Value Orientation of the Adolescent

by

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JANUARY 2008
DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation Value Orientation of the adolescent represents my own work and that all the sources that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

N.E. MBUYELENI
DURBAN
JANUARY 2008
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

- My (late) eldest sister, NOKUBONGA LAURENTIA NKABANE for the love, encouragement and financial support she gave me from childhood until I attained my goal in education.
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SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to investigate the role of educators in the value orientation of the adolescent. The one thing that transcends language, culture, physical appearance, age and gender is the values a person cherishes and lives by. Values are essential for life and the normative principles that ensure ease of life lived in common.

From the literature study it becomes clear that adolescents spend most of their time at school and with their peers, and that their behaviour is shaped by what is happening at school and the values acquired at school serve as a pathway to adulthood. The literature supplied evidence that school educators play an important role in influencing the adolescent to adopt positive values. Neither the educator at school, nor parents at home can avoid teaching values through their words and actions. The peer group also plays a key role in the transmission of values. As a result of the adolescent's need to be accepted by the peer group he conforms to the group's values.

For the purpose of the empirical investigation a self-structured questionnaire was utilised. The data obtained from the completed questionnaires was processed and analysed by means of descriptive statistics. The findings from the empirical study confirmed that educators play a significant role in the value orientation of the adolescent.

In conclusion a summary of the study was presented and based on the findings of the literature and empirical study, the following recommendations were made:

➢ The inculcation of positive values which will enable the adolescent to function effectively in society as an adult.
➢ A school environment that is conducive for the effective transfer of healthy value.

➢ Further research ought to be conducted concerning the role of educators in the value orientation of the adolescent.
CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Adolescent personality development is especially relevant to the motivational aspects of learning (Papalia & Olds, 1992:308). It influences not only the way in which the individual assimilates goals and values but also his reasons for learning academic subject matter. Such motivations obviously operate not in a social vacuum but in relation to other persons, both as individuals and as representatives of a culture. In assimilating values and implementing his learning orientation in the school environment, the adolescent reacts to the personal values of the educators (Ausubel, 1990:426).

Each school has its own culture, a set of beliefs, values, traditions, ways of thinking and behaving that distinguishes it from other social institutions and from other schools. Every school attempts to socialise adolescents by getting them to value those things the school teachers both explicitly and implicitly impart (Cooper & Rynan, 1988:226).

As a training institution, the school is primarily an instrument of cultural survival designed to perpetuate and improve a given way of life (Le Roux, 1992:26). Every culture implicitly accepts a set of values for significant aspects of behaviour, interpersonal relations and social organisation. If culture is to survive, much of education must be concerned with inculcating these values in the young of all ages before they can be invested with adult status (Dekker & Lemmer, 1998:285).
The school has to facilitate personality maturation in adolescents. Since the school has to play some role in this development, it might just as well be as constructive as possible (Ausubel, 1990:426). The school should thus encourage adolescents to strive for a given way of life that will enable them to differentiate between what is acceptable and what is not (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:43).

The adolescent enters secondary school with a real sense of identity and a definite self-concept, either positive or negative. This self-concept comprises the totality of evaluation of all components of his self-identity (Vrey, 1990:167). At school the adolescent must be fully aware of his identity as well as values that must accompany it (identity).

It is also crucial to consider the part played by the educators in the value orientation of the adolescent (Farrant, 2001:16). Educators are important role models for values such as honesty, compassion, altruism and justice. Apart from serving as role models, educators should also provide opportunities for value orientation in their teaching practice; for example, during language periods learners can be given the opportunity to debate issues on values (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:115).

Peers play a prominent role in the value orientation of the adolescent. When an adolescent reflects on his position within a group in later years, he is likely to feel proud of having been associated with such a group, provided that it still reflects his internalised values. Peers also have an important function in assisting the adolescent to become emancipated from parental control (Vrey, 1990:175). Through the peer group the adolescent develops social skills, particularly those of getting along with others, that will continue to be important in his relations with his own family, people in the community, and eventually with his colleagues in the workplace (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:123).
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Adolescents spend most of their time at school; their behaviour is shaped by what is going on at school, and the values acquired at school serve as a pathway to adulthood (Papalia & Olds, 1992:353). The educator has a crucial role to play in influencing the adolescent to adopt positive values. According to Jacobs and Gawe, (1996:44) the school must also provide a practical framework for instilling and reinforcing a culture of open communication and, as future citizens of South Africa, nurture a sense of democratic values as set out in the constitution.

An educator plays a key role in the transmission of values. According to Dekker and Lemmer (1998:402) neither educators nor parents can avoid teaching values through their own words and actions. Thus, whatever designs may be intended by educational planners, in the end it is what takes place in the classroom that matters in terms of the realisation or non-realisation of values.

De Vries and Zan (1994:41) say because education is immersed in values, schools have often become the battleground for conflicting systems of values. The following are some conflicting values that have educational implications (Dekker & Lemmer, 1998:40):

- **Conflicting ethical values**: In South Africa ethnicity has become a derogatory term because it has been strongly linked to the apartheid ideology. Ideologies corrupt people's value systems and replace them with values which do not respect human dignity.

- **Intracultural conflict**: The question of intracultural conflict with regard to values may be one of the most difficult issues to resolve in school. An educator who teaches Religious Instruction while wearing
a bracelet of goat skin as a sign of an offering to his ancestors is an example of the conflict between the values expected by the school, in this instance (Western ideas, and the educator's traditional values.

➢ **Conflict between Western and non-Western values:** If modernism is compared to a non-Western and specifically an African culture, significant differences emerge which may be the source of potential conflicting values. According to the positivist tradition (modernism), for example, which underlies much of what is done in a modern school, science is the only valid source of knowledge and facts. In African culture, however, objective facts do not exist; the context is always of greater importance.

➢ **Conflict between family and school values:** Modern schools are a product of Western middle-class culture and learners coming from this type of background have an obvious advantage over those learners who do not. The latter will experience a discontinuity between home and school value systems.

Many problems experienced by adolescents and educators are related to a conflict between the values of the school, and the values of the adolescents as reflected in their particular cultural family and peer group backgrounds (Steinberg, 1998:194). In South Africa the language issue and the values associated with it have caused much tension in the past. These issues are still far from resolved in the present (Dekker & Lemmer, 1995:446). Value conflicts are common in school and around the content and relevance of the curriculum. This raises some important issues that have to be faced in the classroom, the school as a whole, and the level of policy-making (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002:160). The adolescent and educator should share a common value system so that
there is no confusion with regard to acceptable or unacceptable behaviour.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem that will be investigated in this study pertains to the role of the school in the value orientation of the adolescent. The following are some of the questions that need to be answered:

➢ What role does the school play in the value orientation of the adolescent?

➢ What is the role of the educators in the value orientation of the adolescent?

➢ What is the influence of the peer group in the value orientation of the adolescent?

1.4 ELUCIDATION OF CONCEPTS

For the sake of clarity and understanding, it is deemed necessary to explain the meaning of certain concepts that will be used in this study.

1.4.1 Gender

In this study all references to any gender include references to the other gender.
1.4.2 Adolescent

The term adolescence comes from the Latin word *adolescere*, meaning “to grow” or “to grow to maturity”. It includes mental, emotional and social maturity as well as physical maturity (Rice, 1992:222).

There are three stages that are grouped together under the general banner of adolescence, namely (Olson, 1987:20; Vrey, 1990:165):

- **Early adolescence (ages 12 to 14).** This stage is characterised by physical changes that actually bring on adolescence.

- **Mid-adolescence (ages 15 to 16).** This stage is characterised by the ability to form intimate relationships as an expression of their developing identity that is the primary psychological task of mid-adolescents.

- **Late adolescent (ages 17 to 21).** During this stage the adolescents move toward independence from their need for parental support, and they complete their final transition into early adulthood.

In all societies adolescence is a time of growing up, of moving from the immaturity of childhood into the maturity of adulthood (Steinberg, 1993:4).

1.4.3 Education

Education is the tool for developing a person to his full potential (DoE, 1997:3). According to Du Toit and Kruger (1993:5) the term education refers to the help and support which the child receives from an adult with a view of attaining adulthood.
van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:366) define education as the conscious, purposive intervention by an adult in the life of a non-adult (child) to bring him to independence. Vrey (1990:3) describes educational assistance as the positive influencing of the child by an adult, with the specific purpose of effecting changes of significant value.

A child cannot be self-educative but needs a close, trusting association with an adult to realise his capabilities (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:71). Education implies cognitive guidance of the child towards achieving an intellectual grasp of the world. Smith (1994:24) says education means to support, guide or help the child to become a valued, respected and responsible adult in his community.

1.4.4 Educator

The term educator means any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons or provides professional therapy at any school, technical college or educational institution (SACE, 1994:1). An educator is any person whose knowledge and skills are needed by children to guide them in any specific situation or circumstance. An educator is on a higher level regarding knowledge, skills, or moral insight than the potential educand. As such any person who fulfils these conditions in a specific situation can qualify as an educator. The parents are known as the primary educators who take responsibility for the child, his well-being and the development of a moral conscience. Teachers and other professional educators are generally known as the child’s secondary educators (Smith, 1994:34).
1.4.5 **Learner**

The term learner refers to a pupil or a student who is taught or trained by an educator (SACE, 1994:2). In the South African Schools Act, Act No. 84 of 1996 a learner is described as any person, whether a child or an adult, who receives education or must receive education in terms of the act (Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mothata & Squelch, 1997:16).

1.4.6 **Morality**

The term “morality” is derived from the Latin word *moralis*, which means “habit” or “manner” (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:174). Morality has to do with proper behaviour. It is an expression of one’s ability to distinguish between right and wrong, good or bad (Smith, 1994:152). Moral development refers to the way children learn to determine what is right and what is wrong (Mwamwenda, 1990:108).

Morality has to do with the way an individual behaves towards others. It is concerned with questions of “ought” and “should”, and of “duty”; about principles which guide a person in his behaviour. Judgements about right and wrong, about the nature of virtue or the good life, and how best to practise it are ethical or moral concerns (Wakeman, 1985:331). Morality is a willingness to abide by standards of behaviour held to be in keeping with the common good, is founded on identification with some source of authority, and characterised by a concern about the welfare of others. Morality is concerned with the internal criteria a person uses to guide behaviour (Schuster & Ashburn, 1992:331).
1.4.7 **Orientation**

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:158) orientation is a modifying process to enable one to cope with or suit new conditions or situations. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:465) say to orientate means to examine with care (carefully), or to become fully acquainted within a matter. Orientation involves a careful examination of an acquaintance with a situation in an attempt to determine one's position and action in reality.

Vrey (1990:17) maintains that the child finds himself in a complex world and he has to orientate himself in this world towards physical objects, people, things and ideas. Orientation is only possible in as much as the child assigns meaning to these matters. By means of the continued assignment of meaning the child forms more relations, the intensity and quality of existing relations are enhanced and the basic need of orientation is satisfied.

1.4.8 **Value**

Haralambos (1989:6) says a value is a belief that something is good or desirable. It defines what is important, worthwhile and worth striving for. In a school situation the term value refers to the standard of worth ascribed to activities, actions, behaviours, precepts, processes and arrangements (Wakeman, 1985:28).

Cairns, Lawton and Gardner (2001:129) say values are aspects of ethics and morality, as opposed to monetary value or the values of efficiency and a person's effectiveness in delivering a particular product or reaching a particular desired end. A value can be seen as something that is worthy of esteem for its own sake, which has intrinsic worth. It signifies
the “excellent” status of a thing, object, situation, person, performance, achievement, etc., or the estimate in which it is held, according to its real or supposed worth, usefulness or importance, as excelling in a particular class in comparison with other objects of a similar kind. Values have to do with matters that take place in the public realm and what is perceived and judged to be matters of importance.

According to Dekker and Lemmer (1998:397) values have a compelling character; they “drive” the members of a community to live according to certain principles. Human values stand out as the most strategically powerful causal agent shaping events on a global scale. Bottery (1990:280) says people are moved to act at their deepest level by fundamental values, and if a person lives in accordance with the values of a community, he is respected.

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:560) maintain that values interpret the meaning of a situation when communicating, that is the transfer of information between a speaker and a listener. When speaking of a value, quality is implied, that makes something desirable or useful. Value is the specific significance that something has for man and can be of utilitarian significance.

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:238) a value is that to which a society, cultural group or individual attaches worth, value or significance. Values can be goals and objectives. Values are not only shared but are regarded as matters of collective welfare to which is often attached a high degree of emotional belief in their importance.

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of the study are:
To pursue a study of relevant literature in order to establish the value orientation of the adolescent.

To undertake an empirical investigation into the value orientation of the adolescent.

To make certain recommendations which can serve as guidelines to assist the adolescent in his value orientation.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

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

- A literature study of available, relevant literature.
- An empirical survey comprising a self-structured questionnaire to be completed by educators of adolescents.

1.7 FURTHER COURSE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 2 will be a literature review of the value orientation of the adolescent.

In Chapter 3 the research method followed in this study will be explained.

Chapter 3 will consist of the presentation and analysis of the research data.

In Chapter 5 a summary of the research, findings from the study and certain recommendations will be presented.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

As a training institution the school is primarily an instrument of cultural survival designed to perpetuate and improve a given way of life (Farrant, 2001:16). Every culture implicitly accepts a set of values for significant aspects of behaviour, interpersonal relations and social organisation. Le Roux (1992:26) says that if a culture is to survive, much of education must be concerned with inculcating these values in the young of all ages before they can be invested with adult status. According to Jacobs and Gawe (1996:44) the school has to develop various intellectual skills and the attainment of increased understanding in cultural areas such as art, science, literature and mathematics. The school has to facilitate personality maturation in adolescents. Ausubel (1990:426) states that since the school has to play some role in this development, it might just as well be as constructive a role as possible.

Bernard (1993:75) sees the school is an extension of the home environment and the school should develop values acquired at home. Educators should be aware of their own behaviour to be able to model the desired norms and values to the adolescents. The task of the school therefore is to assist the adolescent to internalise the norms and values acquired at home (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994:64), and to develop the adolescent in his totality. Academic accomplishments should not be the main point of emphasis, but the manner in which the child behaves should be taken into consideration. It would be meaningless for a school
to produce intellectual citizens without moral values. The school should cultivate value awareness in the adolescent’s mind (Pringle, 1997:40.)

Adolescents spend most of their time at school (Vrey, 1990:170). According to Bernard (1993:77) the destiny of adolescents has its origin in the way in which values are instilled while they are at school.

2.2 APPROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF VALUES

2.2.1 Values clarification approach

The value clarification approach to moral education is a programme of exercises, including discussions and written assignments, geared towards helping adolescents to clarify what they value (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:180). In this approach the educator does express his views but asks questions and provides activities that will help adolescents identify their current values and possible alternatives to those values. Damon (1989:133) says this approach has been characterised as “values neutral”. The values clarification approach assists adolescents to get in touch with their own values and to reflect upon them.

Value clarification is an approach which focuses on the process of valuing and not on the content of values. According to Gouws and Kruger (1994:116) the goal of value clarification is:

- to help adolescents become aware of the beliefs and behaviours they prize;

- learn to weigh the advantages and disadvantages, and consequences of various alternatives;
to choose freely after consideration of consequences; and

to learn to match their actions with their beliefs in a consistent way.

This approach enables the adolescent to choose the correct alternatives and thus to avoid suffering from negative results due to bad choices.

According to Bottery (1990:23) the value clarification approach prescribes a six-step valuing process by which adolescents come to choose and create their own values. The six steps are:

1. Choosing freely.

2. Choosing from alternatives.

3. Choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative.

4. Cherishing, being happy with the choice.

5. Prizing it enough to be willing to confirm the choice of others.

6. Acting repeatedly in some pattern of life.

The value clarification approach promotes objectivism and endeavours to bring about an upright adolescent who upholds high moral values. The adolescent's life is guided by the good choices which he makes, since he first considers the advantages and disadvantages for the alternatives chosen.
The values clarification approach emphasises that educators should steer learners in the direction of moral development so that they can possess certain moral qualities, for example pleasure-loving, altruistic, commitment and the pursuit of shared values, which are prerequisites for an autonomous person (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:181). Learners need to be guided so as to know the difference between right and wrong. This approach may instil in the adolescent, who will soon leave school, the ability to (Cairns, Lawton & Gardiner, 2001:39):

- differentiate between right and wrong;
- articulate their own attitudes and values;
- take responsibility for their own actions;
- recognise the moral dimension of situations;
- understand the long- and short-term consequences of their actions for themselves and others;
- develop for themselves a set of socially accepted values and principles;
- set guidelines to govern their own behaviour;
- recognise that their values and attitudes may have to change over time; and
- behave consistently in accordance with their principles.

Jacobs and Gawe (1996:45) maintain that by means of the values clarification approach the adolescent can be equipped and prepared to
lead a positive life based on sound values. Furthermore, that the right choices are shaped by the well-laid foundation of good moral values.

2.2.2 The cognitive development approach

Piaget and Kohlberg (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:180) state that cognitive development is indispensable for value orientation. Without cognitive development the adolescent is unable to carry out the degree of abstract thinking required for the development of generalised standards, as opposed to highly specific, concrete prohibitions. The adolescent would not become capable of shifting from absolute and rigid standards to more flexible and relative ones in which, for example, motivational intent, rather than simply the act itself, is taken into account in assessing blame or determining guilt (Sprinthall, Sprinthall & Oja, 1994:185).

The cognitive development approach to teaching values in schools is based on Kohlberg's stages of moral reasoning (Faye, 1994:572). As such it assumes that each stage of development represents reasoning morally superior to that of preceding stages. By assuming that some reasoning is "better" than other reasoning, this technique does not embody the value neutrality of the value clarification approach. According to Papalia and Olds (1992:380), for example, taking the needs of other people into account would be considered better than making decisions on a purely selfish basis. The educator using this approach typically employs a discussion technique called "plus one matching" in which he attempts to determine an adolescent's stage of moral reasoning and then offer an alternative view one level above that stage (Faye, 1994:573).

According to Jarrett (1991:61) the adolescent stage is characterised by logical and critical thinking. Adolescents are able to debate important
issues, that is why it is crucial for the educator to discuss with them why certain actions are prohibited in a person generally. McPhail (1982:41) says by doing so they will end up engaged in discussion, highlighting the consequences of actions with low moral values, the extent to which a victim suffers and the guilt feelings of the culprit.

Adolescents are familiarised with, and thus enabled to internalise the substance of the norms by means of educational assistance (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:174). Thus adolescents attain moral independence and responsibility, which naturally means that they incur the obligation of having to choose between right and wrong, propriety and impropriety, and having to accept the responsibility for such choices. As adolescents grow they become more comfortable with thinking for themselves and arriving at their own decisions. They also acquire the ability to weigh choices against each other and are less reliant on the assistance of their parents and peer group. This new-found confidence reflects a new level of security in their values and how they arrive at them.

According to Gouws, Burger and Kruger (2000:175) values and norms are not inherited but have to be acquired through learning. Adolescents must realise that moral values are important enough to merit formal attention. Values are abstract psychological realities located in the human mind, and they crystallise from principles, which means the adolescents must evolve a system of values in conformity with principles that regulate their thinking and behaviour.

The effectiveness of the school in the teaching of values and norms is portrayed in the way in which its learners behave (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:44). At school the adolescent does not only study books, but he also learns norms and values that are prevalent in society. When his
mind matures, the adolescent finds it easy to differentiate between right and wrong. The educator should help the adolescent to reach the level of mental maturity to be able to acquire values necessary for him (Farrant, 2001:17).

2.3 VALUES AND EDUCATION

Education should instil the values that will enable adolescents to appreciate the value of living and to contribute in making life worth living by not involving themselves to any form of misdemeanour (Manifesto, 2001:5). According to Jarrett (1991:8) education should consider the qualities and capacities that the educators might best cultivate in their learners to enhance the ultimate value of living. In school educators should assist the adolescent not to deviate from the set norms and values that they must adhere to. Jacobs and Gawe (1996:45) say educators should guide and direct the adolescent towards a meaningful adult life by always modelling desired behaviour and eliminate actions that portray low morals that could mislead or confuse the adolescent in one way or another.

If culture is imminent to education, so are values (Cairns, Lawton & Gardiner, 2001:21). If education functions as cultural transmission, so does education function as value transmission. One of the matters involving the aim of schools which has received attention in Africa since independence is the question of the Africanisation of the curriculum, that is, bringing formal schooling in line with African culture and values (Dekker & Lemmer, 1996:403). Culture and values go together and the school should operate in line with societal norms and values.

McGregor and McGregor (1992:36) maintain that education cannot and must not be value free. At the heart of every school's educational and
pastoral policy and practice should lay a set of shared values which is promoted through the curriculum, and through expectations governing behaviour of learners and staff through the day-to-day contact between them (Cairns, Lawton & Gardiner, 2001:31). Every attempt should be made to ensure that these values are endorsed by parents and the local community.

In his foreword in the *Manifesto on values, education and democracy* Professor Kader Asmal as Minister of Education in 2001 says inculcating a sense of values at school is intended to help young people achieve higher levels of judgement (Manifesto, 2001:iv) Education does not exist simply to serve the market, but to serve society, and that means instilling in learners a broad sense of values that can emerge only from a balanced exposure to the humanities as well as the sciences (Manifesto, 2011:iv). Education should shape and mould the character of the adolescent through teaching of values in order to bring about a responsible adult citizen (Dekker & Lemmer, 1998:400).

Values abound everywhere in education, they are involved in every aspect of school practice and they are basic to all matters (Cairns, Lawton & Gardiner, 2001:31). Using values, educators evaluate learners and learners evaluate educators. Le Roux (1992:73) says society evaluates a course of study, of school programmes, and educator competence by means of certain values. Educators evaluate society itself by using values. Furthermore, the values acquired by the adolescent at school should enable the adolescent to participate meaningfully in his society, also taking full responsibility in the workplace (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:117).

In the South African Council of Educator's Code of Conduct for Educators, it is stipulated that an educator should strive to enable
learners to develop a set of values consistent with those upheld in the Bill of Rights as contained in the Constitution of South Africa (SACE, 1994:4). Accepting that the education sector has a role to play in the generation of values and therefore exercise moral judgement, means accepting that young people are educated not only for the market, but for good citizenship (Manifesto, 2110:iii).

2.4 EDUCATOR AS A ROLE MODEL

If the educator's aim is for learners (adolescents) to acquire worthy values they must present such values to them in the most desirable manner possible so that learners feel motivated to act according to these morals (Straughan, 1988:12). According to Du Toit and Kruger (1994:98) educators cannot direct adolescents' value development by prescription but should influence this development by their practical example. Educators should practise what they preach; they should not only direct the way and then move back, but must lead by example.

Patterns of behaviour and patterns of learning are not accidental products of birth, it is a truism that children learn by example (Manifesto, 2001:7). Educators should be role models in the transfer of correct norms and values; they should show respect for learners as people and the nature of their value development. De Vries and Zan (1994:70) state that when an educator respects learners he is propagating this value to the learners, and they will end up respecting one another and be able to do their work with a positive team spirit and mutual respect. Cooperation between educators and learners plays an important role in maintaining an atmosphere conducive to the transfer of values because it reflects respect for each other (Dekker & Lemmer, 1998:402).
Ausubel (1990:43) says the educator’s behaviour, his objectivity, his personal relatedness, and the extent to which he practices these values important variables in the value orientation of an adolescent. It is important for the educator to model good values and have a positive attitude towards adolescent learners. According to Lewis and Doorlag (1995:127) learners should observe desirable role models in their educators since they are great imitators of their educators because of their higher status. Educators ought to ensure that if learners are imitating them, they are behaving appropriately, according to the values accepted by the society in which they serve. Wheldall (1992:41) says an educator should monitor his own behaviour and change if necessary. Educators should model values that they would like the adolescent to adopt.

The working group on values in education (Manifesto, 2001:7) maintains that educators and administrators must be the leaders and set an example, since children mostly learn by example, consciously and unconsciously. What educators do is much more important than what they say they do. In the transfer of values educators should strive to be exemplary in their behaviour at all times. The manner in which educators behave should encourage the adolescent to portray values in their everyday interaction with other people.

According to their value system educators set a tone in their classrooms by their general attitudes toward the learners, people and events (Lewis & Doorlag, 1995:127). An educator who is easily upset, frequently short-tempered, quick to punish minor misbehaviours and hesitant in expressing approval, is virtually certain to foster irritability and defiance in learners. Gouws and Kruger (1994:121) say the behaviour of the educator influences the learner (adolescent) when he has to choose ways
of behaving, and therefore the educator should endeavour to model good behaviour at all times.

The manner in which each member of a good community behaves toward one another sets a tone that has a powerful effect on what the adolescents learn (Letts, 1997:24). In each of the public places in a school, classrooms, hallways, administrative offices, staff room, playgrounds, school buses, etc. learners (adolescents) see and hear behaviour that allows them to construct meaning about the value of their school community. In all these places the actions of the educators should always communicate morals and values that will be of worth to the adolescent (Dekker & Lemmer, 1998:404).

The everyday incidents of school life will enable the educators to impress upon the learners the importance of, *inter alia*, the following values (Jarrett, 1991:28):

- Punctuality.
- Good manners and language.
- Cleanliness and neatness.
- Cheerful obedience to duty.
- Consideration and respect for others.
- Honour and truthfulness in words and actions.

These values should be modelled by educators in order for adolescents to acquire them.

By nature of their profession educators are perceived as “moral agents” who imply values by the way they address learners and one another, the way they dress, the language they use and the effort they put into their work (Cairns, Lawton & Gardiner, 2001:39). The activities at school, the
character displayed by the educators, the games played, in fact every practice at school should help the adolescent in his moral orientation.

2.5 VALUES IN THE CLASSROOM

According to Dekker and Lemmer (1998:404) whatever designs may be intended by education planners, in the end it is what takes place in the classroom that matters in terms of the realisation or non-realisation of certain values. With this in mind the relationship between home values and the values espoused by the school should be taken into account. In South Africa, as schools become increasingly multicultural, educators not only have to take cognisance of the different values learners introduce into the classroom, they also have to reflect on the implications of this diversity of values on their own teaching. Dekker and Lemmer (1998:404) say the educator has to first embrace the value systems of the learners in his classroom before he can expect the learners to do so. The educator has to develop the constructional context within which the learner can construct his own reflective and humane system of values, within the context of a democratic adoption of a value system by the adolescent.

Piaget (De Vries & Zan, 1994:49) speaks of the cooperative relationship in the classroom that is an adult-child relationship characterised by values such as mutual respect and cooperation. The educator returns adolescents’ respect by giving them the possibility to regulate their behaviour voluntarily. This type of relation is called autonomous and cooperative because it is only by refraining from exercising unnecessary authority that the educator opens the way for learners (adolescents) to develop moral feelings (values) and convictions that take into account the best interests of all parties (James, 2000:49).
As with school culture, the classroom culture refers to the values, norms, patterns and traditions that reflect the ways things are typically done in a particular classroom (De Vries & Zan, 1994:49). The culture of the classroom influences all aspects of classroom life. Promoting a democratic classroom is of utmost importance. A culture of democracy cannot be established without participation. An educator has to ensure that the way in which he relates to the adolescents, the way in which they relate to one another, fosters participation. An educator has to foster the value of mutual respect in a democratic classroom. Respect for others makes it possible to listen to one another and to take contributions seriously (Manifesto, 2001:29).

2.5.1 **Values in human and social sciences**

The discussion document on the National Curriculum Statement clearly states the role of the social sciences (history and geography) in value formation in schools. According to Langa (Manifesto, 2001:9) the latter is intended to help learners develop a commitment to addressing social injustice, abuse of human rights and a deteriorating environment. Through human and social sciences values such as tolerance, forgiving and forgetting can be implemented and propagated, hence educators are dedicated to the intellectual and moral growth of learners (Manifesto, 2001:9).

According to Wilson (1990:19) the study of human and social sciences is basically aimed at helping learners (adolescents) to develop a strong sense of self in a world through a study of their own history in South Africa. In a diverse society it is often easier to describe differences than the similarities (Manifesto, 2001:9). People do not necessarily share a common race, religion, language or political views, but what binds them together is a belief in freedom that values the right to worship, speak and
vote as one chooses (Letts, 1997:44). Democratic values such as respect for differences of individuals, opportunities to make informed decisions, and the responsibility to maintain the common good, are the ones that the curriculum should focus on and instil in learners (adolescents) through the human and social sciences (Letts, 1997:44).

According to the working group on values in education (Manifesto, 2001:9) the teaching of history is central to the promotion of all human values. History is one of the memory systems that shape values and morality, for it studies records and diffuses knowledge of human failure and achievement over the millennia (Manifesto, 2001:9). It is essential for the adolescent to be aware of and adopt sound human values as this will have an impact on his value orientation as a whole (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:118). Human and social sciences will shape the adolescent’s morality and influence his adherence to a value system.

Lynch (1992:76) maintains that to develop a commitment to the democratic process is a value in itself. This can be implemented by giving the learners’ opportunities to model and practise some of the basic principles of democracy such as cooperation and sharing of responsibility, and direct experience like community service. This will encourage the learner (adolescent) to reason, to solve problems and to engage in the social exchange of ideas, which are likely to address values such as participation and social responsibility.

One of the tasks of educators in the classroom is to try and help learners (Tomlinson & Quinton, 1986:80):

➢ to think more rationally;
➢ to find a language in which to talk about serious matters;
➢ to develop coping skills; and
to behave with more consideration for other people's interests and feelings.

By studying human history learners do not only gain understanding of chronology and of the dynamics of change over time, but they can also work out for themselves what is good and bad, what is right and wrong (Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:59). The human and social sciences must involve the development of the abilities of both learner and educator to negotiate and to achieve creative compromise in cultural, social and economic as well as environmental spheres, rather than "imbibe" inert pre-ordained knowledge and values. It implies participation in social change at school and community levels, in order to engage in the values and ideals of human rights and freedom. According to Lynch (1992:60) there will be recognition of the need for such activities as participation, social service, community self-help and philanthropy to be encouraged as desirable civic values. Such basic values must permeate any teaching approaches in classrooms and schools within democratic societies.

History studies at school should be structured in such a way that it develops skills in adolescents to obtain information, judging its value and reaching sound conclusions based on evidence from the past (Starrett, 1994:72). What is mostly needed in addition to the latter is the development of a positive attitude to citizenship that will enable individuals to make moral and humane judgements and take actions on the basis of their own values. With such an attitude the adolescent can become an effective civic actor and decision-maker, able to cope with and creatively live with the value conflicts inherent within societies (Levine, 1995:54).

In social studies, values on governance should run throughout the curriculum (Wilson, 1990:41). Specific values of participation, freedom
of speech and assembly, property rights, and so forth, are to be found in
the adolescent’s value experiences in school (Starrett, 1994:72). In the
higher grades adolescents need to be drawn towards the larger concerns
of global government, for that is what is overriding the reality of the
world in which they live. Values of caring and justice should be taken
into consideration (Purves, 1999:33).

2.5.2 **Values in religious education**

There is no place in the classroom for an educator that promotes any one
creed or belief over any other (Manifesto, 2002:10). Schools must expose
learners to the diversity of religion that impel and inspire society and the
morality and values that underpin them. According to the Manifesto
(2002:10) religious education should be seen as having an essentiality
moral function. Historically, instruction in religion was usually thought
to provide a sufficient basis for learners’ moral development. Learners
should be brought up to know and love God, or a god, and to practise in
the school community the virtues appropriate to their age and
environment (Straughan, 1991:21).

Adolescence is commonly regarded as a period of turmoil, uncertainty
and insecurity. Vrey (1990:182) maintains that the adolescent’s religious
background and his education in regard to the origin, nature and destiny
of humanity are of vital importance. A personal religion means a faith
and hope to which an adolescent can cling during the uncertainties and
vicissitudes of his development. It is incumbent on the educator to
support the adolescent’s religious development so that he becomes aware
of the values of a religion. Two essential requirements in religious
education would be authentic knowledge and the practical
demonstration of religious values (Müller, 2004:161).
Hlungwani (1997:47) says that religious education in the school curriculum should assist learners in developing a good moral character which in turn could create a morally good society. Religious education should meet the needs of adolescents in a modern society when they come into contact with modern day problems and other ideologies. It should motivate the adolescent towards accepting good values. Pringle (1997:57) maintains that the role religious education can play in the value orientation of the adolescent should not be underestimated.

Nolan (Manifesto, 2001:10) sees the school as responsible for providing learners with knowledge about religion, morality and values and the diversity of religions. South Africa is seen as having a religious society and the different religions offer organised and effective moral codes upon which value systems are based. By means of religious education schools can reaffirm the values of diversity, tolerance, respect, justice, compassion and commitment (Crain, 1992:91).

Religious education helps to inculcate desirable habits, values and attitudes in learners and educate them to become good citizens (Wakeman, 1985:43). Lessons in religion should be designed in such a way that learners understand basic behaviour and moral rules needed in everyday life, and acquire knowledge of values needed in the community and social organisation (De Vries & Zan, 1994:34). According to Wakeman (1985:43) religious principles and values, which are touchstones of religious education in school, are *inter alia*, the following:

- Truthfulness.
- Respect for evidence.
- Value of persons.
- Forgiveness.
- Repentance in human relationships.
These are values that should infuse the school life not because of their value in terms of human welfare, but because religion demands it.

2.5.3 **Values in arts and culture**

All cultures have manifested their attitudes, values and beliefs in visual forms (Tomlinson & Quinton, 1986:11). Visual forms can mean all man-made objects and images and include everything from paintings, pictures, modes of transport, or jewellery, to statues. Each culture produces images and forms which are unique and peculiar to that culture and even when similar images or forms are common to more than one culture, they almost invariably have different values and meanings attached to them (McPhail, 1982:91). Almost every aspect of art and design activity, including art and design education, is an epitomisation of social or cultural values (Wakeman, 1985:21).

Arts and culture education empowers learners (adolescents, young people) by giving them the means to express themselves creatively through music, drama, dance and visual art when language alone proves itself incapable (Gcabrashe, 2000:70). In an environment where learners are often learning in second or even third languages, the expressive force of art and performance transcends the language limitations (Wilson, 1990:19). It helps the learner (adolescent) to learn and practise values in a visual or practical manner. Through art forms adolescents will learn what values are of importance in their culture and be able to identify with, and adopt these values if they choose to (Adams, 1998:49).

As with any other subject in the curriculum, art and design as a school subject owes its existence originally and principally to its role and presence in the social, economic and intellectual affairs of society at large (Gcabrashe, 2000:88). A primary responsibility of schools as socialising
institutions is to introduce and transfer the values of the society it serves to the learners (Ellenburg, 1995:64).

In art activities there is valuing of the self; both of the learner as a person, and as an individual. In this valuing, efforts are made by educators to help learners feel that what they do is worthwhile and that they each have a personal and individual contribution to make (Tomlinson & Quinton, 1986:17). Displays and exhibitions of learners' artwork are considered not only to be ways of developing a valuing of what the learners themselves and others have done. It is also a useful means of promoting a sense of responsibility towards its care and preservation and to discourage vandalism because of being able to identify personally with the work (LeFlore, 1988:632). Art education inculcates principles of human sensitivity towards caring for their environment and appreciation of the self as well as other people (Brooks & Kahn, 1992:25).

According to Gcabashe (2000:79) the power of the performing and visual arts as an active celebration of diversity are creative practices that invite great youthful enjoyment, promote regularity of creative discipline and integrate individuals on the basis of talent. Art practices are potentially powerful instruments of promoting tolerance through exposure to and sharing of diverse cultural traditions and experience.

Tomlinson and Quinton (1986:17) state that an indirect but influential way the learners' artwork put up on display by the educator gives the learners a clear notion of what is approved and acceptable and what is not. Learners also learn in an indirect way that the art an educator puts up for exhibition is as much a reflection of the educator's taste and preference as it is based on objective educational and aesthetic criteria.
As part of learning the value system, learners very quickly get to know what needs to be done in order to succeed in their artwork (Nyberg, 1990:599).

Educators can use art education to liberate the creative potential of learners and at the same time give them a model for non-coercive teamwork which is a means through which the constitutional values of equality, non-racism, non-sexism, ubuntu, openness, reconciliation and respect can be instilled in learners, adolescents and young people (Elkind, 1994:62). Through the practising of art activities in a group learners will grow up getting used to working with other people and tolerating other people’s cultures, if the group is multicultural. Adams (1998:46) maintains that the practising of art activities expose learners (adolescents) in getting to know and appreciate their own culture as well as other cultures.

Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2002:147) maintain that the culture of a school refers to the atmosphere or ethos, including the values and norms that are reflected in the patterns of interaction in the school. The way things are typically done is one way of describing and understanding a school’s culture.

According to Rosenou (1992:112) the school’s culture is determined by various external and internal forces on which the society’s values and norms have a major influence. The values and norms of the school need to foster a regard for the development of the school community as a whole. This means the vision and mission of the school would need to reflect a commitment to well-being and inclusion, and this commitment would need to be embodied in school policies and practices that support the health and development of all concerned (Eellenburg, 1985:10).
2.5.4 Values in life orientation

Life skills are essential for successful learning and living in a society. Life skills are a large range of coping abilities people need to be able to function effectively in their everyday lives (Teachers’ Resource Centre, 1999:23). As life skills are developed, it should be possible to deal with challenges and problems and even prevent some problems from occurring. Life skills promote particular attitudes, knowledge and skills which enable people to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of life. Life skills make life easier and the more it is practised, the greater the abilities become to live successfully and to do the best one can (Teachers’ Resource Centre, 1999:23). When the necessary life skills are achieved, capacity building, the growth and development of people becomes a reality. According to Rooth (1999:72) people (adolescents) are empowered when they have acquired the following values:

- Belief in themselves.
- Take control of their lives.
- Can cope with problems in their lives.
- Are in charge of what is happening to them.
- Feel motivated.
- Have the confidence to face life's challenges.

According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2002:156) life skills promote psychological competence, including physical, emotional and social well-being, and enhance a person’s coping resources and confidence. Life skills equip the adolescent with the values that will enable him to cope with the demands of an adult world. One such value is self-worth that will enable the adolescent to see life as meaningful and worth living.
Nokwedi-Fortuin (2001:14) maintains that values and behaviours are powerfully modelled by both educators and peers in schools. This can be left to just happen, or it can be intentionally and constructively used. Douvan and Adelson (1996:41) see schools as places where information about sexuality and relationships may be shared and discussed in ways that are unlikely to occur in the family. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwanana (2002:259) say that particularly during adolescence the peer group and its values have a strong influence on the development of sexuality and patterns of sexual behaviour.

According to Schuster and Ashburn (1992:51) life orientation educators should be fully aware that adolescence is the time of the development of sexuality. Lessons that deal with the dangers of irresponsible sexual behaviour should serve as the point of departure in dealing with issues concerning HIV/AIDS in the value orientation of the adolescent. Promoting awareness of HIV/AIDS through the Life Orientation programme in schools not only draws on the constitutional values of responsibility, respect and openness, but also encourages the acquisition of these values. The aim is to teach young people about respect and responsibility that must accompany sexual activity and demonstrates the profound value of openness and communication (Manifesto, 2001:14).

According to Douvan and Adelson (1996:61) adolescents are often confronted by confusing messages about values concerning sexuality. Parents have their teachings, the media spreads its own gospel through soapies and dramas, churches preach abstinence, while peers come with an altogether different value system. Educators at school should help adolescents to arrive at a set of attitudes and values with which they are comfortable, are in their best interests and accepted by society. Pretorius (1985:36) says that adolescents should reach the stage where they realise that they are not living for their own benefit only, but should
consider the interests of the people around them by making responsible choices and decisions according to the values they acquire from life skills education.

2.6 THE ADOLESCENT SELF

Adolescents evolve a new understanding of the self as being cohesive, integrated, and continuous, recognising that various parts of the self are part of a whole and that different ways of behaving with different people are sensible rather than inconsistent (Stroufe, Cooper, & De Hart, 1992:518).

2.6.1 Self-identity

Papalia and Olds (1992:26) say to be a child is to be somebody; to form a self-identity and to have satisfactory answers to the question “Who am I?” According to Vrey (1990:44) self-identity is congruent with an integrated whole made up of:

➢ The person’s conceptions of himself.

➢ The stability and continuity of the attributes by which a person knows himself.

➢ The agreement between the person’s self-conceptions and the conceptions held of him by people he esteems.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:206) maintain that the child formulates a series of self-concepts, some complimentary and others uncomplimentary. These concepts of the self are formed along with others, especially the child’s parents, educators and peers. The
integrated whole of the self-concept gives rise to an identity which should be stable and continuous, so that the child comes to know and understand himself and others may know him and what to expect from him. Stroufe, Cooper and De Hart (1992:518) say that once a self-identity has been formed, the child is accepted as a unique individual with qualities that are peculiarly his.

The formation of self-identity, although becoming quite stable in adolescence, is a lifelong task (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:87). As the adolescent becomes capable of doing more things, his self-concept is changed and enlarged, and with educational assistance an identity unique to the individual adolescent emerges. The establishing of a self-identity by the adolescent includes the adoption of a value system. Value orientation thus forms part of the development of a self-identity. After his self-identity has been formed, the adolescent often has new perspectives concerning his parents (Vrey, 1990:73). Parents are seen as people comparable to other adults and the adolescent may discover that parents are not as wise, powerful and all-knowing as he thought earlier. This sometimes leads to the questioning and rejection of the parental values and advice, even if they are reasonable (Seifert, Hoffnung & Hoffnung, 2002:379).

The broadening of intellectual capabilities during adolescence provides new ways of thinking about problems, interpersonal relationships and values (Steinberg, 1993:246).

2.6.2 Self-esteem

Self-esteem is the degree of positive or negative feeling that one has on the assessment or evaluation of oneself. It is what one feels about oneself, and such feelings are brought about when comparing oneself
with others (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:206). A high self-esteem comes from being able to do things better than others. Berk (2003:449) sees self-esteem as a component of the self-concept, the judgement one makes about his own worth and the feelings associated with those judgements. A person with a high self-esteem is fundamentally satisfied with the type of person he is yet he may acknowledge his faults while hoping to overcome them (Adams, 1998:74).

Self-esteem is the value individuals place on themselves (Gouws, Burger & Kruger 2000:83). According to Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana (2002:223) self-esteem is what people believe or think about themselves in different ways.

If adolescents' self-appraisal leads to the values of self-acceptance, approval, and a feeling of self-worth (a person’s sense of his value, and an essential part of self-esteem), they have a high self-esteem (Steinberg, 1995:262). An adolescent with a well-developed self-esteem acquires the value of intrinsic motivation. He does not depend on extrinsic motivation in order to be motivated; he learns to appreciate himself.

A high self-esteem enables the adolescent to engage actively and positively with his parents, peers and educators and to feel empowered as people in their own right (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002:223). The value of engaging actively and positively with parents, peers and educators will lead to an improved interaction with other members of society. As the adolescents feel the value of effectiveness and the value of control over their environment, it becomes possible to plan and to set personal goals (Berk, 2003:63).
A well-developed self-esteem helps adolescents to acquire the value of being a well-organised and future oriented person who is ready to assume social responsibilities (Bottery, 1990:47).

The school and the family have a role to play in assisting the adolescent to establish his self-esteem which is a value directing his life. Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2002:223) state that a caring, supportive, and stable family is a key factor in enabling the adolescent to attain self-esteem. Good parenting styles help the adolescents to acquire values which enhance their self-esteem. Parents who use a democratic, rather than an autocratic disciplinary style are more likely to have adolescents with high self-esteem (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:85). Late adolescent girls, who enjoy a close relationship with their mothers, view themselves as having acquired values such as confidence, wisdom and self-control (Gouws, Burger and Kruger, 2000:85). Parental warmth enhances the value of self-esteem.

Gouws, Burger and Kruger (2000:85) maintain that the school promotes and enhances the value of self-esteem of the adolescent in the following ways:

➢ Educators should value and accept all learners, for their attempts as well as their accomplishments.

➢ Adolescents should be allowed the freedom to express views that differ from those presented during the lesson, as long as such views are supported by logical reasoning.

➢ Adolescents should be accorded equal treatment wherever possible, and they should be encouraged and given the opportunity to take part in activities.
Educators must show interest in adolescents’ affairs and must make them aware that they are persons of worth.

Positive behaviour must be reinforced.

It is imperative for educators to get to know the strategies to employ so as to enhance the value of self-esteem to the adolescent.

2.6.3 **Moral values**

In his value orientation the adolescent should be exposed to people with sound moral values for him to learn and adopt; values such as integrity, honesty, empathy, etc. (Louw, 1993:410). The development of the adolescent’s moral values depends on what he sees so as to choose what is suitable for him. Self-control by an adolescent is not automatic but is shaped and developed in his life-world, that is his immediate environment and the relationships he forms. Educators and other adults serve as exemplary figures for the adolescent to imitate in his development of moral values (Schiller & Bryant, 1998:39).

Adolescents must realise that moral values are sufficiently important to merit formal attention (Schuster & Ashburn, 1992:34). Adolescents must develop a system of values to conform to principles that regulate their thinking and behaviour. Conscience also plays a crucial role in the life of the adolescent. Conscience is a uniquely human, inherent ability to distinguish between right and wrong, good and evil, and proper and improper. A person’s conscience is influenced by teaching, habits and education. It is also influenced by moral values such as honesty, loyalty, responsibility, appreciation, respect and a sense of duty (Ellenburg, 1995:81).
According to Ellenburg (1985:11) the conscience of the adolescent is his “silent policeman”, guiding him toward living a good, moral life. Certain values are necessary for the functioning of the conscience. The adolescent must adopt sound and acceptable values when heading towards adulthood to become a responsible member of his society (Adams, 1998:92). The functioning of the conscience can change and diminish certain circumstances. For example, the adolescent’s sense of guilt about using drugs may be eliminated as a result of the peer group’s endorsement of the drug habit. Stroufe, Cooper and De Hart (1992:527) say people regulate their actions according to values, norms, rights and obligations, and if they disregard any of these their conscience becomes active. The prompting of the conscience also moves adolescents to repair their wrongdoing, for example by admitting and apologising for it. This means the adolescent has to accept responsibility for the choices he makes and in failing to do so he may suffer guilt feelings that may lead to self-recriminations and consequently a sense of shame, self-loathing, self-reproach and anxiety.

According to Louw (1993:409) one of the most important tasks of the adolescent in his value orientation is to develop a personal moral value system. The adolescent has to question certain values and accept others in order to establish his own value system. The adolescent’s cognitive ability to formulate hypotheses, to investigate them and to make certain deductions from them, as well as his capacity for abstract thinking, enables him to consider alternative values and to assess them rationally (Vrey, 1990:81).

2.7 DISCIPLINE AND VALUE ORIENTATION

According to Ellenburg (1985:11) good school discipline is an important feature of effective schools. Learners learn best in an orderly and safe
environment. Discipline is therefore one of the most important management functions in a school.

To achieve good discipline in a school, every school must have rules through a written code of conduct to be able to (Potgieter, Visser, Van der Bank, Mothata & Squelch, 1997:59):

- create a well-organised and good school so that effective learning and teaching can take place;
- promote self-discipline;
- encourage good behaviour; and
- regulate conduct.

One of the most important functions of educators at schools is to instil the value of discipline in an adolescent (Balk, 1995:51).

2.7.1 The role of rules in discipline

Discipline can best be described as the maintenance of an orderly system that creates the conditions in which learning takes place and that allows the aims and objectives of the school to be achieved (Jones, 1989:6). In a school, discipline is an educator directed activity whereby the educator seeks to lead, guide, direct, manage or confront a learner about behaviour that disrupts the rights of others, be they learners or educators.

Discipline aims to lead the learner towards self-control and personal accountability (Rogers, 1990:10). Order is maintained in the school and
classroom through discipline. For the teaching and learning to take place smoothly in the classroom proper conduct and action should lead adolescents. Rules are needed for this to occur.

School discipline is the functioning of the school community through a system of relationships, rules, rewards and sanctions designed to develop progressively self-discipline within learners (Cowin, Colin & Freeman, 1992:59). For discipline to be effective rules are needed to guide the learner’s (adolescent’s) behaviour. Rules play a vital role in ensuring that the values adopted by the adolescents are also upheld by their peers. Rules set boundaries within which the adolescent can develop as a person with values.

When learners play together they will often spend a lot of time talking about the “rules” of the game before starting to play. Learners like rules because they provide a sense of structure as long as the rules are clear and “make sense”. Discipline can be achieved through the implementation of clear rules and by ensuring that adolescents understand the reasons for the rules concerned (Portues, Vally & Tanor, 2001:30). Rules should make clear what is expected and not expected of an adolescent in class and at school. Adolescents then acquire the value of abiding with the rules and curb a spirit of rebelliousness.

Educators and adolescents should be closely involved in the creation and review of rules. A more open discussion will bring about a better understanding of their purpose and the problems they can create for both parties. Rules are of little value if they are not communicated to learners and adolescents because order is based on the supposition that knowledge of rules exists. Therefore it is important that rules are communicated to learners. Rules are an important ingredient of the hidden curriculum as they give substance and expression to values, for
whilst values are vague and general, rules are specific and situational. Thus, when a school reviews its control practices it will also examine what forms of behaviour educators deem worthwhile and desirable (Jones, 1989:75).

According to Cowin & Freeman (1992:81) discipline can provide that sense of security which enhances effective learning. Learners learn best when they feel good about themselves and that is why self-esteem is an important value of discipline. Encouragement, positive reinforcement, helpful guiding, questioning and listening are the sorts of educator behaviours that assist the achievement of this value (Curwin & Mendler, 1998:39). Even when an educator needs to be firm, assertive or angry, it is possible to discipline and still affirm these laudable values (Rogers, 1990:12). Adolescents welcome discipline because it guides their behaviour and protects them from indulging in not obeying the values of propriety (Wheldall, 1992:112).

2.7.2 Behaviour and value

Dekker and Lemmer (1998:239) maintain that good behaviour and discipline involves all members of the school community: learners, educators and other staff, by showing mutual respect and consideration for each other, creating collectively a pleasant and productive ethos in the school, and working together successfully in the common purpose of teaching and learning. According to Cowin and Freeman (1992:83) good discipline must be based on self-discipline, which means each individual understanding and accepting the rules to govern their own behaviour. This means in turn that in a self-disciplined school community any necessary rules must be fair and reasonable for learners to be accepted. The rule of fear is no substitute for discipline. LeFlore (1998:636) maintains that apart from anything else, those who are subject to it often
seize the opportunity to commit any misdemeanour for which they believe they will not be caught, and this attitude may well remain with them when they leave the closely regulated school environment. In other words, a school run on fear of sanctions can never inculcate in its learners the sense of individual responsibility. Schools which concentrate on "deterrents" will never teach their adolescents moral values but only how not to get caught (Jones, 1989:106). Educators need to inculcate in adolescents the desire to behave in a socially acceptable manner. The adolescent must be encouraged to take responsibility for his behaviour pattern so that he will choose freely to behave in accordance with moral values (LeFlore, 1988:640).

Jones (1989:115) states that adolescents learn very powerfully by example and educators must therefore maintain high standards of behaviour. For example, adolescents are more likely to smoke if educators do. Studies done by Ellenburg (1985:9) also confirm that adolescents are more likely to be violent if educators are violent. Educators who have double standards and whose implicit motto is "Do as I say, not as I do" undermine effective discipline.

According to Ellenburg (1995:49) adolescents are influenced by educators' mannerisms and therefore the educator must try at all times to be a good role model. Educators' portrayal of negative behaviour will make it difficult for them to inculcate good behaviour in adolescents. Some rules will be deliberately defied and this will surely lead to moral laxity.

2.8 PEERS

At all stages of development, but particularly during adolescence, the peer group can have a powerful influence on behaviour (Vrey, 1990:169).
This can be negative, positive, or as in most cases, mixed. This depends very much on the values held by the peer group, and the sort of identity and acceptance needs of the individual (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002:244).

A peer group is a group whose members share similar circumstances and are often the same age (Haralambos, 1986:5). Peer influence is very strong, particularly during this period of development. Peer interactions are essential for the value orientation of the adolescent.

According to Piaget (De Vries & Zan, 1994:53) peer interactions are crucial to the adolescent’s construction of social and moral feelings, values, and social and intellectual competence.

Acceptance by the peer group is a prerequisite for the value orientation of the adolescent (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:119). Adolescents who are accepted by their peers usually have the following values dominating in their character: flexibility, tolerance, sympathy, cheerfulness, vivacity, humour, naturalness, self-confidence without haughtiness, initiative and enthusiasm (Louw, 1993:423). Peer acceptance and interaction work together to promote the value orientation of the adolescent. Peers shape the adolescent’s character by offering him desirable character traits that serve as a strong foundation in building values and thus contribute to his value orientation.

De Vries and Zan (1994:53) maintain that peer relations are important because they are characterised by an equality that can never be achieved in adult-child relations, no matter how hard the adult tries to minimise heteronomy. Jean Piaget (Craig, 1992:597) believes that peers may contribute as much (or even more) to an adolescent’s development as adults do.
According to Adams (1998:76) peer relations provide a good context for development by seeing other learners like themselves, resulting in a special feeling of interest that motivates peer contacts. These contacts are social, moral, and intellectual endeavours. In the course of peer interaction, adolescents construct consciousness and differentiation of self and others, schemes of social reaction, and cooperation in thought and action (De Vries & Zan, 1994:53). The adolescent’s contact with his peers either at school or in his community has a tremendous impact on his adoption of a relevant value system (Nyberg, 1990:597). Interaction with peers promotes the adoption of appropriate values and enhances the value orientation of the adolescent (Adams, 2001:29).

Vrey (1990:169) maintain that the adolescent’s peers afford him the opportunity to be with equals. This is a training school for his adult social life. The peer group offers the opportunity for the fulfilment of the adolescent’s personal and social aspirations and needs. Within the group the adolescent could get to know the social norms, customs, values, role requirements and rules which are acknowledged and accepted within his social milieu (Du Toit & Kruger, 1994:63). The adolescent learns values more readily from his peer group without fear of being threatened. His value orientation is further developed when he encounters the social norms and values of his peers.

The adolescent gradually constructs more and more consistently organised patterns of social reactions in the course of peer interaction. His personality becomes more consolidated (De Vries & Zan, 1964:64). Peer interactions also encourage the development of a value oriented personality.

Elkind (1994:67) says the peer group is the critical determinant in the development of a value system. The unstructured leisure hours spent
with peers afford adolescents the opportunity to develop skills enabling them to assume roles (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:186). The skills the adolescent gains from a social context help him to develop a relevant value system. Louw (1993:422) states that, within the peer group, the adolescent learns to experiment with the new roles, which help him to develop effective social functioning. The peer group is an important agent for socialisation, and meets adolescents' needs for friendship (Douvan & Adelson, 1996:52). Adolescents' better empathic understanding of others greatly facilitate their task of establishing a sound value system of their own (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:175). The peer group's positive influence enables the adolescent to practise and internalise his value orientation. Peer interaction also encourages the development of a value oriented personality and thus enables him to function as a member of society who has a positive value system (Adams, 1998:80).

Involvement with peers is critical to progress in self-understanding and identity achievement. The adolescent is led to discover his inner feelings, and his inner level of consciousness. In a peer group values of "trust", "faith" and "believe-in" are of crucial importance (Stroufe, Cooper & De Hart, 1992:528). For value orientation to be successful values such as trust, faith and belief are essential.

It is possible to see a school peer group made up of adolescents from several ethnic groups (Ezewu, 1989:46). As they interact, each of them is bound to learn the ways of life of others. The peer members can practice the values of fair play, a sense of duty, belongingness, cooperation with one another and honesty in their dealings with one another (Evans & Tribble, 1986:83). For the adolescent's value orientation to be regarded in its totality, the adolescent has to be aware of the values of other ethnic groups.
During interaction with the peer group the adolescent becomes aware of the interchangeability of roles and of cooperation between individuals (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:187). Through increasing interaction with the peer group adolescents come to realise that individuals behave differently because they maintain different sets of values, which means that the other person’s values are now considered (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1996:69). Peer group interactions enable the adolescent to learn and appreciate other people’s cultures. Societal values and values prevalent at school are easily learnt and adopted from peer interaction (Jarrett, 1991:36).

Ezewu (1989:46) argues that the peer group teaches the adolescent the value of unity and collective behaviour, in that the members of the peer group see themselves as a collective body interacting with one voice. This discourages social discrimination in a given environment as people of different social classes may be living around the same place. In such a situation, the adolescent from a low status family may learn values of a middle class family and *vice versa* (Bukatho & Daeler, 1995:46). Peers expose the adolescent to a wide variety of values to enhance his value orientation.

Peers serve as audience, critic, and emotional support for their friends’ ideas, innovations and behaviour (Craig, 1992:425). School peer groups also contribute to socialisation by rewarding such attributes as athletic ability, courage, leadership, popularity, and physical attractiveness. Congruence between school values and values of peers, family and community help to foster social and academic success at school (Santrock, 1997:702). Courage and support from the peer group enable the adolescent to develop attributes that shape and mould his values.

During adolescence, the need for close friends becomes crucial (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:79). Adolescents rely on their friends for a value
During interaction with the peer group the adolescent becomes aware of the interchangeability of roles and of cooperation between individuals (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:187). Through increasing interaction with the peer group adolescents come to realise that individuals behave differently because they maintain different sets of values, which means that the other person's values are now considered (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1996:69). Peer group interactions enable the adolescent to learn and appreciate other people's cultures. Societal values and values prevalent at school are easily learnt and adopted from peer interaction (Jarrett, 1991:36).

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During adolescence, the need for close friends becomes crucial (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:79). Adolescents rely on their friends for a value
of self-worth. From their friends they learn values pertaining to personal and social skills that help them to become part of the adult world (Rogers, 1990:97). Friends pave the way for an adolescent to adulthood, which is a process that is positively influenced if the adolescent has a positive value system.

A friend with similar needs, aspirations and fears provides the security necessary to enter new relations (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:79). Such a friend must be dependable, loyal and supportive. For this reason adolescent friendships, unlike those of earlier years, are characterised by greater emotional involvement and emphasis on values such as loyalty, reliability, understanding, empathy and sincerity (Rice, 1992:47). These values are essential for the adolescent’s value orientation. Value orientation assists the adolescent to gain skills and values which relate to emotional control and will assist in dealing positively with emotional stress (Smith, 1994:49).

Youth organisations can have an important influence on the adolescent’s value development (Santrock, 1997:392). Youth organisations vary from career groups, groups aimed at building character, such as Girl Guides and Boy Scouts, political groups and religious groups (Tucker, 1990:29). Adolescents who join such groups are more likely to participate in community activities in adulthood and have higher self-esteem, and are often better educated than their counterparts who do not participate in youth groups. Participation in youth groups can help adolescents practise the interpersonal and organisational skills that are important for success in adult roles (Meehan & Stetson, 1997:32). Youth organisations help adolescents to acquire values and skills needed to deliver services in their communities.
CHAPTER 3

PLANNING OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature study in chapter 2 focused on the role of the school in the value orientation of the adolescent. Various aspects were discussed regarding the role played by the school as an institution that facilitates the personality maturation of adolescents. This chapter will discuss the planning of the empirical research that was conducted to obtain information on educators' perceptions of the values that directs the life of the adolescent.

For this purpose a self-structured questionnaire was administered to educators in secondary schools to elicit their feelings and perceptions.

3.2 PREPARATION FOR AND DESIGN OF THE RESEARCH

The researcher planned to administer the questionnaire (Annexure A) to educators of adolescent learners in the Ixopo District. A total of 23 schools from the Ixopo District were selected. Schools selected were senior primary and secondary schools with adolescent learners. The questionnaires were to be completed by five (5) randomly selected educators on the staff of each school. A total of 150 questionnaires were thereafter delivered to educators, and 110 were collected by the researcher, which may be considered an adequate sample for reliable data analysis.
3.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

3.3.1 The questionnaire as research instrument

A questionnaire is a set of questions dealing with the same topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals, for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration (Van Rensburg, Landman & Bodenstein, 1994:504). Data is any kind of information that researchers can identify and accumulate to facilitate answers to their queries (Van Wyk, 1996: 130). The questionnaire is regarded as the most widely used survey data collecting technique (De Vaus, 1990:90).

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:190), the questionnaire is a prepared question form submitted to certain persons (respondents) with a view to obtaining information. It is not merely a list of questions to be filled out but a scientific instrument for measurement and collection of particular kinds of data. Therefore it has to be specially designed according to particular specifications and with specific aims in mind (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2003:14).

Churchill and Peter (Schnetler, 1993:77) have shown that the measuring instrument has the greatest influence on the reliability of research data. The careful construction of the questionnaire best controls the characteristics of measurement. The questionnaire serves two major purposes (Schnetler, 1993:77):

> It translates the research objectives into specific questions, the answers to which will provide the data necessary to test or to explore the area set by the research objectives.
It motivates the respondent to communicate the required information.

A questionnaire is not simply thrown together. A well-designed questionnaire is the culmination of a long process of planning of the research objective, formulating the problem, generating the hypothesis, etc. (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2001:14). A poorly designed questionnaire can invalidate any research results, notwithstanding the merits of the sample, the field workers and the statistical techniques (Huysamen, 1989:12). In their criticism of questionnaires Berchie and Anderson (Schnetler, 1993:61) object to poor design rather than to questionnaires as such. A well-designed questionnaire can enhance the reliability and validity of the data to acceptable tolerances (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2003:14).

Designing questionnaires does not take place in a vacuum. The length of individual questions, the number of response options and the format and wording of questions are determined by the following (Dane, 1990:315-319):

- The choice of the subject to be researched.
- The aim of the research.
- The size of the research sample.
- The method of data collection.
- The analysis of the data.

It is for these reasons that the researcher looked at the principles that determine whether the questionnaire is well designed or not. It is therefore necessary to draw a distinction between questionnaire content, question format, question order, type of questions, formulation of questions and validity and reliability of questions.
3.3.2 **Construction of the questionnaire**

Designing a questionnaire should not take place in isolation. The researcher has consulted and sought the advice of specialists and colleagues during the construction and design of the questionnaire (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:198). Its design and content must restrict potential errors from respondents. Questions to be included in the questionnaire were tested on colleagues, as a question may appear correct to the researcher when written down but can be interpreted differently when asked to another person.

There should be no hesitation in changing questions several times, keeping the original purpose in mind before the final formulation (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2003:15). A researcher must also ensure that sufficient time is budgeted for in the construction and preliminary testing of the questionnaire (Hlatshwayo, 1996:149). All of the above were taken into account by the researcher during the designing of the questionnaire for this investigation.

A questionnaire has to engage the interest of people, since participation is voluntary. This will encourage their cooperation and elicit answers as close as possible to the truth (Cohen & Manion, 1994:93). An important aim in the construction of the questionnaire was to present the questions as simply and straightforwardly as possible. An accompanying letter and instructions were also sent with the questionnaire. The researcher further aimed to avoid ambiguity, vagueness, bias, prejudice and technical language in the questions.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding educators' roles in the value orientation of the adolescent. The questionnaire was subdivided into two categories as follows:
Section one: dealt with the biographical information of the respondents and consisted of questions 1 to 5.

Section two: consisted of closed-ended questions. The questions focused on the values that directed the life of an adolescent. In this section respondents were requested to indicate their perceptions of the values that play an important role in the value orientation of the adolescent.

3.3.3 Characteristics of a good questionnaire

During the construction of the questionnaire, the researcher was guided by the characteristics of a good questionnaire as identified by Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen and Vos (2003:15) and Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:190):

- The topic must be significant. The respondent should recognise it as important enough to warrant spending his or her time on. The significance should be clearly and carefully stated on the questionnaire and on the accompanying letter.

- It seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources.

- It must be as short as possible, but long enough to get the essential data. Long questionnaires are normally not answered.

- Questionnaires should be attractive in appearance and neatly arranged. It should be clearly duplicated or printed.
Directions must be clear and complete and important terms clearly defined.

Each question deals with a single concept and should be worded as simply and straightforwardly as possible.

Objectively formulated questions with no leading suggestions should render the desired responses.

Questions should be presented in a proper psychological order, proceeding from general to more specific and sensitive responses. An orderly grouping helps respondents to organise their own thinking so that their answers are logical and objective. It is preferable to present questions that create a favourable attitude before proceeding to those that are more intimate or delicate in nature. Annoying and/or embarrassing questions should be avoided if possible.

3.3.4 Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

Data can be gathered by means of a structured questionnaire in, *inter alia*, the following ways: a written questionnaire that is mailed, delivered, or handed out personally, personal interviews and telephone interviews (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2003:16). Each mode has specific advantages and disadvantages which the researcher needs to evaluate for their suitability to the research question and the specific target population being studied, as well as the related cost. The researcher used the written questionnaire as research instrument taking into consideration the following advantages (Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen & Vos, 2003:16):
(1) **Advantages of the written questionnaire**

- Affordability is the primary advantage of written questionnaires because it is the least expensive means of gathering data.

- Written questionnaires preclude possible interviewer bias. The way the interviewer asks questions and even the interviewer's general appearance or interaction may influence a respondent's answers. Such biases can be completely eliminated with a written questionnaire.

- A questionnaire permits anonymity. If it is arranged that such responses are given anonymously, this would increase the researcher's chances of receiving responses which genuinely represent a person's beliefs, feelings, opinions or perceptions.

- They permit a respondent a sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding.

- Questionnaires can be given to many people simultaneously.

- They provide greater uniformity across measurement situations than do interviews. Each person responds to exactly the same questions because standard instructions are given to the respondents.

- Generally the data provided by questionnaires can be more easily analysed and interpreted than the data obtained from verbal responses.
Using a questionnaire solves the problem of non-contact when the respondent is not at home "when the interviewer calls". When the target population to be covered is widely and thinly spread, the mailed questionnaire is the only possible method of approach.

Through the use of the questionnaire approach the problem related to interviews may be avoided. Interview "errors" may seriously undermine the reliability and validity of survey results.

A respondent may be more willing to answer questions of a personal or embarrassing nature on a questionnaire as compared to a face-to-face situation with an interviewer who may be a complete stranger. In some cases it may happen that respondents report less than expected and make more critical comments in a mailed questionnaire.

Questions requiring considered answers rather than immediate answers could enable respondents to consult documents in the case of the mailed questionnaire approach.

Respondents can complete questionnaires in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere.

Questionnaire design is relatively easy if the set guidelines are followed.

The administering of questionnaires and the coding, analysis and interpretation of data can be done without any special training.

Data obtained from questionnaires can be compared and inferences made.
Questionnaires can elicit information, which cannot be obtained from other sources. This renders empirical research possible in different educational disciplines.

(2) Disadvantages of the written questionnaire

According to Kidder and Judd (1986:224), Mahlangu (1987:84-85) and Wolhuter, Van der Merwe, Vermeulen and Vos (2003:17) the written questionnaire also has important disadvantages which are, *inter alia*, the following:

- Questionnaires do not provide the flexibility of interviews. In an interview an idea or comment can be explored. This makes it possible to gauge how people are interpreting the question. If questions asked are interpreted differently by respondents, the validity of the information obtained is jeopardised.

- People are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing.

- Questions can be answered only when they are sufficiently easy and straightforward to be understood with the given instructions and definitions.

- The mailed questionnaire does not make provision for obtaining the views of more than one person at a time. It requires uninfluenced views of one person only.

- Answers to mailed questionnaires must be seen as final. Re-checking of responses cannot be done. There is no chance of investigating beyond the given answer for clarification of ambiguous answers. If
respondents are unwilling to answer certain questions nothing can be done to it because the mailed questionnaire is essentially inflexible.

➢ In a mailed questionnaire the respondent examines all the questions at the same time before answering them and the answers to the different questions can therefore not be treated as “independent”.

➢ Researchers are unable to control the context of question-answering, and specifically, the presence of other people. Respondents may ask friends or family members to examine the questionnaire or comment on their answers, causing bias if the respondent’s own private opinions are desired.

➢ Written questionnaires do not allow the researcher to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have. Respondents might answer questions incorrectly or not at all due to confusion or misinterpretation.

3.3.5 **Validity and reliability of the questionnaire**

Validity and reliability are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in social science research (Huysamen, 1989:1-3). All too rarely do questionnaire designers deal consciously with the degree of validity and reliability of their instrument. This is one reason why so many questionnaires are lacking in these two qualities (Cooper, 1989:15). Questionnaires have a very limited purpose. They are often one-time data gathering devices with a very short life, administered to a limited population. There are ways to improve both the validity and reliability of questionnaires. Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions phrased in the least ambiguous way. Terms must be clearly defined so that they have the
same meaning to all respondents (Cohen & Manion, 1989:111-112; Cooper, 1989:60-62).

Kidder and Judd (1989:53) mention the fact that although reliability and validity are two different characteristics of measurement, they "shade into each other". They are two ends of a continuum but at points in the middle it is difficult to distinguish between them. Validity and reliability are especially important in educational research because most of the measurements attempted in this area are obtained indirectly.

Researchers can never guarantee that an educational or psychological measuring instrument measures precisely and dependably what it is intended to measure (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1990:198). It is essential, therefore, to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments. An educational researcher is expected to include in his research report an account of the validity and reliability of the instruments he has employed.

Researchers must therefore have a general knowledge as to what validity and reliability are and how one goes about validating a research instrument and establishing its reliability (Huysamen, 1989:1-3).

(1) **Validity of the questionnaire**

Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:560) define validity as the extent to which a measuring instrument satisfies the purpose for which it was constructed. It also refers to the extent to which it correlates with some criterion external to the instrument itself. Validity is that quality of a data-gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to determine what it was designed to determine. In general the
"validity" refers to the degree to which an instrument succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure.

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:237), Mulder (1989:215-217) and Dane (1990:257-258) distinguish between three different types of validity:

- **Content validity**, where content and cognitive processes are included and 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 characteristic in question. The criterion should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination.

- **Construct validity**, where the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct is concerned, for example intelligence, reasoning ability, attitudes, etc.

The validity of the questionnaire indicates how worthwhile a measure is likely to be in a given situation. Validity shows whether the instrument is reflecting the true story, or at least something approximating the truth. A valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some "real" ability, attitude or prevailing situation that the researcher can identify and characterise (Schnetler, 1993:71). If the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answer to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield essentially the same results (Dane, 1990:158).
The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument's results, other than the ones the researcher wishes to make, can be ruled out. Establishing validity requires that the researcher anticipates the potential arguments that sceptics might use to dismiss the research results (Cooper, 1989:120; Dane, 1990:148-149).

The researcher employed the questionnaire as an indirect method to measure the role of the educator in the value orientation of the adolescent. Due to the complexity of the respondents' attributes one is never sure that the questionnaire devised will actually measure what it purports to measure. Items in the questionnaire cannot be measured like length, height, mass or size. From the interpretation of the results obtained and the sureness with which conclusions could be drawn the researcher is convinced that the questionnaire, to a great extent, did measure that which it was designed for.

(2) **Reliability of the questionnaire**

According to Mulder (1989:209) and Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:512) reliability is a statistical concept and relates to consistency of obtaining the same relative answer when measuring phenomena and dependability. A reliable measuring instrument is one that, if repeated under similar conditions, would present the same result or a new approximation of the initial result. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:194) and Kidder and Judd (1986:47-48) distinguish between the following types of reliability:
Test-retest reliability (coefficient of stability). This gives an indication of the dependability of a score on one occasion and on another occasion.

Internal consistency reliability. This indicates how well the test items measure the same thing.

Split-half reliability. By correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same measuring instrument, the split-half reliability can be calculated.

In essence, reliability refers to consistency, but consistency does not guarantee truthfulness. The reliability of the question is no proof that the answers given are a true reflection of the respondent’s feelings (Dane, 1990:256). A demonstration of reliability is necessary but not conclusive evidence that an instrument is valid. Reliability refers to the extent to which measurement results are free of unpredictable kinds of error. Sources of error that affect reliability are, *inter alia*, the following (Mulder, 1989:209; Kidder & Judd, 1986:45):

- Fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured.

- Variations in the conditions of administration between groups. These range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as omissions in verbal instructions.
Differences in scoring or interpretation of results, chance differences in what the observer notices and errors in computing scores.

Random effects by respondents who guess or check off attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

When the questionnaire as an empirical research instrument is used, there is no specific method, for example, the “test-retest” method, to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. Therefore, it will be difficult to establish to what extent the answers of the respondents were reliable. The researcher, however, accepts that the questionnaires in this investigation were completed with the necessary honesty and sincerity required to render the maximum possible reliability. Frankness in responding to questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire. In the coding of the questions it was evident that questionnaires were completed with the necessary dedication.

3.4 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study is an abbreviated version of a research project in which the researcher practises or tests the procedures to be used in the subsequent full-scale project (Dane, 1990:42). The pilot study is a preliminary or "trial run" investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey. According to Kidder and Judd (1986:211-2121) the basic purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the design of the subsequent study can be improved and to identify flaws in the measuring instrument. A pilot study gives the researcher an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and what effects (intended or not) it is likely to have. In other words, by generating many of the practical problems that will ultimately arise, a pilot study enables
the researcher to avert these problems by changing procedures, instructions and questions.

The number of participants in the pilot study or group is normally smaller than the number scheduled to take part in the final survey. Participants in the pilot study and the sample for the final study must be selected from the same target population. For the purpose of this study the researcher conducted a pilot run on his colleagues.

According to Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (1991:49-66) the following are the purposes of a pilot study, and these were also the aims of the researcher in this survey:

- It permitted a preliminary testing of the hypothesis that leads to testing more precise hypotheses in the main study.

- It provided the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen prior to the pilot study.

- It permitted a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures, thus allowing an appraisal of their adequacy in treating the data.

- It greatly reduced the number of treatment errors because unforeseen problems revealed in the pilot study resulted in redesigning the main study.

- It saved the researcher major expenditures of time and money on aspects of the research, which would have been unnecessary.
Feedback from other persons involved were made possible and led to important improvements in the main study.

In the pilot study the researcher experimented with a number of alternative measures and selected only those that produced the best results for the final study.

The approximate time required to complete the questionnaire was established in the pilot study.

Questions and/or instructions that were misinterpreted were reformulated.

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

3.5 ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is one of the best available instruments, if properly administrated, for obtaining information from widespread sources or large groups simultaneously (Cooper, 1989:39). The researcher personally delivered questionnaires to the selected schools and collected them after completion.

3.6 THE PROCESSING OF THE DATA

Once the data was collected, it was captured in a format which would permit analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the 110 questionnaires completed by the educators of secondary schools. The coded data was subsequently transferred onto a computer
spreadsheet using Microsoft Excel in Office 2000. The coded data was submitted to the Department of Statistics at the University of Durban-Westville and was computer analysed using the SPSS programme in order to interpret the results by means of descriptive statistics.

3.6.1 **Descriptive statistics**

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

According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1990:65-76) and Schumacher and McMillan (1997:192), frequency distribution is a method to organise data obtained from questionnaires in order to simplify statistical analysis. A frequency table provides the following information:

- It indicates how many times a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires.

- It provides percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

3.6.2 **Application of data**

The questionnaire was designed to determine whether schools contribute to the value orientation of the adolescent. In order to obtain the information needed for the purpose of this study the questionnaire was subdivided into two sections:
Section 1 required demographic information about the educators and included items 1.1 to 1.7.

Section 2 gathered information regarding educators' perceptions of the value orientation of the adolescent.

3.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE INVESTIGATION

This investigation was constrained by a number of factors. The following are likely factors that might have influenced the reliability and validity of the questionnaire:

- Although anonymity was required in the questionnaire the possibility exists that, because of educators' cautiousness, they might not have been frank and truthful in their responses.

- The sensitive nature of items in the questionnaire might have elicited false or misleading responses and influenced the reliability of the results.

- To restrict the investigation to manageable proportions, the researcher limited the study to the educators in schools in the Ixopo District.

- The researcher also experienced problems with some principals, mainly from previously Model C schools, that were reluctant or totally against the questionnaires being given to their educators.

Despite the limitations identified, the researcher believes the investigation will provide a much needed basis for future research regarding the schools' role in the value orientation of the adolescent.
3.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter the planning and design of the empirical research was discussed and a comprehensive description of the questionnaire as research instrument was given.

The data obtained from the completed questionnaires will be analysed and presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the data which was collected from the completed questionnaires will be analysed, findings will be interpreted and some comments will be presented. The data comprised biographical information, and educators’ perceptions of the values that direct the life of the adolescent. One hundred and ten questionnaires were completed by educators.

4.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:42) state that the purpose of research is to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or person. Descriptive research is one of the methods of research used to study a person or persons scientifically in the educational situation. It attempts to describe the situation as it is, thus there is no intervention on the part of the researcher and therefore no control. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994:355) say studies do not set out with the idea of testing hypotheses about relationships, but want to find the distribution of variables. In this study nomothetic descriptive research was employed with the aim of describing educators’ perceptions of the values that direct the life of the adolescent. The researcher was primarily concerned with the nature and degree of existing situations in schools.
4.2.1 Gender of respondents

Table 1 Frequency distribution according to the gender of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that the majority (64%) of the respondents in the research sample are females. Possible reasons for this phenomenon are the following:

➢ According to the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) there are more females than males in the teaching profession (ELRC, 2005:1).

➢ Females may view teaching as an occupation that affords them time in the afternoon to attend to their household chores and spend time with their children and to assist them with their homework.

➢ Many females are not sole breadwinners and therefore may see teaching as a second or additional income.

➢ The availability of job opportunities in the past restricted females to jobs like teaching and nursing.
4.2.2 **Age of respondents**

Table 2  Frequency distribution according to the age group of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 20-25 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 26-30 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 31-35 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 36-40 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 41-45 years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 46-50 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 51-55 years</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The larger percentage (21%) of the respondents in the research sample is in the age group 36 to 40 years (Table 2). The table also shows that more than a quarter (26%) of the respondents is younger than 30 years, which means that they have more to offer in terms of energy and productivity. The possibility also exists that younger educators may stay in the educator profession for a longer period of time to gain more experience with the aim of possible promotion. A very small percentage of the sample (5%) is older than 50 years. A possible reason for this finding is that older educators have opted for the Voluntary Severance Package (VSP) offered by the Department of Education.
4.2.3 **Qualifications**

Table 3  Frequency distribution according to the qualifications of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Degree and diploma or certificate</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Diplomas and certificates only</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 3 it emerges that the percentages of the respondents that have academic and professional qualifications and the ones that have professional qualifications only, differ by only two percent (2%). Academic qualifications are perceived by many as being better for the teaching profession, and that such qualifications are best suited for teaching in secondary schools. A better qualification enables an educator to come to terms with changes that are constantly taking place in the teaching profession. In order to be an effective educator a person should have obtained the most suitable qualifications; furthermore, to qualify for a promotion an educator must have a better qualification, besides experience.
4.2.4 **Years of service as an educator**

Table 4 Frequency distribution according to the respondents’ years of completed service as educators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Completed years of service</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 0 - 5 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 6 - 10 years</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 11 - 15 years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 16 - 20 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 21 - 25 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 26 - 30 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that most of the respondents (27%) in the research sample have between 11-15 years’ teaching experience, while more than a third (37%) have more than 16 years teaching experience. Experience, together with adequate training, is needed for the educator to cope with the demands and responsibilities of the teaching profession. The more experience and training an educator has, the more confidence and expertise he will have acquired to be an effective educator. Professional development helps educators to be on equal footing with the rapid pace of change in knowledge, technological advancement and demands imposed upon educators (Marsh, 1992:88).
4.2.5 **Post level of the respondents**

Table 5  
Frequency distribution according to the post level of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Principal</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Deputy principal</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 HOD</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Educator (Post Level 1)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the frequency distribution in Table 5, most of the respondents (52%) are post level one educators. This finding is consistent with the composition of educators in most schools. Chetty (2004:113) says that generally, level one educators comprise a little over seventy percent (70%) of the teaching personnel at schools.

4.2.6 **Type of post**

Table 6  
Frequency distribution according to the type of post held by respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of post</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Permanent</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Temporary</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Governing body</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that the majority of the respondents (85%) in the research sample are on permanent staff. This high percentage can be seen as a favourable situation in a school. To be on the permanent staff has the following advantages for the educator (Chetty, 2004:114):
Permanent staff are entitled to a housing subsidy, which enables them to buy a house or flat.

They enjoy job security.

They can provide for their retirement as they are contributors to a pension fund.

They can join a medical aid benefit scheme to which the employer contributes a percentage of the monthly premium.

The above fringe benefits may act as motivators to educators in their teaching.

4.2.7 Area in which schools are situated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in which school is situated</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Urban area</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Semi-urban area</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Rural area</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>110</strong></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of schools (65%) selected for the administration of the questionnaire are situated in rural areas and therefore resulted in the findings in Table 6. The Ixopo district, from which the schools for the research sample were selected, is situated in the midlands of KwaZulu-Natal and includes large rural areas.
### 4.2.8 Values that direct the life of the adolescent

Table 8 Frequency distribution according to the values that direct the life of the adolescent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The following are values that direct the life of adolescents:</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 A religion to cling to during times of uncertainties (e.g. death of parent)</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 To live harmoniously (lovingly) with all people.</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Endeavouring to always do what is acceptable by society (e.g. dress)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Proper behaviour in all circumstances.</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Honesty in interpersonal relationships.</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Appreciation of beauty (e.g. painting, music)</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Acceptance of social responsibilities (e.g. being helpful towards people)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Preserving things of historic value (e.g. buildings, books)</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.9 Protecting the traditions of their culture.</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.10 Recognising the worth of other people.</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.11 Obeying the laws of society (e.g. school rules)</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.12 Treating other people as you would like to be treated.</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table continued on next page - 2.15 ...
Table 8  Frequency distribution according to the values that direct
the life of the adolescent *(continued from previous page)*

| The following are values that direct  | Agree | Disagree | Uncertain | TOTAL |
| the life of adolescents:             |       |          |           |       |
| 2.13 Being trustworthy (e.g. people  | 89    |           | 10        | 110   |
| must know they can rely on you)      | 81%   | 10%       | 9%        | 100%  |
| 2.14 Good self-discipline (e.g. complete | 86    |           | 15        | 110   |
| schoolwork before watching TV)       | 78%   | 8%        | 14%       | 100%  |
| 2.15 Friendliness (e.g. greeting people | 83    |           | 17        | 110   |
| with a smile)                        | 75%   | 9%        | 16%       | 100%  |
| 2.16 Emotional control (e.g. cursing or | 84    |           | 16        | 110   |
| breaking things in frustration or    | 76%   | 9%        | 15%       | 100%  |
| anger)                              |       |          |           |       |
| 2.17 Good relations with people (e.g. | 92    |           | 7         | 110   |
| showing sympathy and concern)        | 84%   | 10%       | 6%        | 100%  |
| 2.18 Punctuality (e.g. being on time for | 98    |           | 4         | 110   |
| school)                             | 89%   | 8%        | 4%        | 100%  |
| 2.19 Respecting the rights of other  | 92    |           | 10        | 110   |
| people (e.g. privacy)               | 84%   | 8%        | 9%        | 100%  |
| 2.20 Environmental conservation (e.g. | 45    |           | 45        | 110   |
| littering or wasting water)         | 41%   | 20        | 41%       | 100%  |
| 2.21 Love for nature (e.g. not       | 50    |           | 33        | 110   |
| destroying plants and animals)      | 55%   | 17        | 30%       | 100%  |
| 2.22 Loyalty towards family members  | 98    |           | 7         | 110   |
| (e.g. support during difficult       | 89%   | 5         | 6%        | 100%  |
| times)                              |       |          |           |       |
| 2.23 Respecting other people’s property | 84    |           | 20        | 110   |
| (e.g. not breaking school windows)  | 76%   | 6         | 18%       | 100%  |
| 2.24 Delivering service to the      | 43    |           | 52        | 110   |
| community (e.g. caring for the sick /elderly) | 39% | 14%    | 47%       | 100%  |
| 2.25 Respecting the equality of human | 91    |           | 8         | 110   |
| beings                              | 83%   | 11        | 7%        | 100%  |
| 2.26 Developing to their full potential | 68    |           | 27        | 110   |
| (e.g. not to drop out of school)     | 62%   | 15        | 24%       | 100%  |
Table 8  Frequency distribution according to the values that direct the life of the adolescent *(continued from previous page)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The following are values that direct the life of adolescents:</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.27   Respecting one’s own body (e.g. personal hygiene)</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.28   Showing personal courage (e.g. using drugs under peer pressure)</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>110</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.29   Becoming independent</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.30   Responsible sexual behaviour</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>110</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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</table>

**Uncertain times (2.1):** The majority of respondents (90%) in the research sample agreed that a personal religion means faith and hope to which an adolescent can cling to during times of uncertainties. In their religious orientation, adolescents should be encouraged and helped to find their own spiritual satisfaction through a personal acceptance and understanding of the sublime (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg.). The adolescent needs a religion which is continuous with life, consistent with the workday world and can provide a faith to live by and thus enable the adolescent to withstand conflicts and doubts (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:189).

**Living in harmony (2.2):** Most of the respondents (79%) said that to live in harmony with people is a value that directs the life of the adolescents. Papalia and Olds (1992:326) say among the most critical orientation tasks that have to be performed by the adolescent are those of socialisation, carving out a niche for himself in society, acquiring interpersonal skills, cultivating tolerance for personal and cultural differences and developing self-confidence.
Do what is acceptable by society (2.3): Just over two-thirds (67%) of the respondents agreed that doing what is acceptable by society is a value that directs the life of the adolescent.

According to Louw (1993:428-429) every society has certain informal and formal stipulations concerning an individual's development of moral values. In the South Africa, for instance, a young person at 16 has the right to leave school (subject to parental approval), at 18 the right to vote and obtain a driver's licence and at 21 attains complete legal independence.

Adolescents should be assisted through education and exemplary living towards underwriting society's prevailing values, such as neighbourly love, justice, honesty and the like (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:182).

Proper behaviour (2.4): Half of the respondents (50%) agreed that proper behaviour in all circumstances is a value that directs the life of the adolescent.

Early adolescence is the time of most conflict with parents, but even then the conflict tends to centre on less important matters of behaviour and style, not fundamental values and beliefs. The typical conflicts of adolescence are best thought of as arising out of normal self-assertion, not rebellion and defiance. Parents for a time may see their child as "impossible" or "lost" (Stroufe, Cooper & De Hart, 1992:516).

Lack of parental interest and support may have negative effects on the adolescent: poor schoolwork, low self-esteem, poor social adjustment, and deviant and antisocial behaviour (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:68).
**Honesty (2.5):** Most of the respondents (41%) agreed that the adolescent has to be honest in interpersonal relationships, which is a value directing the life of the adolescent. According to Louw (1993:414) the following values are important to the adolescents: respect for the individual regardless of race, religion or sex; awareness of social responsibilities; and honesty in interpersonal relationships.

Adolescents endeavour to build up positive interpersonal relations between themselves and others by behaving in an affectionate, warm, caring and considerate way (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:89).

**Appreciation of beauty (2.6):** More than half (52%) of the respondents said that beauty is an important value in the life of the adolescent. Beautiful and colourful clothing and a fashionable hairstyle can enhance self-concept, make adolescents feel good about themselves and make a favourable impression on others (Rice, 1992:416).

**Social responsibilities (2.7):** The majority of respondents (76%) in the research sample agreed that the adolescent has to accept social responsibilities as a value. Adolescents can become engaged in life skills education programmes such as crèches or pre-schoolers. Promoting the sense of community responsibility and caring, which is a common value in many communities in South Africa, is of crucial importance in developing country such as South Africa (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002:226).

**Preserving things of historic value (2.8):** Close to a third (34%) of the respondents that partook in the research agreed that to preserve things of historic value is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. Schools with strong governance, fair discipline policies, student participation in decision-making and high investment in school outcomes by both
adolescents and staff have a better chance of curbing vandalism and delinquency (Santrock, 1997:373).

**Protecting culture (2.9):** The larger percentage of the respondents (46%) said that the adolescent has to protect the traditions of culture. The adolescent inherits a sense of ethnic identity. Adolescents should appreciate the values and customs of other ethnic groups and also experience their own ethnic identity positively (Gouws, Burger & Kruger, 2000:92).

**Recognising the worth of other people (2.10):** While interacting with his peers the adolescent becomes aware that roles are interchangeable and that individuals can cooperate. As a result of his increasing interaction with his peers, the adolescent becomes aware that individuals behave differently because they have different value systems. Other people's values are now taken into consideration (Louw, 1993:40).

**Obeying the laws of society (2.11):** The majority of respondents (82%) in the research sample agreed that to obey the laws of society is a value that directs the life of the adolescent.

Louw (1993:42) said that correct or incorrect behaviour in society is defined in terms of laws or established rules relating to general rights and standards. These rules have a rational base, they promote the welfare of society and they are necessary for the optimal functioning of society. Apart from conforming to general standards, the adolescent's personal values serve as guidelines in determining what is correct or incorrect.

**Treating others well (2.12):** More than eighty percent (87%) of the respondents agreed that the adolescent should treat others in a way he
would like to be treated. Adolescents gradually learn to move away from a state of egocentrism to a state of altruism (they become aware of others and put themselves in their place). Through empathy adolescents are better able to understand others as well as themselves. Adolescents' better empathic understanding of themselves and others greatly facilitates their task of establishing a moral system of their own (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:181).

**Being trustworthy (2.13):** The majority of respondents (81%) agreed that trustworthiness is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. According to Very (1990:97) trust is a basic prerequisite for sound and satisfactory interpersonal relationships. Trust engenders trust. Pedagogical love means trusting the adolescent to embody the values presented to him (Müller, 2004:161).

**Self-discipline (2.14):** Most of the respondents (78%) said that good self-discipline is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. The school as a secondary educational institution builds on the moral development of adolescents, who should be made aware of the limits of acceptability for behaviour, such as those expressed in the rules upheld at school and at home. If an adolescent knows that he is not allowed to drive a car unless he has a licence to do so, or that he has to be at school at 08:00 and may not watch TV after 21:00 at night, he must also realize the inevitable need to bear the consequences should he fail to comply with rules such as these (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:181).

**Friendliness (2.15):** Three quarters (75%) of respondents agreed that friendliness is an important value in an adolescent. Friendships have an important influence on adolescents' attitudes, behaviour and development. Interaction with friends improves adolescents' social skills and ability to cope with stressful events. Friendships that are highly
intimate are assumed to enhance adolescents' self-esteem and understanding of other people (Meehan & Stetson, 1997:138).

**Emotional control (2.16):** The majority of respondents (76%) agreed that control of emotions is a value that an adolescent must have. The development of adolescents' personalities as well as their emotional development is crucial for their overall becoming and development. Besides developing a sense of their own identity, they need to establish their sex role, career and ethnic identities. They must also learn to exercise increasing control over their emotions and to express emotions in socially acceptable ways (Kruger, 1994:108).

**Good relations with people (2.17):** A large percentage (84%) of respondents in the research sample agreed that good relations with people are a value that directs the life of the adolescent. Adolescents gradually learn to move away from a state of egocentrism to a state of altruism. They become able to better understand others as well as themselves. The value of sympathy resides in the fact that it links the idea of “social” (which is an objective reference to common experience) to the idea of “feelings” (which is a subjective reference to private experience). Adolescents’ better understanding of themselves and others greatly facilitates their task of establishing a moral system of their own (Stroufe, Cooper & De Hart, 1992:562).

**Punctuality (2.18):** The majority of the respondents (89%) said that punctuality is a value that directs the life of an adolescent. The everyday incidents of school life will enable the educators to impress upon the learners the importance of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, of cheerful obedience to duty, of a consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in words and actions (Jarrett, 1991:28).
Respect (2.19): Eighty-four percent (84%) of respondents that partook in the research agreed that respect is a value that directs the life of an adolescent. Respect is an essential precondition for communication, for teamwork, for productivity. Schools cannot function if there is not mutual respect between educators and parents; learning cannot happen if there is not mutual respect between educators and adolescent learners. Everyone should commit himself to the values of respect and responsibility (Manifesto, 2001:11).

Environmental conservation (2.20): The larger percentage (41%) of respondents agreed that environmental conservation is a value that adolescents should put into practice.

Love for nature (2.21): More than half of the respondents (55%) in the research sample agreed that love for nature is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. Valli Moosa, a previous Minister of Environmental Affairs, argued that everybody depends on the rural landscape as a source of food; whole industries, such as agriculture, forestry, tourism and mining, depend on the land to a greater or lesser extent. Educating young people to love nature, and adopt the values on which sustainability and biodiversity depend, is a key opportunity for schools. All South Africans should enjoy a decent quality of life through the sustainable use of resources (Manifesto, 2001:3).

Loyalty towards family members (2.22): Most of the respondents that partook in the research (89%) said that loyalty towards family members is one of the necessary values that direct the life of the adolescent. Gouws and Kruger (1994:182) state that children identify themselves with their parents' values, and the process leads to the formation of a personal value system during adolescence. Mutual acceptance, trust, respect between parent and adolescent, as well as good communication
between them, lead to mutual empathy and are conducive to the forming of the adolescent’s conscience.

**Respecting property (2.23):** Just over three quarters (76%) of respondents agree with the idea that respect for other people’s property is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. The South African state was founded upon the value of “human dignity”; and out of the values of *ubuntu* and human dignity flow the practices of compassion, kindness, altruism and respect (Manifesto, 2001:9).

**Community service (2.24):** The larger percentage (47%) of the respondents in the research sample expressed their uncertainty about the value of community service during adolescence. According to Woodbridge and Barnard (1994:59) when the adolescent is in the final phase of moral development he shows concern with others which may include caring for the sick and the elderly. Le Roux (1992:106) maintains that adolescents can be trained to become involved in community service projects. In this way a social sensitivity and responsibility towards fellow human beings is fostered in the adolescent, as is a disposition to community service.

**Human equality (2.25):** The majority of respondents (83%) said that respecting the equality of human beings is a directive value for the adolescent. The Constitution of South Africa is unequivocal on equality, stating that “everyone is equal before the law”. Understanding the value of equality and the practice of non-discrimination means not only understanding that one has these rights, as an educator or as an adolescent learner, but that others have them as well (Manifesto, 2001:4).
Developing to their full potential (2.26): More than sixty percent (62%) of the respondents in the research sample agreed that an adolescent should value developing to his full potential. According to Santrock (1997:370) the school plays a major role in enabling the adolescent to develop to his full potential. To help reduce the dropout rate, community institutions, especially schools, need to break down the barriers between work and school. The adolescents should be developed to reach their full potential through:

- Monitored work experience, such as through cooperative education, apprenticeships, internships, pre-employment training, and youth operated enterprises.

- Career information and counselling, to expose the youth to job opportunities and career options as well as successful role models.

Respecting one's body (2.27): The majority of respondents (88%) agreed that an adolescent must respect his own body. The physical self (body image) is more important during adolescence than in any other stage of a person's life except possibly old age (Vrey, 1990:168). Basic physical changes focus attention on the body. His experience of his body is not a voluntary one. His corporeality now begins to demand attention, and it is centred on the body itself. New sensations, characteristics and physical interactions make their appearance. With these dramatic changes, the body itself becomes a symbol of experience (Vrey, 1990:169).

Showing courage (2.28): Most of the respondents (64%) in the research sample agreed that personal courage is a value that directs the life of the adolescent. Conscience is a uniquely human, inherent ability to distinguish between right and wrong, good and evil and proper and
improper. It is influenced by teaching, habits and education. Moral values that influence conscience include honesty, loyalty, responsibility, appreciation, respect and a sense of duty. The promptings of conscience move the adolescents to repair their wrongdoing and they may adopt values such as being trustworthy, telling the truth, being honest, and showing personal courage and responsibility in the face of peer and other pressures.

**Becoming independent (2.29):** The majority of the respondents (79%) said that to become independent is the value that directs the life of the adolescent. Santrock (1997:387) states that the ability to attain autonomy and gain control over one's behaviour in adolescence is acquired through appropriate adult reactions to the adolescent's desire for control. At the onset of adolescence, the average individual does not have the knowledge to make appropriate or mature decisions in all areas of life. As the adolescent pushes for autonomy, the wise adult relinquishes control in those areas where the adolescent can make reasonable decisions, but continues to guide the adolescent to make reasonable decisions in areas where the adolescent's knowledge is more limited.

**Responsible sexual behaviour (2.30):** More than half (51%) of respondents are uncertain about the adolescent's responsibility towards sexual behaviour. Gouws and Kruger (1994:187) argue that in traditional societies more values and rules are prescribed than in modern society. At present the social fabric is very heterogeneous and values are fluid and relative. The onus rests on the individual to direct his behaviour in accordance with values of his own choice. This responsibility which devolves (passes) on to the individual in modern society can create problems for the adolescent because he is confronted by a bewildering variety of values, without guidelines or rules to help him decide which of
these to accept and which to reject. Sexual attitudes and behaviour are currently being viewed with greater candour and permissiveness, such as attitudes towards premarital and extramarital sex, and about homosexuality.

4.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter an attempt has been made to give some order to the range of information provided by the educators in their responses to the questions in the questionnaire. Some of the data were of a demographic nature, which enabled the researcher to construct a broad profile of the sample selected for this investigation.

Data collected regarding the educators' perceptions of their role in the value orientation of the adolescent were organised in frequency tables to simplify statistical analysis. The frequencies of the responses to the questions were interpreted and the findings discussed.

The last chapter of this study consists of a summary, findings of the empirical investigation and certain recommendations.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter a summary and findings of the previous chapters will be given. This will be followed by recommendations and criticism that emanate from this study, and a final remark.

5.2 SUMMARY

5.2.1 Statement of the problem

This study investigated educators’ perceptions of their role in the value orientation of the adolescent. In the literature study and through empirical research it was found that educators acknowledge that they have a responsibility concerning the transfer of good values to the adolescents they teach. It was also established that conflicting values between the educators (school) and the adolescents are the cause of problems in instilling those values.

5.2.2 Literature review of the value orientation of the adolescent

The school has to facilitate personal maturation in the life of the adolescent, at the same time the school has to internalise values learnt at home and introduce new ones which will guide and direct the life of the adolescent throughout his developmental period and adult life.
Approaches to teach values are:

- The values clarification approach, which assists adolescents to get in touch with their own values and to reflect upon them.

- The cognitive-developmental approach. In this case adolescents are familiarised with, and thus enabled to internalise the substance of norms and values by means of educational assistance.

- Values and education. It is emphasised that education cannot and must not be value-free. The educators should try to take learners forward to higher levels of moral judgements, and imbibe them with knowledge, skills and values that will enable them to participate meaningfully in a society.

- Educator as role model. What the educators do is more important than what they say. If educators do not want learners to be absent they, in turn, must not be absent. If teachers expect homework to be completed, they must complete their own work.

- Values in the classroom, which emphasise the relevancy of the curriculum by propagating values from each and every learning area:

  (i) Values in the human and social sciences.
  (ii) Values and religion.
  (iii) Values in arts and culture.
  (iv) Values in life orientation (life skills).
The adolescent himself. The adolescent is faced with important tasks as he develops to adulthood:

(i) **Self-identity:** Schools can foster identity development through the promotion of high-level thinking and extracurricular and community activities that enable adolescents to take on responsible roles.

(ii) **Self-esteem:** A high self-esteem enables the adolescent to engage actively and positively with his parents, peers and educators.

**Peers**

Relationships with peers assist the adolescent to construct social and moral feelings, values and social and intellectual competence.

### 5.2.3 Planning of the empirical research

This study utilised a questionnaire, constructed by the researcher, as a database. The questionnaire was aimed at educators because the information sought for this investigation was not available from another reliable source and had to be acquired directly from the respondents, namely the educators. When this situation exists, the most appropriate source of obtaining reliable data is the questionnaire, as it is easily adapted to a variety of situations.

The aim of the questionnaire was to obtain information regarding educators' perceptions of the role they play in the transfer of values to the adolescent. The questions were formulated to establish how educators perceived their role in the transfer of values to adolescents.
5.2.4 **Presentation and analysis of research data**

The purpose of chapter four was to statistically analyse and discuss data collected from the questionnaires completed by 110 educators. Comments were offered and the findings interpreted. At the outset an explanation and description was provided as to the methods employed in the categorisation of the responses and the analysis of the data. This was followed by the presentation and discussion of the responses to the questions in the questionnaire.

The data was presented through frequency tables. Calculations were done to ascertain the number (in percentage) of respondents in each case. Findings were interpreted and comments presented.

5.2.5 **Aim of the study**

The researcher formulated specific aims to determine the course of the study (cf. 1.5). These aims were realised through the literature study, together with the empirical survey consisting of a self-structured questionnaire that was completed by educators. Through the aims of the research, which comprised a literature review and an empirical investigation, certain findings will be highlighted.

5.3 **FINDINGS FROM THE RESEARCH**

5.3.1 **Findings from the literature study**

The following are some significant findings from the literature review:
Human values are the most powerful causal system shaping human events and are of even greater importance in formal education as it is directed at future adulthood.

Education should reflect on those perennial values that are needed for a meaningful life.

The values that underpin the aims of the school are not clear-cut and are linked to what is considered educational.

Values play an important role in determining a person's (adolescent's) stability because they act as stabilising forces on a person's behaviour.

In the present era the educational task of educators comprises far more than the purveyance of information.

An educator should be a role model in the transfer of the values of the society in which he teaches.

Educators play a key role in the transmission of values, as they cannot avoid teaching values through their own words and actions in the classroom.

There should be continuity between the home and school value system.

Education is immersed in values and therefore schools have often become the battleground for conflicting systems of value. Some of these conflicting values are:
- Conflicting ethnic values.
- Intra-cultural conflict.
- Conflicting value systems of adults and children.
- Conflict between Western and non-Western values.
- Conflict between modern and post-modern values.

➢ The peer group plays an important role in the value orientation of the adolescent. Adolescents have the opportunity to assess the values with which they have grown up against those of their peers, thus confirming and strengthening their values.

5.3.2 Findings from the empirical research

The following are findings from the empirical research:

➢ The majority of respondents that partook in the research agreed that, concerning the value orientation of the adolescent, the following are values that direct the life of the adolescent:

- A religion to cling to during times of uncertainty (90%).
- Living harmoniously with all people (79%).
- Acceptance of social responsibility (76%).
- Recognising the worth of other people (86%).
- Obey the laws of society (82%).
- Treating other people as you would like to be treated (87%).
- Being trustworthy (81%).
- Good self self-discipline (78%).
- Good relations with people (84%).
- Loyalty towards family members (89%).
- Respecting other people's property (76%).
- Respecting the equality of human beings (83%).
- Respect for one's own body (88%).

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.4.1 Inculcation of positive values

(1) Motivation

The possession of a healthy set of values, which will enable the adolescent to be accepted and function well in his family, the school and society, is essential. The educators and the school have a responsibility to instil positive values in the adolescent. Values, norms, attitudes and manners are not innate but are learned (cf. 2.2).

Educators' responsibilities also mean instilling good values in the learners (adolescents) they teach to enable them to live harmoniously with others (cf. 2.3). Educators must present good values to their learners (adolescents) in the most desirable manner possible so that learners feel motivated to act according to these values. Educators should influence the value orientation of the adolescents by their practical example; they should practise what they preach (cf. 2.4). Learners (adolescents) are also able to observe an educator's tacit values. One of the most powerful ways of adolescents acquiring values is to see adults (educators) they admire and respect exemplify those values in their own being and conduct.

From the study it is evident that the majority of respondents (educators) who partook in the empirical research are aware of their responsibilities in the value orientation of the adolescent (cf. 4.2.8). However, being
aware of healthy values is not a guarantee that the educator will be successful in transferring these values to the adolescents they teach.

(2) Recommendation

Since it is accepted that education is directed towards the child's achievement of independence and his acceptance of a system of values, educators must endeavour to inculcate positive values in learners (adolescents).

The recommendation is that educators must strive to transfer the following values to the learners they teach:

- Self-discipline when a person does what he knows he should do, even though he would rather not.
- Being trustworthy at all times.
- Telling the truth which is essential for trust, self-respect and the social health of a society.
- Being honest in all aspects of life.
- Doing all work to the best of their ability.
- Using honourable means and respecting the rights of others.
- Recognising the worth of other people.
- Treating other people as he would like to be treated.
➤ Obeying the authority of authoritative figures.

➤ Respecting the rights of other people.

➤ Respecting other people’s property.

➤ Respect for one’s own body.

➤ Responsible sexual behaviour.

5.4.2 School environment

(1) Motivation

Without quality education no child (adolescent) can realise adequate adulthood. Man is a being who educates, is educated and is dependent on education. Initially education takes place mainly in the family as the primary educational situation (with the parents or primary educators) and later in formal schooling with teachers as secondary educators. In his value orientation the adolescent develops a set of values based on the ideas and responses of adults (parents and educators).

In the contemporary world educators in school are increasingly confronted by change and continually changing societal demands (such as values) and circumstances in the midst of which educators have to educate (cf. 2.3). Education (schools) today is influenced by a complex social, economic and cultural environment which has a dynamic influence on its members. Amidst such a complex and dynamic society with constantly changing norms and values, it becomes increasingly difficult to equip children (adolescents) adequately. The educator needs guidance and support in his educational task.
As values are transferred it is obvious that educators play an important role. If positive values are not instilled in learners (adolescents) in educational institutions, such as the school, educators should assist to fulfil this task. The government, universities, schools and media should each make a constructive and active contribution toward the promotion of meaningful value orientation of children (adolescents).

(2) **Recommendation**

The recommendation is that the following requirements needed for the effective transfer of healthy values must be promoted in schools:

- A safe school environment. An adolescent who feels sufficiently secure adopts healthy values.

- A caring and supportive atmosphere to enable adolescents to develop effective social and moral values.

- Effective communication. Values should be debated, synthesised, modified and earned through dialogue.

- Role modelling. Children (adolescents) adopt the values from adults they admire and respect and then exemplify those values.

5.4.3 **Further research**

(1) **Motivation**

One of the aims of education is to bring the child (adolescent) to a point where he is able to live harmoniously with others, which means he is
living according to cultural values. As values are learned it is obvious that educators play an important role in the transfer of values to the adolescent. The role of educators in the transfer of good values to the adolescent is affected by:

➢ The degree of warmth, acceptance, mutual esteem and trust between educator and learners.

➢ The frequency and intensity of interaction and communication in the classroom.

➢ The type and degree of discipline exercised.

(2) Recommendation

The recommendation is that further research of a quantitative and qualitative nature be undertaken pertaining to the role of educators in the value orientation of the adolescent. Due to the diversity of conditions under which educators and learners (adolescents) find themselves it is necessary that research studies be conducted to find suitable ways to assist educators in the value orientation of the adolescent.

5.5 CRITICISM

Criticism that emanates from this study includes the following:

➢ It can be presumed that some of the respondents in the research sample formed their perceptions regarding their role in the value orientation of the adolescent from the media. The possibility therefore
exists that these respondents indicated what their role should be and not what really is happening in schools.

The randomly selected research sample comprised only educators from schools in the Ixopo district of the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands, which is a predominantly rural area. Dissimilar responses might have been elicited from other areas, for example parents living in urban areas.

5.6 FINAL REMARK

The aim of this study was to obtain a better understanding of the role that educators play in the value orientation of adolescents. It is trusted that the study will be of value to educators who are responsible for the education of adolescents. It is also hoped that the recommendations may be taken into consideration by stakeholders in education and educators in order to assist them in their task of value orientation.
LIST OF SOURCES


MANIFESTO on values, education and democracy. 2001. Pretoria: Department on Education.


ANNEXURE A
STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL

QUESTIONNAIRE

Value orientation of the adolescent

Ms N E Mbuyeleni
June 2005
Dear Educator

QUESTIONNAIRE: VALUE ORIENTATION OF THE ADOLESCENT

At present I am engaged in a research project towards my MEd (Master in Education) degree at the University of Zululand under the guidance of Proff. G. Urbani and M S Vos. The research is concerned with the Value orientation of the adolescent.

I have taken the liberty of writing to you, as one of the selected respondents, in order to seek your assistance in acquiring information about your experiences relating to the research.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information will be regarded as CONFIDENTIAL, and no personal details of any educator/respondent will be mentioned in the findings, nor will any of the results be related to any particular educator or school.

We deeply appreciate your co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Ms N E Mbuyeleni

Date
INSTRUCTIONS TO THE RESPONDENT

1. Please read through each statement carefully before giving your opinion.

2. Please make sure that you do not omit a question, or skip any page.

3. Please be totally frank when giving your opinion.

4. Please do not discuss statements with anyone.

5. Please return the questionnaire after completion.

Kindly answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing, or by making a cross (X) in the appropriate block.
SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

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1.2 My age in completed years as at 2004-12-31

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<tr>
<td>Professional qualification(s) (e.g. HDE, FDE, PTC, etc.)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4 Completed years in the teaching profession as at 2004-12-31:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of years</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 20 years</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 25 years</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 - 30 years</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 30 years</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.5 My post level is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Post level</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy principal</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educator (post level 1)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.6 Type of post held by me:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of post held by me</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governing body</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.7 My school is situated in:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban area</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi urban area</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural area</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.8 A value is that to which society, a cultural group or individual attaches worth, value or significance. Values can be goals and objectives. Please list THREE(3) values you consider as the most important.

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________
### SECTION TWO: VALUES THAT DIRECT THE LIFE OF THE ADOLESCENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The following are values that direct the life of adolescents:</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 A religion to cling to during times of uncertainties (e.g. death of parent)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 To live harmoniously (lovingly) with all people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.3 Endeavouring to always do what is acceptable by society (e.g. dress)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Proper behaviour in all circumstances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Honesty in interpersonal relationships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 Appreciation of beauty (e.g. colour, music)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7 Acceptance of social responsibilities (e.g. being helpful towards people)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8 Preserving things of historic value (e.g. buildings, books)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.9 Protecting the traditions of their culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.10 Recognising the worth of other people</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.11 Obeying the laws of society (e.g. school rules)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.12 Treating other people as you would like to be treated</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.13 Being trustworthy (e.g. people must know they can rely on your word)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.14 Good self-discipline (e.g. complete schoolwork before watching TV)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>Friendliness (e.g. greeting people with a smile)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>Emotional control (e.g. cursing or breaking things in frustration or anger)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>Good relations with people (e.g. showing sympathy and concern)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>Punctuality (e.g. being on time for school)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>Respecting the rights of other people (e.g. privacy)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>Environmental conservation (e.g. littering or wasting water)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>Love for nature (e.g. not destroying plants and animals)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>Loyalty towards family members (e.g. support during difficult times)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>Respecting other peoples property (e.g. not breaking school windows)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>Delivering service to the community (e.g. caring for the sick/elderly)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>Respecting the equality of human beings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>Developing to their full potential (e.g. not to drop out of school)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>Respecting one's own body (e.g. personal hygiene)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>Showing personal courage (e.g. using drugs under peer pressure)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>Becoming independent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>Responsible sexual behaviour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>