

**IMPACT OF SOCIAL RELATIONS
ON THE
SELF-ACTUALIZATION
OF THE
ADOLESCENT**

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**IMPACT OF SOCIAL RELATIONS ON
THE SELF-ACTUALIZATION OF
THE ADOLESCENT**

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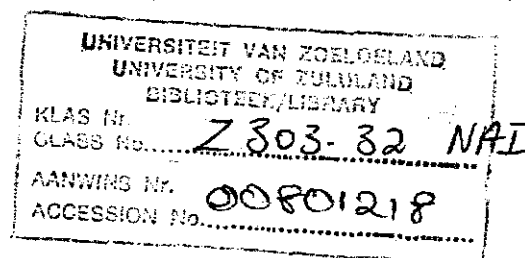
January 2007

DECLARATION

I declare that *Impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent* is my own work in conception and execution and that all relevant sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

NARAINSAMY NAIDU

January 2007



DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to
the memory of:

- My late dad, Mr Rungasamy Naidu and
- My late father in law, Mr Rajoo Chetty

For making me a part of their lives.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the impact of social relations, including parents, family, siblings, school (educator), peers, friends and the community on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

The sample consisted of 200 grade 10 learners from randomly selected secondary schools in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit of the Umlazi District in the Ethekwini Region, KZN. Grade 10 learners completed an empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire. The descriptive method of research was used to collect data and inferential statistics was gathered by testing the null hypothesis using the Chi squared test.

The results of the inferential findings indicate that there is a significant relationship between the self-actualization of the adolescent and the school (educator) and the community. The implication is that the school (educator) and the community have a great influence on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

Finally, the limitations of the study are discussed and recommendations are offered regarding the influence of the various socializing agents on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Adolescence is the period of life from the beginning of puberty to the attainment of adulthood. During this transitional period the adolescent is exposed to many challenges and are influenced by numerous factors. The physiological adjustments in his own body as well as his family and society's altered expectations of him are major causes of concern to the adolescent.

Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya (1996:149) state that the central theme of social development during adolescence is the repudiation of egocentrism and the accomplishment of social maturity. This implies that adolescents must acquire a place for themselves in the community, be able to recognize and accept changes in community life, accept the specific roles and values which exist in the society in which they live, acquire interpersonal skills (such as sensitivity to the needs of others), be able to relate the ideas and contributions of others, learn tolerance for the personal and cultural differences in society, and develop self-assurance.

Further the adolescents' ability to develop a socially acceptable philosophy of life is mainly determined by their physical, cognitive and emotional maturity as well as by the complexity of the society in which they grow up, the characteristics of their subculture, the attitudes and reactions of society to their specific subculture as well as the family structure and parental influence.

Hence, the adolescent has reached a stage of development when relationships with others including parents, siblings, educators and

peers tend to become more demanding, complex and, at times, strained. For the purpose of this study, adolescents' social relations with their parents, family, siblings, school (educators), community, peers and friends will be discussed.

1.2 Motivation for the study

Although it is no longer accepted that adolescence is a period of intense turmoil as in popular portrayals, adolescence is still considered an important transitional period, because of the cognitive, biological and social changes that occur during this time period. Furthermore, adolescence is a period of heightened risk. Rates of depression, conduct disorders, suicide, drug and alcohol use increase across adolescence (Laible, Carlo & Raffaelli, 2000:46).

Cauce (as cited in Laible, Carlo & Raffaelli, 2000:46) states that while the majority of adolescents navigate this transitional period with much happiness, success and confidence, a significant minority of them experience much uncertainty and distress. One important factor that distinguishes adolescents who navigate the transition with success and those who do not, is the quality of relationships that the adolescent has with parents, siblings, peers, friends, school (educators) and the community.

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:10), adolescents' social development generally encompasses the changes in their relations with other people and the influence of society and specific persons on the individual.

The value system in our homes, schools and the community have been relegated to the periphery. Parents, schools and the community today no longer nurture the adolescent as expected of them. Modern technology

such as the cell phone has split the sanctity of the family. Parents today are economically active and are inspiring for gender equality in all fields at the expense of taking care of the adolescent. The adolescent loses the parents' attention. Today morality is outdated, spirituality is laughed at, and religion is forgotten. Reverence to superiors, devotion to ideals, piety and kindness are considered impediments to worldly ambitions (Moodley, 2002:7).

Many adolescents, in particular in South Africa are more fortunate than others in that they live with their parents under comfortable, safe and secure surroundings. Parents are there to guide, encourage, motivate and support them in their endeavours. Further many parents are relatively young and adolescents can discuss a variety of issues with them

On the other hand there are the less fortunate adolescents who do not live with their parents due to a variety of reasons including the death of one or more of the parents as a result of illnesses such as TB, HIV/AIDS or migratory movements in search of better job opportunities in other parts of the country or for cultural reasons. Hence they live with family members such as grandparents or other relatives or in foster homes.

Also child-headed homes exist especially in the rural areas but is also noticeable in the urban areas. In these households, the adolescent is in charge of the household and takes care of his siblings without much, if any, support and supervision from adults. These child-headed households are also the result of deceased parents or migration of parents in search of employment elsewhere. There is not much support from adults or social welfare organizations for these families.

Further these adolescents are regarded as street children in the urban

areas. They are exposed to the vices of people that can make them become prostitutes as a means of survival, or commit crimes such as housebreaking, murder and abuse drugs and alcohol. These child-headed families do not have any regular income, whether in the urban or rural area and have to look at ways and means to survive. Also they do not have easy access to clinics and other medical facilities.

Adolescents that tend to come from dysfunctional families, where there are all types of abuse, such as physical, verbal and emotional abuse, as well as incest from either parent or from both of them or even from siblings, tend to seek comfort with friends and peers. Sometimes they can indulge in anti-social behaviour such as vandalism, serious incidents including murder, alcohol and drug abuse so as to fit in with rest of his peers and to escape his home situation.

Holmbeck, Steinberg, Steinbberg and Morris (as cited by Buist, Dekovic, Meeus & van Aken, 2002:168), state that studies that examined changes in adolescents' relationships with their parents (e.g. communication and quality of affect) have generally indicated that these relationships show a decrease in closeness, an increase in conflict in early adolescence, and an increase in emotional distance during adolescence.

Structures are in place in most communities to offer support and assistance to individuals and families that are in need. The Department of Social Welfare under the auspices of the National Government and Provincial Government have provided professional support staff to the communities throughout the country to assess and assist those individuals and families that need help. They provide, amongst other services, counselling to individuals and families, referrals to health clinics, placement of individuals in foster homes as well as social grants to families. Further community based child and family welfare societies,

Christian, Hindu, Islamic, non governmental organizations and political organizations also offer support to individuals and families by providing food hampers, soup kitchens, clothing and placing destitute individuals in shelters to protect them from the harsh weather conditions. Also the Department of Education has introduced the feeding scheme programs at schools where learners are provided with a hot, nutritious meal on a daily basis.

Schools and sporting clubs (through the financial assistance of municipalities and the Provincial sports ministries) tend to offer the youth support, encouragement and assistance in the communities by encouraging involvement in acceptable behaviour such as non involvement in gangsterism by getting them more involved in activities such as academic programs, sport, drama clubs and upgrading the appearance of the schools and community centers. Schools and communities serve as common interaction points between the adolescent and the peer, friend, educators and family members.

Further the media, through the newspapers, billboards, radio and television are powerful agents in influencing adolescent behaviour in a positive manner or negative manner. However governmental and non governmental organizations can, for example, fund strong positive campaigns through the media, in the same manner that they are presently campaigning against the spread of the HIV/AIDS virus.

The researcher attempted to investigate the impact of social relations (parents, family, siblings, school (educators), community, peers and friends) on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

1.3 Statement of the problem

In essence this study attempts to find an answer to the following

question:

How do social relations impact on the self-actualization of the adolescent?

1.4 Research hypothesis

In behavioural research, the statistical hypothesis is almost always a null hypothesis, that is a “no difference” statistical hypothesis (Moodley, 2002:7).

The hypothesis to be tested is referred to as a null hypothesis (H_0), because it states that the difference between the researcher's statistic and hypothesized value of the population parameter is null. It is therefore a statement about an unknown parameter. The research hypothesis for this study was formulated and centred on the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

The null hypothesis (H_0) for this study was formulated as follows:

There is no relationship between social relations and the self-actualization of the adolescent.

1.5 Aim of the research

The aim of this research is:

To undertake an empirical investigation pertaining to the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of adolescents.

1.6 Method of research

1.6.1 Target population

The population of the study consisted of adolescents. Grade 10 learners in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, Ethekwini Region,

KwaZulu Natal made up the sample population for this study.

1.6.2 Data sampling method

A literature study of available and relevant literature was carried out, in order to base this study on an accountable theoretical base. Grade 10 learners in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit of the Umlazi District; Ethekwini Region completed an empirical survey comprising a structured questionnaire. A Likert type scale questionnaire with five response categories, namely, Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree and Strongly Disagree was constructed. The five response categories ensured that the respondents' selections fell into one of the categories enabling the measuring of the direction and intensity.

1.6.3 Sampling procedure

For the purposes of this research, the researcher identified grade 10 learners in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, Umlazi District, Ethekwini Region for the sample. There are approximately 1000 learners in this grade. Twenty percent of the sample population is 200. The random sampling method was followed. Each secondary school in this Ward was given a number. This number was written on a piece of paper together with a number of learners that were based at each of the nine schools. Each of these pieces of paper was folded and placed in a container. The contents were shuffled and the researcher took out the pieces of paper one by one, recording the number of the school and the number of learners that formed the sample. The process continued until 200 respondents were obtained.

1.6.4 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether questionnaires would be understood by the population to be surveyed.

A pilot study is a mini version of a research study, where similar subjects are used as in the final survey. The questionnaire was pre-tested by using a sample of twenty (20) respondents, consisting of grade 10 learners that were not used in the sample. These learners were from the Scottburgh Circuit, Port Shepstone District, Pietermaritzburg Region.

The questionnaire was administered to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it was administered in the main study. The time taken to complete the questionnaire was recorded in order to determine whether it was reasonable and it was concluded that the time allocated was reasonable and adequate to complete the questionnaire.

The subjects were then asked for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions. The five point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree gave the respondents a wide range of choices.

This exercise was used to determine how the design of the questionnaire can be improved and to identify possible flaws in the measuring instrument. No quantitative analysis was carried out.

The feedback from the respondents and observations made by the researcher, were considered when the final questionnaire was compiled.

Through the utilization of the pilot study as "pre-test" the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied adequately with the requirements of the study.

1.6.5 Data analysis techniques

The collected data was captured in a format that would allow analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by the adolescents. The coded data was subsequently transferred to a computer spreadsheet using the Quattro Pro 4.0

statistics computer programme. Data was converted into frequency tables to analyse the findings by means of descriptive statistics.

Thereafter the null hypothesis (H_0) was tested using the chi-squared statistical test of significance to determine whether the null hypothesis was true.

1.6.6 Validity and reliability of the instrument

According to Huysamen (1989:1-3), there are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in research, namely validity and reliability.

1.6.6.1 Validity

Validity is a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for the specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores generated (Schumacher & McMillan, 1983:223-226). Hence the researcher has to provide adequate evidence to verify that validity exists.

The researcher utilized the questionnaire as a method to measure the relationship between social relations and the self-actualization of the adolescent. The questionnaire was distributed to two hundred grade 10 learners from different schools in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, which is part of Umlazi District, in the Ethekwini Region using the random sampling method. Due to the complexity of the respondents' attributes, one is never certain that the questionnaire devised will actually measure what it purports to measure.

The measuring instrument has sufficient content validity, that is, the questionnaire was able to capture the entire meaning of the characteristics being investigated.

A comprehensive literature survey was undertaken to ensure that all relevant factors were included in the construction of the questionnaire to protect its content validity.

Furthermore, the pilot study was conducted to safeguard the internal validity of the questionnaire. The purpose of conducting a pilot study is to ensure that the validity of the measuring instrument is secured.

1.6.6.2 Reliability

Reliability, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1983:227), refers to the consistency of measurement and the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument on occasions of data collection.

The researcher used the questionnaire as a method to measure the relationship between social relations and the self-actualization of the adolescent. The questionnaire was distributed to two hundred grade 10 learners in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, which is part of the Umlazi District, in the Ethekwini Region using the random sampling method.

The respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire under controlled conditions thus reducing the chance of error and maintaining the level of reliability of the questionnaire. The reliability of the instrument (questionnaire) was judged by estimating how well the items that reflected the same construct yielded similar results.

The researcher believed that the respondents were honest and sincere in responding to the questionnaire, hence maximising possible reliability. Further frankness in responding to the questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire.

1.7 Ethics

Permission was requested from the Superintendent of Education (Management) to administer the questionnaire to grade 10 learners at secondary schools in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, which is part of the Umlazi District, in the Ethekwini Region of KwaZulu-Natal.

Permission was granted. Thereafter the researcher sought permission from each of the principals and made the necessary arrangements with them to administer the questionnaire to the learners. However prior to the administering of the questionnaires to the learners, parental permission was sought highlighting the confidentiality of the content of the learner responses through the anonymity of the questionnaires (cf. annexure D).

1.8 Elucidation of concepts

1.8.1 Gender Issue

In this study all references to any gender include references to the other gender. In the event the researcher refers to a male (he/him/himself), this includes reference to the other gender (she/her/herself).

1.8.2 Adolescence

The term 'adolescence' comes from the Latin verb *adolescere* meaning 'to grow up' or 'to grow to adulthood' (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:5; Olivier, 2000:214). Dacey (1996:54) states that an adolescent may be defined as any person usually between the ages of 11 and 19. Further, Edward (2000:17) maintains that the teenage years are often called 'adolescence' or 'puberty'.

For the purposes of this study, an adolescent refers to the learners in the

age group 12- 18 years.

1.8.3 Self-actualization

The term actualize can be defined as 'to make actual or real'. 'Self-actualization' is the attainment of all that an adolescent can attain in every aspect of development (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:83). 'Self-actualization' is the process of becoming all one is capable of being, making full use of all one's abilities, talents and potential (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:362).

According to Vrey (as cited by Prinsloo, 1994:90), adolescents can form a positive self-concept enabling them to actualize their potential when they attribute meaning to their relationships with themselves, others, objects and ideas and experience their involvement in these relationships positively. Further, Jacobs and Vrey (as cited by Kokot, 1987:25) emphasise that a realistic self-concept is a pre-requisite for actualizing behaviour.

According to Maslow the tendency towards self-actualization is the motive that underlies all behaviour. Realizing his true potential is the adolescent's ultimate goal. It is what human development finally leads to. Theoretically, it lies within every adolescent's reach and requires no change in the adolescent's basic nature. All that is needed is for the adolescent to discover what is already there and to allow it to flourish (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:358).

According to Meyer, Moore & Viljoen (1995:358), Maslow believes that much human behaviour can be explained in terms of need gratification. He presents the adolescent as a yearning being who is seldom satisfied because no sooner is one need gratified, then another surfaces. Need gratification is the basis for growth and the realization of an adolescent's

full potential through self-actualization.

The adolescent has certain basic needs which are hierarchically arranged. They are biological, safety, love and esteem needs. These must be satisfied before the need for self-actualization, which is at the top of the hierarchy, becomes apparent (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:358).

For the purposes of this study self-actualization means the person's deliberate efforts to realise all the latent possibilities of himself. This includes all the areas of physical skills, mental abilities, affective experience and moral conscience (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:93).

1.9 Summary

The researcher has laid the foundations for this study in Chapter 1. Concepts have been defined, the problem has been stated, as well as the methods to be used.

Chapter 2 will focus on the review of available and relevant literature pertaining to the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

The adolescent has reached a phase in his life which has become the cross roads for his future direction. His social relations with a variety of people including his parents, peers, friends and educators (school) tend to influence him either positively or adversely. This in turn can determine his future direction and possibly impact on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

In this chapter, the researcher will discuss the life-world of the adolescent. Thereafter the researcher will explore the impact of social relationships (parents, siblings, family, peers, educators and community on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

2.2 The life-world of the adolescent

No person lives in a vacuum, but in a life-world of relationships (Prinsloo, Voster & Sibaya, 1996:36). The life-world of a person includes everything that has meaning for that person (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:143). The life-world, as described by Vrey (1993:15), is the *Gestalt* or the integration of an individual's meaningful interacting relationships. Thus the life-world of the adolescent is an integration of all the meaningful relationships that he has.

According to Griessel and Oberholzer (1994:14), the relationship between human beings and the world is a dialectic relationship, that is, a fruitful, ongoing dialogue between man and the world. This fruitful ongoing dialogue between man and the world comprises the dialogue between man and other people, objects, ideas, systems, forces, self-norms, and

everything to which he had understandably attributed meaning.

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:14), each adolescent is unique hence the life-world of each adolescent is unique. This uniqueness of every person's life-world is influenced by the interaction between the adolescent and the world. Vrey (1993:15) supports this view and states that a life-world is not conceivable apart from a person, since it is the totality of meanings discovered by a person. Further, no two people (not even twins) can have the same life-world. Similarly, an adolescent without a life-world is inconceivable.

In empirical education, the attribution of meaning is vital. It cannot take place without involvement. The quality of both meaning and involvement is determined by what the adolescent subjectively experiences, and both are components of self-actualization, which eventually becomes guided actualization.

A meaningful life-world is formed when the adolescent, by assigning meaning, forms relations with objects, people, ideas, values, the self and God. The adolescent's life-world is always expanding due to the broadness of his interests and his acquaintance with ideas (Vrey: 1993:186).

2.2.1 Self-actualizing

Self-actualization means the person's deliberate efforts to realise all the latent possibilities of his self. This includes all the areas of physical skills, mental abilities, affective experience and moral conscience (Gouws & Kruger, 1995: 93-95).

The self-actualizer can be described as a human being who is fully engaged in life, who is capable of experiencing both intense pleasure and

deep sorrow. He is not only involved in what affects him personally, but also in the well-being or problems of others. He possesses the resources to direct his energies toward problems and vicissitudes that do not concern him directly. Such a person has a realistic self-concept and can therefore accept himself. He can accept his particular deficiencies and limitations, which therefore neither affect his sense of self-worth as a human being nor impinge on his self-image.

Self-actualizers have a fairly systematic and well-conceived philosophy of life that need not be based on specific religious beliefs, but from which they derive a value system that guides and directs their lives. They are not dogmatic, however, and can accept other people's viewpoints without necessarily agreeing with them (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:93-94).

Vrey (1993:44) states that the characteristics of self-actualization are: a self-actualizer must be capable of understanding, assigning meaning and of progression orientation; he is intensely involved in some task or cause (outside himself) and he experiences his meaningful activity to an intense degree.

Certain conditions have to be met prior to the adolescent arriving at self-actualization.

2.2.2 Conditions for self-actualization

The adolescent creates relationships; thus giving him increased control of his world and the opportunity to allow him to actualize his potential. The needs of the adolescent are a pre-condition for growth to independence.

The following important needs are outlined by Vrey (1993:77-78):

2.2.2.1 The need for achievement (competence)

An adolescent must experience being in control of at least a part of his external world and being able to achieve success in it. The satisfaction of this need for achievement calls for increasing involvement in tasks and with the objects he encounters. Spontaneous praise even for small successes is another prerequisite. If others accept his achievements, he can accept them himself and go on to further achievement.

2.2.2.2 The need for love and esteem

An adolescent must know that his people love him and consider him important; that he and his affairs matter to them. He needs loving adults who provide security and a feeling that he is valued.

2.2.2.3 The need for understanding

An adolescent urgently needs understanding from his adults. His educator must be patient and must try to understand what he is after, even where he makes mistakes. The adolescent may not be able to formulate this need, however, it is vital.

2.2.2.4 The need to belong

Togetherness is one of the indispensable pedagogical requirements. The adolescent needs support and security. Support gives the adolescent a feeling of belonging. The quality of the parent-adolescent relationship matters significantly.

Further, the following needs must be satisfied if further relations are to be formed and an adequate life-world is to be established:

- Genetic potential: The adolescent is an open energy system with the

possibility of making choices that can transcend any substantive limit or characterization. However the adolescent with the hereditary limitations, motor or perceptual, will be challenged in comparison with others. These challenges will show in all his relationships.

- Previous experience: An adolescent who has experienced success in his explorations will illustrate greater confidence in further explorations.
- Educational experience: An adolescent's self-esteem will be greatly influenced by acceptance, rejection or spoiling, and this self-concept, high or low, will tend to produce the corresponding behaviour. When an adolescent is forced into the defensive by rejection, he will not expose himself to risks. The inferior scope and quality of his life-world will derive from a poor self-concept.

2.3 Maslow's self-actualization theory

This theory is discussed because it is among the most influential in the world and gives a general perspective on learning. Maslow believed that man has a natural drive to healthiness: self-actualization. He believed that man has basic needs that have to be fulfilled in order to be free enough to feel the desire for the higher levels of realization. He also believed that the organism has the natural, unconscious and innate capacity to seek its needs.

Man has an internal, natural, drive to become the best possible person he can be. He has within him a pressure toward unity of personality, toward spontaneous expressiveness, toward full individuality and identity, toward seeing the truth rather than being blind, toward being creative, toward being good and a lot else. That is, the human being is so constructed that he presses toward what most people would call good values, toward serenity, kindness, courage, honesty, love, unselfishness

and goodness (Maslow, 1968:154-155).

Maslow believed that not only does the organism know what it needs to eat to maintain itself healthy, but also man knows intuitively what he needs to become the best possible, mentally healthy and happy being. He spoke about higher consciousness, aesthetic and peak experiences. He stressed the importance of moral and ethical behaviour that will lead man naturally to discovering becoming himself.

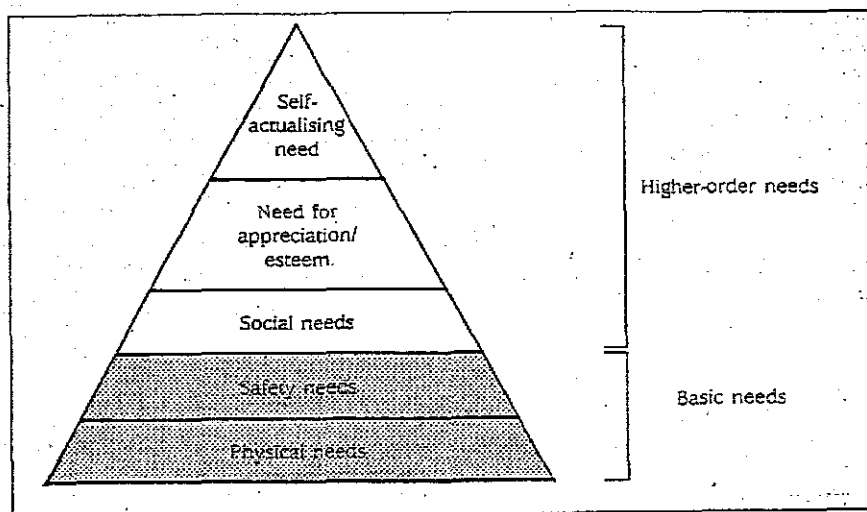
To become self-actualized, Maslow said we need inner exploration and action. "An important existential problem is posed by the fact that self-actualizing persons (and all people in their peak experiences) occasionally live out-of-time and out-of-the-world (atemporal and aspatial) even though mostly they must live in the outer world. Living in the inner physic world (which is ruled by physic laws and not by the laws of outer reality, i.e. the world of experience, of emotion, of wishes and fears and hopes, of love of poetry, art and fantasy, is different from living in and adapting to the non-physic reality which runs by the laws he never made and which are not essential to his nature even though he has to live by them. The person who is not afraid by this inner, physic world, can enjoy it to such an extent that it may be called Heaven by contrast with the more effortful, fatiguing, externally responsible world of 'reality', of striving and coping, of right and wrong, truth and falsehood" (Maslow, 1968:213).

Maslow (1968:213) goes on to state that this is true even though the healthier person can also adapt more easily and enjoyably to the 'real' world, and has better 'reality testing', i.e., doesn't confuse it with his inner physic world.

Maslow's theory has a humanistic premise and is based on the

perception that people are different from animals. Maslow divides human needs into five categories that can be arranged in order of importance. The needs at the lower end of the range must be satisfied first. Maslow's model can be represented schematically as follows (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:153):

Table 1: Maslow's self-actualizing model



Maslow's intention with this hierarchic division is to illustrate that some needs are more basic and powerful than others.

Accordingly he identifies two groups of needs:

- Physiological needs – the basic needs and
- Psychological needs – the higher order needs.

2.3.1 Physiological needs

For Maslow, satisfying the physiological needs is a prerequisite for a person's becoming. He sees people's striving or will to satisfy these needs as motivated behaviour at its lowest level. For example, if the adolescent needs food, clothing and rest; no educator can motivate him to learn

(Maslow, 1970:215).

Van Schalkwyk (1988:126-129), Oosthuizen (1992:123), Griessel, Louw and Swart (1993:50-52) state that in order to create effectiveness in education it is expected of parents to ensure that the learner receives maximum benefit from education by offering him love, caring for his physical needs, e.g. health, food, clothing, shelter, supervision and control over activities at home so that the learner lives a balanced life.

Educators agree with Maslow that satisfying the basic needs of the adolescent is a prerequisite for motivation and learning. Education is presently being confronted by an unprecedented challenge owing to unemployment, famine, health hazards such as HIV/AIDS and overpopulation .

2.3.1.1 The need for safety and security

Maslow (1970:216) classifies the need for protection and safety as basic, maintaining that the fulfillment of children's safety needs is important to their sense of security. He identifies several factors that can prevent the safety needs of children from being fulfilled. These include unfair treatment or rejection by parents, educators and the peer group, corporal punishment, lovelessness and disintegrating family relationships.

In many parts of Africa, including South Africa there are many child-headed families where adolescents tend to head the families with little or no adult or community support. In most cases this is the result of both parents being deceased due to HIV/AIDS or other tragic events. These families are mainly observed in rural areas but are also found in urban areas where they are usually located in informal settlements and are classified as street children. This situation can prevent the safety needs of adolescents from being fulfilled because they are exposed to all kinds

of negative elements including drug and alcohol abuse, prostitution, physical, mental and sex abuse.

Satisfying the physiological needs must be a prerequisite in all reference frameworks.

2.3.2 Psychological Needs

2.3.2.1 The social need

This need includes the need for love, acceptance and companionship. It becomes prominent when the safety need has been met. The adolescent phase is mainly characterized by the need for love, acceptance and companionship. Failure to meet the adolescent's social need may lead to behaviour becoming deviant (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:154).

2.3.2.2 The need for appreciation or esteem

As soon as a person's need for love has been satisfied to the point where it diminishes as a motivating force, the need for esteem awakens. Maslow (1970:45), classifies this need into two sub-categories:

- A set of needs based on a person's achievements: This is related to a sense of efficiency, capability, achievement, confidence, personal strength and independence. The adolescent constantly tries to gain recognition as an individual in good standing as a human being. He displays the need to achieve and to experience independence and freedom.
- A set of needs related to the esteem of others: This includes social standing, honour, importance, dignity and appreciation. The person needs others to recognize and appreciate his competence.

When the needs for self-esteem have been satisfied, the person feels

confident, competent, strong, useful and needed in his world. However, unfulfilled needs for self-esteem give rise to a feeling of inferiority, weakness and helplessness. Maslow emphasizes, however, that the most stable and therefore healthiest basis for self-esteem is a deserved respect rather than an unjustified veneration or fame arising from one's background (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:361).

Further, Hjelle and Ziegler (1983:373) also point out that genuine self-esteem is based on actual experiences and not only on the judgement of others; one's own judgement also plays a role: "Hence, there is a real psychological danger of basing one's esteem needs on the opinions of others rather than on actual ability, achievement and adequacy. Once a person relies exclusively upon the opinions of others for self-esteem, he is in a psychological jeopardy. To be solid, self-esteem must be founded on one's actual worth, not on external factors outside one's control."

2.3.2.3 The need for self-actualization

If the needs considered above are reasonably well-satisfied people seek opportunities for the most advantageous utilization of their abilities. This shows that they are intrinsically motivated since their behaviour emanates from a source located within themselves.

People who operate from this internal locus of control do not have to impress other people in the process of their self-actualization but are free to be themselves in a way that satisfies them best (Mellet, 1986:145). According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:255), this self-actualization addresses the need to reach one's ultimate goals in life, to become what one was created to become and to develop one's talents and potentials. Since humans are complex beings the relative importance of the different needs depend on the extent to which they are met for a particular person at a particular time in a particular context.

Hence, just how self-actualization comes about differs from "person to person" and the context. Maslow states that it is here that the greatest differences between individuals actually manifest themselves. Self-actualization can result in works of art or important scientific discoveries. However it could also mean that someone strives to become the ideal parent, or a master builder, becomes involved in charity work. Self-actualization is an extremely exciting idea because it encourages the person to discover and realize his highest potential, and, in doing so, to become a fully functioning, goal oriented being (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:362).

2.3.3 Characteristics of the self-actualizing adolescent

According to Hjelle and Ziegler (1983:388-393), and Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1995:364-368), Maslow lists the following characteristics of the self-actualizing adolescent (person):

2.3.3.1 Accurate observation of reality

Perhaps the most universal characteristic of self-actualizers is their unusual ability to perceive other people correctly and efficiently, to see reality as it is rather than as they wish it to be. They have a better perception of reality and more comfortable relations with it. They are less emotional and more objective about their perceptions; they do not allow their desires and hopes to distort their observations. As a result of their superior perception, self-actualizing people are more readily able to detect the fake, the phony, and the dishonest in others.

Maslow discovered that this ability to see more efficiently extended to many other areas of life, including art, music, science, politics, and philosophy. For example an informal survey indicated that self-actualizers are more accurate in their predictions of future events. The

self-actualized individual's perception is also less distorted by expectations, anxieties, stereotypes, false optimism, or pessimism. Self-actualizers are really "with it" in a profound sense; they are realists. Finally, the self-actualizer is able to tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty more easily than others. He is generally unthreatened and unfrightened by the unknown; he accepts it, is comfortable with it, and often is even more attracted by it than by the known (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1983:388-393, and Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:364-368).

2.3.3.2 Self-acceptance, accepting others and human nature

The healthy person displays a sense of respect for the self and others. Without feeling undue concern, he accepts his own nature in a stoic style, with all its shortcomings, frailties, and weaknesses. There is also freedom from overriding guilt, crippling shame, and debilitating anxiety.

Self-acceptance is also vividly expressed at the physiological level. Self-actualizers have hearty appetites, sleep well, and enjoy their sex lives without unnecessary inhibition. Basic biological processes (e.g. urination, pregnancy, menstruation and growing old) are considered part of nature and are graciously accepted (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1983:388-393, and Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:364-368).

2.3.3.3 Spontaneity, simplicity and naturalness

The behavior of self-actualizing people is marked by spontaneity and simplicity, by an absence of artificiality or straining for effect. This does not imply consistently unconventional behaviour. It is the person's inner life (thoughts and impulses) that is unconventional, natural and spontaneous. Their unconventionality is not intended to impress others and may even be suppressed in order not to distress others, so that they may even abide by ceremonies and rituals. Thus, they may confirm if it means protecting themselves or others from pain or injustice.

The self-actualizer refuses to be hampered or inhibited by social convention when it seems to interfere with an act that he considers as important or basic. In other words, if the self-actualizer becomes keenly absorbed in a personally vital project or task, he may, for its sake, ignore normally accepted rules. One consequence of this characteristic is that such a person's ethical codes do not necessarily correspond to those of his milieu.

2.3.3.4 Problem centering

Maslow found his subjects to be committed to some task, duty, vacation, or beloved job which they regarded as important. In other words, they are not ego-centered but rather oriented toward problems beyond their immediate needs, problems to which they are dedicated in the sense of a mission in life. They live to work rather than work to live; their work is subjectively experienced as a defining characteristic of themselves. Self-actualizers are also deeply concerned with philosophic and ethical issues. Accordingly, they live and work within the widest frame of reference, tending to devote themselves to non-personal "missions" or tasks. Such a life-style denotes a lack of concern for the trivial or petty, thus making life far more bearable not only for the self-actualizers but for all who are associated with them.

2.3.3.5 Exclusiveness: the need for privacy

This kind of individual prefers solitude and privacy and even seeks it to a greater extent than the average person. In social encounters he is often viewed by 'normal' people as aloof, reserved, snobbish, and cold. This is because self-actualizers do not need other people in the usual sense of friendship. They rely completely upon their inner resources and remain unruffled by that which produces turmoil in others.

This quality of detachment encompasses other aspects of behaviour as well. For instance, since they are able to concentrate more intensely than ordinary people, they may become absent-minded and oblivious to outer surroundings. They remain calm and serene during periods of personal misfortune. Maslow explained that this comes in part from the self-actualizers tendency to stand by his or her own interpretation of situations instead of relying upon what other people think or feel about matters.

2.3.3.6 Autonomy: Independence of culture and environment

As characteristics, self-actualizing people are not dependent for their main satisfactions on the physical and social environment. Instead, they rely on their own potentialities and latent resources for growth and development. Truly self-actualizing adolescents do not really need the "right" academic atmosphere at school to learn. They can learn anywhere because they have themselves. Of course, some school 'atmospheres' may be better than others in this respect; the point here is that the self-actualizer does not require a particular type of environment before he can learn, or, for that matter, do almost anything else. In this sense, the self-actualizer is a self-contained unit.

Healthy people also have a high degree of self-direction and 'free will'. They regard themselves as self-governed, active, responsible, and self-disciplined agents in determining their own destinies. They are strong enough to be oblivious to others' opinions and affection; thus, they shun honours, status, prestige, and popularity. Such extrinsic satisfaction is perceived as less significant than self-development and inner growth. Of course, attaining this point of relative independence depends on having been loved and respected in the past. eg. satisfying lower-level needs.

2.3.3.7 Consistent renewal of appreciation

Maslow discovered that healthy, adolescents exhibit a capacity to appreciate even the most ordinary events in their lives with a sense of newness, awe, pleasure, and even ecstasy. They seldom become bored with life experience.

2.3.3.8 Peak experiences

Maslow observed that self-actualizing individuals commonly had what he called peak experiences. This term refers to moments of intense excitement and high tension as well as to those of relaxation, peacefulness, blissfulness, and stillness. Representing the most ecstatic moments in life, such occurrences usually come from love and sexual climax, bursts of creativity, insight, discovery, and fusion with nature. These people can 'turn on' without artificial stimulants. Just being alive turns them on.

For Maslow, peak or mystic experiences are not necessarily religious or spiritual in nature. He found that 'peakers' feel more in harmony with the world, lose their self-awareness or transcend it, feel simultaneously more powerful and more helpless than before, and become less conscious of time and space. According to Maslow, the peak experiences that really change a person come about when they are earned. An example is a philosopher who has been working for fifteen years at some problem comes to an illumination. Undoubtedly, peak experiences can also be through books, music, art, intellectual endeavours and human relationships (Hjelle & Ziegler, 1983:388-393, and Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1995:364-368).

2.3.3.9 Social interest

Even though self-actualizers are sometimes troubled, saddened, and even enraged by the shortcomings of the human race, they experience a

deep feeling of kinship with humanity. Consequently, they have a genuine desire to help improve the lot of their fellows. This nurturant attitude is evidenced by a feeling of compassion, sympathy, and affection for all humanity. Often this is a special kind of brotherhood, like the attitude of an older brother or sister toward younger siblings.

2.3.3.10 Interpersonal relationships

Self-actualizing people tend to form deeper and closer personal relationships than those of the 'average' adult. Similarly, those with whom they associate are likely to be healthier and closer to self-actualization than the average person. That is, self-actualizers are more inclined to associate closely with others of similar character, talent, and capacity ('birds of a feather'). Usually their circle of intimate friends is small, since befriending the self-actualizing style demands a great deal of time. They also have especially tender feelings for children and are easily touched by them.

Maslow noticed that many of the relationships that these people develop are one-sided. It is not unusual for them to attract admirers, disciples, and worshipers who, in effect, demand more than they give. When forced into these distressing and distasteful relationships, self-actualizers are kind and pleasant but try to avoid them as gracefully as possible.

However this does not imply a lack of social discrimination. In fact, they may become very harsh with those who deserve it, particularly people who are hypocritical, pretentious, or unduly indignant.

2.3.3.11 Democratic character structure

Maslow described his subjects as being 'democratic' in the deepest sense. Since they are free of prejudice, they tend basically to respect all persons. Further, they are willing to learn from anybody who is able to teach

them, irrespective of class, education, age, race, or political beliefs. At the same time, Maslow discovered that self-actualizers do not equalize all human beings.

2.3.3.12 Discrimination between means and ends

In their day-to-day living, self-actualizing individuals show less confusion, inconsistency, and conflict than the average person about what is right or wrong, good or bad. They have definite moral and ethical standards, although very few of them are religious in the orthodox sense of the term. Maslow's subjects also showed an unusually keen ability to discriminate between ends (goals) and the means for accomplishing those ends. On the other hand, they often enjoy the means, or instrumental behaviour leading to a goal, which more impatient persons would dislike.

2.3.3.13 A philosophical, benevolent sense of humour

Another characteristic common to Maslow's subjects was a distinct preference for philosophical or cosmic humour. Whereas the average person may enjoy humour that pokes fun at another's inferiority, that hurts or ridicules someone, or that is 'off-colour'; the healthy person typically finds humour expressing the foolishness of humanity in general most appealing. Abraham Lincoln's humour serves as a relevant example. His jokes always had something to convey, a purpose beyond just producing a laugh. They often dealt with a parable. According to Maslow, philosophical humour usually elicits more of a smile than a laugh.

2.3.3.14 Creativity

Maslow found that, without exception, creativity was more prominent in self-actualizers than in others. However, the creativeness manifested by his subjects was different from unusual talent or genius as reflected in poetry, art, music, or science. Maslow likened it to the natural

creativeness found in children. This kind of self-actualizing creativity appears in everyday life as an expression of a personality, which is perspective, spontaneous, and 'childlike'. It does not necessarily involve the writing of books, composing of music, or production of art objects. It may be humble in nature and can touch virtually all the person's activities. Basically, it revolves around the discovery of things new and novel that depart from conventional ideas.

2.3.3.15 Resistance against enculturation

Maslow observed that his superior subjects are in harmony with their culture and yet maintain a certain inner detachment from it. Essentially autonomous beings, they make their own decisions, even if they are at odds with popular opinion. This resistance to enculturation does not mean that self-actualizers are unconventional in all realms of behaviour.

For instance, they remain well within the limits of conformity concerning choice of clothes, speech, food, and the manner of doing things, which are not really important enough to prompt objection. However, they can become extremely independent and unconventional when they feel basic issues are involved. Self-actualizers also manifest a calm, long-term commitment to cultural improvement. Although cognizant of society's imperfections, they accept the fact that social change can be slow and painstaking but is best achieved by working within the system.

2.3.4 Under-actualization of the adolescent

When the adolescent does not realize his potentials, he has not achieved self-actualization. Thus the adolescent has under-actualized.

Van Niekerk (1987:20-30) outlines the under-actualization of the adolescent as follows:

2.3.4.1 Inadequate exploration

The stances or attitudes which the adolescent assume in exploring his world and which he fails to personally integrate, tend to give rise to emotional instability. If the undigested experiences increase in number, he is eventually driven into an affective no human being's land where he suffers from feelings of anxiety, insecurity, helplessness, uncertainty, dependence, loneliness, pessimism, dissatisfaction, lack of self confidence, low self-esteem, depression and inferiority. The adolescent withdraws into his own world which, to him, has the semblance of safety, yet which actually intensifies his anxiety.

According to Louw, Edwards and Orr (2001:23), every meaning which is not emotionally, cognitively and normatively integrated by the adolescent, leads to anxiety. Anxiety can result in an impotence, which virtually paralyses the adolescent. Loneliness and insecurity are intimately associated with anxiety. Primeval anxiety is the silent companion of every human being's life. Adolescents tend to have contradictory feelings of sadness, worry, anger, excitement and joy. Once the adolescent develops a positive attitude, there is a strong possibility that he can overcome his state of anxiety.

When education takes an unfavourable course, it always gives rise to anxiety. Anxiety acts as an impediment to the adolescents' development. This in turn acts as an impediment to the adolescent in his development. His feeling of insecurity is often revealed as a reluctance to explore, thus resulting in the inadequate actualizing of his psychic life. The wheel then turns full circle, as his anxiety is increased by the very fact of his inadequate exploration of the world. The opportunities for him to

actualize his psychic life with reference to specific educational contents also diminish because he prefers to withdraw from that which appears to him to be strange or new.

As a result of inadequate assistance in his search for meaning a negative attitude towards life develops in the adolescent, driving him to be always on the defensive. He most likely will take this disposition into the classroom as well. This defensive attitude may be a flight to the fore (aggression), or into oneself (isolation or into the past regression). The adolescent cannot take up any new position and only accepts that which is totally familiar to him. He feels that he is a captive, and impotent to change.

The stronger the situation at school is related to his fear to communicate, the more vehemently will the adolescent reject the subject matter which is presented to him. However, his endeavour to escape by avoiding any measure of communication or involvement in schoolwork only serves to increase his anxiety yet again. He is constantly aware of the fact that his peers do not avoid the situation from which he is fleeing. Further, he constantly anticipates the fearful moment of inevitable reprehension. He would have preferred to control his own situation as others do, and thus his feeling of impotence intensifies both his anxiety and his very low self-esteem (Van Niekerk, 1987:22).

2.3.4.2 Inadequate emancipation

In educational situations where pedagogic commendations are rare because the educator only infrequently expresses approval, the adolescent does not feel sufficiently aware that he is being trusted, understood and allowed, to be someone in his own rights. He will then regard himself as inadequately emancipating in his meaningful experiences, volition, acquisition of knowledge and behaviour.

The educator who forgets that an adolescent is in need of guidance to an ever-lessening degree and has an increasing right to freedom, is obstructing the adolescent with special regard to his emancipation.

The person who the adolescent is constantly becoming, corresponds with his anticipated image of self (that which he would like to become). If this image seems dim or unattainable to the adolescent, he will eventually accept that it is in actual fact unreachable and will consequently believe himself to be hopelessly inferior.

Emancipating essentially means that the adolescent is releasing or actualizing the potential he is endowed with as a person, as it pertains to his various abilities. The adolescent who under-estimates his potential is consequently limited to actualizing only this supposedly inferior potential. There is proof of a weakened will in respect of his real potential, especially in an emancipatory sense. This obviously amounts to reluctance (unwillingness) to become properly adult. The adult who fails to support the adolescent purposefully with regard to his emancipation and does not foster within him the will to become what he ought to according to his potential, is shirking his full responsibility in the education of the adolescent (Van Niekerk, 1987:20-30).

2.3.4.3 Inadequate distantiation

The educator should be especially sensitive to the fact that an adolescent in a dysfunctional educational setting usually takes inadequate distance from himself and his situatedness. Hence this implies ways in which the adolescent will set about learning in the classroom setting.

In failing to take sufficient distance from himself, the adolescent is less able to adopt the proper attitude for truly involving himself with the

things of this world which are outside of himself. This inability to experience matters and ascribe significance to them in a sufficiently disassociated, controlled and well ordered Gnostic manner by means of his perceptions and thoughts brings about a further degree of pathic-affective liability. He, in effect, fails to sufficiently control his emotional life by means of this reason.

The insecure adolescent finds it difficult to risk proceeding from the mode of sensing to perceiving, and onward to thinking, imagining and memorizing, as he is hampered by anxiety and emotional unrest. A labile mode of sensing also frequently causes the adolescent's attention to fluctuate when he tries to attend to something on a Gnostic level.

Such an adolescent gives meaning to the educational content, which is presented to him at school and elsewhere, in a grossly inadequate manner. He does not discover the true significance and context of this content, by reason of his inadequate actualization of the modes of learning which are especially dependent upon the degree of distantiation, e.g. perceiving, attending, thinking, imagining, phantasising and memorizing. This implies that the adolescent is unable to sufficiently distantiate or disassociate from himself to really get involved with the learning material.

2.3.4.4 Inadequate differentiation

An adolescent is reluctant to fully actualize his potential hence revealing a reluctance to differentiate in a dysfunctional educational setting. When his cognitive education is neglected he may initially still prove to be willing to differentiate according to his ability. This inadequate disclosure of real facts by the educator does not, however, grant the adolescent a sufficient opportunity to really actualize and practise his intellectual potential, by way of differentiation, as the proper guidance and

instruction are simply lacking.

Inadequate intellectual education implies that the adolescent also fails to achieve the necessary opportunity to differentiate the potentialities he has been endowed with as a person and to exercise them in attaching real significance to the realities of living (Van Niekerk (1987:20-30).

2.3.4.5 Inadequate objectivism

When too much is expected of an adolescent, he feels that he is not at total liberty to let go of himself, his fellow-man and material things in order to view himself, his parents, other people and the realities of life objectively. He is consequently unable to discover the factual nature of matters. If that which should be said, done and known is insufficiently modeled or instructed to the adolescent, he is not receiving adequate and real support towards eventually taking an objective stance. An adolescent who is prevented from performing certain tasks for himself remains too subjectively involved and eventually evaluates life itself solely from his own viewpoint.

In the classroom the educator must endeavour to always answer the adolescent's questions concerning the subject matter as adequately as possible. If the learner's questions are ignored or answered unsatisfactorily, this adolescent who is busy actualizing his personal potential, achieves only an uncertain or wavering grasp on the content, which he knows he does not fully know. Consequently his awareness of his ignorance and his quest for knowledge are both intensified.

The adolescent's affect may then become increasingly labile, specifically because he knows that he cannot know. It may also lead to a lack of organization and insufficient structuring in respect of his quest for knowledge, so that he fails to discover the essentials of life.

The educator should guard against overwhelming an adolescent with learning material. From time to time he should be granted the necessary respite to really penetrate and master newly presented material. Boredom should also be avoided, as this may contribute to an adolescent being slow or lazy to objectivate.

Instruction should be individualized to ensure that each adolescent is confronted with just the right measure of intellectual challenge. Overtaxing an adolescent is frequently regarded as an important reason for an adolescent's under-actualization of experience at school. He often anticipates that the schoolwork will be too complicated for him and opts to withdraw into his own world of experience. He, however, tries to escape the danger by retreating into an experiential world, which is already unsafe; and by safeguarding himself by way of passivity, thus further decreasing his Gnostic-cognitive mobility. Action and activity, regretfully, comes to a halt. Anything that is new is not grasped and the adolescent's orientation is inadequate (Van Niekerk, 1987:25).

2.3.4.6 Learning inadequately

To be able to learn, an adolescent must actively direct himself to the content emotionally speaking, and also involve himself intellectually. The educator must likewise instruct him actively.

The affective mode of learning is sensing, also qualified as an accompanying or concomitant mode of learning. This is the consistent preparation and introduction to all cognitive modes of learning. It is the initial stage of becoming involved with the content, where the adolescent actually becomes aware of it. When he subsequently opens up to the content in order to assimilate it into his own experiential world by means of his perceptions and thoughts, he is paying attention to the content and learning it. The educator should strive to organize or structure the

contents adequately for each pupil, to avoid his being entangled in a chaos of contradictory meanings.

Those experiences that he has not meaningfully integrated or digested (usually manifested in terms of anxiety, uncertainty, insecurity and ignorance) constantly force themselves to awareness. In his efforts to learn, the adolescent sometimes experiences difficulties in breaking through these subjective moments of sensing in order to focus on the material to be learned in an organized way.

The experiences of the adolescent is the prerequisite to remaining involved with or paying attention to the contents by way of perceiving, thinking and so forth. It follows that the possibility always exist for affective lability to occur, resulting in a destabilization of the sensing mode of learning which initiates all learning and which should accompany the cognitive modes. The adolescent in that instance also feels that he is unable to learn adequately. This in turn leads to an intensification of his feelings of anxiety, insecurity and ignorance. Such a condition can be envisaged as a wall which has arisen between the adolescent's learning potential and his effective learning instead of the bridge which normally exists when he feels secure in his lived-experience of love, acceptance, encouragement and warmth which enables him to fully realise his learning potential (Van Niekerk, 1987:28).

Affective destabilization thus essentially causes a corrosion of the adolescent's readiness to learn in the classroom, resulting in further lability, which in turn again hampers him in his sensing and attending. He will, under these circumstances, never be able to learn according to his true potential (Van Niekerk, 1987:28).

2.3.5 Experience

According to Kokot (1987:20), experience defines the adolescent's evaluation of a situation and determines the quality of relationship. The uniqueness of relationship which is the personal attribution of meaning is emphasized by experience. Each experience is accompanied by feelings. These feelings are the indicator of how an individual experiences and evaluates the situation. The adolescent's experience can be positive or negative. This applies to physical perceptions such as pain or physical vigour, the quality of social relations such as enjoyment, relations with objects or ideas including frustration, failure or success and spiritual anguish or the joy of redemption. If the adolescent experiences uncertainty in his experience of the situation, he will give unfavourable meaning to the unpleasant situation. Experience stresses the uniqueness of each person's relationship. The experience of the adolescent may inhibit or incite a person's involvement in assigning meaning.

Experiencing things is a way of attaching meaning to the world around us and this can be affected at three different levels (affective, cognitive and normative). Experiencing things is a way of expressing oneself and through which something essential about one's life-world becomes manifest.

Vrey (1993:42) states the essential components of the category of subjective experience as follows:

- Experience determines the quality of relationships.
- Experience is emotional and indicates that a situation is evaluated in terms of varying degrees of pleasantness or unpleasantness.
- Experience, by determining the quality of relationships, stresses the uniqueness of each person's relations.
- Experiences, and more particularly their intensity - determine the

clarity and stability of the meanings assigned by a person.

- Experience inhibits or incites a person's involvement in every attribution of meaning; experience is a meaningful event involving the total person. He experiences certain feelings and also knows that he experiences them.
- Educational help is not always the sole determinant of meaning, but an educator's praise or disapproval determines the positive or negative intensity of the subjective experience.

Relationships offer the adolescent the opportunity to discover meaning in his experiences through meaningful communication, thus allowing the adolescent to realize his full potential.

2.3.6 Meaningful relationships

Steyn, Behr, Bischoff and Vos (1987:165) state that a relationship denotes the mutual or reciprocal involvement of human beings with one another by doing something, which is to the benefit of the other person.

Sound relationships give the adolescent increased control of the life-world, which allows him to actualize his potential. It is therefore, important to note that man's experiences occur within relationships.

Urbani (1982:34) states that since man is essentially a being related to other beings, it stands to reason that one can only understand his experience by studying himself in his relationship with the self, others, the things around him and God.

2.3.6.1 Relationship with self

Hanna (1991:1) maintains that the self is the foundation of all relationships. The interaction between the two poles in a relationship

originates in the self of the two poles. The self is a way of understanding the meaning that the adolescent gives to the world. The self therefore is the foundation of all relationships.

According to Vrey (1993:166), the adolescent enters secondary school with a real sense of identity and a definite self-concept, either positive or negative. This self-concept comprises the totality of evaluation of all the components of his self-identity. Self-identity in turn refers to his conception of his body, of himself as a scholar including achievements and skills within and outside the classroom, and of himself as an adolescent of his parents and a member of his peer group. Each identity component is evaluated, so that self-conceptions vary in quality. Some are high. The adolescent who excels in athletics or mathematics considers that 'I am a good athlete' or 'I am good at mathematics'. Others are low. He may see himself as physically unattractive or inept at communication and say to himself, 'I am ugly' or 'my friends don't like me'. Some self-conceptions are central and crucial while others are peripheral and less vital. The adolescent's self-concept is the integrated totality of all these self-conceptions.

During early and middle adolescence, important bodily changes take place that profoundly affect his relations with objects and people. His 'new' body may be experienced as either admirable or humiliating. This includes physical, psychological and social changes, because his developing relations concern the physical, psychological and self that form important components of his self-concept.

The physical self (body-image) is more important during adolescence than in any other stage of a person's life, except possibly old age. Basic physical changes focus attention on the body and is not a voluntary one. His corporeality now begins to demand attention, and it is centred on the

body itself. New sensations, characteristics and physical interactions make their appearance. With these dramatic changes, the body itself becomes a symbol of experience.

Depending on its condition and quality, the body gives rise to subjective experiences like being good at gymnastics, self-esteem based on athletic achievements, security based on physical strength, acceptance and esteem based on a good looking face and body.

Awareness of the body is present from birth and because of its permanence it is also the basis of sexual identity. When secondary sexual characteristics appear, the teenager adapts to these according to his interpretation of how others perceive his changed body. Despite unisex clothing and hairstyles, he cannot be sexually neutral (Vrey, 1993:167).

The response of others (particularly the peer group) is influenced by characteristics like height, strength, excess weight, skin problems, freckles, good looks and attractiveness. The adolescent's own experience of the way he looks is even more important than the response of others. The secondary school adolescent's preoccupation with his body is entirely understandable. It is incomprehensible to the high school athlete that bulging muscles should add little to the prestige of an adult man. The plain girl cannot believe that as she grows older, her lack of radiant charm will become less important.

This preoccupation with the body is essential. Deviations from accepted standards of dress and appearance are at best tolerated. The price of nonconformity is rejection. Consequently, both sexes go to great lengths to conform to the approved stereotype.

The adolescent's concern with his appearance seems exaggerated, especially to adults, but it is part and parcel of his intense experience of his own corporeality. As the body image is a vital component of the self-concept the adolescent's preoccupation with his body and its extensities that determine his appearance is quite comprehensible. The self-concept includes far more than his body image but at the same time the influence of this body image on the self-concept is more vital than one might expect. It is by way of the body that one relates to the world and to other people – once again, not the body as a biological or physical entity but as it is subjectively experienced. A girl with acne is painfully hesitant about forming social relationships in a new environment. This body-image – the body as experienced by its owner – is the medium through which relationships with people and objects (e.g. gym apparatus) are formed.

Relationships with one's own body can be enhancing or humiliating, pleasant or unpleasant, evoking the verdict 'I like my body', 'I don't like my body' or something in between. For the ill adolescent, this becomes 'my body has to be protected from the critical eyes of others' or 'my body is unquestioningly unaccepted by others, so I can forget about it and attend to the problem as perceived.

The self-concept is also important as an outcome of relations with objects, ideas or other people. The polarization effect of relations is always approach or estrangement, pleasant or unpleasant – in short, positive or negative. The adolescent accepted by peers and significant others will also accept himself. This aids a positive self-concept.

An adolescent whose achievement in most of his school subjects is high by his own standard, will have a positive academic self-concept that will assist his general self-concept. Success in public performance – before the class or some other audience – will also assist his self-concept in the

same way as praise or encouragement from people he values.

Self-concept is inversely proportional to anxiety. The weaker the self-concept, the greater the anxiety. The poorer the self-concept, the less effective will be the strategy he uses to cope with anxiety or tension. One must also consider the effects of a person's relations on his subjective experience of himself – a vital factor in an adolescent's self-actualization. What is referred to, of course, is guided actualization. Educational support is largely a background affair, present by implication, while the educator's direct intervention is a matter of specific decision and can arise at any time (Vrey, 1993:166-169).

A relationship is one of the ways in which man comes to realize that human existence is co-existence. A discussion of the adolescent's relationship with others will follow.

2.3.6.2 Relationship with others

Within the educational context the significant other in the adolescent's life is among others, the adolescent's mother, father, siblings, friends, peers, educators and cultural leaders. For the adolescent, the existence of other people has a special meaning when it comes to establishing his own world, i.e. in the sense that other people encourage or restrict his activities, show him things or keep things from him and give meaning to a situation (Urbani, 1982:38).

Landman, Mentz, Roos and Moller (1982:106) maintain that they are not the only 'fellow man' that the adolescent encounters. The adolescent finds himself also in a relationship with other families, young people of both sexes and other cultural groups. Adolescents gradually get to know themselves in the presence of others. It is only in the relationship with others, that full humanity (adulthood) can be realized. Relations with

peers become more and more important as the adolescent grows older. By the time he is an adolescent, they are prepared for self-actualization. He goes to school with his peers, plays sport with them, goes to the cinema with them, and relaxes with them in the school grounds and elsewhere.

His friends are both company and a sounding-board for his voice and opinions. Some of these opinions cannot be aired in front of adults – his views on educators, parents, discipline, personal problems at school, military service and relations with the opposite sex. Such opinions must be clearly formulated before they can be aired. This encourages the adolescent to think clearly and express himself clearly in order to be understood. Various facets of an adolescent's relations with his peers are important for self-actualization.

The adolescent's relations with his parents are a continuation of their earlier relations. The parents have authority and ideally provide the secure basis from which the adolescent initiates other relationships. The ill adolescent still depends on his parents and is strongly influenced by them. His increasing involvement with the world outside his home entails new perspectives concerning his parents. From this perspective, parents are seen as people comparable to other adults. In a psychological sense, the adolescent leaves the parent's home and takes up a new personal vantage point outside the family, from which he sees both the world and the home in a new light. This sporadic departure (in psychological sense) from the sheltering home is a trying out of the adolescent's wings, a finding of his own feet in a world where he must live as an adult alongside his parents. In this section the focus will be on these trial runs, which constantly modify the nature and quality of the adolescent's relations with his parents.

These assumptions of new vantage points can be seen as the adolescent's fight for emancipation. It is indeed an effort and a fight, because leaving home implies the possibility that the door may shut behind him and not easily open again. This can be seen in the anxiety and conflict experienced by many adolescents, particularly those whose relations with their parents were not wholesome to start with (adolescents, for instance, who feel rejected). When the youth attains maturity, this means that these temporary experimental vantage points have solidified to a single permanent base from which he will constitute an adult life-world. The emotional bonds of love and attraction, or their opposites, will continue to influence him.

A discussion of the adolescent's relationship with objects and ideas will follow.

2.3.6.3 Relationship with objects and ideas

Relationships are not formally found in this world; it is man who creates or constitutes the world of relationships. Landman, Mentz, Roos and Moller (1982:106) maintain that when the adolescent's relationship with the world is considered, educative teaching implies: assisting adolescents in getting to know and understanding the object world; guiding adolescents in observing and preserving the world of objects and supporting adolescents in utilizing and 'reigning over' the world of objects.

In constituting his life-world, the adolescent is increasingly concerned with ideas. Like objects, people or the attitudes of people towards himself, ideas become important only when he becomes aware of their significance for him and their implications for his own identity. The adolescent's degree of personal awareness depends on his cognitive development (Vrey, 1993:176-177).

A discussion of the adolescents' relation with God will follow.

2.3.6.4 Relationship with God

According to the Christian perspective, man's relationship with God comes first (Vrey, 1993:181). The adolescent's relations with religious and moral values develop to a point where he will conform to religious and moral norms at his own free will.

The adolescent's religious background and his education in regard to the origin, nature and destination of humanity is of vital importance. A personal religion means a faith and hope to which an adolescent can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development. The educator has to provide the adolescent with support regarding religious development so that he may learn to rely on God.

The adolescent demands an integration of profound religion with everyday life. The adult/ parent, educator or minister- whose relations with other people are obviously unsatisfactory, will not have much success in instructing adolescents on moral and religious matters. Kindness, respect and esteem from his religious instructor mean more to him than the instructor's religious status.

Morbid guilt is harmful in many ways, not least in hampering self-actualization by distorting the self-image. The Christian faith makes it possible for the adolescent to confess his guilt and to appropriate forgiveness by faith. This is one of the many ways in which the living faith promotes self-actualization (Vrey, 1993:184).

The adolescent is exposed to many challenges and to the social influences of many people that can affect his self-actualization. A

discussion of these challenges and social influences will follow in the next chapter.

2.4 Summary

In this chapter, literature pertaining to theoretical perspectives on the self-actualization of the adolescent has been reviewed. In the next chapter attention will be given to relevant literature on the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

CHAPTER 3

PREVIOUS STUDIES ON ADOLESCENCE AND SELF-ACTUALIZATION

3.1 Introduction

According to Giddens, Duneier and Appelbaum (2003:174-176), socialization is the process by which, through contact with other human beings, one becomes a self-aware, knowledgeable human being, skilled in the ways of a given culture and environment. Agencies of socialization are structured groups or contexts within which significant processes of socialization occur. These agencies also influence gender socialization and the learning of male versus female roles.

Primary socialization occurs in infancy and childhood and is the most intense period of cultural learning. Family is the main agent of socialization during this phase. Secondary socialization takes place later in childhood and into maturity. The main agents of secondary socialization include schools, peer groups, organizations, the media and workplace. The family is the principal socializing agency during infancy. School is the venue where students pursue a definite curriculum and learn subtle behavioural expectations that are related to their job experience.

Through the process of socialization, individuals learn about social roles, that is, socially defined expectations that a person in a given social position follows. Identity relates to how people view themselves and what is meaningful to them. Social identity consists of characteristics attributed to an individual by others and self-identity is what sets us apart as distinct individuals.

The researcher will elaborate on the impact that social relations can have

on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

3.2. Parents

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:110-111), one of the cardinal features of the adolescent's relations with his parents is a striving for independence, self-reliance and autonomy. This emancipation urge does not emerge all at once in the adolescent years but develops gradually from infancy and builds up to its highest point during adolescence. Although the adolescent's relationship with his parents no longer displays the characteristics of the parent-child relationship as in the childhood years before adolescence, its further development is nevertheless based on foundations that were laid at an early stage in the adolescent's life. An example to substantiate this argument is the degree of autonomy accorded the adolescent by his parents, depends largely on educational practices and styles of exercising authority that were used in the course of the adolescent's life.

3.2.1 Parental styles of exercising authority

Scholars distinguish between the neglecting/ rejecting, the authoritarian, permissive and democratic (authoritative) or balanced style of parenting.

Each of these parenting styles will now be elaborated on by the researcher.

3.2.1.1 Authoritarian parents

Baumrind (1971:2) and Seifert and Hoffnung (2000:500) state that these parents have fixed and inflexible notions of right and wrong. Satisfactory interaction and intimate communication are virtually nonexistent. They expect total obedience from the adolescent and they control and dominate his behaviour and attitude dictatorially. Preordained limits have to be adhered to unquestioningly and with blind obedience.

Adolescents who grow up in an authoritarian household tend to be moody, unhappy, retiring, uninterested, inhibited and irritable. They are also less self-reliant, creative, intellectually curious, mature in moral judgement and flexible as compared to other children who are exposed to other parenting styles.

These adolescents are usually shy, lacking in self confidence and have a negative opinion of their parents, with the result they may gradually become increasingly rebellious towards their parents' authoritarian parenting, expressing their resentment in negative, provocative and challenging behaviour that may culminate in serious conflict. Adolescents from authoritarian homes may also revolt against all other forms of authority, are hostile and aggressive and tend to be mistrustful and domineering.

McWhirter (1998:15) supports the argument by Baumrind (1971:2) by stating that these parents establish many rules and regulations and rigidly enforce them, not infrequently with much anger, shouting, and physical punishment. These adolescents are fearful and angry and may eventually vent their rage against society. Often their rebellion takes the form of highly aggressive, delinquent and acting-out behaviour. Some of the adolescents even run away.

Edwards (2001:1) also supports the above argument and states that authoritarian parents are very strict. They have many rules. These parents will yell, blame, and threaten their children to get what they want. The children are not allowed to ask questions or to have their own opinions. Because they are expected to obey, they do not learn to think for themselves or to make good decisions. This parenting style is like a brick wall. It is rigid and unmoving. It is designed to keep children inside with little or no freedom.

Melville (1988:346) claims that the aims of this style of upbringing is to control the child's impulses and not to explore or express them.

This style of parenting has very negative influences on the adolescent and has been practiced in the past as well as in very conservative homes.

3.2.1.2 The rejecting and neglecting parent

McWhirter (1998:55) states that these parents allow their children to run free with few or no regulations. In extreme cases the child's basic needs are not met because the parent is so uninvolved or hostile that the child is rejected and neglected. These children are poorly equipped to take on adult roles and may eventually reject society's standards. They may develop self-punitive and self-defeating behaviours, becoming isolated and socially withdrawn.

This type of parent can cause the adolescent to indulge in permissive sexual behaviour, drug abuse, and, or alcohol abuse. Many parents cannot manage with this kind of behaviour with the result that adolescents are rejected by their parents. Such behaviour puts parents through traumatic experiences. They may not be able to cope with the fact that they gave birth to disabled children. This may cause a parent's attitude to change, for better or for worse. In extreme cases, the parent may actually reject the child. Some parents leave these children in foster homes and do not show any love, care or concern for them.

Some parents have very high expectations of their children. When the child fails to meet these expectations, the child may be rejected. Another problem is when a parent starts loving one child more than another. Such a child becomes a central figure in the family, causing other children to feel rejected.

Today, many parents work. Some parents spend more time at work and have no quality time with their children. Such children may feel neglected and have to fend for themselves. They do not receive the attention they desire from their parents. When the parents arrive from work they may be tired and stressed. In such situations, they do not wish to listen to their children or even supervise their homework.

Another possible reason is that neglecting parents are often drug addicts. This is a serious problem for children both psychologically and physically. Children may live in fear because of the way parents behave due to their drug problem. This may cause serious trauma in children. It may also result in physical bodily harm. In addition, children may have to prepare meals for themselves and take on other family responsibilities very early in life. They may indeed not have a childhood due to the fact that they have been rejected by their parents. This style of parenting is low on both love and limits. There is a lack of emotional involvement, care and supervision of children. Such a parent will only care for his own life, satisfaction and activities and not those of the child.

3.2.1.3 Permissive parents

Baumrind (1971:2) and Seifert and Hoffnung (2000:500) state that parents who usually resort to a permissive parenting style are usually exceedingly tolerant, non-controlling and non-threatening towards their children. They are either over-protective and over-involved; or cool, detached or downright uninvolved. They rarely make demands on the adolescent and offer him considerable freedom because virtually no limits are set. The adolescent's behaviour, values and desires are hardly ever questioned and he is allowed to take his own decisions without taking account of the wishes, values and convictions of his parents.

Adolescents who grow up with a permissive parenting style often feel vulnerable. They are not ready and mature enough to use their unlimited

freedom wisely, with the result that they develop a sense of uncertainty and insecurity. They are often inclined to be impulsive and to display a lack of self-reliance and self-control. They also seem to be selfish and lacking in a sense of social responsibility and appreciation for what their parents or other people do for them. Socially unacceptable behaviour, such as drug abuse, is also prevalent among adolescents with permissive parents. They tend to be happier and more contented than the irritable adolescents of authoritarian parents.

Edwards (2001:2) elaborates further and says that in contrast to authoritarian parents, permissive parents have few rules and no consistent limits. Permissive children give in easily to their children. If parents make a rule, they fail to enforce it. The style invites chaos. The permissive parent is like a jellyfish. It has no shape or structure. In a permissive family, the children are in charge.

Adolescents from such homes tend to have difficulty in associating themselves with others. They have a selfish attitude and tend to be spoilt. Parents could be permissive in response to a background which could have been insensitive to them during their teenage years and they attempt to compensate for this deficiency by giving too much freedom to their children. Sometimes parents are too stressed hence developing this relaxed attitude.

Turner and Helms (1988:345) describes the permissive parenting style as an approach which emphasizes greater levels of freedom with children and is popular among middle-class parents. Such parents intend demonstrating love, understanding and compassion towards their children. Physical punishment is not practiced in this parenting style.

Peale (as cited by Yettian-Nagoor, 2004:16) goes on to state that

permissive child rearing led young people to expect 'instant gratification' and that the result of such training was a generation that thought it could get what it yelled for.

In this style of parenting the children are allowed too much freedom. There are different class groups of parents and they may have different definitions of discipline. This style of parenting is practiced mostly by middle-class parents. Many problems arise from these groups style of parenting.

Marshall (1993:33) states that this is the laissez-faire style. Accept, do not challenge or criticize. Recognize that everyone is an individual with rights equal to their own. Parents must not impose their will on their children: parents will crush their spirit. Therefore, the question that arises is: "Do parents want to raise and nurture a human being or create a robot?"

Further, Meyers (1996:73) states that such parents generally allow their children to learn from experience and they seldom intervene to correct the child. Permissive parents may claim they are encouraging creativity in the child and allowing him to blossom forth in his own way but they do nothing to help the child channel that creativity.

The child learns from his own experience. Sometimes other parents comment on the child and this can influence the child's parents' attitude towards him. Permissive parents tend to allow their children to read anything or watch anything on television and this can have an adverse effect on the child's behaviour at home and in the wider society. The child can, for example, indulge in drugs because he knows his parents will not discipline him for this bad habit.

In this kind of parenting style, misbehaviour is overlooked and no corrective measures are implemented or offered by the parent.

However, this style reflects a high level on love but an extremely low level on limits.

3.2.1.4 Authoritative parents

This style is also known as democratic or the balanced style. Seifert and Hoffnung (2000:500-501) supports Baumrind (1971:2-3) who states that authoritative or democratic parents set clear limits and lay down categorical rules, but they are prepared to discuss these and the reasons for imposing them with their adolescent children. They set a premium on autonomous and disciplined behaviour, yet they are accepting, flexible and understanding. Communication is encouraged, they try to see the adolescent's point and listen to reasonable requests, and they are prepared to negotiate to some extent. Their discipline mainly rests on reasoning and assisting the adolescent to see why certain behaviour is acceptable and other behaviour unacceptable.

Authoritative parents are sensitive to their children's emotional needs and try to understand their heartache, anger or disappointments before they pronounce judgement and mete out punishment. These parents are both demanding and nurturing at the same time.

Parents with an authoritative parenting style tend to experience the least disciplinary problems. Adolescents from such parental homes are usually confident, responsible and independent. They are capable of stating their views with the necessary freedom because they are sure that their parents will treat them with the necessary respect and esteem. These adolescents tend to have positive opinions of their parents and of their relationships with their parents.

Thom (1990:393-467) states that parents who are authoritative and democratic in their parenting style promote responsible and independent behaviour by: giving the adolescent the opportunity to be independent but maintaining communication with, interest in and adequate control over him; being suitable models for the adolescent to identify himself with because the relationship is based on mutual respect and love and being models of reasonable independence or independence within certain limits (i.e. autonomy within a democratic setting).

It would appear that parenting styles can either encourage or hamper the development of independence and self-reliance and determine the nature and extent of conflict between parents and adolescents.

McWhirter (1998:55) states further that these types of parent, encourage or permit discussion of family rules and regulations and tolerate a fairly wide range of behaviour. The home environment is generally positive; the parents logically discuss the reasons behaviour is unacceptable. These youngsters tend to be active, socially outgoing and friendly. Often they take an aggressive stance on social issues and assume adult role-taking behaviour quite early. They are often creative, independent individuals who achieve when and if they decide it is important to do so.

In his research findings, Powell (1963:257) states that the child from a democratic home environment had a big advantage in personal and social adjustment as compared to a child from an authoritarian background. Authoritarian parents were more often in disagreement with their children.

Further, teenagers are given the opportunity of decision-making and parents allow them their freedom within limits. The democratic style allows the child to make their own decisions, unlike the authoritarian

style where parents are very strict and children have to abide with their parenting decisions.

In Edwards' (2000:340-370) view, this style of parenting is like a backbone. The spine has to be strong enough to hold the upper body upright but can bend and flex as the situation warrants. Parents are simple with their rules and when the adolescent breaks the rules, parents are reasonable with consequences. Adolescents are given choices to choose from. When the children are young they are given the opportunity to form their own opinions. Gradually as adolescents, they become responsible and independent.

In this style of parenting, Melville (1988:347) says that the child's impulses are often accepted and encouraged; in a number of respects, in fact, these families are far more child-centred than are those of the other types.

However Marshall (1993:39) also warns that there is always a danger that parents will equate a democratic family with anarchy and loss of control. After all, some of the principles of democracy are: 'one person-one-vote', 'consultation and communication', 'negotiation and power', 'crime and punishment'. This parenting style, with the 'one person one vote' approach, however, is favoured by most middle class parents.

'Consultation and communication' is another principle which parents use in this style of parenting. People have a right to speak and when major decisions have to take place, people are expected to take part and contribute. Parents need to listen to their adolescents' opinions in a way that will not lead to argument. Problems need to be resolved amicably. According to Marshall (1993:39), 'negotiation and power' are very important. When adolescents have to voice their opinion, parents must

respect and listen to what they say. Also this process controls temper and anger. Adolescents have to feel that they have some power, not only the parents.

In democratic societies there are laws. Similarly, in a home there are laws. Therefore when adolescents go against the law in domestic situations 'discipline' comes into effect. In society, in response to crime, punishment is administered. Adolescents raised according to this type of parenting, are more confident and not afraid of ideas and opinions. They have good decision-making skills and also realize that their parents are fair and that they have to practice authority. Adolescents do respect their parents for what they are. This type of parenting teaches adolescents to be more independent and allows parents to take an interest in their own lives.

Another perspective comes from Smetana (1994:21) who argues that authoritative parents are both responsive and demanding. However authoritarian parents, in contrast, are demanding but not responsive. Permissive parents are responsive but not demanding. Rejecting-neglecting parents are disengaged and neither demanding nor responsive; they are highly coercive but do not monitor their children's behaviour. This kind of parenting does give children guidelines however. Such parents clarify issues and give reasons for limits. These parents are helping their children give responsibility a high priority in their lives. The children are given practical exercises in making choices. They are also guided in making real-life choices. Misbehaviour is handled in a problem solving way.

Smetana (1994:21) goes on to state that the desires and needs of children are recognized and accepted. When children are 'out of control' they have a 'cool-off' period but are not punished. Children are also part

of decision-making processes. In today's society there is no longer only 'one right way'. These kinds of children rise in life, with this parenting style, and are better equipped to succeed. They are also strong democratic workers and leaders because they cooperate in problem solving exercises. The democratic or balanced parenting style is high on love and limits. It is based on equality and trust. Parents and children are equal in terms of their need for dignity and self-esteem but not in terms of responsibility and decision-making. The problem with the democratic style, however, is that children may get too many responsibilities.

3.2.2 Influences of parental attitudes on the experience of adolescents

Stein (2001:1-3) discusses how parental attitudes represent a particular style of parenting and how each of these styles evoke particular responses in adolescents.

3.2.2.1 The democratic and encouraging parent

This kind of parent sees the child as equal and as part of the family. The child is cooperative and does his share. The parents love and accept him. The child has reasonable challenges and is able to develop at his own pace. The parents' attitude is to accept the child for his uniqueness. They provide love, respect and promote a feeling of equality. Parents are there to encourage, correct mistakes and develop capacities. Parents guide the child in finding meaning in contributing to family activities. The response to this parental attitude is that the child feels secure, loved and accepted by his parents. The child tests his own strength by going through difficulties in consultative and democratic ways. The child finds satisfaction in achievement and in making a contribution. He is not afraid to try and fail. He sees the world as safe and friendly.

3.2.2.2 The over-indulgent parent

Stein (2001:1-3) agrees with McWhirter (1998:55) that children are often independent and creative, [but] they can be disobedient, impudent, demanding, and 'bratty'. As they get older, they may develop antisocial, aggressive, or narcissistic behaviour and then expect to be protected from the consequences. The child is on the receiving end of the relationship. The parent does too much for the child. The child becomes passive and bored. The parental attitude to the child focuses on the showering of presents, privileges and services. The parent has little regard for the needs of the child. The child's response to the parental attitude is one of boredom. The child loses any initiative to strive for goals. He realizes everything will be done for him. He views his parents as providers of pleasure and comfort.

3.2.2.3 The over-submissive parent

Here, the child is the boss and the parents bow down to him. The child is active, impulsive and demanding. The parental attitude is to see the child as a boss and the parents become slaves. The child has the power to control his parents. When the child demands, the parents cannot say no. The child's response is to be insistent and demanding. The child has tantrums, ignores the rights of others and lacks any sense of limits. This parent shares elements of the over-indulgent parent.

3.2.2.4 The coercive parent

The child can be stubborn as a donkey. The parental attitude demands constant direction and supervision. There are endless instructions and constant reminders. The child's response is to submit to direction. This results in docile obedience. Some children display active rebellion and overt defiance. Responses range from verbal refusal to passive resistance, which may manifest in dawdling, daydreaming, and forgetting. Such activities could be the manifestation of a covert and devious rebellion.

3.2.2.5 The perfectionist parent

The child can be likened to a perpetual runner, who tries to run ever faster but does not finish the race. The finishing line constantly moves further and further away. The child is constantly trying to do better. The parental attitude accepts the child when the child's performance is exceptional. Parents expect very high standards and it is impossible to meet them. The child's response is that he continually strives very hard but cannot meet the demanding standards. In the process of striving, the child may give up and physical symptoms may develop e.g. ulcers.

3.2.2.6 The "abdicating responsibility" parent

This child has excessive responsibility. The child has no opportunity to be a child and has to pay attention to work and responsibility all the time. Parents dictate to the child to do the housework and take care of other children. This may be because parents have to go to work. Sometimes the death of a parent or illness of a parent can cause a child to take on such responsibilities. The child's response may be to carry out responsibility with resentment. The child often misses a normal childhood.

3.2.2.7 The neglecting parent

Stein (2001:1-3) supports McWhirter's (1998:58) view that these children are poorly equipped to take on adult roles and may eventually reject society's standards. They may develop punitive and self-defeating behaviours thus becoming isolated and socially withdrawn. The image for such children is that of children who stay out in the cold during nights and then long to be in warm houses. They are banished children. Some parents are frequently absent from home because of their work. Parents may be busy with friends at the pub. Poverty and divorce may also cause the neglect of children. Neglect is very emotional and children become

incapable of forming relationships. They feel that nobody cares for them. They are not supported. Such children may idealise other parents and neglect their own.

3.2.2.8 The rejecting parent

The child can be likened to a human cactus plant, projecting spines everywhere. However, it has a soft, dependent and hidden centre. It is painfully self-isolating. Previous experience of parental attitude plays an important role for parents. Some parents might have been rejected when they were children. Some might have believed they were a burden or a nuisance. The attitude of these children can be depressing. The children feel isolated and helpless. They feel deeply hurt. The children can develop bitter, hostile, anxious feelings and suffer from self-devaluation.

3.2.2.9 The punitive parent

The image here is that of a galley slave being mercilessly tormented by a galley master. The child feels injustice, helplessness and burns for revenge. The parental attitude here is a combination of over-coercion and perfectionism. Physical punishment is often considered discipline or training. Parents may vent personal hostility and aggression on the child. According to this parental attitude, the child's response can be that he longs for retaliation. Children feel very bad and guilty about themselves. They dislike punishing parents. Sometimes they lie to avoid punishment and revenge.

3.2.2.10 The hypochondriac-supporting parent

This kind of parent may cause a similar kind of child, i.e. the hypochondriacal child to be an eternal patient who worries about his health. The parent focuses on bodily functions and organs. The parental attitude is anxious, fearful and projects a sickroom atmosphere. The child is often kept from school for minor problems. The parent is lenient

with the child, who is excused from homework and chores. The child learns to use ailments to gain sympathy. He may be excused from normal tasks. He uses sickness symptoms to gain benefits.

3.2.2.11 The sexually stimulating parent

The child is treated like a miniature sex object. This may provoke a premature preoccupation with sex. Some parents fondle their children when bathing or bringing them to bed with them. One of the parents can also be relieved when the partner is molesting the child because he is relieved of sexual obligations. These parents can be very seductive. These types of children feel very guilty and puzzled but will stay compliant and dependent. This parenting style can result in confusion and hostility.

3.2.3 Impact of family atmospheres

Stein (2001:4-9) discusses how different kinds of parents cultivate different kinds of family atmospheres.

3.2.3.1 Democratic atmosphere

The parent is a knowledgeable leader and tries to guide, stimulate and win co-operation. Parents encourage children to better themselves. They create a climate of fairness, equality, respect and reason. In response to the parent's behaviour, the child feels that he is safe in the social world and is also prepared for a democratic life as an adult.

3.2.3.2 Authoritarian atmosphere

Parents would like to have children who behave without question or discussion. The home is run like a military installation. Parents display power and a 'might makes right' attitude. Children may be polite, shy and timid with evidence of nervous tension. Some children cannot solve their problems and always look to others for direction. Rebellious children may even lie and steal. Many children wait until adolescence to

rebel.

3.2.3.3 High expectation atmosphere

Parents have high expectations, goals and standards for their children. The children feel inadequate if they cannot live up to the expectation of their parents. Although the children may perform well, they are always worried about possible failure.

3.2.3.4 Competitive atmosphere

These parents stress success. They are very competitive. For example when one of the family members' children is at university this will cause other parents to send their child to university too. The child fails every year, but the parents may keep the child at university. This child cannot live up to parental expectation and will therefore feel discouraged and hopeless.

3.2.3.5 Suppressive atmosphere

These parents are always denying their children the freedom to express thoughts or feelings honestly. The children are often reprimanded for voicing their opinions. The children put up a front and begin daydreaming. This kind of child cannot trust himself and avoids close relationships.

3.2.3.6 Materialistic atmosphere

For this kind of parent, material possessions are given greater value than the simpler pleasures or warm human relationships. They focus on material things rather than on other people. When a child of these parents is deprived of his possessions he feels empty. Later on in life he cannot manage limited income and becomes very rebellious and materialistic.

3.2.3.7.Over-protective atmosphere

Of the children of such a parent, McWhirter (1998:60) says, these youngsters are likely to show high compliance. They follow rules closely and with some anxiety. They may also be submissive, dependent, withdrawn and timid. They frequently have a difficult time becoming independent.

The parents prevent the child from learning and coping with difficult situations. This type of protection robs him of courage and self-reliance. The parents also prevent the child from experiencing the consequences of his actions.

3.2.3.8 Over-indulgent atmosphere

These parents shower the children with toys, praise and attention. The child is treated like a prince or princess. They spoil their children. Parents do not realize the harm they are causing to the children. The children try not to have any relationships with other children as this may mean they have to share what they have, and they realize other children have nothing material to offer.

3.2.3.9 Inconsistent atmosphere

This kind of parent's disciplinary behaviour is erratic and routines are non-existent. This could be related to substance abuse. Duties scheduled are unreliable. The child does not know what to expect from others or what is expected from himself. The parents must give their children order and kind, firm discipline. This will help the child to develop self-discipline. The child may become unmotivated and uncontrolled.

3.2.3.10 Inharmonious atmosphere

In some families, parents frequently have quarrels or fights. Discipline varies with the mood of the parents. Children are used as weapons in the

conflicts. The children realize the importance of power. The children may adopt the same attitude to hurt others. They find it a pleasure to break the rules and flirt with danger.

3.2.3.11 Disparaging atmosphere

Some parents frequently criticize their children because they often feel inferior themselves. This may be why they make their children feel worthless. The cynical attitude of parents may also be directed directly against others outside the family who are 'different'. Children are used as 'scapegoats' in the family. If the children are active, they may rebel violently or even hurt others.

3.2.3.12 Rejective atmosphere

The child may be rejected because of his behaviour or appearance. Parents do not separate 'deed' from 'doer'. In cases like this the child will feel rejected and unloved. With this type of behaviour he cannot trust others or himself. A 'good' child may push down a 'bad' child. The parents can favour one of the children.

3.2.3.13 Martyr atmosphere

An alcoholic parent may demonstrate how brutal others are. Such parents have low self-esteem and self-worth. Noble suffering is looked down on. The child feels very sorry for himself and feels life is unfair. Being the victim, frees him from responsibility.

3.2.3.14 Pitying atmosphere

The pitying parent does not see pity as a form of disrespect for the child. Pity can be damaging. The child can be handicapped, sickly or orphaned. Children, in this case, expect to have special privileges. Pity can continue to do harm when they just try to gain sympathy.

3.2.3.15 Hopeless atmosphere

Some parents cannot encourage their children. This type of problem can possibly be addressed by an educator or a therapist in a few sessions. Children may feel absolutely defeated. The child feels that there is very little hope for himself or improvement in his situation.

Parents do not necessarily comply only with one style of parenting. Instead, parents can mix the styles of parenting, creating their own style. Parents can also choose what is best suited for them and their children depending on the situation or circumstance. It is however significant that particular parenting styles affect children in related ways, causing them to experience their parents in particular ways. Moreover, the interaction of parenting styles and the experiences and behaviour of children result in 'family atmosphere'. It is the cultivation of a respectful and democratic atmosphere that will be most advantageous for children and also for them to take up their responsibilities when they are adults.

3.2.4 Ineffective parenting styles

Ineffective parenting styles can impact negatively on the adolescent's behaviour. Therefore there is a need to elaborate on this. Hersey and Blanchard (1978:34) suggest that one of the most ineffective forms of parenting is that some only stick to one parenting style. This, they say, keeps the children from maturing. There are a number of styles and strategies as stated previously, and these should be employed and used with wisdom by parents.

Some parents also attempt to control teenage behaviour for too long or do not allow enough space for independent decision making by the teenager. This is necessary if one wants to assure that the teenager develops responsibility. For example, the dictatorial 'telling' style throughout the development stage of a child, "as long as you're living in

this house, you'll be home by ten o'clock and abide by the rules I've set", are contra-productive. This can lead to the child either leaving home, or succumbing to the parents' authority.

The child may also become passive, dependent individuals who need someone to tell them what to do and when to do it. The dictatorial and supportive 'telling' style, will cause the child to develop into 'Mama's boy' or 'Daddy's little girl'. Even when they become adults they will depend on their parents or someone that can give them direction. They are psychologically dependent. These young people cannot function on their own.

The 'delegating' style is characteristic of the very wealthy and very poor. In both cases, the children will become products of their environment rather than products of their parents' style. In the wealthy case, the child-rearing responsibility will be delegated to the private school or a 'nanny' and in the case of the very poor the children are left on their own, learning from their siblings, peers and their environment. These children develop their characters from schools, nannies and friends rather than from their parents.

3.2.5 Effective parenting styles

On the other hand, effective parenting styles can have a positive effect on the adolescent's behavioural patterns and attitude towards life. Therefore there is a need to elaborate on this.

Seymour and Centre (1987:23) advise that each child is unique and different. This includes the fact that each child grows and matures in unique ways, making a recipe approach to child rearing obsolete. As such, parents should not determine their children's needs and make as if they know what works for them. Parents must also avoid making

comparisons with other same age children. Rather, one should be child-centred, i.e. know one's child well, guide and teach him at his own pace. There are no pressures or comparisons and this style does not set the child up for failure.

Hersey and Blanchard (1978:5) further show that effective parenting involves not only the behaviour of parents and children, but also attitudes and feelings. When parents are effective, their children behave properly, which parents want. This also generates feelings of respect and trust in the relationship. Parents need to respond to their children's attitude and feelings. This is successful and effective in the long run.

In this context, Hayman (1998:25) states that communication is the glue that binds together all the various skills of parenting. To be an effective parent does not mean that children must behave according to the parent's values uncritically. Such parents only want their children to listen to their ways and factor them into their decisions. The guiding principle for the effective parent's communication, therefore, should be such that "communication is not seen as persuasion, but as agreement". Communication is not just about getting one's ideas across but it also implies listening.

3.2.6 Independence and diminishing authority

A major developmental task for the adolescent is becoming emancipated and loosening the ties of parental authority. Unless the adolescent gradually loosens his ties with his parents he cannot hope to contract adult relationships or develop his own identity and value system and become a member of society in the fullest sense.

According to Newman, Newman and Thom (as cited by Gouws & Kruger, 1995:113), the following three objectives are pursued by the adolescent

in the process of becoming independent:

- Behavioural autonomy: In pursuing this objective, adolescents aspire to making their own decisions about their behaviour and actions. For example, they want to judge for themselves whose friendships they should cultivate, how late they should stay out at night, what hair style, makeup and clothes they should favour and how they should spend their money and leisure time.
- Emotional autonomy: Adolescent's pursuit of this objective is apparent from their endeavour to be self-reliant, to control themselves and accept responsibilities for themselves. It is also apparent from their indifference to a parent's anger or emotional pain.
- Moral or value autonomy: Adolescents want to develop their own value system to regulate their behaviour. Although parents' value systems usually serve as a guideline for them, they nevertheless question and evaluate the parents' moral standards and values.

The pursuit of independence during adolescence is a complex phenomenon, however, this exhibits a duality in more than one respect. There are two sides to the parent-child relationship. On the one hand there is the adolescent's aspiration and willingness to make independent decisions and accept responsibility. For the purpose of successful emancipation this duality has to merge into a unity.

Parenting styles is a major factor in this merging process. The educator must be careful not to assign responsibilities to the adolescent that he demands but cannot yet cope with. At the same time parents must make certain that they do not withhold responsibilities from their adolescent children when they are ready to undertake such responsibilities, take independent decisions and bear the consequences of their actions. In

time the parent must allow the adolescent the freedom to act independently.

Both the parent and the child should realize, however, that ambivalent feelings experienced during emancipation may lead to erratic behaviour.

Adolescents who look forward to independence with such eager anticipation often fall prey to uncertainty because they are confronted by so many new experiences and decisions. Sometimes adolescents long for the return of their carefree childhood years but they nevertheless cling tenaciously to their newly won independence. The consequences of this ambivalence is often behaviour that fluctuates between childish and adult.

Similarly, parents feel proud, grateful and satisfied on the one hand when they see how their children are developing, but on the other hand they also feel concerned about their children. They realize that independence includes exposure to dangers and they are frequently confronted by the reality of their children's disappointing choices and behaviour. Some parents experience a sense of relief when their children grow up because this exempts them from the obligation to perform certain tasks and this allows them more freedom. To others the adolescent's attainment of independence heralds the approaching end of their significant roles as educators and at the same time serves as a harbinger of old age creeping up on them. Often a lack of synchronization of parents' and their adolescent children's needs and the ambivalent feelings on both sides about this circumstance is the root cause of conflict between them.

3.2.7 Reduction of dependence on parents

Vrey (1993:175) states that the young child's development towards

independence is sometimes defined as emancipation, which literally means the achievement of equal rights. Emancipation in this context comprises the whole lengthy progress from birth to maturity, for the child becomes progressively more self-reliant as he learns to dress and feed himself, move around, acquire knowledge and other related aspects.

As this orientation increases he achieves adult knowledge and competence and hence equality. He is no longer a child but a fellow adult. During adolescence, emancipation concerned with independent moral judgements and responsibility for decisions is impossible without effective orientation to the outside world and the establishment of a functional life-world.

The two sides to adolescent emancipation are the adolescent's readiness to take his own decisions and accept responsibility for them and; on the other side; the parent's readiness to permit this.

Successful emancipation demands a synchronization of the two processes. If the adolescent is ready to take decisions, the parent must make concessions for which the adolescent then accepts responsibility. The parent must avoid granting impulsively demanded responsibilities for which his charge is not ready, or responsibilities for which he has not asked, nor must he refuse those for which the adolescent is ready.

Successful emancipation, then, is an educational matter in which the maturing youth is supported towards self-actualization.

Reduced dependence is directly associated with greater self-reliance in thinking, deciding and acting. The following parental attitudes retard emancipation:

- Reluctance or refusal to give the adolescent his rightful independence: This type of parent takes a wide range of decisions the adolescent is capable of taking for himself, e.g. the clothes the adolescent wears.
- A denial of freedom: Conditions are attached to the permission to do things, and the parent checks up on the adolescent's compliance with conditions, that is, the adolescent is not trusted.

The adolescent is treated like a much younger child by constantly reprimanding or pampering him. The adolescent experiences these attitudes as statements that 'you are too young' when his ambition is to be an adult. The parent can responsibly refuse freedom only when he is prepared to explain his full reasons in a pedagogical encounter.

On the adolescent's part, the following attitudes harm emancipation: insistence on a freedom he cannot yet responsibly exercise and which may therefore result in mere license; failure to accept freedom and independence which results from ineffective education, unsuitable parental attitudes or defective dialogue between parent and child; avoidance of contact so that there is no fellowship that can produce encounter; and adolescent prejudice that rejects everything the parent says and so destroys communication.

When emancipation miscarries, rebelliousness, quarrels and reproaches result. According to Jersild (as cited by Vrey, 1993:176), the essence of emancipation is the adolescent's freedom, wish and ability to take responsibility for his thoughts, moral judgements and practical decisions. When emancipation is a success, parent and child remain close. Parental advice is freely asked, neither enforced by the parent nor slavishly followed by the child. Even the parent's moral judgement is

respected, but the adolescent eventually acts on his own convictions.

If readiness for emancipation on both sides is well synchronized, the child will always return. Good synchronization helps to give the adolescent a realistic idea of his parents. Once the adolescent has formed a realistic conception of his parents, he has progressed far and effectively towards emancipation.

Effective adolescent-parent relations are the most potent factor in the adolescent's growth to independence. In all his uncertainties and in all the tensions and anxieties arising from these, the unconditional acceptance and security derived from his parents are the sole stable and stabilising factor.

3.2.8 Conflict between adolescents and their parents

Caplow, Csikszentmihalyi, Larson and Motemayor (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990:350) state that the majority of arguments between parents and adolescents are about day-to-day living and family matters such as personal hygiene, disobedience, school work, social activities, friendships, chores around the house and arguments with siblings.

Montemayor (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990:350) draws together data to illustrate that arguments between parents and adolescents in the late 1970's and 1980's are similar to in content, such as social activities and friendships, to those reported in 1929 by Lynd and Lynd.

Bengtson and Starr (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990:350) showed that parents and adolescents tend not to argue about some of the areas of great difference including sex, drugs, religion and politics.

Various researchers have emphasized the idea of a division between

young and old in society, namely the generation gap. According to Coleman (as cited by Gouws & Kruger, 1995:114), some researchers even regarded the adolescent phase as a completely separate culture, isolated to a large extent from the adult world and possessing its own norms and values.

Further, Coleman and Hendry (1990:150) state that the generation gap comprises of at least the following: discrepancy or divergence of viewpoint between adults and teenagers and a degree of conflict between the generations.

Santrock (1984: 27) states that recent research questions the existence of the generation gap and indicates that relations between parents and adolescents are inherently positive and not stressful. Offer, Ostrov, Howard and Atkinson (1988:79) reinforces the above by stating that most adolescents feel close to their parents, not distant; love their parents; value their parents' judgement; and feel that their parents care about them. Research done by Elkind and Weiner (as reported by Thom, 1990:393-467) indicates that most adolescents get along well with their parents, respect them and want to be like them. They see their fathers as reliable and wise and their mothers as understanding and sympathetic.

It is asserted therefore that the causes of disagreements and conflict usually do not involve important issues such as economic, religious, social or political values. Instead, routine issues such as schoolwork, friends, dating, curfews and personal appearance are disagreed upon.

According to Montemayor (1990:130-144), all theorists on adolescence agree that some degree of stress and conflict is bound to occur in adolescence, and a wide range of reasons are given for this. They are: biological changes in adolescence, the emergence of adult sexuality, the

need for independence, the search for identity, parents' own midlife disillusionment with career and marriage, parents reluctance to relinquish control and transformation of family patterns of interaction.

The nature and extent of conflict between adolescents and their parents can also be influenced by societal factors and may differ from culture to culture.

Sarafino and Armstrong (1980:65) maintain that the likelihood of conflict increases when there are large differences between the generations as regards cultural outlook, educational opportunities and occupational trends. Differences of opinion that result in conflict are also more common in fast changing societies where technologies are mushrooming.

Adolescents have a good relationship with their parents. According to Offer, Ostrov, Howard and Atkinson; Steinberg (as cited by Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:307-309) this has been confirmed by studies from various countries over the years. After adolescence, adult children usually remain on good terms with their parents (Thornton, Orbach & Axinn, 1995:538-564). It must be noted that a strong and secure parental bond does not have to be an obstacle for adolescents who strive to become independent. It actually stimulates this process (Grotevant & Cooper, 1986:82-100).

Parents tend to continue providing guidance and support for most adolescents who are learning to stand on their own two feet (Greenberg, Siegel & Leitch, 1983:373-386; Kenny, 1987:17-29; Ryan & Lynch, 1989:330-356). Youniss and Smollar (as cited by Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:307) state that during adolescence the relationship between the generations is transformed from one relatively unilateral authority to one of cooperative negotiation.

According to Van Wel, Linssen and Abma (2000:308), parents tend to play a significant role with regard to development of identity, a positive self-image, life satisfaction, social competence and other skills, emotional problems (psychological stress or depression) and problem behaviour.

It became clear to the researcher when examining relevant literature, that in the various stages of life the influence of the parents on the self image and psychological well-being of their children bears more weight than that of peers (Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:308).

Some researchers have studied the parental bond undifferentiated. However, according to LeCroy (1988:137-147) and Thornton, Orbuch and Axinn (1995:538-564) children, as a rule- have a closer relationship with their mother than with their father.

Field, Lang, Yando and Bendell (1995:133-140) supports the argument by LeCroy (1988:137-147) and Thornton, Orbuch and Axinn (1995:538-568) by stating that the influence of the mother may be more important than that of the father.

However, Allen, Hauser, Bell and O' Connor (1994:179-194) contradict this statement and state, instead, that the influence of the father may be more important than that of the mother.

Notwithstanding the arguments pertaining to the father or mother being more influential; according to Barnes and Farrell (1992:763-776), Paterson, Field and Pryor (1994:579-600) and Wenk, Hardesty, Morgan and Blair (1994:229-234) the effects of the bond with the mother and the father on the well-being and performance of adolescents usually point in the same direction.

Ryan and Lynch (1989:430-456) argue that girls and boys may have different parental bonds. It is sometimes found that adolescent girls do not have such a good parental bond as boys.

On the other hand, Kenny (1994:399-402) states that other studies reveal that the reverse also holds true.

However Nada Raja, McGee and Stanton (1992:471-485), conclude that there is generally little or no difference between the parental bonds of both sexes.

According to Lopez, Manus, Hunton-Shoup and Watkins (as cited by Scheier & Botvin, 1997:89-115) the effects of the parental bond towards the child may also be gender-specific. It is usually found that relational variables have a stronger impact on the psychological functioning of girls and women.

According to Van Wel, Linssen and Abma (2000:308), girls usually show more internalized problem behaviour than boys. Further, from early adolescence onwards, girls are inclined to feel depressed more than boys. This is especially noticeable in the middle and later phases of adolescence when peaks in terms of feelings of depression are observed.

Although the parental bond may remain reasonably strong and stable, according to some studies there is usually a relative deterioration in the early and middle phases of adolescence, whereas other studies indicate an improvement in late adolescence and early adulthood (Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:309).

Montemayor (1990:130-144) states that the level of conflict between

parents and adolescents –which does not necessarily imply a negative relationship– seems to suggest a curvilinear relationship. The strength of the parental bond and its influence may change in the course of adolescence. Greenberger and Chen (as cited by Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:309) suggest that the parents influence on their children's well-being diminishes as the children grow older, whilst Paterson (as cited by Van Wel, Linssen & Abma, 2000:309) assert that it continues unabated.

3.2.9 The nature of communication with parents

Chartier and Chartier; Cooper, Grotevant, Moore and Condon (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990:350-353) state that supportive communication in the family is seen as one factor that encourages the development of social and coping skills, and more positive identities among adolescents.

According to Jacob, Steinberg and Hill (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990: 350-353), a more relational view of adolescence describes a family environment in which changes in communication are moderate and through negotiation, with the result that parents come to show greater respect for the opinions of growing adolescents, and allow them more control. Older adolescents seem to change their relationships with parents, developing new forms of interaction involving reduced levels of conflict. According to Hunter, Hunter and Youniss (as cited by Noller & Callan, 1990:350), they re-negotiate their status in the parent-child relationship and their gains in status and control may emerge in their perceptions about the quality of their communication with parents.

3.3 Influence of the family on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Besides discussing parental styles, there is a need to place the adolescent in the context of the variety of family types.

3.3.1 Family types

The adolescents' growing competence and development is largely influenced by family life and family relationships. The child's well-being continues to depend on the quality of family interactions. Adolescents of today are growing up in a variety of households and different family systems.

A number of these different families will be elaborated upon:

3.3.1.1 Only child families

Many couples are now choosing to have children who will never have siblings. These children are portrayed as spoilt, selfish, lonely and maladjusted. However, research does not agree with this view. Only children appear to be bright, successful, self-confident, self-reliant, resourceful and popular with other children. A possible major reason for this is that the only child has somewhat closer relationships with parents, who exert more pressure for mastery and accomplishment. Only children often have more pressure placed upon them by the parents to excel in tasks and have high expectations for school and sporting results placed upon them. Only children tend to miss out on the growing and learning and other forms of socialization which comes with having siblings. Only children have the advantage of not having to fight for their parents' attention and may have the opportunity of more one-on-one interactions. The one child family has both pros and cons, as does every family lifestyle (Berk, 2000:505, Papalia & Olds, 1995:380-384).

3.3.1.2 Large families

Children of large families tend to experience different conditions from those in smaller or one child families. Children in larger families have the advantage of having relationships with siblings. These relationships and

interactions give them the opportunity to have companionship, emotional support and assistance while they are growing up.

Children in larger families often experience degrees of rivalry and may need to fight for parents' attention. The positive interactions that occur between siblings contribute to perspective taking, moral maturity, and competence in relating to other children (Berk, 2000:507).

3.3.1.3 Single parent families

The number of single parent families has become more common in recent years. There are a variety of one parent families:

- those resulting from divorce,
- parents who never married,
- parents who passed away due to HIV/AIDS as well as
- parents who are widowed.

In single parent families, the other parent not living with the family may have little or no involvement in the child's life or may be highly involved.

The largest percentage of single parent families are headed by divorced female parents. The assumption has been made that the trauma from divorce is likely to result in poorly socialized, cognitively deficient children who experience poor parent-child relationships. In many situations this may be the case but no relationship can be generalized. Research has also been undertaken on healthy single parent families where it was found, in general, that the physical and mental health of the children appeared to be good (Hammer & Turnover, 1990: 194).

It has also been suggested that children living with their mothers are healthier than those living with fathers. The majority of children show

improved adjustments by two years after divorce. However, for a few, persisting emotional distress and declines in school achievement still exist (Berk, 2000:577; Hammer & Turnover, 1990:194).

It is believed that a cultural shift towards later marriage has contributed to a rise in never-married motherhood. It has been thought that children in these kinds of families are shielded from marital strife, children of never-married mothers show slightly better academic performance and emotional adjustments than do children of divorced or remarried mothers. However, they do not do as well as children in first marriage families compared with children of two parent-reared families. Although compared with children of two parent families, these children may experience less attention and difficulties in interactions with other children, a lack in school performance and behaviour associated with the lack of a male parental influence (Berk, 2000:577; Hammer & Turnover, 1990:94).

3.3.1.4 Blended families

The blended family is one in which either parent brings with them children from a previous marriage. For some children, this expanded family network is a positive turn of events that brings with it greater adult attention. But for most, it presents difficult adjustments. It is clear that there are many difficulties in accepting a step-parent into the family, especially one who may have child-rearing practices, from which the child is used to. Research has found that children of remarriage are likely to experience difficulty in accepting the marriage. This extends from some children having to deal with the loss of a primary parent to acceptance of a new one. Other feelings experienced may include divided loyalties, confusion in terms of belonging, confusion due to membership in two households and unreasonable expectations due to the whole adjustment process. But how well children adapt is related to the overall

quality of family functioning (Berk, 2000:581, Hammer & Turnover, 1990:194-196, Papalia & Olds 1995:380-384).

3.3.1.5 Gay and Lesbian parent families

A larger percentage of the homosexual population is rearing children. The actual number of homosexual, or gay parents is not known.

Families headed by a homosexual parent or gay or lesbian couple is very similar to those of heterosexuals. "Gay and lesbian parents are committed to and effective at the parental role. Some research indicates that gay fathers are more consistent in setting limits and more responsive to their children's needs than are heterosexual fathers". In lesbian families quality of mother-child interaction is as positive as in heterosexual families. It has been found that children of lesbian mothers regard their mother's partner as very much a parent. "Overall, children of homosexuals can be distinguished from other children only by issues related to living in a non-supportive society. The great concern of gay and lesbian parents is that their children will be stigmatized by their parents sexual orientation" (Berk, 2000:576-577).

3.3.1.6 Adoptive parent families

There are a number of different reasons for the emergence of adoptive parent families. Other than partners being infertile, there are situations where parents don't want to risk passing on a genetic disorder, or who are older and single but want a family. Limited numbers of healthy babies are available for adoption in Australia and because of this more people are adopting from foreign countries. Adoptive families cannot be categorized as they are all very highly diverse, and each family can face a multitude of common challenges. "Different heredity means that adoptive parents and children are less alike in intelligence and personality than are biological relatives – resemblances that can contribute to family

harmony". All adopted children and adolescents - whether born in a foreign country or the country of their adoptive parents- experience some degree of emotional stress. Feelings include those of abandonment and not knowing exactly where their origins are. Adoption is a satisfying family alternative for most parents and children who experience it. The outcomes are usually good because of careful pairing of children with parents and guidance provided to adoptive families" (Berk, 2000:575-576).

3.3.1.7 Grandparent reared families

The number of grandparents rearing grandchildren has increased over the past decade. "Usually, grandparents step in because of substance abuse, emotional problems, or physical illness that prevents the child's parents, most often the mother, from engaging in competent child rearing". This situation can cause a lot of emotional distress for both the child, adjusting to a new situation and for the grandparents who have been suddenly placed into a child-rearing situation. "Previous family experiences have left their mark, in the form of high rates of learning difficulties, depression, and anti-social behaviour". Children in this environment usually receive a lot of love and also experience the required parental guidance (Berk 2000:584). Further in the South African context, due to migrant labour movements, death of parents due to illness such as HIV/AIDS, and cultural factors a large percentage of children are forced to live and be brought up with the grandparent. This is especially noticeable in the rural areas.

3.3.1.8 Child-headed families

A child-headed family is one which is led by a child under the age of 18 years. This child takes on responsibilities usually carried out by parents, including providing care to other children. Children, as young as 8 years, act as heads of such households.

The main event that leads to the establishment of a child-headed family is the death of both parents. This could have been the possible result of HIV/AIDS, accident, or war. However, in some cases, one or both parents are still alive. Other events include parental illness or disability. In some cases, one or both parents have left the family home for some reason such as migrant labour. The term is usually applied to families where the person heading it is not the parent.

In many cases the child-headed family was not established immediately at the time of parental death. In many instances the children were initially cared for by a relative such as the grandparent. Only another event such as the death of that caregiver resulted in a child-headed family being established.

Child-headed families have mainly been observed in rural areas. This may be due to a higher cost of living in urban areas and the more stable community structures in rural areas. Children and adolescents do live unaccompanied by adults in urban areas but this is often in informal shelters. Such children and adolescents are often referred to as street children.

In some cases, adults do live within families that are child-headed. However, they do not play any significant role in providing care for the family and do not contribute to its livelihood. This may be due, for example, to disability or illness. Such families are called 'accompanied' child-headed families. This is distinct from 'unaccompanied' families that have no adults in them.

Child-headed families have been observed in parts of Africa that have been badly affected by HIV/AIDS. Most child-headed families are

composed of families where both parents are deceased. The cause of death is not always known but HIV/AIDS is likely to be the cause in most cases. It is widely stated that the creation of child-headed families is evidence that the extended family system is unable to cope with situations created by HIV/AIDS. However, this might not be the case. Instead, child-headed families may be a mechanism used by the extended families to cope with the situation. Evidence to support this includes the following:

- Many child-headed families live close to their extended families. They are often visited by them. They may receive limited amounts of material support.
- In some instances, younger children (under 5 years) are taken to live with the extended family. The older children and adolescents are kept together within a child-headed family.

Various reasons are given for children and adolescents living in a child-headed family rather than with the extended family. This may be because no relative could be identified to take them. Alternatively, it may reflect the wishes of the parent and/ or the children. Many parents and children prefer to live as a child-headed family rather than to risk loss of the family home and other property. Further young children and adolescents often wish to stay together. This is not always possible if the care of the children is taken on by extended family members.

Child-headed families face a wide range of issues. The most pressing relate to survival needs and poverty. Children and adolescents in child-headed families need to work exceptionally hard to care for each other and to earn a living. They may miss out on education and health care. They may have to cope with grief and discrimination and may receive little support from the community (Segu & Wolde-Yohannes, 2000:1-3).

3.4 The influence of siblings on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Strong sibling rivalries are not common in adolescence, but there is a great deal of ambivalence in relationships. According to Sarafino and Armstrong (1980:116) sibling rivalry is most common among children of the same sex whose ages are one to two years apart. It is suggested that the biggest reason for this is jealousy, and if parents do not counter act it in good time, this attitude towards each other may continue long after the rivals have left home.

Gouws and Kruger (1995:116) go on to say that the influence of sibling relations on the development of children depends on age, gender, birth order and spacing. Adolescent boys tend to have a major impact on the development of closely spaced siblings. Children with an elder brother tend to be aggressive and assertive and less likely to be timid. An elder sister often has to take care of siblings in the absence of their mother. She may rebel against this role and then experience negative feelings towards the younger siblings. Older sisters are, however, more nurturing when interacting with younger siblings and not as aggressive as older brothers.

3.5 The influence of the school (educator) on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Unlike young children, adolescents tend to question whatever their educators tell them. Their critical attitudes and understanding of what is and what can be, often leads to depression, dissatisfaction and rebellion against authority and school rules.

Adolescents also strive to achieve independence in the school context, and during the secondary school years they attain autonomy in the

execution of many tasks. They realize that they must accept responsibility for their own lives and decisions, even for the choice of a career during this phase the educator assumes the role of escort and companion. He no longer takes the lead, instead he walks alongside the adolescent. The adolescents' physical maturation can turn admiration of an educator into infatuation with the result that adolescents sometimes fantasize about relations with their educators, or with other adults that are much older than them. The relations between adolescents and adults must therefore be handled with great circumspection and with due recognition of the adolescent's independence. Adolescents tend to condemn their seniors with just as much passion as they idealise them. They can be extremely critical and mistrustful about the actions of teachers and undermine their authority most effectively (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:116-117).

While parents and family have been identified as the primary protective influence on an adolescent's inclination towards high-risk behaviours, the school environment plays a very important role as well. This is where young people spend the majority of their time and develop most of their personal relationships. The transitional year between the intermediate phase and junior secondary phase is often fraught with feelings of uncertainty and stress due to the number of development changes that are occurring. The adolescent who has a positive attitude towards school is more likely to proceed through adolescence without engaging in such behaviors as drinking, smoking, drug use, violence, and early unprotected sexual activity.

Academic success may not be attainable if the adolescent's basic need for self-actualization and belonging are not achieved. Schools provide the settings for peer interactions, known to take on even greater significance in adolescent years. In addition, school attachments are crucial because

adolescents need positive, supportive relationships with other caring adults. Parents get to know the other adults who also have a dramatic influence on their teen's life by attending teacher conferences and school activities such as inter-house athletics, soccer and netball tournaments as well fun walks. When parents show that school involvement is important to them then the adolescent will be exhorted to feel the same. Having previously engaged the pre-teen in ongoing conversations about what is important and interests him, caring adults now encourage the maturing child to expand talents by participating in various school activities.

An early indication that an adolescent may be at risk for school failure is the lack of connection with the school. Other indications include absenteeism, poor grades, attention problems, and lack of confidence, as well as limited goals for the future and grade retention. Parents and educators who are aware of these early indications may be able to intervene more effectively (Neumark-Sztainer, 1999:41-55).

3.5.1 The school as a society

Kunc (1998:5) asserts that despite the essential importance of belonging as a precursor to the development of self-esteem and the motivation to pursue education, this is the one level of Maslow's hierarchy for which schools provide little nurturance or assistance. There are practices and programs to support the following:

- physiological needs (e.g. hot lunch programs),
- safety needs (e.g. traffic, sex, drug and health education),
- learning structures to build confidence and esteem (e.g. co-operative group learning, mastery models with individualized objectives and performance criteria and esteem building curricular units), and

- specialized learning needs in a vast array of curriculum domains.

However, creating communities has not been a mission or practice in the overly tracked, segregated and exclusive schools.

Kunc (1998:5-6) further states that despite the wealth of research and personal experience that gives validity to Maslow's position, it is not uncommon for educators to work from the premise that achievement and mastery rather than belonging are the primary if not the sole precursors for self-esteem. The current education system, in fact, has dissected and inverted Maslow's hierarchy of needs so that belonging has been transformed from an unconditional need and right of all people into something that must be earned, something that can be achieved only by the 'best' of us. Irrespective of the evidence to the contrary (e.g. high incidence of child abuse and neglect), the curricula and the structure of schools are based on the assumption that children who come to school have their physiological and safety needs met at home. Pupils, upon entering school, are immediately expected to learn curriculum. Successful mastery of schoolwork is expected to foster the children's sense of self-worth, which in turn will enable them to join the community as 'responsible citizens'. Children are required to learn their right to belong.

An effective way to bolster pupils' self-esteem in education is to provide pupils with opportunities to experience a great deal of success. Consequently, efforts are made to ensure that the schoolwork is easy enough so learners have little difficulty completing the work correctly, thereby fostering trust in their own abilities. As expected, learners do begin to develop self-worth. However in the process, they also learn that their worth as individuals is contingent upon being able to jump through the prescribed academic, physical or personal hoops.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs not only reminds us how essential it is for people to live within the context of a community, but it also shows us that the need for self-actualization to be necessary implies that every person has abilities that warrant specific development within themselves.

Child-headed families however have to substitute survival in place of self-actualization. These adolescents that head these families have to be innovative and self motivated, to see to the needs of their families. Unfortunately they may not be able to attend school because of their survival obligations. These adolescents have the potential to become future leaders in the community without the possibility of attending formal school.

The view that personal achievement fosters self-worth is by no means limited to the field of education. The perception that we must earn our right to belong permeates any society. A central tenet of our culture is that we value uniformity, and we make uniformity the criteria for belonging. Moreover, people tend to be excluded because of their diversity.

Societies tend to hold forth belonging as something that is earned through academic or physical achievement, appearance, and a host of other socially valued criteria. Belonging no longer is an inherent right of being human and our schools, being a reflection of society, perpetuate this belief. When a school system makes belonging and acceptance conditional upon achievement, it basically leaves pupils with two options. They can either decide that they are incapable of attaining these expectations and therefore resign themselves to a feeling of personal inadequacy, or, they can decide to try to gain acceptance through achievement in a particular area (i.e. sports, academics, appearance). In

either case, there are potentially serious negative consequences for the learners such as being a dropout from school (Kunc, 1998:6).

3.5.2 Adolescents as casualties of the education system

Kunc (1998:6-10) states that the adolescent tends to become a casualty of the education system. This will be elaborated in more detail.

3.5.2.1 School dropout as a casualty

Schools, which serve as mini societies, tend to attach high value to academic achievement, physical prowess, and attractiveness. Learners who do not excel in at least one of these areas are thereby devalued. These are the learners who drop out of school. They remove themselves from the school environment where they are devalued and sometimes enter into dangerous situations in which they are valued.

3.5.2.2 Gangs as a casualty

One environment to which some learners turn themselves, is that of gangs. Here again, Maslow's hierarchy of needs provide a framework for understanding why gangs are becoming increasingly popular among today's youth. Teenage gangs satisfy each level of need in Maslow's hierarchy. When youths join gangs, their physiological needs are met: food, shelter, warmth and their quasi-physiological needs, such as sex, heroin and crack are also met. Youths are provided with a sense of safety in the knowledge that if they are ever harmed by another individual or group, the other gang members will retaliate viciously against those who caused the harm. Further, youths are given a strong sense of belonging within the gang, and in this environment the belonging is not based on achievement, instead on simply 'wearing one's colours'. After passing a one-time initiation ritual, the sense of belonging provided by gangs is extremely close to unconditional; and given this almost unconditional acceptance and inclusion within a gang, the youth's feelings of self-worth

naturally flourish. Anchored in this newly found sense of inclusion and self-worth, many youths begin to focus in those areas in which they excel, such as the criminal code, karate, stealing and extortion.

Ironically, some school communities try to tempt youths away from gangs through counselling, away from an environment of unconditional inclusion and acceptance, back into the school, back into society, back into an environment where belonging and acceptance are conditional and must be earned. Furthermore, the earning must take place in a context where the youths know they have previously failed. The fact that many of these youths quickly discard the possibility of returning to school may be surprising for school officials. Maslow, however, hardly would be surprised at the youths' decision. The tragedy within the education system is that one sees the continued membership in a gang as the result of a learner's moral deficiency, rather than seeing the school's structure and intrinsic ideology as the impetus. In the event that one concurs with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, then one must face the credible and deeply disturbing proposition that inner city gangs are healthier environments for human beings than schools. Albeit, the values and violence within some gangs, may be less than desirable. Nevertheless, schools appear to be far more damaging to the development of adolescents than gangs.

3.5.2.3 Perfectionism and suicide as casualties

The repercussions of conditional belongings are not limited to those learners who fail to excel. There are extremely negative consequences for the achievers as well. When learners strive to become shining scholars or all-star strikers in soccer teams, they intrinsically learn that their valued membership in the school is dependent upon maintaining these standards of achievement. As a result, many learners wake up each

morning and face a day of ongoing pressure to be good enough to belong and afraid that if they fail a test, miss the crucial goal in the last seconds of the game, or wear the wrong kind of running shoes, their status among their peers, and possibly within the school, will be sacrificed.

Unfortunately, a growing number of adolescents find that the endless demand to be good enough to belong is beyond them and they end the struggle by taking their own lives. As one begins to recognize the process of living in a world of conditional belonging, one can better understand why learners who commit suicide frequently are those that are least expected to do so. While Maslow's hierarchy of needs may not provide a complete framework for understanding and dealing with this issue, the absence of belonging in schools is a contributing factor to teenage suicide. It must be stressed, however, that most achievers do not take their own lives. At the same time, one cannot minimize the stress these learners feel as well. Educators are well aware of learners who are perfectionists, obsessively driven to avoid any slight error despite continual reassurance from family and educators that such concern is unwarranted. Here again, it is important to step back and see the learner within the context of a school and a society that repeatedly gives the message that one must earn the right to belong. When community, acceptance, and belongings – some of the most primal needs of being human – are held out as the rewards for achievement, one cannot expect learners to believe any assurances that they will be accepted as they are.

The implicit messages in schools have caused perfectionism, and ironically, school personnel perceive this perfectionism as a sign of emotional instability on the part of the learner. It must be noted that the degree of underachievement and unfulfilled potential in society may not be the result of widespread laziness. It may result from a sense of

apathy, apathy that so often accompanies the constant demand to be perfect enough to belong. What is needed in society and especially the education system, is not more rigorous demands to achieve and master so that the youth will move closer to the idealized form of perfection.

What is needed is a collective effort among all role players to search for ways to foster a sense of belonging in schools, not only for learners but also the educators as well. When the adolescent is able to rely on his peer's individual strengths rather than expecting to attain complete mastery in all areas, then belonging begins to precede achievement, and he may be welcomed into the community not because of his perfection but because of his inherent natural and individual capacities.

As a collective commitment to educate all learners takes hold and typical learners realize that they do belong in their schools and classes, typical learners will benefit by learning that their own membership in the class and society is something that has to do with rights rather than academic or physical ability. In this way, it is conceivable that the learners in schools will be liberated from the tyranny of earning the right to belong. However, it is ironic that the learners who were believed to have the least worth and value may be the only ones who can guide others off the path of social destruction.

Therefore the school, which serves as a mini society, can have extreme social influences on the self-actualization of the adolescent.

3.6 The influence of the community on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Just as the roles of the parent, family, peer, friend and the school are not viewed as a single dimension, so too, the role of the community includes a variety of direct and indirect influences on adolescents' high-risk

behaviours. Directly, communities offer opportunities for health-enhancing or health-compromising behaviours through the availability and monitoring of cigarette vending machines, food selections available at fast food outlets, and the enforcement of curfews or alcohol minimum age laws. Indirectly, the media (exposing adolescents to models of unprotected sex, violence, and alcohol consumption), the school governing body (through school policy), or a city council (with local ordinances) affects an adolescent's behaviour. Dissonant images enhance confusion and weaken the intended message. When programs are designed to be consistent at a community level, high-risk behaviours may be postponed or prevented.

Community-wide approaches to preventing or reducing opportunities for high-risk behaviours are successful when one has agreement on, commitment to, and coordination of the messages to be delivered and the strategies to be developed (Perry, Kelder, & Komro, 1993:73-96). For example, consider the coordination of efforts on prom nights. Multiple interventions deliver the same consistent message:

- Do not drive when drunk or ride with a drunken friend, call for a ride anytime and no questions will be asked, or rent vans or limos to go to the many parties before and after proms. Additionally, many communities sponsor all night parties in the neighborhood at a community center, eliminating the need for transportation by car to continue the celebration.

According to Rinehart (as cited by Pettit, Bates, Dodge & Meece, 1999:768-778) youth-serving organizations, churches, community agencies such as child welfare societies and schools can provide programs that promote pro-social attitudes and activities, enhances adolescent's self-esteem, present positive role modeling, and give

supervision for young people. Instead of substituting for parental monitoring, these programs provide additional resources and settings to strengthen and extend parental monitoring. While the goals of most organizations are 'prevention, motivation and stimulation', adolescents want 'fun and friends' and parents wish for 'safety and opportunities for success'. Positive youth serving organizations can achieve all these goals simultaneously.

A major improvement in some communities is the availability of after school programs for young people. These programs offer physical, educational and social opportunities.

The following are examples:

- Involvement in team sports socializes pre-teens to community norms on issues such as fair play and provides an opportunity to interact with significant adults such as coaches.
- Tutors who help with homework promote academic success.
- Leaders of special interest activities give more opportunity for developing relationships with caring adults and peers.

The community also offers older adolescents the opportunity for work. Besides developing a sense of productivity and accomplishment, employment helps many adolescents to become more responsible with their time and money. Working too much, however, can have a negative effect. Adolescents who work more than 20 hours a week experience greater fatigue, report higher levels of emotional stress, have more leisure income to buy and use illicit drugs, and often engage in earlier sexual activity. Unfortunately, some adolescents do not participate in any positive activities. Early adolescents who have been labeled as 'troublemakers' may have difficulty fitting into the group and some youth

workers may lack the skill and training to work with these teens. In addition, fewer interesting programs exist for older adolescents (Pettit, Bates, Dodge & Meece, 1999:768-778). Other barriers include problems with transportation and cost and knowledge deficits about available programs.

Positive youth organizations are no longer a luxury but a necessity. Successful outreach is vital to engage the participation of at-risk youth. Family and youth-friendly communities are created when parents and caring adults exercise their voting rights and citizen responsibilities. Advocacy for assets-based communities where adolescents are valued is imperative.

3.7 The influence of the peer on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Young adolescent's relations with children of their age group assume increasing importance as they pass from the pre-and primary school years to adolescence. During adolescence relations with peers are highly significant for self-concept formation and for self-actualization. Adolescents share a great deal of their lives with the peer group, go to school with them, participate in sports with them, spend leisure time with them and sleep over at their homes. The peer group serves as a sounding board for their ideas, thoughts and concerns. Issues that cannot be discussed with their parents in some instances are freely discussed with the peer group, for example personal problems, teachers, parents, siblings, clothing, the future, sex, contraception, drugs and alcohol.

The peer group constitutes a world with its own customs, traditions, language and dress. The adolescent wants to be accepted as part of this world and therefore endeavours to slot in with a particular group by

conforming to its hairstyles, musical interests, leisure interests, dress, speech and conduct, thus contracting a temporary emotional dependence on their approval. It would therefore appear that the price of wrestling emotional autonomy from parents maybe some kind of emotional dependence on peers (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:117).*

3.7.1 Nature and development of the peer group

Three types of adolescent peer groups, namely, the clique, the crowd and the gang are distinguishable and will be elaborated on. Cliques and crowds generally occur among adolescents of all social classes, but crowds are more prevalent in middle class suburban communities. Cliques and crowds differ from each other in both size and function. The clique is smaller than the crowd and seem to be the basic social unit in the group life of the adolescent.

3.7.1.1 The clique

According to Seifert and Hoffnung (2000:511), the clique is a small, closely-knit group consisting of two or more members (an average of six members) who are intimately involved in a number of shared purposes and activities. Membership is usually based on three factors: same sex, similarity in age and residential proximity.

Membership is usually voluntary, however new members are only admitted if all the members agree. Members of a clique have the same values and interests. Any major deviations from these are not tolerated. The small size and intimacy of a clique makes it like a family in which the adolescent can feel comfortable and secure. The major clique activity seems to be talking and cliques generally meet during the school week. Advantages of clique membership include security, a feeling of importance and the acquisition of socially acceptable behaviours (such as academic, social, or athletic competence) that are part of conforming

to the clique's norms.

According to Dishion, Patterson and Dishion (as cited by Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000: 512), conformity can also suppress individuality and may promote in-group snobbishness, intolerance, and other negative values and behaviours. Involvement with a clique of antisocial peers is associated with various adolescent adjustment problems, including substance abuse, school dropout, delinquency, and gang membership, although which is cause and which is effect, is uncertain. Clique membership peaks in early adolescence and then declines; the percentage of adolescents who are connected with several cliques but are not themselves clique members, increases.

3.7.1.2 Crowds

Crowds are larger than cliques and normally between 15 and 30 members and less cohesive. They generally consist of members of both sexes. These groups are usually formed during the mid adolescent's growing need for contact with members of the opposite sex. The main function of the crowd is therefore to offer a framework for the forming of the heterosexual relationships and to provide a situation for mixed-gender interactions and promoting transition from same-gender to mixed-gender cliques. The crowd's activities usually include parties that typically take place on weekends and larger gatherings whereas the clique is usually characterized by intimate communication.

Crowd membership also provides opportunities to interact with individuals from a broad range of backgrounds and experiences, but can also promote snobbishness and can pose real or imagined threats to parental and teacher authority.

Crowds can also be seen as an association of cliques. Membership of a

clique is therefore a prerequisite for membership of the crowd. According to Dunphy (1990:171-184), the crowd is the pivotal point in the change in the adolescent's association structure from the unisexual to heterosexual groupings. It also forms the base for the adolescent's development of a new heterosexual role.

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:118-119), in the transition from the unisexual cliques of early adolescence through to the heterosexual dating and going steady stage of late adolescence five stages can be distinguished:

Stage 1: During this stage, which usually occurs in pre-adolescence and early adolescence, social intercourse occurs in cliques of the same sex. Activities centre on the behaviour that is regarded as suitable for boys and girls of the relevant age group. Strict rules prevail and transgressions are punished by means of jeering, for example, a boy who fails to conform to the behaviour expected by the group is readily labeled as a 'sissy'.

Stage 2: The first genuine adolescent peer group emerges at this stage. The members of these groups are the same age and the two sexes find each other more acceptable. Although intimate friendships with members of the opposite sex do not exist yet, tentative efforts to establish contact are made and some individuals begin to show they are attracted to the opposite sex.

Stage 3: Those who reached out tentatively to the opposite sex in the previous stage now begin to form heterosexual cliques, as a result the adolescent belongs to many mono- and heterosexual groups.

Stage 4: The changes that occurred in the previous stage also result in

changes in the structure of the cliques and the crowds. The membership of both cliques and crowds now comprises both sexes.

Stage 5: In this stage the adolescent is far advanced in his contraction of heterosexual relations and the crowd's hold on him has diminished appreciably. The crowds gradually disappear and those remaining find justification for their existence in common interests and ideals. More couples pair off and for some these friendships lead to marriages.

3.7.1.3 Gangs

Gangs and cliques display certain similarities as well as clear-cut differences. Gangs usually consist of members of the same sex and so do cliques. However gangs have more members than cliques. Gangs are also more organized and structured. Although they are formed on a geographical basis, just like cliques, their 'territory' is much more clearly delineated. Unlike the friendly innocuous nature of cliques, gangs are frequently characterized by illegal, antisocial and criminal activities. In a gang the roles of the leader and the members are clearly defined and the gang usually has a name.

According to Coleman (1980:172), characteristics of gang members include the following: poverty, broken homes, lack of suitable adult models, parents with criminal histories, low scores achieved in intelligence tests, poor control of impulses, the fact that members rely on physical and verbal aggression to maintain their position in the gang and a tendency to indulge in dangerous behaviour.

Dunphy (1990:171-184) asserts that gangs are in revolt against family and other formal structures like school, church and the law. These gangs are usually formed on the grounds of common grievances. However they may also originate for the purposes of defence and warfare in a cultural

context, thus acting as unofficial protectors of a township and tend to frequently venture out against other cultural and race groups from the security of the township

It must be noted, however that not all adolescents attain social adulthood with the peer group as a major conducive factor and not all adolescents are necessarily members of gangs. Most children's relationships with their peer groups usually change from a typical immature dependence on the peer group to relative independence during late adolescence when individual heterosexual relations exert a decisive influence on them.

According to Snyder (1997:5), there are also delinquent adolescent gangs who can be defined as a group of people that are guilty of making a common practice of law breaking together.

Campbell (as cited by Snyder, 1997:5) claims that adolescent gangs are responsible for a large percentage of the criminal behaviour found in urban areas, for example: 31.4% in New York, 44.5% in Los Angeles and 25.7% in Chicago .

Josselyn (as cited by Snyder, 1997:5) provides support to Campbell's claims by substantiating that gangs, whether delinquent or not, play a major role in the life of an adolescent member. They can provide support systems, security, membership, autonomy, self expression and shared experiences to the adolescent.

Josselyn (as cited by Snyder, 1997:5) further elaborates that as part of society consequences are expected when laws are broken. Therefore, consequences are also a part of delinquent gang membership which include the following: poor reputation, delinquency, increased risk of

death, decrease in outside resources (i.e. school, family, or government agencies), increased risk of drug and alcohol abuse, increased risk of sexually transmitted disease and increased risk of teenage parenthood.

In the life of an adolescent these characteristics are significant for the development of one's own identity. Campbell and Pombini (as cited by Snyder, 1997:5) suggest that wider social support networks and peer counselling can be used to curve delinquent behaviour and promote a healthier lifestyle.

3.7.2 Functions of the peer group

According to Vrey, Monteith and Thom (as cited by Gouws & Kruger, 1995:120), the peer group plays a vital role in the socialization of the adolescent. The following functions are distinguishable:

3.7.2.1 Emancipation

The peer group offers the adolescent a bridge for the gradual attainment of independence from the parents. In their groups adolescents are forced to stand on their own feet and make their own decisions. They also begin to share their thoughts and feelings with the peer group more than with their parents. Once they are accepted into the group they gain the security from it that they experienced earlier in the safe environment of their family life. They therefore translocate their safe base from the parental home to the peer group.

3.7.2.2 Search for an individual identity

During the emancipation process adolescents begin to realize that they must loosen the ties with their parents and their lives as dependent children. The child has derived status that is granted to him by virtue of being his parent's child, while adolescents attain primary status by their own efforts and through exerting their own abilities. The peer group

offers the adolescent the opportunity to develop primary status and conflict within and about himself and others. The adolescent also attains self-knowledge, self-insight and self-evaluation in the group, and by all these means the peer group contributes to the adolescent's forming of his sense of identity.

3.7.2.3 Group identity

This also influences the development of a sense of individual identity. Thus a group with a high status and prestige will lend status and prestige to its individual members. Acceptance by the peer group leads to positive self-concept formation and self-acceptance. If the peer group rejects the adolescent's candidacy, the forming of his self-concept and sense of identity may be seriously prejudiced.

3.7.2.4 Social acceptability and support

The peer group serves as a socializing agent and meets adolescents' needs for comradeship and friendship. It gives them the opportunity to practise their social skills, form close friendships and communicate with members of the opposite sex. Acceptance by the group and popularity are very important to them at this stage, because they fear loneliness which they interpret as a symbol of social ostracism. They also aspire to acceptance because it supports them during the process of emancipation. The peer group's acceptance and support of the adolescent's behaviour, appearance and ideas often form a stark contrast with the criticism and disapproval of his parents and of society.

3.7.2.5 The peer group as a reference and experimentation base

The peer group acts as a reference in the sense that it helps members to find out their performance in life. It also provides a framework against which the adolescent can measure his identity by determining where he fits in, for example as a leader or as a follower. Within the peer group the

adolescent gains the opportunity to try out behaviour patterns with the peer group as a reference framework, and to adjust these when the feedback is negative.

Further, the peer group provides an environment where adolescents can test their ideas about all kinds of matters, including matters that are not discussed with adults. They also have the opportunity to assess the values and norms with which they have grown up against those of their peers, thus confirming and strengthening their values. If the group's values do not coincide with those of the adolescent's parents, he may begin to judge and question, or even reject, his parents' judgement. The peer group is therefore the primary agent in the development of an outlook on life and the world at large.

As a reference group the peer group also serves as an informal source of knowledge about such matters as sex, pregnancy and drugs. Apart from the knowledge that the adolescent acquires in this way, the peer group also helps him to develop norms for sexual behaviour, for example, and for conforming to social rules and regulations.

3.7.2.5.1 Competition

The peer group offers the adolescent an opportunity to compete with members of his own age group on an equal footing for a place in society. In assessing himself and others the adolescent finds out what he is capable of in comparison to others. Healthy and moderate competition with peers is also an important preparation for adult life, which is highly competitive in all areas, especially in the occupational world.

3.7.2.5.2 Social mobility

The peer group in its various forms offers adolescents the opportunity to make contact with other adolescents coming from different backgrounds.

Social mobility therefore concerns the different sexes, relations between races and socio-economic classes. Adolescents can become better acquainted with each other in the school or through organized youth groups such as church and youth groups and can influence each other by the same means.

3.7.2.5.3.Recreation

The adolescent can speak freely in the group about their fears, feelings, dreams and ideals thus gaining the opportunity to discharge emotional tension. The group also offers them the opportunity of group participation in sporting activities. Adolescents' greater dependence on and attraction to the peer group results in their spending almost all their leisure time with them, feeling intensely hurt and isolated when they are forbidden to go out with the group.

3.7.3 Role distribution in the peer group

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:122-123), every member in the peer group has a particular role and status that may differ from time to time and from situation to situation depending on such factors as acceptance and rejection, popularity and leadership. These factors will be elaborated upon.

3.7.3.1 Acceptance and rejection

Adolescents who are accepted by the peer group generally display such characteristics as friendliness, cheerfulness, vivacity, naturalness, sense of humor, tolerance, flexibility, empathy, enthusiasm, initiative and self-confidence. They are the ones who plan interesting and enjoyable group activities, make others feel that they are accepted and promote interaction within the group. Other factors that correlate positively with acceptance are intelligence, attractive appearance, the same socio-

economic class, special talents and membership of the dominant cultural group. It is natural and also easier to be accepted by the group if the adolescent's values, habits and interests correspond with those of the group. Geographic proximity to other members is also important since regular participation in group activities frequently depends on this factor.

Adolescents who are not accepted by the group, that is, who are either emotionally neglected or actively rejected, usually display a lack of social competence. They tend to be reticent, nervous, shy, self-centred, and have little self-confidence. Those who display indifference to the needs of other members of the peer group, who are tactless and sarcastic or unenthusiastic about group activities are usually also not accepted by the group.

There is a distinct difference between adolescents who are not accepted by the group or who are merely emotionally neglected and ignored by them, and those who are actively rejected by the group. Adolescents who are shy, withdrawn, ill at ease and lacking in self-confidence are frequently tolerated on the outskirts of the group. They move opportunely into and out of the group but are never really accepted as part of the group, however tend to be those whose values, norms and behaviour clash with those of the group. They tend to handle their discomfort in an aggressive, conceited or a demanding way, are emotionally disorientated, preoccupied with themselves and display a negative self-concept. They are also more self inclined to experience psychological problems, stray into delinquent behaviour and be underachievers.

3.7.3.2 Popularity

Although popular children in the peer group are accepted, popularity is more than mere importance. It is indicative of how well-liked a person is and of the extent to which people are attracted to the person and seek

out his company. An important determinant of adolescents' popularity is their social skill for example if adolescents are good sportspersons they tend to become popular.

3.7.3.3 Leadership

It must be noted that the most popular adolescent is not necessarily a leader in the peer group. Leadership status is usually determined by the individual's ability to do the things that are important to the group, or to get them done, for example, an adolescent who is not necessarily popular may assume leadership of the group by virtue of his excellent organizational ability. An individual's status within the peer group also depends to a large extent on the activities of the group. Consequently the status hierarchy of groups may change with their interests and activities.

In the early adolescent where sporting activities are very important to boys, the all-rounder in sports may become the leader. In later years when heterosexual relations become more important, boys who achieve particular success with dating may acquire a new status. An adolescent who used to be accepted as a leader may therefore find at a later stage that he has to be satisfied with a much more subordinate role in the peer group. This may lead to a good deal of uncertainty and stress.

3.7.3.4 Conformity

The adolescent's motivation to conform to the group's values, customs and fads increases due to his need to be accepted. Although conforming behaviour is more common in adolescence than during any other phase, adolescents differ markedly from each other in the extent to which they conform. As a result of the adolescent's need to be accepted, his motivation to conform to the group's values, customs and fads increases. Although conforming behaviour is therefore more common in

adolescence than during any other phase, adolescents differ markedly from each other in the extent to which they conform. It appears that the need to conform depends on several factors:

- Age of the adolescent. Conformity with the peer group is at its height during early adolescence, after which it gradually declines so that during late adolescence individual tastes and behaviours are much more prominent. The strong tendency to conform to the peer group in early adolescence is attributable to a lack of independence and self-confidence, and to a sense of group identity. After the 14th or 15th birthday the individual gains increasing independence from the group and develops a unique identity.
- Personality factors. Adolescents with a strong tendency toward self-blame are more inclined to conform than those with a medium or low tendency toward self-blame. Similarly, adolescents with a low status and a negative self-concept are more inclined to conform than adolescents with a high or leadership status and a positive self-concept.
- Relationship with parents. Adolescents who grow up in a family where fixed values and norms apply, and who have a positive relationship with their parents, are less inclined to conform to the peer group than those from unhappy homes where uncertainty about values and norms prevail. Although adolescents who get on well with their parents conform with respect to less significant matters, such as dress and recreation, they are more amenable to the influence of their parents when it comes to matters concerning long-term objectives and moral values.
- Socio-economic status. Adolescents with a higher socio-economic status conform more readily than those with a lower socio-economic status. They also like school more, plan to continue their education, attend church and make higher level vocational choices.

- Gender. Adolescent girls tend to show a greater inclination to conformity than adolescent boys, because they seem to be more concerned with harmonious relations, social approval and acceptance than boys are. It is also more important for them to meet the peer group's expectations than it is for boys.

The perception that conformity with the peer group is necessarily disadvantageous for the adolescent is not correct. It is also not necessarily true that adolescents throw their parents' values overboard and transfer their allegiance to the peer group. In cases where the social, economic, religious and educational values of the peer group correspond with those of his parents, conformity is beneficial to the adolescent and will also be encouraged by the parents. Accordingly adolescents tend to choose friends with the same background values as those to which they are accustomed. Parents tend to emphasise popularity and success and encourage conformity since popularity depends largely on group acceptance, in which case the role of the group is supplementary rather than in conflict with the parents' needs (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:125).

In a situation where the relationship between parents and their adolescent children is completely dysfunctional, the adolescent may turn to the peer group for overall acceptance. The adolescent who conforms to the peer group in all things, against the wishes and values of his parents, is more a product of parental disregard than of the attractiveness of the peer group. Jensen (1985:101) maintains that conforming children turn to their age-mates less by choice than by default from the vacuum left by the withdrawal of parents and adults. The lives of such youths are possibly filled with the undesired substitute of a ruling peer group.

3.7.4 Peer pressure

Peer pressure can be described as the influences and pressures adolescents feel from their peers. These peers, whom adolescents look for approval and support, have been noted as inevitable and necessary. Peer groups provide opportunities for practicing new behaviours and developing necessary social skills for future interactions (Foreman, 1997:3).

Peer pressures can range from positive influences, such as academic and athletic achievement; to negative influences, such as drug and alcohol use.

According to Conner (as cited by Foreman, 1997:3), two factors that help adolescents resist negative peer pressure are high self-esteem and self-confidence.

Peer pressure has an effect on drug and alcohol use. Dupre, Miller, Gold, and Rospenda (as cited by Foreman, 1997:2) state that one study from 1995 shows 84% of adolescents who tried drugs did so because of peer pressure. Further, the study also indicated that adolescents rate peer pressure as one of the top three reasons for using drugs and alcohol.

It is, therefore, quite apparent that peer pressure does exist. The researcher will elaborate on positive peer pressure and negative peer pressure.

3.7.4.1 Positive peer pressure in adolescence

Foreman (1997:2) states that adults alone no longer prepare young people for the future. Adolescents are now spending twice as much time with their peers as compared to with their parents. Pressures and influences from peers play a vital and needed role in adolescent

development. Adolescents can experience negative and positive influences from their peers. However, parents can influence which type of pressures their child adhere to.

The ability to develop healthy friendships and peer relationships depend on an adolescent's self-identity, self-esteem and self-reliance. Peer pressure can mobilize the adolescent's energy, motivate for success, and encourage the adolescent to conform to healthy behaviour. Peers can and do act as positive role models. Peers can and do demonstrate appropriate social behaviours. Peers often listen to, accept, and understand the frustrations, challenges, and concerns associated with being a teenager (Foreman, 1997:2).

3.7.4.2 Negative peer pressure in adolescence

According to Rimm (2000:1), adolescents who are still in the process of developing a value system tend to be more vulnerable to negative influences. The need for acceptance, approval, and belonging is vital during the adolescent's years. Adolescents who feel isolated or rejected by their peers – or in their family – are more likely to engage in risky behaviours in order to fit in with a group. In such situations, peer pressure can impair good judgement and fuel risk-taking behaviour, drawing the adolescent away from the family and positive influences and luring him into dangerous activities. In order to support the above, the following example will be used: adolescents with ADHD, learning differences, or disabilities are often rejected due to the age-inappropriate behaviour and thus are more likely to associate with other rejected and/or delinquent peers. Some experts believe that adolescent females frequently enter into sexual relationships when what they are seeking is acceptance, approval, and love.

A powerful negative peer influence can motivate an adolescent to make

choices and engage in behaviour that his values might otherwise reject. Some adolescents will risk being grounded, losing their parents' trust, or even facing jail time, just to try and fit in or feel like they have a group of friends they can identify with and who accept them. Sometimes, adolescents will change the way they dress, their friends give up their values or create new ones, depending on the people they hang around with.

Some adolescents harbor secret lives governed by the influence of their peers. Some – including those who appear to be well-behaved, high achieving adolescents when they are with adults; engage in negative, even dangerous behaviour when with their peers. Once influenced, adolescents may continue the slide into problems with the law, substance abuse, school problems, authority defiance and gang problems.

If the adolescent associates with people who are using drugs or displaying self-destructive behaviours, then it is highly likely that he is doing the same.

In order to help the adolescent to minimize the influences of negative peer influences it is important to help them have high self-esteem, self-confidence, a sense of self-worth, and to feel needed and loved by his friends and family.

3.7.4.3 Effective strategies for coping with peer pressure

If the negative effect of peer pressure is to be minimized then youth, parents, school and community leaders must come together to establish workable and effective strategies to guide adolescent behaviour and to support their transition from children to mature, responsible adults. Brown (as cited by Lingren, 1995:3) suggested the following strategies:

- Relinquish the stereotype of peers as a uniformly negative influence on youth. Although some adolescent peer groups encourage drug use, delinquent activities and poor school performance, others discourage deviant activity in favour of school achievement and involvement in sports or other extra-curricular activities (e.g. music and religious activities).
- Nurture adolescents' abilities and self-esteem so they can forge positive peer relationships. The parent, schools and other agencies can be taught how to help develop the adolescent's self-concept and self-worth so that he is a valued person.
- Empower parents and educators to help adolescents pursue and maintain positive peer relationships. They can provide adolescents with the opportunity to succeed in constructive ways that are valued by the adolescents, the parent and the community alike.
- Encourage cross-ethnic and cross-class peer interactions and guide adolescents in dealing positively with cultural diversity and individual differences. Parents, teachers, community leaders, and clergy can model appreciation for ethnic differences and support cross-class and cross-ethnic friendships. Schools and youth organizations can assist by encouraging youth from diverse backgrounds to work and play together.
- Place sensible restraints on part-time adolescent employment. This could ease adolescents' compliance with peer pressures to 'buy' acceptance into a peer group (i.e., to have enough money for the 'right' clothes, the 'right' shoes, the 'right' CDs, etc.). Increases in part-time employment among youth have had little impact on the time they spend with peers.
- Support parent education programmes for families with adolescents. Parents need to be better informed about the dynamics of adolescent peer groups and the demands and

expectations adolescents face in peer relationships.

- Establish intervention programs for pre-adolescents with low social skills or aggressive tendencies. Addressing these problems before adolescence will decrease the chances of these adolescents joining anti-social peer groups that will reinforce their problem behaviours.

Lingren (1995:3) states that during adolescence, peers play a large part in a person's life and typically replace family as the centre of an adolescent's social and leisure activities. But adolescents have various peer relationships, and they interact with many peer groups. Often 'peer cultures' have very different values and norms. Thus, the adult perception of peers as a united front of dangerous influence, is inaccurate.

More often than not, peers reinforce family values, but they have the potential to encourage problem behaviours as well. Although the negative influence of peers is over-emphasised, more can be done to help adolescents experience the family and the peer group as mutually constructive environments. To accomplish this, families, communities, churches, schools and other youth groups must work together because it 'takes a whole village to raise a child' (Lingren, 1995:3).

3.8 The influence of friends on the self-actualization of the adolescent

3.8.1 The importance of friendship

According to Shucksmith, Hendry, Love and Glendinning (1993:2), 'peers and friends are not the same thing'. A peer is regarded as a person of the

same age, status or ability as another specified person. A friend, however, is an individual joined to another in intimacy and mutual benevolence independently of sexual or family love. Although relationships with parents determine in large measure our longer-term preferences, attitudes and values, during adolescence it is often relationships with friends that cause most concern and which pre-occupy the thoughts of young people as they grow up.

Friendships are based on a completely different set of structural relationships to those with parents. They are more symmetrical and involve sharing and exchange. Friendships are important to young children but there is a change at the beginning of adolescence – a move to intimacy that includes the development of a more exclusive focus, a willingness to talk about oneself and to share problems and advice. Friends tell one another just about everything that is going on in each other's lives. Friends literally reason together in order to organize experience and to define themselves as persons.

3.8.2 The role of friendships

Buhrmester and Reid (as cited by Seifert & Hoffnang, 2000:507) state that friends matter a lot during adolescence. Unlike most adults who attempt to improve an anolescents behaviour and skills, friends offer easier and more immediate acceptance thus easing the uncertainty and insecurity of the adolescent years. They also offer reassurance, understanding, advice, and emotional and social support in stressful situations. The opportunity to share inner feelings of disappointment as well as happiness with close friends enables the adolescent to a better deal with his emotional ups and downs. Furthermore a capacity to form close, intimate friendships during adolescence is related to overall social and emotional adjustment and competence.

Especially during early and middle adolescence, youngsters' unquestioning appreciation of friends helps them to become more independent of parents and other representatives of authority and to resist the seemingly arbitrary demands of family living. Friends provide one another with cognitive and social scaffolding that differs from what non-friends provide. Having good friends supports positive developmental outcomes during periods of developmental change. Friends also promote independence by providing knowledge of a world beyond the family. Teenagers learn through their friends that not every young person is required to be home by the same hour every night, that some parents expect their children to do more household chores than other parents do, and that other families hold different religious or political views. The processes of sharing feelings and beliefs and exploring new ideas and opinions with friends play an important role in helping adolescents to define their sense of self (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000: 507-509).

The researcher will elaborate on the quality of adolescent friendships, friends of own sex, heterosexual relationships and interracial relationships.

3.8.2.1 Qualities of adolescent friendships

Friends strongly influence an adolescent's development by virtue of their positive and negative characteristics, attitudes, values and behaviours and through the quality of the friendship. A friendship based on mutual respect and trust, intimacy, and pro-social behaviour is likely to help the adolescent cope with stressful situations in the family and in school. Friendships that lack these qualities are likely to be less helpful or even destructive.

During the adolescent years the basis of what makes a close friendship changes. Close friendships are associated with mutual understanding

and intimacy. Early adolescents share a fascination with the particular interests, life histories, and personalities of their friends. Young adolescents want to understand friends as unique individuals and be understood by them in the same way. Intimacy in adolescent friendships includes self-revelation, confidence (keeping secrets), and a sense of exclusivity. The quality of friendships during early adolescence appears to have long term effects on development.

Bagwell, Newcomb and Bukowski (as cited by Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000:508-509) conducted a twelve year longitudinal study of thirty young adults who had a stable, reciprocal best friend in fifth grade and thirty young adults who had been without a best friend. Adults who had close friends in early adolescence experienced better adjustment in school and family relationships and had less difficulty with authority figures than those who did not. Adults who were rejected by friends in early adolescence did more poorly in school, had greater difficulty with authorities, had lower levels of aspirations, and had participated in fewer organizations and social activities in later adolescence and early adulthood. Lower levels of rejection during early adolescence predicted more successful overall life adjustments and feelings of self-worth in adulthood.

3.8.2.2 Friends of own sex

The adolescent's needs with respect to social relations change as he develops, with the result that different phases can be distinguished in the development and nature of his friendships. During puberty and early adolescence friendships are mostly superficial and there is little evidence of understanding, empathy and feeling. The friendship is mainly determined by joint activities rather than by meaningful interaction.

During mid-adolescence the quality and function of friendship changes,

however, and relationships become more meaningful. At this stage the adolescent passes through another time of great uncertainty, possibly because he is embarking on the transition to opposite-sex relationships at this stage. A friend with similar needs, aspirations and fears provides the security needed to enter into new relations. Such a friend must be dependable, loyal and supportive. For this reason adolescent friendships, unlike those of earlier years, are characterized by greater emotional involvement and emphasis on loyalty, reliability, understanding, empathy and sincerity.

Friendships in late adolescence are characterized by a less intense quality and a more relaxed attitude. It seems that the older adolescent is more aware of his identity and is therefore able to act independently. Friendships are more dependent on personality and interests, and differences from friends are accepted, valued and even cherished. Another important reason for the slight increase in distance between friends could be the contraction of intimate heterosexual relations. Friends who used to spend all their time together begin to spend more and more time in the presence of members of the opposite sex. Although these relations with members of the opposite sex actually begin in mid-adolescence and increase as years go by, they do not replace relations between members of the same sex, rather they introduce a new dimension into old friendships that continue in existence.

The quality of the relations maintained with friends differ for the sexes in early- and mid adolescence. The friendships formed by boys generally involve lower levels of intimacy. By contrast the friendships maintained by girls are more comfortable, more intense, person-directed and are able to give emotional support to one another (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:125-126 and Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000:500).

3.8.2.3 Heterosexual relationships

One of the main aspects of the social development of adolescents is the contraction of heterosexual relationships. As in the case of same-sex friendships, different phases can also be distinguished in the nature and development of heterosexual friendships. As early as puberty and early adolescents the sexes begin to reach out tentatively to each other. Their efforts at social interactions however tend to be very clumsy and childish. Boy's first efforts at contact are usually confined to teasing associated with some physical contact: pulling hair, grabbing books, pens and the like, squirting water or throwing objects, after which they usually run away amid raucous laughter emitted by themselves and their friends. Young girls also react in culturally conditioned, predictable ways: they yell, pretend to be terribly angry and run away in mock anger. Teenagers use this time-honoured method of making their first emotionally charged heterosexual contacts (Rice, 1984: 274).

The initial awkward attempts of early adolescence gradually change and teenagers begin to communicate with each other in a more sophisticated way. Now they do everything in their power to act in a calm, self-assured and poised way and strive to be good conversationalists and at ease in the company of the opposite sex. The sexes seek increasing opportunities to meet each other 'by coincidence'. Soon the dating process begins, which is the precursor of more serious heterosexual relationships.

Early heterosexual relationships are characterized by impermanence. A boy and girl fall head over heels in love with each other but soon cool down and other relationships are then started. In this process adolescents make contact with an appreciable number of members of the opposite sex, and by this means they learn from experience what acceptable behaviour is. In due course the relationships become more serious, intimate and permanent, leading eventually to the choice of a

marriage partner in late adolescence or early adulthood. Heterosexual relationships are therefore frequently a source of intense heartache, pain and stress for individuals. In addition to the emotional demands made on adolescents by these relationships, they also hold the danger of early sexual activity, premarital sex, pregnancy, sexual promiscuity and sexually transmitted diseases (Gouws & Kruger: 1995:125-126).

3.8.2.4 Inter-racial relationships

Steinberg (1993: 77) states that race is not a significant consideration in the formation of cliques and friendships in the early and mid-childhood years, but like social relationships, it gains increasing importance in the adolescents' years. By mid- and late adolescence peer groups are usually established along racial lines and friendships display the same tendency even in desegregated (multicultural) cities. One of the main reasons for this is probably that members of different races do not gain sufficient opportunity for interaction in early childhood.

Nielsen (1987: 64) and Steinberg (1993:77) state that another reason that is often cited is that adolescents peer groups are usually formed in accordance with socio-economic classes and that racial segregation may therefore represent a class division. Racial division may also occur owing to the difference between groups' educational aspirations, academic achievements and attitude towards school. Yet another reason for racial division might reside in the historically and culturally determined attitudes of the groups towards each other. In many schools and communities a lack of knowledge about the insights into other cultures causes misunderstandings that limit and negatively influence inter-racial interaction.

Despite increasing opportunities for interaction between cultural groups and non-racial schools throughout the country, racial prejudice still

interferes with friendships between many White, Coloured, Indian and African youth. Even though the desegregation of schools does not guarantee inter-racial friendships, it does promise positive social outcomes for all race groups by providing the possibility of an improved attitude among all race groups towards future inter-racial contacts.

3.9 Summary

In this chapter, literature pertaining to the impact of social relations (parents, family, siblings, school (educator), community, peers and friends) on the self-actualization of the adolescent has been reviewed. In the next chapter, attention will be given to the planning of the research.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

The descriptive method of research was used to collect data with regard to the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent. According to Melville and Goddard (1996:143) and Mahlangu (1987:77), a descriptive approach is one of the approaches for gathering data and it uses a combination of different methods, namely survey, developmental studies and case studies. The survey method that includes questionnaires was used in this study.

4.2 Preparation and design of the research

4.2.1 Permission

Permission was requested from the Superintendent of Education (Management) to administer the questionnaire to grade 10 learners at secondary schools in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, which is part of the Umlazi District, in the Ethekwini Region of KwaZulu-Natal. Permission was granted. The researcher sought permission from each of the principals and made the necessary arrangements with them to administer the questionnaire to the learners. Prior to the learners completing the questionnaires, parental permission was sought highlighting the confidentiality of the content of their responses (cf. annexure D).

4.2.2 Sampling

Vockell and Asher (1995:170) refer to sampling as a strategy used to enable researchers to pick a group and use it as a basis for making inferences about the population, in order to come to a generalisation

based on the responses to the sample. Therefore, in this study, the researcher chose random sampling as a sampling strategy.

4.2.3 Selection of respondents

For the purposes of the research, the researcher has identified grade 10 learners in secondary schools for the sample population. The researcher selected the Amanzimtoti Ward which has approximately 1 000 school learners in this grade, for the sample. Twenty percent of approximately 1000 is 200. Thus 200 learners formed the sample and answered the questionnaire.

Each secondary school in the Amanzimtoti Ward was given a number. This number was written on a piece of paper together with the number of learners that are based at that school. Each of these pieces of paper was folded and placed in a container. The contents were shuffled and the researcher took out the pieces of paper one by one, recording the number of the school and the number of learners that would form the sample. The process continued until 200 respondents were obtained.

4.3 The research instrument

4.3.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire (cf. appendix C) was used to obtain data on the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent. According to Vockell (as cited by Nxumalo, 1996:28), a questionnaire is a data collection instrument other than achievement or ability test on which respondents directly supply their own answers to a set of questions. Leedy (1992:135) states that a questionnaire is a commonplace instrument for observing data that sometimes lay buried deep within the minds, or within the attitudes, feelings or reactions of men and women.

A questionnaire is defined by Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:504) as a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics given to a group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration.

4.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:198) state that the researcher should consult and seek advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction of the questionnaire. An important objective in the construction of the questionnaire was to present the questions in a simple and uncomplicated manner, thus making them user friendly to the sample. All questions were presented in the medium of English.

Good (1959:198) and Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:422-424) suggest the following criteria for constructing questionnaires:

- Construct the instrument in such a way that it reflects quality.
- It must be short enough so as not to take too much time so that the respondents will reject it completely.
- The questionnaire should obtain some depth to the response in order to avoid superficial replies.
- Make sure that the respondents have the information necessary to answer the question.
- The ideal questionnaire must not be too suggestive or too unstimulating, particularly with reference to choices.
- Phrase questionnaire items so that every respondent can understand them.
- It must be of sufficient interest and have enough face appeal so that the respondent will be inclined to complete it.
- The questionnaire should elicit responses that are defined but not

mechanically forced.

- Questions must be asked in such a way that the responses will not be embarrassing to the individual. Avoid questionnaire items that might be misleading because of unstated assumptions.
- Make sure that the alternatives to each questionnaire item are exhaustive, that is, express all the possible alternatives on the issue.
- Questions must be put in such a manner as to allay suspicion on the part of the respondent concerning hidden purposes in the questionnaire.
- The questionnaire must not be too narrow, restrictive, or limited in its scope or philosophy.
- The responses to the questionnaire must be valid, and the entire body of data taken as a whole must answer the basic question for which the questionnaire was designed.
- Avoid 'double barrelled' questions that attempt to ask two questions in one.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

Section one dealt with the biographical information of the respondents and consisted of questions 1.1 to 1.5.

Section two dealt with the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent and consisted of questions 2.1 to 2.35.

Section three dealt with open-ended questions and consisted of questions 3.1 and 3.2.

The respondents were requested to indicate their responses in one of five

ways: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree.

4.3.3. Characteristics of a good questionnaire

The following can be considered as characteristics of a good questionnaire (Mahlangu, 1987:84-85; Norval, 1988:60; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:60):

- It has to deal with a significant topic, which the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his time on.
- It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.
- Each question deals with a single concept and should be worded as simply and as straightforwardly as possible.
- Different categories should provide an opportunity for each, accurate and unambiguous responses.
- Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses.
- Data obtained from questionnaires should be easy to tabulate and interpret.
- Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses.

4.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the written questionnaire

The researcher will elaborate on the advantages and disadvantages of the written questionnaire.

4.3.4.1 Advantages of the written questionnaire

According to Mahlangu (1987:96), the questionnaire is one of the most common methods of gathering data. It is also timesaving and conducive to reliable results.

The questionnaire as a research instrument has the following advantages (Mahlangu, 1987:94-95; Cohen & Manion, 1994:111-112; Gillham, 2000:5-8):

- Affordability is a primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of collecting data.
- Written questionnaires preclude possible interviewer bias.
- A questionnaire permits anonymity. If it were arranged such that responses are given anonymously, the researcher's chances of receiving responses that genuinely represents a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions would increase.
- A respondent may answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature more willingly and frankly on a questionnaire than in a face-to-face situation with an interviewer who may be a complete stranger.
- It permits a respondent sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.
- Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.
- Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously, i.e. a large sample of a target population can be reached.
- Questionnaires offer greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews since each person responds to exactly the same questions.
- Using a questionnaire solves the problem of non-contact when the respondent is not at home.
- Through the use of the questionnaire approach, the problems related to interviews may be avoided.
- Questionnaire design is relatively easy if the set of guidelines are followed.

- The administering of questionnaires and the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.
- Data that is provided by questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.
- Questionnaires can elicit information, which cannot be obtained from other sources. This renders empirical research possible in different educational disciplines.

4.3.4.2 Disadvantages of the written questionnaire

Some of the disadvantages of the written questionnaires are as follows (Mahlangu, 1987:84-85; Kidder & Judd, 1986:223-224; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:190; Gillham, 2000:9-14):

- Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. If respondents interpret questions differently, the validity of the information obtained is jeopardised.
- People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.
- Questions can only be answered when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.
- Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have.
- Researchers are unable to control the context of question answering, and specifically, the presence of other people. Respondents may request friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent's own private opinions are desired.

- A typically low response rate is noted unless the sample is captive. This depends partially on whether the respondents know the researcher personally or whether the questionnaire is seen as interesting and worthwhile to complete and the amount of time and trouble that has to be spent to complete and return it. Impersonal questionnaires can attract a response rate of below 50%. A captive group such as students in a lecture hall or staff in a classroom can mean a response rate of 100%.
- Respondents are uncertain as to what happens to data. Questionnaires commonly do not explain why the information is being collected and what use it will be put to. It could have a major effect on whether or not someone completes the questionnaire.

In this study some of the disadvantages of the mail questionnaire will be eliminated since the researcher will be present when respondents are answering the questions.

4.3.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

According to Huysamen (1989:1-3), there are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in research, namely validity and reliability.

4.3.5.1 Validity of the questionnaire

Schumacher and McMillan (1983:223-226) define validity as a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for the specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores generated. Hence, the researcher has to provide adequate evidence to verify that validity exists.

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:237) and

Winberg (1997:42), there are three types of validity:

- Content validity: where content and cognitive processes can be measured. Topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn.
- Criterion validity: refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable believed to measure directly the behaviour or characteristics in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.
- Construct validity: pertaining to the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct, for example, intelligence, reasoning, ability and attitudes.

Schnetler (as cited by Heeralal, 2002:66) states that a valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some 'real' ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify and characterise. Furthermore, Winberg (1997:45) proposes that if the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield the same results. The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument's results, other than the ones the researcher wants to make, can be ruled out.

In view of the literature on validity, the researcher is positive that the questionnaire has measured to a large degree that which it was designed to measure.

4.3.5.2 Reliability of the questionnaire

Schumacher and McMillan (1983:227) refer to reliability as the consistency of measurement and the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument on occasions of data collection.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:194) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

- Test-retest reliability is consistently estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument. This gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion and on another occasion.
- Internal consistency reliability: This indicates how well the test items measure the same things.
- Split-half reliability: The split-half reliability can be calculated by correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same instrument.

For the purposes of this study the internal consistency reliability was used.

There are sources of error that affect reliability and according to Mulder (1989:208) these include:

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.
- Variations on the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instructions.

- Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, change differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.
- Random effect by the respondents who guess or check attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

The researcher believes that the respondents were honest and sincere in responding to the questionnaire, hence maximising possible reliability. Frankness in responding to the questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire.

4.4 Pilot study

A pilot study is a mini version of a research study, where similar subjects are used as in the final survey. The questionnaire was pre-tested by using a sample of twenty (20) respondents, consisting of learners from another Ward and District.

The test was conducted under research conditions similar to that of the real research. This exercise was used to determine how the design of questionnaire can be improved and to identify possible flaws in the measuring instrument. No quantitative analysis was carried out.

The respondents were requested to make comments and suggestions about specific items in the questionnaire. The feedback from the respondents and observations made by the researcher, were considered when the final questionnaire was compiled.

4.4.1 Advantages of a pilot study

According to De Vaux (1990:105), some advantages of a pilot study are:

- It permits a thorough check of the planned statistical and

analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating data.

- It provides the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. Such ideas and clues greatly increase the chances of obtaining clear-cut findings in the main study.

In view of the advantages of a pilot study, there is a need to determine the purpose of a pilot study.

4.4.2 Purpose of the pilot study

The pilot study provided the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study. It helped in devising the actual wording of questions. It also helped to simplify questions. It permitted a thorough check of planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of the adequacy in treating data.

Further it reduced the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study. The approximate time required to complete the questionnaire was established. It also reduced on time and finance pertaining to aspects of the research, which could have been unnecessary. Questions and/or instructions that were misinterpreted or misunderstood were reformulated. Feedback from other people involved was possible. Alternate measures were selected.

Through the utilisation of the pilot study as "pre-test" the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied adequately with the requirements of the study.

4.5 Administration of the questionnaire

The researcher delivered the questionnaires to the selected schools in the Amanzimtoti Ward based on prior arrangements with the principals of the selected schools. The researcher visited the schools at the appointed time. The respondents in each school were seated in a classroom. The researcher explained to the respondents what was required of them. The respondents left the venue once they had completed the questionnaire. A 100% return rate was obtained.

4.6 Data analysis techniques

The collected data was captured in a format, which would allow analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by learners. The coded data was subsequently transferred to a computer spreadsheet using the Quattro Pro 4.0 statistics computer programme. Data was converted into frequency tables to analyse the findings by means of descriptive statistics.

4.6.1 The descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics, according to Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:355), serve to describe and summarise observations. Frequency tables are useful in forming impressions about the distribution of data.

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:65-68), frequency distribution is a method to organise data obtained from questionnaires to simplify statistical analysis. A frequency table provides the following information: it indicates how many times a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires and it provides percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

The researcher used the descriptive statistics method to summarise data and to interpret the results.

4.6.2 Inferential statistics

According to Schumacher and Meillon (1993:192), inferential statistics are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn. Dane (1990:237-238) summarises inferential statistics as estimates, based on a given sample, of qualities or quantities existing in a larger group of individuals.

According to De Vos (ed.) (2001:116), there are two criteria for good hypothesis statements:

- Hypotheses are statements about the relations between variables.
- Hypotheses carry clear implications for testing the stated relations.

These criteria mean that hypothesis statements contain two or more variables that are measurable or potentially measurable and that they specify how the variables are related. A hypothesis is seen as one of the most powerful tools to achieve dependable knowledge.

Even when Y does not co-vary with X, knowledge is advanced. Negative findings are sometimes as important as positive ones, because they encourage further investigation.

Kidder and Judd (1996:263) state that the logic of statistical inference starts with what is called a null hypothesis, a hypothesis that specifies what the researcher hopes is not true in the population. In analyzing the sample data the researcher hopes to conclude that the null hypothesis could be rejected as false. Calculations in inferential statistics are used

to make inferences and not simply to describe the data collected from the sample.

For the purposes of this study the Chi-square statistical test of significance was used.

4.6.3 Analysis of data

The questionnaire (cf. appendix C) was designed to obtain the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent. To determine the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire was subdivided into three sections:

Section 1 requires biographical information about learners.

Section 2 gathered information regarding the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of adolescents.

Section 3 comprises of open-ended questions.

4.7 Summary

This chapter included the research design as well as the research instrument. The questionnaire as the research instrument, was dealt with in detail. The pilot study, administration of the questionnaire and the limitations of the study were also discussed.

The data that was collected from learners will be analysed and interpreted in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of data that was collected by means of the questionnaires completed by grade 10 adolescents in the Amanzimtoti Ward, Umbumbulu Circuit, Umlazi District in the Ethekwini Region of KwaZulu Natal. The data that was obtained from this research procedure was analysed as follows:

The analysis of the questionnaire data involved coding the 200 questionnaires received and subsequently transferring the coded data onto a computer spreadsheet. The data was subjected to computerized statistical analysis in order to test statistically the relationship between the specific variables in 4.3.

Statistical differences were determined by means of the chi- squared test of significance.

5.2 Descriptive statistics

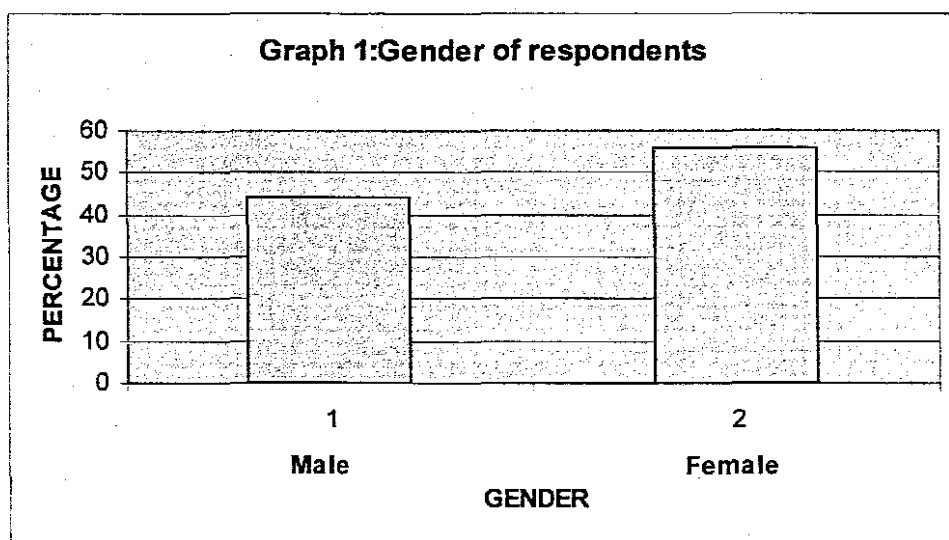
5.2.1 Biographical data

The items on biographical information in the questionnaire included gender of learners, age, race, religion and with whom they are living.

5.2.1.1 Gender

Table 2- Frequency distribution according to gender

Gender	%	Frequency
Male	44	88
Female	56	112
Total	100	200



According to Table 2, more females completed the questionnaire. Of the two hundred respondents who participated in the research, one hundred and twelve (56%) were females. There were eighty eight (44%) male respondents.

5.2.1.2 Age of respondents

Table 3 - Frequency distribution according to the age (completed years)

Age	%	Frequency
15	32	64
16	57	114
17	11	22
Total	100	200

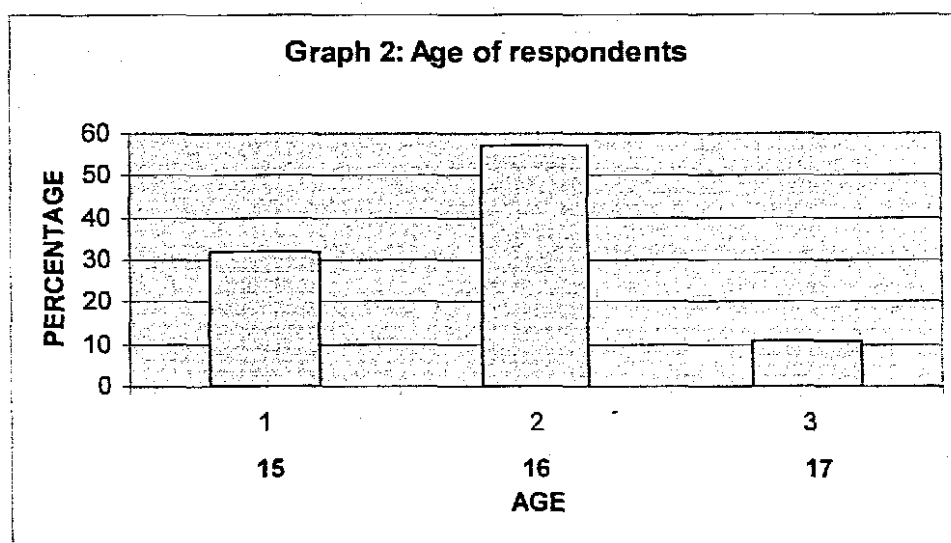
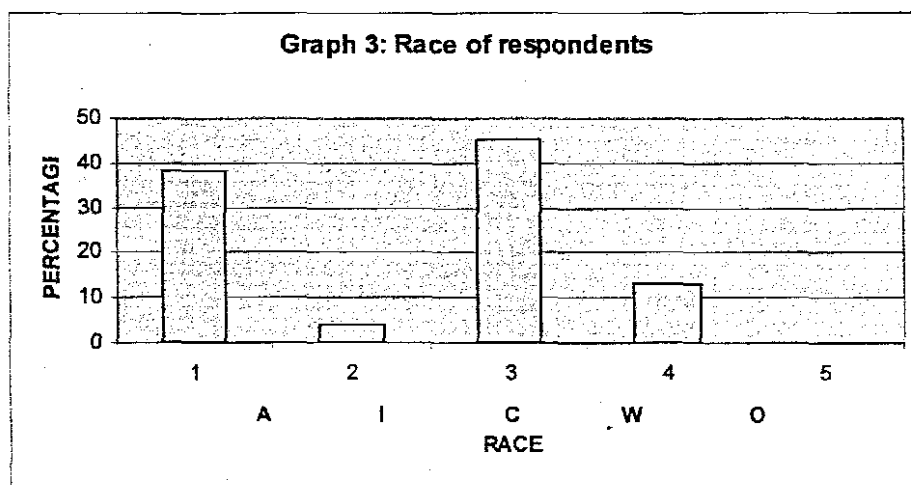


Table 3 indicates that most of the respondents, one hundred and fourteen (57%) are 16 years old. There were sixty four (32%) of the respondents that were 15 years old. Only twenty two (11%) of the total respondents are 17 years old.

5.2.1.3 Race of respondents

Table 4 - Frequency distribution according to race

Race	%	Frequency
African (A)	38	76
Coloured (C)	4	8
Indian (I)	45	90
White (W)	13	26
Other (O)	0	0
Total	100	200



Of the two hundred respondents, seventy six (38%) are African, only eight (4%) of the respondents are Coloured. The majority of the respondents, ninety (45%) are Indians, twenty six (13%) of the respondents are Whites and there were no respondents that were classified as other.

5.2.1.4 Religion of respondents

Table 5- Frequency distribution according to religion

Religion	%	Frequency
Christian	62	124
Hindu	31	62
Islam	3	6
Other	4	8
Total	100	200

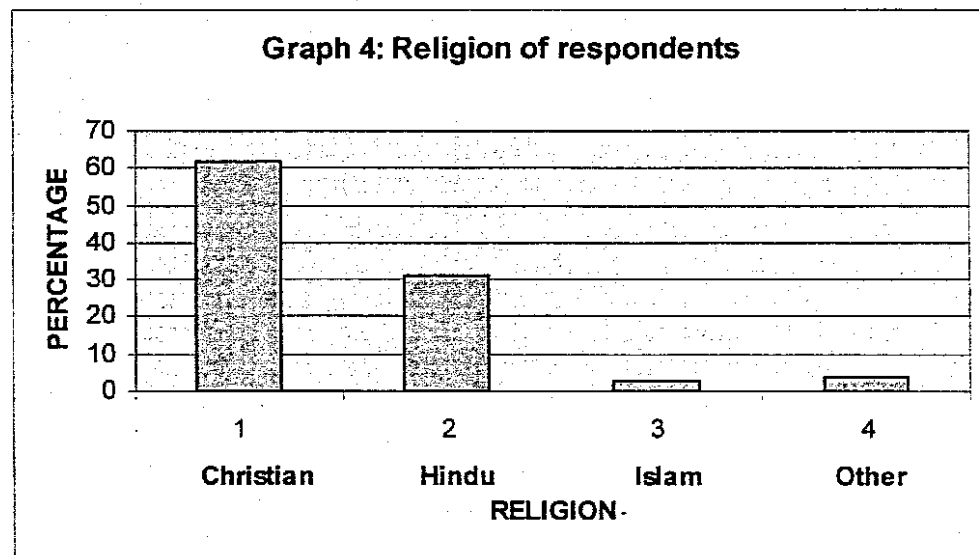


Table 5 indicates that one hundred and twenty four (62%) of the respondents are Christians. Sixty two (31%) of the respondents are Hindus. Six (3%) of the respondents follow the religion of Islam and there are four (2%) of the respondents that follow other religions such as Judaism and Buddhism.

5.2.1.5 Learners living with biological parents

Table 6- Frequency distribution according to learners living with biological parents

Living with biological parents	%	Frequency
Yes	88	176
No	12	24
Total	100	200

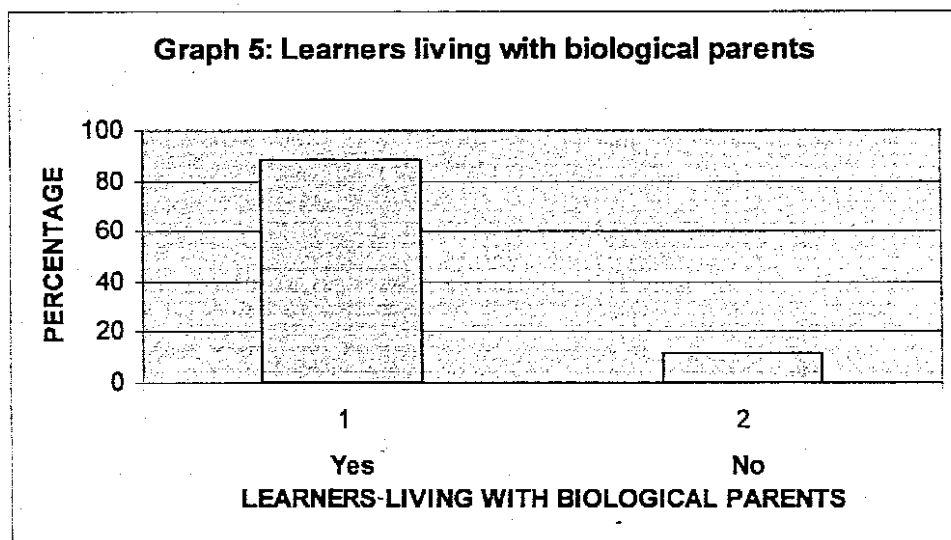


Table 6 indicates that the majority of the respondents, one hundred and seventy six (88%) live with their biological parents. Only twenty four (12%) of the respondents do not live with their biological parents.

5.2.2 Responses of adolescents with regard to the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent

The analysis of the respondents' responses on the impact of parents, family and siblings on the self-actualization of the adolescent and the discussion of these results will follow.

5.2.2.1 Impact of parents, family and siblings on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Table 7- Frequency distribution of the social impact of parents, family and siblings on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Item	Strongly Agree	%	Agree	%	Uncertain	%	Disagree	%	Strongly Disagree	%	Total	%
2.1	16	8,0	5	2,5	0	0,0	46	23,0	133	66,5	200	100
2.2	77	38,5	92	46,0	19	9,5	7	3,5	5	2,5	200	100
2.3	9	4,5	39	19,5	27	13,5	55	27,5	70	35,0	200	100
2.4	14	7,0	33	16,5	26	13,0	69	34,5	58	29,0	200	100
2.5	64	32,0	56	28,0	12	6,0	42	21,0	26	13,0	200	100
2.6	24	12,0	36	18,0	35	17,5	52	26,0	53	26,5	200	100
2.7	40	20,0	53	26,5	17	8,5	46	23,0	44	22,0	200	100
2.8	15	7,5	14	7,0	14	7,0	33	16,5	124	62,0	200	100
2.9	130	65,0	54	27,0	7	3,5	4	2,0	5	2,5	200	100
2.10	99	49,5	53	26,5	16	8,0	16	8,0	16	8,0	200	100
2.11	137	68,5	54	27,0	0	0,0	4	2,0	5	2,5	200	100
2.12	11	5,5	25	12,5	24	12,0	92	46,0	48	24,0	200	100
2.13	55	27,5	79	39,5	18	9,0	30	15,0	18	9,0	200	100
2.14	73	36,5	83	41,5	22	11,0	11	5,5	11	5,5	200	100

5.2.2.1 1 am the only child in my family (2.1)

Sixteen (8%) of the respondents strongly agree that they are the only 'child' in their family. Whilst five (2,5%) of the respondents agree that they are the only 'child' in their families. Forty six (23%) of the

respondents disagree that they are the only 'child' in their families whilst one hundred and thirty three (66,5%) strongly disagree that they are the only 'child' in the family. No respondent indicated any uncertainty (0%) concerning whether they are the only child in their family.

Children in larger families have the opportunity of having relationships with siblings. These relationships and interactions are encouraging and can give them a world of opportunities to have companionships, emotional support and assistance while they are growing up. On the other hand 'only children' in the family are sometimes portrayed as spoilt, selfish, lonely and maladjusted. However these children appear to be bright, successful, self-confident, self-reliant, resourceful and popular with other children. 'Only children' have the advantage of not having to fight for their parents' attention and may have the opportunity for more one-on-one interactions (Berk, 2000:505; Papalia & Olds, 1995:380).

Brophy (1989:54) elaborates further and states that studies have shown firstborns are more conscientious, ambitious, academically oriented, conforming, conservative, inclined toward leadership and respectful of their parents than later born siblings. Conversely, children born later in the birth order tend to be more unconventional, flexible and rebellious.

'Only children', being firstborn themselves, tend to exhibit traits more similar to those of other firstborn children. However, 'only children' seem to have better self-esteem and are higher achievers than children who have siblings (Brophy, 1989:54),

Children who have siblings must also contend with something that does not affect 'only children', namely sibling rivalry. Children who have siblings must compete for parental attention and familial resources. 'Only children' do not have to deal with this kind of competition. Not

having siblings allows for greater variance of personality types among 'only children', however, lack of siblings can have repercussions for the 'only child's' later social interactions (Koontz, 1989:38).

5.2.2.1.2 My parents have laid down practical house rules for me to follow (2.2)

Of the two hundred respondents seventy seven (38,5%) of them strongly agree with the statement that their parents have laid down practical house rules for them to follow and ninety two (46%) agree that practical house rules have been laid down by their parents for them to follow. However seven (3,5%) of the respondents disagree, whilst five (2,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree, that their parents have laid down practical house rules for them to follow. Nineteen (9,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents have laid down practical house rules for them to follow.

The respondents' overwhelming positive response to the statement is encouraging because this also reflects that there is a good rapport between adolescent and parent. Further, the channel of communication is effective where the parent attempts to see the adolescent's point of view and can possibly accede to reasonable requests. Adolescents need structure and to be exposed to what is acceptable and what is unacceptable.

Some of the practical house rules could possibly include the following: always keep your bedroom neat and tidy, do not be arrogant, offensive or label others, always be honest, do not leave items of clothing lying around and be home by not later than 9 p.m.

5.2.2.1.3 I sometimes intentionally break the rules my parents set (2.3)

Whilst nine (4,5%) of the respondents strongly agree that they sometimes intentionally break the rules their parents set just to get their attention, thirty nine (19,5%) agree with this statement. On the other hand fifty five (27,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement, whilst seventy (35%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. However, twenty seven (13,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether they sometimes intentionally break the rules their parents set just to get their attention.

The strong negative response reflects the view that the parents of most of the respondents follow a democratic parenting style where clear limits and rules are laid down. However they are prepared to listen and discuss the reasons behind imposing these limits and rules.

These parents are accepting, flexible and understanding. Further, these parents are both demanding and nurturing at the same time. Parents with this parenting style tend to experience the fewest disciplinary problems. Adolescents from such homes are generally confident, responsible and independent. These adolescents tend to have positive opinions of their parents and of their relationships with their parents. In view of this there is no need to break the rules their parents set in order to get their attention.

5.2.2.1.4 My parents take decisions for me (2.4)

Fourteen (7%) of the respondents strongly agree that their parents take decisions for them whilst thirty three (16,5%) of them agree with this statement. On the other hand sixty nine (34,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst fifty eight (29%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement their parents take decisions for

them. However twenty six (13%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents take decisions for them.

According to Seiffge-Krenke (1999:325-327) from mid-adolescence on, parents become less directive; for example, the degree of structuring family activities and monitoring the child's behaviour decreases. For the entire duration of adolescence, the entire relationship between parents and adolescents thus is characterized by the attempt to achieve a new balance between connectedness and separation.

However the authoritarian parent wants to still be in control and therefore will delegate his authority upon the adolescent by taking decisions for him.

Families should possess a moderate level of cohesion (or closeness and connectedness) and flexibility of roles and rules. Excessive orientation to norms and strict enforcement of rules may inhibit the process of adolescent separation from the parents. Thus, independence should be encouraged and communication should be clear and direct. Families who cope well with early adolescent transition are cohesive, supportive, and flexible in their approach to solving family problems.

Adolescence is a stage of development not only for a child, but for the parents, who also participate in the individuation process through the transformation of their own roles and self-understanding.

According to Seiffge-Krenke (1999:326-327), research has demonstrated the mothers' and fathers' relationships with their adolescent children differ both quantitatively and qualitatively. Mothers are more involved in daily matters and problems and communicate actively with their adolescents about a wide variety of topics. It is not surprising that

mothers' and adolescents' perceptions of family life are more similar than those of fathers and adolescents. Fathers, in contrast, are described as more distant and less involved. Early adolescents perceived their fathers to be less controlling but also less accepting of them. According to Youniss and Smollar (as cited by Seiffge-Krenke, 1999:326-328), this may be related to the separate but conjunctive functions that mothers and fathers serve in the family system.

5.2.2.1.5 My parents have spoken to me about my sexuality (2.5)

It is encouraging to note that sixty four (32%) of the respondents strongly agree that their parents have spoken to them about their sexuality. A further fifty six (28%) respondents agree with this statement. On the other hand forty two (21%) of the respondents disagree with this statement whilst twenty six (13%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Only twelve (6%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents have ever spoken to them about their sexuality.

According to Berk (2000:584), the number of grandparent rearing grandchildren has increased over the past decade. Usually the grandparents step in because of substance abuse, emotional problems or physical illness that prevents the child's parents, most often the mother, from engaging in competent child-rearing. This uncertainty and disagreement with the statement can possibly be attributed partly to the circumstances associated with the respondents not living with their biological parents. Instead some of them could be living with their maternal grandparents or with their paternal grandparents. Also adolescents who are living in child-headed households may not have been spoken to about their sexuality because there are no adults to do so.

Further, withholding factual information from adolescents in an attempt

to preserve innocence may prove to be harmful (Department of Education, 1999:70). Furthermore, according to the Community Development Project (2002:09), talking about sex can be very difficult. Some religions and cultures have stern rules against discussing sex openly and the elders still feel embarrassed to talk about sex. They do not often speak to adolescents about sexuality because they feel uncomfortable to teach their children how to protect themselves from sexual diseases as well as from the HIV germ. Regrettably this tradition is still strong and prevalent in cultures today. This silence has led to many fictitious and misleading stories about sex and HIV/AIDS.

Edward (2000:342) states that parents often do not speak to adolescents about sexuality because they feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or they do not know how to speak about it. However, Holroyd (2000:43) states that parents who have their children's best interest at heart, will try to give them an open and balanced view.

5.2.1.6 My parents frequently quarrel about trivial issues (2.6)

Only twenty four (12%) respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents frequently quarrel about trivial issues and thirty six (18%) of the respondents agree with the statement. However fifty two (26%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst fifty three (26,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree that their parents frequently quarrel about trivial issues. Thirty five (17,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents quarrel about trivial issues.

This uncertainty could be the result of the adolescent not living with the biological parents. Alternatively, the parents could be discreet when they have any quarrels thus isolating themselves from the adolescent during such altercations. There is also the assumption that the adolescents' parents do not make their disagreements so blatant such that it becomes

noticeable to the adolescent.

According to Seiffge-Krenke (1999:326-327), there is an increasing concern about the effect of marital discord on children. Emotional insecurity arising from marital conflict may negatively influence the separation process. It was expected that communication between husband and wife, along with affection, would be positively linked to the separation process of their offspring, whereas marital conflict would be negatively associated with adolescents' perception of cohesion and personal growth within the family.

David and Murphy (2004:188) state that adolescents that are exposed to frequent and sometimes intense inter-parental conflict are at risk for the development of a variety of adjustment problems. Adolescents exposed to frequent and intense inter-parental conflict are at risk for internalizing and externalizing problems, poor peer relations, heightened emotional reactivity and negative representations of family relations and interpersonal conflict. However it must be noted that it is unlikely that exposure to inter-parental conflict affects all individuals in the same manner.

Further, adolescents tend to become angry, sad or distressed in response to angry interactions and report negative social-cognitive reactions (e.g. expectations that the conflict would escalate).

Davies and Cummings (as cited by David & Murphy, 2004:188) contend that exposure to destructive inter-parental conflict (i.e. involving high emotional expression and hostility) undermines children's sense of emotional security, resulting in increases in negative emotional arousal and negative expectations about subsequent conflicts. Grych and Fincham (as cited by David & Murphy, 2004:188) hypothesize that

children's previous exposure to destructive inter-parental conflict fosters expectations of future negativity between their parents, which lead to increases in negative emotional reactions in subsequent conflicts.

Davies (as cited by David & Murphy, 2004:188) notes that sensitization to inter-parental conflict may have some adaptive value as increases in negative emotional and social-cognitive reactions to conflict may alert children to potential threats in the environment and may temporarily provide them with a limited feeling of emotional security in the context of interpersonal conflict, but any beneficial functions of sensitization are likely to be temporary as the long term effect of sensitization to conflict is an increased risk for maladjustment. Although inter-parental violence constitutes destructive inter-parental conflict it is important to note that destructive conflict can occur without violence and that destructive inter-parental conflict that is hostile and intense but does not include violence, contributes to developmental outcomes.

By late adolescence, individuals have observed numerous interactions between their parents across many years and therefore their perceptions of exposure to inter-parental conflict are likely to reflect a relatively extensive history. Further, as romantic relationships become more common, significant and mature across adolescence, conflict between couples may become increasingly salient and important. Furthermore, although family experiences can be modified by significant extra-familial relationship experiences, family influences tend to remain evident even into adulthood. Thus the effects of inter-parental conflict on the emotional and social-cognitive reactions of those who witness conflict may be particularly evident during late adolescence (David & Murphy, 2004:189). Individuals that are low in emotional functioning (i.e. high negative emotionality and low regulation) are likely to become highly aroused when they are exposed to other's negative interactions and

evaluate the events in a relatively negative manner, consequently, they may be more likely to become sensitized to conflict following inter-parental conflict exposure than highly functioning individuals, whose abilities to control and regulate their own emotions while witnessing other's conflictual exchanges may buffer them from the harmful effects of inter-parental conflict. (David & Murphy, 2004:189).

Davies and Windle (as cited by David and Murphy, 2004:189) found that maternal reports of inter-parental conflict were positively related to delinquency and depression for adolescents low in task orientation but are relatively unrelated for adolescents high in task orientation.

Another factor that plays a role in determining the impact of inter-parental conflict on development is gender. Socialization differences may lead to gender differences in reactions to inter-parental conflict. Specifically, males are socialized to be concerned with agency and their own well-being, whereas females are socialized toward a proclivity for communion and interpersonal connectedness. With the onset of adolescence, males and females become increasingly enmeshed in family problems leading to increases in awareness of the negative outcomes that accompany inter-parental hostility. In contrast, adolescent boys' increased concern with agency and their own well-being may cause them to increasingly focus on their own emotions during inter-parental conflict exposure.

Males and females react differently to exposure to angry interactions between others, although the nature of the differences has been inconsistent. Adolescent girls tend to report more anger than do males and less sadness than adolescent boys in response to inter-adult conflict, whereas late adolescent females report more sadness. Research suggests that females are likely to be more sensitive to conflict outcomes than are

males (David & Murphy, 2004:190).

5.2.2.1.7 My parents hold family meetings at home (2.7)

Forty (20%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents hold family meetings at home to resolve any conflict situations and fifty three (26,5%) of the respondents agree with this statement. On the other hand forty six (23%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst forty four (22%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Seventeen (8,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents hold family meetings at home to resolve any conflict situations.

Communication is a crucial aspect of family life, affecting the quality of relationship between spouses and the adaptation of their offspring. It has been claimed that poor communication between parents and adolescents is the basis of conflict and lack of conflict and lack of closeness in the family (Seiffge-Krenke, 1999: 326-327).

Noller and Callan (1990:350-353) states that supportive communication in the family is seen as one factor that encourages the development of social and coping skills, and more positive identities among adolescents. A more relational view of adolescence describes a family environment in which changes in communication are moderate and through negotiation, with the result that parents come to show greater respect for the opinions of growing adolescents and allow them more control. Older adolescents tend to change their relationships with parents, developing new forms of interaction involving reduced levels of conflict. They re-negotiate their status in the parent-child relationship and their gains in status and control may emerge in their perceptions about the quality of their communication with parents.

The majority of arguments between parents and adolescents are about day-to-day living and family matters: personal hygiene, disobedience, school work, social activities and friendships, chores around the house and arguments with siblings.

Further Bellafore (2006:1-3) states that conflict between people is a fact of life and it is not necessarily a bad thing. In fact a relationship with frequent conflict may be healthier than one with no observable conflict. Conflicts occur at all levels of interaction- at work, among friends, within families and between relationship partners. When conflict occurs, the relationship may be weakened or strengthened. Thus conflict is a critical event in the course of a relationship.

Conflict can cause resentment, hostility and perhaps the ending of a relationship. If it is handled well however conflict can be productive - leading to deeper understanding, mutual respect and closeness. Whether a relationship is healthy or unhealthy depends not so much on the number of conflicts between participants, but on how the conflicts are resolved.

Holding formal and informal meetings with the family members, parents can often have the desired effect in overcoming any conflicts that may exist between them. Through these meetings members of the family can freely express their concerns and reasons for any conflict that may exist and collectively possibly resolve any conflict issues.

5.2.2.1.8 My parents allow me to go to night clubs (2.8)

Only fifteen (7,5%) of the respondents strongly agree that their parents allow them to go to night clubs and seventeen (8,5%) agree with the statement. Thirty three (16,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst the majority of the respondents, one hundred and

twenty four (62%), strongly disagree with the statement. However fourteen (7%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents allow them to go to night clubs.

Going to night clubs to spend time socializing with adolescents of both sexes has become the norm in many societies. Instances exist where adolescents may seek or may not seek parental approval to go to night clubs. Night clubs generally paint a negative picture and are usually associated with the indulging of adolescents in drugs, alcohol and sex. However this is not necessarily the scenario that always exists.

Adolescents with a positive self-concept will be able to behave responsibly and display honesty, integrity and congruence when they go to such venues and not necessarily be influenced to indulge in negative activities. Further these adolescents will be able to trust in themselves to do the 'right thing' always and will also be trusted by their parents.

However, parents who resort to a permissive parenting style are usually exceedingly tolerant, non-controlling and non-threatening towards their children. They can be uninvolved in the welfare of their child. They seldom make demands on the adolescent and offer him considerable freedom because virtually no limits are set. The adolescent's behaviour, values and desires are hardly ever questioned and he is allowed to take his own decisions without taking into account the wishes, values and convictions of his parents (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:91-112).

5.2.2.1.9 My parents become very excited (2.9)

Of the two hundred respondents the majority of the respondents, one hundred and thirty (65%), strongly agree with the statement that their parents become very excited when they excel at sport or in academic work and fifty four (27%) of the respondents agree with the statement.

Only four (2%) of the respondents disagree with statement whilst six (3%) of the respondents strongly disagree. Only five (2,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents become very excited when they excel at sport or in academic work.

According to McGrath and Repetti (2000:713-716), the adolescent's opinion about his academic work is important for many reasons including self evaluations that are associated with behaviours that are critical for academic success. When adolescents view themselves as incompetent, they are more likely to avoid demanding tasks and to demonstrate a lack of persistence and independence in work habits. However adolescents beliefs that they are incompetent is not always accurate. For example some children earn very high grades on their report cards, yet they believe they are not doing well at school.

Certain psychological factors such as a negative mood may cause adolescents to distort information about their academic competence. For example adolescents who are depressed are more likely than non-depressed adolescents to evaluate their academic abilities negatively, despite the fact that there are no differences between depressed and non-depressed adolescents actual academic competence.

Another potential source of influence is the role that parents attitudes toward their children's academic performance might play in shaping children's perceptions of their academic abilities. Parents are powerful socializers of children's self perceptions. Parents are believed to exert a substantial influence on childrens' perceptions of their academic abilities. Parents perceptions of their children's competence influence parents expectations and parents reactions to their children's objective academic performance. Parents tend to communicate their competence perceptions through their level of satisfaction with their children's

performance in school. Regardless of childrens actual level of academic performance at school (i.e. for both low and high achieving children) parents satisfaction with their childrens performance in school will predict childrens self perception of academic competence (McGrath and Repetti, 2000:713-716).

Eccles (as cited by McGrath & Repetti, 2000:714) suggest that the degree of importance parents assign to their childrens academic performance may influence children's self-perceptions. For example, the children of parents who placed greater importance on achievement in mathematics had more positive self-concepts of mathematics ability. Further, children have greater confidence in their overall academic abilities when their parents place a great deal of importance on academic success.

Also children of parents who place a higher value on sporting or academic success will perceive themselves to be more sporting or academically competent, independent of their actual performance in school and, or on the sports field.

Parents hold gender differentiated attitudes toward their children's academic performance. For example, parents of sons believed advanced mathematics was more important for their child than did parents of daughters. Further, girls may accurately perceive some of their parents' gender-differentiated attitudes. Girls, compared with boys, believed that their mothers expected poorer school performance and set lower performance standards for them.

Nevertheless parents always look forward to 'showing off' their childrens performance, especially when they excel in sporting and, or academic events to other family members and friends. In this way they tend to express their joy and excitement at the fact that their child has achieved

high levels of performance in their academic and sports fields.

Adult society appears to have ruled that childrens' primary responsibility is to be successful at school. High grades, high test scores and academic honours are the indicators of success that most adults seem to trust and enjoy. Likewise, parents also celebrate athletic achievements. Parents are particularly good at affirming youngsters' accomplishments at the extreme, and parents tend to engage those kids in dialogue about what they have accomplished. However a high achiever may prefer to talk about other things. Unfortunately, for every high achiever there are numerous less celebrated, even overlooked or ignored kids (McGrath & Repetti, 2000:714).

5.2.2.1.10 My parents are my role models (2.10)

Ninety nine (49,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents are their role models and fifty three (26,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only sixteen (8%) disagree with the statement and a further 16 (8%) strongly disagree with the statement. Sixteen (8%) are uncertain as to whether their parents are their role models.

Norton (1977:95) describes modeling as an ingredient for all learning situations. At an early stage, the child may imitate not only the mother and father, but all or a selection of people they observe. Later in their development - as is also the case throughout life when the child faces models which they may imitate for purposes of survival or mere operation in situations which have been unknown to them before - they may be selective in who they imitate and for what purposes. Sometimes their parents and at other times, a friend may be a model. Hence the guiding norm is that those who wish to be effective models for children and wish to be imitated - including the parents - are those who

understand the desires of a child.

Parents who are democratic in their parenting style promote responsible and independent behaviour by being suitable models for the adolescent to identify himself with because the relationship is based on mutual respect and love.

5.2.2.1.11 I take independent decisions (2.11)

The majority of the respondents, one hundred and thirty seven (68,5%), strongly agree that they take independent decisions when it comes to their choice of clothes and toiletries and fifty four (27%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only four (2%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and a mere five (2,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. There were no respondents that indicated any uncertainty with regard to this statement.

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:92), a positive self-concept is not only important for the adolescent's mental well-being but also influences his social relationships, progress at school, performance in all areas and success. In fact, self-concept influences everything the adolescent is, tries to be or does. Few things are as important during adolescence as developing an adequate self-concept.

Numerous factors contribute to the development of a positive self-concept and high self-esteem. An important factor in determining whether or not parents have a positive effect in helping their adolescents build a healthy ego identity is the warmth, concern and interest they display towards their adolescent children. Their style of exercising authority and discipline also influences the way the adolescent experiences himself. The more parental care and interest there is, the more likely the adolescent is to have a positive self-concept thus

assisting him in taking informed independent decisions (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:92).

According to Napoli, Kilbride and Tebbs (1988:101), the following features are typical of adolescents with a positive self-concept:

- Responsibility: they can be depended on to do what they have agreed to do.
- Honesty, integrity and congruence: they are accountable for their values.
- Personal growth: they search for opportunities to grow, to learn and realize their potential and creativity.
- Positive attitude: they are optimistic about themselves, others and the world.
- Expression of feelings: they express feelings openly without feelings of rejection.
- Risk taking: they are open to new and challenging experiences.
- Acceptance of praise: they can accept compliments without negating responses.
- Trust in themselves and others: They trust in their own and other's competency.

Conversely, a negative self-concept may hold back his self-actualization.

5.2.2.1.12 My parents always disagree with me (2.12)

Only eleven (5,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents always disagree with their viewpoints and opinions and twenty five (12,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. However, ninety two (46%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst forty eight (24%) strongly disagree with the statement. Twenty four (12%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their

parents always disagree with their viewpoints and opinions.

Time spent with parents, family cohesion, and closeness decrease, even as enduring bonds continue. In early adolescence, the rate of conflict between parents and adolescents increase dramatically expressing the adolescent's constant attempts to be released from parental control and to achieve greater independence and self-reliance. Although mothers experience conflict with both adolescent sons and daughters, conflict with daughters is more common. It is, however, more characteristic for mother-daughter relationships to experience closeness. As regards parents, a stronger emotional distancing has been found between fathers and adolescents (Seiffge-Krenke, 1999:326-327)

5.2.2.1.13 My parents and I spend quality time together (2.13).

Fifty five (27,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents spend quality time together with them by going shopping and playing sport and seventy nine (39,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. However thirty (15%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and eighteen (9%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Eighteen (9%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether they spend quality time together with their parents by going shopping and playing sport.

According to Cowling (2002:1), with parents' ever-increasing busy schedules, it is so easy to lose focus on spending quality time with their adolescent children. It is important to remember that even though the adolescents are nearing adulthood, they still need parental involvement. Communication breakdown has been cited as a major cause of adolescent/ parent conflict over the years.

Mealtime was a 'must' in the past, whereas today one in four parents

report four less meals a week together as a family. Some never eat at all with the family. Mealtime can be time of re-connection for families, especially for adolescents. It can be a great time to ask questions about the child's day without interruption.

With the demand of work obligations and extra curricular activities for both adolescents and parents, it is becoming more difficult to spend mealtimes together. If this is a problem in the home, there are other ways to interact and keep connected. The adolescent will appreciate knowing that he is important enough for the parents to make time together a priority.

Here are some ways to spend quality time:

- The parents should take the child for an afternoon drive because this can be a great time to open up a conversation.
- The parent can go to a movie with their adolescent.
- They can go shopping to their favourite mall.
- They can go to a concert or sporting event together.

It is important for the parent to establish and maintain good communication with the adolescent. Parents must get into the habit of talking with their child everyday. Building a close relationship with him when he is young will make it easier for him to come to the parent when he has a problem and will help the parent become more sensitive to his mood changes. With a closer relationship to the parent, the adolescent will be less likely to develop mental health problems and to experiment with alcohol, tobacco, or illegal drugs (Cowling, 2002:1-2).

Thomason and Thames (1999:1-4) states further that strong families recognize that there are benefits and pleasures to be gained from time

and activities together. They value the family bond and make special efforts to preserve time together for family activities and interaction. By spending pleasant times together, families build a reserve of good feelings and are able to cope with personal and family crisis more effectively. Strong families are deeply committed to the family unit and to promoting the happiness and welfare of each other. Family commitment comes from an active involvement in setting and carrying out family goals. Families work to spend prime time together. They do not just take advantage of spare time to devote to the family; they actually plan for quality family time.

Furthermore, family unity encourages families to create daily routines as well as special traditions and celebrations which affirm members, connect them to their family roots, and add fun to ordinary family events. Family unity includes time that family members spend together – both quality and quantity. Family unity means maintaining family identity and togetherness and balancing family priorities with support for individual needs. Family unity produces strong family bonds and freedom for individual self expression.

What families do together does not matter as much as that they do something together that is mutually planned and enjoyable. Spontaneity, humour, wit, and fun are goals to work toward.

Family time does not come easily. Activities and overload are a sign of the times for the youth and adults. The benefits of increasing family unity are endless. It helps everyone to feel that they are important, helps build family pride, keeps the line of family communication open between family members, instills an appreciation of family, helps family members prioritize and value family time, and can foster creativity and provide a fun-filled experience.

Strong families are deeply committed to the family unit and to promoting the happiness and welfare of each other. Commitment is a vital factor in developing a strong sense of family unity.

A quality that constantly appears in strong families is a feeling that they can depend on each other in 'good' times and 'bad' times. The sense of knowing that someone is always there for the adolescent helps individuals develop a well balanced self-esteem and a sense of individual worth. This security can come from a diverse variety of family structures. Families can provide unity and support in a nuclear or extended setting. Parents, siblings, grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins are all an important part of the family structure that can provide love and support systems for the family (Thomason and Thames, 1999:1-4).

5.2.2.1.14 My parents reprimand me when I lie or cheat (2.14)

Seventy three (36,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their parents reprimand them when they lie or cheat and eighty three (41,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only eleven (5,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and eleven (5,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Twenty two (12%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their parents reprimand them when they lie or cheat.

According to Marshall (1993:39), in democratic societies there are laws. Likewise, in a house there are laws. Therefore, when an adolescent goes against the law in domestic situations 'discipline' comes into effect.

However 'discipline' does not imply physical punishment. Instead it can imply scolding, grounding, denying spending money for a period of time, given additional duties or being told about the implications pertaining to

the misdemeanour.

Children raised according to this type of parenting, are more confident and not afraid of ideas and opinions. They have good decision-making skills and also realize that their parents are fair and that they have to practice authority. This type of parenting teaches children to be more independent and allows parents to take an interest in their own lives (Thomason and Thames, 1999:1-4).

5.2.2.2 Impact of school (educator) and community on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Table 8- Frequency distribution of the impact of school (educator) and community on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Item	Strongly agree	%	Agree	%	Uncertain	%	Disagree	%	Strongly disagree	%	Total	%
2.15	72	36,0	70	35,0	17	8,5	16	8,0	25	12,5	200	100
2.16	90	45,0	91	45,5	6	3,0	7	3,5	6	3,0	200	100
2.17	49	24,5	61	30,5	39	19,5	31	15,5	20	10,0	200	100
2.18	70	35,0	76	38,0	28	14,0	13	6,5	13	6,5	200	100
2.19	98	49,0	65	32,5	15	7,5	7	3,5	15	7,5	200	100
2.20	58	29,0	99	49,5	30	15,0	9	4,5	4	2,0	200	100
2.21	28	14,0	63	31,5	38	19,0	34	17,0	37	18,5	200	100

5.2.2.2.1 I enjoy going to school (2.15)

Seventy two (36%) of the respondents strongly agree that they enjoy going to school and seventy (35%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Sixteen (8%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and twenty five (12,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Only seventeen (8,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether they enjoy going to school.

One of the best indicators of adolescents' school performance is whether they feel connected to their school. Feeling connected means that

learners have a sense that they belong and feel close to people, including peers, friends, parents, educators and other adults.

Parents make a difference. Research shows that adolescents do better in school and have more positive attitudes about it when their parents are involved in school life. Many parents become less involved with school activities as their children move from primary to secondary school. Yet adolescents clearly benefit when their parents show interest in school and school activities.

One of the most important types of parent involvement is communication with educators and other school officials. Just knowing educators names and learning areas is an important first step for parents. Building a partnership between educators and the school helps adolescents see parents working with educators, not against them.

Parenting that keep youth involved in their school and community and helps youth see themselves in the future contributes to the development of youth assets. Assets are factors that help promote positive outcomes and that help protect an adolescent from engaging in risky behaviors. The assets include parental support, school engagement and support, family communication, helping others, and self-esteem.

Generally adolescents with more assets have better school success, are more positive, have good mental health, higher self-esteem, a decrease in delinquency, and greater peer acceptance.

The school is a mini society that is buzzing with activity from 7:45 to about 16:00 from Monday to Friday. Learners are actively engaged in a series of activities including classwork and extra curricular activities such as drama, debating, soccer, netball, tennis and volleyball. The

learner gets actively involved with the intention of achieving as much as possible every day.

If the educators are sincere in their vocation and want the learner to benefit, they will do everything possible to make the lessons interesting and stimulating. The learner has to be selective about the choice of peers and friends. If these people want to indulge in negative activities such as smoking on school premises, then the learner must make an informed decision not to join. The task of the Department of Education is to provide a safe and secure environment for every learner on the school premises.

With all the above in mind, a learner can enjoy going to school.

5.2.2.2.2 My educators encourage learner participation in the class (2.16).

Ninety (45%) strongly agree that their educators encourage learner participation in the class and a further ninety one (45,5%) agree with the statement. Only seven (3,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and a mere six (3%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Six (3%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their educators encourage learner participation in the class.

Gunter (1990:126) asserts that the educator-learner relationship is a relationship of authority. A good leader, and, similarly, a good educator, will always exercise his authority in the interest of the learner. Likewise, he will expect his authority to be respected and obeyed by the learner. Without the exercise of authority (discipline) by the educator and its acceptance by the learner, effective and educative teaching cannot occur. It must be noted that the exercising of authority is the educator's second teaching and educational means after instruction (i.e. imparting

of knowledge) and is equally important for attaining the goal to which he seeks to lead his learners (Gunter, 1990:126).

Gunter (1990:126) further states that the good leader is able to create balance between his authority and the freedom of his learners. He does not dominate them but leads them. Hence, the learners have much freedom in the form of opportunity at every stage of their development to adulthood. He exercises his authority with sympathy, tact, fairness and justice in the interest of the learner's progress towards self-discipline and self-reliance.

The discipline of the good leader is one of strict but sympathetic, wise and meaningful authoritative control and guidance. This is for the sake of the learner's progress on the way to adulthood that is worthy of a human being. Self-discipline is an essential characteristic of this progress.

In order to substantiate and further endorse the above. Sonn (1999:11-12) states that the qualities of a good educator are as follows:

- empowers the learners;
- encourages participation;
- creates opportunities for learning;
- has knowledge of the learners' background;
- has insight into the connection between home and school;
- is sensitive to difficulties that young people encounter whether educational, social, or emotional;
- develops self-confidence of learners;
- makes sacrifices;
- intervenes on behalf of learners when necessary;
- welcomes challenges;

- is a source of encouragement;
- builds healthy relationships;
- is able to confront problems and resolve them effectively;
- is a good listener;
- is a good mediator;
- thinks critically and encourages critical thinking in learners; and
- has a pleasant sense of humour.

It must be noted, however, that this list reflects only some of the many qualities of a good educator.

Change is taking place in terms of the teaching approach and methodology. Dialogue facilitates understanding between both the learner and the educator. Freedom of speech and expression in schools mean having the skills and the resources to express oneself to be oneself within the accepted norms of not violating other's basic rights in the process (Asmal, 2001:4).

This kind of expression of oneself would facilitate the constructive exchange of opinions to the benefit of the learner if educators encourage participative decision-making. Educators should understand that if learners feel no connection to anything, their dislocation is a measure of the education, not the learners. If they acknowledge the humanity of others, then they shall acknowledge their own humanity. This is called cooperative learning in the classroom as a human rights culture. Educators should understand that democracy has brought with it a greater emphasis on values, attitude, skills and knowledge needed by people to be able to function as part of a group, community or society. Educators who do not encourage participative decision-making are violating the Bill of Rights as enshrined in chapter 2 of the Constitution

Act, No. 108 of 1996 (Dlamini, 2003:115).

Further the educator that allows dialogue in the class can hear his learners and can understand them. Dialogue is not only important to promote democratic values in schools but there is also a need to create and defend spaces for safe expression and defined dialogue. Dialogue between the educator and learner helps to understand differences. Whilst there can be many things in our past and present which may cause disagreement, we must promote a healthy dialogue (Asmal, 2001:6).

Educators that promote dialogue can teach their learners so that they have freedom of expression and freedom of speech, but these freedoms come with responsibilities. Pedagogic relationships can be harmed if there is no communication, no teamwork, therefore no productivity (Dlamini, 2003:114).

5.2.2.2.3 My school provides supportive programs on drug and HIV/AIDS education (2.17)

Forty nine (24,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their school provides supportive programs on drug and HIV/AIDS education and sixty one (30,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Thirty one (15,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement whilst twenty (10%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Thirty nine (19,5%) of the respondents indicated that they are uncertain as to whether their school provides supportive programs on drug and HIV/AIDS education.

In keeping with the National Departments of Education and Health, supportive programs on drug and HIV/AIDS education are part of the life skills programs in schools from primary to secondary levels.

HIV/AIDS education for adolescents in the secondary school phase is similar to adult education. It is however important to remember that adolescents respond better to messages that emphasise their rights rather than their responsibilities. Adolescents must be assured that it is their right to have information and it is also their right to protect themselves. The right to information and protection indirectly implies responsibility.

Davidson (as cited by van Dyk, 2004:191-192) offers the following guidelines for HIV/AIDS education and programs in the secondary school phase:

- Revise the information given in the junior secondary school phase, and make sure that adolescents have correct information, the definition of AIDS, the effect of the virus on the immune system, the transmission of HIV, the symptoms, the management of infection and testing.
- Reinforce the knowledge that adolescents can prevent HIV/AIDS by abstaining from or postponing sex, by having sexual relations within the context of a mutually faithful relationship with an uninfected partner, by always using latex condoms (even in combination with other control methods), by not using drugs, and by never sharing needles or syringes.
- While we should make HIV/AIDS issues as real and vivid as possible, we should try not to frighten learners. Movies about HIV infected people or classroom visits from people with HIV infection often help students to overcome their denial of the disease and give HIV/AIDS a human face.
- The focus must be on healthy behaviours rather than on the medical aspects of the disease.
- Help adolescents to examine and affirm their values.

- The ability to plan ahead is often a powerful deterrent to unsafe behaviour. Adolescents who have future plans (e.g. to study, to have a career, to have children) are often less inclined to engage in high-risk behaviour, especially young women when they know what devastating effects HIV can have on babies.
- Students should rehearse making responsible decisions about sex, and powerful and definite responses to risky situations.
- Students should know they have a right to abstain from sexual intercourse or to postpone becoming sexually active. They should be helped to develop the skills they need to assert those rights.
- It must not be assumed that all learners will choose abstinence.
- Information about HIV/AIDS should be presented in the context of other sexually transmitted diseases.
- It is important to be honest and to provide information in a straight forward manner. Be explicit. Use clear simple words. Explain in detail. Use examples.
- Sexual vocabulary can be expanded to include the slang expressions or words used by adolescents if that helps to get the message across more effectively.
- It is important to be non-threatening and to work in such a manner that one alleviates (rather than creates) anxiety.
- Learners should be given the opportunity to ask questions anonymously. Learners usually enjoy the idea of a 'question basket' very much.
- Discussion of dating relationships can provide opportunities and pretexts for teaching decision-making skills.
- Teaching about HIV/AIDS can often be effectively enhanced by movies and other visual aids, role play and other participatory exercises, same-sex groupings (to encourage more candid discussions) followed by sharing in a mixed sex group (to increase

comfort level in discussing sexual subjects of the opposite sex) and involvement of learners in planning and teaching- let young people speak the message to each other.

- The use of adolescent models and peer educators should never be underestimated. Adolescents learn best when they learn from their peers.
- HIV/AIDS education should also include discussions of critical social issues raised by the epidemic, such as protecting the public health without endangering individual rights, orphan care etc.
- Teachers should have resources to help learners to find answers to detailed medical questions.
- Learners should be taught the kind of research skills that will enable them to continue to evaluate the HIV/AIDS crisis.
- Learners should know where to go for help if they need it and they should be taught how to access medical services if they need them.

Pies (as cited by van Dyk, 2004:193) states that adolescents need a supportive environment in which to practise their decision-making and communication skills. It is not enough to teach young people to just say 'no' to drugs or sex. Young people should be provided with learning opportunities to practise effective and successful behaviours for living healthy lives.

According to Edwards and Louw (as cited by van Dyk, 2004:193), different methods can be used for instilling the necessary knowledge, attitudes, values and skills:

- Graphic activities: the use of puzzles, games, collages, illustrations, cartoons, maps, charts, photographs, posters, transparencies and with commentary on videos and slides.
- Oral activities: panel discussions, short plays, role playing,

dialogues, debates, reports, songs, talks and interviews.

- Written activities: essays, articles, letters, mock press releases, TV programme reviews, songs, plays, diary entries, poems, interviews and dialogues.
- Audio-visual activities: slides with commentary, stories on tape, pictures or photographs.

The school has a very important role to play in empowering adolescents with the necessary knowledge, attitudes, values and lifeskills to protect themselves against HIV infection and AIDS. The responsibility for protecting our adolescents should however not be placed on the shoulders of schools alone. There are many children, such as school dropouts, orphans and street children, who cannot be reached by the formal educational system. HIV/AIDS prevention and lifeskills training programmes should also be presented by organisations such as churches, civic organisations, youth groups, and by individual volunteers, so that children who do not attend schools can also be reached.

5.2.2.2.4 My educator accepts me as a unique individual (2.18)

Seventy (35%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their educator accepts them as a unique individual and seventy six (38%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only thirteen (6,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and thirteen (6,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Twenty eight (14%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their educator accepts them as a unique individual.

It is reassuring that the majority of the respondents responded positively towards this statement. It is important to note that the

pedagogic relationship of trust is a backbone of a successful culture of teaching and learning.

Adolescents are individuals with unique personalities and special interests, likes and dislikes. If the educator accepts the learner as a unique individual then the learner will be encouraged to develop a healthy self-concept and the educator will gain the learners' confidence and cooperation, hence, trust.

The learner must sense an unconditional acceptance of himself as a person who needs guidance from his educator and whose presence provides a feeling to the learner of being safeguarded and accompanied by peacefulness. The educator, who reveals to the learner his willingness to associate with him and to care for him as someone in need, will strengthen the learner's trust in an educative association with him (Dlamini, 2003:10).

5.2.2.2.5 Learners are rewarded with prizes (2.19)

The majority of the respondents, ninety eight (49%), strongly agree that learners are rewarded with prizes when they excel in academic work and on the sports field and sixty five (32,5%) respondents agree with the statement. Only seven (3,5%) respondents disagree with the statement and fifteen (7,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Fifteen (7,5%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether learners are rewarded with prizes when they excel in academic work or on the sports field.

Most schools have an annual awards function either at the end of the academic year or at the beginning of the new year to highlight the achievements of learners in both the academic field as well as the sporting field. Learners are awarded either certificates of achievement or

figurines or books to highlight their success in a particular field of endeavour. This can serve to stimulate other learners to improve on their personal performances. At the same time this can have a negative impact on others who feel they cannot achieve these kinds of results no matter how hard they try. Inevitably, this can lead to learners dropping out of the schooling system.

5.2.2.2.6 My educators set high academic standards for the learners (2.20)

Fifty eight (29%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their educators set high academic standards for the learners and ninety nine (49,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only nine (4,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and four (2%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Thirty (15%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their educators set high academic standards for the learners.

Kay, Mednick and Leeds (2005:16-22) state that all learners can only meet high academic standards if schools provide extra support and tutoring to those who need it. Educators should know their learners well, and monitor them closely. When learners are behind, or begin to fall behind, it is the school's responsibility to identify these learners and provide them with extra services.

Secondary schools can take steps to help avoid dropouts by deliberately creating transition programs to serve low achieving learners. Summer school, and catch-up courses in reading and mathematics are often necessary to brace learners for the demands of secondary school. Unless learner performance improves, many learners will continue to struggle during secondary school. If secondary school educators focus on these learners, they can succeed.

Appropriate instructional methods are also critical in reaching secondary school learners. One effective approach is teaming, in which a small group of educators share a group of learners and schedule and coordinate their planning instruction, and assessment across content areas. The team has common planning time, allowing them to confer about learner needs and curriculum. This team approach gives learners the opportunity to individualize and personalize instruction, make connections across disciplines, and improve peer and educator-learner relationships. Interdisciplinary team teaching can help improve achievement results, particularly when educators invest in working together (Kay, Mednick and Leeds, 2005:16-22).

Another innovation that can help improve the achievement is block scheduling, which moves away from the traditional nine-period day toward days made up of fewer, but longer, periods. True flexible schedules consist of long blocks-60 to 90 minutes- that allows educators to spend as much time as they need on a given lesson and gives educators more time to establish relationships, emphasize critical thinking skills, and do interdisciplinary work. This approach is less common because it is difficult to implement in large overcrowded schools. Fixed block scheduling- longer blocks of time that end at fixed times- is used more often. Both strategies provide longer time periods for instruction and more opportunities for educators to connect with their learners and engage all of them in meaningful in-depth projects.

Another opportunity for learners to make connections occurs when schools implement learner advisory systems. In advisories, an educator meets regularly with a small group of learners to provide consistent guidance, mentoring and support. Especially in larger schools, this is a time when an adult can connect with individual learners on a more

personal level. Principals in schools with advisors expect lower dropout rates than those that have not put such programs in place.

Reform decisions are best when they are data driven. Analysing data that tracks yearly academic gains for individual learners in every content area can be used to determine what is working, who needs more attention and support and what requires change. Schools use data to determine a learner's entry point and then to adjust instruction according to that learner's needs. Ongoing data collection and analysis helps schools measure progress to assess how instructional strategies are working. Knowing the status of each learner helps schools support those who need it and maintain high expectations for all. Schools can also use data to evaluate previous changes and to make adjustments for the future.

Data driven decision making creates an ongoing cycle of inquiry in which change instigates examination which brings up new questions which lead to additional change. It also gives educators specific roles in the leadership process and helps spread power. Educators discover that using data provides a clear picture of what their school needs and how to make effective change. A team might use learning data to investigate the impact of new teaching strategies or a school leadership team might examine their test results to identify areas of strength and weakness in their instructional practice. Reflecting on data inspires educators to change other practices and encourage them to look more carefully at learner performance (Kay, Mednick and Leeds, 2005:16-22).

According to Kay, Mednick and Leeds (2005:16-22), research also shows a link between secondary school learner success and family involvement. Young adolescents benefit from supportive families as they are developing and transitioning to new schools. Families can also help schools efforts to maintain and communicate high expectations for all

learners. However direct family involvement declines when learners reach secondary school. Lack of direct family involvement during the secondary school years- such as helping with homework and discussing school events- is most likely associated with low academic achievement and behavioural problems. While family involvement alone does not necessarily produce academic success, its absence could increase the risk of problems in school. To increase the support families can provide, schools must communicate their goals and practices to families and, in turn, help make it easier for parents to communicate with their children and their school. Parents must sign a contract pledging their commitment to the school and their children at home, attend conferences, and communicate with the school on a regular basis. The school has a number of systems that help to assess the connections and support for families so that learners are provided a comprehensive web of support between the family and school.

Kay, Mednick and Leeds (2005:16-22), asserts that, at least in mathematics and science, learners do better when educators have undergraduate or postgraduate degrees in their subject area. These faculty members use their deep content knowledge to teach their learners using strategies that lead to high performance. Educators who have an academic major are more likely to ask learners to write explanations about their learning, to use essay tests more frequently, and to require research investigations and an interpretation on findings.

In addition to a lack of content area expertise, most secondary school educators may not have been trained in developmentally appropriate practices. Further it is important for educators of young adolescents to get specialized training in teaching that age group.

Ongoing professional development can address a lack of pre-service

training in both areas. Schools should focus professional development on specific content areas, target educators who need more excessive work on content (for example, algebra), and give educators financial incentives for attending extra training. Secondary school educators need professional development that targets the social emotional needs of adolescents. Educators should know their learners well and know how to support them emotionally. While learners of all ages need to feel that their educator is someone who cares for them, someone who they can trust, this is especially true in the early teen years.

If one has to see learner achievement rise, ongoing targeted professional development must be a priority. Professional development in the secondary school is a significant predictor of improvement in academic achievement in that phase.

Professional development must therefore be a funding priority at the school, Ward, District, Region and Provincial offices and educators should be provided with incentives to participate in those opportunities. However, not all professional development requires more funds. Sometimes educators learn most from each other. Purposefully teach faculties how to use the expertise of their next door neighbour and how to create professional learning communities. Schools in the country have started structured and facilitated peer observation through the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) .

Colleagues can set up formalized, internal laboratory classrooms in which several educators observe a colleague together using a specific protocol designed to ensure educators get the most learning out of the experience. It is for educators by educators. It is making a difference in the way one looks at oneself as educators. While one formal or informal observation might not bring about a complete change, a commitment to

the process can bring about small improvements over time. Deliberate professional development for all secondary school educators is the key to seeing positive results.

Raising expectations of educators and learners, providing extra help, offering an advisor/advisee program, and offering professional development to help educators change what and how they teach will lead to the desired expectations.

The focus on professional development, a culture of high expectations, data driven decision making, and peer advisement structure has, can and will help learners succeed.

Schools should create structures to support learner success and engagement:

- Provide choice: the province and state should encourage development of a variety of high quality secondary school age education options that include different grade configurations and school designs to meet family and learner interest.
- Create small learning communities: learners should feel they know and are known by their educators and peers.

Therefore by putting these mechanisms in place, educators can set high academic standards thus preparing the adolescent for the future.

5.2.2.2.7 My community provides recreational facilities for us (2.21)

Twenty eight (14%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their community provides recreational facilities for them and sixty three (32,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Thirty four (17%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and forty (20%) of

the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. However thirty eight (19%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their community provides recreational facilities for them.

The Ethekwini municipality in Durban, KwaZulu Natal has provided sportfields and sports centers in the various suburbs because they recognize that people need to lead a balanced lifestyle. However, due to an increasing demand for these facilities by an increasing population, the municipality seems unable to satisfy these needs fully. Hence the youth will look at other ways to spend their spare time such as gangsterism (vandalism), indulging in drugs or staying at home and watching more television. Further as a result of vandalism and theft, those facilities that are already in existence are defaced and badly damaged thus placing a bigger burden on the coffers of the municipality.

5.2.2.3 Impact of peers on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Table 9 Frequency distribution of the impact of peers on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Item	Strongly agree	%	Agree	%	Uncertain	%	Disagree	%	Strongly Disagree	%	Total	%
2.22	58	29,0	94	47,0	28	14,0	15	7,5	5	2,5	200	100
2.23	55	27,5	70	35,0	17	8,5	38	19,0	20	10,0	200	100
2.24	79	39,5	95	47,5	12	6,0	6	3,0	8	4,0	200	100
2.25	16	18,0	9	4,5	17	8,5	79	39,5	79	34,5	200	100
2.26	103	51,5	49	24,5	24	12,0	14	7,0	10	5,0	200	100

5.2.2.3.1 My peers make me feel very important (2.22)

Fifty eight (29%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their peers make them feel very important and ninety four (47%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Fifteen (7,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and five (2,5%) of the

respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Twenty eight (14%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their peers make them feel very important.

Taylor, Peplau and Sears (1994:20) state that conformity of group norms is often the price of acceptance and social harmony. McAdams (1990:470) states that with increased acceptance of others, the adolescent will become a self-actualizing person. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:7-8) state that if an adolescent does not experience acceptance he will feel rejected and will be hindered or prevented from reaching responsible adulthood.

5.2.2.3.2 I usually spend time with peers of the same sex (2.23)

Fifty five (27,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that they usually spend time with peers of the same sex and seventy (35%) of the respondents agree with the statement. However thirty eight (19%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and twenty (10%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Seventeen (8,5%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether they spend time with peers of the same sex.

The adolescent's needs with regard to social relations change as he develops. The peer group provides companionship. The adolescent needs people with whom he can talk, play and spend time. The adolescent now finds himself in the company of equals, namely peers of the same sex. He can meet peers on equal terms and his opinion is regarded as highly as that of any of the others. This is evident in early adolescence where there is little evidence of understanding, empathy and feeling (Gouws & Kruger, 1995:126). The relationship with peers is mainly determined by joint activities rather than by meaningful interaction.

However mid-adolescence relationships become more meaningful. During this phase he is meeting members of the opposite sex and begins to move away from spending too much or all of his time with peers of the same sex.

5.2.2.3.3 My peers encourage me to stand on my own feet (2.24)

Seventy nine (39,5%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that their peers encourage them to stand on their own feet and make independent decisions and ninety five (47,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Six (3%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and eight (4%) strongly disagree with the statement. Twelve (6%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their peers encourage them to stand on their own feet and make independent decisions.

According to Gouws and Kruger (1995:120), the peer group offers the adolescent a bridge for the gradual attainment of independence from the parents. In their groups adolescents are forced to stand on their own feet and make their own decisions. They also begin to share their thoughts and feelings more with their peers than with their parents. If they are accepted into the group they gain the security from it that they experienced earlier in the safe environment of their family life.

During the emancipation process adolescents begin to realise that they must loosen the ties with their parents and their lives as dependent children. The peer group serves as a source of feedback about his personality, appearance and behaviour. The adolescent also attains self-knowledge, self-insight and self-evaluation in the group, and by all these means the peer group contributes to the adolescent's forming of his sense of identity.

5.2.2.3.4 I am easily influenced by my peers (2.25)

Sixteen (8%) of the respondents strongly agree that they are easily influenced by their peers and nine (4,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Seventy nine (39,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement that they are easily influenced by their peers and seventy nine (39,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Seventeen (8,5%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether they are easily influenced by their peers.

Adolescents like to be popular, hence they can be strongly motivated to act in accordance with the standards set by the peer group. Laxity in sexual morals, drinking, drug taking, bunking class, fast driving, violence and vandalism can often be attributed to peer pressure. Only an adolescent with strong moral convictions can be expected to adhere to values not accepted by the peer group (Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya, 1996:154).

5.2.2.3.5 My peers and I freely discuss such issues as drugs, HIV/AIDS and sexuality (2.26)

The majority of the respondents, one hundred and three (51,5%), strongly agree with the statement that they freely discuss such issues as drugs, HIV/AIDS and sexuality with their peers and forty nine (24,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Fourteen (7%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and ten (5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Twenty four (12%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether they discuss such issues as drugs, HIV/AIDS and sexuality with their peers.

Ling and Yttri (2003:4-5) state that the strength of the peer group is enforced by the age grading of the educational system. This facilitates the learning process since the learners are generally at the same level of

maturation and development. In addition, it also reinforces the internal social dynamics of the peer group. Beyond facilitating the education of facilitating adolescents it also provides them with a context in which they are, more or less, free from adult supervision and wherein they can gain experience with the development of independent values and ideas. In addition, the peer group provides the adolescent with milieu with a fluid status structure and wherein one can attain affirmation. The peer group provides one with the opportunity to develop an independent identity and to practice in the skills of role taking and impression management. The questions of sexual behavior and its boundaries is also at least partially learned in the peer group. Thus the adolescent and the peer group are active in shaping their own socialization.

The peer group can provide one with instruction in how to orient oneself in complex 'adult' situations with aplomb and reassurance. At the same time, the peer group can demand allegiance from the individual and, perhaps mercilessly, make them aware of their shortcomings. In orienting oneself in relation to the norms and dictates of the peer group the individual exposes themselves to various tests of popularity and to a litany of specifications as to how one should dress, how they should speak, what they should consume and generally how they should maintain their façade. The critical issue here, however is that it is in this context that the individual can also assert their own influence. The adolescent can help to determine which activities are of interest, which things should be consumed and the rituals proscribing group interaction. In this context, one can see the ritual machinations of power quite transparently (Ling and Yttri, 2003:4-5).

In addition, the adolescent peer group determines their needs and wants. This year's, or even this month's fashion is out next year or next week. This year's argot is gone, seemingly in the next news cycle. The location

of this weekend's happening is quickly replaced with another.

Thus, within the peer group, one is confronted with the ideas of power or influence that are not so much based on traditional or legal-rational systems as on one's ability to manipulate symbols. The knowledge of consumption, argot, dress and the rituals of appropriate interaction are the basis of influence within the peer group. In this case, power and influence are more transitory, but at any given time, there is a group or an individual within the peer group that has a greater role in the dictation of style, activities and the general bearing of the group. It is through the application of this transitory codex that one defines one's role in the group (Ling and Yttri, 2003:4-5).

5.2.2.4 Impact of friends on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Table 10 Frequency distribution of the impact of friends on the self-actualization of the adolescent

Item	Strongly agree	%	Agree	%	Uncertain	%	Disagree	%	Strongly disagree	%	Total	%
2.27	105	52,5	68	34,0	3	1,5	17	8,9	7	3,5	200	100
2.28	54	27,0	57	28,5	11	5,5	48	24,0	30	15,0	200	100
2.29	55	27,5	39	19,5	12	6,0	52	26,0	42	21,0	200	100
2.30	142	71,0	50	25,0	2	1,0	2	1,0	4	2,0	200	100
2.31	111	55,5	68	34,0	6	3,0	8	4,0	7	3,5	200	100

5.2.2.4.1 My best friends and I share intimate secrets (2.27)

One hundred and five (52,5%) of the respondents, which constitutes the majority, strongly agree that they share intimate secrets with their best friends and sixty eight (34%) of them agree with the statement. Seventeen (8,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and seven (3,5%) of them strongly disagree with the statement. Three (1,5%) of the respondents indicated uncertainty regarding the statement.

Relationships with friends who share interests become the background for the actualisation of the adolescent's potential for and growth towards independence. Friends act as sounding boards for their opinions: their opinions are accepted or rejected. They often exchange thoughts about topics they feel cannot be discussed with parents or educators, for example, punishment, relationships with the opposite sex, living together, marriage, school problems, clothes and appearance. In the process they learn to listen, as well as to express themselves clearly and logically, so that others can grasp what they mean. This constitutes self-orientation and self-actualization (Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya, 1996:153).

5.2.2.4.2 My friends and I live in the same neighbourhood (2.28)

Fifty four (27%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that he lives in the same neighbourhood as his friends and fifty seven (28,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Forty eight (24%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and thirty (15%) strongly disagree with the statement. Eleven (5,5%) are uncertain as to whether he lives in the same neighbourhood as his friends.

It is not unusual to find that adolescents that live in the same neighbourhood attend the same school because schools are generally located in the vicinity of the communities to see to the learning needs of those living there. However, in view of a lack of schools, especially, in informal settlements, learners will travel either by public transport or on foot to the nearest schools. Further, learners may intentionally travel to a school far away from home because of the subjects being offered there, or it is a better resourced school or they may feel that the standard of classroom instruction is better than at the school closer to home.

5.2.2.4.3 My friends and I follow the same religion (2.29)

Fifty five (27,5%) of the respondents strongly agree that they follow the same religion and thirty nine (19,5%) of the respondents agree with the statement. However fifty two (26%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and forty two (21%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Only twelve (6%) of the respondents are uncertain with regard to the statement.

Ethnicity does not seem to be a significant consideration in the formation of friendships in the early- and mid childhood years because learners from all backgrounds tend to blend well. However, it gains importance in the adolescent years. Steinberg (as cited by Prinsloo, Vorster & Sibaya, 1996:158) states that friendships display the same tendencies in multicultural societies and schools. This in turn influences adolescents to join friends that follow the same religion and worshipping practices. One of the reasons for this is that members of different cultures do not gain sufficient opportunity for interaction in early childhood. Another reason is that adolescent groups are usually formed in accordance with socio-economic classes and racial segregation can lead to religious division.

5.2.2.4.4 I have male and female friends (2.30)

Of the two hundred respondents, the majority, one hundred and forty two (71%) of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that they have both male and female friends and fifty (25%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Two (1%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and four (2%) strongly disagree with the statement. Only two (1%) of the respondents are uncertain with regard to the statement.

Heterosexual relationships are important in the social development of adolescents. The nature and development of these relationships follow a

fairly similar pattern in all cultures. During puberty and early adolescence the two gender groups reach out to each other in a tentative manner. Their first effort at contact tends to be childish and clumsy. Gradually the awkward attempts change and teenagers in the mid adolescent years begin to communicate with each other in a more sophisticated manner (Prinsloo, Vorster & Sibaya, 1996:156-158). They now begin to do everything in their power to act in a calm, self-assured and collected manner and strive to be good company and at ease in the company of the opposite sex.

Further adolescents who spend time with friends from both sexes report a higher sense of self-esteem, feeling happier and feel more powerful than those who spend time alone or with one sex only. Given the rapid pace of technical development in society the adolescent cannot specifically rely on parents in order to provide them with the techniques regarding the mastery of a profession or calling. Also friendship among adolescents can be used to test the degree to which various activities seem as inappropriate, an institution in which various routines and lore, for example that regarding sexuality, can be learned and an area wherein portions of the child's social persona is developed (Ling and Yttri, 2003:4-5).

5.2.2.4.5 I have friends from different race groups (2.31)

The majority of the respondents, one hundred and eleven (55,5%), strongly agree with the statement that they have friends from different race groups. Sixty eight (34%) agree with the statement. Eight (4%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and seven (3,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Only six (3%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether they have friends from different race groups.

According to Bester and Budhal (2001:331) having people around equals success. Social isolation hinders a person's psychological well-being, adolescents who either form poor relationships or have difficulty in forming sound relationships with their friends, will inevitably suffer developmental restraints while others progress towards adulthood normally. Papalia and Olds (1993:556) state that adolescents that make friends easily, are competent and are high in self-esteem. As a result they will develop a positive self-concept. According to Rosenthal (1993:112), any child who is 'friendless' is at risk both emotionally and educationally.

5.2.2.5 Impact of social relations on self-actualization of the adolescent

Table 11 Frequency distribution on impact of social relations on self-actualization of the adolescent

Item	Strongly agree	%	Agree	%	Uncertain	%	Disagree	%	Strongly disagree	%	Total	%
2.32	162	81,0	27	13,5	7	3,5	0	0,0	4	2,0	200	100
2.33	147	73,5	42	21,0	2	1,0	3	1,5	6	3,0	200	100
2.34	145	72,5	36	18,0	12	6,0	4	2,0	3	1,5	200	100
2.35	59	29,5	60	30,0	31	15,5	19	9,5	31	15,5	200	100

5.2.2.5.1 My parents love me (2.32)

The majority of the respondents, one hundred and sixty two (81%), strongly agree with the statement that their parents love them and twenty seven (13,5%) agree with the statement. No respondents disagreed with the statement However four (2%) of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. Seven (3,5%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether their parents love them. This uncertainty could be the outcome of their parents being deceased or they do not know their parents and are presently living with someone other than

their biological parents such as foster parents, grandparents or in a child-headed household.

According to Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya (1996:151-153), adolescents who grow up in a stable and loving home have an important advantage over those who come from broken homes, homes where there is little involvement of parents with children, or homes where children are unwelcome.

Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibaya (1996:151-153) state that in the stable home the following tend to exist:

- A loving atmosphere prevails where children who are loved at home are not afraid to explore the world and develop relationships. They feel equal to the tasks they must perform in order to win the approval of others. They develop a sense of industry in school and the ability to cooperate with friends and peers.
- There is internal control where parental rejection and vindictiveness lead to a lack of control over the behaviour of the children. Adolescents who feel rejected retaliate with aggressive behaviour. Children who are loved and accepted are not willing to obey rules and regulations as set by parents, but gradually develop self-discipline and inner control because they have internalized these rules.
- Mutual understanding and trust are displayed where parents are truly interested in their children, they understand their behaviour even when it is negative. They are ready to support and discipline, they are available in times of distress and anxiety and they are willing to do things with their children. They are strict, but children are treated with respect and allowed to hold their own opinions. Such children are eager to learn and to explore

relationships.

- The children are assisted towards independence. Parents trust their children and allow them increasing autonomy; they are neither overprotective, nor overindulgent. Children are assisted wisely towards independence and the taking up of responsibility in the adult world.

5.2.2.5.2 I feel safe and secure when I am with my family (2.33)

Of the two hundred respondents, an overwhelming majority of one hundred and forty seven (73,5%) strongly agree with the statement that they feel safe and secure when they are with their family and forty two (21%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Three (1,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and six (3%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Two (1%) of the respondents are uncertain about their status with their family.

According to Moodley (2000:108), a sheltering home enables the adolescent to evaluate himself positively, hence he will develop a positive self-concept which will enhance the person's image. Rodgers (1985:222) emphasizes that the home is a reservoir of strength upon which adolescents draw to reach their physical and emotional needs. According to Du Toit and Kruger (1994:11), if an adolescent does not feel secure he will be reluctant to venture into the unknown (making new friends) and his learning will cease to progress adequately. This sense of confidence and security promotes the adolescent's readiness and willingness to explore and learn.

However Van Niekerk (1987:17) expresses the opinion that over-protection is an educational error which mothers are guilty of. An overprotected adolescent does not have sufficient opportunity to do

things himself and to battle when necessary in order to discover what it means to cope with feelings of reluctance and to exert himself. The adolescent who is being overprotected is being deprived the opportunity to fulfill his human potentialities. The overprotected adolescent is not sufficiently exposed to activities that are a threat to his security.

5.2.2.5.3 I eat well and sleep well (2.34)

The majority of the respondents, one hundred and forty five (72,5%), strongly agree that they eat well and sleep well and thirty six (18%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Only four (2%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and three (1,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Twelve (6%) of the respondents are uncertain about whether they eat well and sleep well.

Everybody needs healthy food to keep bodies strong and help fight illnesses. Covey (1999:233) maintains that particular problems occur when adolescents cut down food intake in an attempt to lose weight, resulting in inadequate intakes of many nutrients, including calcium, iron, riboflavin and pyridoxine.

However junk food is high in calories. Hosking (2002:26-27) maintains that one becomes overweight as a result of taking in more energy (calories) than one uses up in the course of daily activities. Factors that influence weight gain include age, activity level and hereditary factors. Commonly eaten snacks such as chips and chocolates may be important sources of iron in the diet. Snack food consumed by adolescents may provide up to 20% of the daily energy (Barasi, 1997:233).

The adolescent needs an average of eight hours of sleep per night. As long as he has a good balanced meal at supper, he will tend to have a comfortable sleep in pleasant surroundings. The reality of the situation is

that, in many instances, the adolescent has to share his bed with fellow siblings and has to make the best of his situation.

Further, there are many adolescents who migrate to urban areas from the surrounding rural areas in search of a better lifestyle. However, in most instances, they are not exposed to a healthy diet nor comfortable sleeping conditions. They sleep in street corners, under cardboard sheets, or in informal settlements and they sometimes rummage through dirt bins seeking food to eat or beg or steal in order to survive in the urban area.

5.2.2.5.4 My school has the 'right' academic atmosphere (2.35)

Fifty nine (29,5%) of the respondents strongly agree that their school has the 'right' academic atmosphere and sixty (30%) of the respondents agree with the statement. Nineteen (9,5%) of the respondents disagree with the statement and thirty one (15,5%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement. Thirty one (15,5%) of the respondents are uncertain as to whether their school has the 'right' academic atmosphere.

'Discipline is about self-respect for others. Discipline based on punishment teaches the learner what not to do, but fails to teach what to do' (Sonn, 1999:21-25). Discipline is the exercise of educational authority so that the learner may achieve the goal of his education. Discipline is a very important component of education because it is essentially the total exercise of the educator's educational authority in the interest of the learner on his way to self-discipline, independence and self-reliance and to eventually achieve his ultimate goal (Gunter, 1990:144-145).

Discipline according to Gunter (1990:146), can be categorized as follows:

- Preventive discipline: it is positive and indirect and can be implemented through: leading, guiding, exercising a good

influence, being supportive and helpful, instructing, informing, providing advice on what is good and correct.

- Corrective discipline: it is negative and direct and can be implemented through: negative control, restraint (holding back), restriction, prohibition, disapproval, admonition, compulsion and punishment.

Rogers (as cited by Mabeba & Prinsloo, 2000:34) asserts that discipline in a positive sense refers to learning, regulated scholarship, guidance and orderliness. Discipline in this sense may qualify as an integral part of an effective educational endeavour in which parents and educators give assistance to a help-seeking child. The child is supported and guided towards the degree of self-discipline which is necessary for successful learning and to achieve adequate behaviour that significantly affects fundamental rights to feel safe, to be treated with respect and to learn. This encompasses behavior that interferes with the rights and welfare of others, is offensive or inconsiderate, and dangerous to person or property.

It must be noted that each learner comes to school everyday with unique exposures and experiences prior to entering the classroom. These exposures and experiences will have different impacts and influences on each learner. Hence, their behavior or misbehavior can be influenced accordingly.

Oosthuizen and Van der Westhuizen (as cited by Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:122) state that the essence of educational law is security. Security must be interpreted in its widest context and implies the institution of a secure environment for the individual and the group within which all

interested parties can participate harmoniously in the school. To establish a secure school environment, it is essential to create, for example, order, lawfulness, protection of the learner's rights and the future direction and improvement of the learner.

Joubert and Prinsloo (2001:122) state that these concepts also form the characteristics of discipline within the educational and teaching milieu. Discipline focuses on the creation and maintenance of a culture of teaching and learning.

The characteristics of discipline are as follows (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:122-123):

- Discipline is used to create order: According to Prinsloo and Beckmann (as cited by Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:133), education does not function in an area free of the law; all education management and training must comply with the requirements of the law. Discipline ensures that human activities in the daily process of education are ordered. The willful and wayward behavior of each individual is consequently checked by discipline.
- Discipline ensures fairness: Fair protection of the respective interests of the various participants and interested parties within the education system is essential. Hosten (as cited by Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:122), defines discipline as the moral value that serves as a norm to ensure impartiality when dealing with the competing interests of various legal subjects. The principle of *audi alteram partem* must apply.
- Discipline protects the learner: In an orderly environment discipline protects a learner against the unruly and undisciplined behaviour of his fellow learner. It also protects a learner against his own waywardness.

- Discipline contributes to the spiritual development of the learner: Loving disciplinary action aims to help the learner develop maturity, responsibility, independence and adulthood.
- Discipline is prospective: The objective of education is to prepare the learner for integration and development in an adult working society. Therefore, discipline, which also focuses on self-discipline, must be prospective-directed at the development of the adult of the future.
- Discipline should be directed primarily at correction: Correction in an educational context is directed primarily at inner development.

5.2.2.6 Influence of drug and alcohol use on the self-actualization of the adolescent

5.2.2.6.1 The adolescent view on drug and alcohol use (3.1)

The respondents in this survey had conflicting views about adolescent drug and alcohol use. While a large proportion felt that it was bad for adolescents to indulge in drug and alcohol use, some felt that it was acceptable for teenagers to experiment with drugs and alcohol as a once off experience. Others indicated that drug and alcohol use was a serious problem in their communities and even at school level. They expressed concern over the fact that no attempts were being made to address the problem. One respondent stated: "Most teens I know use drugs and alcohol to escape the real world or their problems, but this doesn't mean I condone it. In our area, it is quickly becoming a growing problem, but no-one cares". It is interesting to note that while the respondents acknowledge that drug and alcohol use among adolescents is a negative thing, the behaviour of some of them is contrary to this. This could suggest indifference, rebelliousness or 'a don't care' attitude on the part of the adolescents who use drugs and alcohol.

5.2.2.6.2 Advice given to an adolescent who abuses drugs and alcohol (3.2)

Respondents were questioned on what advice they would give to an adolescent who abuses drugs and alcohol. Of note is the fair proportion of the respondents who indicated that they would encourage the substance and alcohol abusers to seek professional help. A few of them specified the source of help as being via the AA (Alcoholics Anonymous) or a psychologist or even a counsellor.

Further, the respondents suggested the forming of social clubs whereby their parents and guardians get involved with their children in their activities such that the adolescents are more involved in project work thus uplifting their communities instead of indulging in negative and destructive activities through the use of drugs and alcohol.

Another popular answer related to health education initiatives regarding the consequences of drug and alcohol abuse and that is, adolescents need to be educated about the evils of drug and alcohol use so that they can make informed decisions. This indicated an understanding and appreciation of the severity of the problem of drug and alcohol use and abuse and the fact that it should not be ignored or treated lightly.

5.3 Inferential statistics

5.3.1 Hypothesis for this study

Null hypothesis (H₀): There is no relationship between social relations and the self-actualization of the adolescent.

Alternative hypothesis (H_a): There is a relationship between social relations and the self-actualization of the adolescent.

5.3.2 The chi- squared (X^2) statistical test of significance

The interpretation of data is facilitated by the use of the chi-squared statistic. The chi-squared statistic is a test of significance, that compares observed frequencies with expected frequencies (Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh, 1990:47). It is a measure of the discrepancy between observed and expected frequencies. Observed frequencies are obtained empirically while expected frequencies are generated on the basis of some hypotheses or theoretical speculation.

In this study, the statistical test is used to test for significant differences between proportions.

5.3.2.1 Testing the hypothesis

Table 12 The relation between the self-actualization of the adolescent and the parents, family and siblings

Self actualization				
	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	
Disagree	4			
Uncertain	0	1	13	14
Agree	4	2	135	141
Total	8	3	189	200

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.461(a)	4	.113

5 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .21.

From the chi-square test it was found that there was no significant

association between parents, family and siblings and self-actualization of the adolescent.

Table 13 The relation between the self-actualization of the adolescent and school (educator) and community

	Self actualization			
	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	
Disagree	4	1	22	27
Uncertain	1	0	8	9
Agree	3	2	159	164
Total	8	3	189	200

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.678(a)	4	.013

a 5 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .14.

There was a significant association between school (educator) and community and the self-actualization of the adolescent.

Table 14 The relation between self-actualization of the adolescent and peers

	Self- actualization			
	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	
Disagree	2	0	20	22
Uncertain	1	0	11	12
Agree	5	3	158	166
Total	8	3	189	200

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.057(a)	4	.548

a 5 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

There was no significant relation between peers and self-actualization of the adolescent.

Table 15 The relation between self-actualization of the adolescent and friends

	Self actualization			
	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	
Disagree	1	1	6	8
Uncertain	0	0	5	5
Agree	7	2	178	187
Total	8	3	189	200

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.782(a)	4	.067

a 6 cells (66.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

There was no significant relation between friends and the self-actualization of the adolescent.

From the chi-square test it was found that:

- There was no significant relation between parents, family and siblings and the self-actualization of the adolescent. This implies that the self-actualization of the adolescent is not dependent on the family structure. The null hypothesis is supported.
- However there was a significant relation between the school

(educator) and community and the self-actualization of the adolescent. School and community play an important role in the self-actualization of the adolescent. The null hypothesis is not supported and the alternative hypothesis must be accepted.

- There were no significant relations between peers and friends and the self-actualization of the adolescent. This implies that the self-actualization of the adolescent is not dependent on peers and friends. The null hypothesis is therefore supported.

5.4 Summary

In this chapter data obtained from the questionnaire issued to the grade 10 respondents were presented and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. All the respondents were grade 10 adolescents.

The following chapter will highlight the limitations of the study and certain recommendations will be made in the light of the findings.

CHAPTER SIX

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the limitations and recommendations of the study will be discussed.

6.2. Limitations associated with this study

The learners might not have been frank and truthful in their responses. Due to the sensitive nature of some of the items in the questionnaire such as parents speaking to them about their sexuality (2.5) it is possible that some respondents might have elicited false or misleading responses and influenced the reliability of the results. The investigation was confined to grade 10 learners in the Amanzimtoti Ward only. Differences might have been elicited from adolescents in other areas.

Further the investigation carried out was limited to questionnaires only. There were no interviews conducted with the adolescents. Also some of the items reflected 'uncertain' responses. This could have been associated with ignorance or an unwillingness to commit themselves.

6.3 Recommendations

6.3.1 Parents, family and siblings

6.3.1.1 Motivation

The social relations between parents, family and siblings with the adolescent must be seen as the original or authentic education situation. Parents, in particular, play an exceptionally important role in adequately

equipping the adolescent for adulthood. The quality of the relationship between the parent and the adolescent exerts a lasting influence on the adolescent's learning. The single best way to possibly improve the education outcomes of the adolescent is to strengthen parental involvement and continuous support. This involvement may improve the adolescent's self-actualization and academic life. This includes the offering of love, care for physical needs such as food, shelter, clothing, supervising and exercising control over activities at home so that the adolescent lives a balanced life.

The following recommendations are made:

Parents must:

- Discuss important issues such as sexuality with adolescents.
- Assist adolescents in setting priorities and spend more quality time with them.
- Continuously encourage adolescents to keep striving and not give up.
- Assist adolescents to overcome their obstacles through persistence.
- Support adolescents in their dreams and ambition.
- Be fully involved in the education and counselling that the adolescent receives at school and in the community.

6.3.2 Schools as effective centers of learning and teaching

6.3.2.1 Motivation

If schools are to be recognized as effective centers of learning and teaching, then school managers including educators must recognize the

potential that a strategic approach has for the promotion of a conducive learning environment. Unfortunately an important educational area has been downsized by the Department of Education mainly in public schools, namely guidance and counselling. This particular portfolio has fallen into a learning area called life orientation and many educators that are teaching life orientation are not adequately qualified to serve as counsellors. Instead they are teaching this learning area without realizing the importance and impact of the various sub aspects on the learner. Guidance and counselling should be included as a compulsory subject in the curriculum for learners. Learners endeavour to cope with stress and changes in their lives on a daily basis.

One of the most important areas dealing with the adolescent presently is the issue of HIV/AIDS and this area needs specialized people at school level and community level to address concerns and provide support. There is evidence to suggest that current prevention programs among learners in South Africa are generally narrow in content and limited to participator approaches. Parents are the primary educators of their children and educators (school) are the secondary educators with whom the learners spend most of the day. Therefore educators play a major role in advising the learners. It is the responsibility of every educator to go out of his way to assist all learners to become fully actualized.

Counsellors can assist learners to make informed decisions so that they can cope better with the demands made on them and lead more positive lives. The introduction of in-service training by the department of education and the involvement of non-governmental organizations educators can be trained and guided to provide effective advice and support services.

The following recommendations are made:

- The Department of Education should include guidance and counselling as a compulsory subject in the school curriculum for learners.
- The guidance counsellor needs to continuously and consistently aim to instill positive attitudes and values in all learners.
- There must be collaborative partnerships with all members of the school community.
- The Department of Education needs to have more professional counsellors easily available to provide learner support by arranging more in- service courses.
- The boundaries of acceptable learner behaviour can be developed, implemented, evaluated and sustained by strategies that require professional commitment from the school managers and other important role players.

6.3.3 Peers and friends

6.3.3.1 Motivation

Adolescence is a transitional period where adolescents move away from parents as their primary source of support and turn to peer and friend relationships that will provide support as they take on adult roles and responsibilities. The attitudes of peers and friends have a major influence on the value of the adolescent's attachments to education. The major issue of HIV/AIDS that is impacting negatively on everyone including adolescents is still an area of great secrecy. Adolescents who may be HIV/AIDS positive will tend to be closer to peers and friends rather than parents, or other adults, to discuss their status and get support from

them. The peer group provides emotional support, a feeling of acceptance and a learning environment for such aspects as skills, concepts, values and attitudes.

The following recommendations are made:

- The individuality, personality and self-esteem of the adolescent must be developed by the adults, including the educator, around him. Based on this, he can possibly become a person in his own right. He can then stand on his own feet and be counted as an individual.
- The relation of trust between the adolescent and the adult, such as the educator, must be given more emphasis so that the adolescent can freely discuss important issues including personal problems such as HIV/AIDS.

6.3.4 The community

6.3.4.1 Motivation

The community comprises of people who live in the same locality and are subject to the same laws and by-laws and may have similar interests.

The community is dynamic and is changing constantly. This may be due to the ideas, views, thoughts, intents, beliefs, resources, preferences, needs and risks of individuals and groups within the community that may be present, thus affecting the identity of the participants and the degree of adhesion.

The adolescent, parent, sibling, school (educator), peer and friend are part of the community and contribute to it through communication with each other. The degrees of communication between the adolescent and the various resources (parent, sibling, school (educator), peer and friend)

differ based on needs and wants.

The following recommendations are made:

- Social clubs, such as night clubs, need to be more proactive in promoting awareness campaigns on: the spread of HIV/AIDS through posters, and other methods available to the owners inside the venues and on drugs and alcohol abuse through strict control measures by the organizers and owners of these night clubs.
- The effective use of media such as the television, newspapers and billboards can serve as effective sources to educate the wider community, including the adolescent, and bring about awareness on an issue such as HIV/AIDS.
- Youth leaders from the various religious organizations, representative council of learners from local high schools together with the community policing forum can create an effective partnership to instill values and positive attitudes in the adolescents thus promoting the interest of the community at large and leading to the entire community benefiting such as the reduction of petty crime and vandalism of property.

6.4 Summary

This chapter included the limitations of the study and the recommendations stemming from the study. The next chapter will conclude the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

In this study the aim of the research was to undertake an empirical investigation pertaining to the impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescents. The researcher found the investigation challenging and exciting and relevant to his own personal experiences. The final remarks will follow.

7.2 Implications for future research as revealed by findings of the present study

During the course of the investigation the researcher became aware that the high drug and alcohol abuse by adolescents can possibly be viewed as an indicator of the collective failure on the part of the socializing agents such as families, peers, friends, school and the community. The dilemma of adolescent problem behaviour requires massive and intensive efforts at many levels of society if it is to be solved.

The following suggestions should be explored:

- Further research of a qualitative and quantitative nature must be undertaken.
- Multiple risk domains would have to be considered.
- Risk and protection factors need to be separated with reference to a decrease in the former and increasing the latter.
- The important role of the social environment in determining

adolescent drug and alcohol abuse would have to be recognized.

The above suggestions can possibly provide the rationale for the involvement of parents, family, siblings, community, peers, friends and school in overcoming the problem of drug and alcohol abuse

7.3 Conclusion

Adolescence has been identified as being a tumultuous period as the child begins his transition to adulthood. Typically adolescents are confronted with profound changes encompassing not only physical maturation, but the emergence of an autonomous self, rejection of parental authority, increased responsibilities - socially and academically, and a desire for intimacy with others such as peers, friends and members of the opposite sex. Some adolescents may experience frustration associated with the inability to cope with biological and psychological changes that occur during this crucial developmental period. Nevertheless the impact of varying social agents have a variety of effects, both negative and positive on the adolescent as he self-actualizes. The physiological and psychological needs are being met and challenged as he moves towards self-actualization. The researcher made the following observation:

The school is a place of interaction and serves as a mini community, that is situated in a wider community, with a hive of activity from Monday to Friday. Adolescents are in constant contact with their educators, peers and friends on a daily basis through curricular and co-curricular involvement and are exposed to all kinds of influence both in a negative and positive direction. Further parents are involved in the governance of the school through the School Governing Body. Hence they are also influencing the adolescent at school. The school is the place where the adolescent spends most of his time and where he does much socializing

with most of the socializing agents that inevitably impacts and influences his eventual self-actualization. Through the inferential statistics, it was implied that there is a significant relationship between and the school and community and the self-actualization of the adolescent

Adolescence is a very complex phase in the life of any individual and a great challenge for all those who are in contact with the adolescent as he passes through this phase into adulthood.

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ANNEXURE A

**LETTER TO THE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION
(MANAGEMENT)
REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY**

P.O.Box 10678
UMKOMAAS
4170

Tel. Nos. 039 9795259 (Work)
031 9165002 (Home)

03 October 2006

ATTENTION: DR. J.C. JANSE VAN RENSBURG (S.E.) M

The Ward Manager: Amanzimtoti Ward
C/o Department of Education
Private BagX1022
UMBUMBULU
4105

Dear sir

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY

I am registered for A Doctor of Education Degree in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Zululand.

I am conducting research for a dissertation entitled *Impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent*.

I wish to administer a questionnaire to grade 10 learners selected randomly in the Amanzimtoti Ward. A copy of the questionnaire is attached. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes and will not interfere with the normal functioning of the schools.

I hereby request your permission to administer the questionnaire to the grade 10 learners during October/ November 2006.

Yours faithfully

N. NAIDU

ANNEXURE B

**LETTER FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
GRANTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY**



**PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMBUMBULU CIRCUIT**

ETHEKWINI REGION

ISIFUNDA SASETHEKWINI

ETHEKWINI STREET

Address: Next to Magistrate's Court
Ikheli: UMBUMBULU
Adres:

Private Bag X1022
Isikhwama Seposi: UMBUMBULU
Privaatsak: 4105

Telephone: 031-9150036/9150001
Ucingo 9150221/9150222

Enquiries: JCJ van Rensburg
Imibuzo:
Navrae:

Reference: Reseach :N Naidu
Inkomba:
Venwysing:

Telefoon:
Fax: (031)9150189
Date: 10 October 2006
Usuku:
Datum:

ATTENTION: ALL PRINCIPALS: AMANZIMTOTI WARD

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR D.ED: MR N NAIDU
STUDENT NO: 001614**

1. Mr N Naidu is presently studying towards a Doctor of Education Degree at the University of Zululand. The topic for research is: *"Impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent"*.
2. Mr Naidu is hereby granted permission to administer a questionnaire to Grade 10 learners from Secondary schools randomly selected in the Amanzimtoti Ward. Mr Naidu is requested to make prior arrangements with Principals of selected schools
3. The questionnaire should take approximately 10 – 15 minutes and must not interfere with the normal functioning of schools or examinations.
4. Your assistance in this regard is, as always, highly appreciated.

Sincerely

Dr JC Janse van Rensburg
Ward Manager: Amanzimtoti

ANNEXURE C

QUESTIONNAIRE

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

QUESTIONNAIRE

IMPACT OF SOCIAL RELATIONS

ON THE

SELF- ACTUALIZATION

OF THE ADOLESCENT

Respondents: Adolescents

N.NAIDU

STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

Impact of social relations on the self actualization of the adolescent

Unless otherwise stated, please complete by
making a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

SECTION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1.1 Gender of the respondent

Male

☐

Female

☐

1.2 Age of respondent (in completed years) as at 31 December
2006?

.....(Years)

1.3 Race

African

☐

Coloured

☐

Indian

☐

White

☐

Other, please specify: _____

1.4 Religion

Christian

☐

Hindu

☐

Islam

☐

Other, please specify: _____

1.5 I am presently living with my biological parents

Yes

☐

No

☐

SECTION 2

PARENTS, FAMILY AND SIBLINGS

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.1	I am the only child in my family.					
2.2	My parents have laid down practical house rules for me to follow.					
2.3	I sometimes intentionally break the rules my parents set just to get their attention.					
2.4	My parents take decisions for me.					
2.5	My parents have spoken to me about my sexuality.					
2.6	My parents frequently quarrel about trivial issues.					
2.7	My parents hold family meetings at home to resolve any conflict situations.					
2.8	My parents allow me to go to night clubs.					
2.9	My parents become very excited when I excel at sport or in academic work.					
2.10	My parents are my role models.					
2.11	I take independent decisions when it comes to my choice of clothes and toiletries.					

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.12	My parents always disagree with my viewpoints and opinions					
2.13	My parents and I spend quality time together by going shopping and playing sport.					
2.14	My parents reprimand me when I lie or cheat.					

SCHOOL (EDUCATOR) AND COMMUNITY

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.15	I enjoy going to school.					
2.16	My educators encourage learner participation in the class.					
2.17	My school provides supportive programs on drug and HIV/ AIDS education.					
2.18	My educator accepts me as a unique individual.					
2.19	Learners are rewarded with prizes when they excel in academic work and on the sports field.					
2.20	My educators set high academic standards for the learners.					
2.21	My community provides recreational facilities for us.					

PEERS

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.22	My peers make me feel very important.					
2.23	I usually spend time with peers of the same sex.					
2.24	My peers encourage me to stand on my own feet and make independent decisions.					
2.25	I am easily influenced by my peers.					
2.26	My peers and I freely discuss such issues as drugs, HIV/AIDS and sexuality.					

FRIENDS

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.27	My best friends and I share intimate secrets.					
2.28	My friends and I live in the same neighbourhood.					
2.29	My friends and I follow the same religion.					
2.30	I have male and female friends.					
2.31	I have friends from different race groups.					

SELF ACTUALIZATION

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.32	My parents love me.					
2.33	I feel safe and secure when I am with my family.					
2.34	I eat well and sleep well.					
2.35	My school has the 'right' academic atmosphere.					

SECTION 3

3.1 What is your view on adolescent drug and alcohol use?

3.2 What advice would you give to an adolescent who uses drugs and alcohol?

ANNEXURE D

LETTER TO PARENT

P.O. BOX 10678

UMKOMAAS

4170

031 9165002 (H)

039 9795259 (W)

0833367774 (CELL)

20 OCTOBER 2006

Dear Parent/ Guardian

RE: PERMISSION FOR LEARNER TO PARTICIPATE IN SURVEY

I am registered for A Doctor of Education Degree in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Zululand.

I am conducting research for a dissertation entitled *Impact of social relations on the self-actualization of the adolescent*.

I wish to administer a questionnaire to your child/ ward at his/ her school. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes.

The questionnaire will not contain any personal details of your child/ ward and will be anonymous. I have already been granted permission by the Department of Education to conduct the survey (please see attached letter). I am hereby requesting your permission to allow your child/ ward to participate in completing the survey during October/ November 2006.

I look forward to a favourable response.

Yours faithfully

N.NAIDU (STUDENT NO. 001614)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT AND RESPONSE FROM PARENT/ GUARDIAN

Kindly complete the information below.

Dear Mr Naidu

I _____ parent/ guardian of _____ hereby give permission/ do not give permission for my child/ ward to participate in the survey.

Yours faithfully

Parent/ Guardian

Date



PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
UMBUMBULU CIRCUIT

eTHEKWINI REGION		ISIFUNDA SASETHEKWINI	eTHEKWINI STREEK
Address:	Next to Magistrate's Court	Private Bag:	X1022
Isikheini:	UMBUMBULU	Isikhwama Secosi:	UMBUMBULU
Adres:		Privaatsak:	4105
Enquiries:	JCJ van Rensburg	Reference:	Research: N Naidu
Imibuzo:		Inkomba:	
Navrae:		Verwysing:	
			Telephone: 031-9150036/9150001
			Ucingo: 9150221/9150222
			Telefoon:
			Fax: (031)9150189
			Date: 10 October 2006
			Usuku:
			Datum:

ATTENTION: ALL PRINCIPALS: AMANZIMTOTI WARD

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR D.ED: MR N NAIDU
STUDENT NO: 001614

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3. The questionnaire should take approximately 10 – 15 minutes and must not interfere with the normal functioning of schools or examinations.
4. Your assistance in this regard is, as always, highly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Dr JC Janse van Rensburg
Ward Manager: Amanzimtoti