DRUG ABUSE AND THE CULTURE OF LEARNING

MANDLA WILLIAM THWALA

Drug Abuse and The Culture of Learning

by

MANDLA WILLIAM THWALA

B.A. (UNISA); S.E.D. (VISTA); F.D.E. (UN); B.Ed. (UNIZUL)

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in the Department of Educational Psychology
of the faculty of Education at the
Durban-Umlazi Campus
of the
University of Zululand

Study leaders: Prof G Urbani Dr H Vermeulen

Durban January 2003

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to:

- > My wife, Mrs L.G. Thwala, who remained truthful, even when the circumstances became unbearable.
- > My children, Precious and Zenzele who are faced with the same challenge for their future careers.
- > All Thwala families who have never had the opportunity to reach this level.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Praise to the Almighty that through commitment of my work to Him my thoughts have been established

I express my gratitude to the following:

- > My study leader, Dr H. Vermeulen, for the guidance, patience and advice he displayed during this stressful course of study.
- > Dr M.M. Spruÿt, the grammarian, for the moulding of the information to the higher level.
- Mrs V.V. van Rooyen, the typist who successfully typed this dissertation.
- > My medical practitioner, Dr J.N. Vosloo, for the treatment when the body seemed unfit for the marathon.
- > The librarians for their assistance in getting the sources necessary for this study course.
- > My family, whose endless understanding and care enable me to complete my studies.

SUMMARY

This study encompasses the phenomenon of drug abuse in the context of learning and teaching. The researcher endeavoured to explore certain aspects of this phenomenon in this particular context in view of a growing concern about the apparent demise of a culture of learning in our schools and related learning environments, and the threatening consequences thereof on a much wider front than might generally be realized. Due to the interwovenness and mutual playing field of learning and teaching, such threat will inevitably not only adverse affect learning, but teaching as well.

The literature study revealed factors which are possibly as known in some circles but it is unknown or ignored in other, causing the potentially disastrous consequences of the latter to be underestimated while aggravating the threat to a vulnerable terrain such as the learning environment in its different school related manifestations.

Due to the magnitude of the phenomenon of drug abuse, and consequently its impact on learning and teaching, this study had to be demarcated to some causes and effects of drug abuse on learning and teaching. The study concentrated on what the researcher termed an *interplay* between these factors, that might impact drug abuse, something that appears to be at the root of the perceived uneasiness and even despondency in education circles as regards the apparent fading of a culture of learning in the learning environment.

An empirical investigation of this nature, being regionally rocused only, is obviously limited in its outcome. Although conclusive, generally representative inferences could not be drawn, it indicated without doubt that the culture of learning and teaching in the learning environment has been dented and is in fact under siege by drug abuse.

Certain recommendations such as the following were made and motivated:

- ➤ Ignorance as regards drug abuse and its effects on the learning environment should be combated by providing the necessary infrastructure, particularly in the rural areas. Determining needs, purposeful action and the monitoring thereof should carry the main focus.
- > Prevention, intervention and rehabilitation are to be given much more prominence, *inter alia* by ensuring and expertly monitoring prevention, intervention and rehabilitation programmes for the victims and potential victims of drug abuse in the learning environment.
- Further research which should include, *inter alia*, and in particular, drug trafficking, especially as regards access into the organized learning environment, *viz*. the school.

ORIENTATION

		PAGE
1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	4
1.4	ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS	5
1.4.1	Drugs	5
(1)	Depressants	5
(2)	Stimulants	5
(3)	Hallucigens	6
1.4.2	Drug abuse	. 6
1.4.3	Educator/Teacher	6
1.4.4	School	7
1.4.5	Learner	7
1.4.6	Culture of learning	7
1.4.7	Learning environment	8
1.4.8	Life-world	8
1.4.9	Relationships	9
1.5	AIMS OF THE RESEARCH	10
1.6	RESEARCH PROCEDURE	10
1.7	FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY	11

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON DRUG ABUSE AND THE CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

		PAGE
2.1	INTRODUCTION	12
2.2	CAUSES OF DRUG ABUSE	13
2.2.1	Peer pressure	13
2.2.2	Tradition	15
2.2.3	Heredity	16
2.2.4	Religion	16
2.2.5	Families' circumstances	17
2.2.6	Officialdom	19
2.2.7	Emulating heroes/role models	21
2.2.8	School management	23
2.3	THE EFFECT OF DRUG ABUSE ON THE ABUSER	
	AND HIS/HER LIFE-WORLD	24
2.3.1	Life-world	_ 24
2.3.2	Experience	24
2.3.3	Relationships	25
(1)	Relationship with self	25
(a)	Physical health	26
(b)	Psycho-social self	27
(2)	Relationship with others	28
(a)	Peers	28
(b)	Educators	28
(c)	Family members	30
(3)	Relationship with objects and ideas	30
(a)	Domestic environment	30

	CHAPTER 2 (continued)	PAGE
(i)	Demographics	33
(ii)	Socio-cultural	33
(iii)	Economic	33
(iv)	Political	34
(b)	Drugs	34
(c)	School-related environment	34
(4)	Relationship with God	36
2.3	SUMMARY	36

RESEARCH DESIGN

		PAGE
3.1	INTRODUCTION	37
3.2	PREPARATION	37
3.2.1	Permission	37
3.2.2	Selection of respondents	37
3.3	THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	38
3.3.1	The questionnaire as a research instrument	38
3.3.2	Construction of the questionnaire	38
3.3.3	Characteristics of the questionnaire	40
3.3.4	Validity and reliability of the questionnaire	41
3.3.5	Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire	43
3.4	PILOT STUDY	45
3.5	ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	46
3.6	PROCESSING OF DATA	47
3.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION	48
3.8	SUMMARY	49

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH DATA

		PAGE
4.1	INTRODUCTION	50
4.2	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	50
4.2.1	Personal data of respondents	50
(1)	Gender [1]	50
(2)	Age [2]	51
(3)	Marital status [3]	52
(4)	School (grade) category, type and location [4, 5 and 7]	52
(5)	Present post [6]	53
(6)	Religion [8]	54
(7)	Home language [9]	54
4.2.2	Responses as regards drug use and abuse in general in	
	schools	55
(1)	Frustration due to non-coping with schooling as	
	contributory factor to learner drug abuse [10]	55
(2)	Performance in natural sciences academy by learner drug	
	abusers [11]	55
(3)	Separate schooling for drug abusers [12]	56
(4)	Emulation of elders by learner drug abusers as a causal	
	factor for drug abuse [13]	56
(5)	Rebellion against parents' authority as a possible cause for	
	drug abuse [14]	546
(6)	Poor self-concept as a contributory factor for drug abuse	
	[15]	56
(7)	Cultivating an awareness of the dangers of drugs and drug	
	abuse [16]	57

CHAPTER 4 (continued)

		PAGE
(8)	Suggestions to cultivate awareness [17]	57
(9)	Learner drug abusers' school attendance pattern [18]	
(10)	Learner drug abusers' punctuality regarding school	57
	attendance [19]	58
(11)	Abode of most learner drug abusers [20]	58
(12)	Peer pressure as a factor causing drug abuse [21]	59
(13)	Craving to succeed in sport and cultural activities as	
	contributory factor for drug abuse [22]	59
4.2.3	Educators' responses as regards drug abuse by their	
	colleagues	59
(1)	The need for in-service training on drug abuse [23]	59
(2)	Collusion between educator and learner drug abusers [24]	60
(3)	Learner drug abusers to be taught exclusively by drug	
	abusers? [25]	60
(4)	Educator drug abusers' punctuality regarding school	
	attendance [26]	60
(5)	Irresponsibility of educator drug abusers creating	
	disciplinary problems for school management [27]	60
(6)	The role of tradition and religious beliefs regarding drug	
	use [28]	61
(7)	Drug use/abuse due to temptation in excessive stressful	
	situations [29]	61
1.2.4	Educators' responses as regards some implications and the	
	impact of drug abuse on a culture of learning and teaching	
	in schools	61
(1)	The promotion of a culture of learning by means of regular	
	school assembly [30]	61
(2)	Responses as regards regular SAPS raids and the	
	implications thereof [31]	62

CHAPTER 4 (continued)

		PAGE
(3)	The drug abusers' right to use drugs? [32]	62
(4)	Accessibility to full-time school psychologists by both	
	educator and learner drug abusers [33]	63
(5)	Ignorance among rural parents in particular as a factor in	
	drug abuse [34]	63
(6)	Undue pressure as a factor promoting drug abuse [35]	63
(7)	Domestic problems as a contributory factor to drug abuse	
	[36]	64
(8)	Educators' responses regarding shame brought on families	
	as a result of drug abuse [37]	64
(9)	Drug trafficking by educators as a factor in drug abuse [38]	64
(10)	Taverns, shebeens as a contributory factor to drug abuse	
	[39]	65
4.3	SUMMARY	65

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

		PAGE
5.1	INTRODUCTION	66
5.2	SUMMARY	66
5.2.1	Statement of the problem	66
5.2.2	Interplay: drug abuse - learning environment - culture of	
	learning and teaching	67
5.2.3	Research design	68
5.2.4	Presentation and analysis of research data	69
5.3	FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH	69
5.3.1	Factors promoting and/or supporting drug abuse in the	
	learning environment	69
(1)	Pressure and frustration factors	69
(2)	Ignorance (school and home)	70
(3)	The educator's role	70
5.3.2	Potential factors which could feature in curbing/combating	
	drug abuse in the learning environment	71
(1)	Educators	71
(2)	School psychological support and counselling services	71
(3)	Abuser's family	71
5.3.3	The human rights factor	71
5.3.4	Respondents' rating of their respective schools as regards	
	the infiltration of drug abuse into the school learning	
	environment and the consequent effects on a culture of	
	learning and teaching	72
5.4	PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	72

CHAPTER 5 (continued)

		PAGE
5.5	RECOMMENDATIONS	73
5.5.1	Combating ignorance by means of infrastructure	
	provisioning particularly in rural learning environments	73
(1)	Motivation	73
(2)	Recommendation	73
5.5.2	Prevention intervention and rehabilitation	74
(1)	Motivation	74
(2)	Recommendation	74
5.5.3	Further research	75
5.6	CRITICISM/SHORTCOMINGS OF THE RESEARCH	75
5.7	CONCLUDING REMARKS	75
	LIST OF SOURCES	77

LIST OF TABLES

		PAGE
Table 1	Frequency distribution according to respondent's gender	50
Table 2	Frequency distribution according to respondent's age	51
Table 3	Frequency distribution according to respondent's marital	52
	status	
Table 4	Frequency distribution according to category, type and	52
	location of schools	
Table 5	Frequency distribution according to respondent's present	53
	post	
Table 6	Frequency distribution according to the respondent's	54
	religious affiliation	
Table 7	Frequency distribution according to respondent's home	54
	language	

ORIENTATION

		PAGE
1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	4
1.4	ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS	5
1.4.1	Drugs	5
(1)	Depressants	5
(2)	Stimulants	5
(3)	Hallucigens	6
1.4.2	Drug abuse	6
1.4.3	Educator/Teacher	6
1.4.4	School	7
1.4.5	Learner	7
1.4.6	Culture of learning	7
1.4.7	Learning environment	8
1.4.8	Life-world	8
1.4.9	Relationships	9
1.5	AIMS OF THE RESEARCH	10
1.6	RESEARCH PROCEDURE	10
1.7	FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY	11

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Drug addiction is a phenomenon of ancient origin. However, the universal problem of drug abuse has never been such a pandemic threat to society as it is since the end of the twentieth century (Pretorius & Le Roux 1998:273).

In his first opening address to Parliament in 1994 the then South African State President, Nelson Mandela, specifically singled out alcohol and drug abuse among the social pathologies that need to be combated, as alcohol and drug abuse is a major cause of dysfunctional family life and unemployment (National Drug Master Plan, 1999-2004:1).

However, drug abuse was not perceived as a major threat to South Africa, particularly by those whose families were unaffected by such abuse (Searll, 1995:18).

Of late South Africa is, for a number of reasons, experiencing an unacceptable increase in drug abuse and its associated problems. Principal among these reasons is the social and political transformation, which is taking place on the domestic front, and the re-emergence of South Africa as a member of the international community.

Furthermore, a well-developed transport infrastructure, modern international telecommunication and banking systems, porous borders and weak border control have made South Africa a national target for drug traffickers (National Drug Master Plan, 1999, 2000:1).



Unemployed South Africans, especially youths, are often enticed by drug lords and 'drug pushers' to become peddlers and consumers of illegal substances. This has spilled over into schools where it is wreaking havoc on the culture of learning and teaching, creating a potential craving for some kind of escape out of the maze of an extremely vulnerable culture, still recovering from the distortions of a pre-democratic era, while educators and learners in some schools battle to reconcile the demand for a culture of learning and teaching and the realities of the past (Steenkamp, Van Staden & Van Rooyen, 1999:36).

What could be termed a dangerous interplay between the threatening wicked forces of substance abuse on the one hand and a culture of learning and teaching on the other has developed. This study intends to explore this interplay.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

The adolescent phase of life is a period of searching, experience and discovery, acceptance and rejection, conflict between child and adult forces, conflict regarding confusion and hypocrisy around norms and values, tension about unsatisfactory relationships with educators and peers and a tendency towards escape, curiosity and alienation (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:277). In the school context a culture of learning and teaching is the moulding-form that should trim and direct these (often conflicting) forces in the life of the learner-youth.

Taking into account that drugs and the abuse thereof appear to have become part and parcel of a worldwide youth cult it could reasonably be assumed that the culture of learning and teaching in schools might be under siege. Any drug abuse pattern will seriously impede the psychosocial, academic and vocational functioning of the abuser. The drug user and abuser finds

him/herself in a day-to-day blurred reality (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:277), characterized by, *inter alia*, an inability to function appropriately, to render a meaningful contribution and consequently to realizing his/her role in society. For the school going youth it means that sufficient (or any) academic performance might be beyond reach.

The youth could, and should, in their own interest, utilize the very existence of a culture of teaching and learning as a vehicle in their search for meaning in life, as a catalyst in their development towards fully-fledged adulthood. However, attachment to drugs may hamper these dynamics, possibly causing a restraint in the attainment of independence.

The relevance and interwovenness of some important forces and factors manifesting as regards the phenomenon of drug abuse, and juvenile drug abuse in particular, on the one hand and the phenomenon of a culture of learning and teaching on the other, need to be realized in order to gain an understanding of what could be seen as a situation of dysfunctionality of the juvenile drug user (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:277).

One of these factors, and a very fundamental one in the context of the problem that features in this research, is the culture of learning in its historical context (cf. introduction).

According to Steenkamp, Van Staden and Van Rooyen (1999:34), changing a culture of learning is often met with resistance and antagonism. Principals who felt drug abuse has a negative effect on the culture of learning and who tried to stamp it out in their schools, were dealt with severely and have at times been locked out of their schools. According to Chishon and Vally (1996:27), a principal in Gauteng suspended learner drug abusers from the school, following which the learners went on the rampage, demanding the

immediate dismissal of the principal. The principal had to be transferred to another school.

Steenkamp, Van Staden and Van Rooyen (1999:35) mentions that cultural elements as such, which are common to all schools, are to a greater or lesser degree characteristic of individual schools and distinguish each from the other. They further states that the way duties are executed in the school stems from the expectations, convictions, values and norms of all involved in that school. Though individual schools are unique, the community has a strong, positive or negative influence on the spirit and direction of a school. This influence, if utilized correctly, effectively and in the best interest of education, can be a powerful tool in combating drug use and abuse as well as strengthening the culture of learning and teaching.

Furthermore, the role of educators in utilizing the opportunities in their respective schools to establish, revive or strengthen a culture of learning and teaching and ensuring a strong barricade against intruding evils such as drug abuse, cannot be over-emphasized. Their dedication, commitment to schoolwork, attitude towards teaching and learning, monitoring learners' work and taking a firm stand against drug abuse, need to be highlighted as fundamental components of a culture of learning (Chetty, 1998:56).

The problematic nature of drug use and abuse in the learning environment ought to be perceived with due allowance for its causes as well as its impact on that environment.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The study intends to investigate the drug abuse in the school educational context on the basis of the following:

What is the effect of drug abuse on the culture of learning?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity the following concepts are defined, particularly as regards the context in which they will be used in this investigation:

1.4.1 **Drugs**

In general the term refers to all psychoactive chemical substances, i.e. substances that cause a change of mood and perception, which are misused (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:279).

Three main groups of drugs are distinguished (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:201; Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:280-287).

(1) Depressants

Depressants that may suppress the functions of the central nervous system. Examples: Codeine, alcohol, heroin, Wellconal, Mandrax, various tranquillizers, non-narcotic pain relievers, inhalers and anaesthetics.

(2) Stimulants

Stimulants that may stimulate the functions of the central nervous system. Examples: Different amphetamines, certain appetite suppressants, cocaine, etc.

(3) Hallucigens

Hallucigens or 'psychedelic' drugs (Strydom, 1977:3) that may stimulate and which can cause a hallucinatory effect on the central nervous system. Examples: Dagga and LSD.

In this study the concept *drugs* generally refers to non-prescribed drugs that are taken by youth and elders and are misused, leading to addiction.

1.4.2 Drug abuse

- ➤ Searll (1995:66) defines drug abuse as an excessive use or addictive use of mood altering drugs for non-medical purposes.
- According to Dekker and Lemmer (1993:200), drug abuse implies the usage of those drugs which affect the mind and which are misused for their pleasurable or other mind-altering effects.

In general, and due to the variety of harmful substances that could be used both legally and illegally, contemporary medical technology prefers to refer to the misuse of these substances as *chemical substance misuse/dependence* (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:279).

1.4.3 Educator/Teacher

The South African Schools Act, Act No. 8+ of 1996, section 1 (iv), with reference to the Educator's Employment Act, Act No. 138 of 1994, (Government Gazette Act No. 84, 1996-11-14:04 defines educator as "any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or provides professional therapy at any school, technical college or college of education or assists in rendering professional services or performs education management services

or educational auxiliary services provided by or in a department of education).

1.4.4 School

For the purpose of this research a school means a public or independent school which enrolls learners in one or more grades between grade zero and grade twelve (South African Schools Act, Act No. 84, 1994 (1.xix) Government Gazette 1996. Act No. 84, 1996-11-15:04).

1.4.5 Learner

According to the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84, 1996 (ix) a learner is any person receiving education in terms of this Act (Government Gazette 1996. Act No. 84 (ix) 1996-11-15:04).

1.4.6 <u>Culture of learning</u>

- > Chishon and Vally (1996:3) define culture of learning as the conditions and disciplines of compulsory schooling to bear on teachers and learners.
- ➤ Chetty (1998:56) defines it as the attitude teachers and learners have towards teaching and learning and the spirit of dedication and commitment in a school which arises through the joint effort of school management, the input of teachers, the personal characteristics of students (learners), factors in the family life of learners, school related factors as well as societal factors.

From the above it is clear that, generally speaking, the concept *learning* in a culture of learning presupposes teacher involvement and thus by implication

the activity of *teaching*, particularly in the school domain of the learning environment (cf. 1.4.7).

1.4.7 Learning environment

The concept-learning environment refers to an environment in which learning takes place or can take place.

In general learning pertains to Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:256; Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:433):

- > the acquisition of content, i.e. obtaining knowledge of subject matter which is instructed and learnt;
- > the mastering of concepts which enable learners to organize knowledge and experience;
- > the realization of meaningful conduct, experience and acts of volition;
- > the acquisition of meaningful abilities and skills related to the completion of tasks; and
- > attitudes, including dispositions and characteristics.

1.4.8 Life-world

Life-world, as described by Vrey (1987:15), is the *Gestalt* or the integration of an individual's meaningful interacting relationships. Thus the life-world of the educator is an integration of all the meaningful relationships that he or she 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 humans and the world. This fruitful ongoing dialogue between humans and the world comprises the dialogue between humans 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 (1988:14) each child is unique hence the life-world of each child is unique. This uniqueness of every person's life-world is influenced by the interaction between humans and the world. An educator, therefore is unique, and has a unique life-world that is affected by the interaction between him and the world.

1.4.9 Relationships

Relationships refer to a mode in which persons; things, ideas, self and God are mutually connected (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:201). According to Prinsloo, Vorster and Sibiya (1996:37) a person's relationship is an association between two referents, with the person being one referent. Relationships are usually dynamic and interactive and are initiated through his involvement and assigning or attributing of meaning. Relationships are experienced as pleasant or unpleasant and are either fostered or avoided. A person is always situated in his life-world. To be situated means that a person finds himself in a web or relationships that determine the way in which a person acts (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:483). Educators who have some understanding of the life-world and relationships of a child understand such a child better and are usually more successful in their teaching and educating of such a child. Educators find themselves in many relationships in their daily tasks. These relationships contribute towards their actualization (Prinsloo, Vorster & Sibiya, 1996:51, 52).

1.5 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of the research are:

- > To pursue a study of relevant literature on drug abuse with specific reference to its causes and its effects on the learning environment and a culture of learning and teaching.
- > To undertake an empirical investigation pertaining to drug abuse in the learning environment and the possible effect thereof on the culture of learning.
- > To formulate recommendations that might serve as guidelines for prevention of drug abuse in the learning environment.

1.6 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Research with regard to this study will be conducted as follows:

- > A study of available relevant literature will be undertaken.
- An empirical survey comprising a self-structured questionnaire to be completed by randomly selected primary and secondary school educators practicing in ten rural schools of the KwaZulu-Natal Education Department in the Uitval/Wasbank circuit. A Likert-type questionnaire with three response categories, viz. agree, disagree, uncertain will be used.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 2 will reflect a literature study done on drug abuse, focusing on the interplay between drug abuse and a culture of learning and teaching.

Chapter 3 will deal with the design of the research and a description of the methodology.

Chapter 4 will contain the presentation and analysis of data obtained.

Chapter 5 will briefly summarize the study, present certain findings and propose recommendations.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON DRUG ABUSE AND THE CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

		PAGE
2.1	INTRODUCTION	12
2.2	CAUSES OF DRUG ABUSE	13
2.2.1	Peer pressure	13
2.2.2	Tradition	15
2.2.3	Heredity	16
2.2.4	Religion	16
2.2.5	Families' circumstances	17
2.2.6	Officialdom	19
2.2.7	Emulating heroes/role models	21
2.2.8	School management	23
2.3	THE EFFECT OF DRUG ABUSE ON THE ABUSER	
	AND HIS/HER LIFE-WORLD	24
2.3.1	Life-world	24
2.3.2	Experience	24
2.3.3	Relationships	25
(1)	Relationship with self	25
(a)	Physical health	26
(b)	Psycho-social seif	37
(2)	Relationship with others	28
(a)	Peers	28
(b)	Educators	28
(c)	Family members	30
(3)	Relationship with objects and ideas	30
(a)	Domestic environment	30

	CHAPTER 2 (continued)	PAGE
(i)	Demographics	33
(ii)	Socio-cultural	33
(iii)	Economic	33
(iv)	Political	34
(b)	Drugs	34
(c)	School-related environment	34
(4)	Relationship with God	36
2.3	SUMMARY	36

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE ON DRUG ABUSE AND A CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A large number of schools in South Africa are characterized by the apparent absence of a learning culture. These schools are characterized by a high failure rate, early school dropout, a lack of discipline, low morale and an anti-academic attitude amongst pupils (Smith & Pacheco, 1996:163).

The learning culture appears to be under threat in South African schools. The possibility of collapse is even mentioned while financial efforts have already been made to restore it (Smith & Pacheco, 1996:163). There can be no doubt that a climate of learning needs to be encouraged and developed to establish a new society. Education and learning are social activities and if the appropriate climate is not created after years of destruction and devastation then we will not be able to build and create a new society (Smith & Pacheco, 1996:163).

In his opening address to parliament in 1994 the then State President, Nelson Mandela, referred to the increasing rate of alcohol and drug abuse among social pathologies that needed to be combated as these directly or indirectly affect or have an influence on everyone. He further stated that rapid expansion of international air links, the country's geographic position on major trafficking routes between Asia and the Middle East, the Americas and Europe, and the aggravating situation of weak border control which has made Africa a national target for drug traffickers have contributed to drug abuse (National Drug Master Plan, 1999-2000:1).

The concern and commitment of the South African government in this regard is clearly illustrated by the South African National Plan defined by the United Nation's Drug Control Programme (UNDCP). However, an analysis of the typical characteristics of the different types/groups of drugs indicate that abuse thereof must have devastating consequences for teaching and learning (National Drug Master Plan, 1999-2004:3).

De Miranda as quoted by (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:201) states that an atmosphere of learning cannot prevail when the functions of the central nervous system are suppressed or hallucinatory effects are experienced by a learner, caused, for instance, by the use of dagga.

According to Begleiter and Porjesz (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:197) drug dependency cannot be explained as the result of a single biological or behavioural factor, but is related to the complex interactions of biological and behavioural predisposing factors in conjunction with the environmental precipitating factors.

In the context of this study it is regarded as not only relevant but indeed important to identify and describe some causes of drug abuse, not in isolation but as mutually intertwined biological, social, psycho-social and environmental factors.

2.2 CAUSES OF DRUG ABUSE

2.2.1 Peer pressure

Peer pressure is a social phenomenon whereby adolescents come to rely heavily on peer groups for support, security and guidance during a time when things are urgently needed and since perhaps only others experiencing the same transition can be relied upon to understand what that experience is (Gwinn, Norton, & Goetz, 1991:720).

Although peer pressure as such should not be seen in a negative light, Dekker and Lemmer, (1993:197) state that it is a potent force contributing to drug abuse. Naginey and Swisher's research (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:199) confirm the salience of peer relations in the context of drug abuse.

In addition to Naginey and Swisher's statement Oetting and Beauvais (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:199) state that drug abuse is almost always a direct reflection of the peer group; for users' peers help to shape attitudes about drugs, provide the social contexts for drug use, and when people share their ideas, help form the rationales that the youth uses to explain and excuse drug abuse.

According to Myers (1995:8) to be a teen is tough but could be the best time of a person's life. Rapid changes take place during this phase of life, e.g. bodily changes and the way the environment is perceived. This is often difficult and causes stress to teenagers that eventually might seek relief in substance abuse. At this stage of life they are extremely eager to explore and they are bombarded with an environment of television productions and movies that show substance use and abuse. Some teenagers do not escape this situation since they are eager to see how things are done and want to be part thereof. This group involvement is incited by glamour and temptations as characteristics of abuse, particularly in the years while teens emulate adult behaviour, and temptation could be a major threat (Myers, 1995:9).

Destructive tendencies in some schools, what Myers (1993:9) calls abuse of the academic learning environment as a symptom of being heavily into drugs and alcohol, is also caused by temptation. De Miranda (1998:5) and Searll (1995:107) both agree that youth abuse drugs because of curiosity, boredom, poverty and pressure. Searll (1995:107) further states that some teens are rebellious and defy their parents' rules/authority. Some of the teens are under pressure to succeed in class or in a particular sport activity. Once they realize they cannot live up to realities they seek gratification and reassurance in drug abuse (Searll, 1995:109).

2.2.2 Tradition

Schomp (1977:20) argues that alcohol, as a drug is part of the diet in some nations' religion at social and cultural events. Zulu customs include home brewed alcohol while dagga has for ages been part of South African culture (Du Preez, 2001:28). It's use is abundant, particularly in KwaZulu-Natal where it is planted in the fields, gardens and forests. It is never regarded as a drug by Zulus but as a source of income (Appelbaum, Liebenberg, Romm, Glass, Le Roux & Grobbelaar, 1988:37).

However, a lack of control and discipline by elders over their children during cultural and social events, could contribute to drug abuse. The consequences for teaching/learning of uncontrolled participation by children in cultural events could be:

- > learners watching adults consuming alcohol at traditional gatherings,
- educators having to take part may possibly become prone to addiction,
- > cultural teaching that condones the use of alcohol without identifying pitfalls, and

> parents involving children in the brewing of alcohol for traditional gatherings.

2.2.3 Heredity

Drug abuse could be hereditary. Goodwin (1981:73) argues that researchers found that drug abuse is transmitted from generation to generation. In line with Goodwin, Roth (1979:10) states that people with serious drinking problems have had parents, brothers, sisters or relatives who had experienced the same problem.

2.2.4 Religion

Bible, (NT) 1997:23) states: "No longer drink, only water, but use a little wine for the sake of your stomach and your frequent ailments". Schomp (1977:20) maintains that drug abusers might endeavour to justify and defend their habit in the light of this admonition; ignoring the fact that it was said before drug abuse developed into the destructive phenomenon it is today.

Lauer (1986:105) states that religious norms can develop contrary to the norms of the laws of the larger society. Those who are integrated into such groups will abide by and accept the norms of those groups. Such groups are likely to have access to suppliers of drugs and individuals might experiment with drugs and ultimately become drug abusers.

The Rastafarian members, for instance, smoke dagga because of their beliefs. Their children are exposed to dagga at an early age. By the time they reach secondary school they will be drug abusers themselves, and endanger the learning/teaching environment by smoking at breaks and dodging classes.

It was reported in an SABC 2 news bulletin in March 2001 that Rastafarians marched to the Magistrate's court in Bloemfontein demanding the legalization of dagga.

It is accepted that smoking dagga does not enhance an eagerness to lead a quality life, or to be devoted to one's work. Mohloni (Du Preez, 2001:28) warned that dagga makes people lazy and disinclined to better themselves.

Use and abuse by adults cannot take place without it rubbing off in one way or another on others, particularly offspring in a marital situation, thus having an impact on teaching and learning.

2.2.5 Families' circumstances

According to Lawrence and Velleman (Lauer, 1986:107) a pattern of drug abuse in a family influences the behaviour of any particular member of the family. A study of drug use in a suburban high school revealed that those who used drugs indicated that their behaviour was influenced by their parents' habits of using/abusing tranquillisers and sleeping pills.

Drug abusers are more likely to come from broken families (Lauer, 1986:107).

Craig and Brown (Lauer, 1986:107) report that in a study conducted in Washington DC, significantly more users were shown to have been raised by only one parent when they were in the age category of 6-1? years.

Glyn (Lauer, 1986:107) argues that drug abuse is associated with various disturbed relationships within the family. High school drug users have reported a higher rate of parental in-fighting than have non-users (Lauer,

1986:107). These circumstances might have a devastating impact on the culture of learning, leading to, *inter alia*, juvenile delinquency.

Drug abuse is also associated with reported alienation between youth and their parents. According to Streit, Halstead and Pascale (Lauer, 1986:107) a study of junior and senior high school students revealed that those who had used dagga or barbiturates all reported more hostile relations with parents than did non-users of drugs.

According to Pretorius and Le Roux, (1998:55) the family environment is dynamic, and must integrate with an ever-changing world and with circumstances that change with the times, to permit the unhindered entrance of the youth into social life and not to lose touch with reality. Due to extreme social and cultural changes the present day family has become vulnerable, in many cases causing family life to disintegrate and exposing some of the youth to a life of drugs and drug abuse.

The extended or large family, i.e. a number of families consisting of sons and their wives and children, used to be an important part of society and the basic economic unit in which various family functions were fulfilled. The nuclear family, i.e. husband, wife and children, were strongly influenced by the decision of the larger group of which the male head of the family was the fundamental authority (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:56). This consolidated the individual security and discipline in the culture of learning/teaching.

Under a joint economy the members of the extended family had economic security. In terms of financial needs economic support came from members of the extended family. This situation presented no opportunity for frustrations to youth that might lead to drugs and drug abuse (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:56).

There was a high degree of emotional security. The individual was always in contact with a number of people and a problem of loneliness could not occur, thus contributing to the family's stability.

The Industrial Revolution and concomitant urbanization and its evils drastically changed the structure of society and the stable structure of the family. In terms of needs (unemployment, illness and death) the family is dependent on itself and economically vulnerable. When members of this isolated family experienced problems they have no one to turn to and emotional vulnerability could result.

The marital and educational relationships are very intimate and are characterized by intense emotionality. Pretorius and Le Roux, (1998:57) state that there is enormous pressure on family members who experience intense emotional problems thus threatening the family stability. This situation lends itself to drugs and drug abuse and jeopardizes the culture of learning/teaching.

2.2.6 Officialdom

During the apartheid years the Department of Education and Training was in control of 'Black Education' in this country. An authoritarian hierarchical and top down management style was encouraged (Chishon & Vally, 1996:24). Loyalty to this bureaucratic system resulted in unfairness and loyalty to this bureaucratic system resulted in an unfairness practice as younger militant generation tended to hate older educators and principals.

The stage was set for generational, political and educational conflict, e.g. the launching of the South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU), which embarked on a defiance campaign against all symbols of apartheid

authority in education. Chishon and Vally (1996:24) state that this situation led to principals being regarded as victims of resistance against apartheid.

These fixed rules brought about a stress situation in the culture of learning/teaching. Educators came to school unprepared; absenteeism rate increased, and educators did not go to classes to teach. Chetty (1998:79) states that some officials failed to keep proper records such as the teacher-pupil ratio, or failed to deal with militancy amongst educators. Overcrowding in classes became the order of the day. This situation lent itself to poor control and opportunities for drug abuse, thus endangering the culture of teaching and learning.

Chishon and Vally (1996:44) state that historically the Department of Education and Training (DET) was seen as a distant bureaucracy which did not react timeously to the problems in schools, e.g. by supporting pupils who wanted the Department of Education and Training to monitor and renovate damage done to some schools during the campaign against apartheid authority and to enforce sanctions against ill-disciplined teachers and principals.

While the DET officialdom was not meeting the need of repairs in some schools, the Department of Education and Culture (DEC) in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) was not building schools in the province. Hlophe (2000:3) writes that in an unprecedented move, a desperate principal sought the intervention of the Human Rights Commission to force the Department of Education in KwaZulu-Natal to build a proper school for pupils who were being taught in corrugated iron classes.

Buildings such as these have a negative impact on the learning environment. In winter the buildings are very cold and learners stay outside basking in the sun. In summer the buildings are very hot and learners stay outside because it is cool. Since most of the time is spent outside the classes, teaching and

learning is severely jeopardized. Learners are likely to be found roaming around, indulging themselves in drugs and drug abuse.

Officialdom had also brought about stress amongst teachers by not addressing big classes, lack of discipline, problems of broken families and societal changes since 1994. Redeployment and syllabi, which are not easy to implement, for instance has led to a state of uncertainty amongst educators (Du Preez, 2001:27). Educators are unwillingly moving from one school to another while some schools are still waiting for educators to fill much needed posts. The stressful situation in education in general and schools in particular could be seen as impacting negatively on education as well as disillusioned learners who may escape into drug use and abuse.

2.2.7 Emulating heroes/role models

A role model is "a person considered as a standard of excellence to imitate" (Guralnik, Solomon, Martin, Markins, Bredenridge & Morgan, 1978:483). Learners are exposed to figures they view as role models and possibly tend to imitate or follow their styles and see them as heroes or 'cool' in modern slang. Such heroes are not necessarily taking a stand on drug abuse and drugs, while those who do, are not necessarily brought to the attention of the vulnerable youth in a learning situation where notice is to be taken of such a stand.

Many young people have not taken notice of statements by role models such as the rock singer Karen Zoid, emphasizing the disastrous consequences of dagga (Du Preez, 2001:28).

An educator is a potential role model by nature of his/her position of authority and respect. This is a vulnerable position for both educator and learner. The educator is a senior partner in this commitment or situation and

has certain obligations to live up to in order to portray the standard of excellence worthy of being imitated (De Miranda, 1998:14).

De Miranda (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993:204, 205) writes that unless educators are properly trained in drugs and drug abuse they will not succeed in convincing young people of the danger of drug abuse. Should educators themselves dare to become involved in abuse of drugs, this role image is seriously threatened. This will impact on teaching and learning such as a loss of interest in school and e.g. sports activities by learners and weakening of performance.

It is imperative that educators should with integrity play their role as professional models, particularly regarding awareness and decision-making against drugs. Choices constantly have to be made including whether to be 'cool' and experiment with drugs or refrain from it. Thus, the educator as a role model ought to be informed and should ethically and morally be leading a qualitative life beyond question.

Guiding learners to make informed choices of this nature and morally reinforce them against e.g. ruthless drug dealers and their unscrupulous agents, while inculcating a culture of teaching and learning should be a priority for educators.

Role model reinforcement of a culture of learning to withstand the drug onslaught cannot only occur in school with the teacher as a role model. On the contrary, parents are role models in their own right despite sometimes being seen as 'less' up-to-date and old-fashioned because some of them do not play their role, as they should.

Du Preez (2001:28) advised parents to improve their relationship with their offspring and friends, to establish how they think and to learn to know their world.

2.2.8 School management

School management is generally seen as comprising a principal, deputy principal and the heads of departments (Chishon & Vally, 1996:27). Van der Westhuizen (1991:143) refers to it as top management. To manage a school means to execute various tasks, which are divided into main task and sub-task activities, *viz.* planning, organizing, guiding and controlling (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:136). The principals as leaders of school management teams have to plan, organize, guide, control and coordinate all activities in the schools (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:143). The heads of department (HODs) have to plan specific tasks such as functional planning and drawing-up of functional objectives. The subject heads and educators have to execute strategic and tactical planning *viz.* short-term planning and planning on a daily basis.

If principals do not perform their main tasks, the heads of department will not know what is expected of them and some might join the staff, siding against the principals, resulting in educators not going to classes since they will be demotivated by the prevailing situation. Some educators may arrive late and leave early. Such a situation lends itself to an endangerment of the alliance between learning and teaching and drugs and drug abuse (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:143), while a fertile breeding ground for drug abuse is created.

According to Chishon & Vally (1996:26) the following are situations where management is lacking: Teachers go to classes unprepared, or sit in groups chatting, while learners who do not do their work complain about

incompetent teachers. Teachers, in turn, complain of late coming by learners and ill discipline, and at times both learners and educators arrive at school inebriated.

2.3 THE EFFECT OF DRUG ABUSE ON THE LIFE-WORLD OF THE ABUSER

2.3.1 Life-world

Vrey (1987:14) defines the concept life-world as the *gestalt* of meaningful relationships in which the individual orientates himself to people, objects and ideas. Life-worlds of individuals differ in that different individuals assign different meanings to the various components, which comprise the life-world. A life-world is not conceivable apart from a person, since it is the total of meanings assigned by the person. Therefore a person without a life-world is inconceivable.

An individual person finds himself in a complex world from birth; he initiates relationships because he wants to know and to become. Therefore, by forming relationships, the child constitutes a life-world.

2.3.2 Experience

The child must enter into a meaningful relationship with the world around him. Through personal involvement in his significance attribution, new relationships are formed or existing ones expanded. As soon as there is significance attribution and involvement, there is bound to be affective experiences.

Affective experience may range from extremes of pleasant and unpleasant, e.g. sadness and joy which intensifies a child's involvement and significance

attribution. Factors such as perseverance, interest, purposiveness and attitude cause a child to experience his subjects differently (Griessel & Mallet, 1988:64, 65).

2.3.3 Relationships

Relationship implies that the child's relationship will be reciprocal. A relationship requires a mutual involvement of human beings. Relationships can be of diverse kinds viz. adults with other adults, adults with children and children with children. Since he is always in a dialogic existence in his relationships he himself will determine the relationships he establishes either by continuing or changing the existing relationship.

Relationship can be established if human beings are present, relationships are meaningful and humans will always strive to retain what is valuable in their environment (Reeler, Munnik, Le Roux, Boose, Swanepoel, Eloff, Stuart & Mac Donald, 1985:11).

(1) Relationship with self

The child has got to know himself. This includes his body, sensorimotor, perceptual and conceptual abilities. He gets to know himself through recognition of his relations with people and things. His self-concept represents what he understands of himself. The self is dynamic; it composes of perceptions, ideas concerning his developing body and maturing self as well as attraides that are open to change.

This self is moulded by experience and the self plays a vital role in the choice of experience (Vos, 1997:112).

(a) Physical health

Lauer (1986:102) warns against the following general physical consequences of drug abuse:

- > poor eating habits since food becomes less important,
- > suffering the effects of malnutrition or anaemia,
- > underweight,
- > infections because of carelessness in administering drugs, and
- > a higher death rate among drug abusers as compared to non-drug abusers.

Ditzler and Haddon (1986:22) state that drug abuse causes damage to the human body while Roth (1979:75) comments on the following effects of drug abuse on the life of a drug abuser: memory blackout, trauma, liver damage and stomach ulcers. Lauer (1986:102) writes that children born to addicted mothers have a significant number of parental related medical problems and behavioural problems in early infancy. Development deficiencies in cognitive and psychomotor skills are also the result of children born to addicted mothers.

A serious stage is inevitably reached when the body develops an ongoing need for drugs and shows signs of discomfort when refrained. Pretorius and Le Roux (1998:276) refer to this as drug dependence. This gradually diminishing effect with repeated drug taking known as drug tolerance, results in taking more of the same drug to experience the same sensation (Searll 1995:253) and the same effects experienced previously (Schnoll, 1986:20).

According to Searll (1995:253) drug abuse is associated with child abuse, poverty, marriage problems or divorce, which may lead to prostitution among some women, assault and criminal behaviour. Lauer (1986:102) supports the

statement and outlines the consequences of drug abuse as malaria *inter alia* syphilis, fungus infection or horrible dental health.

Smith (1990:54) writes that drug abuse removes the desire to work and makes drug abusers unable to face the world.

(b) Psycho-social self

Ausubel (Engelbrecht, 1977:23) argues that there is a primary group of drug abusers with inadequate personalities for whom drugs have an adaptive function. The symptomatic group comprises ordinary teenagers who respond aggressively to any threat, which might tend to deprive them of their complacency.

Ausubel further argues that most of these drug abusers show immaturity, emotional instability, non-acceptance of the demands of reality and aggressive behaviour during a situation of conflict – a state that affects the learning environment (Engelbrecht, 1977:23).

Drug abusers rely on drugs to produce a state of well-being and thus have an artificial support system. Many reach a stage when they think they cannot cope with life unless they use drugs (Searll, 1995:72). Roth (1979:38) agrees with Searll when he writes that drug abuse develops a condition or a feeling of satisfaction or a psychic drive that requires periodic or continuous administration to produce pleasure or to avoid discomfort.

The more expectations are set to drug abusers, e.g. to cope with the subjects in the classes and to pass at the end of the year, the easier they escape and find results in drug abuse. Missing classes is opted for, consequently endangering the culture of learning and teaching.

Lack of sport achievement by the drug abuser poses a threat to the corporate feeling of achievement, which should be part of the satisfaction of taking part in school sport. A consequent lack of pride and dignity as scholars in a particular culture of learning to which sport contributes may result, causing a chain reaction and further drug taking and drug abuse.

Fellow learners who are drug abusers may find it difficult to cope in an environment that has "clear defined inputs and outputs" as the inputs and outputs have a strong influence over learners (Robinson, 1981:149).

At this juncture it is clear that the school and related environment is the terrain where a culture of learning and teaching must be allowed not only to maintain itself in all its facets but also indeed to be a powerful determinant of qualitative human existence. It can be stated unequivocally that drug abuse cannot be reconciled with such a situation.

(2) Relationship with others

(a) Peers

A peer group is an intimate and select group. Admission to a peer group is determined by mutual choice. Status within the group promotes values and individual role in the group. Conditions for admission to a peer group are: intelligence, family background, social class, appearance, physical skills and sex role (Vos, 1997:101, 102).

(b) Educators

During their involvement with each other the teacher and the child get to know each other and a teacher-child relationship is formed. The child's relationship with his parents is the point of departure for the forming of relationships with his educators but in spite of a positive parent-child relationship, negative experiences with one teacher will have a negative effect on the quality of relationships formed with other teachers.

Relations with learner-educator can be created in the following manner: by the educator's attitude, realistic goals, praise for success and the atmosphere the educator creates in the classroom (Vos, 1997:117, 118).

To successfully and effectively fulfil these goals educators need proper training in the psychology of drugs and drug taking. According to Dekker and Lemmer, (1993:204-5), the following are possible signs of abuse, which can help educators and parents to identify drug abusers:

- > a weakening in school performance or loss of interest in sporting and school activities.
- > changes in behaviour from previous well-known patterns, e.g. nervousness, or persistent daydreaming,
- > staggering, inability to communicate clearly, poor concentration,
- bloodshot eyes, unusual finger or palm stains and confusion.

Borst, Van Niekerk and Van Rooy (1985:95) refer to this identification task as accepting full responsibility towards God and their fellow men whereby the effect of drug abuse in the school related environment could be minimized if educators/teachers as partners fulfil their obligations in line with their calling as professionals.

Fellow learners intimidating teachers, assaulting them e.g. when reprimanded for lack of punctuality and accountability could endanger the culture of

learning/teaching. Use and abuse of drugs will aggravate such a threatening situation and even cast a shadow of doubt on the availability of school learning. Quality in the learning environment can only be ensured by enthusiastic learners who have a passion for learning, well disciplined teachers, motivated and dedicated and committed to effective teaching and learning (Zulu, 1999:12).

(c) Family members

Parents should give support to the child's cry of stress. Parents give meaning to the cry and know what to do, even if it means withholding the help and give a chance to the child to attempt. The relations between the child and parent are grounded in the following factors – love, knowledge, care, respect, responsibility and trust.

(3) Relationship with objects and ideas

The child assigns meanings to objects by means of manipulation and understanding of ideas. Understanding ideas involves language, e.g. chair for sitting. The child must also have knowledge to orientate himself to concepts. When the child is orientating himself to concepts and objects. Meanings are important (Vos, 1997:107, 108).

(a) <u>Domestic environment</u>

The concept domestic environment implies the place where the child experiences life in all its fullness for the first time. The experiences will remain part of the child's life for as long as he lives. Domestic environment includes physical surroundings, the total relationship between the child, other people, animals and plants.

At school the child is helped to experience his environment with greater awareness. Domestic environment serves as a point of departure for a child (Stuart, Van Niekerk, MacDonald & De Klerk).

The abuser's domestic environment in the context of this study refers to the haven where he/she finds himself/herself outside curricular hours and activities, usually the family set up and the community. In this environment fathers are more often than not representing the outside world, often being absent. In spite of their absence, fathers' behaviour will to a large extent be emulated by their children, especially boys, whether the behaviour is exemplary or not (Borst, Van Niekerk & Van Rooy, 1988:80).

Drug use and abuse by adolescents nowadays affect the domestic scene in various ways. Dekker and Lemmer, (1993:201) write that parents need education on drug abuse. This will enable them to identify signs of drug abuse in their children. Drug abuse as reality demands this from parents and family.

Healthy family dynamics is a prerequisite for a teaching/learning culture to be established, retained and nourished. Such family dynamics would 'permit unhindered entrance' (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:55) of the youth into social life so as not to lose contact with reality. From the family the child gets to know things and people in his environment. He must receive answers to his questions on what the position of things and people are, and whether something is allowed or not.

As is the case with family dynamics, the social dynamics could be threatened by drug abuse, affecting the culture of learning. Changes in today's society, the vulnerability as a result of the availability of drugs and the abuse thereof has brought confusion amongst the adolescents who carry drugs with them and to the learning environments and thus threaten the culture of learning/teaching.

Emotional ties in the pre-industrial extended family reflected a high degree of emotional security. The youth was in contact with a number of people, old and young, for ideas, discipline and solutions to problems at leisure times (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:56). Undoubtedly this situation did not leave any room for frustrations to youth, which could lead to drugs and drug abuse.

In a changed society parents should condemn drugs and its abuse as these have an impact at a later stage (Searll, 1995:11). Schomp (1997:58) supports Searll's statement that parents should point out the probable consequences of drug abuse to their children and let them know that no compromises should be made. Engelbrecht (1997:63) emphasizes the relationship between parents and children, which must be expanded and stabilized through working and playing together at home – a strong family bond as a precious counter performance to drug use and abuse.

According to Lauer (1986:107) most drug abusers come from broken families where parents have no school training and do not encourage their children to attend schools. Where parents and family members are addicted there is less control over the children and less structure in the family, resulting in its dynamics being distorted. Children of these families are vulnerable to addiction (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:55).

Since the family and environment has a strong influence on the scholastic achievement of a child, a family with distorted dynamics will have an impact on the learning environment of the child and thus his/her perception of a culture of learning.

The community system as an aspect of a culture of learning is vulnerable to the effects of drug abuse. Community factors such as the following are conducive to drug abuse (Pretorius & Le Roux, 1998:57):

(i) <u>Demographics</u>

In rural areas learners travel long distances to schools, without security and protection. This makes them easy targets for rape by drug abusers, resulting in early pregnancies, which nowadays might be accompanied by HIV/AIDS. Many learners might not complete their primary and secondary education but end up in drug use and abuse.

(ii) Socio-cultural

If the community is full of rapists and drug users and abusers the culture of learning is affected, since learners are part of this community. This will have a negative impact on the culture of learning and holds no future goals for the adolescents that are eager to explore life.

(iii) Economic

Chishon and Vally (1996:41) point out that during research interviews it became clear that a number of learners in Soweto are starving or suffering from family disorders white others are living alone in shacks. The same situation applies in rural areas where parents stay near their workplace due to lack of transport, leaving their children in the care of neighbours.

(iv) Political

Most adolescents are under age when they indulge in drugs and abuse. They are too young to vote; some are even refused entrance to public bottle stores. This poses a sense of powerlessness and frustration in their minds and the feeling that they are not recognized in the community and by the government, and thus seek relief in drugs (Lauer, 1986:119).

There can be no doubt that the domestic pathology prevalent in many families is aggravated by the drug use and abuse phenomenon. This in turn impacts negatively on the learning environment and consequently a culture of teaching and learning.

(b) Drugs

The child is in a process of exploring and experimenting with objects around him. To sustain and live a life that is free from drugs he needs knowledge about the negative effects of drugs in his life so that he makes a good decision. This is possible if parents and educators give proper guidance to him.

(c) School-related environment

Smith and Pacheco (1996:4) refer to the concept of a culture of learning as referred to in chapter one of this study, as the school related environment in which the drug abuser finds himself on a day-to-day basis; not only the school he is attending but the extracurricular situation internally and externally as well.

In this environment the culture of learning is manifested by different elements. A culture of teaching and learning cannot prevail without a mindset for teaching and learning, i.e. an attitude by learners and teachers towards learning/teaching, the spirit of dedication and commitment in the school, the input of teachers and personal characteristics of students, family life of students, school related factors and societal factors.

The mindset to learn/study evokes certain expectations as regards attitude, interest, climate, aura, atmosphere and spirit. However, the characteristics that occupy the mind of the abuser prevents the unfolding of the abuser's potential within the culture of learning and thus endangers it, resulting in severe intellectual misery.

As abuse increases in a particular school, the situation gets worse when learning time is spent in the toilets, sports and cultural activities are dodged and cognitive and concomitant susceptibility are neutralized, resulting in learning stagnation.

Wales as quoted by (Le Roux, 2000:72) perceives the learning environment as the process that enables teachers and learners to participate more fully in the planning, implementation and evolution of educational activities. Steenkamp, Van Staden and Van Rooyen (1999:4) adds that the learning environment allows for control, which implies rules and regulations that the teacher sets in order to establish an orderly situation in which to teach.

According to Steenkamp, Van Staden and Van Rooyen (1999:50) an ideal learning environment has its buildings maintained, classrooms have pictures relevant to learning and teaching, school premises and school grounds are kept clean, gates are locked during school hours and after school and toilets are nearer the classrooms so as to avoid more time spent outside than inside classes.

Broken ceilings provide a hiding place for drugs. Unfixed furniture, desks, tables and chairs pose a problem to sitting accommodation, thus lending opportunities to learners to be outside, and becoming vulnerable to drugs and abuse (Steenkamp, Van Staden & Van Rooyen, 1999:30).

Drug abuse in the educational and related environment requires specific roles for educators, i.e. in obtaining a basic knowledge of the signs and symptoms of drug abuse, early identification of the drug abuser and early intervention (De Miranda, 1998:14). In so doing a potential threat to the culture of learning and teaching could be eliminated.

(4) Relationship with God

The child is involved in a religious relationship with God. He is being led by his parents with a quality of religion he experiences within the home. His parents teach him to pray and want to see him praying. On Sundays he goes to Sunday school and receives scripture lessons, which introduces him to the Bible (Vos, 1997:119).

2.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter the interplay of drug abuse, learning environment, culture of learning and teaching was revealed on the basis of literature study. The focus was on the causes and effects of drug abuse as it is reflected in the specific literature, particularly focusing on the culture of teaching and learning. In the next chapter attention will be given to the research design.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

÷		PAGE
3.1	INTRODUCTION	37
3.2	PREPARATION	37
3.2.1	Permission	37
3.2.2	Selection of respondents	37
3.3	THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT	38
3.3.1	The questionnaire as a research instrument	38
3.3.2	Construction of the questionnaire	38
3.3.3	Characteristics of the questionnaire	40
3.3.4	Validity and reliability of the questionnaire	41
3.3.5	Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire	43
3.4	PILOT STUDY	45
3.5	ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	46
3.6	PROCESSING OF DATA	47
3.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION	48
3.8	SUMMARY	49

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Bailey (1978:3) research planning involves strategies designed for the gathering of data that will help the researcher to answer questions about a specific problem. Conducting research is therefore to establish facts or discover facts or principles (Collins, 1978:638). In this study the researcher plans to collect factual data on the effect of drug abuse on a culture of learning/teaching.

3.2 PREPARATION

3.2.1 Permission

The necessary permission to administer the questionnaire in schools of the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture obtained from the authorities.

Permission was asked and obtained (Annexure A) from the Superintendent: Education Management (SEM) of this office.

3.2.2 Selection of respondents

A sample of 10 schools (5 primary and 5 secondary schools) was randomly streeted without any pre knowledge of educators and restricts who might have been addicted or not. The researcher personally visited the principals of the selected schools with the letter of approval referred to above and consent was obtained.

The researcher spent two days delivering the questionnaires to the selected schools.

To limit expenditure of mailing each questionnaire or to collect them from those who might respond immediately and submit on different dates in these ten selected schools, the respondents were given two weeks to complete the questionnaires and to submit them to their respective principals, where the researcher would collect them.

3.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

3.3.1 The questionnaire as a research instrument

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein as quoted by (Zulu, 1999:79) characterize the questionnaire as a set of questions dealing with the same topic ... given to a selected group of individuals f or the purpose of gathering data on a problem under research. Bailey (1978:111) concurs that data collection is the basic function of the questionnaire. As participation in the research is voluntary, it is imperative that respondents' interest is engaged, and their cooperation encouraged. The reaction elicited should reflect reality as accurately as possible.

3.3.2 Construction of the questionnaire

According to Buchler and Puttergill (1997:206) the questionnaire should consist of a number of standardized preset questions designed to collect the information required. Keeping in mind the literature study done for this research the questionnaire is divided into the following sections (Annexure C):

Section A: This section deals with personal information of the respondents (items 1-9).

Section B: The items of this section refer to learner drug-abusers in the respondents' schools (items 10-22).

Section C: The items of this section refer to educators who indulge themselves in drugs. The researcher wanted to gather information about the impact of drug abuse by educators on a culture of learning/teaching (items 23-29).

Section D: This section focuses on some general factors regarding drug abuse directly impacting on a culture of learning in schools of the respondents (items 30-39).

When constructing a questionnaire the researcher must ensure that the specific results he has in mind (theoretically) and reflected in certain concepts used in the questionnaire, can/will be obtained by means of certain operations and conditions prevalent and appropriate for the questionnaire to operate (to be dealt with appropriately and goal focused by the respondents). This means that the researcher must ensure that the instrument he has identified to use (operational definitions) will meet the needs he has planned to obtain (theoretical concepts).

The key concept in the construction of a questionnaire is relevance. This concept has three facets: (1) relevance of the study's goals, (2) relevance of questions to the goals of the study and (3) relevance of the questions to the individual respondents (Bailey, 1978:113).

It is not only relevance as regards questionnaire construction but also relevance of questions to the study and to the respondents that is of importance. The respondents must be convinced that all questions in the questionnaire are relevant to the stated goals of the study.

This could sometimes be problematic as research goals are not aiways clear outside their scientific context, especially to a lay respondent (Bailey, 1978:113). Respondents will not necessarily respond to items as the researcher might expect, due to lack of understanding and wrong interpretation of the items.

It is important for the researcher to clarify, explain and justify the goals of the study to the respondents. In this study, certain concepts that might not be clear to the respondents are explained. Questions have been formulated so that it did not include two or more questions in one. Such questions lead to hesitations and indecision on the part of the respondent (Bailey, 1978:115).

In the questionnaire the respondents were requested to indicate in three ways how they perceive the impact of drug abuse on a culture of learning/teaching viz. agree, disagree, and uncertain (closed-ended questions). The answers were easy to code and analyse, thus saving time and money and hopefully reducing frustrations from the respondents.

3.3.3 Characteristics of the questionnaire

A questionnaire is an instrument that is well designed to collect the required information the researcher wishes to collect on a particular research problem.

The questionnaire for this research professes to be as unambiguous as practically possible i.e. uncomplicated and user friendly. According to Mahlangu, Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg as quoted by (Zulu, 1999:80), the following features characterize a good questionnaire:

- > It has to deal with a significant topic, which the respondents will recognize as important enough to warrant spending their time on.
- It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other services.
- > It must be as short as possible but long enough to get essential data.

- > Each question should deal with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforward as possible.
- Data obtained from the questionnaires must be easy to tabulate and interpret.

3.3.4 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

According to Buchler and Puttergill (1997:170) validity in a questionnaire refers to the appropriateness of a particular measurement to a theoretical construct. This means that validity has to do with the question whether a measuring instrument will measure what it ought to measure (Bell, 1999:104).

Three different types of validity as regards the questionnaire can be distinguished, i.e. criterion validity, construct validity and face or content validity (Bailey, 1978:74). Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg as quoted by (Zulu, 1999:35) elucidate these 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 which refers to the relationship between scores on a measuring instrument and an independent variable (criterion) 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 for example intelligence, reasoning ability, attitudes, etc.

The validity of the questionnaire indicates how valuable a measure is likely to be in a given situation. If the attitude is stable and the respondent's answers to the items are not affected by unpredictable factors then the administration of each

instrument should provide the same results. The validity of the questionnaire 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 (Zulu, 1999:85).

The researcher implemented the questionnaire to measure the educator's perceptions on drug abuse and its impact on the culture of learning/teaching. Due to the complexity of the respondents' attributes one might never be certain that the questionnaire designed will really measure what it is designed to measure. This is solely dependent on the interpretation of the results and the conclusions that would be drawn.

Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions (Bell, 1999:103). Reliability relates to consistency and dependability (Zulu, 1999:86).

Bailey (1978:74) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (Zulu, 1999:86) distinguish between the following types of reliability:

- > Test-retest reliability, which tests the consistency estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument.
- > Split-half reliability, which is calculated by correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument.
- > Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same thing.

Though reliability refers to consistency, the reliability of the questionnaire is no proof that the answers given reflect the respondent's true feeling. However the lack of reliability in the questionnaire might result in a failure to collect the data accurately (sources of error) (Bailey, 1978:75, 76). The sources of error manifests itself when:

- > The respondents do not understand poorly worded items in a measuring instrument.
- > Different respondents may understand the same question differently and react differently to it.
- > Poor selection of the sample can lead to bad if not unrepresentative data.
- > The misinterpretation of data during data analysis stage.
- > Personal characteristics of respondents e.g. fatigue.

When using a questionnaire as a research instrument there is no guarantee to any research method to obtain the reliability of the questionnaire. It is difficult to determine to what extent the answers of the respondents were reliable. The researcher believes that the questionnaires in this study were completed with honesty as far as possible to provide optimum possible reliability.

Frankness in responding to questions was hopefully encouraged by the anonymity of the questionnaire.

3.3.5 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

The written questionnaire has been used in this research due to the advantages it has compared to other ways of data gathering:

- > It is the least expensive means of data gathering in terms of money and time especially when the questionnaires are hand delivered to the respondents.
- > It permits anonymity.

- > Confidentiality is guaranteed in the questionnaire.
- > All respondents are exposed to the same wording of the questionnaire.
- > The respondents could take their time to complete the questionnaire.
- > There is no opportunity for the respondents to be biased by an interviewer.
- > Questionnaires can be given to as many respondents as possible (Bailey, 1978:156; Zulu, 1999:81, 82).

The possible misinterpretation of some items is always a potential disadvantage. However, the researcher endeavoured to word items as carefully and unambiguously as practically possible. The pilot study served a valuable purpose in this regard.

Orlich (Gumede, 2000:29) summarizes the following disadvantages:

- > Illiteracy by respondents can delay the completion of the questionnaire.

 Hence the targeting of educators in this survey.
- > Respondents may return the questionnaire incomplete.
- ➤ Lack of flexibility there is no researcher present to calm the situation when the respondent dislikes particular questions.
- ➤ Low response rate some respondents may have temporary shelters and no addresses and might not be reached when the questionnaires are needed. To anticipate the situation the researcher depends on the questionnaires that have been returned.

- ➤ No control over question order some respondents read the entire questionnaire before answering, skip questions or do not answer questions in the order in which they are presented.
- > Verbal behaviour only. There is no researcher present to observe non-verbal behaviour or to make assessment concerning the respondent's social stratum (Bailey, 1978:158).

In this study, the respondents might not have answered all questions as expected/anticipated due to the disadvantages mentioned above.

3.4 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is a pre-test of the investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey (Zulu, 1999:88). The fundamental purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the subsequent study can be improved and to identify the possible flaws in the questionnaire. The pilot study actually gives the researcher a picture of the investigation in actual practice.

A pilot test should use a group of respondents, which is part of the intended test population but will not be part of the sample.

A pilot study has the following purpose:

- > It allows for pre-test of the hypothesis.
- > It provides ideas and strategies as well as tips that the researcher did not anticipate before.
- > The number of treatment errors is reduced since unforeseen problems spelt out in the pilot study results in redesigning the study.

- > It saves the researcher time and expenditure.
- > The results from the respondents provide room for improvement in the study.
- > The researcher will be in a position to establish the appropriate time it takes to complete the questionnaire by the respondents.
- > Questions that are misinterpreted can be rephrased and reformulated (Zulu, 1999:89, 90).

The researcher piloted 2 men and 3 women educators from 5 different schools who did not form part of the sample. These educators were urban area residents and the research study was focused on the rural area (Uitval/Wasbank). Each of these educators was given similar questionnaires to complete and the questionnaires were collected after 5 days since not all were given on the same day due to the geographical factor.

Respondents had to comment on and indicate the items that were not clear, or were confusing. They were each asked about the time they had spent answering questions. Comments and questions that were not clear or were confusing were noted and reported on by respondents.

3.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The researcher personally delivered the questionnaires to the 10 selected schools. On his arrival at each of the 10 randomly selected schools (5 primary and 5 secondary schools, each principal/deputy or whoever was in charge, asked the educators to assemble and introduced the researcher. The researcher explained the purpose of the study to the respondents.

Both respondents and researcher accepted the fact that completion of the questionnaires should not interfere with educators' professional obligations

regarding the marking of trial examinations and internal examinations at the time. Hence the fixing of a due date for return of the questionnaire in collaboration with respondents had to be agreed upon. By mutual arrangement and with the necessary consent of the school management completion was done immediately.

3.6 PROCESSING OF DATA

After the data was collected it was captured in a format, which would permit analysis and interpretation (data reduction). This included the coding of 100 questionnaires completed by educators. Data was converted into frequency tables so that it allows for analysis of the findings by means of descriptive statistics.

Descriptive statistics serve the purpose of describing and summarizing observations, the tables being useful in enabling the researcher forming impressions about the distribution of data. Such statistics furthermore

- > indicate how many times a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires; and
- > provide the percentages that show the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses (Zulu, 1999:91).

In this study the descriptive statistics method has been used to interpret and summarize the results of the data.

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

In using the questionnaire as empirical research instrument the researcher has to accept that it presents certain limitations such as the following:

- ➤ Although items have been formulated and arranged to ensure, as far as practically possible, maximal reliability, the very nature and sensitivity of the particular research topic in question might have a bearing on the reliability of the instrument. A different group of respondents might respond differently due to the severity or not of drug abuse in their particular area.
- ➤ Honesty and reliability as regards the responses cannot be quantified 100% correct, once again due to the sensitive nature of the research topic and a possible tendency to protect colleagues and their school or, on the other hand, having a fanatical/fundamental approach towards the issue of drug abuse. The role that victimization could play in manipulating responses, directly or indirectly, can also not be ruled out.
- > The possibility of educators not taking time in answering the questions themselves but request someone else to do it cannot be ruled out. This has an impact on the results since the respondents were orientated to the purpose of the study.
- Though many questionnaires could be delivered to the respondents there is no guarantee of 100% return. The analysis and recommendations that the researcher will be able to make are solely dependable on a high race of responses.
- ➤ The fact that this research was confined to the rural area of Uitval/Wasbank does not mean the conclusions and findings are the same for other rural areas in other provinces. Moreover this covers only black schools in a particular area and the possibility that findings and recommendations might not bring

solutions to other rural, and/or urban areas, which might be well advanced, cannot be ruled out.

➤ Conclusions drawn eventually would refer to only black learner and educator drug abusers, which is not a full representation of all drug abusers in South Africa.

3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter the planning and design for this research have been outlined and the necessary preparatory steps dealt with. The questionnaire as research instrument has been characterized, as well as the pilot study which was conducted. Dealing with the way data would be captured and outlining the limitations of the investigation concluded this chapter.

In chapter 4 the focus will be on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data collected from the respondents.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH DATA

		PAGE
4.1	INTRODUCTION	50
4.2	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	50
4.2.1	Personal data of respondents	50
(1)	Gender [1]	50
(2)	Age [2]	51
(3)	Marital status [3]	52
(4)	School (grade) category, type and location [4, 5 and 7]	52
(5)	Present post [6]	53
(6)	Religion [8]	54
(7)	Home language [9]	54
4.2.2	Responses as regards drug use and abuse in general in	
	schools	55
(1)	Frustration due to non-coping with schooling as	
	contributory factor to learner drug abuse [10]	55
(2)	Performance in natural sciences academy by learner drug	
	abusers [11]	55
(3)	Separate schooling for drug abusers [12]	56
(4)	Emulation of elders by learner drug abusers as a causal	
	factor for drug abuse [13]	56
(5)	Rebellion against parents' authority as a possible cause for	
	drug abuse [14]	546
(6)	Poor self-concept as a contributory factor for drug abuse	
	[15]	56
(7)	Cultivating an awareness of the dangers of drugs and drug	
	abuse [16]	57

CHAPTER 4 (continued)

		PAGE
(8)	Suggestions to cultivate awareness [17]	57
(9)	Learner drug abusers' school attendance pattern [18]	
(10)	Learner drug abusers' punctuality regarding school	57
	attendance [19]	58
(11)	Abode of most learner drug abusers [20]	58
(12)	Peer pressure as a factor causing drug abuse [21]	59
(13)	Craving to succeed in sport and cultural activities as	
	contributory factor for drug abuse [22]	59
4.2.3	Educators' responses as regards drug abuse by their	
	colleagues	59
(1)	The need for in-service training on drug abuse [23]	59
(2)	Collusion between educator and learner drug abusers [24]	60
(3)	Learner drug abusers to be taught exclusively by drug	
	abusers? [25]	60
(4)	Educator drug abusers' punctuality regarding school	
	attendance [26]	60
(5)	Irresponsibility of educator drug abusers creating	
	disciplinary problems for school management [27]	60
(6)	The role of tradition and religious beliefs regarding drug	
	use [28]	61
(7)	Drug use/abuse due to temptation in excessive stressful	
	situations [29]	61
4.2.4	Educators' responses as regards some implications and the	
	impact of drug abuse on a culture of learning and teaching	
	in schools	61
(1)	The promotion of a culture of learning by means of regular	
	school assembly [30]	61
(2)	Responses as regards regular SAPS raids and the	
	implications thereof [31]	62

CHAPTER 4 (continued)

		PAGE
(3)	The drug abusers' right to use drugs? [32]	62
(4)	Accessibility to full-time school psychologists by both	
	educator and learner drug abusers [33]	63
(5)	Ignorance among rural parents in particular as a factor in	
	drug abuse [34]	63
(6)	Undue pressure as a factor promoting drug abuse [35]	63
(7)	Domestic problems as a contributory factor to drug abuse	
	[36]	64
(8)	Educators' responses regarding shame brought on families	
	as a result of drug abuse [37]	64
(9)	Drug trafficking by educators as a factor in drug abuse [38]	64
(10)	Taverns, shebeens as a contributory factor to drug abuse	
	[39]	65
4.3	SUMMARY	65

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research data collected by means of questionnaires is presented in this chapter by way of descriptive statistics. These are analyzed and interpreted apropos the problem investigated. One hundred and sixty questionnaires were distributed to 10 randomly selected schools (5 primary and 5 secondary) in the Uitval/Wasbank area in KwaZulu-Natal. Of these questionnaires 100 were returned.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

NB Numbers in square brackets after each subheading denote questionnaire item numbers [cf. Annexure C]

4.2.1 Personal data of respondents

[Questionnaire: Section A]

(1) <u>Gender</u> [1]

Table 1: Frequency distribution according to respondent's garden

Sex	Frequency	%
Male	33	33
Female	67	67
Total	100	100

The ratio of 67 female and 33 male respondents correlates well with the generally accepted gender representation among black and white teachers in the teaching profession (Joubert & Prinsloo, 1999:15). It could reasonably be expected that responses would in all probability reflect a representative view on relevant issues.

However, females basically dominate in teaching simply because females are lacking in management skills and principals rarely delegate activities that would develop their managerial skills (Joubert & Prinsloo, 1999:15).

(2) Age [2]

Table 2: Frequency distribution according to respondent's age

Age	Frequency	%
20 - 30	04	04
31 - 40	43	43
41 – 50	44	44
51+	09	09
Total	100	100

The fact that most respondents are between 31 and 50 years old might possibly be seen as indicative of a common concern among this age group about a culture of learning/teaching in schools.

(3) Marital status [3]

Table 3: Frequency distribution according to respondent's marital status

Status	Frequency	%
Single	32	32
Married	63	63
Divorced	05	05
Cohabitated	00	00
Total	100	100

(4) School (grade) category, type and location [4, 5 and 7]

Table 4: Frequency distribution according to category, type and location of schools

Village locality

Situated in the countryside as part of a collection of houses, smaller than a town, usually having a church and a school.

Rural locality

Situated in the countryside, far away from towns, cities and big businesses.

School category/locality		Co-educational Private		Specialized	Total	
Primary	Village	23	00	00	23	
	Rural	44	00	00	44	
Secondary	Village	13	00	1)()	13	
	Rural	20	00	00	20	

The fact that the majority of respondents are from rural schools and that responses thus reflect predominantly on a rural based learner population, might probably be of significance regarding the magnitude of drug abuse as

embodied in responses to questionnaire items in this regard. Rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal have been identified as a 'stronghold of dagga' (Du Preez 2001:11-04:28).

(5) Present post [6]

Table 5: Frequency distribution according to respondent's present post

	Teacher	Head of	Deputy	Principal	Total
		Department	Principal		
Secondary	18	07	03	05	33
Primary	54	05	03	05	67
Total	72	12	06	10	100

The majority of respondents are primary school educators (teachers) in post level I. When assessing their disciplinary task one would possibly keep in mind that it could be seen as less complicated than that of secondary school educators in view of, for instance, the unique problems manifesting in the older secondary school learner. Against this background and the fact that the primary school learner tends to have a more structured disciplinary relationship with his/her educator one could expect a more controlled situation at this level, i.e. educators being more aware of the presence of drug abuse or signs indicating tendencies in that direction.

(6) Religion [8]

<u>Table 6:</u> Frequency distribution according to the respondent's religious affiliation

Religion	Frequency	%
Christian	. 99	99
Hindu/Moslem	00	00
African Traditional	01	01
Total	100	100

The fact that the respondents' religious profile reflects a near 100% Christian affiliation could possibly play an important role in the respondents' stand as regards drug abuse as well as a culture of learning and teaching. Christianity is based on biblical values, which set the standards for living and determine man's actions and destiny. Such values would not condone drug abuse.

(7) Home language [9]

Table 7: Frequency distribution according to respondent's home language

Language	Frequency	%
Zulu	98	98
Xhosa	01	01
Swazi	01	01
Sotho	00	00
Total	100	100

4.2.2 Responses as regards drug use and abuse in general in schools

Questionnaire: Section B items [10] - [22]

Pertaining to learners who are known or suspected to be drug abusers in respondents' schools

(1) Frustration due to non-coping with schoolwork as contributory factor to learner drug abuse [10]

The majority of respondents (56%) agreed with the statement that frustration due to non-coping with school subjects could be regarded as a catalyst, which might precipitate drug use and consequent abuse. Twenty percent of respondents disagreed and 24% indicated that they were uncertain. It could be assumed that the latter response was motivated by the view that drug abuse cannot be attributed to either science subjects or any 'difficult' subject and that it would be unlikely that learners will reason that drug abuse can improve their understanding of learning material.

(2) <u>Performance in natural science/Sciences academy by learner drug</u> abusers [11]

The majority of respondents (63%) disagreed with the statement that learner drug-abusers perform well in science subjects while 18% agreed and 19% indicated that they were uncertain. The latter response indicates that the possibility of a correlation between drug abuse and performance could be questioned.

(3) Separate schooling for drug abusers [12]

Even though 57% of the respondents see separate schooling as a possible solution to drug abuse and restoration of a culture of learning, 26% disagreed and 17% indicated that they are uncertain.

(4) Emulation of elders by learner drug abusers as a causal factor for drug abuse [13]

According to 47% of the respondents drug abuse emanates from emulation of elders by youth. This statement is also supported by Schomp (1977:20) and Hartman (1995:8). However, 27% disagreed and 26% indicated that they are uncertain. It is possible that the respondents, who disagreed because they expected the youth to respect their elders, are questioning emulation.

(5) Rebellion against parents' authority as a possible cause for drug abuse [14]

According to 65% of the respondents learners abuse drugs to rebel against their parents' authority. This statement is in line with Searll (1995:107) who states that some youth take drugs to rebel against their elders. However, 15% disagreed while 20% indicated that they are uncertain.

(6) Poor self-concept as a contributory factor for drug abuse [15]

A significant 83% of the respondents agreed that poor self-concept is a contributory factor to drug abuse. This statement is echoed by Searll (1995:5) who states that it is positive self-esteem that needs to be built amongst the adolescents so that drugs are not seen as alternative to those with a poor self-concept.

(7) Cultivating an awareness of the dangers of drugs and drug abuse [16]

A significant 90% of the respondents agreed that it is important that learner drug abusers be made aware of the dangers of drug abuse. This finding is also in line with Searll (1995:147) who stated that youth need to be made aware of the danger in drugs and drug abuse.

Only 4% disagreed while 6% expressed uncertainty as to this statement.

(8) Suggestions to cultivate awareness [17]

According to responses, awareness of the dangers of drugs and drug abuse can be cultivated by:

- workshops,
- inclusion of the drug abuse issue in the curriculum,
- counselling by psychologists, and
- anti-drug campaigns in schools.

The feasibility of these suggestions by the respondents will be considered in chapter 5 of this study.

(9) Learner drug abusers' school attendance pattern [18]

The majority of respondents (80%) agreed with the statement while 9% disagreed and 11% indicated that they were uncertain. The latter might represent, inter alia, those educators who do not mark their class registers regularly.

(10) Learner drug abusers' punctuality regarding school attendance [19]

According to 76% of the respondents this statement pertaining to school attendance is true. However, 5% of the respondents disagreed while 19% were uncertain whether or not one could say that drug abusers are latecomers at schools and thus have a negative impact on a culture of learning/teaching. A factor that might have played a role in this result could be that some learner drug abusers do not stay with their parents, thus possibly lacking discipline and a culture of learning that could have been initiated by parents at home. From the responses of the 24% who disagreed and were uncertain one might possibly sense a somewhat cool attitude towards the possible correlation between punctuality and drug abuse.

(11) Abode of most learner drug abusers [20]

A relatively small percentage of 48% respondents agreed that most learners do not stay with their biological parents. Chishon and Vally, (1996:41) agree. In rural areas parents stay far from their workplaces. They normally see their families at the month-end. Their children are left in the care of neighbours, thus exposing these children to targets for drug pushers.

Twenty-three percent of the respondents disagreed and 29% expressed uncertainty as to the significance of staying with parents or not as causal factor for drug abuse. The 48% respondents who agreed with the statement appear to realize that there are factors that are related to drug abuse which parents need to know about so that they can guard against it, thus be on the alert for signs such as drug trafficking in the community.

(12) Peer pressure as a factor causing drug abuse [21]

According to 77% of the respondents this statement is true. Searll (1995:107) supports Dekker and Lemmer (eds), (1993:99) when they state that peer group pressure plays an important role in drug abuse and that it is in fact a potent force contributing to drug abuse.

(13) Craving to succeed in sport and cultural activities as contributory factor for drug abuse [22]

Agreement with this statement was expressed by 49% of respondents while 22% disagreed and 29% expressed uncertainty. Searll (1995:109) states that some youth take drugs because they want to succeed in sports or cultural activities.

The relatively large number of respondents who were uncertain (29%) and 22%, who disagreed, does not necessarily mean that these respondents do not realize the negative effect of drug use and abuse on the lives of the learner-participants.

4.2.3 Educators' responses as regards drug abuse by their colleagues

Questionnaire: Section C items [23] - [29]

Pertaining to educators who are known or suspected of being drug abusers in respondents' schools.

(1) The need for in-service training on drug abuse [23]

In line with Dekker and Lemmer (eds) (1993:203), Searll (1995:33) states that parents need training on drugs and drug abuse. Ninety-two percent of the respondents agreed with the statement while 3% disagreed and 5% were

uncertain. This majority view could be seen as a clear indication that there is a need for in-service training regarding drug abuse.

(2) Collusion between educator and learner drug abusers [24]

Of the 100 educators who responded 59% agreed that this type of collusion exists while 5% disagreed and 36% were uncertain. It is possible that the 36% uncertain responses might be due to the personal nature of such knowledge and fear of victimization.

(3) Learner drug abusers to be taught exclusively by drug abusers [25]

The majority of 70% of the respondents disagreed with the statement while 10% agreed and 20% expressed their uncertainty. The majority who disagreed with the statement could be interpreted as an indication that parents are committed to an education for their children, which is free of negative influences.

(4) Educator drug abusers' punctuality regarding school attendance [26]

Most of the respondents (61%) agreed that educator drug-abusers often come late for school while 15% of the respondents disagreed and 24% were uncertain. The 15% who disagreed and 24% who were uncertain are possibly those educators who do not want to expose their colleagues.

(5) <u>Irresponsibility of educator drug abusers creating disciplinary</u> problems for school management [27]

The majority of 79% of the respondents agreed with this statement while 7% disagreed and 14% were uncertain. This could be seen as a clear indication

of the educators' concern about discipline, which is possibly affected by teacher drug abusers when they are not present or arrive late at school.

(6) The role of tradition and religious beliefs regarding drug use [28]

According to 47% of the respondents religious beliefs could play a role in drug abuse. Fourteen percent however disagree and 39% were uncertain about the possible effects of traditional and religious factors on drug abuse.

(7) <u>Drug use/abuse due to temptation in excessively stressful situations</u>
[29]

Forty-four percent of the respondents agree that temptation might be a factor under such circumstances while the rest (56%) was uncertain.

4.2.4 Educators' responses as regards some implications and the impact of drug abuse on a culture of learning and teaching in schools

Questionnaire: Section D items [30] - [39]

Focusing on some factors and implications possibly impacting directly on drug abuse and a culture of learning and teaching in general

(1) The promotion of a culture of learning by means of regular school assembly [30]

This aspect was included in the questionnaire since the regular school assembly could be viewed as an opportunity to inculcate a value system conducive to a culture of learning/teaching. The majority of respondents (70%) agreed with the statement while 13% disagreed and 17% were uncertain.

This finding is in line with Steenkamp, Van Staden and Van Rooyen (1999:37) who state that the school assembly provides an excellent opportunity for a principal to promote a culture of learning/teaching. The advice and direction given at assembly could help learners in their approach to a learning culture on a day-to-day basis.

Government Gazette 1996. South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 (1996-11-15:4) could possibly have influenced the 30% respondents who did not agree or were uncertain about the validity of the statement regarding the role that the school assembly could play in the promotion of a culture of learning. Section 7 of this Act stipulates the following in connection with freedom of conscience and religion at public schools: "Subject to the Constitution and any applicable provincial law, religious observances may be conducted at a public school under rules issued by the governing body if such observances are conducted on an equitable basis and attendance at them by learners and members of staff is free and voluntary".

(2) Responses as regards regular SAPS raids and the implications thereof [31]

The majority of respondents (71%) agreed with the statement while 12% disagreed and 17% were uncertain. The fact could not be ruled out that respondents in the latter two categories could be educator drug-abusers who might fear embarrassment and humiliation in front of their learners and colleagues, should raids be conducted and educator abusers be exposed as well.

(3) The drug abusers' right to abuse drugs? [32]

The majority of respondents (80%) disagreed that drug abuse is the right of all drug abusers while 6% of the respondents agreed and 14% were

uncertain. It can reasonably be assumed that this indicates the willingness of a representative majority of educators to cooperate in combating drug abuse and by doing so maintain a drug-free culture.

(4) Accessibility to full-time school psychologists by both educator and learner drug abusers [33]

The majority of respondents (88%) agreed with the statement while 3% disagreed and 9% were uncertain. Respondents who agreed also mentioned in response to item [17] above how learner drug abusers could possibly be made aware of the dangers of drug abuse *viz.* psychological counselling.

(5) Ignorance among rural parents in particular as a factor in drug abuse [34]

The majority of the respondents (73%) were of the opinion that many parents in rural areas are ignorant about drugs and the abuse thereof. Factors that contribute to this ignorance could be a lack of information due to no or limited access to media such as radio, TV, libraries and newspapers, etc. These respondents apparently view literacy and concomitant factors such as a lack of community libraries where their children could spend most of their time on reading rather than on drugs, thereby broadening their scope of knowledge, as important for parents to fully and appropriately play their role in favour of a drug-free culture.

(6) Undue pressure as a factor promoting drug abuse [35]

Of the 100 educators who responded, 51% agreed that undue pressure and unrealistic parental expectations could be accountable for drug use and abuse. However, 24% disagreed and 25% were uncertain.

It can reasonably be assumed that the relatively significant affirmative response in this regard indicates that, although respondents presumably realize the importance for parents/guardians to know and develop their children's potential as far as possible, unrealistic pressure could have negative consequences.

(7) <u>Domestic problems as a contributory factor to drug abuse [36]</u>

Unhappiness on the domestic scene is brought about by various situational causes such as parental fighting, alienation between youth and their parents, etc. These problems might have a negative impact on the youth (Lauer, 1978:107). This is reflected in an 82% affirmative response while 10% disagreed and 8% were uncertain about the significance of domestic problems as regards drug abuse.

(8) Educators' responses regarding shame brought on families as a result of drug abuse [37]

The majority of respondents (80%) agreed with the statement while 1% disagreed and 19% were uncertain. This statement is supported by Searll (1995:125) in that drug abuse in the families brings about shame and shameful predicaments, which families try to hide.

(9) Drug trafficking by educators as a factor in drug abuse [38]

The majority of 61% respondents agreed that some educators are involved in drug trafficking. Six percent disagreed while 33% were uncertain. The fact that 33% respondents were uncertain poses a question as to whether colleagues might perceive drug abuse as a serious threat to a culture of learning or a possible means to earn money. It might also be seen as an

indication that some educators tend to ignore such an activity, due to fear for victimization or reprisal.

(10) Taverns, shebeens as a contributory factor to drug abuse [39]

Eighty-seven percent of the respondents agreed that taverns and shebeens provide a supportive infrastructure for drug abuse. The high percentage response obtained here could be perceived as an indication of the fact that educators realize the devastating effect of such influences on a culture of teaching and learning and their sincere conviction to take a stand against it and protect such a culture.

4.3 SUMMARY

Data obtained from questionnaires were appropriately grouped, analyzed, interpreted and presented in this chapter. These statistics might not be viewed as reliable enough to come to meaningful conclusions but are presented here to get some idea of educators' responses, views and perceptions in this regard. In the following chapter a summary, findings and certain recommendations will be presented.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

		PAGE
5.1	INTRODUCTION	66
5.2	SUMMARY	66
5.2.1	Statement of the problem	66
5.2.2	Interplay: drug abuse - learning environment - culture of	
	learning and teaching	67
5.2.3	Research design	68
5.2.4	Presentation and analysis of research data	69
5.3	FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH	69
5.3.1	Factors promoting and/or supporting drug abuse in the	
	learning environment	69
(1)	Pressure and frustration factors	69
(2)	Ignorance (school and home)	70
(3)	The educator's role	70
5.3.2	Potential factors which could feature in curbing/combating	
	drug abuse in the learning environment	71
(1)	Educators	71
(2)	School psychological support and counselling services	71
(3)	Abuser's family	71
5.3.3	The human rights factor	71
5.3.4	Respondents' rating of their respective schools as regards	
	the infiltration of drug abuse into the school learning	
	environment and the consequent effects on a culture of	
	learning and teaching	72
5.4	PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	72

CHAPTER 5 (continued)

		PAGE
5.5	RECOMMENDATIONS	73
5.5.1	Combating ignorance by means of infrastructure	
	provisioning particularly in rural learning environments	73
(1)	Motivation	73
(2)	Recommendation	73
5.5.2	Prevention intervention and rehabilitation	74
(1)	Motivation	74
(2)	Recommendation	74
5.5.3	Further research	75
5.6	CRITICISM/SHORTCOMINGS OF THE RESEARCH	75
5.7	CONCLUDING REMARKS	75
	LIST OF SOURCES	77

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter of the study, a brief summary of the previous chapters will be given and important findings that emerged from the literature study as well as the empirical research undertaken will be presented. The chapter will be concluded by certain recommendations, anticipated criticism and final remarks.

5.2 SUMMARY

5.2.1 Statement of the problem

The study intended to investigate the socio-pathological phenomenon (Pretorius (ed.), 1998:291, 293) of drug addiction in school educational context. Aspects such as the following directed the investigation:

What is the effect of drug abuse on a culture of learning? The possible correlation between drug abuse and a culture of learning and teaching also reflecting the extent of drug abuse in the learning environment; educationally related determinants and its effects on the abuser as regards drug addiction and abuse; and possible options to address this problem in school educational context.

5.2.2 <u>Interplay: Drug abuse - learning environment - culture of learning and teaching</u>

From the literature study on drug abuse, the learning environment and culture of learning and teaching, a correlation between these three aspects is clear. Because this correlation is not static, but rather presents a particular dynamics of a reciprocal nature, it could be seen as an interplay. The causes of drug abuse among the youth is often found in the learning environment, generating the abuse which in turn cause an impact on learning, often consequently affecting teaching. In a type of vicious circle the reciprocal effect of a distorted learning and teaching environment aggravates the drug abuse as such.

The literature study done for this research deals with, *inter alia*, the following prominent factors that could be perceived as contributing to drug abuse amongst the youth and indeed aggravating a situation described by Chetty (1999:190) as follows:

> The erosion of the culture of teaching and learning has reached alarming proportions in many schools. "The whole foundation of schooling is under threat in many former non-white schools".

The impact of these factors on the learning and teaching environment and consequently on a culture of learning and teaching can hardly be questioned:

- > Peer influence and pressure.
- > Tradition.
- Religion.
- > Heredity.
- > Family circumstances.

- > Officialdom.
- > Emulating heroes.
- > School management.

The literature study for this research unequivocally indicated that the effects of drug abuse manifests itself on [a] the physical and psychological health of the abuser and [b] the learning environment and a culture of learning and teaching in which the abuser finds himself.

5.2.3 Research design

To administer the self-structured questionnaire to educators the necessary permission from the Superintendent: Education Management (SEM) of the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture (Ladysmith region) was obtained and the necessary arrangements made (cf. Annexure A).

The aim of the questionnaire was to establish, as far as it is reasonably and practically possible, the interplay: drug abuse - learning environment - culture of learning and teaching as it was reflected in and/or deduced from the literature study done for this research. Questionnaire items and the division of these items in sections were accordingly formulated within the following parameters:

- > Relevant aspects as regards a possible drug abuse pattern among learners known or suspected to be drug abusers.
- Relevant aspects as regards a possible drug abuse pattern among educators known or suspected to be drug abusers.

> Some relevant factors and implications of drug abuse in connection with the culture of learning and teaching in general in the schools in which the respondents teach.

5.2.4 Presentation and analysis of research data

In chapter 4 the research data obtained by means of the questionnaire, completed by one hundred (100) respondents were presented in descriptive statistical format.

5.3 FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH

Interpretation of the data obtained by means of the structured questionnaire revealed that certain pertinent drug abuse related factors/forces directly and indirectly interplay in creating a threat to the learning environment of the school learner. Consequently a culture of learning and teaching appears to be under siege.

5.3.1 Factors promoting and/or supporting drug abuse in the learning environment

(1) Pressure and frustration factors

Although evidence from research data does not indicate a general trend, frustration due to non-coping with school subjects is prevalent as a factor promoting drug abuse (cf. 4.2.2 (1)). However, research data indicated that such frustration is not necessarily subject specific (cf. 4.2.2 (2)).

The pressure factor features rather prominently in the responses received and are indicative of the fact that the following indeed play a role in

promoting/supporting drug abuse in the learning environment. However, the data could not be taken as conclusively reflecting the magnitude of such role:

- imitation/emulation of elders (cf. 4.2.2 (4))
- > poor self-concept (cf. 4.2.2 (6))
- > peer pressure (cf. 4.2.2 (12))
- > success craving (cf. 4.2.2 (13))
- > rebellion against authority of parents in particular (cf. 4.2.2 (5))
- > tradition/religion (cf. 4.2.3 (6))
- > domestic problems (cf. 4.2.4 (7))
- > drug trafficking (cf. 4.2.4 (9))

(2) Ignorance (school and home) (cf. 4.2.4 (5)

The high frequency of positive responses unambiguously indicates that respondents are of the opinion that parents/guardians in rural areas are ignorant about drugs and drug abuse. It is thus unlikely that experimentation by learners in this regard will alert such parents/guardians.

(3) The educator's role

It can unequivocally be stated on account of this research that the role of the educator/teacher is of prime importance in curbing the drug abuse evil. An amount of ignorance amongst at least some educators (cf. 4.3.2(1)); some collusion (cf. 4.3.2(1)); the punctuality issue (cf. 4.2.3(4)); irresponsibility and a lack of professionalism and integrity amongst some educators, causing disciplinary problems for management (cf. 4.2.3(5)) as well as the inherent stress which is characteristic of the teaching profession (cf. 4.2.3. (7)) are factors to be kept in mind in this scenario.

5.3.2 <u>Potential factors which could feature in curbing/combating drug</u> abuse in the learning environment

Responses with regard to the possible curbing/combating of drug abuse in the learning environment reveal that the following factors could be seen as of prime importance.

(1) Educators (cf. 4.2.4 (1))

The school assembly as a vital opportunity for educators to combat drug abuse in the learning environment appears to be a *fait accompli* among respondents.

(2) School psychological support and counselling services: (cf. 4.2.4 (4))

The finding of this research is unequivocally that access to these services can and will be an important factor in combating drug abuse in the learning environment.

(3) The abuser's family

The research reveals that the domestic situation of the abuser is of paramount importance in the battle against drug abuse, particularly as regards matters such as ensuring punctuality (cf. 4.2.2(10)), guarding against unhappiness as a result of domestic rows (cf. 4.2.4 (7)) and realizing the shame brought on a family as a result of drug abuse (cf. 4.2.4 (8)).

5.3.3 The human rights factor (cf. 4.2.4 (3))

The research reveals that a high frequency of responses rejected the argument that drug abuse is the individual's human right, possibly reflecting a general feeling among educators in this regard. However, notice should be taken of the 20% of respondents being uncertain, or who responded in the affirmative, showing that a dangerous trend does in fact exist which in itself poses a threat to a culture of learning and teaching.

5.3.4 Respondents' rating of their respective schools as regards the infiltration of drug abuse into the school learning environment and the consequent effects on a culture of learning and teaching

The purpose of this contextual rating of schools was to reflect respondents' overall perceptions and views as regards the severity of some drug abuse related issues affecting a culture of learning and teaching in their respective schools.

Data obtained (cf. 4.2.5) confirmed that a culture of learning and teaching is indeed endangered by drug use and abuse in the learning environment. This situation is enhanced by the alleged attitude of parents (cf. 4.2.5 (5)).

5.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The specific aims, which determined the course of the research, were formulated (cf. 1.5) and realized through the literature study and an empirical survey by means of a structured questionnaire. Certain recommendations, based on these aims and consequent findings, are subsequently offered.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5.1 <u>Combating ignorance by means of infrastructure provisioning,</u> particularly in rural learning environments

(1) Motivation

Informed learners, parents/guardians and community, though small, less prominent and remote the latter might be, is no doubt a valuable counter-offensive against the evil of drug abuse and its impact on a culture of learning and teaching in that specific learning environment. Mutual contact with others in a similar situation, basic infrastructure regarding e.g. communication and mobility is of necessity to nourish the natural thirst for information, respective minds and consequently the effect thereof on learning and teaching.

Not the least important as regards the latter is the need to improve parents' literacy, enabling them to motivate their offspring and cultivate a climate of learning and appreciation of teaching.

(2) Recommendation

A concerted effort should enthusiastically be made and appropriately coordinated by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education and Culture, actively and tangibly supported by the National Education Department and relayant non-governmental organizations, to:

determine the actual needs of schools and communities in the rural areas as regards e.g. media contact;

- ensure that everything possible be done to get the necessary infrastructure established; and
- ➤ Ensure, on an ongoing basis, and monitored by experts that the latter functions appropriately and properly, particularly as regards the learning environment.

5.5.2 Prevention, intervention and rehabilitation

(1) Motivation

Prevention is better than cure is directly applicable to drug abuse and its effects on the learning environment. This study has revealed that the problem of drug abuse among youth appears to be of such a nature and magnitude that the perception might exist that prevention, intervention, and rehabilitation do not feature as prominently as is necessary to render the appropriate results.

(2) Recommendation

It is recommended that, *inter alia*, the following be done in an effort to maximally mobilize educators to salvage the learning environment from the results of drug abuse:

- > Ensuring, and expertly monitoring, that *inter alia*, the Learning Area Life Skills pertinently attend to this particular issue at school.
- > Ensuring and expertly monitoring, guidance and counselling services actively operate with regard to all schools.
- > Ensuring and expertly monitoring the availability and proper functioning of compulsory, efficient and effective rehabilitation programmes,

institutionalized or not, for the victims of drug abuse in the learning environment (cf. 5.5.3).

5.5.3 Further research

The field that can reasonably be covered by a single research project of this nature is limited by nature. Hence the need for further research, such as the following:

> Research to "construct" rehabilitation programmes to be institutionalized for victims of drug abuse in schools.

5.6 CRITICISM/SHORTCOMINGS OF THE RESEARCH

Shortcomings that emanated from this research include the following:

- ➤ The research sample comprised of black educators in rural areas only.

 The inclusion of parents and learners would render a broader perspective.

 Moreover it did not include other culture groups like whites, coloureds and Indians.
- > The questionnaires issued to the respondents were not all returned. More responses to the questionnaires could have reflected a slightly different picture.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is trusted that this research will stimulate further thinking, research and deliberate goal-orientated planning around the rather complex issue of drug abuse and its impact on the learning environment and in particular the culture

of learning and teaching. The consequences of even the slightest ignorance in this regard will indeed be too ghastly to contemplate.

LIST OF SOURCES

APPLEBAUM, K., LIEBENBERG, E., ROMM, N., GLASS, H., LE ROUX, T., GROBBELAAR, J. 1988. Sociology: The sociology of social problems. Pretoria: UNISA

BAILEY, K.D. 1978. *Methods of social research*. London: Collier Macmillan Publishing Company.

BELL, J. 1999. Doing your research project. Buckingham: Open University Press.

BIBLE (The Holy). 1997. 1 Tim. (NT). Revised standard version. Cape Town: Collins Sons.

BORST, C.B., VAN NIEKERK, L.J. & VAN ROOY, M.P. 1985. Education. Study guide 2 for EDU 202 (Q Didactics). Pretoria: UNISA.

BRITTANICA, THE NEW ENCYCLOPAEDIA. 1986. Vol. 14 15th ed. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Inc.

BUCHLER, M. & PUTTERGILL, C. 1997. Understanding social change and research: theory and method. Pretoria: UNISA.

CARSTENS, S. 2001. Bende-gom. Beeld, 2001-06-09:06.

CHETTY, L.S. 1998. Governing bodies' perspectives on a culture of teaching and learning. Durban: University of Zululand. (D. Ed. thesis)

CHISHON, L. & VALLEY, S. 1996. The culture of learning and teaching in Gauteng schools. Johannesburg: Wits.

COLLINS CONCISE DICTIONARY of the English language. 1978. Glasgow: Rand MacNally & Company.

CONDON, J. 1990. Understanding drugs: the pressure to take drugs. London: Aladdin Books.

DEKKER, E.L. & LEMMER (eds). 1993. Critical issues in modern education. Johannesburg: Heinemann.

DE MIRANDA, S. 1998. The South African guide to drugs and drug abuse. Johannesburg: Collins Publications.

DITZLER, J. & HADDON, C. 1986. Coming off drugs. London: Macmillan.

DOPING PROTEST, medals turned-in. 2000. The Natal Witness, 2000-09-27:14.

DU PREEZ, M. 2001. Daar's 'n groter kwelling as misdaad. Rapport, 2001-11-04:28.

EDUCATOR'S GUIDE TO CONDITIONS OF SERVICE. 1997. Pretoria: Sigma.

ENGELBRECHT, S.W.H. 1997. Drug abuse as an educational problem. Pretoria: HSRC.

GOLDMAN, J. 1995. A teenager's sufety guide. London: Piccadiliy Press.

GOODWIN, D.W. 1981. Alcoholism: the facts. London: Oxford University Press.

GOVERNMENT GAZETTE, 1996. South African Schools Act, Act No. 84, 1996-11-15:4. Cape Town: Government Printers.

GRIESSEL, G.A.J., LOUW, G.J.J. & SWART, C.A. 1988. Principles of educative teaching. Pretoria: Acacia Books.

GRIESSEL, G.A. & OBERHOLZER, M.D. 1994. Philosophy of Education: a study manual for beginners. Pretoria: Via Africa.

GRIESSEL, M.J. & MELLET, S.M. 1988. Study guide for education 202-Q. Pretoria: UNISA.

GUMEDE, S. 2000. The role of parents and community leaders in the development and maintenance of culture. University of Zululand. (D. Ed. thesis)

GURALINK, D.B., SOLOMON, S., MARTIN, M. MARKINS, M., BREDENRIDGE, P., MORGAN, J. 1978. Collins Concise English Dictionary. London and Glasgow: Rand McNally & Company.

GWINN, R.P., NORTON, P.B., GOETZ, P.W. 1991. *The New Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Macropaedia (14) 15th ed. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.

HALSEY, A.H. 1972. Dealing with drug abuse. Johannesburg: Macmillan.

HARTMAN, A. 1995. Niemand mag weet nie. Kaapstad: A-B-C Boekdrukkers.

HLOPHE, M. 2000. Desperate principal turns to HRC (Human Rights Commission) to get school built. *Sowetan*, 2000-05-05:03.

JOUBERT, H.J. 1999. Educational law. Pretoria: SACOL,

JOUBERT, R. & PRINSLOO, S. 1999. Educational law: the legal status of educators. Pretoria: South African College for Teacher Education.

LAUER, R.H. 1986. Social problems and quality of life. Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Publishers.

LE ROUX, K. 2000. Environmental education processes. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press.

MODISANI, K. Behave yourself Brenda. Sowetan, 2001-09-21:12.

MYERS, A. 1995. Drugs and peer pressure. New York: The Rosen Publishing Group.

NATIONAL DRUG MASTER PLAN. 1999. South Africa. Pretoria: CTP Books.

PRETORIUS, J.W.M. & LE ROUX, J. (ed.). 1998. Sociopedagogics, 2000. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

PRINSLOO, E., VORSTER, P.J. & SIBIYA, P.T. 1996. Teaching with confidence. Pretoria: Kagiso.

REELER, G., MUNNIK, M., LE ROUX, K., BOOYSE, J.J., SWANEPOEL, C.H., ELOFF, P.E., STUART, J.F. & McDONALD, M.E.W. 1985. Education study guide 1 for Edu 100-k. Pretoria: UNISA.

RESEARCH IN EDUCATION. 1999. Educational administration and management. Pietermaritzburg: Natal College of Education.

ROBINSON, P. 1981. Perspectives on the sociology of education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

ROTH, M. 1979. Alcohol and alcoholism. London: The Chauser Press.

SEARLL, A. 1995. Get high on life. Sandton: Zebra Publishers.

SCHNOLL, S. 1986. Getting help: treatment for drug abuse. London: Burke Publishing Company.

SCHOMP, G. 1977. Alcohol, its use, abuse and therapy. Huntington: Noll Plaza Publishers.

SMITH, A.M. 1990. All about drink and drug abuse. Hong Kong: Macmillan.

SMITH, D.P.J. & PACHECO, R. 1996. Die konsep leerkultuur. SA Tydskrif vir opvoedkunde, 16(3):159.

STEENKAMP, W., VAN STADEN, E.J.C. & VAN ROOYEN, J.W. 1999. Study guide: organizational management. Pretoria: South African College for Teacher Education.

STEYN, P.J.N. 1999. Instructional objectives for effective teaching and management. Johannesburg: Lexicon Publishers.

STRYDOM, A.E. 1977. Drug abuse as a problem of self-realization. Pretoria: Institute for Educational Research, Human Sciences Research Council.

STUART, J.F., VAN NIEKERK, L.J., MacDONALD, M.E.W. & DE KLERK, D. 1987. *Didactics*. Johannesburg: Southern Book Publishers.

VAN DEN AARDWEG, E.M. & VAN DEN AARDWEG, E. 1988. Dictionary of empirical education/educational psychology. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.

VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, P.C. (ed.). 1991. Effective educational management. Pretoria: HAUM.

VAN EEDEN, J. 2001. Die tuig skawe en die onnies stres. *Rapport*, 2001-11-04:27.

VAN RENSBURG, C.J.J., LANDMAN, W.A. & BODENSTEIN, H.C.A. 1994. *Basic concepts in education*. Halfway House: Orion Publishers.

VAN SCHALKWYK, O.J. 1988. The education system. Pretoria: Sigma Press.

VOS, M.S. 1997. The becoming of the preschool, primary school and secondary school child. Umlazi: University of Zululand. (M. Ed.-dissertation)

VREY, J.D. 1987. The self-actualizing educand. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

ZULU, B.M. 1999. The teacher's responsibility pertaining to a culture of learning. Durban: University of Zululand. (M. Ed.-dissertation)

ANNEXURE A

- (a) Letter to the Superintendent of Education Management (SEM) of Ladysmith region seeking permission to conduct research in selected schools.
- (b) Letter of permission from Superintendent of Education Management (SEM) granting permission to conduct a research survey for academic purposes

P.O.BOX 2529

LADYSHITE

3370

2001-08-07

The Superintendents of Education Management
Attention to Hikhize S. Mr. and Ntombela S. Mr.
Uitval/wasbank Circuits
Mnambithi District
Private Bag X 9088
Ladysmith

Messrs

3370

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH SURVEY FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES

I am a part time student for the degree Master of Education at the University of Zululan, Umlazi campus (Ladysmith part time division)

The title of my research is DHUG ABUSE AND CULTURE OF LEARNING.

Since part of my research will be done by means of a Questionnaire, permission is herewith requested to visit the following schools in your circuits with a view to distribute and collect the questionnaires.

JATAN UJUZAWAAW INAMULKU

UITVAL CIRCUIT

2 4 AUG 2001

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PRIVATE BAG X2006 EZAKHEN# 3381

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SERVICES/REGERINGDIENS

Primary Schools: SOHDODA

InFAlleLO

ILKUNZI

LELITALAN

NAHAKAZI

THOBISIZME

Secondary Schools: PHINDOKUMLE EMBIZEMI SIPHIMPUNDO THYANDO YESIZWE ISIGWENE UMBANGO

The necessary arrangements will be made with the principals of these schools as soon as your permission has been received.

Yours faithfully
TimALA M.W.Ar. (Student).

Mr. M. W. Thwala

Mnambithi District Office has no objection to your conducting research in their schools. Please make sure that you negotiate with Stakeholders at the schools mentioned above. Wishing you the best.

m. S. MKHISE Mynikaze

UHULUMENI WAKWAZULU NATAL

UITVAL CIRCUIT

2 4 AUG 2001

DEPARTMENT OF ELECTION
PRIVATE BAG X2006
EZAKHENI 3381

KWAZULU GOVERNMENT SEE:

ANNEXURE B

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE: DRUG ABUSE AND THE CULTURE OF LEARNING / TEACHING

Make a cross 'X' in the appropriate block

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1.	Gender	
	Male	
	Female	
2.	Age group	
	Less than 20	
	21-25 years	
	26-30 years	
	31-35 years	
	36-40 years	
	41-45 years	
	46-50 years	
	Over 50 years	
3.	Your marital status	
	Married	
	Single	
	Divorced	
	Widow/widower	

4.	Category of the scl	hool where you are teaching.
	Primary	
	Secondary	
5.	At what type of sci	hool do you teach?
	Combined	
	Private	
	Specialized	
	Comprehensive	
6.	Which post do you	presently hold in your school?
	Educator/Teacher	
	Head of Departme	nt (HOD)
	Deputy Principal	
	Principal	
7.	Which of the followhich you are tead	owing best describes the location of the school at thing?
	Rural	
	Urban area	
	Village	
8.	Your religion?	
	Christian	
	Hindu	
	African Traditiona	1.
	Other (please spec	ify)

9.	Your home la	inguage?
	Zulu	
	Xhosa	
	Swazi	
	Sotho	
	Venda	
	Ndebele	
	English	
	Afrikaans	
	Other (please	specify)

SECTION B: SUSPECTED LEARNER DRUG ABUSERS

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

- 1. Please read through each statement before giving your opinion.
- 2. Please make sure that you do not omit a question or skip a page.
- 3. Please complete by making a cross 'X' in the appropriate block.
- 4. Please be honest when giving your opinion.
- 5. Please do not discuss statements with colleagues.
- 6. Please return the questionnaire.

Thank you for your cooperation!

Refer to the following statement: Most males are suspected of drug abuse:

	Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
If you strongly disagree with the above		X	
statement.			

	Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
If you strongly agree with the above	X		
statement.			

	Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
If you are uncertain about the above			X
statement.			

SECTION B This section (items 10-22) pertains to learners who are known or suspected to be drug-abusers in your school Agree Disagree Uncertain Frustration due to non-coping with 10 school subjects compels learners to find relief in drug abuse. Learner drug abusers do well in 11 natural sciences academy. 12 Learner drug abusers must receive schooling in separate schools/ institutions Learners abuse drugs to emulate their 13 elders. Learners abuse drugs to rebel against 14 their parents' authority. Poor self-concept at the adolescent 15 stage contributes to drug abuse. It is important that learner drug-16 abusers be made aware of the dangers of drug abuse. If you agree with No. 16 please 17 suggest ways in which this is done, in your school? Agree Disagree | Uncertain Learner drug abusers are often absent 18 from school. Learner drug abusers often arrive at 19 school late. 20 Other learner drug abusers do not stay with their biological parents. Other learners take drugs because of 21 pressure from their peer group. Learners use drugs to succeed in 22 sports and cultural activities.

SECTION C This section (items 23-29) pertains to educators who are known or suspected to be drug-abusers in your school. Agree Disagree Uncertain

	;	Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
23	Educators need in-service training on			
	drug abuse.			
24	Some educator drug-abusers collude			
	with learners who are drug-abusers.			
25	Educator drug-abusers should only			
	teach learners who are drug-abusers.			
26	Educator drug-abusers are not			
l	punctual at school.	l 		
27	Irresponsibility on the side of			
	educator drug-abusers creates			
	disciplinary problems for school			
	management.			
28	Traditional religious factors regarding			
1	drug use play a role in the families of		}	
L	drug abusers.		<u></u>	
29	Some educators are overpowered by]	
}	temptations to use drugs during exam]	
	time and/or times of excessive stress.			

SECTION D

The following (items 30-39) focus on some factors and implications possibly impacting directly on drug abuse and a culture of learning and teaching in gener.al.

		Agree	Disagree	Uncertain
30	A culture of learning could be			
	promoted by means of regular			
L	school assembly.	i		_
31	Schools must be raided regularly by			
	the South African Police Services		}	
	(SAPS) and drug-abusers be			
	arrested.			
32	It is their (drug-abusers) choice to			
	be drug-abusers, so they must live			
	their lives of choice.			
33	All schools must have full-time			
	school psychologists accessible to			
	both educator and learner drug-			
	abusers.			
34	Parents in rural areas know little			
25	about drug-abuse.			
35	Undue pressure as a result of			
	unrealistic expectations by parents contributes to drug-abuse by			
	contributes to drug-abuse by children.			
36	<u> </u>			
30	Domestic problems contribute to drug abuse.			
37	Drug abuse brings unacceptable life			
)) /	to the families and community.			
38	Some educators are involved in			<u> </u>
20	drug selling.			
39	Taverns and shebeens have an			
33	impact on drug abuse.			
L	impact on utug aouse.		<u> </u>	

Thank you for your participation in this questionnaire!

SECTION E

In this section (items 40-45), you are asked to give a general rating of your school with regard to the infiltration of drug abuse into the learning environment and the consequent effects thereof on a culture of teaching and learning. Rate your school by putting a cross (X) in the appropriate box (unless otherwise indicated – as per previous example.

		Nil rating	Average	High/Max
			to Low	rating
ļ			rating	
40	Drug abuse by learners of your school.			
41	Attitude towards schoolwork by			
	learner drug abusers.			
42	Self-discipline, respect by learner			
	abusers			ļ
43	Cases heard and attended to on			
	drug-abuse in your school.] !	

44	Parents' attitude and/or reaction when informed about his/her child's drug-abuse.	Not interested	Average interest	Keen interest
45	Your comments regarding Section I	3	·	
				
	· 			•
				