

Risk Factors of Substance abuse among University Students: An Exploratory Study

Hlengiwe P. Gasa, Sazelo Mkhize, Kemist Shumba, Samuel F. Cinini* and Nirmala D. Gopal

Discipline of Criminology and Forensic Studies, School of Applied Human Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

Abstract: Substance abuse is a significant problem among tertiary level students, with alcohol/drug use associated with increased prevalence of negative outcomes, including diminished academic performance, social-interpersonal difficulties, and engaging in risky behaviours. To explore risk factors associated with substance abuse among university students, a qualitative approach was adopted. Twenty on-campus residents were selected through purposive sampling. To elicit their views in-depth interviews were used. Data were thematically analysed, and engendered themes were identified. The findings revealed that various kinds of substances are abused by university students, which include codeine, marijuana (weed), and alcohol. Substance abuse is a kind of behaviour that students either learn or do intentionally, despite their foreknowledge of the negative effects and the risk factors such as peer pressure, stress, and depression. The study concludes that university students are aware of the various negative effects of substance abuse, but they mostly justify it as a way of coping with academic pressure.

Keywords: Substances abuse, Risk factors, Crime, Illicit drugs, Alcohol, University students.

INTRODUCTION

The worldwide concern about substance misuse and its public health implications was addressed at the Special Session of the United Nations General Assembly in April 2016 (World Health Organization, 2018). Substance abuse includes the frequent use of illegal drugs or the misuse of legal drugs. Widely used drugs include hashish, charas, bhang, opium, alcohol, tobacco, and psychotropic drugs (Somani & Meghani, 2016). Substance abuse refers to the harmful or hazardous use of psychoactive substances, including alcohol and illicit drugs (Raphael, Raveendran, & Sajna, 2017). The phenomenon is particularly debilitating for young people, given that it is associated with a plethora of negative outcomes. The World Health Organization (WHO) classifies young people as those aged 10-24¹. Research shows that the availability and accessibility of substances are the main influencing factors driving substance abuse among the youth. Somani and Meghani (2016) reported that in Central Asian countries, alcohol and tobacco are both easily available and affordable. The same study concedes that many adolescents reported starting smoking, consuming alcohol, or using drugs at the age

of 11 years, or even earlier, because they had access to substances at home, and they could access drugs through their friends, local shops, or from street vendors. According to WHO², psychoactive substance use can lead to dependence syndrome, a cluster of behavioural, cognitive, and physiological phenomena that develop after repeated substance use. Hence, it is imperative to discourage psychoactive substance use, given its short and long-term implications for health and well-being.

Determinants of Substance Abuse among the Youth

Substance use initiation and other problem behaviours in early adolescence are pervasive and carry many deleterious effects not only for the youth but also for their families and the wider community (Ladis *et al.*, 2019). There are risk factors that contribute to substance abuse among the youth that include age, gender, poverty, peer pressure and media, family structure and relations, and the affordability and accessibility of drugs (Somani & Meghani, 2016). Understanding the various risk factors for substance abuse can help health care professionals and the broader community to address the problem of substance abuse among the youth. This is important, given that substance abuse is associated with many youth problem behaviours

*Address correspondence to this author at the Discipline of Criminology and Forensic Studies, School of Applied Human Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa; E-mail: samuefikiriri@gmail.com

¹World Health Assembly, 42. (1989). The health of youth: facts for action: youth and reproductive health. World Health Organization. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/173081> [Accessed on the 10th of July 2021]

²<https://www.who.int/teams/mental-health-and-substance-use/alcohol-drugs-and-addictive-behaviours> [Accessed on 14 July 2021]

including substance dependence, poor academic performance, and risky sexual behaviours.

The environments within which children grow significantly shape their life trajectories and outcomes (Maina, Ogenchuk, & Gaudet, 2021). Negative experiences often referred to as adverse childhood experiences (ACEs), are events in which a child is exposed to abuse. These experiences constitute a form of child abuse (psychological, sexual, or physical abuse), neglect, or other traumatic experiences (Maina *et al.*, 2021). Exposure to ACEs is associated with higher rates of mental health disorders such as depression, attempted suicide, and drug use (Merrick *et al.*, 2017). Individuals exposed to two or more ACEs are more likely to have a family history of alcohol problems than individuals with no ACEs (Hughes *et al.*, 2017). A dysfunctional home often creates a conducive environment in which most ACEs occur. These dysfunctions include household substance abuse, household mental illness, exposure to domestic violence, parental separation, and household criminality. Family financial problems, the death of a parent or close family member, and separation from family members are also regarded as ACEs (Hughes, Hardcastle, & Bellis, 2016).

The use of substances increases one's susceptibility to several problems associated with addicted drug users. Substance abusers tend to be more continuous users, and this can lead to mental and therapeutic co-morbidities (Basu, Basu, & Ghosh, 2018). Research has exhibited a strong connection between problematic drug use, social rejection, and poverty (Mackler *et al.*, 2015). Substance abuse is characterised by hostile effects and most abusers are victims of these effects (Mauro, 2007). Some of these hostile effects include self-declared supervision dismissal, physical abuse, physical assault, and sexual abuse. Epidemiological data further shows a progressive connection between stress-related disorders, PTSD, and substance use disorder (Jutras-Aswad, 2016).

In South Africa, a hard-drinking country, high social costs accrue from the behaviour that attends drunkenness: crime (murder, assault, rape, and robbery), interpersonal – including domestic – violence, sexual offences against children, reckless driving (or walking) accounting for road traffic deaths and injuries involving passengers and pedestrians, unsafe sex and sexual promiscuity with increased incidences of sexually transmitted infections (STIs), fetal alcohol

syndrome, child neglect, and school truancy (Seggie, 2012). Alcoholism among the youth is a particular concern, given that at least half of South Africa's population are categorised as young people, under 35 (World Health Organization, 2011). Parry (1998) concedes that alcohol use among the youth is common and increases with age for both males and females. The reasons for the use and misuse of alcohol include peer pressure and a desire to fit in, poor home environments and boredom, ignorance and alcohol's harms, and the relative cheapness of alcohol products and their ease of access (Seggie, 2012).

Alcohol Consumption among University Students

Globally, alcohol consumption is a significant public health concern and it is one of the most important risk behaviours among young adults, including university students (Htet *et al.*, 2020). In 2018, an estimated 26.5% of the global population between the ages of 15 and 19 were consuming alcohol (World Health Organization 2018). In the United States, the 2017 Youth Risk Behaviour Survey reported that 29.8% of their student participants had consumed alcohol in the previous 30 days (Kann *et al.*, 2018). In Europe, the prevalence of alcohol use among university students was reported as follows: 46.2% (males) and 28.1% (females) in Bulgaria, 41.1% (males) and 18.1% (females) in Germany, and 20.1% (males) and 10% (females) in Poland, respectively (Mikolajczyk *et al.*, 2016). In Japan, approximately 56.8% and 47.8% of male and female university students were binge drinkers (Yoshimoto *et al.*, 2017). Sub-Saharan African countries, including Nigeria, are confronted with a high prevalence of alcohol use (Ajayi, Owolabi, & Olajire, 2019).

Alcohol consumption accounts for 5.9% of annual global deaths, a significant proportion of which occur among the youth (World Health Organization, 2018). An Asian multi-country study, which included Japan, reported that the alcohol-related mortality rate among 15 to 24 years old youth was 15% among males and 6% among females (Jiang *et al.*, 2018). Previous studies have reported that alcohol consumption can lead to poor academic performance, injuries, fights, the use of substances, and risky sexual behaviours among the youth (Manickam, Abdul Mutalip, Hamid, Bt Kamaruddin, & Sabtu, 2014; So, & Park, 2016).

Alcohol use is considered the main risky behaviour among adolescents, young adults, and students in general (Dumbili, 2013; Dumbili & Williams, 2016). Harmful alcohol use among this cohort is strongly

associated with various health and mental disorders such as suicidal ideation, aggressiveness, self-harm, and alcohol dependency (Dumbili, 2013; Tosevski, Milovancevic, & Gajic, 2010). Similarly, harmful use of alcohol can lead to functional impairment among students, which may result in poor academic performance, and increased drop-out rates (Mekonen, Fekadu, Mekonnen, & Workie, 2017). There is also an associated increase in risky sexual behaviour among students who use alcohol in a harmful way (Choudhry, Agardh, Stafström, & Östergren, 2014).

There are several underlying drivers of substance abuse among student that include socio-demographic factors such as age, sex, and socio-economic status of students (Lasebikan *et al.*, 2018; Olashore, Ogunwobi, Totego, & Opondo, 2018). Some scholars have posited that the change in lifestyle behaviour that accompanies tertiary education, and the perceived freedom from parental control further heightens the prevalence of risky behaviour (Dumbili & Williams, 2016; Tosevski *et al.*, 2010). Other scholars have established an association between harmful alcohol use among students and dysfunctional family settings, and the influence of media adverts as drivers of substance abuse (Dumbili, 2013; Gray, 2018; Salaudeen, Musa, Akande, & Bolarinwa, 2011). Religion has a protective effect on alcohol use (Evereth, 2019). A study conducted by Ajayi *et al.* (2019) demonstrated that the use of alcohol is lower among Muslims compared to Christians. Islam forbids alcohol use, and the enforcement of non-use of alcohol among Muslims is more pronounced in the northern region compared to the southern part of Nigeria (Ajayi *et al.*, 2019). Various other reasons have been purported to contribute to harmful alcohol use among this age group, and these include peer pressure, academic-related stress, overwhelming workloads, and unhealthy competition among peers (Magrys & Olmstead, 2015; Melaku, Mossie, & Negash, 2015; Tosevski *et al.*, 2010). However, young students see school years as a time to experiment with the various habits they see in their environment, and they sometimes engage in alcohol use for social identity, to improve sexual performance or deal with the stress accompanying academic activities (Norris *et al.*, 2009; Tosevski *et al.*, 2010).

In 2016, the harmful use of alcohol resulted in 3 million deaths (5.3% of all deaths) worldwide and 132.6 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) – i.e., 5.1% of all DALYs in that year (Kamenderi *et al.*, 2021). Mortality resulting from alcohol consumption is higher than that caused by diseases such as tuberculosis,

HIV/AIDS, and diabetes (World Health Organization, 2018). Many studies have reported the interactions of alcohol with smoking and the use of drugs, and several health consequences related to continued use of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs (Manickam *et al.*, 2014). Globally, excessive drinking in young people is a major public health problem. It is known that excessive drinking does not only cause acute alcohol poisoning but also contributes to dangerous behaviours while in a drunken state, such as those leading to injuries, rape, suicide, etc. (Yoshimoto *et al.*, 2017). For instance, drug and alcohol abuse together with depression and anxiety, and lack of social support from family and friends have been reported to be risk factors of suicide ideation among university students (Bantjes, Kagee, McGowan, & Steel, 2016). A study conducted by Wild, Flisher, Bhana, and Lombard (2004) found that most South African adolescents engage in alcohol misuse, smoking, and other substances that can be used to combat low self-esteem. The clustering consequence of risky health behaviours is apparent as substance use may upsurge the probability of unprotected sex, reckless driving, violence, etc. (Sæther, Knapstad, Askeland, & Skogen, 2019).

Theoretical Framework

The study used theory triangulation comprising two theories. These were the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) by Fishbein and Ajzen (1980) and Social Learning Theory (SLT) by Bandura (1986). At the core of the TPB is the prediction of intentions. Behavioural, normative, and control beliefs, as well as attitudes, subjective norms, and perceptions of behavioural control, are assumed to feed into and explain behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 2011). The TPB predicts a person's intention to participate in a behaviour at a particular place and time. The theory asserts that an individual must first look at the outcome of the behaviour they intend to put into action and its attendant consequences before deciding to do it (Higgins, Kruglanski, & Van Lange, 2012). In the context of substance abuse, the TPB provides a systematic framework to determine factors that influence a person's decisions to accomplish behaviours such as intentional use of illicit drugs as well alcohol consumption and smoking. Concerning the use of illicit drugs, the TPB presumes that cognitions such as attitude and social norms may predict the intention to begin using these drugs (Bashirian, Haidarnia, Allahverdipour, & Hajizadeh, 2012). Thus, university students plan to embark on this form of behaviour (substance abuse) despite that they are fully aware of its harmful consequences.

According to the SLT, people learn from their association with others in a social setting. Distinctively, through observing the behaviours of others, individuals conform and mimic that behaviour, particularly if their observational encounters include rewards identified to the observed behaviour (Muro & Jeffrey, 2008). Because of this point, aggression can also be learned through models. Moral thinking and moral behaviour are influenced by observation and modelling. In this study, the main objective was to understand the prevalence and risk factors associated with substance use among students in higher education institutions, with particular attention to Howard College and Westville campuses of the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), which also yielded some effects attributed to the abuse of various substances, such as alcohol and drugs.

Aim

To understand the prevalence and risk factors associated with substance use among students at a selected higher education institution in Durban, South Africa.

METHODOLOGY

An exploratory qualitative design was used to understand the risk factors of substance abuse among university students at UKZN, Durban, South Africa. Participants were recruited from two residences per campus. At Howard College, participants were residents at Albert Luthuli and Pius Langa residences. At the Westville campus, participants were drawn from New Res and S Block residences. These residences were chosen because they are the biggest residences on both campuses, and they are not sex-segregated. Participants were selected purposively (Carter & Little, 2007). This sampling strategy was appropriate because the selection of participants in qualitative research is a well-thought-out process that must not be left to chance. According to Polkinghorne (2005), 'encultured' or information-rich participants must be selected as participants in qualitative studies. Data were collected using an interview schedule and a focus group guide. The two instruments were developed after a thorough literature search was conducted to identify the research gap.

Selection of Participants

Purposeful sampling was applied to recruit participants that met the inclusion criteria. It was important for the researchers to include both the young

and old (undergraduates and postgraduate) students from the university to obtain various opinions and experiences that they came across and have endured during their university stay. The undergraduates' experience may differ as they are still fairly new and are getting used to the idea of complete independence while the postgraduates have experienced much more over years hence the study would be richer. Both female and male students were part of the study. Purposive sampling enables the researcher to select information-rich participants, and elicit rich and thick data (Polkinghorne, 2005). Further, it allows the researcher to describe the major impact their findings have on the population at large.

Eight in-depth interviews were conducted with four (n=4) females and four (n=4) males, equally representing each campus. Similarly, two focus groups were conducted, one at each campus comprising six (n=6) participants each, making a total number of 20 participants. Data were analysed using the thematic analysis technique inspired by Braun and Clarke (2006). Pseudonyms were used to enhance anonymity. Both interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs) were audio-recorded with permission from participants. The interviews were transcribed non-verbatim. Focus groups interviews were 60-90 minutes long while the in-depth interviews were 30-45 minutes long. Transcription and translation from isiZulu to English were done simultaneously by the first author (HG), a native isiZulu speaker and master's candidate.

Ethical Considerations

The Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee at the University of KwaZulu-Natal approved this study (HSS/0672/018M). Key ethical principles such as voluntary participation, informed consent, and confidentiality were observed. Informed consent by participants aged 18 years or older was obtained verbally and in written form from all the participants before the interviews were conducted. Participants' right to withdraw from the study at any point without facing any negative consequences for making such a decision was explained before each interview session. To protect the identity of participants, pseudonyms are used to report the findings.

Findings

Several themes were identified. The themes fall under two categories, which are causes and effects. As such, causes or triggers must be classified on their own, and so should be the effects.

Risk Factors

Substances affect all sectors of society. Substance use affects the freedom and development of young people. This is despite the considerable health and social implications of substance abuse. Substance use induction rates for students rise quickly at the first level in tertiary institutions (Netshiswinzhe, Makhado, Lebeso, & Ramathuba, 2021).

Peer Pressure

Exposure to friends who use drugs and alcohol has been firmly established as one of the most important determinants of adolescent drug and alcohol use (Ajayi *et al.*, 2019). Peer pressure is a reality, and it is greater during the adolescent period than in subsequent stages of life. Adolescence is a period when the youth are likely to experiment with substances and be recognised to be “cool” (Makoloi, 2012). Based on the participants’ perceptions of risk, the leading cause of substance abuse among university students was peer pressure. The following was said:

I think most of the time there is pressure from peers and this necessarily ‘forces’ one to drink and smoke. Without doing the above-mentioned, a student may feel left out. Sometimes I feel an urge to smoke weed and drink, mostly because of the fear of missing out, and that is peer pressure because the person having fun does not realise that they negatively influence their peers (Lands, M, 23).

We hail from different backgrounds, different homes, and different places. Sometimes we meet people from different places, and we may never know how they grew up or understand how they do things. Mostly, we are surrounded by fake people. Hence, sometimes whatever they do, we also do it, mostly because we seek to fit in the circle, and we desperately attempt to understand them (Msenti, F, 21).

One of the dominant perceptions was that because friends use drugs together, they now feel bonded through drinking. Students are cognisant of other bonding options, but some will fear losing their friends. This may be because they may have been in university together for a while, and for others, their friendship would have started from high school. This means if their friends go to *Eyadini* (pub and grill), and they do

not, they will lose the connection as friends. Hence, they will rather go together, everywhere.

Stress and Depression: Substance Use as an Escape Route and Coping Mechanism

The use and abuse of alcohol is a well-documented example of how stress can provoke dysfunctional behaviour (i.e., drinking excessively), and how the coping response can exacerbate stress symptoms. Emotional distress such as anxiety and depression may result from the interplay of predisposing intra-individual factors and socio-environmental pressures. However, individuals need to escape from the experience of feeling hurt, and for a minute the substance removes them far from the hurt and hence they feel ‘better. When questioned about the coping mechanism, Wondergirl (F, 23) echoed: “Some were suffering from stress and they were told that if you want to relieve stress, then escape your realities and turn to substance use”.

Similarly, another participant supported the above notion:

Most people do not know how to deal with their feelings and their emotions. Often, abuse of substances emanates from destructive behaviour. Most students suffer from emotional pain, and they try to numb it and escape from reality. A drinker, for example, may not be aware of the effort of trying to numb that pain because they are drunk all the time. It makes it hard for the substance abuser to reflect on why they feel this way and what got them there in the first place (Ncami, F, 22).

Most participants reported using drugs recreationally. They were overawed by academic work, prompting them to seek an escape route. The recreation culminates in a habit that often dominates the schedule.

I always notice how everyone says, ‘I need a break’ and to me, it is an escape route (Sbuda, F, 22).

However, narratives from some participants also revealed that sometimes substance abuse is simply a way of coping with pressure. Stress from the pressure caused by family and general expectations is added to the stress emanating from the demanding academic work. This was reiterated by one participant who said:

School stress is high because sometimes some just need to be away from school and not think about it, so they (ab)use drugs just to get away from reality. Maybe after exams, some go out to distress and drink and forget about exam stress so they are just doing something that will relieve them of that stress (Supergirl, F, 24).

Individuals need to feel physically and emotionally great with a good intake of substances Maurice, Martin-Fardon, Romieu, and Matsumoto (2002). This view was sustained by some participants in their responses, arguing that sometimes people deviate to substance abuse as a way to cope with the pressure from different spheres of life, including relationships, parents, and other social issues. For example, one participant explained:

There are personal problems like dealing with relationships and heartbreaks, it can be from home as our parents are putting pressure on us in terms of completing these degrees without knowing that it is hard, so we deviate to substance abuse (Shane, F, 23).

Some participants described the complexity of problems related to coping with such issues as anxiety and depression. In seeking to cope with various stressors such as demanding schoolwork, and *mjolo* (sexual relationships) that lead to anxiety and depression some resort to substance abuse as a way of dealing with their condition. One participant summarised the views shared by many as follows:

Black people from townships are the most affected by substance abuse because depression is prevalent in those areas. The Black community just does not want to come to terms with the fact that depression exists among them. We do not want to accept the depression we endure, because there is a mentality that Black people do not suffer from that, as we perceive ourselves as being able to handle problems (Lebo, F, 23).

Data from in-depth interviews and focus groups highlighted that young person may abuse substances due to being stressed and depressed. As indicated by Baker, Brandon, and Chassin (2004), individuals who have a background marked by depression are twice as

likely as others to mishandle substances and will probably have affective disorders than others.

Socialisation

Another important theme that emerged during interviews with participants concerning their reasons for the abuse of substances was socialisation – the behaviour has been a part of their entire lives right from their family, relatives, and the communities from which they grew up. Generally, research shows that criminal associations are linked closely to crime and delinquency (Elliott, Huizinga, & Ageton, 1985). However, many participants held the same view that socialisation is among the risk factors leading to substance use. Some participants shared the following:

Alcohol, cigarettes, and weed have always been a part of my life as my father was and still is an alcoholic and smoker. At home, I would always see my father and his friends chill in the dining room and just drink cases of beers and bottles of whiskey without a problem. I remember at one point my father and his friends decided to make it a family gathering whereby during Christmas and New Year celebrations, their families would meet up at one of the households (on a rotational basis) and we would feast on food, and they would drink and smoke as usual. Therefore, for me since an early age, alcohol and cigarettes always seemed right as my elders were always drinking and smoking. My older brother also introduced weed to me. I always saw him and his friends smoking all the time at home, at the back of the house. I had some feelings that it was wrong because he would never do it in front of my parents; it was a secret activity (Minza, M, 24).

Another participant corroborated the above and said:

It's a certain lifestyle common in the communities that we live in, especially in townships where every situation is a good reason to drink and smoke. You will find in my neighbourhood that there are those boys that are always on the road, at the corner the whole day, smoking and drinking is their daily routine. At home, uncles and older cousins are always drinking, even girls now chill at the taverns

and dance the night away like any normal day. We are just surrounded by substances all the time, back at home as well (KB, M, 23).

Enjoyment

Another prominent reason for the abuse of substances among university students was “choice”. While some of the participants used substances because of the various problems confronting them, most of them used intoxicating substances in pursuit of enjoyment rather than negative reasoning. Interviews with several participants yielded the following example:

The first reason might be that people drink because of the company they keep, the people they hang out with; because it is nice, we drink together, it has no other connotations than that; just that we are out having fun and we decide to drink, or we want to go out have fun and drink (Ncami, F, 22).

Some participants voiced out that despite having problems like all other students, they do not drink out of problems, but rather they consider drinking moments as enjoyment, or just to have fun with peers. One participant explained:

People tend to think that students drink due to problems. I don't think students drink due to problems; I think they just drink because they enjoy drinking like the way I do. I don't drink because I have problems. Hence, I am of the view that it is not a poverty problem. I am sure some students do have problems, of course, but as for the people I know, it is never the cause (Fez, M, 21).

Based on the conceptual and theoretical arguments of the Theory of Planned Action, individuals that engage in the use of substances do so because of personal reasons, intention, and enjoyment. Understanding this theoretical context provides a better understanding of the behavioural reasons for youth involvement in the use of substances. This is because the most important component of the Theory of Planned Behaviour is behavioural intention. Participants declared that their main intent for consuming alcohol was to ‘have fun. Thus, for some participants, taking substances was a choice and not a result of pressure or problems. However, other

participants who found themselves in depression, or experiencing emotional problems gravitated to substance abuse as a coping mechanism.

The Effects of Substance Abuse

The focus of the study was on risk factors of substance abuse, yet findings revealed some effects associated with substance abuse. Among the diverse effects of substance abuse, participants reported time management challenges, risky sexual behaviour, and crime as outstanding social problems.

Time Management Challenges

The study revealed that most students who indulge in substance abuse have a problem in managing their time, a challenge that affects their academic performance. Despite that all the participants identified time management as a serious concern when one indulges in substance use on campus, the following was said:

Substance use hinders students' efficient use of time, especially when it starts becoming a habit. I smoke weed and it wastes a lot of my time because I need to accommodate people that are my friends in weed, and we share the same habit, so it means there is going to be a gathering where we smoke at their convenience and my inconvenience. To smoke, I must go outside and when I come back from smoking, I am going to take maybe 10-30 minutes trying to get my mind back into the work mode, trying to dodge all other temptations like YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter. You also need to understand that when you're high, your mind catches on to something it will just stick on that one thing. I work at night because, during the day, I would have been wasting time. Being nocturnal became a part of my routine, to such an extent that in the afternoon, I cannot work (Sbuda, M, 22).

The problem of substance abuse among students is so serious that it affects the lifestyle of a normal student. Some of those using substances do so during the weekend as they do not attend classes, but unfortunately, the effects of substance abuse impinge on lecture attendance and readiness, completing assignments, and other assessments such as tests and examinations. Substance users waste time and their

lifestyle affect academic performance leading to an array of negative outcomes including exclusion from the university.

Risky Sexual Behaviour

More than half of the participants reported an increased risk of unprotected sex because of substance abuse, as many people become irresponsible especially when they are drunk.

Substance abuse has led young people to date adults. They want to have this fancy life, posting pictures on Instagram so that people see them popping champagne. They consequently fall prey to sugar mamas and the so-called 'blessers'. Most of these old and experienced lovers are not fans of the protective sheath – condoms. To gather the courage to indulge in unprotected sex, the use of substances is the panacea (Reece, F, 22).

This study shows that youths commonly make decisions that are disproportionately influenced by emotions rather than reasoning, increasing the likelihood of engaging in risky behaviours. Because alcohol and drugs interfere with judgment and decision-making, research has shown that their use in conjunction with sexual activity increases the probability of risky behaviours (Albert & Steinberg, 2011). One female participant explained:

This also leads to susceptibility to STIs because you must pay back, and you do not have any means of paying besides sex. Further, you don't have a say or the right to negotiate safe sex. When it is time to pay back for the alcohol bought for you, you just need to toe the line; when it comes to having sex, suggesting the use of protection is a non-starter. You start being controlled and you end up having 'blessers' and 'sugar mamas' and being at a risk because some 'blessers' don't like protection. Further, they will want you to bring another friend, you end up recruiting people (Thabz, M, 24).

Participant narratives also revealed that when students attend parties, there is a likelihood of rape as their hosts frequently spike drinks so that they can have sex without their consent. One participant summarized the views shared by many:

I was told that there is a club where you would find your drinks spiked and then you do not remember anything. The next morning, you wake up in a room with some money strategically placed, and a note was written, 'It's all yours. Thanks for the night, here is your payment!' It happens to both girls and boys. I read some articles that this drug is usually used on horses, but now on people. It makes you sleep and not remember anything. They say it destroys all semen so whatever you're going to say to your friends or the police, there is no evidence, and it damages the womb, compromising your chance to conceive (Wondergirl, F, 23).

Substance abuse places students at risk of being sexually victimised. By comparison, female students are more vulnerable to being sexually victimised (Sampson, 2002). In many cases, males start planning on what will happen once the girl in their midst gets drunk. Most of the people who have been victimised have become victims of the people they know, people they are familiar with, an acquaintance or a long-time friend, leading to a phenomenon called acquaintance rape (Hammock & Richardson, 1997; McGregor, 2017). The influence of substances may provide an opportunity for something that might have been planned for months or even years.

Crime

Crime is one of the negative effects of substance abuse among university students. A plethora of crimes stem from substance abuse. As substance abuse continues to increase among South African youth, researchers report an upsurge in crimes on university premises (Ross & Rasool, 2019). The most common crimes among university students include drinking and driving, and violence, which is interpreted in various ways such as sexual harassment, fighting, and sexual victimisation.

Usually, when boys are drunk, they tend to be overly touchy with girls and that is where it all starts. This leads to sexual assault and rape- because when some guys are drunk or high, they usually gain this power, I don't know where it comes from and when they want something they must get it regardless of you saying 'yes' or 'no' (Supergirl, F, 24).

A similar view to the above was shared by another participant who said:

People tend to be reckless and aggressive, which then leads to violent fights that may even result in fatalities (Sakusaku, M, 22).

Corroborating the above statement, another participant explained:

Substance abuse can lead to crime. People must understand that university is a society on its own so everything that happens in the real world also happens in universities. Students that are now addicts do commit crimes such as theft within students' residences because they are desperate for the next fix, may it be alcohol, weed, or cocaine. At C block on the girls' floor, multiple break-ins took place last week, and laptops were stolen. It alleged that boys that are also students on campus are responsible, and they sell stolen goods to buy cocaine (Mbusi, M, 24).

According to the participants' narratives, one of the biggest crimes that took place at the Westville campus during the school's annual freshers' bash was the death of a student that was murdered by another student. From the narrative below, the main cause of the fight was a girlfriend, and this only escalated when both students were under the influence of alcohol. One participant who claimed to have attended the bash explained:

There was a bash on Friday the 14th of September at the Westville campus. All five campuses are allowed to attend as the student representative council (SRC) is behind the planning of this biggest annual event. There was a fight between two drunk boys from the Westville campus. They were fighting over a girl. Allegedly, one of the boys lives on campus, so he went to his room to fetch a knife. He used this lethal weapon to stab his competitor to death (KB, M, 23).

To add on, amongst other crimes, theft is another crime recorded to be prevalent among university students, more especially at the students' residences. However, among many other triggering factors,

substance abuse remains one of the main causes of risk behaviours among university students.

DISCUSSION

The study focused on risk factors of substance abuse among students at Howard College and Westville campuses. The findings revealed that peer pressure, stress and depression, socialisation, and enjoyment are factors that increase the risks of substance abuse amongst the students. However, peer pressure and socialisation featured prominently as risk factors. The desire by individual students to 'fit in' with a certain type of friends increases the risk of substance abuse. Coleman, Khondker, and Tucker (2021) concede that peer pressure plays a daily role in our lives. It can affect the way we think, or act in certain situations. One situation often linked to peer pressure is substance abuse. It is very common for drugs and alcohol to influence college students, and that leads to shattered careers, dreams, failed majors, and addiction. The effects of substance abuse can be identified in many areas of the young person's life including areas as diverse as schooling, health, and family relationships (Usher, Jackson, & O'Brien, 2007). It is also a major contributor to accidental injury and has been linked to cardiac, neural, renal, and hepatic disorders and it is known to impede normal cognitive, emotional, and social development if commenced at a young age. Substance abuse in adolescence has also been associated with many other risk-taking behaviours such as sexual activity or weapon carrying, resulting in significant morbidity and mortality (e.g., sexually transmitted infections, human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection, pregnancy, homicide, and motor vehicle accidents) (Bruner & Fishman, 1998). It is also frequently believed that teenagers and young adults feel the need to partake in substance abuse to fit in the crowd around them.

Nevertheless, interactions with others play an important role in our lives as social beings (Rumjaun & Narod, 2020). Bandura's Social Learning Theory postulates that people learn from each other through observation and modelling. His theory is often referred to as a junction or bridge between cognitive and behaviourist theories (McLeod, 2016). According to the Social Learning Theory, peer pressure and socialisation are the prominent factors putting students at risk of abusing the substance. Students often seek to imitate what their friends and colleagues are doing, they are influenced by the environment because they would have been observing what their peers were

taking, hence they end up coping and become used to substances. For instance, the use of alcohol among students. Alcohol drinking typically begins in high school and the first relevant experience of alcohol consumption in adolescence often manifests in young adulthood. Alcohol drinking escalates upon college entry and intensified in response to the university environment. The use of alcohol can gradually progress to abuse and even dependence later in life; just as it is possible that the consumption gradually decreases during college years, and then drops thereafter (Page, Ihasz, Hantiu, Simonek, & Klarova, 2008).

A common pattern of drinking among students is the so-called heavy episodic or binge drinking, defined as drinking at least five drinks on one occasion for men or at least four drinks on one occasion for women (Stolle, Sack, & Thomasius, 2009). University students do not only have a unique drinking pattern in general but also have a higher alcohol consumption than other age groups and even within the same age group in comparison to non-students (Carter Ashlee, Brandon, & Goldman, 2010). Binge drinking is a common risky behaviour among college students and has been associated with suboptimal self-rated health (Tsai, Ford, Li, Pearson, & Zhao, 2010).

According to the Social Learning Theory, learning is based on a social behavioural approach—people learn from others (social element) by observing and modelling their behaviour (behaviourist approach) (1986). Further, Bandura reflects on cognitive processes to explain learning. He proposes observational learning as opposed to direct imitation: people learn by observing others' behaviour, but their cognitive processes or internal mental states will determine whether they will "imitate" the behaviour or not (Rumjaun & Narod, 2020). This study reveals that amongst female student participants, undergraduate students' answers were based on observing their peers but not directly from their personal experiences as the majority attested to not being heavy substance abusers but do indulge in a few times and not excessively. The post-graduate female students however attested to peer pressure, as most of them acknowledged abusing substances due to peers' influence. They stated that one may try to resist the pressure by ignoring calls, but it does not last long, more especially since they have been using substances for years, so it is second nature to them.

Socialisation becomes another important factor enumerated in the findings. For instance, the

participants stated that within university premises, if one does not smoke or drink, they feel left out as most of them started the habit of indulging in substances within the university. Within the slang language, it is referred to as FOMO- the "fear of missing out". Another case is of an undergraduate male who stated that he would tell himself that he will go out on Friday only but ends up drinking the entire weekend due to accommodating his friends, as they also accommodate him when he is in the mood to drink. This shows that the fact of socialising with his friends forces him to accommodate them every time they need to drink even if he was not ready for the day. This has serious side effects on students' time management, which jeopardises the academic performance of the student victim of bad social behaviours with the entourage.

Despite that the main focus of the study was on risk factors of substance abuse, we realised that there are far-reaching implications related to substance abuse among students. Effects such as time management, risky sexual behaviour, and crime were on the record. Students who are involved in binge drinking or any substance abuse experienced time management challenges to complete academic tasks, which again impacted negatively on their academic performance. Further, substance abuse exposes both female and male students to risky sexual behaviour, which manifests in the form of rape or sexual harassment. It is also on record that South Africa has appeared as one of the most lethal violent countries by either gun or knife violence in Africa (World Health, 2014). Osuafor and Okoli (2019) reported 31.1 murders and 355.6 assaults with intentions to inflict grievous bodily injury per 100 000 populations were committed in South Africa between 2012 and 2013. In most cases, these were caused by alcohol use disorders. The study also reveals that students who are addicted to drugs end up stealing stuff from their colleagues at the residences so that they can sell the items and buy drugs. Laptops and mobile phones have been reported missing due to this practice.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Awareness education such as school safety and crime awareness programmes should be implemented by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, in partnership with other stakeholders such as the South African Police Services (SAPS), Department of Social Development (DSD), and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) whose focus is related to substances abuse in institutions of higher learning such

as colleges and universities. This will help students to access information on where they can get help should they encounter challenges related to substance (ab)use. Alcohol-free SRC parties, characterised by limited party timing should be encouraged. Further, all school activities and programmes should be alcohol-free.

CONCLUSION

Through an exploratory qualitative design, the study was conducted to understand the prevalence and risk factors associated with substance use among students in a selected higher education institution. Extant literature shows that the availability and accessibility of substances are the prominent factors driving substance abuse among the youth. There are risk factors that contribute to substance abuse among youth that include age, gender, poverty, peer pressure and media, family structure and relations, and the affordability and accessibility of drugs. These dysfunctions include household substance abuse, household mental illness, exposure to domestic violence, parental separation, and household criminality. The change in lifestyle behaviour that accompanies tertiary education, and the perceived freedom from parental control further heightens the prevalence of risky behaviour. Other scholars have established an association between harmful alcohol use among students in higher education institutions, dysfunctional family settings, and the influence of media advertisements to be drivers of substance abuse. Various other reasons have been purported to contribute to harmful alcohol use among this cohort, and these include peer pressure, academic-related stress, overwhelming workloads, and unhealthy competition among peers. Exposure to friends who use drugs and alcohol has been firmly established as one of the most important determinants of adolescent drug and alcohol use.

Among the diverse effects of substance abuse, the findings reveal time management challenges, risky sexual behaviour, and crime as outstanding social problems. This study notes that the effects of substance abuse impinge on lecture attendance and readiness to learn, completing assignments, and other assessments such as tests and examinations. Substance users waste time and their lifestyle affect academic performance leading to an array of negative outcomes including exclusion from the university. Harmful use of alcohol can lead to functional impairment among students, which may result in poor academic performance, and increased drop-out rates.

The literature concedes that mortality resulting from alcohol consumption is higher than that caused by diseases such as tuberculosis, HIV/AIDS, and diabetes.

Nevertheless, more than half of the participants reported an increased risk of unprotected sex because of substance abuse, as many people become irresponsible especially when they are drunk. Further, substance abuse places students at risk of being sexually victimised. The study revealed that most of the people who have been victimised have become victims of the people they know, people they are familiar with, an acquaintance or a long-time friend, leading to a phenomenon called acquaintance rape. However, alcohol appears to play a large role in acquaintance rape, although it is not necessarily the cause. Extant literature indicates that in over three-quarters of rape cases, the offender, the victim, or both had been drinking. The findings of this study reveal that the most common crimes among university students include drinking and driving, and violence, which is interpreted in various ways such as sexual harassment, fighting, and sexual victimisation. As substance abuse continues to increase among South African youth, researchers report an upsurge in crimes on university premises. Hence, university authorities must think of important security measures to avert the surge in alcohol intake on campuses and students' residences. Therefore, crime and substance abuse awareness programmes, the banning of alcohol on campus and effective campus-based counselling should be considered as sustainable ways of promoting health and well-being among university students.

REFERENCES

- Ajayi, A. I., Owolabi, E. O., & Olajire, O. O. (2019). Alcohol use among Nigerian university students: prevalence, correlates and frequency of use. *BMC Public Health*, 19(1), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-019-7104-7>
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The theory of planned behaviour: Reactions and reflections. *Psychology & Health*, 26(9), 1113-1127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2011.613995>
- Albert, D., & Steinberg, L. (2011). Judgment and decision making in adolescence. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 21(1), 211-224. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-7795.2010.00724.x>
- Baker, T. B., Brandon, T. H., & Chassin, L. (2004). Motivational influences on cigarette smoking. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 463-491. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.142054>
- Bantjes, J. R., Kagee, A., McGowan, T., & Steel, H. (2016). Symptoms of posttraumatic stress, depression, and anxiety as predictors of suicidal ideation among South African university students. *Journal of American College Health*, 64(6), 429-437. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2016.1178120>
- Bashirian, S., Haidamia, A., Allahverdi-pour, H., & Hajizadeh, E. (2012). Application of theory of planned behavior in predicting factors of

- substance abuse in adolescents. *Journal of Fasa University of Medical Sciences*, 2(3), 156-162.
- Basu, D., Basu, A., & Ghosh, A. (2018). Assessment of clinical comorbidities. *Indian Journal of Psychiatry*, 60 (Suppl 4), S457. https://doi.org/10.4103/psychiatry.IndianJPsychiatry.13_18
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Bruner, A. B., & Fishman, M. (1998). Adolescents and illicit drug use. *Jama*, 280(7), 597-598. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.280.7.597>
- Carter Ashlee, Brandon, K. O., & Goldman, M. S. (2010). The college and noncollege experience: A review of the factors that influence drinking behaviour in young adulthood. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol and Drugs*, 71(5), 742-750. <https://doi.org/10.15288/jsad.2010.71.742>
- Carter, S., & Little, M. (2007). Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 17(10), 1316-1328. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732307306927>
- Choudhry, V., Agardh, A., Stafström, M., & Östergren, P.-O. (2014). Patterns of alcohol consumption and risky sexual behavior: a cross-sectional study among Ugandan university students. *BMC Public Health*, 14(1), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-128>
- Coleman, A., Khondker, M., & Tucker, N. (2021). You're Already Addicted: Peer Pressure's Effect on Substance Use. *Psychology and Social Sciences*. 22.
- Dumbili, E. W. (2013). Patterns and determinants of alcohol use among Nigerian university students: an overview of recent developments. *African Journal of Drug and Alcohol Studies*, 12(1), 30-51.
- Dumbili, E. W., & Williams, C. (2016). Anywhere, everywhere: alcohol industry promotion strategies in Nigeria and their influence on young people. *African Journal of Drug Alcohol Studies*, 15(2), 135-152.
- Elliott, D. S., Huizinga, D., & Ageton, S. S. (1985). Explaining delinquency and drug use (Vol. 27, pp. 91-92). *Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications*. [https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6807\(199001\)27:1<91::AID-PITS2310270115>3.0.CO;2-Y](https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6807(199001)27:1<91::AID-PITS2310270115>3.0.CO;2-Y)
- Evereth, H. (2019). The evolution of alcohol across the three monotheistic religions.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Gray, C. (2018). *Mixed up: alcohol and society. The Lancet Psychiatry*, 5(12), 970. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(18\)30432-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(18)30432-2)
- Hammock, G. S., & Richardson, D. R. (1997). Perceptions of rape: The influence of closeness of relationship, intoxication and sex of participant. *Violence Victims*, 12(3), 237-246. <https://doi.org/10.1891/0886-6708.12.3.237>
- Higgins, E. T., Kruglanski, A. W., & Van Lange, P. A. (2012). *Handbook of Theories of Social Psychology*: Sage.
- Htet, H., Saw, Y. M., Saw, T. N., Htun, N. M. M., Lay Mon, K., Cho, S. M., . . . Yamamoto, E. (2020). Prevalence of alcohol consumption and its risk factors among university students: A cross-sectional study across six universities in Myanmar. *PLoS One*, 15(2), e0229329. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0229329>
- Hughes, K., Bellis, M. A., Hardcastle, K. A., Sethi, D., Butchart, A., Mikton, C., . . . Dunne, M. P. (2017). The effect of multiple adverse childhood experiences on health: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *The Lancet Public Health*, 2(8), e356-e366. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(17\)30118-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(17)30118-4)
- Hughes, K., Hardcastle, K., & Bellis, M. A. (2016). The impact of adverse childhood experiences on health: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Injury Prevention*, 22 (Suppl 2), A105-A105. <https://doi.org/10.1136/injuryprev-2016-042156.286>
- Jiang, H., Xiang, X., Hao, W., Room, R., Zhang, X., & Wang, X. (2018). Measuring and preventing alcohol use and related harm among young people in Asian countries: a thematic review. *Global Health Research Policy*, 3(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41256-018-0070-2>
- Jutras-Aswad, D. (2016). Substance use and misuse: Emerging epidemiological trends, new definitions, and innovative treatment targets. *The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 61(3), 134-135. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0706743716632513>
- Kamenderi, M., Muteti, J., Okioma, V., Kimani, S., Kanana, F., & Kahi, C. (2021). Status of Drugs and Substance Abuse among the General Population in Kenya. *African Journal of Alcohol & Drug Abuse*, 2, 54-59.
- Kann, L., McManus, T., Harris, W. A., Shanklin, S. L., Flint, K. H., Queen, B., Lowry, R., Chyen, D., Whittle, L., Thornton, J., Lim, C., Bradford, D., Yamakawa, Y., Leon, M., Brener, N., & Ethier, K. A. (2018). Youth Risk Behaviour Surveillance - United States, Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report. *Surveillance summaries* (Washington, D.C.: 2002), 67(8), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.ss6708a1>
- Ladis, B. A., Macgowan, M., Thomlison, B., Fava, N. M., Huang, H., Trucco, E. M., & Martinez, M. J. (2019). Parent-focused preventive interventions for youth substance use and problem behaviours: A systematic review. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 29(4), 420-442. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731517753686>
- Lasebikan, V. O., Ayinde, O., Odunleye, M., Adeyefa, B., Adepoju, S., & Fakunle, S. (2018). Prevalence of alcohol consumption and alcohol use disorders among outdoor drinkers in public open places in Nigeria. *BMC Public Health*, 18(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-018-5344-6>
- Mackler, J. S., Kelleher, R. T., Shanahan, L., Calkins, S. D., Keane, S. P., & O'Brien, M. (2015). Parenting stress, parental reactions, and externalizing behavior from ages 4 to 10. *Journal of Marriage Family Relations*, 77(2), 388-406. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12163>
- Magrys, S., & Olmstead, M. (2015). Acute stress increases voluntary consumption of alcohol in undergraduates. Alcohol alcoholism: *Clinical Experimental Research*, 50(2), 213-218. <https://doi.org/10.1093/alcac/aqu101>
- Maina, G., Ogenchuk, M., & Gaudet, S. (2021). Living with parents with problematic substance use: Impacts and turning points. *Public Health Nursing*, 38(5), 730-737. <https://doi.org/10.1111/phn.12888>
- Makoloi, J. T. (2012). An exploratory study of factors that contributed to substance abuse by service users at Newlands Park Rehabilitation Centre. *University of KwaZulu-Natal, (Masters dissertation)*.
- Manickam, M. A., Abdul Mutalip, M. H. B., Hamid, H. A. B. A., Bt Kamaruddin, R., & Sabtu, M. Y. B. (2014). Prevalence, comorbidities, and cofactors associated with alcohol consumption among school-going adolescents in Malaysia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Public Health*, 26(5_suppl), 91S-99S. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1010539514542194>
- Maurice, T., Martin-Fardon, R., Romieu, P., & Matsumoto, R. (2002). Sigma1 (σ_1) receptor antagonists represent a new strategy against cocaine addiction and toxicity. *Neuroscience Biobehavioural Reviews*, 26(4), 499-527. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7634\(02\)00017-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7634(02)00017-9)
- Mauro, T. (2007). The many victims of substance abuse. *Psychiatry*, 4(9), 43-51.
- McGregor, J. (2017). *Is it rape? On acquaintance rape and taking women's consent seriously*: Taylor and Francis. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315251806>
- McLeod, S. (2016). Bandura-social learning theory. *Simply Psychology*. *Psychology*, 8(3), 2-8.
- Mekonen, T., Fekadu, W., Mekonnen, T. C., & Workie, S. B. (2017). Substance use as a strong predictor of poor academic achievement among university students. *Psychiatry Journal*, 2017(7517450), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2017/7517450>
- Melaku, L., Mossie, A., & Negash, A. (2015). Stress among medical students and its association with substance use and academic performance. *Journal of Biomedical Education*, 2015(4), 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/149509>

- Merrick, M. T., Ports, K. A., Ford, D. C., Afifi, T. O., Gershoff, E. T., & Grogan-Kaylor, A. (2017). Unpacking the impact of adverse childhood experiences on adult mental health. *Child Abuse Neglect*, 69, 10-19.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2017.03.016>
- Mikolajczyk, R. T., Sebens, R., Warich, J., Naydenova, V., Dudziak, U., & Orosova, O. (2016). Alcohol drinking in university students matters for their self-rated health status: a cross-sectional study in three European countries. *Frontiers in Public Health*, 4, 210.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2016.00210>
- Muro, M., & Jeffrey, P. (2008). A critical review of the theory and application of social learning in participatory natural resource management processes. *Journal of Environmental Planning Management*, 51(3), 325-344.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09640560801977190>
- Netshiswinzhe, D., Makhado, L., Lebeso, R., & Ramathuba, D. (2021). The Impact of Socialization Factors on the Prevalence of Substance Use/Abuse by Student Nurses in Limpopo College of Nurses (LCN), South Africa. *Journal of Drug Alcohol Research*, 10(2), 1-7.
- Norris, J., Stoner, S. A., Hessler, D. M., Zawacki, T., Davis, K. C., George, W. H., . . . Abdallah, D. A. (2009). Influences of sexual sensation seeking, alcohol consumption, and sexual arousal on women's behavioural intentions related to having unprotected sex. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviours*, 23(1), 14.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013998>
- Olashore, A. A., Ogunwobi, O., Totogo, E., & Opondo, P. R. (2018). Psychoactive substance use among first-year students in a Botswana University: pattern and demographic correlates. *BMC Psychiatry*, 18(1), 1-9.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s12888-018-1844-2>
- Osuafor, G. N., & Okoli, C. E. (2019). Alcohol consumption as a factor in gun or knife crimes in South Africa. *African Journal of Drug and Alcohol Studies*, 18(2), 85-96.
- Page, R. M., Ihasz, F., Hantiu, I., Simonek, J., & Klarova, R. (2008). Social normative perceptions of alcohol use and episodic heavy drinking among Central and Eastern European adolescents. *Substance Use & Misuse*, 43(3-4), 361-373.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10826080701202866>
- Parry, C. (1998). Substance abuse in South Africa: Focusing on young persons. Prepared for the WHO/UNDCP Regional Consultation—Global Initiative on Primary Prevention of Substance Abuse Among Young People.
- Polkinghorne, D. E. (2005). Language and meaning: Data collection in qualitative research. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 52(2), 137-145.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.137>
- Raphael, L., Raveendran, R., & Sajna, M. (2017). Prevalence and determinants of substance abuse among youth in Central Kerala, India. *International Journal of Community Medicine Public Health*, 4(3), 747-751.
<https://doi.org/10.18203/2394-6040.ijcmph20170752>
- Ross, E., & Rasool, S. (2019). 'You go to campus with fear and come back with fear'. University students' experiences of crime. *SA Crime Quarterly* (68), 7-20.
<https://doi.org/10.17159/2413-3108/2019/v0n68a4895>
- Rumjaun, A., & Narod, F. (2020). Social Learning Theory—Albert Bandura. In *Science Education in Theory and Practice* (pp. 85-99): Springer.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-43620-9_7
- Sæther, S. M. M., Knapstad, M., Askeland, K. G., & Skogen, J. C. (2019). Alcohol consumption, life satisfaction and mental health among Norwegian college and university students. *Addictive Behaviours Reports*, 10, 100216.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abrep.2019.100216>
- Salaudeen, A., Musa, O., Akande, T., & Bolarinwa, O. (2011). Effects of health education on cigarette smoking habits of young adults in tertiary institutions in a northern Nigerian state. *Health Science Journal*, 5(3), 216-228.
- Sampson, R. (2002). Acquaintance rape of college students: US Department of Justice, Office of Community Oriented Policing Services.
- Seggie, J. (2012). Alcohol and South Africa's youth. *South African Medical Journal*, 102(7), 587.
<https://doi.org/10.7196/SAMJ.6003>
- So, E. S., & Park, B. M. (2016). Health behaviours and academic performance among Korean adolescents. *Asian Nursing Research*, 10(2), 123-127.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anr.2016.01.004>
- Somani, S., & Meghani, S. (2016). Substance abuse among youth: A harsh reality. *Emergency Medicine*, 6(330), 2.
<https://doi.org/10.4172/2165-7548.1000330>
- Stolle, M., Sack, P.-M., & Thomasius, R. (2009). Binge drinking in childhood and adolescence: epidemiology, consequences, and interventions. *Deutsches Ärzteblatt International*, 106(19), 323.
<https://doi.org/10.3238/arztebl.2009.0595b>
- Tosevski, D. L., Milovancevic, M. P., & Gajic, S. D. (2010). Personality and psychopathology of university students. *Current Opinion in Psychiatry*, 23(1), 48-52.
<https://doi.org/10.1097/CO.0b013e328333d625>
- Tsai, J., Ford, E. S., Li, C., Pearson, W. S., & Zhao, G. (2010). Binge drinking and suboptimal self-rated health among adult drinkers. Alcoholism: *Clinical Experimental Research*, 34(8), 1465-1471.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-0277.2010.01231.x>
- Usher, K., Jackson, D., & O'Brien, L. (2007). Shattered dreams: Parental experiences of adolescent substance abuse. *International Journal of Mental Health Nursing*, 16(6), 422-430.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1447-0349.2007.00497.x>
- World Health Organization. (2011). Global status report on alcohol and health. In Geneva: World Health Organization
- World Health Organization. (2014). Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2014. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2018). Global status report on alcohol and health 2018: executive summary.
- Wild, L. G., Flisher, A. J., Bhana, A., & Lombard, C. (2004). Associations among adolescent risk behaviours and self-esteem in six domains. *Journal of Child Psychology Psychiatry*, 45(8), 1454-1467.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7610.2004.00330.x>
- Yoshimoto, H., Takayashiki, A., Goto, R., Saito, G., Kawaida, K., Hieda, R., . . . Maeno, T. (2017). Association between excessive alcohol use and alcohol-related injuries in college students: a multi-centre cross-sectional study in Japan. *The Tohoku Journal of Experimental Medicine*, 242(2), 157-163.
<https://doi.org/10.1620/tjem.242.157>

Received on 28-01-2022

Accepted on 03-03-2022

Published on 16-03-2022

<https://doi.org/10.6000/1929-4409.2022.11.03>

© 2022 Gasa et al.; Licensee Lifescience Global.

This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited.