were taken during the interview process, where all observed behaviour was noted and kept, to assist in the data collection process. Creswell (2009) refers to field notes as minutes that are taken by the researcher while observing behaviour and activities within the research process. Participant observations provided a deeper and richer understanding of the phenomenon. Listening, observing, questioning, and making notes are part of the process of participant observation (De Vos et al., 2011). During the observation process, the feelings, emotional state (if visible), and participants' perceptions provided the researcher with valuable insight into understanding the studied phenomenon. These were recorded in field notes and assisted in producing a detailed description of the study (Creswell et al., 2011; Creswell, 2013).



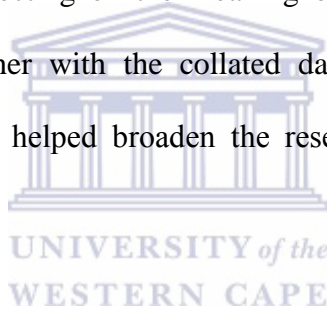
4.7 Data analysis

Data analysis is the well-ordered way in which themes and categories are summarized to answer the research question and present a systematic understanding of the data (Creswell, 2007; De Vos et al., 2011). The aim of the data analysis is to recognize and examine emerging themes and patterns in the data (Shamoo & Resnik, 2009), so as to give meaning to the mass of information derived (Joffe, 2012).

The data analysis followed the eight-steps proposed by Tesch, as outlined in Creswell (2009). This process is done in an orderly fashion and involves the following: data collection, understanding, coding, categorizing, and putting coded data into developed categories.

Stage 1: The researcher transcribed all the audio-recorded interviews and organized the transcripts as well as the field notes in preparation of the data analysis. The interviews were read through numerous times to get a holistic understanding of the data. The transcripts were ordered according to the three groups that were interviewed (family member, adolescent and social worker). The researcher checked the transcripts for accuracy by listening to the audiotapes. Ideas were written down while listening to the audio-recordings and transcribing the interviews.

Stage 2: The researcher then read through the scripts, making observations, noting insights and opinions, and reflecting on the meaning of the data. Exploring the data helped familiarize the researcher with the collated data. The process of reflection, reading, writing and analysing helped broaden the researcher's understanding of the studied phenomenon.



Stage 3: After the researcher explored the data, a list was compiled and grouped into topics. Similar topics were then clustered together. The data was then organized into different categories to obtain a general understanding of the information and its significance (Creswell, 2009). Columns were drawn to indicate the different topics. According to Creswell (2013), a detailed description means the researcher describes what they have seen.

Stage 4: A detailed description of the data assisted with the classification process. Classification involves identifying five to seven general themes, to condense the

information (Creswell, 2013). Codes were then written next to the typed text, which enhanced the preliminary process of determining new categories and codes.

Stage 5: Codes were created and assigned to the data after grouping the information into smaller scales and naming them. Coding was done by giving a word, phrase or a specific language a symbolic meaning (Saldaña, 2009; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2013). Data was then summarized and condensed, but not reduced. Coding, therefore, is the transitional process between the collection of data and the interpretation of the data (Saldaña, 2009). A database with different categories was developed. Codes were then counted to determine how often they occur in the database (Creswell, 2013).

Stage 6: The data was then categorized into themes determined by groups of information consisting of several codes that form a collective idea (Creswell, 2013). These themes were developed into subthemes to ensure the manageability of the data.

Stage 7: After developing these themes, the researcher began to interpret the data. Interpretation means developing the larger meaning of the data after abstracting the codes and themes (Creswell, 2013). At this stage, the researcher linked the interpretation of the data to the literature that formed the backdrop to the research.

Stage 8: Visualizing and representing the data characterize the last stage of the data analysis process. After interpreting and assigning meaning to the abstract information, it was presented in tables. The themes that were least abstract were presented at the bottom reflecting the different themes.

4.8 Data verification and trustworthiness

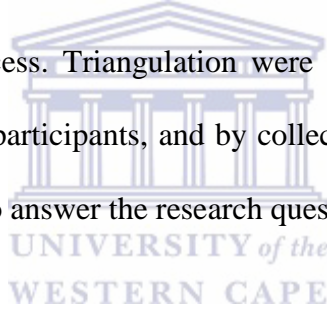
Data verification is the process whereby data is checked for accuracy and inconsistencies removed to ensure that the study has reliability, validity and credibility (Morse, Barrett, Mayan, Olson & Spiers, 2008). According to De Vos et al., (2011) and Given (2008) the verification process ensures the credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability of the data, and illuminates any discrepancies. The interviews were mostly conducted in Afrikaans, audio-taped and allowed the researcher to ensure that the translation to English was done accurately. Furthermore, colleagues of the researcher involved in research and with experience in dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law assisted with the quality checking of the translated interviews to ensure credibility in the research process.



- **Credibility**

Anney (2014) and Babbie (20114), states that credibility involves the truthfulness of the data and the linkage with reality, meaning that the participants should be able to relate to the findings. Rich descriptions of the data gave meaning to the study and made the study realistic (Creswell, 2013). Furthermore, credibility should provide confidence in the research findings and in the truthful interpretation of the participant's information (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004; Macnee & McCabe, 2008). The researcher ensured credibility by informing each participant of their voluntarily participation in the study and the right to withdraw from the interviewing process. This meant that all participants were freely partaking in the data collection process and could present their realities in an environment where there were no right and wrong answers to questions being asked.

Furthermore, credibility was achieved through the process of triangulation where multiple methods and data sources were used. *Triangulation* is the process where multiple methods and data sources are used to gain a complete understanding of the phenomenon through rich, comprehensive, and well-developed research findings (Anney, 2014; Fick, 2009; Shenton, 2004). Krefting (1991) states that triangulation through the use of data sources enhances the validity of the study. Triangulation as a method within the study involved the comparing of semi-structured interviews, observations and field notes. These data sources were collected through the interviewing process where rich data were received from the family members, the adolescent participants and the social workers. Field notes were kept and use to add value and credibility to the research process. Triangulation were employed by asking the same research questions to different participants, and by collecting data from various sources and applying diverse methods to answer the research question.



- **Dependability**

Research is dependable when it can be repeated. In other words, if the study were conducted with the same participants in the same context, the findings would be replicated (D`Cruz & Jones, 2004). Dependability is achieved when the reader is convinced that the findings are in line with the researcher's claims (Anney, 2014). In her contact with the different participants (family members, adolescents and social workers), the researcher made sure that the same interview guide, data collection tools and methodology was used to establish consistency and dependability within the study. Creswell (2013), states that dependability is ensured when the same interview schedule and methods to collect and transcribe the data are used.

- **Transferability**

Transferability is the degree to which the findings of one's study can be applied (or transferred) to other similar contexts (Babbie, 2010). Purposeful sampling was used as well as more than one data source to ensure that rich data could be collected to give a broader perspective of the phenomenon being studied, and to prove that the study is transferable. The methodology used, and the type of participants were clearly described and therefore the study's results could be made applicable to other settings or contexts. Furthermore, the same interview guide that was used for the different participants could be transferable. The researcher enhanced transferability throughout the study by describing the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research.

- **Conformability**

Conformability refers to the degree to which the findings of the study could be validated by other researchers. It indicates that the primary sources are traceable, and that the researcher did not invent the data. The researcher did consult the participants regarding the information they gave to ensure whether the interpretations and conclusions drawn from the data analysis and coding of data were truthfully interpreted.

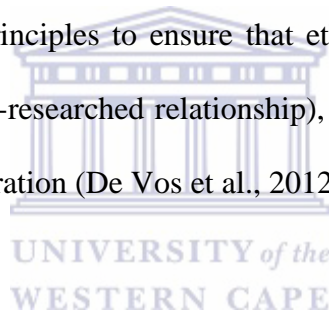
4.9 Reflexivity

Reflexivity concerns acknowledging the researcher's previous experience, as well as interest in the study, prior knowledge, and awareness that this could influence the outcome of the study (Creswell et al., 2011; Polit & Beck, 2004; Krefting, 1991). Furthermore, the researcher had to be mindful of the personal qualities and the characteristics of the applicants, as well as the moral values and ethics of the applicants (Polit & Beck, 2014). Tracy (2013) and Hsiung (2008) states the researcher has to

become self-reflexive and understand his/her role and vulnerabilities within the research process. This meant that the researcher had to remain neutral in the research process and respectful towards the participants' viewpoints to ensure that they were not influenced in any way, thereby guaranteeing the conformability of the study. Field notes were used to avoid influencing the research process, and the participants were considered experts of the researched phenomenon. As a result, they provided in-depth contributions in their interviews. Ethical considerations were considered throughout the research process and it provided the basis for data verification.

4.10 Ethical considerations

Research is guided by basic principles to ensure that ethical standards are met. These include: faith (in the researcher-researched relationship), being accepted and not judged (by the researcher), and collaboration (De Vos et al., 2012).



- **Permission to conduct the study**

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee (ethical letter: Appendix B) to conduct the research study. The Department of Social Development was approached for permission to use their database to recruit participants for the study (ethical letter: Appendix A). The researcher had meetings with the local office manager to ensure that ethical standards will be adhered to. In this study, the researcher conformed to the ethical guidelines for researchers as stipulated by the University of the Western Cape and the Department of Social Development.

- **Informed consent**

Informed consent protects the participants' rights to be anonymous and to make independent decisions (Marianna, 2011). An information sheet was given to the participants (information sheet: Appendix C) followed by a detailed discussion regarding an introduction to the study, the purpose of the study, as well as their rights as a participant within the study. Each participant was informed that they could choose not to participate in the study; this ensured that participation was voluntary (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). According to De Vos et al., (2011), the researcher must assure the participants that the information provided is truthful and accurate, so that they are able to make an informed and voluntary decision to participate in the study. They were each handed individual consent forms that further explained the details of the research (consent form: Appendix H). This gave the participants the opportunity to make an informed decision before they signed or acknowledged their participation. The adults signed their consent form, but due to legal implications regarding children, the adolescents were given an assent form to complete. Polit and Beck (2004) note that children are not legally in a position to give consent, but children from the age of seven could confirm their agreement to participate in the research by completing an assent form (Assent form: Appendix G). The adolescents were required to sign an assent form in the presence of their parents, as their legal custodian. Participants were also asked for permission to audiotape their interview sessions. Furthermore, they were informed that field notes would be taken and that they have the right to withdraw from the research process at any time without giving a reason. Assurance was also given that the audio-recordings would be kept confidential and in a safe place, and that their identities would be kept anonymous throughout the research process.

- **Voluntary participation**

Participants were recruited and informed of the purpose of the study. They were continually reminded that participation was completely voluntary; this meant that they were accurately informed, had time to think, could make their own choice, and that no coercion took place (Rubin & Babbie, 2005). The rights of each participant were acknowledged; they were also continually reminded that it was their choice to be part of the study, and that they could withdraw at any time. Informed consent forms were made available and they were informed that no harm would come to them. The researcher created a safe environment for the participants to make their own decision without showing any judgement.

- **Debriefing**

Debriefing is an important facet of the research process; it provides the opportunity to express negative affective feelings experienced during the research process or anything else that may have surfaced whilst participating in the study (Raemer et al., 2011). The researcher is aware that the participants may never have explored the phenomenon in such detail and prepared for debriefing sessions with social workers assisting the family, or the referral of juveniles in conflict with the law to the specific social worker rendering a service to them. Debriefing for the social workers was made available at the employee wellness company Independent Counselling Advisory Services (ICAS). The participants were made aware of the available support, and those in need of debriefing were referred to the relevant service providers.

- **Confidentiality and Anonymity**

Participant confidentiality and anonymity was guaranteed during the research process. De Vos et al., (2011); Creswell (2013); Creswell and Clark (2007), and Creswell et al., (2011) all describe confidentiality and anonymity as the process in which the information

and identity of the participant remains anonymous. The names of the participants were not mentioned in the study; instead, they were assigned codes, and they were addressed anonymously in the written report (Creswell et al., 2011). The audio recordings of the data were kept for a period and then discarded to ensure that no harm was done to the participants (Creswell, 2013). Finally, participants were assured that the audio-recordings and field notes would be kept safe in a locked cabinet and password-protected computers.

- **Avoidance of harm**

Research with human participants could cause emotional discomfort or stress, and should be avoided (British Psychological Society, 2006). Harmful effects could be to the participant's personal social status, privacy, personal values and beliefs, and personal relationships (Burns & Grove, 2010). Researchers are required to be attentive to these risks and should prevent putting participants in a situation where they might be at risk of harm as a result of their participation in the study (Babbie, 2010). In addition, the researcher should encourage mutual respect and trust to prevent harm. In light of the above, when compiling the information sheet, the researcher evaluated the potential harm and took the necessary steps to prevent the participant from deliberate exposure to harm. Additional support was also made available for those experiencing trauma due to their participation.

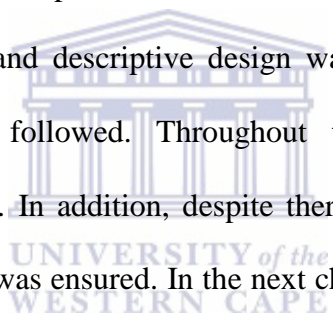
4.11 Limitations of the study

Limitations are defined as the difficulties or conditions that cannot be controlled by the researcher and influence the outcome of the study (De Vos et al., 2011). However, De Vos et al., (2011) indicate that inevitable limitations depend on how the researcher deals

with it. The challenge of this study was to obtain participants from diverse racial groups; cultural diversity was also a problem. Most of the participants were from the coloured community and only one family was from the black community. Suitable participants (those meeting the criteria for the study) from the other racial groups were not willing to participate in the study. The study was therefore population specific, which influenced the generalization of the findings to other cultures in the South African context.

4.12 Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the methodology used in this study to ensure that meaning could be derived from the phenomenon of family connectedness. A qualitative approach with an explorative and descriptive design was employed that outlined the actual procedures that were followed. Throughout the research process ethical considerations were adhered to. In addition, despite there being limitations, the active participation of all participants was ensured. In the next chapter, the research results will be presented and discussed.



CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study was to explore the perception of family connectedness and how this links to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. This was accomplished using a qualitative methodological approach, in which the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews to obtain an in-depth understanding of the participants' feelings about the selected topic. Data was analysed using thematic analysis and coding after data was categorized into themes and subthemes to address the aim of the study. This then provided the opportunity to present the evidence in a logical sequence. Three emerging themes namely, family connectedness, routines, rituals and traditions as well as families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law, will be presented and described in this chapter.

5.2 Demographic data of participants

The demographic details of the participants were gathered during the semi-structured interviews with the participants. A narrative of the demographic information of the family members and the adolescents in conflict with the law, as depicted in Table 1 below, are provided next.

Table 1 Demographic information of the family members that participated in the study

Participant	Gender	Relationship	Parents Age	Status of Parent	Education of Parent	Number of Children	Children's Age	Ethnicity	Language	Education of Adolescent in conflict with law
1.	Male	Father	30	Married	Grade 10	3	14, 9 and 5 years	Coloured	Afrikaans	14 years, male grade 7
2.	Female	Mother	36	Single parent	Grade 11	2 and pregnant		Coloured	Afrikaans	17 years male grade 12
3.	Female	Foster mother	58	Married	Grade 7	4	Youngest 36 months	African	isiXhosa	14 years female grade 7
4.	Female	Mother	50	Divorce	Grade 7	5	34, 28, 22 and 16 years	Coloured	Afrikaans	16 years, female Grade 9 Not attending school
5.	Female	Mother	49	Divorced	Grade 10	4	30, 24, 21 and 17 years	Coloured	Afrikaans	17 years, male Grade 10 Not attending school
6.	Female	Mother	28	Divorced	Grade 7	1	14	Coloured	Afrikaans	14 years, male, Grade 8
7.	Female	Mother	39	Divorced	Grade 11	5	22, 15, 13 and 10 years	Coloured	Afrikaans	15 years, male Not attending school
8.	Male	Father	51	Divorced	Grade 4	4	Unknown	Coloured	Afrikaans	15 years, male Grade 4 Not attending school
9.	Female	Mother	34	Married	Grade 10	5	15, 11, 8, 2 and 1 year	Coloured	Afrikaans	15 years, female Grade 8 Not attending school
10	Male	Brother of adolescent	Mother 60 Father 66	Married		11	50, 40, others are between 30-40, 25 and 17 years	Coloured	Afrikaans	17 years, male Grade 10

5.2.1 Gender

Three male and seven female family members participated in this study. Most of the parent participants were also the primary caregiver of the adolescent. This group comprised mothers, fathers, a foster mother, and one older brother that represented his family. The female representation was predominantly higher, with most of the women being single or divorced.

Three females and seven male adolescents participated in this study. The results of this study show that the principal gender for adolescents involved in offending behaviour is male.

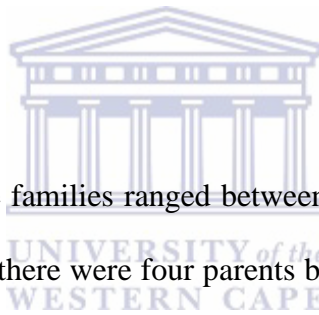
5.2.2 Age

The ages of the parents in these families ranged between 28-66 years old. The different age categories were as follows: there were four parents between the ages of 30-39 years, five between the ages of 49-66, and the youngest being 28 years old. The demographical data shows that the parents in these families were very young when their first child was born.

The adolescents that participated in this study were between 14-17 years of age, with the most dominant group being between 14-15 years. The ages of the three female adolescents were 14, 15 and 16 years, respectively.

5.2.3 School qualification

The parents of the adolescents in this study left school very early. The parents' highest level of education was as follows: one exited grade 4, three did not move beyond grade



7, three completed grade 10, two left school after completing grade 11, and one's school qualification is unknown. This information indicates that parental levels of education are very low and have thus not completed their formal school education.

The school qualifications of the adolescents that were interviewed ranged from grade 4-12. Of those not attending school: one had completed grade 4, one grade 8, one grade 9, and two grade 10.

5.2.4 Marital status and amount of children

The marital status of the families that participated in this study is as follows: four are married, with one being a foster family, five are divorced, and one is a single-parent family where the biological parents have never married. Although the foster family is married, the foster child resonates from a single-parent family. Family size varies, with as many as 11 children in one household. The average amount of children per family is 4-5 children. In one of these families, the oldest child is 50 years old with a younger sibling of 17 years old. In this family, the data showed that the physical contact between the children in the family were affected by the age gap between the children.

5.2.5 Ethnic status and language

Most of the participants were from the coloured community, and spoke Afrikaans (90 %), while only one family was African and spoke isiXhosa, but preferred to be interviewed in Afrikaans. The participants were all competent in Afrikaans; therefore,

the interviews were conducted in Afrikaans, although the interviewee was able to converse in English and Afrikaans.

5.2.6 Demographic information of the social workers

Five social workers from the Department of Social Development participated in this study, two were male and three were female. The years of experience of the social workers ranged between 7-28 years, and they were all involved in the assessment of juveniles in conflict with the law, as well as rendering fieldwork services to families. The social workers were fluent in both Afrikaans and English and were located within the boundaries of Drakenstein.

5.3 Presentation and discussion of findings

The findings that emerged after analysing the data obtained from the interviews are presented in transcribed quotations below. The aim is to establish whether these findings support the perception of family connectedness as a link to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. Therefore, it will be integrated with relevant literature and theories in order to substantiate or negate the themes that emanated from the study. The themes and sub-themes that emerged from the analysed and transcribed data is presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Themes and sub-themes

THEMES	SUB-THEMES
Theme 1: Family Connectedness	Sub-theme 1.1: Family structure
	Sub-theme 1.2: Parental engagement
Theme 2: Routines, rituals and traditions	Sub-theme 2.1: Blurred routines
	Sub-theme 2.2: Celebratory rituals and traditions
Theme 3: Families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law	Sub-theme 3.1: Parental reaction and response
	Sub-theme 3.2: Adolescents' reaction and response
	Sub-theme 3.3: Community influences

5.3.1 Theme 1: Family connectedness

Family connectedness is a fluid concept that has different meanings for different families. In this study comprised of diverse family structures, connectedness is understood by the relationships between family members, their physical presence, their interest in each other's lives, and the daily support rendered to one another, creating a feeling of closeness between family members. In their understanding of connectedness, Abubakar et al., (2014) and Planitz, Feeney & Peterson (2009) referred to the attachment of family members through the showing of love and the experience of harmony in the family. In this study, there is a strong link between families that connect with one another and the bi-directional interaction between the parents and their children. Hence, families that experience closeness and feel accepted by their family members experience

a sense of connectedness that provides them with the necessary skills to deal with problematic matters.

The findings of this study show that a low level of connectedness within families influences the family's ability to deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. In addressing family connectedness in this main theme, two sub-themes relating to (a) family structure and (b) parental engagement will be discussed, with relevant quotations relating to time spent, parental warmth, and support rendered by the parent in dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

5.3.1.1 Sub-theme 1.1: Family structure

The findings of this study showed diverse family structures, which consisted of: married families, a foster family, cohabitating and divorced families, and a greater representation of the divorced maternal single-parent family experiencing instability within the family settings. Single parenting and fragmented families are prominent in the study; they are mainly female-headed households with weakened family bonds, dysfunctional patterns of family interaction, and adolescents demonstrating sadness, anger, and engaging in deviant behaviour. Notably, single parenting and divorced families is a major predictor of adolescent delinquent behaviour in South Africa (Holborn & Eddy, 2011). Some participants mentioned that after the separation or divorce from the biological father the mothers became the sole providers and struggled financially.

“My mother is a single parent. If my mother is not able to give me money, I have to wait, because my mother does not always have money, aunty. I have broken shoes, when I call my father, he said, he would see what he could do for me for a pair of shoes. Nothing, aunty.” (Adolescent 5)

“Yes, all the time I cared for them without the father’s contributions, whatever. My daughter works and then I have work, I have now. We do not work every day, meaning, we have not worked the week yet. We will start tomorrow morning 11 o’clock, start when the taxi, picks us up. Then we will be going to work, so. It is the newspapers; we add the sale pages in the newspapers (laughs). Not every day.” (Parent 4)

The extract above shows that the single parents were challenged by having to work, as well care for their children and ensure that they develop strong relationships with their children. Similar research findings show that single-parent mothers have to fulfil dual parenting roles. They also have to work irregular hours to support their children financially and therefore become overburdened; this hinders spontaneous interaction and the monitoring of the adolescent in comparison to married families where the parental responsibility is shared (Wazir, Ismail, Chan, Naing & Shah, 2016; Magnuson & Berger, 2009; Bastaitis & Mortelmans, 2014). Based on the general systems theory, it is noted that the family system is in constant interaction and support towards one another; in the absence of members and the limited availability of resources, the systems environment is altered, and behavioural change occurs (Meadows, 2008). The system’s environment is highly dependent on the input from parents and their interaction with their children.

Consequently, family structure is directly linked to the closeness between the parent and the adolescent and distress in adolescence (Falci, 2006). Most of the participants from the single-parent households mentioned that they experience strain due to not being able to spend time with their children. As a result, adolescents are left on their own to fend for

themselves and are exposed to negative friendships. The strain is evident in their voice, as indicated below:

“Because I work shifts now, it seems to them, they are on their own. They, they can only do what they want.” (Parent 5)

“There are rules, but they do not follow the rules when they need to be early (in the house) dinnertime when it is time to eat and when they have to pack their clothes and so on.” (Parent 7)

In a study done by Demuth, and Brown, (2004) it was found that adolescents who are in conflict with the police live in single parent and dysfunctional families, compared to those that come from intact families. In addition, these adolescents live in environments where the parents are authoritarian, permissive, and disengaged. As a result, they tend to experience adjustment problems and become involved in delinquent behaviour (Baumrind, 1991; Hoeve et al., 2009).

Furthermore, the study revealed that most of the participants did not attend school. They were mostly boys, who had been exposed to parental separation or changes within the spousal relationship, with only their mothers being responsible for the household. This has a significant influence on both boys and girls and determines the adolescent's involvement in risky behaviour and the role modelling of these behaviours in school or increases their risk for dropping out of school (Hoeve, et al., 2009; Dotterer, Hoffman, Crouter & McHale, 2008). Participants commented as follows:

“I did not listen, listen to the teacher, and after that they did not accept me at the school anymore, so I left the school. I sat outside. I did not want to listen.”
(Adolescent 8)

“I do not go to school anymore because of the violence I did at school; they removed me from school.” (Adolescent 5)

“I mean if I'm making an example they [family] never tell you something that makes you feel right, maybe if you've failed now they're telling you, you're stupid and no good. Ha, sometimes people believe what they say, that is why one does not even have the energy to go to school again.” (Adolescent 3)

The results show that the lack of warmth and support in the parental relationship influences the adolescent's acceptance of parental values, the choices that they make and the respect that they have for authoritative figures. In addition, most of the adolescent participants that felt less loved and experienced rejection at home exhibited externalizing behaviour in the school setting and tended to engage in delinquent behaviour. Stoddard et al., (2011) found that if the adolescent is connected to the family, they would feel a strong sense of belonging towards their school. According to general systems theory, if the family system is unable to provide the emotional and social inputs and the adolescent feels unloved, it will affect the formation of positive relationships (Schneiders et al., 2007). Therefore, in this study, it is evident that the adolescent's relationship with their parents is the yardstick for their interaction with all other connections in and outside the family.

“I speak to him then it seems I am just talking to myself. He also don't want to go with us anymore and does not go to school. There where we stay they fight and he is part of the stone throwers. When I come home the people tell me he was part of the stone throwers” (Parent 5)

“Their behaviour in the house creates a lot of conflict and they don’t understand each other in the house. This behaviour creates, more violence towards the parent and towards the rest of the community members, because for instance you might get the child who assault someone because of the anger that he builds up in him or herself, due to the household experiences.”(Social worker 1)

A positive stable and emotional bond between the parent and child characterizes a connection with significant others in his life. The study shows that the participants relationship with their parents are either filled with conflict or the lack of showing interest in the advice of parents leading to bottled up anger which are spilled over in their connections with significant others and influencing their involvement in offending behaviour. However, the literature shows that single-parent households tend to lack parental warmth; in addition, there is less monitoring and weaker family bonds, with adolescents becoming involved in offending behaviour (Loeber & Farrington, 2012; Ryder, 2007; Loeber et al., 2013; Weerman et al., 2015). Most of the parents reported that the weaker family bonds were influence by the dysfunctional relationships with their partners or spouses. In this regard, participants stated the following:

“He started to hit me, and things did not work out between us. I moved back to my mother and a year after that we decided to divorce, and then we got divorced.” (Parent 6)

“Their father was my second marriage. He was involved with other women and I never had him to myself. That was actually our problem. I could not handle it anymore and divorced him.” (Parent 4)

“The time that we were staying separately, she stayed with another man. I then saw my children complaining about where they stay. Then I said they have to come back with their mother. The mother came back to look after the children, that is the only reason why she is back.” (Parent 8)

The study has shown that the relational quality of the parent influences the stability in the household and the availability of parents to form secure connections with the adolescent. Studies have shown that family structure influences juvenile delinquency, as it provides the environment for parent-child interaction and connectedness within the family (Apel & Kaukinen, 2008; Abella, 2016; Taylor et al., 2012). Therefore, if the parent has a low level of connectedness with the adolescent, they become less involved in family activities and more involved in delinquent behaviour. Magnuson and Berger (2009) found that children living in single-mother and single-father families exhibit increased behaviour problems over time, in relation to parents that are married (Fomby & Sennott, 2013). In their study, Krohn, Hall and Lizotte (2009) found that the home environments of broken families and single-parent families predict a low level of connectedness. Most of the adolescent participants from the different family structures reported exposure to harsh parenting practices and a lack of supervision.

“So I have to be harsh, where I can. So that is why I hit them, I don't let children determine what I should do. I do not allow what other parents allow. At the end of the day your child is what you allow. You need to control them.” (Parent 4)

“Now I have a different way that I punish him, I keep him in the house, I start to keep him detained within the house if he has done something wrong. I ignore him and don't talk to him or don't give him an answer when he talks to me.” (Parent 6)

“My husband and I do not agree on discipline, that is why the children are going on like they do now. They know my aunty won’t open the door, but my uncle will open the door when they are late. This is what is going on the whole time.” (Parent 3)

Lunkenheimer, Ram, Skowron and Yin (2017) state that children exposed to harsh or inconsistent discipline become withdrawn from their parents and tend to seek negative peer relationships that expose them to delinquent behaviour. In this study, it is noted that the participants’ association with negative friends across the different family structures exposed them to substance abuse and involvement in delinquent behaviour.

“He has very bad friends, they are stone throwers; they do all the bad things. They just want to fight, that is his friends.” (Older brother 10)

“I thought that he does all the stupid things with his friends. He could have put on a top at home, but he walked with his friends and they do all the negative things.” (Parent 7)

Furthermore, the participants mentioned that the quality of the parent-adolescent relationship left them feeling emotionally insecure. In addition, the commonalities between these families are parental substance abuse, family violence, and unresolved conflict within the family environment, creating family dysfunction and insecure family connections. Several studies have indicated that dysfunctional patterns experienced in the family environment have a major influence on school adjustment as well as the future development of the adolescent’s behaviour and well-being (Nilsson, 2016; Zhang et al., 2010; McGuirk & Mai, 2016). The statements of some participants support this:

“There usually are problems in the home as they are exposed to family violence since a young age or to parents who abuse alcohol or drugs so usually those children cannot make good decisions and are influenced by peer pressure.” (Social worker 4)

“Of the things my mom is doing, maybe her substance abuse problem, then she does things differently, she hit me or something, spiteful effort. And so, I decided I'm not going to school anymore, and they cannot tell me. Yes, if he is angry with my mom, then he's going to the bar on Fridays, then he drives and then he arrives in the morning, Saturday morning, so there's nothing to eat. Sometimes I get angry and I want to ask guys to make his wheels flat at the bar or I come in when I want to at home, he is not going to tell me what to do. He is an irresponsible parent.” (Adolescent 8)

“Sometimes its families where there's alcohol abuse, where the father is abusing the alcohol and he doesn't seem to take any responsibilities as the father in the family and sometimes in cases where both parents are abusing drugs or alcohol they don't seem to be taking care of the children.” (Social worker 2)

Similar to the above extracts, Soloski and Berryhill (2015) note that there is a direct relationship between the emotional state of the adolescent, the family environment, parent- adolescent connectedness and the behavioural problems of the adolescent. A number of studies indicate that the family environment influences the parent-adolescent relationship, which heightens the adolescent's susceptibility to negative peer influences and delinquent behaviour (Al-Matalka & Hussainat, 2012; Eitle, 2006; McDonald, Bowker, Rubin, Laursen & Duchene, 2010). It is evident in the results of this study that parents do not fully comprehend the link between building connectedness with the adolescent and the adolescent succumbing to delinquency. In short, adolescents that feel

neglected, unloved, or lack the necessary support from their parents seek outside attention and become involved in negative behaviour.

“No, we do not know them, and it is people that uses drugs and who is older that she is, and you can see it.” (Parent 9)

“I always did my homework but then I wanted to be cool, wanted to be involved with girls and then I lost interest in my schoolwork. Then I got involved with gangsters because they had the girls. They also called me their brother.” (Adolescent 5)

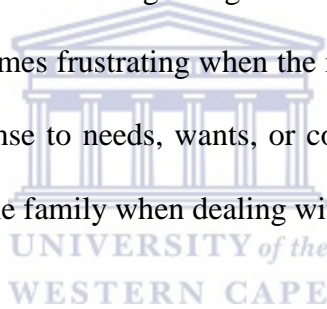
The extract above shows that the adolescents who experience inner conflict at home tend to become involved with friends that experience the same conflict that they have and then gain exposure to substance abuse and gang involvement. Furthermore, the interviews with the adolescent participants showed that the boys in the study were more involved in aggressive behaviour and gang involvement. Research suggests that the quality of the parent–adolescent relationship has a significant impact on the adolescent’s development and well-being (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010; Han & Jun 2010).

Participants from the different family structures noted that communication between family members is limited and stressful. A general systems approach highlights the need to understand the setting in which the interaction takes place and determines that this alters and impacts what happens within the system (Kumanyika et al., 2010). It is evident that the inputs received from the system’s environment influences the output and the family’s ability to achieve their family goals.

“My mother stresses a lot, and then I must stand up and do what she wants. Every evening there is no food in the house then I must go look for food” (Adolescent 7).

”My mother says I should not be like the people in Chicago. She tells me that every day and sometimes my mother says I can’t go out. Then I tell my mother I am going to the neighbours then I go somewhere else and then comes back later. One of the values my mother teaches me is not to lie, but I do lie to her (adolescent crying). I lie to her.”(Adolescent4)

Most of the families mentioned that it is difficult to communicate with the adolescent, as they do not respond or share information regarding their friendships or daily activities. In addition, they noted that it becomes frustrating when the members are non-responsive or start to scream or yell in response to needs, wants, or concerns that need to be shared, and indicated how this affects the family when dealing with problematic behaviour.



“The way she is now, she is smoking and then she screams at me.” (Parent 9)

“When I talk to her, she does not take notice of me. She is more involved with her friends.” (Parent 3)

The extract above shows that the closeness with the parent influences the communication patterns between the adolescent and the parent. Most of the adolescent participants presented negativity in their communication with their parents, for example either ignoring them or being verbally abusive in their conversations. Laird and De Los Reyes (2013) found that poor communication is a defining trait of dysfunctional families and contributes to social and emotional problems in adolescence. Koerner and Fitzpatrick

(2013), states that the quality of the communication between family members is a reflection of the quality of the relationship between them.

“He is not honest with her because she has to hear information from him from outside the home and then he says he was not involved.” (Older brother 10)

“Sometimes I hear them speak disrespectful to their mother, I have to jump in. I do not know Mrs. I just hear him talk like that. Then I tell him he must keep his mouth shut and listen to his mother, listen when his mother sends him he must go, because if I send him he goes but if his mother sends him he will not go then I say he cannot do that when I speak he listens and if his mother is talking, he does not want to listen.” (Parent 8)

The findings of this study clearly demonstrate that families with a low conversation orientation interact less. General systems theory reflects on the bi-directional input that communication has on providing feedback within the system regarding acceptable behaviour and if it is limited or restricted, it contributes to delinquency (Dallos & Vetere, 2012). Fa’alau (2016) notes that the quality of the parent-child interaction, and the extent to which the adolescent feels they are being heard, determines how they relate to people inside and outside the home environment. Problematic communication between parents and children are a risk factor for adolescent psychosocial adjustment (Ochoa, Lopez & Emler, 2007).

Furthermore, the relationships between family members are highly dependent on the experiences within the household and are strained if there is no opportunity for open discussion (Ehrenberg et al., 2012; Ehrlich, Richards, Lejuez & Cassidy, 2016). Hence, it could be said that disagreements, conflict and disrespect are role modelled from the

parenting relationship and become interactional patterns within the family leading to delinquent behaviour in the adolescent. Participants from two families mentioned that they experience consistent conflict amongst one another.

“They fight very much among themselves, especially he and his oldest brother, then I have to go talk to them again: over any crazy thing, about boiling water or soap or something he might have taken from him, I say to them he is the eldest they must respect him, if he says you have to do something, then you have to do it because he is the oldest.” (Parent 8)

“With C, the second oldest one, we totally don’t talk, we say ugly things to another. Stay out of my way. Don’t touch me. D will give me a little bit of money, or whatever. He is smaller than me, but if I ask him he says no in my face. L, they make her negative against me... go wash your stuff, you’re kidding with boys, you are using tik and she’s 2 years old. She does not share anything with me. My mom makes her say those things and then they laugh. Sometimes I get cross and then sometimes I get angry and then I do anything irresponsible.” (Adolescent 9)

According to the general systems theory, relatedness and behaviour of the components are determined by the organizational structure and the quality of the inputs provided within the system (Wulczyn et al., 2010). The conflict experienced within these families create an inability within the adolescent participants to deal with every day crises in the family and the negative responses of family members. Therefore, if there is constant conflict between the parental partners or where one parent takes sole responsibility for the family, inadequate resources exist within the system resulting in decay. This leads to the detachment of family members and the adolescent’s involvement in delinquent behaviour (Carlson & Berger, 2013). The findings of the sub-theme showed that family

structure shapes the environment in which the family interacts, influencing the level of connectedness within the family and the delinquent behaviour of the adolescent. Each member's contribution to the family is essential and could potentially influence or change the behaviour and connectedness of all the others in the system (Goldenberg and Goldenberg, 2004).

The following sub-theme of family connectedness will focus on parental engagement.

5.3.1.2 Sub-theme 1.2: Parental engagement

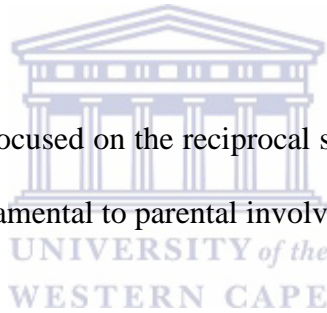
This sub-theme is based on the availability of the parents in the life of the adolescent, their presence in the household, and the interest that they show towards the adolescent. Parental engagement is the active involvement of the parent in providing support and guidance to ensure an effective learning environment and connectedness. Therefore, a system needs to receive input from its environment to be able to respond to the changes that take place and to stay engaged with all its components. The absence thereof contributes to a lack of skills and learning that a parent could provide to their children. Most of the participants come from divorced single-parent families where biological fathers are absent in the household and have limited contact with the adolescent, and where single-parent mothers have to work irregular hours and have limited time to spend with the adolescent. This, then, leads to disengagement with the adolescent, contributing to involvement in delinquent behaviour and over-reliance on friends. Tach, Mincy and Edin, (2010) found that divorced single-parent mothers spend the least amount of time with their children and have limited support. Mayer (2005) and Rawatlal, Pillay and Kliewer (2015) mention that parents with a higher educational level and financial income

have more resources at their disposal and tend to be freer in their family interaction. However, only a few participants mentioned parental involvement in their lives.

“When we get out of school, she helps us with our homework as we seek help. In the morning, we clean the house, or we sit together and watch television together, then we talk.” (Adolescent 3)

“She will scold me but afterwards she will understand, and my father is very quiet. He will just talk sometimes with me, but he is fine. He will give me free time if things should be done, like my sport then he will now, (say), K you cannot walk around now your sports, you must be on the field tomorrow and what, what. My mom will talk about the school work again, when do you learn or so.” (Adolescent 2)

In addition, one of the parents focused on the reciprocal sharing of fondness or affection and having fun together as fundamental to parental involvement.



“O, she will sit on my lap or sit next to me, she will hold me, or we will do very small things together or she will comb my hair or will tell me what dress to put on, or I will tell her T don` t do that, so mommy I look right. So, we are very close to each other. We will make jokes together and laughs and she will tell what happened outside now. We will laugh, or I` ll tell her what happened at work- then we laugh together.” (Parent 4)

One of the key findings of this study is that parental involvement in their children’s lives contributes to satisfying connections between the parent and the adolescent and reduces the risk of adolescent problem behaviours.

“He will tell me what he did the day or what his friends were doing, the one did that, then I ask him if he was with them. Then he said no mommy, I was not

with them, that is why I am telling you mommy. I was not with them. Mommy can ask everyone. I walked away when they did....” (Adolescent 6)

“Last time I bought him a computer just to make sure he was at home and not involved with wrong friends. That is why I watch him, so he goes out with us most of the time. I do a lot of sports with them, cricket, play soccer.” (Parent 1)

In contrast to the above, some participants mentioned that their mother does not show an interest in what they are doing, as indicated below.

“But if my mother is drunk, she will not even worry about me, she will just entertain her friends.” (Adolescent 5)

“My mother said she will not come with me, that day when the detectives picked me up, she said, she did not care about such things. She did not tell me what I should do or not supposed to do.” (Adolescent 10)

WESTERN CAPE

Parenting practices, particularly permissive and uninvolved parenting, is strongly linked to delinquent behaviour and a low level of involvement with the parent (Prioste, Narciso, Goncalves & Pereira, 2015). Parental role modelling has a strong influence on adolescent behaviour and adaptation in life. One parent from a married family indicated that he changed his smoking habits to set an example for the adolescent.

“Then he started to use not cigarettes, but I would say gunza with his wrong friends. So, I guess it is because of me because I am the only one that smokes in the house; nobody's smoking except me. My wife does not smoke; I'm probably the problem. So that is why I stopped smoking.” (Parent 1)

An adolescent from a single-parent family argued that his mother's substance abuse influences the quality of their interaction and his time spent with her.

“My mother is also coming drunk home over weekends. Then I have to wait for her all the time, I do not want to go to sleep. When my mother knocks, my mother is scolding me. Then I stay awake the whole night long to open the door when my mother knocks, but still my mother scolds me, then I will let her go on and then I will go to sleep.” (Adolescent 5)

Another finding shows that parental substance abuse affects the adolescent's functioning and the functioning of the family as a whole. Participants specifically emphasised the mothers' use of substances and the lack of parental warmth as a result. Similarly, substance-abusing families are influenced by poor family relationships, e.g. limited cohesion, poor communication and lack of support. As a result, adolescents become withdrawn from their parents (Stanger, Dumenci, Kamon & Burstein, 2004). In a study done by Hitzeroth and Kramer (2010), it was evident that South African families who experience parental substance abuse experience feelings of helplessness, disappointment, frustration, and doubt, which contributes to increased anger and hostility in adolescence. It appears that parental substance abuse influence the support they are supposed to provide. As a result, adolescents become increasingly withdrawn and distant from their own feelings, showing less spontaneity in expressing their needs and wants. One participant stated the following.

“My dad is drinking a lot I do not visit him anymore, because he drinks too much. When I get there, he is drunk that is why I don't go there anymore. Yes, I do talk to him but find it difficult to discuss with him, what I really want to say or ask.” (Adolescent 4)

The study showed that parental substance abuse has an influence on the parent-adolescent relationship, with adolescents withdrawing from the parent and putting strain on the parent-adolescent relationship. Parental substance abuse as reflected from the data influences the relationship with the adolescent and limits the involvement of the parent in the life of the adolescent. Parents that are not involved in the life of their children or show limited parental interest have the least parental control and interaction with their children, and thereby provide an environment that increases susceptibility to negative peer influences and involvement in crime (Dynes et al., 2015; Junger-Tas, 2012; Lucia et al., 2012). In addition, low levels of parental involvement have been associated with substance use and delinquency (Ingram, Wolfe & Lieberman, 2007).

Across the different family structures, some participants mentioned that their mothers bore more responsibility for the monitoring and supervision of the adolescent, regardless of both parents being present in the household. Most of the participants mentioned that their mothers had to work long and irregular hours. They were therefore left unsupervised with limited house rules and were harshly punished for not adhering to parental expectations. The strain that these mothers experience influence their relationship with the adolescent as well as the adaptation and the development of the adolescent. Furthermore, these adolescents are left on their own with limited boundaries and are exposed to negative friends.

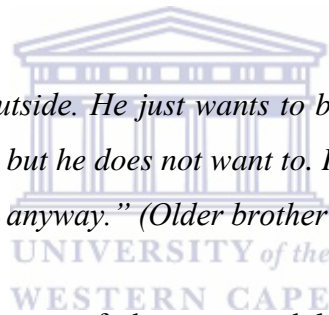
“They come between 2 and 3, o’clock out (of school). So, he is big enough, he can look after himself.” (Parent 1)

“They do not set clear boundaries for the child, for example, what is the child's tasks at home, are not adaptable to what the child wants or needs, or they set unclear limits and then allow the child to do what he or she wants to do.” (Social worker 4)

“So it seems like that, there is normally no discipline structure in place. The child can go and come back when he wants or maybe there is kind of rules, but it is not enforced.” (Social worker 5)

An older brother of one of the married families differed in opinion, saying that his parents do provide boundaries and talk to the adolescent about his misbehaviour, but that there is no behavioural change.

“Most of the time he is outside. He just wants to be on the street, my mother has already talked to him, but he does not want to. He's like the one that wants but then he is still doing it anyway.” (Older brother 10)



Due to the bi-directional influence of the parent-adolescent relationship, the parent participants are unable to control their children and blame the adolescent for not adhering to family rules. This is clearly expressed in the following quotations:

“Mostly they are unable, to discipline the child because it is at the stage where the child gets very stubborn now he is doing his own stuff. Child doesn't want to go to school, parent don't know what to do he will try maybe go to the school to negotiate for the child, but the child won't go to school or maybe even cause trouble at school, so they get to a stage where they really don't know what to do and that's when they let children continue with whatever they are doing.” (Social worker 3)

“There are rules, but they do not follow the rules when they need to be early (in the house) dinner time when it is time to eat and when they have to pack their clothes and so on. Daily things that I let them do, but they don’t listen to me.” (Parent 7)

Some participants from different families argued that the manner in which the rules are enforced contribute to deviant behaviour.

“I feel sad because if someone asks her something, I make an example, to go to a party, she will say no. To go to a party, she will say no, that’s why we just go because she says for everything no. I do not like it. She must be open with us, then she can say for the wrong things, you can’t go because it is too dangerous or something. Or she can say what time you can come in and then you can come home at that time.” (Adolescent 3)

“They hit me sometimes so much, but for this month they did not touch me. I told them that they should not beat me anymore. They are my mother and father and should not touch me like this, because it is wrong to hit me every time.” (Adolescent 9)

The extract above shows that inconsistent and harsh discipline gives rise to a sense of insecurity and confusion, with adolescents expressing sadness, rebellion and questioning parenting discipline. The study done by Fite, Colder and Pelham (2006) found that parents who apply inconsistent rules and discipline or who are harsh in their parenting tend to have children with a higher level of aggression. One parent mentioned that they tried to ensure the schooling of the adolescent by approaching the school when there were behavioural problems or when the adolescent did not want to attend school. However, it is evident from the results that parents become involved when problematic

behaviour is at a later stage with adolescents responding negatively or not showing an interest in adhering to parental values.

“He is no longer in school since last year. He went to school but started to play at school. Then I say no, no, you can never intimidate other people's children. If you do not feel like you want to go to school, do not waste, stay at home, you're going to become a problem on the streets.” (Parent 5)

“One time they called my mother then they told my mother we had never been to school. Then my mom was shocked and then they gave our departure cards. Then they took us off the list. Then my mother hit us and took us to another school. We went to the other school but repeated the behaviour.” (Adolescent 7)

Furthermore, the results show that an insecure connection between the parent and the adolescent influences the adolescent's commitment to change their behaviour and the parent's ability to ensure that parental values are adhered to. Parental absence in the household limits parental contact and makes the adolescent vulnerable to delinquent behaviour and insecure connections. Most of the families in this study were from single-parent households, where fathers are either absent or involved in other relationships. As a result, the adolescents' have developed an unfulfilled sense of belonging and have therefore withdrawn or limited their discussions with their fathers.

“A lot of them come from situations, where the adolescent normally lack , I would say a sense of belonging a sense of worth , a sense of dignity that is my experience. The adolescent then doesn't really have clear a vision, a clear goal for himself.” (Social worker)

"I have never seen him, not even a photo. That is the truth. When it is Christmas season, I see a father walks with his son and then I wonder where my father is?"
(Adolescent 5)

"I stay with my mother, my mother and father is divorced. I only see him (father) sometimes and then maybe on a week-end. He just greets me then he walks pass me. He never ever gives me something." (Adolescent 7)

The study has shown that adolescents need frequent, enjoyable interaction with their fathers, need the father to show concern and contribute to their welfare. Notably, most of the participants from the divorced single-parent families had the least regular satisfied contact with the non-resident biological fathers, with single-parent mothers having to take sole responsibility for the household and experiencing strain. Hawkins, Amato and King (2006) and King and Sobolewski (2006) argue that non-resident fathers are less likely to talk about or get involved in the personal problems of their children. This leads to sadness, diminished time spent together, and disruptive or anti-social behaviour in the adolescent. Therefore, the quality of the paternal relationship has an influence on adolescent risk-taking behaviours, especially for boys (Richter & Morell, 2006; Craigie, Brooks-Gunn & Waldfogel, 2010).

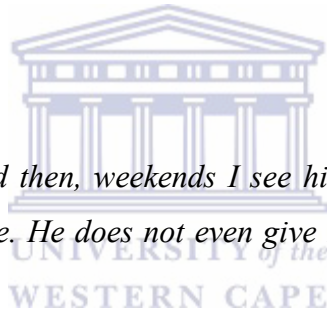
"Most of the time the children don't have any relationship with the father, because the father does not really recognise them, do not take responsibility of also assisting the mother of the child or children by rearing the child, bring the child up into a safe parental environment, this is really challenging because these children seeks out for role models which they get negatively."
(Social worker 1)

“We are not talking to each other. The children also do not want to do anything with their father. Almost never have contact with the father.” (Parent 7)

“My father drinks a lot and so. I do not go there anymore. (He) drink too much, when I go there he is drunk, that is why I don’t go there regularly. Yes, I do talk to him but not what I actually want to say or ask.” (Adolescent 4)

In line with the above, Mandara and Murray (2006) support the link between father absence, single parenting, and adolescent delinquent behaviour. Participants consistently referred to their fathers and their relationship with them, reflecting on their need for acknowledgment.

“I see him every now and then, weekends I see him. Then he just greets me and then he walks past me. He does not even give me anything.” (Adolescent 7)



Other research has shown that if fathers are not present in the household, then contact, communication and connection with the adolescent is reported to be limited compared to resident fathers (Flouri, 2010). In addition, the literature mostly refers to father absence, but one female adolescent from a foster parent family referred to the lack of attention she receives from an absent mother.

“My mother was drinking, then my dad could not look at us because he had a business. We never saw her. She never gave attention to us.” (Adolescent 3)

The discussion above shows that the presence of the father and the attention needed from parental figures, is valued by the participants. Parental absence leads to emotional

insecurity, which limits the adolescent's sense of connection with the family. It is noted that the children who live separately from either or one of their biological parents have a low level of connectedness and parental engagement with the father.

Systems theory, as discussed in the sub-theme, reflects the importance of hierarchical structures in the organization of the family and the determining of the family environment (Skytner, 2005). This then influences the interaction between the sub-systems (parent-adolescent sub-system) and determines the quality of the interaction and the feedback provided within the system (Mzikaci, 2006). Furthermore, for the family to stay connected, all components within the system are needed to provide optimal well-being. Disengagement between the parent-adolescent sub-system becomes evident when the feedback loops are affected, influencing the outputs that flows from the system. The low level of parental involvement, as presented in this sub-theme, influences the interaction in the system, altering the adolescent's behaviour and connectedness to the family.

5.3.2 Theme 2: Routines, rituals and traditions

Routines, rituals, traditions, and the inability of families to ensure consistent and clear application of these activities leads to adolescents being involved in negative friendships and engagement in delinquent behaviour. Most of the mothers in the study are primarily responsible for the involvement of the adolescent in family activities. The research shows that single-parent families, especially single-parent mothers, spend less time monitoring their children, expect less from them, and tend to have limited skills in the disciplining of their children in comparison to mothers who are married and have the

support of their spouse (Bastaitis & Mortelmans, 2014; Malik & Irshad, 2012). The participants mentioned that if the parents are not clear about what they expect from the adolescent in the household; adolescents become less involved and constantly need to be reminded by their parents. Conflict, over involvement with negative friends, and uncompleted tasks lead to disorganization within the household, and impacts on the relationship with the parent. In all the family structures, family disorganization is a reflection of their relationships and the parent-child interaction. Therefore, based on the perspective of general systems theory, the processes in families tend to suggest that clear family goals and the decision-making within the system are affected by unclear interactional patterns and inefficient sharing of information, creating a change in behaviour (Lander et al., 2013), with adolescents becoming disconnected from their family environment. The study has shown that most of the adolescents within the study have a limited involvement in family routines and rituals and therefore tend not to share information with their families or are involved in family routines and rituals. Therefore, the organizational patterns in the family determine family functioning and connectedness. Studies have found that family disorganization within the home environment is likely to be repeated in school and places of worship and increases the adolescents risk for delinquent behaviour (Walker, 2000; Stenson & Oberwittler, 2010). The family's involvement and inclusion of the adolescent in family activities is influential in the building of connectedness.

5.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2:1 Blurred routines

It is evident in the results that the adolescents and their parents differed in how they perceived the adolescent's involvement in daily routines, with parents complaining about their limited or non-voluntary involvement in comparison to the adolescents mentioning that they are actively fulfilling their daily activities. This theme reveals that the mothers

of these families were responsible for the issuing of tasks with unclear instructions and high expectations, thus contributing to conflict in the relationship and less involvement. Routines are based on collective repetitive action, and when the mother acts alone the action becomes individualistic and affects the interaction or transition of knowledge within the parental sub-system (Fiese, 2006). Mothers, especially from female-headed single-parent families, have to work, and are not always available to ensure active involvement and the completion of tasks. The participants mentioned that their mothers become frustrated, experience strain, and therefore become permissive in their enforcement of these tasks.

“In most cases the parents are working, they are not home during the day, yes, they order the children to do certain things, sometime children don’t follow those routines maybe where a parent would be at work during the day and order the child to clean the house, to cook, sometimes the children don’t follow, in fact mostly there’s no clear routine in the house, where the child should do this and this after this, after school. Do this and this and this, there’s no clear routine as to what they should do.” (Social worker 3)

In addition, the participants mentioned that the manner in which they are asked to be involved in family routines leaves them feeling emotionally hurt. Furthermore, the participants revealed that their mothers are less demanding or expective of their behaviour with them becoming frustrated and mothers taking on more responsibility for household tasks. The closeness in the relationship between the mother and the adolescent is a determining factor for the adolescent’s involvement in family routines and development of delinquent behaviour (Fiese et al., 2002; Crespo Santos, Canavarro, Kielpikowski, Pryor & Fe´res-Carneiro, 2013).

“Most of the time, the mother is head of the households who are not demanding or really said I want this to happen, in most of the time, okay its fine you don’t want to do it I will do it myself. Mostly the child says ok fine I don’t have to do it and as the result he gets older and older and the mother become frustrated because she wants certain things to be done. And this create a lot of, tension.” (Adolescent 1)

“I cannot tell her to do this or to do that, because the mouth is blown. Now I leave her to sit and if she comes home, I have cleaned the house.” (Parent 3)

“She just stands up and ask what I am going to eat, and then she throws me with the bread rolls. I did not answer and just sat. When I talk to her, she does not listen to me. She is more involved with the friends she became involved with.” (Parent 9)

Single-parent mothers argued that they have to take responsibility for the adolescent’s well-being with limited support.

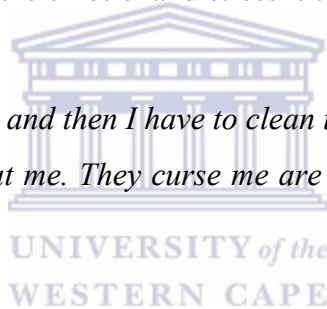
“All the time, I am responsible for caring for the children, without the maintenance of the father and whatever.” (Parent 4)

“There is no one, I will talk with him sometimes, or my mother will talk with him and say to him that he must stay out of trouble or leave this or that.” (Parent 2)

The above extract shows that parental overburdening and the separation of parental figures has an influence on the lack of supportive figures and the disorganization of families. It is noted that the strain that the parents experience has a direct influence on the communication between the parent and the adolescent, and contributes to the

adolescent's withdrawal from family activities, leading to conflict and stress in the household. Systems that experience strain have risky family processes that influence how problematic situations are dealt with, the solutions developed to address problems, and the feedback within the family environment, with families being unable to provide balance and connectedness within the system (Brody et al., 2017). Harsh verbal reprimands, e.g. shouting and cursing, influences the way in which challenging behaviours are dealt with and contributes to involvement in delinquent behaviour (Evans & Burton, 2013; Sheehan & Watson, 2008; Wang, Dishion, Stormshak & Willett, 2011; Lunkenheimer et al., 2017). Some participants mentioned the emotive way they are reminded to complete tasks and the emotional distress it causes.

"I have to clean the house and then I have to clean the yard that is all. (If) I do not, and then they shout at me. They curse me are rude with me if I don't do it." (Adolescent 8)



"My mom stresses a lot at me if I don't do things. Every morning if I stand up, I have to do it [my routines]." (Adolescent 7)

The findings of this study show that there is an expected pattern in the enforcement of rules that is clouded by the quality of the interaction between the parent and the child, which contributes to feelings of insecurity and anxiety. These insecure connections with the parent have a direct influence on the adolescent's behaviour, resulting in truancy or roaming the streets. The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship affects the adolescent's behaviour and connections in school and puts the adolescent at risk for behaviour problems (Laizane, 2012). The participants mentioned that the same pattern

that is followed in the household is followed in their schooling, affecting regular school attendance.

“I went to school in the mornings. My mother sends me to school, but I absconded from school and walk my own way.” (Adolescent 7)

The findings of this study show that disorganization and non-adherence to rules within the family have an influence on adolescent behaviour and their involvement in risky behaviour. A few participants noted that female adolescents are more inclined to leave the house and sleep out when they are unhappy with the family environment.

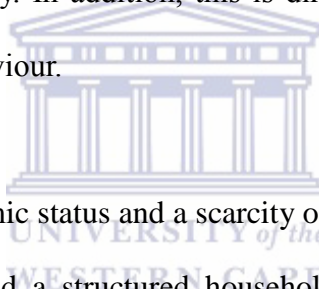
“She sometimes leaves the home without permission and then, she's comes home tomorrow or so.” (Parent 9)

“D did not sleep in the house last night, then my husband doesn't want us to speak so loudly about it. Then I do not open the door for them, because they arrive at 2 o'clock in the morning, then my husband stands up and opens the door to them.” (Parent 3)

Family stress has an influence on the parent-child relationship as well as on all the other subsystems in the family, which affects the behaviour of the adolescent and how they cope in other spheres of life. Similarly, in their research, Achenbach, Ivanova, Dumenci, Almqvist and Bilenberg (2007) and Laizane (2012) found that adolescents that are unhappy in their family environment are at risk for delinquent behaviour, either becoming withdrawn or getting involved in fights and conflict. One parent participant mentioned the adolescent's response, showing limited respect towards the parent.

“If I talk to her she just makes a noise with that phone. She does not take notice of me.” (Parent 3)

It could therefore be said that routines provide a structure that guides behaviour, and if it creates disorganisation it becomes a threat to group cohesion and the parent-adolescent relationship, and also contributes to delinquent behaviour in adolescence. The parent-adolescent relationship is the basis for family interaction and connectedness in the family. The study done by Wilkinson-Lee, Zhang, Nuno and Wilhelm (2009) shows that the limited involvement of adolescents is linked to the low level of connectedness within families in relation to adolescents that are involved in routines at home and who share their time and space with family. In addition, this is directly linked to the adolescent’s involvement in delinquent behaviour.



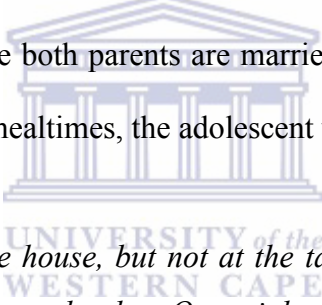
Families with low-socio-economic status and a scarcity of resources experience immense strain and are unable to uphold a structured household environment and ensure the involvement of the adolescent in household functions (Hasenfeld, 2010). Furthermore, as the study indicates, sharing a meal together as a family is a struggle for families that have limited space and where the mother works irregular hours. However, participants from four families responded positively to sharing meals together on a regular basis with adolescents partaking in these meal times.

” Everyone is eating together we are not sitting at a table, our house is not so big, we all sit in the front room and watch TV, we all eat together.” (Parent 2)

” My mother just made a nice meal the evening and so everyone sat together and ate, so ”. (Adolescent 4)

"We love sitting next to the table and eating and chatting. Everyone who lives in the house, we each eat together at the table. It's good." (Adolescent 6)

The findings show that despite the obstacles these families experience they do invest in coming together for family meals, and thus provide the adolescent with a sense of structure and security. It is evident that family meals lead to group cohesion and adolescent well-being. In addition, several studies link regular family dinners with a low level of high-risk teenage behaviours, such as smoking, binge drinking, marijuana use, violence, school problems, eating disorders and sexual activity (Fiese, Tomcho, Douglas, Josephs, Poltrock & Baker, 2002; Fulkerson et al., 2006; Fishel, 2016). Subsequently, one other family member (where both parents are married) mentioned that although the family was partaking in shared mealtimes, the adolescent was never present.



"We all eat together in the house, but not at the table, we do not have a big house now. We just sit near each other. One might go to that side and two this side or two this side and then the other 2. Most of the time when it comes to eating time, that boy is not at home." (Older brother 10)

According to general system theory, regular non-involvement of one family member influences connectedness and the sharing of thoughts and ideas with family. This has an impact on the behaviour of the adolescent and decision-making within the system (Cross & Barnes, 2014). System processes govern the quality of interaction, provide stability in the family through the achievement of collective family goals, and determine how the family deals with the delinquent behaviour of the adolescent. It can therefore be said that routines provide structure and guide behaviour. If it creates disorganization, it becomes a threat to group cohesion. Therefore, in the study done by Wilkinson-Lee et al., (2009),

the limited involvement of adolescents is linked to a low level of connectedness within families in relation to adolescents that are involved in routines at home and who share their time and space with family. Furthermore, it is noted that a low level of connectedness within the family leads to delinquent behaviour in adolescents.

The next segment focuses on celebratory rituals and traditions in families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

5.3.2.2 Sub-theme 2.1.2: Celebratory rituals and traditions

Rituals and traditions assist with the organising of family life and offer stability during stressful times. Family rituals can be positively linked to marital satisfaction, personal identity, health in children, academic achievement, and closer family bonds (Fiese, 2006). In this sub-theme, the families describe their involvement in rituals as the connection with the larger family unit, which includes the extended family who are not sharing their immediate space, and where these rituals reaffirm family connection, and reinforce a sense of shared identity and belonging. Most of the participants described their traditions in accordance with their ritualized events and the sense of identity and belonging that are being felt in the participation thereof. It is evident that most of the participants could relate to special events that are celebratory in nature and include the extended family, fostering their sense of belonging and identity. Christmas, Easter, birthdays and the confirmation of their children were commonly celebrated in all the families. In an atmosphere of ritualized preparation their enthusiasm was evident; this could even be heard in their voices when it was mentioned.

“We sometimes in family time sit together like Easter, and then we are together. We first go to church first, then we eat together and Easter time too, and then all the families come together, so we spend the whole Christmas together all the time.” (Adolescent 3)

“My mom would, if it is my birthday. I am the only one who celebrated my birthday in this year. I celebrated the 28th of January. My mother just made a nice meal, the evening and so, everyone sat together and ate.” (Adolescent 4)

“If it's a birthday, then they always say, my niece will always come to our home and ask my mother if we can braai and so on, then we'll braai.” (Parent 2)

The study shows that participants across all family structures experience more happiness and active participation in celebratory rituals than in the daily patterned interactions of the family. Similar to this finding, Spagnola and Fiese (2007) in their research found that families, with few exceptions, easily talk about rituals that they are involved in within the extended family group (larger group); these foster connection, positive feelings of excitement, and make the transitional periods in families more bearable. In line with the general systems theory, being together and sharing the same space has a familial element, which embodies relationships and family atmosphere (Mason & Muir, 2013). Therefore, the significance of being with family and re-connecting with the larger family beyond their immediate family fosters a sense of belonging and identity, which ignites passionate adolescent interaction and limits involvement in delinquent behaviour. However, one adolescent differed in opinion, arguing that he has never celebrated his birthday with the family, and indicated that this contributed to his involvement in gang related activities.

“I am now 17 years old. I've never remembered a birthday of me. My first birthday was when I was 16 years old then my friends, the Pittfitts, we collected money and drank together and so what the next morning after all that drinking I saw I had been tattooed. This is the next morning when I waked up.” (Adolescent 5)

The findings show that in the absence of ritualized events within the family, adolescents seek a sense of belonging and identity amongst negative friends who provide the opportunity for delinquent behaviour. The adolescent participants focused on the socio-economic circumstances and single parenting in the implementation of family rituals, whereas parents noted that despite their efforts, the adolescents do not want to engage in these rituals.



“He never wants to go with us, now that he's so big. I have to say to him New Year, you're not going to stay at my house, I am going to close my house because we're going to camp New Year.” (Parent 5)

Families that are unified are more able to ensure the inclusion of the adolescent in family rituals and provide the adolescent with support and protection (Crespo et al., 2013; Bandura, Caprara, Barbaranelli, Regalia & Scabini, 2011). Adolescents that are involved with their family remain connected to their parents, and are protected against delinquent behaviours (Malaquias, Crespo & Francisco, 2014). Consequently, if the adolescent does not partake in family rituals, isolation occurs with more exposure to delinquent behaviour and less connectedness to the parent.

However, most of the participants noted that religious rituals assist the family to stay connected and provide a sense of belonging and hope when dealing with difficult situations; they provide protection against delinquent values. Most of the families experienced disengagement or limited involvement in religious activities. Two single-parent mothers mentioned that they attend church and pray regularly during crisis situations. However, most of the other families had a breakdown in their church attendance as a family or in their connection with a higher being, influencing their sense of belonging and involvement with members in the family. Participants supported the above statements as follows:

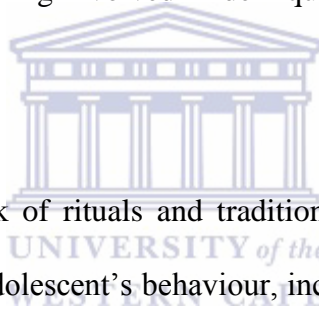
“We went to church, but now we are no longer going to church.” (Adolescent 1)

“My mother is, we are Apostolic, but I do not attend church anymore.” (Adolescent 8)

“As she said, I fight a lot with her. She does not go to church. I really care about her. She has been confirmed, yesterday I reminded her, you must go to church, you do not listen then this morning came the other one and ask were you in church? Were you in the church? Then I say no we were supposed to go to church, but we are neglecting attending church and it shouldn't be like that.” (Parent 4)

The results showed that most of the families experienced a breakdown in the consistent application of religious rituals, which shaped the adolescents' interest, behaviour, connectedness to religious institutions and relational bonding with their families. Similar to this, Petts (2009), Goodman, Dollahite, Marks and Layton (2013), and Mahoney and Cano (2014) found that there is a strong link between the religious conviction of the

adolescent and connectedness with family members. Families that attend religious services together and spend time with one another are more hopeful and have a high level of connectedness with one another. In these families, adolescents are less likely to be involved in delinquent behaviour (Pearce & Haynie, 2004). In addition, their religious values contribute to how they deal with the exposure to alcohol, marijuana, or cigarettes, and assist them in coping with harsh parenting and poor self-control (Kim-Spoon, Farley, Holmes, Longo & McCullough, 2014). Therefore, if the families do not transmit family values through their religious family traditions, the parent-child relationship weakens, and the parent provides inefficient training and opportunity to deal with life's stresses, with adolescents becoming involved in delinquent behaviour and experiencing depression.

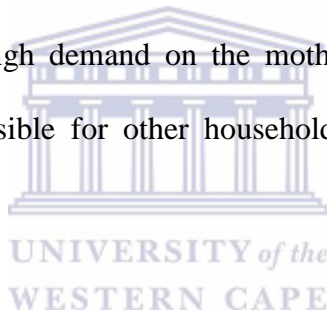


This theme shows that the lack of rituals and traditions within the family influences family connectedness and the adolescent's behaviour, increasing the risk of involvement in delinquent behaviour. According to general systems theory, family processes are dependent on the family being actively involved in the system, and for one another to be mutually influenced and to stay connected (von Bertalanffy, 1972). Therefore, if the systems are unable to ensure that the members stay engaged and adhere to the system's aims, the family processes lead to disengagement, and adolescents become less involved in ritualized events and overly involved with other systems, for example, negative peers.

The final theme focuses on families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law and the reactions and behaviour of the parents and adolescents, as well as the community influences that affect connectedness in families.

5.3.3 Theme 3: Families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law

This theme is based on the families across the different family structures that have to deal with delinquent behaviour, with parents experiencing shame, disappointment and guilt towards the adolescent's behaviour. The results showed that the mothers within the different families are more representative in supporting the adolescent through court proceedings, with a limited involvement of the father, and with one older brother that showed more involvement in the adolescent's behaviour. A divorced family setting, as presented in the study, leaves the single-parent with limited support and having to deal with the delinquent behaviour on their own. Therefore, parental separation and the lack of parental support places a high demand on the mother to provide and support the adolescent while being responsible for other household functions. Some participants supported the above statements.

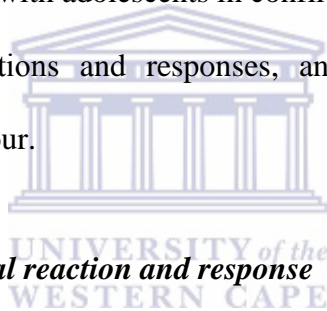


" Mostly the mothers that come to court, just now and then you see both parents in court, there is very few, but it is mostly the mothers that come to court. They have to deal with this child, with this behavioural problem child. Sometimes it is very difficult for the mother because she might also go to work." (Social worker 1)

"Normally the father figure is absent, in cases where there is a father and a mother, my experience is that it will always be the mother that is present when I do the assessment, although there is a father. It will always be the mother that is coming to the police station." (Social worker 5)

"I do not really feel happy about it, because then I have to stay out of work to go to court with him, and this is all things. I can lose my job." (Parent 8)

Several studies have shown that parents that ineffectively communicate with their children or lack the ability to support their children are linked to delinquent behaviour in adolescence (Mack, Leiber, Featherstone & Monserud, 2007). Most of these families are divorced single-parent families and parents that have to take sole responsibility for their children. They are under immense strain to effectively support and provide the needs of the other family members. According to De Paúl, Pérez-Albéniz, Guibert, Asla & Ormaechea (2008), neglectful parenting influenced by poverty, high stress, single parenting and traumatic events, render parent's incapable of adequately providing for the emotional needs of their children and dealing with problematic behaviour. This theme, which concerns parents dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law, will explore the parents and adolescents' reactions and responses, and community influences that contribute to delinquent behaviour.



5.3.3.1 Sub-theme: 3.1: Parental reaction and response

The findings of this study show that the parents felt that the wrongful behaviour of their children were threatening their parenting role and affecting their ability to ensure positive behaviour. The relationship between the parent and the adolescent is highly dependent on one another. This relationship contributes to the reactions and responses of the parent and the adolescent. Most of the parents mentioned that they were shocked, unhappy or disappointed in the adolescent's behaviour, which influenced the support they could render to the adolescent. Participants from these families were vocal about how they felt and even showed emotional reactions by visibly crying over the adolescent's behaviour.

*"I told me, it is different for me because a child don't drag me to court."
(Parent 4)*

*"Then I felt very, very unhappy. I almost felt I could beat him, I was very sad
because I did not even use it, so why did he." (Parent1)*

*"I was very upset, then I said what is F doing now. He wants to live like this
and I sacrificed myself to keep him in school." (Parent 5)*

Parenting style, especially neglectful parenting, has been linked to adolescent delinquent behaviour and also affects connectedness with the adolescent (Baumrind, 2005; Hoeve, Blokland, Dubas, Loeber, Gerris & van der Laan, 2008). According to general systems theory, continuous feedback within the system influences the behaviour of the parent, which shapes the parent-child interaction and provides the opportunity for the family to self-correct and maintain the balance within the system (Visser, 2007). Leadership, parental skills and alternative resources that parents have are influenced by the inputs within the system and impact how they deal with problematic behaviour.

The parents within the study responded to the adolescent's behaviour by blaming themselves and the adolescent for their involvement in delinquent behaviour, weakening the closeness with the adolescent. Most of the participants either threatened the adolescent with harsh punishment or by withdrawing from them, or not discussing their behaviour with them. Parents that blame their children are associated with anger and harsh discipline (e.g. yelling, spanking, or hitting one's child), which damages the family's relationships (Baumeister, Stillwell & Heatherton, 1994; Dearing & Tangney, 2011). Gold, Sullivan and Lewis (2011) are of the opinion that there is a direct link

between abusive parenting, the shame that parent's experience, and how they blame their children for their involvement in problematic behaviour. Furthermore, parents that are ashamed of their children are angry and tend to use harsh physical punishment or verbal threats of punishment to address their feelings of worthlessness (Bennett, Sullivan & Lewis, 2005). Some of the participants supported the above by stating the following:

"I almost felt I could beat him." (Parent 1)

"I was sad, sad last week, and Wednesday. I was so disappointed, and I wanted to beat him." (Parent 6)

The extract above confirms a study done by Murray (2013) who evaluated young people's perspectives of parenting in the context of offending behaviour. In addition, the study further showed that the parents were highly emotional, punitive and less restrained than normal. Furthermore, harsh parenting or the threatening thereof is an ineffective way of role modelling emotional behavioural management, limiting adolescents in achieving their own personal goals and the effective management of their behaviour (Lunkenheimer, Ram, Skowron & Yen, 2017; Ross & Howe, 2009). One participant (from a married family) argued that his mother showed no interest or willingness to support him during the arrest or even attend the court proceedings.

"My mother said she will not come with me, that day when the detectives picked me up, she said, she did not care about such things. She did not even tell me I should do this or that." (Adolescent 10)

In addition, the parental participants even tried to justify the adolescent's behaviour as a coping mechanism in dealing with the delinquent behaviour.

“I smoked cigarettes and then I stopped it, I think he has seen what his dad does, so that is why I do not smoke anymore. I think he probably saw that I started smoking, he wanted to feel, how he would feel. Then he mistook himself and then he used something stronger. And he did not use a cigarette.” (Parent 1)

“You can ask the detective the day they get there, and when I had to sign. I said I was not involved there, but I sent the child. If I did not have sent her, and that was her own thing, I would not really have to come to court.” (Parent 1)

The findings show that the justification of the behaviour of the adolescent is one way for the parent to cope with and manage the adolescent’s delinquent behaviour. Parental strain affects the feedback patterns and system outputs, with families not able to reach equilibrium and becoming dysfunctional (Kim & Rose, 2014). In addition, this affects interactional patterns within the family system. In this study, the parental participants used self-blame as a method to focus attention away from the adolescent and the presenting behaviour. The justification of the adolescent’s behaviour instilled the message that the display of negative behaviour is appropriate, and therefore, could be linked to delinquent behaviour (Nelson, O’Brien, Blankson, Calkins & Keane, 2009).

Furthermore, the adolescent participants argued that they were surprised and shocked at the way the parents responded, showing their intense disappointment and concern for their safety during the arrest.

“My mother was very disappointed; my mother never knew I was walking with them (gangs).” (Adolescent 5)

"My mother was very shocked as I can see as I can say, my mom, my parents are not worried, but they are actually worried they are because they phoned everywhere. They wanted to make sure they talked to people. They called family and said K was arrested and they asked advice, how can we make to get him out." (Adolescent 2)

The findings of the study show that most of the adolescents perceived the parental reaction as being different to their normal behaviour and were unsure of how to cope with this overly responsive parenting. It is evident that the pattern being followed by the parents was surprising to the adolescent, showing that the emotional boundary within the family that fosters connectedness has never been met. Hence, if the parent has limited parental demands and expectations, the adolescent tends to grow up with a low level of self-esteem and feeling insecure towards their parental responses in difficult situations (Gault-Sherman, 2012). Therefore, the limited emotional expressiveness between the adolescent and the child influences their relationship and contributes to the adolescent's involvement in delinquent behaviour. Most of the participants mentioned that their parents wanted to influence their friendships with their peers and determine whom they could associate with.

"My mother has a problem with them. She says they are not the real friends for me. I have to stay away from them. I feel that they are my friends. Then I say no, that is my friends. She cannot choose my friends and I do not choose her friends, it is my friends." (Adolescent 10)

This finding shows that parental involvement in the adolescent's peer connections has an influence on delinquent behaviour and adolescent-parent connectedness. This study

highlight, that parental engagement only started after the adolescents' involvement in delinquent behaviour, causing conflict and rebellion against parental influences. Parental figures (from married families), after exhausting their coping capabilities, sought help outside the immediate family's boundaries.

"Last time, I bought him a computer just to make sure he is at home and do not get involved with the wrong friends. I watch him, from here on. He needs to go out with me. Do lots of sports with them, cricket, play soccer." (Parent 1)

"Any parent will not feel good, will get ashamed so that is why I say I will take her to social services." (Parent 9)

There is a strong reciprocal relationship between parenting and delinquency and is based on the bonding between the parent and the child (Gault-Sherman, 2012). Parent-adolescent interaction is central to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. The interventions proposed by the parents are limited and were made after the incident had occurred. They are therefore base on feelings of shame and guilt. Feedback patterns in systems are used by parents to self-correct the behaviour of the adolescent. However, it tends to reinforce rather than change the behaviour, with parents becoming unable to render support and deal with delinquent behaviour.

The following sub-theme will address the adolescents' reaction and responses in the families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

5.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Adolescent reaction and behaviour

In this sub-theme, the adolescents focused on the quality of the relationship with their parents and their perception of connectedness within the family. Most of the adolescents mentioned that family connectedness is influenced by the transactional patterns that contribute to feeling happy, valued and accepted by their family. The adolescent participants highly valued the parental understanding of their emotional and physical needs, and the acceptance of them as individuals. The results of the study showed that a low level of connectedness within the parent-adolescent relationship has an impact on how parents understand, respect, and value the adolescent, affecting the adolescent's sense of connectedness and involvement in delinquent behaviour. Warmth, love and support within the parent-adolescent relationship ensure the adolescent's connectedness to the family, and reduce the risk of delinquent behaviour (Yoo, 2017). Families ridden with conflict abuse substances, and where parental figures have separated, they are prone to have a low level of parent-adolescent connectedness. Concerning their family environment, some participants mentioned that they experience sadness and receive little attention from parental figures, limiting their contact with the parent.

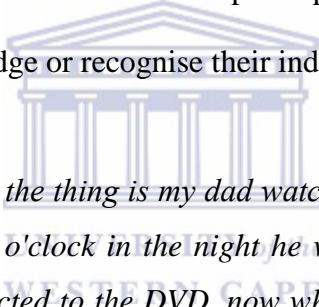
"If my father and my mother fight I do not feel good. They (siblings) cry in the evenings (cry softly)." (Adolescent 1)

"But if my mother is drunk, she will not even worry about me ... she will just entertain her friends and so." (Adolescent 5)

The findings show that the participants give prominence to the family environment, and that limited attention has an impact on family connectedness and the adolescent's relationship with their parents. Parental neglect or abandonment affects the warmth and

support within the household, with adolescents feeling depressed and withdrawn from the parent-adolescent relationship and getting involved in delinquent behaviour (Evans & Schamberg, 2009; Street, Harris-Brit & Walker-Barnes, 2009). Schippers et al., (2015) state that based on general systems theory, the behaviour of the adolescent is an output of the processes in the system with parents not being able to provide warmth and support to enhance family well-being.

Furthermore, the adolescent participants mentioned that they appreciate it when their parents show respect towards them, acknowledge and address their emotional and physical needs when communicated to them. One participant stated that their parents are insensitive and do not acknowledge or recognise their individual needs.



“We stay in a little house; the thing is my dad watches movies every day. He's at home now 2 o'clock, 3 o'clock in the night he watches TV. Now there's a speaker that he has connected to the DVD, now when he puts it on at night, I wake up then I can't sleep anymore. It is also very cold, and I cannot sleep well. He says it is no problem for him. If I tell him then he wants to say to me, you cannot tell me, the DVD belongs to me. That is why I do not watch TV anymore. Watching TV is also a problem.” (Adolescent 10)

In addition, another adolescent mentioned their parent's insensitivity to their feelings.

“I mean if I'm making an example, they never tell you something that makes you feel right, maybe if you've failed now they're going to tell you, you're stupid and no good.” (Adolescent 3)

This finding shows that adolescents feel hurt and experience their parents as inflexible when their viewpoints are disregarded. The data reflects that adolescents show

discomfort in the presence of the parent, isolating them from family interaction if their emotional and physical needs are addressed in an insensitive manner. Similar to this, Akin et al., (2015) state that adolescents become critical of their parents when their emotional needs are not met. This influences the relationship with the parent and leads to conflict in the parent-adolescent relationship, as well as delinquent behaviour. Therefore, the bi-directional relationship between the parent and the adolescent influences the conditional acceptance of one another, with adolescents seeking friendships or building relationships that address their specific need to feel loved, protected and supported. A few participants supported the above statement.

"I got to my friend, Sandiswa, because when I am with her I feel very happy. I get all the attention." (Adolescent 3)

"My grandmother and my grandfather, they love me. If my mother beat me, they protect me and then they stop my mom." (Adolescent 1)

"Then I got involved with gangsters and they have the girls and so." (Adolescent 5)

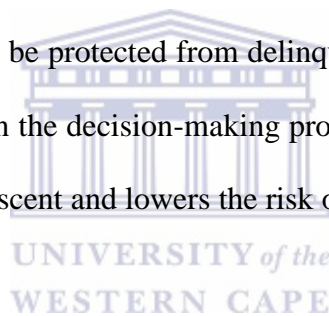
This finding shows that adolescents need to feel safe, secure, and experience warmth in their relationships, and therefore seek to develop connectedness with family members. If this need is not met, they will move beyond the boundaries of their immediate family to fulfil their need to connect with others. Relationship building with parents requires trust, which is characterized by the absence of fear; this facilitates the development of positive behaviour in the adolescent (Bernat & Resnick, 2009; Gault-Sherman, 2012). Some of the participants mentioned that the absence of feeling secure in the relationship with the

parent causes a breakdown in trust and honesty. As a result, they are more distant and less open in their relationship with the parent.

“Sometimes my mother says I cannot go, then I say, I'm going to visit next door, then I'm going and then I'll be back again, sometimes. One of the values my mother teaches me is not to lie to her. I do now lie to her.” (Adolescent 4)

“He is not honest with her because she has to hear stuff about him from people outside, and then he says he was not at all involved and so why.” (Older brother 10)

The extract shows that adolescents need a positive learning environment for them to adhere to parental values and to be protected from delinquent behaviour. In addition, the involvement of the adolescent in the decision-making process contributes to the building of connectedness with the adolescent and lowers the risk of delinquent behaviour.



This sub-theme showed that if adolescents do not feel accepted and secure in their relationship, then their connectedness with the parent is affected. The bi-directional influence between the parent–adolescent relationships has a direct impact on how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. Based on the general systems theory, the need for leadership is essential for positive system outputs and engagement within the system (Ramosaj & Berisha, 2014).

5.3.3.3 Sub-theme: 3.3: Community influences

This sub-theme addresses the implications of living in low-socioeconomic communities and the impact thereof on the adolescents' behaviour and family connectedness. The results obtained from the data showed that most of the families in the study were

exposed to poor, under-resourced communities characterized by high levels of violence and gangsterism that affects their everyday lives. Exposure to violence and gangsterism promotes weak family bonds and school attachment (Butcher, Galanek, Kretschmar & Flannery, 2015). The adolescents and parents mentioned the negative reaction from community members, putting strain on the parent and rendering them incapable of providing support and protection to the adolescent, influencing their relationship with their children. Furthermore, due to the adolescents' involvement in gangsterism, the family members became anxious, fearful, and concerned about their safety. Some participants supported the above statements, saying:

"I stay in an area that they call Chicago; now this is an area with a lot of violence. There is a lot of crime and so on." (Adolescent 5)

"There is a stone throwing every day. The boys walked past you openly with their guns, I saw that last night when they walked past me, and you cannot say anything." (Parent 4)

"It's getting more difficult in Chicago because they shoot in the day, they shoot at night when people get out of work, they shoot in the morning. Now I sometimes, I wonder where, he shows me he's in the house, and then I stand and wait for the vehicle to pick me up. Then I say no man, you're not going to make me work well. Because what do I know tomorrow morning, when I come home, then I hear you're dead or locked up or something." (Parent 5)

This finding shows that the participants' exposure to community dysfunction left both the parent and the adolescent with feelings of hopelessness and anxiety. Evidently, continuous worry and anxiety over their own and their children's safety, limits the parent's ability to adequately control and guide the adolescent, with adolescents

becoming involved in delinquent behaviour. The permeable boundaries within the system are influenced by overt exposure to the external boundaries of the family, rendering it incapable of effective functioning and exposing the adolescent to delinquent friendships and disengagement from the family (Brandell, 2010). Consequently, the bonding between the adolescent and the parent is a key factor in the delinquent behaviour of the adolescent (Parks, 2013). In their research, Chung and Steinberg (2006) found that there is a link between the disorganization within the community, delinquent behaviour, ineffective parenting and limited social cohesion.

“The next day I came to school with a knife and then he tried again, and then I stabbed him with a knife and then I was caught by a teacher and I could not hide the knife.” (Adolescent 5)

“They are wrongdoers, they are involved in naughty stuff, they just want to fight, with their friends, they just want to fight.” (Older brother 10)

WESTERN CAPE

The literature indicates that adolescents continually exposed to violence struggle to form positive and trusting relationships and are unable to achieve positive life goals (Guerra & Dierkhising, 2011). According to Butcher et al., (2015), high levels of community violence are related to weak family bonding and negative social relationships. Notably, most of the adolescent participants in this study are constantly exposed to violence in the family as well as in the community, and therefore, perceive it as the norm; thus, limiting the adolescent's emotional and social well-being. Adolescents that are constantly exposed to negative influences experience depression, which results in feelings of sadness, guilt and loss, and struggle to feel worthy (Hadžikapetanović et al., 2017; Brooks, 2011).

"I live in an area that they call Chicago, now there is a lot of violence. There they shoot day and night. It happens like women very small get pregnant at an early age. There are all the negative things in my area. I cannot say anything positive about my area." (Adolescent 5)

"There is a stone throwing every day. The gangsters walked past you openly with their guns. I saw that last night and you cannot say anything." (Parent 4)

Furthermore, the violence in the community limits the parent's ability to effectively protect and control the behaviour of the adolescent. Therefore, adolescents are inclined to join gangs as a form of protection and to have a sense of belonging.

"I was involved in a gang who called themselves the Pittfitts." (Adolescent 5)

"Grittler gang, they gang fight and so. They smoke dagga and some of them tik and smoke buttons." (Adolescent 7)

The extract above shows that the adolescent's involvement in gangs is directly linked to their exposure to drugs, violence, and delinquent behaviour in the community. In their findings, Jackson (2014) reveal that gang membership is strongly influenced by broken homes, involvement with negative peers, and anti-social behaviour by the adolescent. The study showed that most of the adolescents were using substances with their friends, with boys being the largest group acknowledging the use of substances.

"I think he saw me smoking and he wanted to experiment. He then did not start with cigarettes but started with something bigger, gunza (dagga) with wrong friends." (Parent 1)

“I smoked the oka pipe with dagga in. I don’t drink anymore because I have new friends that only smoke the oka pipe.” (Adolescent 5)

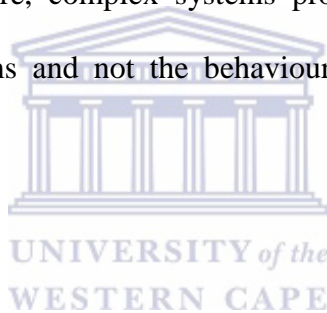
“ We went to sit at the river and then we smoke dagga.” (Adolescent 7).

The participants mentioned that the peer risk factors within the community influence their decision-making and their involvement with drugs. Cerda, Prins, Galea, Howe and Pardini (2016) point out adolescent boys who experience delinquent behaviour are more expose to and involved in substance abuse. The literature indicates that community influences that expose adolescents to the possibility of gang membership and association with negative peers, results in adolescents withdrawing from their family and becoming more dependent on negative friends (Gillman et al., 2014).

“My friends are very different, but they are ok to me. They are ok when we drink together. My mother has a problem with them. She says they are not the real friends for me. I have to stay away from them. I feel that are my friends. Then I say she cannot choose my friends because I do not choose her friends, but she says they are wrong friends.” (Adolescent 10)

The above extract shows that weakened family bonds increase the strain between the parent and the adolescent rendering the parent powerless to influence the decision-making of the adolescent. Young, Fitzgibbon and Silverstone (2013) state that stressed families lack the ability to impose appropriate boundaries and to provide the necessary skills to deal with the adolescent’s negative friends. Therefore, if the boundaries in the family are too permeable the adolescent tends to experience disengagement from the family and over involvement in the community; they have weak family bonds and are inclined to engage in delinquent behaviour.

In this discussion, von Bertalanffy's (1968) general systems theory was used to provide the background of connectedness in families by focusing on the input, process, outputs, and the feedback that determines the environment within which the family functions. Family processes that show decay lead to dysfunctionality with families being unable to deal with stress, which becomes an obstacle in the relatedness amongst family members. The tensions that evolved from feedback within the system led to family decay, which influenced the family environment and the family's ability to cope within this setting. This had an impact on family relatedness and their ability to deal with the adolescent in conflict with the law. Therefore, complex systems provide an understanding of the relationships within the systems and not the behaviour of one individual within the system (Senekal, 2013).



5.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, in this chapter the researcher explored family connectedness as a perceived link to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. She first discussed the demographic data and the themes that related to family connectedness, and the relationships amongst the subsystems and their interactional patterns. The main findings of the study described the challenges that families experience regarding relatedness within their dysfunctional environments and how they deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. The study showed that the families have an inability to ensure structural functioning through the enactment of family routines, rituals and traditions. Interestingly, the results showed that adolescents have a higher sense of connection with family members that are partaking in rituals involving the extended family, for example,

Christmas or Easter. In dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law, families are highly affected by external factors related to community influences and the parents lack the necessary skills to deal with delinquent youth.

In the next chapter, the researcher will state the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

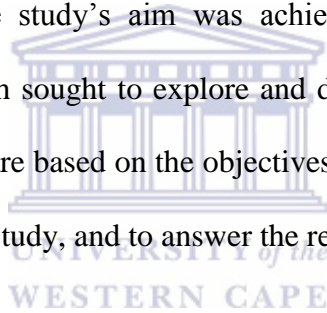


CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research. To recap, the aim of this study was to explore family connectedness and the perceived link to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law, particularly in the Drakenstein region. The research was guided by the following research question: “How is family connectedness perceived to be linked to families dealing with adolescents that are in conflict with the law?” This was answered in chapter five. The study’s aim was achieved by using a qualitative methodological approach, which sought to explore and describe the identified social phenomenon. The conclusions are based on the objectives that were initially used as a guide to achieve the aim of the study, and to answer the research question.



The three objectives of the study were:

- To explore the role of family connectedness in families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- To explore the family routines, rituals and family traditions guiding parents that deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.
- To explore how families, deal with adolescents that are in conflict with the law.

The findings of the study were based on a theory that was used to support, explain, and compare or contrast the findings. In the discussions surrounding the findings of chapter five, three main themes emerged. These three main themes were based on the

collected and analysed data. A summary of all the previous chapters will follow and will include the conclusions and recommendations that emerged from the study.

6.2 Summary and conclusions

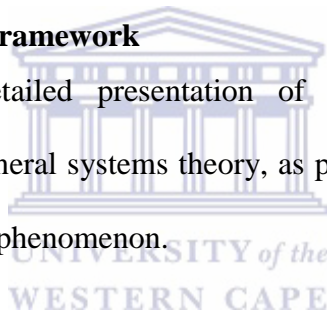
This section summarizes and provides the main conclusions of each chapter based on the empirical findings.

6.2.1. Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

Chapter One outlined the study by stating the research problem, and discussing the aim, objectives, and background of the study.

6.2.2. Chapter 2: Theoretical framework

Chapter Two provided a detailed presentation of the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The general systems theory, as provided by von Bertalanffy, was used to support the studied phenomenon.



6.2.3. Chapter 3: Literature review

Chapter Three explored the available literature in relation to the research topic. A detailed discussion of all the concepts relevant to family connectedness, the impact on families, and how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law, was presented.

6.2.4. Chapter 4: Research methodology

An explorative and descriptive qualitative approach was best suited to achieve the study's aim. The researcher recruited 10 families, which included a parent and adolescent and 5 social workers, which led to 25 participants being interviewed.

Purposive sampling was used. Data was collected by means of individual one-on-one interviews with parents, adolescents and social workers, guided by a semi-structured interview schedule. The coding process first ensured that the topics were organized and thereafter meaning was given to the data. After the large amounts of data were condensed, and then coded, themes were created from the relevant information gathered from the participants.

6.2.5. Chapter 5: Presentation and discussion of the findings

After the data was collected and analysed, the researcher presented and discussed the findings of the research in chapter five. The audio-recorded data was transcribed verbatim and analysed. Thereafter, the themes that emerged were described in detail. The findings of this study concluded by highlighting that family connectedness is linked to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law across the different family structures in Drakenstein. These findings were grounded on three themes: (a) family connectedness, (b) routines, rituals and traditions, and (c) families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

6.2.5.1. Theme 1: Family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law

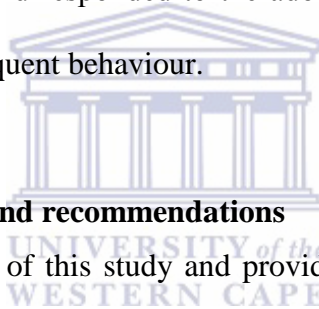
The overall outcomes of the study showed that family connectedness is linked to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law. Family structure and the parental engagement of parents were key factors affecting the relationship with the adolescent. A low level of connectedness was evident in all the families participating in the study, especially in the single parent and broken families.

6.2.5.2. Theme 2: The routines, rituals and traditions of families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law

The findings clearly showed that the families across the diverse family structures were inconsistent in their application of routines, rituals and traditions, with adolescents having a greater sense of belonging to celebratory rituals that involved the extended family. This led to insecure connections within the family environment.

6.2.5.3. Theme 3: Families dealing with adolescents in conflict with law

This theme showed that parents find it difficult to deal with the behaviour of the adolescent, as the adolescent becomes withdrawn and emotionally detached from the family. The way they reacted and responded to the adolescent's behaviour reflected their inability to deal with delinquent behaviour.



6.2.6. Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

Chapter six is the final chapter of this study and provides a global summary of the literature reviewed regarding family connectedness, rituals, routines and traditions, and how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. Here, the conclusions and recommendations of the study were further explained and linked to the study's findings.

6.3. Limitations of the study

Limitations are factors that cannot be controlled by the researcher and have an influence on the methodological output of the research (De Vos et al., 2011). The following challenges have been observed as limitations of this study's findings:

- The data drawn from the study were mostly from adolescents living in socially deprived and volatile communities. Because of the unsafe

conditions within their living environment, interviews had to take place somewhere else.

- The families were recruited from the database of the Department of Social Development and depended on the voluntarily participation of the participants.
- Most of the participants were from one racial group; however, the exclusion was not done on purpose, but was the result of the availability of cases on the social workers' caseloads.
- The adolescents interviewed in this study were mostly boys, and the gender of the parents was mostly female; once again, this selection was not done on purpose.
- Although the researcher intended to interview a diverse family grouping, the families that were mostly present were single parent and divorced family structures, with limited involvement from the married family.
- Ten families and five social workers were interviewed within Drakenstein. Therefore, the generalizability of this study's findings cannot extend beyond this sample.

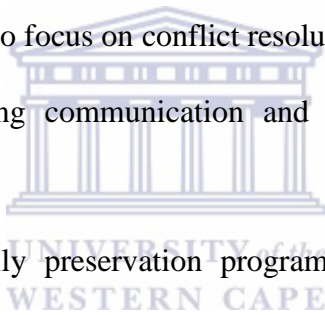
6.4 Recommendations

The recommendations regarding the perceived link between family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law are provided to address delinquent behaviour and related family problems. These recommendations can be used as an opportunity to address policies; they can also be used to initiate further research and may also assist the Department of Social Development to address the above phenomenon.

6.4.1 Recommendations for the Department of Social Development

The results of the study show that most of the parents in the study are single parents, particularly single mothers that are in need of support and lack the necessary parenting skills to deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. Social workers need to develop supportive programs to assist these parents in taking responsibility for their household and to ensure the active participation of their children in the household in the building of connectedness in families. The following programmes are proposed:

- Rendering support to substance abuse families and the strengthening of the relationship between the parent and the adolescent.
- Family therapy needs to focus on conflict resolution and decision-making
- Programmes addressing communication and discipline in dysfunctional families
- Development of family preservation programmes with an emphasis on strengthening the parent-child relationship.
- Parenting programmes that focus on the fathers in the family, assisting them with the challenges of parenting in their communities, as well as getting them more actively involved in supporting their children.
- The development of specialists and the adoption of a multidisciplinary teamwork approach that includes social workers and probation officers that can address the assessment of juveniles and ensure that the family's needs are being met.
- Liaising with the Department of Education to focus on adolescents from single-parent families and the identification of families in need of support.



6.4.2 Suggestions for future research

This research was conducted with a small group of participants within Drakenstein and should be expanded to the region of the Cape Winelands, especially considering the extent of the phenomenon and the influence it has on the families of delinquent children. The researcher therefore recommends that:

- Future research should address family connectedness and the perceived link to families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law with the emphasis on involving different ethnic groups as it could provide valuable results regarding this phenomenon.
- A comparison should be done looking at more serious offenders in relation to delinquents with minor offences.
- Future comparative studies on family connectedness between poor and wealthy families in South Africa and other countries are recommended.



6.5 Conclusion

This study's research question was answered using a qualitative approach, which also helped attain the research goal and objectives of the study. The results of this study provided insight into the perceived link between family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law in Drakenstein. This final chapter provided the reader with a summary and the conclusions of the preceding chapters, from the introduction, theoretical framework, literature review, applied methodology, and presentation of the research findings. Recommendations were made to the Department of Social Development based on the results. In addition, the researcher made suggestions for future research. In conclusion, the study is expected to add new

knowledge to a limited body of literature on family connectedness with a specific reference to how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law.



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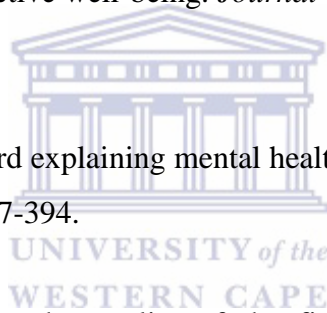
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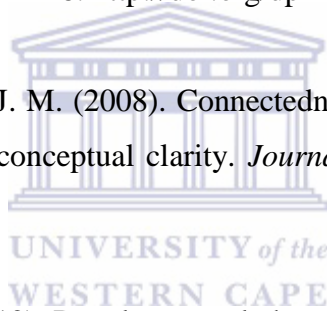
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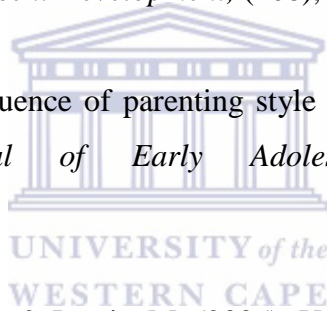
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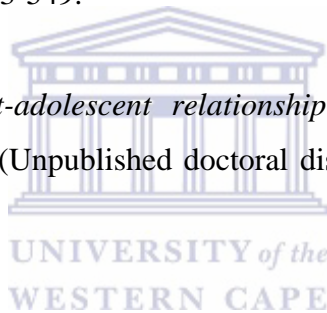
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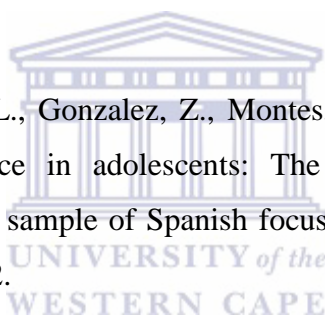
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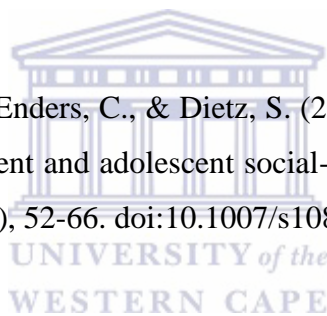
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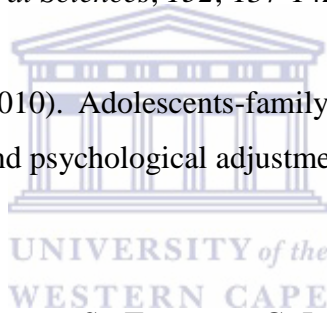
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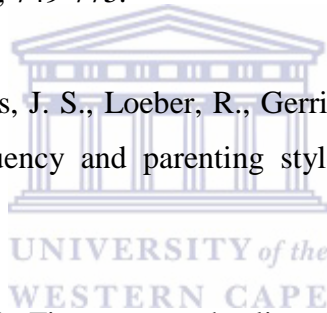
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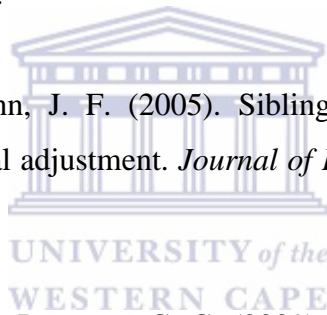
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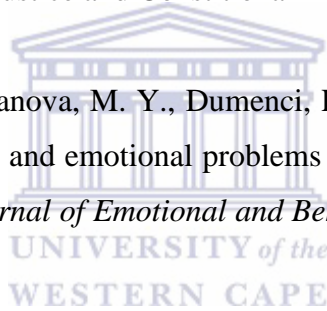
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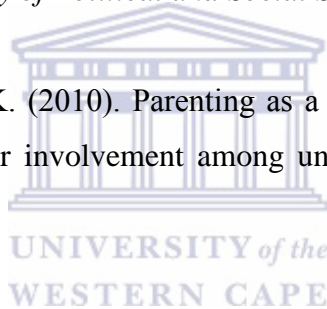
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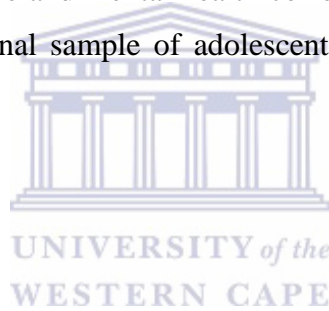
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APPENDICES

Appendix A



Research, Population and Knowledge Management

tel: +27 21 483 4512 fax: +27 21 483 5602

14 Queen Victoria Street, Cape Town, 8000

Reference: 12/1/2/4

Enquiries: Clinton Daniels/Petro Brink

Tel: 021 483 8658/483 4512

Ms M. Danhouse

32 Runelle Street

Paarl

7646

Dear Ms Danhouse

RE: APPROVAL TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH IN THE WESTERN CAPE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Your request for ethical approval to undertake research in respect of *'Family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law'* refers.
2. It is a pleasure to inform you that your request has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of the Department, subject to the following conditions:
 - That the Secretariat of the Research Ethics Committee be informed in writing of any changes made to your proposal after approval has been granted and be given the opportunity to respond to these changes.
 - That ethical standards and practices as contained in the Department's Research Ethics Policy be maintained throughout the research study, in particular that written informed consent be obtained from participants.
 - The confidentiality and anonymity of participants, who agree to participate in the research, should be maintained throughout the research process and should not be named in your research dissertation or any other publications that may emanate from your research.

Appendix B



**OFFICE OF THE DEAN
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT**

08 September 2015

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by:
Mrs M Danhouse (Social Work)

Research Project: Family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

Registration no: 15/6/10

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

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

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Josias'.

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

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
T: +27 21 959 2988/2948 . F: +27 21 959 3170
E: pjosias@uwc.ac.za
www.uwc.ac.za

A place of quality,
a place to grow, from hope
to action through knowledge

Appendix C



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
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E-mail: cjerasmusuwc.ac.za

INFORMATION SHEET (APPENDIX C)

Project Title: Family Connectedness and Families Dealing with Adolescents in Conflict With the Law

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Merle Danhouse at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you have been dealing with an adolescent that has been in conflict with the law. The purpose of this research project is to explore family connectedness and families dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to participate in individual interviews with the researcher and you will be required to answer the questions the researcher will present to you. The questions will be about the connections that you experience in your family and how families deal with adolescents when they are in conflict with the law.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

The researchers undertake to protect your identity and the nature of your contribution. To ensure your anonymity, a pseudo name will be used and there will be no documentation that will include your name or identity. A code will be put on the collected data. An identification key will be linked to your identity and will only be available to the researcher. To ensure your confidentiality, we will ensure that all information will be kept in a locked storage space and identification

codes will be put on the data collected. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected. This research project will involve making audiotapes of you. Permission will be asked from you to audiotape the interview and the recorded interview will be protected in a password protected computer file.

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.

What are the risks of this research?

There may be some risks from participating in this research study. 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?

This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help me as a researcher to learn more about family connectedness and how families deal with adolescents in conflict with the law. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of family connectedness.

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 Merle Danhouse at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Merle Danhouse at: 0721866824.

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:

Head of Department: Prof Schenk

Social Work Department

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

Email: schenck@uwc.ac.za

Tel: 021 09592011



Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences:

Prof José Frantz

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

chs-deansoffice@uwc.ac.za

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.

Appendix D



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

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E-mail: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR ADOLESCENTS (APPENDIX D)

Biographical data of the adolescents

Age:

Gender:

Language:

Ethnicity:

Grade:

Living with biological parents/ mother/father



Questions:

1. Tell me about the family that you are staying with?
2. Tell me about the routines that you have in your family?
3. Tell me about the values and traditions that your family have?
4. Tell me about the challenges that you experience when your parents discipline you?
5. Tell me how your family reacted and treated you, when they heard you were in conflict with the law?
6. Tell me about the relationship you have with your family?

Appendix E



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INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR FAMILIES OF ADOLESCENTS (APPENDIX E)

Biographical data of the family

Age:

Gender:

Language:

Ethnicity:

Grade:

Status: Married

Divorce

Widow /widower

Single

Children in the household:



Questions:

1. Tell me about the relationship between the family members?
2. Tell me about the routines in the family?
3. Tell me about the rituals in the family?
4. How do you involve your adolescent in the routines and rituals in the family?
5. Tell me about your feelings and reaction when the adolescent were involved in conflict with the law?
6. Tell me about the rules and discipline that you have in your family?

Appendix F



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INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SOCIAL WORKERS (APPENDIX F)

Biographical data of the social workers

Gender:

Language:

Years of service:

Questions:

1. Tell me about your experience with dealing with adolescents in conflict with the law?
2. Tell me about your experience with families that are unable to discipline their adolescents?
3. Tell me about the rituals in these families?
4. Tell me about the routines that are in these families?
5. Tell me about the family's reaction towards their children that are in conflict with the law?
6. Tell me about the disciplinary style of these families?



Appendix G



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ASSENT FORM (APPENDIX G)

Title of Research Project: **Relationship between Family
Connectedness and Families Dealing with
Adolescents in Conflict With the Law**

The study has been described to me in a 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.....

Witness.....

Date.....

Appendix H



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CONSENT FORM (APPENDIX H)

Title of Research Project: **Relationship between Family
Connectedness and Families Dealing with
Adolescents in Conflict With the Law**

The study has been described to me in a 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.....

Witness.....

Date.....

Appendix I



leeanneroux@gmail.com

082 825 7325

19 February 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: LANGUAGE EDITING

This letter serves to confirm that I have edited the thesis titled:

**'FAMILY CONNECTEDNESS AND FAMILIES DEALING WITH ADOLESCENTS IN
CONFLICT WITH THE LAW'**

by

MERLE DANHOUSE

#8530107

Please feel free to contact me if you need any further information.

Yours sincerely,

Lee-Anne Roux