

THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN REMOTIVATING
DEMOTIVATED ADOLESCENTS

By

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At the University of Zululand hereby submitted by me has not previously been submitted by me, for a degree at this or any other University, and that it is my own work in design and in execution and that all material contained therein has been duly recognized.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. A. Govender', is written over a horizontal line. The signature is cursive and somewhat stylized.

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UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATION IN REMOTIVATING
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By

JAYSEELAN A. GOVENDER

In this dissertation I present the results of a literature survey on the reasons for demotivation among adolescents, and the role of communication in remotivating demotivated adolescents, and a subsequent empirical survey of how adolescents feel about themselves and others of a group of grade 10 and 11 learners in the eThekweni region of the KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa. I report results on the respondents' self-conceptualisation, their family, how they feel about school, homework, school relationships, peer and finally regarding their health matters.

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Chapter 1

ORIENTATION

Introduction

The greatest asset of any nation is its population of adolescents. According to UNFPA (2003) at <http://www.unfpa.org.swp.htm> the largest generation of adolescents in history—1.2 billion strong—is preparing to enter adulthood in a rapidly changing world. Their educational and health status, their readiness to take on adult roles and responsibilities, and the support they receive from their families, communities and governments will determine their own future and the future of their countries.

How we manage this human resource is critical at a time when adolescents are facing the greatest challenges in life. Many youth find it difficult to cope with adolescent period of development. Thousands of them turn to drugs, alcohol or teenage marriages. This may be the child's means of escape from society and a reach for a sense of individual worth and value.

While much has been done to promote remotivation among demotivated adolescents, much still urgently needs to be done as a result of new developments in the 21st century. Investing in young people will yield large returns for generations to come. Failing to act, on the other hand, will incur tremendous costs to individuals, societies and the world at large.

Preview

In this chapter I will outline the general content of this dissertation for prospective readers. I will briefly indicate what the focus of each chapter is. This chapter can be thought of as a roadmap for the reader.

Overview of chapters

In chapter 2 I will identify the problems that prompted this study, the aims that were formulated to resolve them, and theoretical framework that informs this study as well as the research methodology employed.

In Chapter 3 I will briefly outline the key concepts that have informed this study. It is intended as a resource for the reader in case s/he wants to get clarity on any of the major terms or concepts used in this study.

In chapter 4 I will discuss the communication context of the *Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion*.

In Chapter 5 I will discuss the causes of demotivation among adolescents as well as the possible solutions which can be used to remotivate demotivated adolescents based on some of the key concepts identified in Chapter 3. I will also present the results of a literature survey which informs this research. The purpose of this chapter is to create a background against which I shall base my findings.

In chapter 6 I will discuss the experiential world of the adolescent.

In chapter 7 I will discuss how it feels like being an adolescent in present day South Africa, especially as it relates to intercultural communication.

In chapter 8 I will outline the teenage communication networks and social influence processes involved in the nurture of the adolescent.

In Chapter 9 I will discuss the research design and fieldwork that was carried out. This will indicate to the reader how the questionnaire was designed, why the questionnaire was chosen as an instrument for this particular research, the fieldwork that was conducted.

In Chapter 10 I will present the data processing and analysis of my survey.

In chapter 11 I will present my findings about the research I have conducted and demonstrate my findings through the use of graphs and tables.

In chapter 12 I will make recommendations based on my findings as well as suggest intervention programmes for remotivating demotivated adolescents.

Conclusion

The above is an outline of my dissertation that I present here which will serve as a roadmap to the reader. In the next chapter I present the statement of the problems to be analyzed in this dissertation as well as the theoretic framework that informs this dissertation.

Chapter 2

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Preview

In this study I will use a combination of qualitative and quantitative research techniques, focusing on a variety of forms of communication that parents, educators, pastors and counsellors can use to remotivate demotivated adolescents. It essentially is a study of how the above-mentioned agents can use a number of forms of *interpersonal communication* to remotivate demotivated adolescents to use *intrapersonal communication* to resolve inner conflicts, work through problem relationships with others, to anticipate problems, and to envisage possible solutions to such problems.

I will seek to determine what role an approach to learning and communication, known as *constructivism*, plays in improving adolescents' ability to excel at intrapersonal communication. Constructivism essentially is the theory of how individuals independently construct knowledge, including how they develop values and beliefs that enable them to actively resolve particular problems that they encounter.

Statement of problem to be analyzed

In this dissertation a study is undertaken of the high incidence of demotivated adolescents in their family relationships, peer relationships, school performance, and their social relationships in general, and in coping with the process of socialization.

According to Levine (2002:14) there are despairing flocks of boys and girls out in the world who are trying to succeed, but are faltering badly thereby disappointing their educators, their families, and most of all themselves.

Aims

The threefold aims of this study are:

1. To identify the intrapersonal as well as interpersonal factors that is implicated in the process of demotivation of adolescents.
2. To identify interventions at the intrapersonal level, at family level and at the social level that can help prevent, or that can help rectify the process of demotivation among adolescents;
3. To develop models reflecting the dysfunctional communication networks of demotivated adolescents, as well as the functional communication networks of motivated adolescents.

The theoretical framework of this study

The theoretical framework that I present in this chapter has been developed to explain how and why adolescents become demotivated regarding their achievements at school and in other skills-related activities, and with regard to interpersonal relationships with their parents, other authority figures, their siblings and their peers. I also intend the framework to present solutions that could be used to remotivate demotivated individuals.

The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion

Taking as point of departure Klopper's (2003) Theory of the Optimisation of Human Communication, I propose the following theory to account for the remotivation of demotivated adolescents on the various socialization networks:

Humans utilize a variety of forms of interpersonal and intrapersonal communication to motivate each other and themselves to perform optimally to ensure success in their interpersonal relations at home, among their peers and in public institutions like school, church, or the work place.

The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion (TORP) has the following corollaries:

- On the principle of similarity, every culture will utilize a system of persuasion, cooperation, competition, confrontation and negotiation for optimal motivation for the purpose of productivity;
- On the principle of leadership, no human endeavour succeeds without strongly motivated men and women; i.e. only motivated people can motivate people;
- Human motivation is optimised by the concomitant use of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators for maximum goal attainment;
- In order to reconstruct individuals' lives, humans must also employ the element of deconstruction;
- Deconstruction involves induction to change beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviour of individuals or a group of people;
- Reconstruction through persuasion involves the reconstructing of individuals' lives through persuasion, social influence and compliance gaining.

The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion forms part of a cluster of motivation theories that focuses on the remotivation of individuals. It is also geared towards reversing negative behaviour, causing the individual to move towards a more positive motivational state. It essentially is a theory that can be used by parents, educators, religious and civil leaders to reconstruct the lives of individuals who at one time or the other were motivated.

Research methodology

The surveys will be conducted in two phases, namely an initial pilot study to determine how the subsequent study can be improved and to identify possible flaws in the questionnaire. The results of the pilot study will be used along with the results of literature surveys to determine relevant questions for the questionnaire that will be used during the second phase of the research.

The research will therefore be of a subjective descriptive as well as an objective quantitative nature.

Qualitative research

In the empirical phase of my research, I will conduct a survey of a representative sample of adolescents in grades 10 and 11 regarding a number of personal and social issues that affect adolescents' self-image, self-motivation, self-achievement, and their sense of integration with family members and peers. Their sense of self will be correlated with different demographic factors. The results will be quantified by means of the statistical database program SPSS 11.

For the objective part of the research respondents' responses will be encoded into the statistical program SPSS, for processing, analysis and the extraction of the requisite tables and graphs by myself under mentor supervision.

The quantitative nature of the research

This project was of a quantitative analytic nature, entailing a research methodology based on sampling techniques, fieldwork, questionnaires, and the appropriate form of statistical quantification in the analytical program, SPSS, and the interpretation of the results in terms of parameters of significance projected by SPSS.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the statement of problem, the theoretical framework that supports this dissertation as well as the research methodology employed. Adolescence is regarded as a period of transition or metamorphosis in the development of individuals, and given the multiple demands placed upon them, adolescents become especially vulnerable to demotivational states of mind. I also presented a theory of motivation which I call "*The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion*" which accounts for the remotivation of demotivated adolescents. Reconstructive Persuasion as a theory of motivation can be utilized by persons in authority such as parents, educators, counsellors, and pastors who have a direct influence or bearing on adolescents. It essentially is a theory of motivation which may be used to reconstruct the lives of those who at one time were motivated and who are presently demotivated. I have also discussed the research methodology which will be employed. I will use a combination of qualitative and quantitative research techniques which involves an initial pilot study to improve on the questionnaire, followed by a survey of adolescents from eight high schools in the eThekweni Region. A literature survey will be carried out to ascertain what research has already been carried out in the field which supports my findings. The findings of this research will be quantified using the SPSS 11 program.

Chapter 3

KEY CONCEPTS

Preview

The focus in this chapter is on providing conceptual clarity for terminology used in order to situate their meaning within the specific context of this study.

Adolescence

The term adolescence is derived from the Latin word “*adolescere*” which means “to grow to maturity”. It also refers to the entire set of changes in the individual’s life occurring between childhood and adulthood, including physical, psychological and social. According to Newcomb and Bentler (1989) adolescence is often perceived as a period of experimentation, exploration, and curiosity. Germain (1991:353) describes adolescence as a cultural phenomenon. This is the buffer stage between childhood and adulthood, and it is described as the teenage years. Offers the opportunity to gain independence and learn specialized skills. This is also the time for schooling, and when schools become most prevalent in an individual’s life. This stage in life is marked by a child’s struggle with his/her parents. Adolescents receive mixed signals about socialization during this time. Parents degrade sex, the mass media glorifies sex, schools urge safe sex, and peer groups try to force adolescents into sex.

Adolescent

There are differing views on which specific groups can be regarded as adolescent. From a lifespan development perspective, other terms are often used interchangeably to connote this particular life stage of human development such as the term “youth”. Muus (1982:2) suggests that a more appropriate word for

the period between childhood and adulthood is “youth”. For the purposes of this study an adolescent is one who is between the ages 10 to 19.

Beliefs

According to Rokeach as cited in Reardon (1991:33, 34) “a belief is any expectancy concerning existence, evaluation prescription-proscription, or cause.” Wellman (1992:61) states that beliefs are a special hybrid construct-spanning mind and world. He also posits that beliefs describe both a mental state and the world and those beliefs are also thoughts about actual states of affairs and that they are representations intended to capture reality. He further states that beliefs are a subset of all cognitive products and processes such as reasoning, learning and remembering, therefore believing is a process of crediting the reality of some state of affairs. Beliefs are related to the processes as knowing, fantasizing, imagining, and dreaming and significantly to reasoning. Belief, according to Wellman (1992), is a subset of cognition or thought, designed to capture the causal impact of thinking on the world of actions and events.

Communication

Communication is the transfer of information between people. According to Callahan and Fleenor (1988:134) communication is more than just transmitting information between two people. It is a flow of information which results in shared knowledge and joint understanding for the sender as well as the receiver of the message. Tubbs and Moss (2000:6) defines communication as the process of creating meaning between two or more people.

Communication takes place in various ways and forms. Communication is viewed as the vehicle through which we develop, maintain and improve human relationships. May also be used to destroy and/or undermine human relationships. Communication also involves the sharing of meaning. However,

when one person is able to transmit a thought to another that attaches meaning to thought, communication has taken place.

The ability to communicate efficiently provides one with an advantage in reaching personal and occupational goals. In Chapter 7, I will look at the elements in the adolescent communication process as well as the various forms of communication. I will also discuss the various forms of communication parents, educators and organizations use to remotivate demotivated adolescents.

Communication process

Mersham and Skinner (1999:10) and Tubbs and Moss (2000:9, 10) describe the communication process in eight stages as follows: firstly, *communicator* or *source* is the originator of the message. The source or communicator may be an individual who may also be the sender or receiver or several individuals working together such as a committee or an organisation. The second part of the communication process is the *message* which encompasses the ideas and information that the source transmits to the recipient, usually with an intention that these are necessary to initiate, support, ensure or sustain some or other form of behaviour action. These may be verbal, unintentional verbal messages or non-verbal messages (Tubbs and Moss 2000:10, 11).

Thirdly, *signs and symbols* are messages which are composed in *signs* and *symbols*. The fourth part of this process is to *encode* or to change a meaning into a series of signs and symbols, such as language, for transmission to the recipient of the message. The fifth aspect of the communication process involves a *channel* which is the means by which a message travels from a source to a recipient. The *recipient* in the process of communication is the person or persons receiving the messages. The penultimate stage of this process is the *effects*, which are the changes in recipient behaviour that occurs as a result of the transmission of a message.

Finally, *feedback* is a response, by the recipient, to the source's message. In Chapter 7, I will give an in-depth definition of this key concept.

Communicator

A communicator is an individual who engages another individual in the process of communication. In interpersonal communication individuals take turns being a communicator and recipient. A *communicator* or *source* is the originator of the message. The source or communicator may be an individual who may also be the sender or receiver or several individuals working together such as a committee or an organization.

Compliance gaining

According to Gass and Seiter (2003:236) compliance refers to changes in one's overt behaviour, that is behaviour that is not concealed that one can see outwardly. Compliance gaining is generally focussed on persuasion which is aimed at getting others to do something or act in a specific way. Klopper (2003), states that specific instances of communication can be ordered along a compliance gaining continuum that progress from *cooperation* to *competition* to *confrontation*. According to Reardon (1991:119), when other persuasive techniques such as, reasoning, appealing, etc. fail, one can utilize rewards, threats or force in order to cause people to comply. In chapter 4, I will give an in-depth explanation of this theory as it relates to the remotivation of demotivated adolescents.

Constructivism

According to Klopper (2000:4) "Communication is a theory of learning grounded on the premise that human beings continuously and automatically construct knowledge of our interactions with other entities in our environment." Constructivism is therefore a theory that proposes that normal people will learn or automatically construct knowledge of the interactions with their environment. The conception of learning is a focal point of constructivism. Learning entails the

building of conceptual structures. Concept development and understanding are focal points to knowledge construction. So it is not just the product, but rather the process that is of utmost importance to learning. Learning is a process of constructing meaningful representations and the making of sense or understanding our world and our experiences.

Culture

Haralambos and Holborn (1996:3) quoting Linton state that the culture of a society is the way of life of its members; the collection of ideas and habits which they learn, share and transmit from generation to generation. According to Brislin (1993:4) culture consists of ideals, values and assumptions about life that are widely shared among people which guide specific behaviours. He further posits that another key aspect of culture is that people create it. According to Klein and Chen (2001:7) cultural values are those behaviours and ideas which certain groups consider desirable and important. Since humans have no instincts to direct their actions, their behaviour must be based on guidelines that are learned. According to Haralambos (1985:3) culture defines accepted ways of behaving for members of a particular society.

Ethnocentrism

Klein and Chen (2001:9) define ethnocentrism as the inability of an individual to view another ethnic group as equal or as valid members of society. This may lead to biased attitudes and racist behaviours. Humans view their world from the perspective of their individualistic cultures. Ethnocentrism could further be described as the idea that our own cultural traits are better than the cultural traits of others or the tendency to judge other cultures as inferior in terms of one's own norms and values. According to Tarr (1999:31) people hold these values in varying degrees which act as layers of culture which envelope them and are

barriers that hinder them from achieving effective intercultural communication. In chapter 7 I will give an in-depth definition of this social phenomenon.

Family

The family is a basic social group united through bonds of kinship or marriage. Its core form, the nuclear family, consists of a man and woman who live together in a socially recognized marriage with their children. The nuclear family is the main unit in many societies. In others, it is a subordinate part of an extended family, which also consists of grandparents and other relatives. An extended family is more often found in rural than in urban settings and is less common now than several decades ago. A third family unit that is becoming more prevalent is the single-parent family, in which children live with an unmarried mother or father. For the purpose of this study, I will confine myself to the discussion of the three most prevalent family structures namely, the nuclear, extended and single family structures. In chapter 8 I will give a detailed explanation of these family structures and how they affect the socialization of the adolescent.

Intercultural communication

Intercultural communication is communication among people of different cultures. According to Tubbs and Moss (1978:8) cited in Samovar and Porter "Whenever the parties to a communication act bring with them different experiential backgrounds that reflect a longstanding deposit of group experience, knowledge, and values we have intercultural communication." Intercultural communication can occur in any given interpersonal context. In Chapter 7, I will give an in-depth definition of this key concept.

Interpersonal communication

Interpersonal communication is communication which takes place between two or more individuals. Interpersonal communication is to a large extent mostly

face-to-face communication. In order for interpersonal communication to be effective, the stimulus as it was initiated and intended by the sender corresponds closely with the stimulus as it is perceived and responded to by the receiver (Tubbs and Moss 2000:8). According to Tubbs and Moss (2000:13) “all interpersonal communication fulfils three conditions.” :

- The respective parties are in a close proximity.
- All the respective parties send and receive messages and the outcome of interaction constantly changes because of their responses.
- Finally, these messages include both verbal and non-verbal stimuli.

In Chapter 8, I will present an in-depth analysis of interpersonal communication.

Intrapersonal communication

According to Steinberg (1999:4) “intrapersonal communication occurs when you communicate with yourself. You are the only participant and the message usually involves your thoughts and feelings.” Intra means inside or within. Intrapersonal communication occurs when an individual sends and receives messages internally i.e., communication which takes place within one person. Examples of intrapersonal communication are reading, talking to yourself, thinking, writing, dreaming, etc.

Messages originate and end with you, so meaning comes from you. Intrapersonal communication enables you to make sense of the world around you by expressing and interpreting your own messages. Intrapersonal communication is an inner reasoning to resolve inner conflicts, to envisage alternative possibilities and to plan for everyday programs and contingencies. It is a process that occurs during all other forms of communication – i.e. you can have intrapersonal communication on its own, but you cannot have any other form of

communication without Intrapersonal communication. Intrapersonal communication is the basis for all other forms of communication.

Intrapersonal communications contrasts with interpersonal communication, which I will describe in a separate section. This is essentially the way that each of us communicates internally, i.e. the way we mentally process information influences our interaction with others. Intrapersonal communication takes place subconsciously while people are engaged in all other forms of communication.

Learning disabilities

Unlike other disabilities, such as paralysis or blindness, a learning disability (LD) is a hidden handicap. A learning disability doesn't disfigure or leave visible signs that would invite others to be understanding or offer support.

LD is a disorder that affects people's ability to either interpret what they see and hear or to link information from different parts of the brain. These limitations can show up in many ways-as specific difficulties with spoken and written language, coordination, self-control, or attention. Such difficulties extend to schoolwork and can impede learning to read or write, or to do math.

Learning disabilities can be lifelong conditions that, in some cases, affect many parts of a person's life: school or work, daily routines, family life, and sometimes even friendships. In some people, many overlapping learning disabilities may be apparent. Other people may have a single, isolated learning problem that has little impact on other areas of their lives.

Maslow's theory of hierarchy of human needs

Abraham Maslow (1970) identified five basic need levels that motivate human behaviour. According to Larson (1989:167) there are five basic human needs that motivate behaviour namely; survival, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation.

The basic needs must be met first before the fulfilment of the higher need levels could be attempted. These needs function in a hierarchical manner. By hierarchy is meant that needs lower on the pyramid must first be satisfied before needs at higher levels are activated.

In Chapter 5, I will give an in-depth definition of this key concept.

Mass communication

According to Mersham and Skinner (1999:166) mass communication can be defined as a process of delivering information, ideas and attitudes to a sizeable and diversified audience through a medium. Mass media communication, according to Frost *et al* (1993:89) refers to newspaper, radio and television and often includes the news agencies, which serve these media. The mass media enables individuals as well as relatively small groups of people to communicate with very large audiences, or masses. Mass communication is a process whereby professional communicators use technological devices through which they share persuasive messages over great distances to influence individuals, small groups as well as large audiences. Mass communication can positively as well as negatively impact adolescents' lifestyles.

Motivation

The word motivation implies movement and is derived from the Latin word "movere", meaning to move. According to Orpen (1981:149) and Stenbridge (1989:3) motivation can be described as the processes that give behaviour its energy and direction to action once the individual has been aroused in order to meet individual needs and achieve organizational objectives.

There are two types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation according to Tosi and Carroll (1982:388) refers to a person's psychological internal drive state which causes the person to behave in a certain

way. Extrinsic motivation is motivation which comes from the outside of the individual which is mostly determined by external environmental factors. Human behaviour is motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

Perception

The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (1995) defines perception as:

- The ability to see, hear, or understand things; awareness;
- A deeper natural understanding and awareness than is usual;
- A way of seeing, understanding or interpreting something.

The word perceive also means “to be or to become aware of through the senses (hear, see, smell, taste or feel)”. Perception is the process by which sensory stimulation is organized into usable experience. The dictionary definition of the verb “perceive” as a process involving the senses is consistent with the view expressed by Mohr and Fantuzzo (2000:73) that “all human experience is filtered by the senses”.

Persuasion

According to Brembeck and Howell (1952) cited by Larson (1989:9) persuasion is described as “the conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating the motives of men toward predetermined ends.” Persuasion involves people toward the adoption of some behaviour, belief, or attitude preferred by the persuader through reasoning or emotional appeals (Reardon 1991:02). However, persuasion is a voluntary process. People are not robbed of the opportunity to choose but present a case for the adoption of a persuaded-preferred mode of action, belief, or attitude. The communicator of a message is called persuader. In Chapter 4, I will give an in-depth definition of this key concept.

Peer group

A peer group is a group whose members have interests, social position and age in common. Rubin (1980) cited in Germain (1991:291) states that being part of a peer group provides “a variety of resources that an individual friendship cannot – a sense of collective participation, experience with organizational roles, and group support in the enterprise of growing up.” Relationships with the peer group seem to occupy centre stage between grades 7 and 12. A positive peer relationship, according to Lerner and Spanier (1980:45), serves as a sounding board for their ideas, thoughts and concerns. The peer group may also be a source of negative influence which may cause adolescents to engage in undesirable activities. I will discuss the influence of the peer group in chapters 5, 6 and 8.

Resocialization

Resocialization is the deliberate attempt of socialization intended to radically alter an individual's personality. The reason for this is because the person has done something wrong, and needs to be socialized in order to go back out and become a productive member of society. According to Schaefer & Lamm (1992: 113) resocialization is the process of learning a new and different set of attitudes, values and behaviours. It also refers to the process of discarding former behaviour patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle. Resocialization, which is most likely to occur in late adolescence and adulthood, is a process in which individuals abandon their self-concept and way of life for a radically different one.

Rites of passage

Rites of passage are ceremonies that mark a person's progress from one phase of life or social status to another. In modern society, rites of passage are sometimes referred to as life-crisis rites. The basic life crises are birth, puberty, marriage, and

death. Each crisis is marked by a transitional period involving certain specific rituals: removal of the individual from his or her former status; suspension from normal social contact; and readmission into society in the newly acquired status. This transitional process sometimes provides others with the opportunity to adjust to the crisis, as, for example, the death of a loved one. Rites of passage may be more extreme or unusual in developing societies, but they also continue to be present in most contemporary, sophisticated modern cultures. In chapter 8 I will expand on this key concept.

Self-concept

Self-concept can be described as the view or idea or impression one has of oneself ranging from physical aspects to personality traits, likes, dislikes, abilities, talents and weaknesses. The way in which you see yourself is largely influenced by the people around you and the way you interpret their behaviour towards you (Parnell 1997:5, 6). A person's self-concept is not inborn, but is acquired through interaction with the self and with other people of importance to the self.

Socialization

Socialization is the lifelong social experience by which individuals develop their human potential and learn culture. According to De Witt and Booysen (1994:25) socialization refers to the process by which the child learns to satisfy the moral standards, role expectations and demands of acceptable behaviour in his society. It is also referred to as the life long process of social interaction through which we become a consistent and recognizable person and acquire the physical, mental and social skills needed for survival in society. Development of these human qualities is both biological and learned. We share the genetic heritage of the human species as we learn our culture, language, values, norms and roles through

interaction with others. I will discuss the process of socialization at length in chapter 8.

Values

According to Reardon (1991:33) values are standards which we acquire from families, peers, educators, the mass media and other sources of influence. These values are reinforced or challenged throughout our lifetime by people with whom we communicate.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I explained the key concepts that inform this dissertation. In the next chapter, I will discuss the communication context of the Theory of Reconstructive persuasion.

Chapter 4

THE COMMUNICATION CONTEXT OF THE THEORY OF RECONSTRUCTIVE PERSUASION

Preview

In this chapter I will discuss the communication context of the Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion. According to Larson (1989:9) persuasion was the main way in which Greeks achieved power and won in courts of law. Another word for persuasion is “rhetoric”. The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion (*TORP*) forms part of a cluster of motivation theories that focuses on the remotivation of individuals. As a motivational theory, the *TORP* utilizes persuasive techniques such as cooperation, competition and confrontation to attempt to rectify, modify and challenge individuals’ present behaviour to conform/comply to acceptable societal values and norms. I will also discuss the grounded theories of Compliance Gaining and its relationship to the *TORP*.

Persuasion

According to Reardon (1991:2) persuasion involves people toward the adoption of some behaviour, belief, or attitude preferred by the persuader through reasoning or emotional appeals. However, persuasion is a voluntary process. Reardon (1991:3) further defines persuasion as “the activity of attempting to change the behaviour of an individual through symbolic interaction.”

According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:135) and Larson (1989:57, 58) when communicators use persuasion, they hope to influence an audience’s behaviour or way of thinking. Quoting Aristotle, Mersham and Skinner (2002:135), and Larson, (1989:57, 58) also state that a communicator can bring about behavioural change through the use of *logos* (logic and reasoning), *pathos* (an appeal to the emotions) and *ethos* (proof of the speaker’s morality and credibility).

The business world makes use of *pathos* (an appeal to the emotion) in advertising campaigns. Through persuasive means advertisers, according to the Aida model in Mersham and Skinner (2001:98) command attention, which leads to interest in the product and finally to action.



Figure 1: The Aida Model adapted from Mersham & Skinner (2001:98)

The Aida model above and Wellman's theory of belief-desire reasoning have certain aspects in common. Wellman (1992:6) states that beliefs are often grounded in perceptual experience. Physiological states, emotions and perceptions shape one's actions and they indirectly mould one's desires and frame one's beliefs. Adolescents can be viewed as actors whose belief frames desire and whose desires motivate action. Belief-desire reasoning is therefore used to predict, explain, justify, and understand human actions.

Reconstructive persuasion is aimed towards getting adolescents' attention, causing them to become interested, have a desire to succeed and lead to sustained action by changing the underlying causes of behaviour. In order to change the behaviour of demotivated adolescents, one cannot work on their behaviour but on the underlying mechanisms that influence human behaviour. Reconstructive persuasion involves the persuadee (adolescent) in reasoning and attempting to change their behaviour and guide them in their choices.

According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:50-52) communicators communicate by objectives. Reconstructive Communication is directed toward:

- Persuading and motivating people. Persuasion is used more often with regard to mental states such as attitudes or opinions. Motivation is more often used when the recipient is expected to carry out a particular action;
- The creation of desires. In the business world, a market is created where no market exists. In the lives of adolescents, persuasive communication is used to create or recreate desires;
- Changing negative attitudes and replacing them with positive ones;
- Retaining and conserving existing states of affairs and wishing to keep things the way they are i.e. maintaining motivated states and remotivating demotivated states;
- Accelerating, intensifying, and strengthening existing states of motivated behaviour; and
- Destroying and stopping undesirable behaviours.
- The adoption of some behaviour, belief, or attitude preferred by the persuader through reasoning or emotional appeals.
- The modification as well as the reinforcement of attitudes.

The Relationship between motivation and persuasion

Communication can be of a cooperative, competitive or a confrontational nature (Mersham & Skinner 1999). Furthermore, communication is always context-specific (Williams 1992, Mersham & Skinner 1999) and is therefore informed by participants' sensations, perceptions, attitudes, values and beliefs (Wellman 1992).

According to Gass and Seiter (2003:236) persuasion is concerned with changing beliefs, attitudes, intentions, motivations and behaviours.

According to the *Attitude Change Theory* developed by Hovland (1953) cited in Larson (1989:67, 68) actions by humans have certain constraints or harnesses out of which they act most of the time. Their attitudes determine their behaviour. People have to be motivated to process information in order to change their existing attitudes. Accordingly, persuasion is dependent on five characteristics, namely:

- Attention. If persuadees do not attend to a message, they cannot be persuaded by it;
- Comprehension. If persuadees do not understand or comprehend a message, they cannot be persuaded by it;
- Acceptance. If persuadees reject the message after attending to and comprehending it, they will not be persuaded;
- Retention. Most of the time persuadees have to withhold action for some time after comprehending and accepting the message. They therefore must retain or remember a message and its advice until the time of action; and
- Action. The specific behavioural change or action requested in the message must be in accordance with the accepted and retained appeals.

Klopper (2003), states that specific instances of communication can be ordered along a compliance gaining continuum that progress from *cooperation* to *competition* to *confrontation*.

Cooperation refers to behaviour in which two or more people work together for mutual benefit. Such action is regarded as prosocial because societies, to a great extent are founded on cooperative enterprise (Lidz 1986:350). Lidz further posits that the willingness to cooperate for mutual enjoyment or benefit is evident at an early age. It is therefore the task of parents and educators to stimulate and reinforce cooperation throughout the child's growth process in order to produce cooperative citizens. Adolescents will therefore learn to cooperate with parents, educators, the Law and with others in positions of authority.

According to Pretorius (1988:74) the school is a meeting place of I-you relationships which serves as a bridge between the child's intimate family life to the impersonal life experienced in society. Cooperation in groups is absolutely essential as the child becomes aware that something may be impossible to achieve alone, but can be accomplished by working in groups.

In order to achieve this state of cooperation, individuals must be motivated through persuasive techniques to comply. Reardon (1991:1) states that persuasion is one means of achieving cooperation. According to Orpen (1981:149) motivation is whatever incites or induces an individual to action and gives direction to action once the individual has been aroused. Orpen (1981) identifies three types of motivated behaviour: an activation aspect, a directional aspect and a persistence aspect. The activation aspect refers to setting off behaviour on a particular path, the directional aspect refers to the tendency for motives, and the persistence aspect refers to the tendency of motives to differ in their force and power. Motives refer to the inner states that activate and direct the behaviour towards certain goals and are responsible for this goal-seeking behaviour being persisted with for at least a certain length of time, and the goal of motives are the object, conditions, or activity toward which the motive is directed (Orpen 1981:149)

Persuasion is a form of influence, and influence can be positive or negative depending on the person influencing. Studies in communication reveal that there is a difference between coercion and persuasion. They are both forms of influence. According to Reardon (1991:1) manipulation involves furthering the goals of the manipulator at the expense of the one being manipulated. Coercion uses force, threats or blackmail to achieve its objectives whereas persuasion relies on communication skills and ability to put a cogent, convincing argument together to influence persons. People will be willing to do something for the love of something but also for the fear of something in order to avert some negative consequences. The adolescent may cooperate with an educator, not because s/he loves math, but because of the fear of failure. An adolescent may cooperate with his/her parent by completing household chores for the fear of losing his/her reward of a night out with friends.

According to Baltes and Staudinger (1996) the mastery of life often involves conflicts and competition among the three goals of human development. The competitive spirit manifests itself very early in the life of the child as is evident among siblings and friends. Competition is essential in the absence of cooperation. Certain people will only comply if there are rewards associated with the task on hand. Competition is therefore a powerful extrinsic motivator which causes people to become productive. According to Pretorius (1988:76) the school is where children prepare themselves for healthy competition. It is the task of the educator to teach learners that achievements should not occur at the expense of another human being.

In order to avert possible negative behaviour in humans, parents, educators, churches, clubs that adolescents belong to and other adults in positions of authority make use of confrontational communication. Confrontation may be verbal or non-verbal in nature. Parents, when noticing their children straying

from acceptable societal norms may stare angrily at their children in order to stop them from lifting candy from a supermarket. When it is appropriate, humans make use of verbal communication such as reprimanding the child when s/he strays from the right path. According to Bernstein (2001:71) when dealing with adolescents, successful confrontation should challenge behaviour without making it a win-lose proposition.

According to Tubbs and Moss (2000:201) humans may employ avoidance as a means of resolving conflicts. Avoidance behaviours include evasive strategies which are intended to head off a confrontation. An advantage of avoidance is that it prevents conflicts from escalating especially when dealing with children and young adolescents.

The theory of compliance gaining

The Theory of Compliance Gaining is a subset of Persuasion that emphasizes the effects or outcomes of behaviour, e.g. behavioural conformity. According to Gass and Seiter (2003:236) compliance refers to changes in one's overt behaviour. Gass and Seiter (2003:236) further state that according to research, compliance gaining is generally focussed on persuasion which is aimed at getting others to do something or act in a specific way. There is a direct relationship between Klopper 2003's Theory of the Optimisation of Human Communication and Gass & Seiter 2003's Theory of Compliance Gaining.

According to Marwell and Schmitt (1967) cited in Gass and Seiter (2003:237) there are five basic categories of compliance gaining strategies:

- Rewarding activity involves seeking compliance in active and positive ways;

- Punishing activity involves seeking compliance in a negative way by making use of threats;
- Expertise involves attempts to make one think that the persuader possesses some special knowledge and tries to be credible;
- Activation of impersonal commitments involves attempts to appeal to one's internalized commitments by telling one that one will feel bad if one does not comply; and
- Activation of personal commitments relies on one's commitment to others by pointing out indebtedness to the persuader and should therefore reciprocate.

People communicate with one another because they want others to conform to what they believe or want them to do. To succeed in getting them to do what they want them to do, there are a range of communication methods which one can employ. Influence attempts have both a verbal and a nonverbal component. Persuasion is one option which is employed to cause adolescents to change their present behaviour.

According to Gass and Seiter (2003:244) there are five bases of power that humans utilize to influence others.

- Individuals with "reward power" have control over resources with value such as promotions and pay increases;
- People with "coercive power" possess the ability to inflict punishments such as dismissal or failure/retention in a certain grade at school;

- Those who possess “expert power” possess expertise in a certain field such as medical doctors who have more knowledge of medicine than the layman;
- Those who possess “legitimate power” have the power to command and demand by virtue of their status such as the power educators have over their pupils and the vice president of a company has in which one works; and
- People who possess “referent power” want those whom they are influencing to be like them.

Small (1997) at http://www.ericfacility.net/databases/Eric_Digests/index/ states that extrinsic rewards provide positive reinforcement and motivational feedback. According to Reardon (1991:119), when other persuasive techniques fail, one can utilize rewards, threats or force in order to cause people to comply. Extrinsic motivators are external factors that control behaviour. An example of an extrinsic reward is when a teacher awards certificates to learners when they master the complete set of skills in algebra. Praise also serves as a powerful self-concept enhancer as well as a form of reward. The educator who praises the adolescent when s/he has done well will help the learner regard him/her as adequate. Parents can also make use of external rewards in order to cause their children to comply with whatever they want. By offering rewards such as an outing with friends, buying them new clothes or minimising their household chores, parents can cause children to comply with a certain type of behaviour.

Magnusson (2003) at <http://www.thecircuit.org/coach/english/ccoach/htm> states that nobody can operate or change effectively from within a vacuum. Adolescents need feedback about their performance if they are to adjust their

behaviour. Positive feedback in the form of extrinsic rewards is linked to motivation, initiative and responsibility.

According to Reardon (1991:119) parents and educators can also resort to withdrawing or withholding the reward when adolescents do not comply. An exercise such as cleaning up their room will cause parents and children to be at loggerheads with each other. When children do not comply, parents can withhold pocket money or the use of computer games from their kids (something that can hurt the adolescent the most). Sometimes one has to be willing to apply compliance gaining techniques to gain long-term results. Parents, educators and significant others in the adolescents life-world will utilize these techniques with the adolescent's socialization in mind. The use of threats and violence can be counter-productive, and will only be used as a last resort. The attitude which parents and educators often use is "I will bide my time until I get compliance."

Another way of causing people to comply is the use of threats such as "If you do not comply, I will punish you" (Reardon 1991:119; Gass and Seiter 2003:238). Threats and violence must be absolute last resorts. You dare not threaten, unless you are willing to follow through with violence. Parents constantly use threats in order to cause adolescents to comply with what they want. There are however different responses when one make use of threats. Some adolescents will comply, while others will refuse to listen. In households where there is more than one child, siblings can hedge their bets and refuse to comply. The person wanting compliance must therefore put off complying until a later date. Where mums want children to comply, they may appeal to a higher authority such as dads or even granddads for arbitration. At school, educators may appeal to the principal and those in management to resolve the issues on hand.

Arbitration, according to Haralambos and Holborn (1996:220) is when outside bodies mediate between the parties in dispute. During arbitration, one is

appealing to a neutral person who is in a position of higher authority. What adolescents want is a higher authority to comply with what they want. They want the person in higher authority to enforce compliance in their favour. In the classroom, the educator who wants compliance will appeal to the principal in order to cause learners to comply with what s/he wants. In civil cases, people in cross purposes will engage the services of an attorney to cause the other person to comply. In criminal cases, the state, which represents and protects society, sues the person who committed the crime and prosecutes the guilty party.

The demands for compliance gaining emanate from the mind or soul of the individual. According to Reardon (1991:121) communicators choose available communicative behaviours to accomplish their own interpersonal goals. It has to meet some psychological need of the person. According to Boster and Stiff (1984) as cited in Gass and Seiter (2003:244) it is possible to distinguish between compliance-gaining situations on the basis of who benefits once compliance is gained.

The role of society is to socialize adolescents so that they will be properly socialized beings by taking their rightful place in society. According to the non-authored website at <http://www.wowessays.com/writing.shtml> socialization instils the norms of the system into the individual. The norms are all the proscribed and prescribed forms of behaviour in the social system. Parents realize that life in the real world is quite often overlooked or underestimated by their adolescent children. There are many defining moments in the life of adolescents. When adolescents leave the safety and security of their home environment, they are bombarded by verbal and non verbal persuasion to elicit a response from them such as the mass media which, according to Larson (1989:350) stand to profit from the success of their clients and customers. How they react to overtures to engage in sexual encounters, the lure of drug and dope

dealers as well as the enticement of well planned adverts is dependent on the proper socialization of the child. Through proper socialization adolescents are motivated towards self-determination. According to the non-authored website, at <http://aspe.hhs.gov/hsp/PositiveYouthDev99/htm> self-determination is the ability to think for oneself, and to take action consistent with that thought. It is also the ability to chart one's own course. Deci (1994) linked self-determination to innate psychological needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness.

Compliance gaining is: wanting order for the sake of the individual needing compliance. According to Reardon (1991:121) the use of activity messages and power messages induce compliance by focusing on expectancies or the consequences associated with non-compliance. Parents who have problem children find that it is useless to pretend it is only for their children's sake that they require compliance. Their self-image as well as their public-image is at stake. At school, educators don't want compliance just for the learners so that teaching and learning might take place, but for the sake of the educator's status, self-image, and public image.

According to Larson (1989:153) the aim of persuasion is to skilfully tap into the emotional states of persons. During the process of compliance gaining, one must get into the heads of the participant. It must be a mind-internal exercise which must relate to what is going on in the mind of the person who is demotivated and what is going on in the mind of the person who is remotivating or calling in another person to do so. Larson (1989:155) further states that motivation research seeks to learn what motivates people in making choices, and is aimed at reaching the subconscious minds of individuals.

If one understands the mind of the demotivated person one will also understand that certain things are sorted out in time and not instant compliance with what one wants. This may be due to the fact that adolescents are influenced by the

chronosystem in which they find themselves (Bronfenbrenner 1994). One has to look at time frames in which compliance is going to be achieved and have the necessary patience to wait for the desired result. In certain instances one must leave certain aspects of compliance to the demotivated person himself. Trying to push someone into complying is a sure way of demotivating an individual.

There are also certain physiological aspects of compliance gaining. Adolescents model changes in their lives that affect physical and emotional changes. According to Du Toit and Kruger (1991:55) adolescence is viewed as a period with the most amounts of physio-emotional changes. There is no way in which parents can gain total compliance over their adolescents. Because of these changes, all adolescents desire privacy. Children hate it when their parents go through their personal belongings. It is a sure way of creating conflict in their children's lives.

Social regulation is a very general process of compliance gaining. In the process of socialization, children must not be pawns to be manipulated and they must learn the art of compliance gaining. Alvin Gouldner in Haralambos and Holborn (1996:877) asks "Are they pursuing their own ends or those imposed upon them by others?" A lot of demotivation among adolescents is caused by authority figures that are control freaks. According to Higgs and Smith (1997:157) all human societies are structured on certain power relationships. Humans are quite often oppressed by authority figures by imposing their values and beliefs without their knowledge. Higgs and Smith (1997:160) further posit that we are all dominated by society and social structures. Adolescents must learn how social domination works as well as when to comply and when to resist. They must also know the difference between persuasion and coercion. According to Ong (2004:1) at <http://www.trainingdirectories.com/> coercion uses threats, force and/or blackmail in order to obtain a response. Persuasion relies on

communication skills and the capacity to put a forceful, convincing argument together to influence the other person. When they reach a place of authority as adults, they must be able to manage compliance gaining process successfully towards others under their authority. It is extremely important that you don't create backboneless people who are not properly socialized. As adults, they must be able to stand on their own two feet.

A demotivated person is someone who is completely unsocialized. They feel alienated, don't feel acknowledged, don't feel visible or have a voice in society. According to Haralambos and Holborn (1996:296) in order to succeed in organizations, individual's social needs such as friendship, group support, acceptance, approval, recognition status, and the need for self-actualization must be met. Without these ingredients, productivity suffers.

The other thing that is very important in any organization be it the home, school, church, workplace, etc. is that there are social networks or hierarchies and very few people will want to remain passively at the bottom of the hierarchy. They want to be acknowledged, heard, and seen. There is always competition among people. On the part of educators, it is a singular honour to be a part of the school management team. The same applies to the child in the pedagogic environment. As a child you want your opinions to be heard, accepted, and acknowledged. Compliance gaining is therefore a very basic construction in the fabric of society.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (1996:296) in order to accomplish the goal of productivity in organizations, groups of workers must be involved in the decision making process. An integral part of the decision making process is negotiation – offering something in return. Part of the negotiation process is giving rewards and withholding privileges. Educators must be willing to engage in negotiation with learners in order to keep the learning-teaching spirit alive in the classroom. In order for negotiations to take place, there must exist a framework

of agreed-upon rules and procedures. Conflicts are normally contained and resolved within this framework (Haralambos and Holborn 1996:220). Parents as well must be able to negotiate with their children and in doing so model negotiation skills which will prove to be useful in their adult life-stage. These skills will become necessary in their marriages, at the workplace as well as when they themselves become parents.

Reconstructing adolescent attitudes

Overt behaviour results from concealed attitudes. Adolescents display a high level of motivation by virtue of their positive attitudes. According to Simon and Schuster (2003) attitudes have generally been regarded as learned predispositions that exert some consistent influence on responses toward objects, persons, or groups. Because the behaviour of a person toward others is often, although not always, consistent with his or her attitudes toward them, the investigation of how attitudes are formed, how they are organized in the mind, and how they are modified has been considered of great practical as well as theoretical importance.

Attitudes and behaviour are strongly linked. Attitudes are usually seen as the products of socialization and therefore as modifiable. Because one's behaviour is produced through underlying attitudes, agents of socialization such as the school, home, community and church must now work on the negative attitude through use of persuasion techniques to change from negativism to positivism. Family, school, church, state and work are powerful factors that influence attitudes. According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:135) persuasion is a deliberate attempt to change the attitudes of another. Positive attitudes would therefore engender positive behaviour.

The psychological profile of motivated adolescents

The cooperative nature of adolescents

Contrary to the general belief that adolescents lack cooperation, motivated adolescents are willing to cooperate with educators, parents, peers and other authority figures. According to Levine (2002:46) although adolescents are the most prone to the evils of drugs and alcohol abuse which negatively impacts on brain growth and development and all its sidetracks and potential traps, yet there are a vast majority of kids who thrive in school and develop great kinds of minds.

Pretorius (1988:74) describes the school as a miniature society which serves as a transitional bridge from the intimate family life to impersonal societal life. It is at school that adolescents face new social situations which force them to make decisions which lead to actions.

Schirtzinger (2004) at <http://www.helpyourselftherapy.com/main> states that cooperation is finding a way for both people to get what they want instead of having one person win while the other loses. Cooperation in groups is of utmost importance as the adolescent becomes aware that something may be impossible to achieve by himself/herself and that it can be accomplished by working with others.

Cooperation is furthermore advanced through constructivist learning. According to the non-authored website at <http://www.thirteen.org/online/concept2class/index.html> constructivism promotes social and communication skills by creating a classroom environment that emphasizes collaboration and exchange of ideas. Adolescents learn how to articulate their ideas clearly as well as to collaborate on tasks effectively by sharing in group projects. Adolescents therefore change ideas and so must learn to "negotiate" with others and to evaluate their contributions in a socially acceptable manner. This is essential to success in the real world, since they will always be

exposed to a variety of experiences in which they will have to cooperate and navigate among the ideas of others.

The competitive nature of adolescents

According to Pretorius (1988:76) competition is a phenomenon which surfaces early in life, especially among siblings and the peer group.

Motivated adolescents are engaged in competition with each other. Competition is a natural outcome of being an adolescent. Pretorius (1988:76) states that it is at school that an adolescent prepares for the competition that he will encounter later in life. It is through competing with each other that adolescents obtain the necessary approval of their peer group. It is also through a spirit of competition that lasting friendships are forged. When an adolescent succeeds in a sporting activity such as rugby and excels on the sports field, s/he is applauded by his/her peer group which in turn gives him/her a feeling of self worth and is a definite boon to his/her self-image and ego.

Where no competition exists between adolescents, apathy sets in. Competition keeps learning alive in the classroom and on the sports field. This competitive spirit pursues the adolescent into adulthood where s/he has to compete on a larger scale for survival. In the business world, people compete with each other for incentives, bonuses, higher salaries and other perks. Nations battle on the international sporting arenas for ascendancy, resulting in bonds of friendship and world peace. Competitiveness in adolescents is therefore essential for survival.

The confrontational nature of adolescents

Motivated adolescents are also engaged in confrontational behaviour. Confrontation is essential in problem solving. Adolescence is a period marked by choices through decision making. Because decision determines destiny, motivated adolescents will engage in confrontational behaviour with peers and

significant others especially when they are challenged to engage in or conform to negative behaviours such as pre-marital sex, drug addiction, alcoholism, gambling, etc. Because the well-being of the peer group is threatened, motivated adolescents will confront members of the group should there be inconsistency in their behaviour.

Motivated adolescents will also engage in confrontational behaviour especially if they are being bullied. According to Myers (1995:433) human bodies are wonderfully coordinated and adaptive, preparing us to fight or flee. Adolescents must give vent to their feelings in order not to be manipulated or coerced into doing things they dislike, or are against their convictions. Given the increase in child abuse in our country, adolescents must confront those who would take advantage of them to the extent of hurting them physically and emotionally and those who invade their psychological space.

Motivated adolescents will also engage in confrontations with parents and other authority figures in order to establish their self-identity. Adolescence is a search for self. According to Hart (2002) at dhart@rcpsych.ac.uk real disagreements emerge for the first time as young people develop views of their own that are often not shared by their parents. They will often differ with parental opinions concerning choice of friends, clothing and music. Adolescents want to break from the mould created for them by parents and society.

Perception and motivated behaviour

Perception is defined as the mental organization and interpretation of sensory information. Perceptions, according to naïve psychology, tell us about the external world of real objects, spaces and events. One's knowledge and credible beliefs are therefore forged in part from perceptions (and in part from one's other beliefs).

Adolescents are constantly organizing and selecting numerous stimuli that are presented to them via the sense organs. The peripheral nervous system links the central nervous system with the body's sense receptors. The Columbia Encyclopaedia at <http://education.yahoo.com/reference/encyclopaedia> says that perception is influenced by a variety of factors, including the intensity and physical dimensions of the stimulus; such activities of the sense organs as effects of preceding stimulation; the adolescent's past experience; attention factors such as readiness to respond to a stimulus; and motivation and emotional state of the adolescent. As adolescents move about in the world, they create a model of how the world works.

Wellman's theory of commonsense belief-desire psychology (1992: 93-121) presents a rationale for these above-mentioned psychological principles. He showed that sensory perceptions inform thinking, sensations and emotional awareness. Thinking in turn biases perception while sensation and emotional states colour thinking. Values and beliefs as sub-domains of thinking bias perceptions.

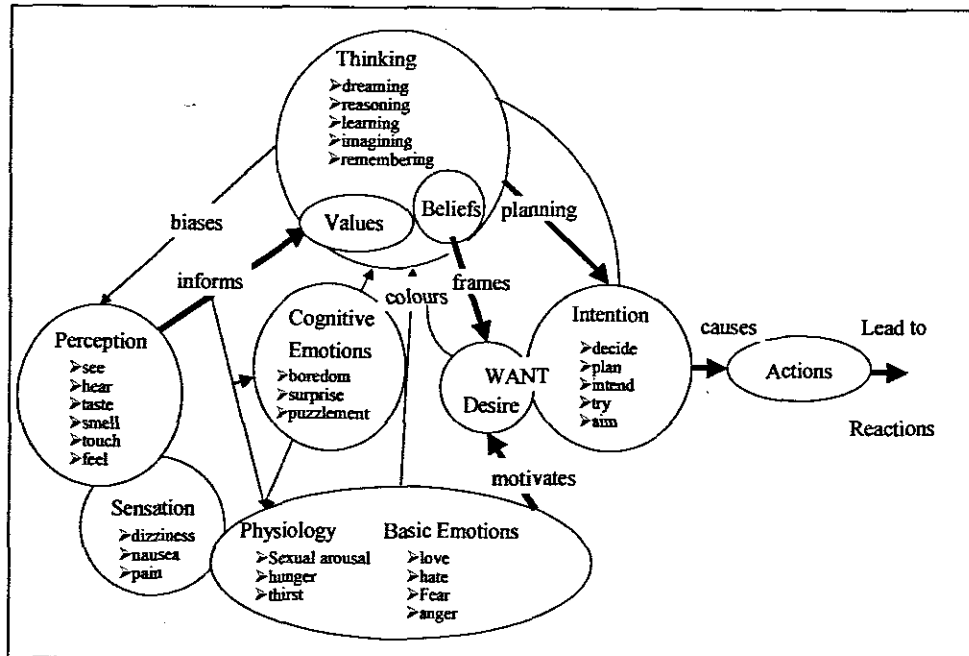


Figure 2: An elaborated scheme for depicting belief-desire reasoning, adapted from Wellman (1992: 109).

Thinking leads to motivated behaviour

According to Wellman (1992:149), our mental states such as dreaming, reasoning, learning, imagining and remembrance attempt to reflect something true about the world. These mental states in turn frame our desires and these desires frame our actions in the world.

Dreaming

Lewis at <http://www.asdreams.org/magazine/articles/index.htm> states that we spend almost a third of our lives sleeping and that dreaming is a wonderful aspect of being human. Adolescents are engaged in dreaming about success both in the present as well as the future. The famous speech made by Martin Luther King began with the words "I have a dream." That dream is now a reality.

Adolescents are also engaged in bouts of day-dreaming. According to Singer (1966:3) day-dreaming means a shift of attention away from an ongoing physical or mental task or from a perceptual response to external stimulation towards a response to some internal stimuli. According to Vaughan (1973: 219) the dream state is a natural arena in which creative energies are at play. Through day-dreaming, motivated adolescents are creating and framing their future. Through dream states, pilots, astronauts, educators, scientists, etc. are conceived. Vaughan (1973:219) further states that through dreaming, adolescents break with reality-oriented thought to group things together by 'illogical' association and as a consequence new relationships emerge which can sometimes provide a breakthrough for a waiting and observant mind.

Reasoning

In the words of Eleanor Roosevelt as cited by Fourie (1997:30):

One's philosophy is not best expressed in words, it is expressed in the choices one makes...and the choices are ultimately our responsibility.

Humans are endowed with the capacity to reason. Reasoning is also closely related to problem solving. Adolescence is a life stage that comes with its unique problems faced by both motivated and demotivated adolescents. When facing temptations such as drugs, alcohol, premarital sex, bunking classes as well as other vice adolescents have to, according to Rogers at crogers@risc.usi.edu come to judge situations as right or wrong. Adolescence is regarded as a stage of heightened moral reasoning. It is during this stage that the social values that relate to social justice are learned. Adolescents start to think more abstractly and rationally. They are forming their moral code. In the Post-Conventional/Principled level, what is right, according to Kohlberg, is determined by general/universal human rights, values / principles which both the society and the individual are obliged to uphold. Adolescents are motivated at this stage to uphold the principles that guide their behaviour. Therefore, by being a member

of society, one has made a contract to uphold the rights of all members thereof and that in principle, one should behave in accordance with certain ethical values which any moral person will perceive as valid. Adolescents recognize the arbitrary nature of rules and laws and recognize that their validity lies in their acceptance by members of society and will therefore co-operate with authority figures. The individual at this stage is aware of the rights and values upon which society should be founded and then enters into a relationship with society on the rational basis that those rights and values are to be protected.

Males and females have a different approach to moral reasoning. Gilligan at <http://www.usi.edu/libarts/socio/socialization/gillisum.htm> shows that males embrace a justice perspective, relying on formal rules in reaching a judgment about right and wrong. Females, on the other hand, have a care and responsibility perspective, which leads them to judge a situation with an eye towards personal relationships. Her main argument was that we should not set male standards as norms by which we evaluate everyone.

Learning

According to Wormeli at <http://www.omlea.org/> humans are born with a natural burning desire to learn and take risk. In transition from child to adult, adolescents are amazing doers and thinkers who reveal developing wisdom, deep understanding, free spirit, and are a generation of thinkers. They are a far cry from the inept persona some writers assign to this stage of human development. During this life stage, adolescents move from concrete to abstract thinking and possess an insatiable appetite for learning and discovery.

According to Ommrod (1995:442) discovery learning is "an approach to instruction through which students interact with their environment by exploring and manipulating objects, wrestling with questions and controversies, or performing experiments" Adolescents who are engaged in discovery learning are

more likely to remember concepts they discover on their own. According to Robyler *et al* (1997) educators have found that discovery learning is most successful when students have prerequisite knowledge and undergo some structured experiences.

Motivated adolescents are also engaged in cooperative learning. They are willing to cooperate with educators, peers, parents and other role players in the pedagogic community. Performing work for educators is essential because of extrinsic rewards such as high test scores, having their work displayed on the bulletin board as well as in the school's newspaper. According to Quartz and Sejnowski (1997) when students' work has a purpose for them, they will be more motivated to work hard and get it right. They are also engaged in learning for themselves i.e. for intrinsic rewards. Gaining a good symbol in their subjects is a boon to their self-esteem. Cooperating with peers is essential for many different reasons such as satisfying a social need that adolescents have. According to Johnson & Johnson (2000) not only will students learn math, they will also master the art of human relations. Group work also teaches adolescents to work together in group situations which are a much needed prerequisite when entering the job market. Having peer models is also helpful in learning to be a better student and worker plus it is fun for them which are motivating factors as well.

An important aspect of the adolescent life stage is the ability to cope. Part of coping is cooperation on social networks and engaging in confrontation with those who harm their person or who invade their personal space. Adolescents who cope are people who can maintain themselves.

Motivated adolescents are engaged in coping behaviour which is primarily learned behaviour. By watching parents, peers and other role models, adolescents learn important coping abilities. Everyone, from the youngest child to the oldest adult, experiences anxieties and fears at one time or another. Feeling anxious in

a particularly uncomfortable situation is not a good experience for many adolescents. According to the Nemours Foundation (2003) at <http://www.kidshealth.org/parent/emotions> such feelings are not only normal, they are also necessary. Experiencing and dealing with anxieties prepare adolescents to handle the unsettling experiences and challenging situations of life.

According to the Spry New Media at <http://www.theparentreport.com/home> adolescents who have developed a strong sense of self-discipline and internal motivation can better deal with peer pressure and life's ups and downs. Parents can help adolescents achieve this sense of self-discipline and motivation by giving them coping mechanisms for dealing with disappointments. Motivated adolescents learn how to deal with it themselves, rather than dealing with it for them.

Adolescent emotional states

According to the Child and Family Canada online Journal at <http://www.cfc-efc.ca/index.shtml> adolescence can be a scary time, full of angst and new emotions. Emotional life is a very important aspect of the adolescent life stage because emotions give colour, feeling, structure and tone to a person's life. According to Kruger and Verreynne (1991:55) an adolescent's emotional life is an extremely important part of his/her personal structure. Wellman (1992:109) states that emotions such as love, hate, fear and anger colours thinking. Adolescents' emotional life is closely associated to their personality and has a great effect on their general development.

According to Campos in Louw and Edwards (1993:536) basic emotions such as happiness, interest, surprise, fear, anger, sorrow and aversion are present in adolescents from birth. Adolescents express happiness when they are content with something. Happiness is expressed when something has been accomplished

such as successfully completing an assignment, receiving good symbols in an examination, receiving accolades for success in a sporting event, and being congratulated by parents and educators for work well done.

An adolescent's affective life-experiences, according to Du Toit and Kruger (1991:55) determine the relationships s/he will form. Adolescence is a life-stage in which adolescents experience tremendous emotional pressure.

Fear in adolescence is quite often linked to social situations. Many fears and worries are connected with their behaviour towards the opposite sex. Adolescents frequently feel self-conscious and unsure of themselves, especially when meeting strangers and when called upon to stand in front of a group of people. According to Engelbrecht (1982:86) adolescents are concerned about their looks, progress at school, integration with peer groups and conflict with parents.

Anger is also an emotion that's common to all adolescents. Anger must not be bottled up, but adolescents must find expression for their anger as this could lead to aggression and hostility (Adams 1981:216). According to Fourie (1997:126) when an emotion such as anger is not allowed an outlet directed at its source, it has to be directed inwards and the one who is punished the most is the self. Anger is therefore a dangerous emotion to ignore. Adolescents are frustrated by not being able to realize their ambitions and dreams. They may also be angry for not having sufficient pocket money. During this life stage, adolescents may be angry with themselves for not keeping up to their expectations as well as being angry with parents for not allowing them to go to the matric prom night or for rejecting their friends.

Adolescent beliefs and desires

A belief is representation of the world, a picture in the head. If this representation matches up with the world, then the belief is true. False beliefs misrepresent the world.

Mental states are desires, percepts, beliefs, knowledge, thoughts, intentions, and feelings, which play a causal role in behaviour. According to Khalik (1997) at <http://shamimkhalik.50megs.com/psychology/childdev./htm> adolescents have a store of beliefs and desires. Some of the beliefs are derived from perception, others from inference. Some desires (e.g. desire to get a drink) arise from bodily states, others (e.g. desire to go to the kitchen) are sub-goals generated by the decision-making system. The decision-making system, which takes your beliefs and desires as input, generates sub-goals and comes up with a decision about what to do. That decision is then passed on to the mechanisms responsible for sequencing and coordinating the behaviour.

Wellman (1992:6) states that beliefs are often grounded in perceptual experience. Physiological states, emotions and perceptions shape one's actions and they indirectly mould one's desires and frame one's beliefs. Adolescents can be viewed as actors whose belief frames desire and whose desires motivate action. Belief-desire reasoning is therefore used to predict, explain, justify, and understand human actions. An understanding of human actions would help us in gaining insight into what motivates negative adolescent behaviour and what steps could be taken to rectify such behaviour.

According to Wellman (1992:105) desire is wanting to do something and wishing something would happen. Adolescents are engaged in activities because they desire something and believe that some act will achieve it. The motivated adolescent will engage in co-curricular as well as extra-curricular activities because

s/he is driven by the need to succeed. These positive mental states give rise to positive results while negative mental states give rise to failure and frustration.

According to Du Toit and Kruger (1991:57) adolescents are totally directed towards the satisfaction of needs. These include physiological needs such as hunger and thirst as well as secondary aspirations such as acceptance, love and security. Adolescents' secondary aspirations are as follows:

- Desire for success at school and on a social level;
- Desire for self-respect;
- Desire for status, recognition and approval;
- Desire for knowledge and understanding; and
- Desire for self-esteem.

Adolescent values

An important task of adolescence is to develop a personal value system. In doing so, adolescents will question certain values and accept others in order to form their own moral code or have value systems which consist of their personal values. According to Musser and Orke (1994), value systems are important for understanding the motives behind behaviour because they have a direct influence on aspirations and choices.

Ethical values and ethical beliefs are established in childhood. This refers to the ethical-normative development of the adolescent which includes embracing certain norms, rejecting bad or wrong ones and voluntarily complying with certain genuine norms according to Van Rensburg and Landman (1985:112). During the adolescent life-stage, the social values that relate to social justice are learned e.g.

rejecting discrimination against people. Adolescents must master certain accepted values and norms prevalent in society. A common reaction during adolescence is to accuse parents of double standards especially if they are not practicing what they preach. This stage is also marked by acceptance of responsibility for choices made as well as the resultant actions.

Values impact an adolescent's performance at school and in other social settings because values guide behaviour. Examining adolescents' values will determine the type of behaviour they are likely to exhibit on the various socialization networks and also account for their present behaviour. Such a query will provide all role players in the adolescent's educational process reasons as to why they are underachieving and other underlying causes of demotivation. Upon examining adolescents' behaviour, steps must be taken to correct negative behaviour. Reconstructive persuasion is persuasion directed towards restructuring the value system of an individual and replacing them with positive ones. Once the value system of an individual is changed or adjusted, changed behaviour is the consequence.

Reconstructing reasoning, learning and imagining in the cognitive domain would lead to altered behaviour. According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:135) persuasion is a deliberate attempt to reinforce beliefs. However, persuasion is a voluntary process. Adolescents are not robbed of the opportunity to choose but present a case for the adoption of a persuaded-preferred mode of action, belief, or attitude.

Adolescent intentions

Developing the concept of an intention is highly significant for at least two reasons. According to Meltzoff (1995:838) intentions clarify how people differ from other objects and that human behaviour, unlike that of other objects, is

driven by intentions and goals. Second, adolescents must draw on the intentional-unintentional distinction to understand personal responsibility and morality.

According to Shultz (1980:131-164) children elaborate their early, possibly innate, concept of agent into the concept of intentions and that internal mental states guide behaviour. Adolescents not only can act, they deliberately plan to and try to act Schult (1991:79). In addition, research by Schult & Wellman (1997) has shown that even 3- and 4-year-old children distinguish appropriately between psychological states (e.g. beliefs and desires), biological processes (e.g. reflexes), and physical forces (e.g. gravity) as possible causes of human actions and movements.

According to commonsense psychology belief and desire are needed for intentional action to materialize. Intentions embody the beliefs and desires of an adolescent. Desires lead to intentions which actualise desires. Desires comprise hopes and wishes and intentions are the plans and aims to accomplish the desires. According to Wellman (1992:101) to do something intentionally is to have a desire and to engage in the act because of the belief that it will satisfy the desire. From Wellman's diagrammatic representation it becomes clear that belief and desire are linked through intention by means of planning.

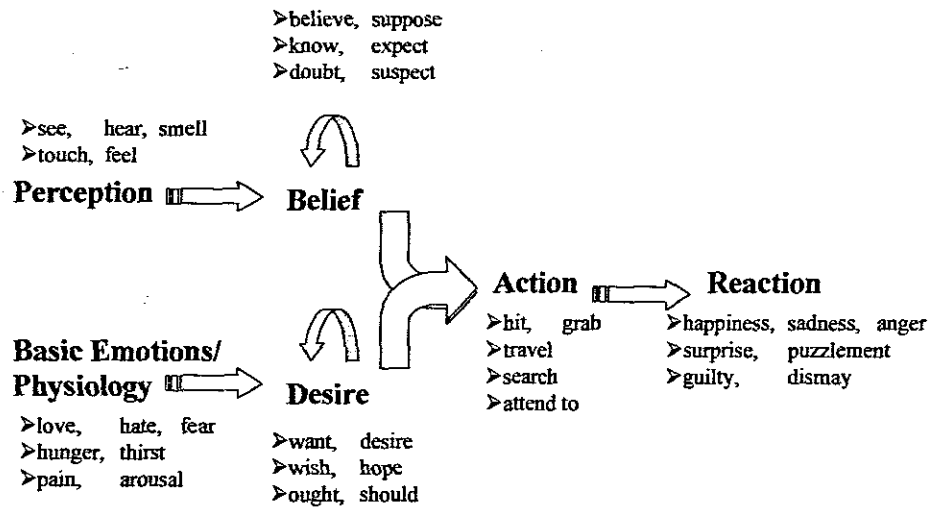


Figure 3: A simplified scheme depicting belief-desire reasoning, adapted from Wellman (1992: 100).

Adolescents are born with a burning desire to succeed and will engage in a structured study programme because of the belief that hard work and diligence will produce good results. Those who don't believe won't have the desire to succeed and will experience little or no success.

According to Hart (2002) contactable at dhart@rcpsych.ac.uk the adolescent period of development is marked by their gaining a sense of identity that is distinct from that of the family. It is during this time that they begin to develop their self-concept. Motivated adolescents possess positive feelings about their future and believe in themselves.

Motivated adolescents are more likely to be independent, active, and persistent problem solvers. Beginning in early childhood, these children show intense curiosity, high motivation, obsessive interests, and a metacognitive awareness of their problem-solving strategies. Motivated adolescents also require less structure

and supervision, and they score higher on self-efficacy and internal locus of control Griggs (1991).

According to Roeper (1989:7-10), and in Delisle, (1992: 9-10) “adolescents are concept-oriented, and have an enormous desire to make sense of this world, to master it, and to make an impact on it. They want to find out; they want to make discoveries, because of their inner need for intellectual and emotional order.”

Perceptions give rise to beliefs, and because perception plays a vital role in adolescents’ formation of values and beliefs, the various role-players in the adolescents’ pedagogic environment can influence their self-perception. In this way, perceptual input influences behavioural output leading to enjoyment of learning and motivated behaviour.

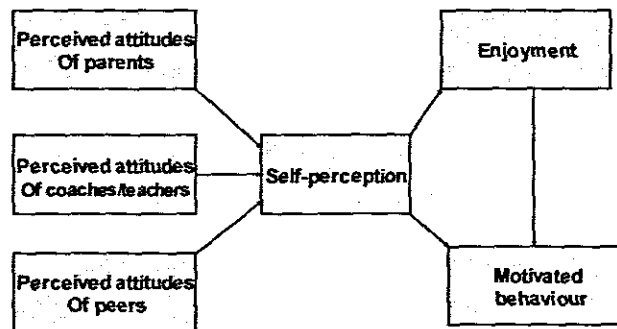


Figure 4: Influencing Self-Perception

Adolescents who possess a healthy self-perception have positive beliefs about themselves and their ability to excel even when placed under pressure. Motivated adolescents’ vocabulary differs from that of their demotivated counterparts. Their speech is also filled with words such as “I can”; “I will”; “I’ll try”; etc.

Reconstructive persuasion is persuasion directed towards restructuring adolescent's beliefs system. Because various beliefs lead to intentional behaviour, using interpersonal persuasive techniques will enable adolescents to use intrapersonal persuasion i.e. persuasion on the personal level in order to dissuade wrong behaviour, as well as to encourage changes in them to improve on their current situation.

Reconstructive persuasion is channelled through communication. According to Mersham and Skinner (2001:8) communication is defined as the process by which an idea is transferred from a source to a recipient with the intention of changing his/her behaviour.

The main components in the communication model are:

- The source, or communicator;
- The channel or means by which the message is sent and received;
- The medium in which the message is carried;
- The signs and symbols used to express and interpret the message (and in which the message is embedded);
- The message content (or meaning); and
- The recipient.

In reconstructive persuasion, the source or originator of the message is the educator, parent, counsellor, religious leader, peer or any person who has a direct, positive influence on the adolescent. The recipient according to Mersham and Skinner (2001:12) is the most important single element in the communication process. The recipient in this instance is the demotivated adolescent.

Conclusion

In this chapter I presented the communication context of the theory of motivation which I call *The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion*. The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion (TORP) is persuasion directed at reconstructing adolescent's lives who at one time were motivated. I have stated that Reconstructive persuasion is persuasion directed towards restructuring adolescent's beliefs system. Because various beliefs lead to intentional behaviour, using interpersonal persuasive techniques will enable adolescents to use intrapersonal persuasion i.e. persuasion on the personal level in order to dissuade wrong behaviour, as well as to encourage changes in them to improve on their current situation.

I have also discussed the Theories of Persuasion and Compliance Gaining and the respective roles they play in the remotivation of demotivated adolescents. Persuasion is described as "the conscious attempt to modify thought and action by manipulating the motives of men toward predetermined ends." The Theory of Compliance Gaining is a subset of Persuasion that emphasizes the effects or outcomes of behaviour, e.g. behavioural conformity. According to Gass and Seiter (2003:236) compliance refers to changes in one's overt behaviour.

I have also discussed at length Wellman's Theory of Mind and Belief-Desire Psychology as it relates to adolescents in the way they think, perceive, and reason, their emotional states, and their desires which eventually lead to actions and reactions. According to Wellman (1992:149), our mental states such as dreaming, reasoning, learning, imagining and remembrance attempt to reflect something true about the world. These mental states in turn frame our desires and these desires frame our actions in the world.

I have also included the psychological profile of motivated adolescents and how they react towards different life problems and how they differ from their demotivated counterparts.

In the next chapter I will discuss the various causes of demotivation among adolescents and possible solutions which can be used to remotivate demotivated adolescents.

Chapter 5

CAUSES OF DEMOTIVATION AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS FOR REMOTIVATING DEMOTIVATED ADOLESCENTS

Preview

In this chapter, I will discuss the various reasons as to why adolescents are demotivated, as well as provide possible solutions which can be used to remotivate demotivated adolescents. By surveying the necessary literature, it has become clear that this life-stage referred to as youth or adolescence continues to be the subject of both scholarly writing and research which highlights the significance attached to this specific life-stage.

Causes of demotivation

Introduction

Demotivation among adolescents cannot be explained as the result of a single biological, behavioural or social factor, but is related to a host of complex interactions of biological, behavioural, sociological and ecological predisposing factors in conjunction with the environmental precipitating factors.

In the context of this study it is regarded both as relevant and important to identify and describe some causes of demotivation as mutually connected to biological, social, neurophysiologic, psychosocial and environmental factors.

Writers such as Adams *et al* (1994:30-57) and Muus (1982:30-287) have provided a comprehensive overview of the different theoretical frameworks that exist which help to build an understanding and to explain the various facets of adolescent development and behaviour.

Advocates of the bio-social school argue that certain biological processes are causal mechanisms that give rise to social behavioural changes in adolescence. (Adams *et al* 1994:31; and Muus 1982:25-29) Theorists who subscribe to the interpersonal relations perspective describe a range of interpersonal behaviours associated with the adolescent life-stage and their interest in the opposite sex (Adams *et al* 1994:33-34). The psychosocial school posit the relationship between the psychological adjustment of the growth process and the social conditions that enhance or obstruct it. According to Erikson in Adams *et al* (1994:41, 46) the ego (or personality) synthesizes past and present experiences in integrating inner life (instincts) with social influences. Erikson (1968) argues that during the course of life, individuals experience several important dilemmas that need to be resolved at every stage of life. Positive resolution is essential to ensure that the human subject will evolve into a mature, competent and fully functional human being. An all important pre-requisite is that the individual resolve the various crises or dilemmas of each stage of development, as failure to do so will have an impact on the mastery of subsequent stages. Erikson (1968) also states that the family lays the basic foundation for positive adolescent development but the broader social and cultural environment also influences development.

The social-cognitive perspective focuses strongly on role modelling and the implications of vicarious reinforcement through identification and society's rewards for emulating role models. Bandura (1990) suggests that observational learning has powerful effects on children's and adolescents' acquisition of both social and anti-social behaviour (Adams *et al* 1994:49 and Muus 1982:226-235). The psychoanalytic perspective focuses primarily on intrapsychic development of the individual. The scholars noted for this stance have been Sigmund Freud (1926), Anna Freud (1958) and Peter Blos (1962) quoted in Adams *et al* (1994:49-56) and Muus (1982:30-59; 52-53; and 96-124). Freud (1926) suggested that humans are the products of two directly oppositional forces namely inherent

instinctual needs and the need to live in a social group. Freud's perspective suggests that individuals have a need to maximise their instinctual gratification and on the other hand must learn to do so in socially acceptable ways to avoid punishment as social beings (Adams *et al* 1994:49)

Need deprivation

Adolescents' physical, social, emotional and intellectual development is dependent on the satisfaction of needs. According to Schmidt (1973:20) organic potentialities are not developed in the absence of environmental influences. This holds true in regard to physical potentialities as well as for mental ones. Human beings are dependent on care and satisfaction of needs over extended periods of time in comparison to other living organisms on earth. Most behavioural scientists also concur that humans are driven by the desire to satisfy various needs. Adolescents like all humans are need driven. Citing Maslow, Neher (1991:90) states that each of us is endowed at birth with a full and, to an important extent, unique complement of needs that, allowed expression by our environment, will guide our growth in a healthy direction. Abraham Maslow (1970) identified five basic need levels that motivate human behaviour. These needs function in a hierarchical manner. By hierarchy is meant that needs lower on the pyramid must first be satisfied before needs at higher levels are activated.

The most basic needs are those for physiological survival such as - air to breathe, water to drink, food to eat and sex to procreate. Next in order of precedence comes a set of needs for such things as safety and security.

Once an individual has taken care of his or her basic physiological needs, there is a need to feel safe and secure. Any disturbance in the education and upbringing of the child may lead to severe consequences in his/her learning and behaviour. Learning thrives in a safe and secure environment.

Some degree of need for love and belonging may well rise to the forefront of their concerns. It is an established fact that man is a gregarious animal. Humans cannot live in isolation from each other. The development of a healthy, well-balanced personality is dependent on the satisfaction of this need. Needs for the respect of our fellow's, and for self-respect, are seen as being next in order of precedence.

Abraham Maslow (1970) saw the range of needs mentioned so far as being open to being satisfied, and once such satisfaction was attained there would be no remaining "need" to provide further motivation to seek fulfilment. The remaining layer of need is different in that it is seen as being intimately related to the self-actualization of the individual. According to Neher (1991:91) self-actualization which is the end-point of the process outlined above constitutes the highest level of human experience. People might have enough of food, security, belonging and respect but enough of self-actualization is harder to attain.

Humans develop in stages, and in each stage of growth certain developmental needs must be met during an individual's growth process. According to Van Niekerk (1982) need deprivation can be regarded as a dysfunctional educational state.

The following is diagrammatic representation of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs.

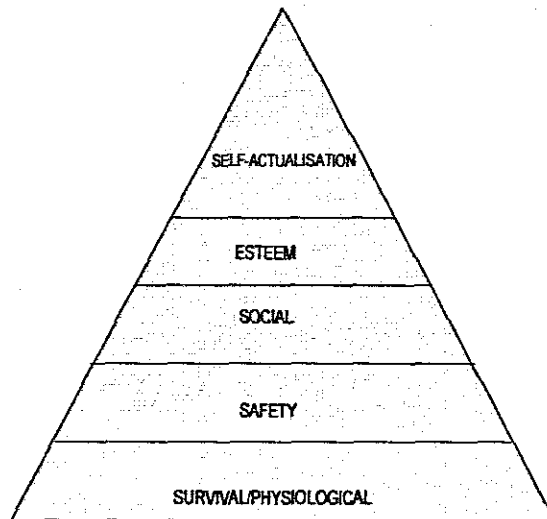


Figure 5: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs adapted from Mersham and Skinner (2001:42)

Strained human relations

Adolescents must live fully in the bond of unity with their educators in the pedagogical community, the home, the church as well as the community at large. Within these socialization networks dysfunctional rearing is inevitable.

Adverse social conditions are known to bring about a reduction in family functioning, and child well being. According to Garbarino (1995) families that are weakened and destabilised by social forces, such as families living in poverty or in situations where there is violence in the home, for example, are often incapable of providing children their basic developmental needs, such as emotional and physical security. These conditions include levels of violence and poverty in a community, unemployment, the stressfulness of the physical environment; the absence of supportive social networks and services (Hornell & Burns, 1989; Vinson, Baldry & Hargreaves, 1996). Angless and Shefer (1995:305) concur with

Gelles (1978) that the family, endorsed by society as a safe retreat from the vagaries of the external world, has been revealed as one of the most violent social groups. Modern households have been reduced to a battlefield of emotional, verbal and psychological abuse. The Domestic Violence act 116 of 1998 defines emotional, verbal and psychological abuse as consisting of: “a pattern of degrading or humiliating conduct which may consist of repeated insults, ridicule, or name-calling; repeated threats to cause emotional pain; the repeated exhibition of obsessive possessiveness or jealousy which is such as to constitute a serious invasion of privacy, liberty, integrity or security”.

Adolescents universally appeal for empathy, warmth and love from parents and educators. Their existence derives meaning from being wanted instead of being tolerated. The indispensable ingredients for a stable personality development are love, acceptance, parental devotion and societal willingness to accept, nurture and educate the adolescent.

The educator who is a parent in loco serves as a role model to the learner. Through interaction with the educator in the pedagogical community, the child observes adults’ demonstrating love, guidance, nurture, respect, authority and confidence. It gives the adolescent a sense of support, security and confidence. A lack of one or more of these characteristics would lead to demotivation. According to Gunter (1979) whenever the relationship between the parent, child and teacher abounds with mutual love, respect and trust, education thrives.

There is a correlation between dysfunctional upbringing and learning and behavioural problems. Disturbed human relationships within a family can be one source of dilemma in the learning and behaviour of adolescents. According to Nel (1974:74) children who grow up within the confines of disturbed world relationships disclose behavioural and learning problems. Although these learning and behavioural problems surface for the first time at school, they can be

caused long beforehand by severe shortcomings in the pedagogical environment. Families experiencing financial, marital or domestic problems impact on adolescents' well-being. Because parents play a crucial role in the development of the adolescent's self-image, a breakdown in families and the resultant breakdown in parenting is a cause for concern. Breakdowns in the parental relationships such as the death of a spouse or through divorce cause children to be exposed to domestic violence, physical and sexual abuse as well as a state of emotional imbalance quite often leading to a state of demotivation. According to Walsh (1996) cited in Prilietensky *et al* (2001:112) cohesion is one of the most important processes that promotes basic family functioning and family wellness.

Adolescents who emerge from dysfunctional families are susceptible to learning problems because of a lack of a stimulating intellectual environment. According to Levine (2002:39) families that are socioeconomically strong exert positive influences on their children's development.

Theron (1990:26) and Kander (1990) cite the following as factors hampering the parent-child relationships:

- The high divorce rate which causes the adolescent to be unprotected, unsupported and unguided;
- Family disorganisation resulting from the absence of the father or mother;
- Family disintegration resulting from divorce and leading to the establishment of a single-parent family;
- The "empty shell" family where the family merely lives together under one roof. Little communication exists between family members; and
- Little emotional support and assistance.

Generation gap

The term "generation gap" is a metaphor that was coined in the sixties and seventies of the 20th century. It was used as part of the terminology to describe generational differences regarding lifestyle preferences, entertainment preferences, ideological orientation, and above all values and beliefs of adolescents and their parents in post World War II Western societies.

It is a common premise that, in any household it is normal for family members of different ages to have differing views of particular issues. In Western societies where individualism is promoted and where freedom of expression is acceptable there are many different ways in which adolescents and adults view the same state of affairs, e.g. attitude to schoolwork, preferences in clothing, choice of their peer group, leisure time, music and politics, where one discovers that adults have their own type of music and hold to their own political views. Where schisms in families exist as a result of vast discrepancies in values and beliefs, the existence of a generation gap between parents and adolescents is inevitable.

Because of this generation gap, adolescents undergo a period of stress and strain in their relationship with their parents. A lack of understanding, as well as a lack of cooperation between adolescents and their parents results in a widening communication gap between them. Adolescents may also feel insecure, which leads to greater reliance on their peer group and often succumb to negative peer pressure. Negative peer pressure quite often leads to substance abuse and the formation of gangs and cliques. If this is not checked in time, adolescents may fall prey to sexual as well as emotional abuse.

Biophysical causes

According to this approach, learning and behavioural problems in the lives of adolescents reside in a disturbed balance in the systems within the human body.

Learning, behavioural and emotional problems arise as a result of a state of biological disequilibrium.

According to Everaerd (1993:4) adolescence is recognized as a biological phenomenon. At a certain time in their development adolescents are faced with a spurt of physical changes brought on by a surge of hormones. This stage of puberty results in sexual maturity. Adolescents who cannot exercise control over physical sexual urges often find themselves in trouble which often leads to teenage pregnancies and premature motherhood. Neither the male nor the female are psychologically prepared for parenthood or are likely to be economically independent of their parents.

Negative peer pressure

According to Bigelow (1996) peer relationships play a central role in the lives of adolescents, with peer influence and opinion operating as salient forces in adolescent development.

Peer pressure is a social phenomenon whereby adolescents come to rely heavily on peer groups for support, security and guidance. Gwinn, Norton, & Goetz (1991:720). According to Levine (2002:40) adolescents who run with the wrong crowd are prone to mimicking their behaviour. Doing homework and visiting the library may be taboo to some of them.

Adolescents in all cultures show certain similarities in dress, speech, idiom, habits, values, etc. This, according to Vrey (1990:162) can be described as conformity. Conformity in an adolescent's life is essential in order to be accepted as a member of the group. Since acceptance is high on the priority lists of adolescents, they conform willingly.

Social acceptance and the desire to belong to a crowd are placed above academics in the mind of adolescents. Participation in gangs, drug dependence, premarital sex, bunking classes and early school dropout are all symptomatic of negative peer pressure. According to Theron (1990) as a result of peer pressure, adolescents also suppress their consciences. Once their consciences are suppressed, adolescents may display all sorts of negative behaviour.

Neurophysiological factors

Cognitive neuroscience examines the physical basis of human behaviour and experience. It is fundamental to our understanding of experience and therefore of all human endeavour.

Learning and behavioural problems may also be viewed from a neurophysiological perspective. Viewed from this perspective, learning problems, behavioural and emotional disturbances are collectively regarded as a response to a state of neurophysiological disequilibrium. According to Apter and Conoley (1984:65) the sources of the dilemmas found in demotivated adolescents might be one or a combination of dysfunctional genes, neuropsychological factors, nutritional disorders and developmental lags in areas like neurological organization, perceptual motor learning, sensory integration etc.

According to Everaerd (1993:5) one aspect of adolescence that is inevitably common to all cultures, social classes and historical eras is that adolescence is a biological phenomenon.

Sociopsychological factors

As a sharp contrast to the neurophysiological approach which emphasizes internal neurological and biological disturbances, the sociopsychological approach views the environment as a determinant of learning and behaviour problems. The adolescent is in constant contact with the physical and social environments.

As such, the sociological approach views behaviour to be the product of conditioning life events or experiences. The agents of socialization are regarded as the conditioning factors in adolescents' lives. Socialization refers to the ongoing process of learning the expectations, habits, skills, values, beliefs and other requirements necessary for effective participation in social groups.

According to Ford *et al* (1993:409-407) poor self-esteem and low academic and social self-concepts contribute significantly to poor student achievement. They also maintain that racial identity must also be explored with minority adolescents. Many of these adolescents have negative feelings concerning their racial/ethnic heritage. They also posit that minority students who do not hold positive racial identities may be especially vulnerable to negative peer pressures; they may also equate achievement with "acting white" or "selling out" (Fordham, 1988), which contributes to low effort and, therefore, low achievement. Specifically, Lindstrom and Van Sant (1986) reported that many gifted minority students must choose between need for achievement and need for affiliation. These students often succumb to negative social pressures so that need for affiliation outweighs need for achievement.

An external locus of control also hinders minority students' achievement. Students who attribute their outcomes to external factors, such as discrimination, may put forth less effort than those who attribute outcomes to internal factors, such as effort and ability (Ford, 1996; Fordham, 1988). Minority students who do not believe in the achievement ideology, who believe that glass ceilings and injustices will hinder their achievement, are not likely to work to their potential in school.

Society is governed by established sets of norms. Within each group of people there exists a system of rules governing activities and behaviour of the members. Learning and behaviour is viewed as problematic when members deviate from

the accepted set of norms. According to Frazier (1976) judgement made by the in-group members in particular, qualifies behaviour as incorrigible, objectionable, disparaging and abnormal.

The sociological perspective deemphasizes pathological conditions and emphasizes breaking of the rules which are explicit for in-group members yet implicit for out-group members. In the western world, according to Mersham & Skinner (2002:21) looking a person in the eye is most appropriate when conversing with each other, yet, looking directly into the eyes of an adult in rural African culture when speaking to him/her is regarded as offensive. Within cultures, many forms of behaviour may be viewed as unacceptable to the members of the subgroups or across the sexes.

Neurodevelopmental dysfunctions

According to Levine (2002:30) the basic instrument for learning is called a neurodevelopmental function. The neurodevelopmental functions are the various tools for learning as well as for the application of what has been learned. Humans make use of various clusters of neurodevelopmental functions to learn various skills and to be creative. One set of neurodevelopmental functions enables learners to master subtraction; another cluster participates in the recitation of a poem while another makes riding a bicycle possible. The total number of neurodevelopmental functions is inestimable. Levine (2002:30) also posits that a whole range of different combinations of functions are called upon to accomplish academic tasks and those breakdowns or specific weaknesses are common. These deficiencies are called neurodevelopmental dysfunctions.

According to the non-authored website, at <http://www.calvinacademy.com/Day.htm> there are forty different cognitive "thinking" skills that all students use to acquire new information and build knowledge. One or more of the cognitive skills can fail to develop appropriately,

regardless of the intelligence of the students and this becomes an undetected learning problem. Adolescents feel as though there is a "glass wall" in front of them. They just don't seem to be able to learn what is easily learned by others. Instead of getting the help they need, they are blamed for their low marks. Soon they stop trying and often develop feelings of inadequacy and low self esteem.

According to Swanson and Reinert (1979:7) this approach sees learning and problem behaviour "not as abnormal but as 'lags' in skills or segmentations of behaviour that prevent the child from manifesting age-appropriate development".

Failure to communicate as a barrier to learning

Language is the chief means by which humans communicate with each other according to Webster's Family Encyclopaedia (1994:1471). Bernstein (2001:84) states that adolescence is arguably the most crucial time when communication is the most important.

According to Levine (2002:121) language is responsible in shaping concepts such as racial harmony and moral behaviour. Levine (2002:121) further states that language serves as a lubricant for peer relationships by enabling communication with classmates that conveys positive feelings as opposed to antagonism which is caused by language deficiency. Language is a boost to mathematical understanding when combined with visualisation. Language is also essential in sports whereby one is able to understand a coach's instructions as well as the concise communications with team mates and opponents.

When our language system malfunctions, students fall behind their peer groups. Nonverbal thinkers are harassed, misinterpreted and criticized. According to Levine (2002:122) adolescents who seem to limit their language capacities are missing certain verbal tools required to keep pace in the classroom. The results are that they are punished and discriminated against by virtue of their wiring.

According to Bernstein (2001:84) good communication is a fundamental human need which is imperative to forming strong interpersonal relationships. It is through language that we make ourselves understood and understand others. Adolescents who cannot effectively communicate their feelings react with frustration, embarrassment and anger. This can further lead to depressive mind states, low self esteem, feelings of isolation, alienation and rejection.

Learning disabilities

Learning disabilities are presumed to arise from dysfunctions in the brain. Individuals with learning disabilities have significant difficulties in perceiving information (input), in processing and remembering information (integration) and/or in expressing information (output). Outward manifestations of any of these difficulties serve as indicators or warning signs of a learning disability.

According to Bernstein (2001:373) a learning disability (LD) such as poor short term memory severely impairs an adolescent's education which leads to frustration, apathy and behavioural problems if it is left unchecked. Bernstein (2001:373) further states that various stigmas such as "lazy", "underachiever", etc. are attached to adolescents with learning difficulties.

This approach views the source of the problem as situated within the body of the adolescent as opposed to environmental factors which are located outside of the adolescent. It is the disease within the body of the adolescent which creates a deficiency or discrepancy between the potentiality of the adolescent and actual performance. A person with a learning disability may experience a cycle of academic failure and lowered self-esteem. This might lead to engagement in disturbing or disruptive behaviour. A behavioural problem is therefore viewed as being symptomatic of the underlying pathology.

According to Apter and Conoley (1984:17) the following conceptions fall within the learning disability approach:

- Emotional disturbance is assumed to be a disease caused by internal neurological or psychological disorders;
- The disease causes the individual to engage in “disturbed” behaviours, which in turn may be observed as symptomatic of the underlying illness;
- Consequently, it is not overt behaviour that marks an individual as emotionally disturbed, internal forces must be thought to exist;
- Diagnosis of disturbance must include some attempt to measure internal functioning. The focus must be on aetiology i.e. what causes the behaviour;
- Emotionally disturbed states are believed to be permanent conditions; they are not viewed as culturally relative; and
- Treatment must focus on curing the individual’s underlying pathology, not simply on “removing symptoms”.

Ecological factors

Humans are basically products of their environment. Germain (1991:16) states that people and environments influence, change, and sometimes shape each other. Adolescents live in a world where they are subject to its environmental moulding effects. Sacco (1995:110) makes the profound statement that “belonging in community and to be interconnected is the root of being human”. According to Pincus and Minahan (1973:9) social work is concerned with the interactions between people and their social environment which affect the ability of people to accomplish their life tasks, alleviate distress, and realize their aspirations and potential. The reality is such that youth are influenced by the

context in which they find themselves either in a positive or in a negative manner. According to Palkovitz (1987) the whole process of child development takes place within the context of microsystem, mesosystem, ecosystem and macrosystem. Bronfenbrenner (1994) identified five interlocking contextual systems that influence development which includes a chronosystem.

According to this viewpoint, learning, emotional and behavioural problems are entities that exist outside the body of the adolescent. These problems are therefore not the property of the child but the outcomes of his interactions with the ecosystem. Psychological problems develop as a result of imbalances in the ecosystem. This means that the adolescent alone does not have a psychological problem, but that the source is the adolescents' ecological environment. According to Levine (2002:38) many adolescents grow up in homes that are dysfunctional, violent neighbourhoods, and environments that starve their minds. Therapeutic intervention should therefore be directed towards the systems in the adolescents' ecological environment rather than the adolescent alone. Once the systems are thoroughly addressed and begin to function properly, the adolescent will benefit.

According to Elliott and Witt (1986) these systems can be distinguished as a microsystem which consists of the adolescent's immediate activities in relation to the physical contact within the home, school, church and peers. A combination of any two or more microsystems produces the mesosystem. According to Bronfenbrenner (1994) the mesosystem results from the interaction or interrelationships between the home and the school. Adolescents are directly involved in the microsystem and the mesosystem which in turn affect their personality.

On the outskirts of the adolescents' world relations two systems namely, the macrosystem and the ecosystem are present. The macrosystem encompasses the

system of overall cultural patterns that embraces all of a society's microsystems, mesosystems and exosystems. It consists of the values, laws, beliefs, customs and norms which filter down in countless ways to individuals' daily lives. The amount of control exerted by these systems does not correspond to the degree of involvement of the adolescent with the systems. Elliott and Witt (1986) further state that these two systems ensure consistency in form and content of the lower-order systems. They dictate to the adolescent the modes of satisfaction of needs of the essential systems, and they have a significant influence on the adolescent despite the fact that the latter is indirectly involved in them. Parent's work conditions and governmental policies lie outside the adolescents' direct involvement yet frustrations borne out of these situations are communicated indirectly to the adolescent thereby exerting influence.

The chronosystem (Bronfenbrenner 1994) refers to the dimension of time, the degree of stability and change in a person's world. Such changes can include changes in family composition, place of residence or larger events such as increasing numbers of working mothers or single parents.

Any approach to remotivation of demotivated adolescents or psychological assessment of adolescents' learning and behavioural problems must explore the ecosystems.

Pedagogical factors

According to Stembridge (1989:1-2) it is largely the work of the teacher that determines the degree of success or failure in the pedagogical environment. It is the educator who serves as a role model to the adolescent. Through interaction with the educator in the pedagogical community, the adolescent observes adults' demonstrating love, guidance, nurture, respect, authority and confidence. Harris (1999:458) states that in order for adolescents to be intrinsically motivated, they must have teachers who are caring, approachable and understanding. Adolescents

globally require a sense of support, security and confidence. A lack of one or more of these characteristics would lead to demotivation. A caring teacher develops a relationship with his/her learners and communicates well with them, which will in turn ignite a desire in them to participate. According to Gunter (1979) whenever the relationship between the adolescent and teacher abounds with mutual love, respect and trust, learning thrives.

Another important factor in the adolescents' learning environment is connectedness to the lesson. No lesson can succeed if there is a lack of interest on the part of the learner. This lack of interest may be due, in part to student's learning style preferences which are inconsistent with teaching styles. According to Luce (2003) at <http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet.com> students embody many sources of frustration regarding the learning process and that they carry many problematic attitudes about the nature of learning into the classroom. According to Lile (2002:1) learners are motivated to learn if the material presented is interesting, challenging and rewarding, and that the adolescent receives satisfaction from learning.

The depersonalization of the traditional classroom is another common cause of demotivation among adolescents. Luce (2003) at <http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet/committees/htm> argues that students are not necessarily unmotivated or unwilling learners; they are simply uninvolved in the depersonalization of the traditional classroom. In the traditional classroom the learner is viewed as a "mug" or a depository of knowledge while the educator is regarded as the "jug" or dispenser of knowledge. Although adolescents are willing to learn, they may not be able to endure the way they are taught. Adolescents want to have their individual needs met and they want to feel like they are more than part of a crowd, and that their individual talents and abilities are respected and deemed worthy. They want custodians who check on

them regularly, who support their individual learning, who inform them individually of their progress, and who assign a variety of tasks that give them the opportunity to learn in modes that fit their individual styles that are designed to meet their level of learning.

Unskilled personnel and relief educators who are untrained is also another cause for concern. As a result, not all learners are reaching their highest potential in school and many lack motivation. The increased frustration between the educator and learner leads to lowered adolescent performance which ultimately leads to failure and dropping out of school. According to Ellen (2003) at <http://www.hcc.hawaii.edu/intranet> skilled teachers intensify learning by providing authentic instruction and meaningful assignments while holding high expectations for all students.

Another cause of demotivation among adolescents is a lack of concern for the gifted child. According to Levine (2002) most schools still cling to a one-size-fits-all education philosophy. Gifted children are normally lost in the system and go through their schooling careers undetected. In some instances the gifted child is identified, but flaws in the system do not allow them to flourish. They walk through the hallways of schools despondent because they desire more brain-based activity, and are denied thereof.

According to Dixon (1998:101-112) and Rogers (1986) gifted adolescents go through the same developmental stages as their age peers but they handle changes and transitions differently. They are concerned with typical adolescent dilemmas (friendship and love relationships) as well as with adult issues such as public welfare (cheating, stealing, and scandal), life-and-death scenarios (Colangelo, 1989, in Delisle, 1992), and existential issues (finding direction and purpose in life) (Delisle, 1992). They express more altruistic wishes than their peers (Chiu & Nevius, 1990) in Delisle (1992).

Griggs (1991) posits that certain issues arise for motivated adolescents that do not arise for their demotivated peers. Motivated adolescents must deal with higher expectations from educators and parents. Because they are often talented in many areas (a term coined multipotentiality), decision making can be more difficult. They may confront feelings of isolation or loneliness because of their cognitive and social differences.

Having discussed the causes of demotivation, I will now present possible solutions which can be used to remotivate demotivated adolescents.

Solutions for remotivating demotivated adolescents

Change agents for remotivation

As the primary agents of socialization, parents are first and foremost the best change agents involved in the process of remotivating demotivated adolescents. Parents understand their offspring better than strangers and are well suited to bringing about change through constructive criticism as well as through the use of reconstructive persuasion.

Where conflicts exist between adolescents and their parents, adolescents who live in extended families are more likely to turn to adults they have learned to trust and respect such as grandparents, uncles and aunts. Adolescents will not confide in those whom they perceive as being disinterested in their welfare.

Educators who serve as role models to adolescents are powerful change agents of demotivated adolescents. As role models, educators act as substitute parents in the pedagogical environment especially when they communicate sincere interest, respect and consideration for the hurting adolescent. Adolescents also desire educators who are not only sympathetic towards them, but who display real empathy to their life experiences.

Matters that cannot be freely discussed with parents or educators such as hairstyles, parents, clothing, sex, contraception and their future, are freely discussed with friends. The peer group, according to Lerner and Spanier (1980:45) forms a support system for adolescents and serve as a sounding board for their ideas, thoughts and concerns.

Finally, religious leaders such as pastors play a pivotal role in the lives of demotivated adolescents through persuasive sermons and motivational speeches which serve as springboards and stepping stones to success.

Socialization of adolescents

According to Hayes and Barnes (2002:1) socialization is a continuous influence process whereby a society moulds its individuals to think and behave according to the society's standards of appropriateness. Haralambos and Holborn (1996:4, 322) state that socialization is the lifelong process by which individuals learn the culture, language, basic behaviour patterns, as well as the values and norms of their society

Socialization depends on the contexts and settings in which it occurs (Bronfrenbrenner 1994). A child is associated with and influenced by many overlapping units such as a national culture, one or more ethnic cultures, a local culture, a socioeconomic group, and a family which includes parents, brothers and sisters, and other relatives (Liebert *et al* 1986:272).

Primary socialization, which is the most important aspect of the process of socialization, takes place during infancy within the context of the family, school, and peer group. During this stage, two basic processes are involved, namely the internalization of society's culture and the structuring of the personality. Secondary socialization takes place when the individual interacts with his/her

peer group, persons within the tertiary educational system, religious, and other social organizations.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (1996:4) without socialization individuals will bear no resemblance to any human being defined as normal by the standards set by the society they live in. Children's personalities are moulded according to the central values of the culture they are brought up in. Liebert *et al* (1986:295) state that socialization includes the acquiring of skills and knowledge through:

- Direct instruction (including coaching and exhortation);
- Shaping; and
- Modelling (or observational learning).

Resocialization of adolescents

According to Schaefer & Lamm (1992: 113) resocialization is the process of learning a new and different set of attitudes, values and behaviours. It also refers to the process of discarding former behaviour patterns and accepting new ones as part of a transition in one's life. This occurs throughout the human life cycle. Resocialization, which is most likely to occur in late adolescence and adulthood, is a process in which individuals abandon their self-concept and way of life for a radically different one. Resocialization can be intense with the adolescent experiencing a sharp break with the past and the learning and exposure to radically different norms and values. An example would be the experience of a girl or boy leaving home to join the Scouts' Movement.

According to an article entitled "Sociology and you" by Glencoe online (2003) at <http://www.glencoe.com/sec/socialstudies/index/html> socialization is the cultural process of learning to participate in group life which begins at birth and continues throughout life, without which we would not develop many of the

characteristics we associate with being human. Socialization is also required if cultural and social values are to be learned.

According to Rogers (1999) at crogers@risc.usi.edu psychologists Harry and Margaret Harlow observed rhesus monkeys in 1962. The Harlow's placed the monkeys in complete isolation in order to see if isolation had any effects on the social skills of the monkeys. After six months it was found that the monkeys had sufficient developmental disturbances. Once the monkeys were placed with other monkeys again, they were anxious, fearful, and defenceless against aggression. The Harlow's used rhesus monkeys because their behaviour is surprisingly similar to that of human beings.

There are basically two types of adolescents who are in need of resocialization, viz. those who run with the wrong crowd and are influenced through negative peer pressure as well as those who are maladjusted socially through isolation from society and its positive effects on the adolescent.

Freud, quoted in Rogers (1999) at crogers@risc.usi.edu, stated that humans respond to two fundamental needs, or drives. First, humans have a basic need for bonding, which Freud termed the life instinct. Second, is an aggressive drive which he called the death instinct. Freud developed a three part model of personality which he termed id, ego, and superego. The id represents the human being's basic drives, which are unconscious and demand immediate satisfaction. The ego represents a person's conscious efforts to balance innate pleasure seeking drives with the demands of society. The superego is cultural values and norms internalized by the individual. The superego is a conscious drive, and it helps us grasp why we cannot have everything that we want.

According to Rogers (1999) Freud further posited that if the ego successfully manages the opposing forces of the id and superego, a well adjusted personality develops. If this conflict is not successfully resolved, personality disorders result. According to the non-authored website at <http://www.thedreamer.com/freud/> one of Freud's major contributions to Sociology is the notion that the experiences of childhood have lasting importance in the socialization process. Various agents influence the socialization of a person, namely the family, school, peer groups, and mass media. For adolescents, the peer group is the only agent of socialization not controlled primarily by adults.

Creating an adolescent-friendly environment

Adolescents universally appeal for empathy, warmth and love from parents and educators. Their existence derives meaning from being wanted instead of being tolerated. The indispensable ingredients for a stable personality development are love, acceptance, parental devotion and societal willingness to accept, nurture and educate the adolescent.

According to Bekker (1996:115) successful learning is based on the correct application of didactic principles. Learning thrives in an environment where the learner is perceived as being valuable, capable and worthwhile. When educators operate from this perspective, learners and educators will learn to respect each other, which lead to fewer disciplinary problems. Learners will further have a sense of direction and accept responsibility in the classroom, thereby creating an environment which is conducive to teaching and learning.

According to Joseph and Land (1999:319-335) secure relationships with parents promote independence among adolescents. While adolescents become more independent in many ways, their relationships with their parents do not diminish in importance. Studies show that:

- Securely attached adolescents are better able to balance concern for achieving their immediate goals with maintaining important relationships.
- Youth can more readily become independent when their relationships with their parents are close and stable, and they know they can turn to their parents in times of need.
- Both adolescents and their parents deal better with conflict when their attachment is secure. In secure relationships, discussions may sometimes be heated and intense but stay focused on resolving the conflict at hand.
- Insecure parent-teen dyads are more likely to avoid problem solving, the teens are less confident in their ability to negotiate, and there is more dysfunctional anger and use of pressuring tactics that undermine adolescents' independence.

According to Grandon at <http://www.dr-jane.com//famrel.htm> adolescents need a safe environment to which they can return. Adolescents are caught between independence and the need for continued dependence. Adolescents are like the toddler who hesitates between walking and holding onto mum who need to venture out in the world, test their wings, and then have a safe home for return. They are challenged to find a "happy medium" point of relying upon themselves, and relying upon support from those they love. Adolescents have a need for continued dependence.

The media often portrays today's teenagers as boisterous and aggressive, but there's a very sensitive person living inside that growing and changing self. According to Grandon at <http://www.dr-jane.com//famrel.htm> adolescents

desire to communicate with their parents in non-threatening ways. Adolescents retract from criticism and rejection. They constantly fight feelings of insecurity and inferiority and need encouragement. Adolescents have an innate desire for parental respect and confidence, but feel rejected when their feelings get hurt. Parents need to coax their children to communicate freely, honour their trust once it is established and create an environment that's conducive to positive adolescent growth.

Grandon at <http://www.dr-jane.com//famrel.htm> also states that adolescents are young adults who will eventually move into their independent lives. Parents find it difficult to let go, and hard to watch them falter and fail. Although parents can't always rescue them or prevent their pain, they can assure them of their ability to achieve and be happy. When parents display confidence towards their children, they learn to become confident in themselves.

Creating an individual- centred learning environment

Individualization as a didactic principle recognizes the fact that learners differ from each other. Success is therefore achieved as success is planned by the educator by catering for individual differences and presentation of the subject matter. According to Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1990:57), the failure to allow for individual differences among learners is the greatest singular source of inefficiency in education.

Individual teaching creates a milieu for the development of the unique talents and abilities of each learner. When the educator avoids lumping of learners by reaching each individual in the classroom, s/he creates confidence in the learners to learn and also allows him/her to bond with the learners (Duminy 1980:26)

Individualization encourages participation in the classroom. Gifted adolescents become bored through repetition of facts, while non-gifted adolescents require

repetition and constant revision of facts. Educators should therefore cater for both groups of learners by designing lessons according to the aptitude of the learners. By giving more attention to slow learners and by designing more challenging tasks for the gifted learner, learning will thrive (Duminy 1980:26).

Creating a motivational learning environment

According to John Gardner (2000) “no human venture succeeds without strongly motivated men and women...I look for high motivation more than any other than judgement.” It is motivation that activates human energy which is also a force that leads people to satisfy their needs.

The word motivation implies movement and is derived from the Latin word “movere”, meaning to move. Motivation can also be directed. According to Stembridge (1989:3) motivation is the process whereby the behaviour of an individual is energised, sustained, and directed in order to meet individual needs and achieve organizational objectives.

There are two types of motivation, namely, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation according to Tosi and Carroll (1982:388) refers to a person’s psychological internal drive state which causes the person to behave in a certain way. Motivation is considered intrinsic when humans perceive themselves to have control over environmental factors and over their own behaviour. Extrinsic motivation is motivation which comes from the outside of the individual which is mostly determined by external environmental factors. Human behaviour is motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The role of the educator is to pay attention to extrinsic factors in order to create an environment in which a learner’s intrinsic motivation may be released, and then to guide and sustain that motivation.

According to Stenbridge (1989:2) the educator is the vehicle through which the subject matter is presented and it is the educator's responsibility of integrating faith in learning. Stenbridge (1989:2) further posits that a motivated educator has the opportunity to significantly influence adolescents in developing a positive worldview. Only motivated people can motivate people. According to Phenix (1975) as cited in Stenbridge (1989:4) concerning the intrinsic force that motivates the educator, "What stands out for me personally is not what I or others regard as my success or failures but the gratitude I feel for the unparalleled privilege of participating in one of the most exhilarating activities of mankind – the social celebration of the meaning of human existence in all its majesty and mystery."

Eble (1978:87) states the essentiality of personal joy and pleasure being derived from the act of teaching, and the interpersonal communication of knowledge: "For academic men and women, that kind of self-realization does not come from merely meeting classes and producing articles, but from deriving from their work a deep pleasure for which the word joy is not only appropriate but clinically accurate." According to Stenbridge (1989:4) it can be assumed that the more motivated an educator is the more successful would s/he be in integrating faith in learning as s/he accepts the responsibility that comes with the calling of a committed educator in the pedagogical environment. Learning therefore thrives when both learners and educators are highly motivated.

Motivating adolescents to use intrapersonal communication

According to Steinberg (1999:4) intrapersonal communication entails communication with oneself. During intrapersonal communication, you are the only participant and the message usually involves your thoughts and feelings.

Intrapersonal communication occurs when an individual sends and receives messages internally i.e., communication which takes place within one person.

Intrapersonal communication forms the basis for all other forms of communication. Suppose one wants to engage in interpersonal communication with another. The person wanting to communicate will make an internal decision before initiating a conversation with another person. The words one uses and the approach one would use in communicating with another is already rehearsed within the individual before such communication takes place. The person wishing to communicate therefore thinks through the communication process before actually communicating with another. This is essentially the way that humans communicate internally, i.e. the way we mentally process information influences our interaction with others. Intrapersonal communication takes place subconsciously while people are engaged in all other forms of communication.

Successful interpersonal communication is therefore based on the utilization of intrapersonal skills. Because adolescence is regarded as the most crucial life stage in the human growth process, adolescents must be armed with the necessary tools to prepare them to overcome the many obstacles they would face, which I have already discussed in chapter 5 of this dissertation. The benefits of teaching intrapersonal skills to adolescents are manifold. Through intrapersonal communication, adolescents are able to make sense of their world by expressing and interpreting their own messages. Intrapersonal communication is an inner reasoning to resolve inner conflicts, to envisage alternative possibilities and to plan for everyday programs and contingencies.

According to Gardner (2000) at <http://www.ibiblio.org/edweb/edref.html> intrapersonal intelligence which is our cognitive ability to understand and sense our "self" allows us to tap into our being - who we are, what feelings we have, and why we are this way. Because adolescence is a time of stress and strain, a

strong intrapersonal intelligence results in high self-esteem, self enhancement and a strength of character that can be used to solve internal problems. A classic example of intrapersonal communication is found in The Holy Bible (Psalms 4:4) *“Be angry and do not sin. Meditate within your heart on your bed and be still.”* One understands that when one is in a fit of anger, one can commit many evil deeds as well as destroy relationships through improper communication. David states that when one is angry, one needs to communicate with one’s own “self” which will bring about a calming effect on oneself.

According to Edwards at <http://www.usm.maine.edu/~com/intrabook/part4~1html#Edwards> coping and change can be accomplished through intrapersonal communication. Adolescents are constantly struggling for survival amidst a maelstrom of economic, political and social pressure. According to Barker and Edwards (1980) coping and change can be accomplished through intrapersonal communication. Extensive research has been conducted related to the use of intrapersonal communication as a way of changing the self, changing behaviours, and coping. According to Cunningham (1989:82-83), the intrapersonal process includes problem solving activities, conflict resolution, imaging, feeling, introspection, and the evaluation of ourselves and others. Feelings or emotions impact how people react to situations.

According to Pearson (1999:12) intrapersonal communication achieves the following:

- Understanding and sharing meaning within the self;
- Evaluation of or examining the interaction that occurs between ourselves and others;
- Internal problem-solving;
- Resolving internal conflict;
- Planning for the future; and
- Evaluating ourselves and our relationships.

According to Weikle at <http://www.eric.ed.gov> another powerful intrapersonal tool that humans can utilize is self-talk which has far-reaching effects. Through harnessing the power of self-talk, humans will enjoy mental as well as physical well-being. Grainger (1989) cited by Weikle states that thoughts and self-talk are based on beliefs which are formed early in one's life. These beliefs are said to shape our self-talk which in turn affects our self-esteem.

Research conducted by medical and communication professionals has shown that self-talk has psychophysiological underpinnings. Thought patterns generated by self-talk affect health-states. Adolescents can begin to harness the power in their minds by taking an active role in deciding what to think, enhancing the positive messages they send themselves. It also involves being realistic, identifying the causes for any negativity, realizing it is a signal to act. By doing so, people can face challenges—health related or otherwise—with the knowledge they can succeed if they literally "put their minds to it." According to Weikle at <http://www.eric.ed.gov> positive self-talk has been linked to the reduction of stress. Less stress among adolescents in turn, can effect other positive health changes.

Teaching adolescents intrapersonal communication skills will therefore have a positive, holistic effect on adolescent development.

Embracing a constructivist paradigm to learning

You can teach a student a lesson for a day; but if you can teach him to learn by creating curiosity about life, he will continue the learning process as long as he lives. CP Bedford.

Malan (1997) concurs with Bedford that the current and ultimate aim of education is to produce life-long learners. Woolfolk (1995:366) states that the singular goal of teaching should be geared towards freeing learners from the need for teachers in order that they continue with independent learning throughout their lives.

According to Manganyi (2002:1) South Africa's education system is in the process of sweeping and widespread change, which involves not only the essential remodelling of an outdated system, but a paradigm shift, in the attitude we adopt to the entire educational process.

The conception of learning is a focal point of constructivism. Learning entails the building of conceptual structures. Concept development and understanding are focal points to knowledge construction. So it is not just the product, but rather the process that is of utmost importance to learning. Learning is a process of constructing meaningful representations and the making of sense or understanding our world and our experiences.

According to Klopper (2000:4) "Communication is a theory of learning grounded on the premise that human beings continuously and automatically construct knowledge of our interactions with other entities in our environment."

Constructivism is therefore a theory that proposes that normal people will learn or automatically construct knowledge of the interactions with his environment.

Constructivism advocates learning through student discovery, with the teacher as a guide. In a traditional classroom, a student usually memorizes and repeats, and the teacher is quite often viewed as a dictator. According to the non-authored website at kwardzal@mail.heidelberg.edu, in Constructivist learning the teacher acts as a guide, while students discover how things work on their own. The constructivist approach allows students to use their own minds to construct knowledge.

The perspective of experiential learning emanated from critics of traditional education processes among them Dewey (1922). The following quote from Dewey (in Hopkins 1994:4) sums up this critique: "The inert, stupid quality of current customs perverts learning into...conformity, constrictions, surrender of scepticism and experiment. ...Education becomes the art of taking advantage of the helplessness of the young". Dewey's aspirations as expressed by Hopkins (1994:7), was to see learning as a collaborative process (not overwhelmed by power) and to take seriously the experience of learners. According to the theorist Vygotsky (1978), as cited in Johnson and Johnson (2000:50), "learning from experience is the process whereby human development occurs".

Klopper (2000:4) states that there are various guiding principles of constructivism. They include the following:

- Learning is an exploration for giving meaning to our experiences. Learners are generally curious and often want to know about various issues and objects, always wanting to satisfy their ongoing curiosity by asking "Why?" It is therefore imperative for learning to start with issues around which learners are actively trying to construct meaning;

- Giving meaning to experiences requires that we understand the relationship between wholes and their parts. The learning process should therefore focus on primary concepts and interrelationships, not on isolated facts;
- Values, beliefs and emotional awareness form an integral part of mental models that people construct to represent their world, and their memories of past experiences;
- Good educators must understand the mental models and value systems that learners use to perceive the world and the assumptions they make to support those models; The purpose of learning is for an individual to construct her/his own meaning, not just to memorize the “right” answers and regurgitate someone else’s meaning; and
- Since education is inherently interdisciplinary, the only valuable way to measure learning is to make knowledge assessment part of the learning process, thereby ensuring that assessment provides learners with self-insight in the level that they have achieved. Assessments must be constructed such that it is a part of the learning process.

Constructivism involves active involvement in the teaching-learning act. According to Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooy (1990:57) teaching-learning activities leads to a positive effect by motivating adolescents to participate frequently and assign meaning to the learning tasks. Learners bring their own unique experiences of reality into the classroom. An educator, according to Hopkins (1994) who “does for” adolescents would be unhelpful as this does not engender a sense of mastery. Freire (1993:27) posits that people gain mastery or liberation through the praxis of their quest for it, by making the effort for it themselves. The body of knowledge that the educator shares with the learners enriches their

existing knowledge of reality. Jacobs and Gawe (1996:9) state that this kind of teaching allows for interaction in the classroom in the form of debates and critical discussions.

Constructivist learning links the learning tasks to the life-world of the learner. Existing knowledge in the mind of the adolescent fulfils an important role in the understanding of the new input of knowledge from the educator. An effective method of linking the learning tasks to the life-world of the adolescent is by using examples that the learner is familiar with from real life.

Vrey (1990:35) posits that learners will not be involved in issues which they are ignorant of or does not concern them. Learners will therefore attach no meaning to what is being taught by the educator if they see no correlation between it and what they already know.

Conclusion

In this chapter I gave an in-depth explanation as to how and why adolescents become demotivated regarding their achievements at school and in other skills related activities, and with regard to interpersonal relationships with their parents, other authority figures, their siblings and their peers.

I have also discussed the significant role that the various change agents such as parents, adults within extended families, educators, the peer group as well as religious leaders play in the remotivation of demotivated adolescents.

I also presented possible solutions that could be used by the various role players in the process of remotivation, such as embracing a Constructivist paradigm to learning and teaching, the creation of an adolescent-friendly environment, and the resocialization of adolescents.

In the next chapter, I will explore the experiential world of the adolescent.

Chapter 6

THE EXPERIENTIAL WORLD OF THE ADOLESCENT

Introduction

According to Vrey (1990:15) the life-world is the *Gestalt* or the incorporation of an individual's meaningful interacting relationships. Therefore, the life-world of the adolescent is an integration of all the meaningful relationships that s/he has. Griessel and Oberholzer (1994:14) state that the relationship between human beings and the world is a dialectic relationship, that is, a fruitful, ongoing dialogue between humans and the world. This fruitful ongoing dialogue between humans and the world comprises the dialogue between humans and other people, objects, systems, forces, self-norms and everything to which s/he had understandably attributed meaning. Van Den Aardweg and Van Den Aardweg (1988:14) state that each child is unique which makes the life-world of each child unique. This uniqueness in every person's life-world is influenced by the interaction between humans and the world. An adolescent, is therefore unique, and has a unique life-world that is affected by the interaction between him and the world.

Adolescence is filled with intellectual and emotional changes in addition to the major biological and physical changes. It is a time of discovery of self and one's relationship to the world around him or her. The narrative of Erikson (1950:17, 18), contained in Schaffer (1994:49) suggests that the most significant psychosocial crisis in the adolescent life-stage is grappling with the soul-searching question: "Who am I?" Erikson(1959:17,18) places emphasis on adolescence as a crucial period for the individual to discover and come to terms with his/her own identity which involves becoming aware of what s/he has become and what s/he can become.

According to Perkins at <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu> there are four basic abstract questions that adolescents begin to ask themselves:

- Who am I (pertaining to his or her sexuality and social roles)?
- Am I normal (do I fit in with a certain crowd)?
- Am I competent (am I good at something that is valued by peers and parents)?
- Am I lovable and loving (can someone besides mom and dad love me)?

Adolescence may also be viewed as a stage of accelerated development. These developments may be taking place one at a time or simultaneously.

Physical development

According to the non-authored website, at <http://www./youthstartswithyou.org.html>, the following physical changes are attributed to the adolescent stage of development:

- Physical changes have been accepted by most high school age adolescents, and most awkwardness has been overcome, although some boys are still growing quickly.
- Most females reach maximum height by age 14, most males by age 16.
- Males gain muscle cells, females gain fat cells. Both sexes continue to develop bone mass.
- Anorexia and bulimia may be a problem for some females.

- Most adolescents know their own abilities and talents. Athletic talent may be perfected during long hours of training, and new skills such as driving a car serve to move teens toward independence.
- Reach fastest reaction time.
- By age 16 growth tapers off; late adolescents are no longer preoccupied with body changes and body image, and perfect performance levels in sports.

Physical development and its effects on adolescents

According to Ambron (1981:470) humans grow fastest during the first six months of infancy and during adolescence. There is a tremendous increase in height and mass, with differences between the sexes. Louw, Gerdes and Myer (1985:347) state that females experience the growth spurt between the ages 10 and 11, while males experience growth between 11 and 12. Females' height increases by about 8.74cm per annum and their mass increases by 4.95kg. Males grow at a rate of 10 to 12.5 cm per annum and gain about 5.4 to 6.3 kg (Ambron 1981:470).

According to Lidz (1972:639) the transition from childhood to adolescence is initiated by the prepubertal spurt of growth. This rate of growth of the various parts of the body is uneven and causes adolescents to appear awkward. The increased growth is firstly noticeable in the bones which grow longer. Both sexes experience broadening of the hips as well as gaining more width of the shoulders. Females experience more broadening of the hips than males while males gain more width of the shoulders. Their head, hands and feet reach adult size first. Most males reach full height by age 21 while females reach theirs by about 17 (Louw, Gerdes and Myer 1985:347, Ambron 1981:470, Papalia and Olds 2001:486).

According to Engelbrecht (1982:84) adolescents have to leave behind the familiar life of childhood without being already established in adult life. The transition into adulthood causes the adolescent to feel tense, uncertain and insecure. Drastic physical changes often cause stress as the adolescent needs to cope with a new body image. The adolescent must also learn to come to terms with his/her body because s/he suddenly grows taller and becomes more sexually mature.

Adolescent physical changes also signal the beginning of sexual development. Sexual characteristics develop as adolescents become physically endowed to produce children. It is also a time when adolescents become curious about sex and the opposite sex as experienced through sexual daydreams and fantasies. According to McDowell and Hestler (1996:255), adolescence is characterized by the onset of puberty accompanied by various hormonal changes including understanding and coping with an awakening sexuality. They further develop a fascination with romantic and sexual matters which leads to sexual arousal. When these physiological urges get out of control they lead to undesirable behaviour.

Craig (1992:380) states that boys and girls experience different sexual desires. Boys tend to be aroused by thoughts, jokes or visual images. These desires are often not associated with feelings of love for a particular female. In females, sexual desires may be associated with feelings of love, romance and tenderness.

Accepting these changes is not an easy task on the part of adolescents, however, given the necessary support from adults and the teaching of values and goal setting will arm adolescents to react positively to these changes.

Affective development

Humans were created as affective beings. Although emotions differ from one person to another, all humans contain inherent emotions. According to Du Toit

and Kruger (1991:55) the development of an adolescent's affective life will determine whether s/he will become involved in the world or not. It also determines the quality or the meanings s/he allocates to relationships and things. As affective human beings, emotions play a crucial role in the way adolescents communicate with each other on a daily basis for their survival on the various communication networks, especially their peer group.

According to Klopper (2003), specific instances of communication can be ordered along a compliance gaining continuum that progress from *cooperation* to *competition* to *confrontation*.

An adolescent's self-image is determined by what others think of him/her. Self-image is also largely co - determined by the cooperation one gets from his/her peers. Adolescents are therefore constantly striving to be the leader of the pack and they want more social influence. No one wishes to be on the lower rung of the social ladder all the time. Adolescents also do not want to serve all the time, but desire to be served by their fellow circle of friends.

How do they therefore succeed in gaining the approval of their peer group? By competing with one another, adolescents strive to be at the top. Adolescents also compete for social influence because the amount of influence they have determines their status among their friends. They have various symbols of success. By playing in the first sports team they will be acknowledged greater than those who do not participate in sport. Females will want to associate with the strongest athlete or the captain of the rugby, cricket or soccer team. Males will compete for the prettiest girl in school, the most successful athlete, swimmer or hockey player. They will also desire to attend their school prom with the most successful female in terms of beauty, charisma and charm. Their ability to drive their father's car is also a definite boon to their approval. Females would rather "chill out" in a boyfriend's car than walk home with their boyfriend. Adolescents

also compete with each other in terms of who possesses the latest cellular phone, have the latest ringtones or have downloaded the most recent games.

Adolescents who cannot communicate and gain compliance through cooperation and competition would resort to confrontational behaviour. Much of the time adolescents would resort to confrontational behaviour as a result of low self esteem. Confrontation is a way of saying "I need attention and approval". Adolescents who fail to have their way would also resort to bullying tactics. According to the American Academy of Child and Family Psychiatry at <http://www.aacap.org/web/aacap/publications> adolescents who bully thrive on controlling or dominating others. Bullies have often been the victims of physical abuse or bullying themselves. They may also be depressed, angry or upset about events at school or at home. Children targeted by bullies also tend to fit a particular profile. Bullies often choose children who are passive, easily intimidated, or have few friends. Victims may also be smaller or younger, and have a harder time defending themselves. Adolescents who are bullied experience real anguish that can impede their social and emotional development, as well as their school performance. Some victims of bullying have even attempted suicide rather than continue to endure such harassment and punishment.

According to the non-authored website at <http://www.youthstarttswithyou.org/html> the following emotional changes are common to the adolescent life-stage:

- Actively involved in search for independence and personal identity, which are usually achieved around age 16.
- Achieving satisfactory adjustment to sexuality and defining career goals are important.

- Seeking emotional autonomy from parents.
- Learning to cooperate with each other as adults do.
- Learning to interact with the opposite sex may preoccupy middle adolescents.
- Unsettled emotions may cause teens to be stormy or withdrawn at times.
- Taking pride in responsibility and respect from others.
- Feeling they have reached the stage of full maturity and expect to be treated as adults.

Causes of emotional pressure

The reason why adolescents struggle in experiencing a healthy emotional life is their live-experiencing of tremendous emotional pressure.

During adolescence, the young person has to leave the familiar life of childhood behind without being already established in adult life according to Engelbrecht (1982:85). This leads to insecurity, uncertainty and a great deal of stress.

Drastic physical changes that adolescents experience lead them to become more self-conscious which leads to stress. Van Rensburg (1993:39) states that the adolescent is very aware of the physical changes taking place and s/he feels a mixture of amazement, pride, happiness, uncertainty, bashfulness and distaste. Boys are more inclined to worry about their height and physical strength. Girls are more concerned about their figures and features.

The adolescent also views his interpersonal relationships with his friends in a new light. During this period of development, adolescents will engage in

confrontational behaviour should their friends become engaged in unacceptable behaviours such as substance abuse, criminal activity and insubordination to authority figures. Their relationship with the opposite sex especially can make them feel worried and unsure of themselves.

Adolescents are involved in search for independence and personal identity, which are usually achieved around age 16. In order to become a self-reliant adult, the adolescent has to become gradually emotionally independent of his/her parents. Adolescent males have got to reorient themselves from hanging on to apron strings to the constantly contested world of male competitive behaviour. Quite often, this separation causes conflict between adolescents and their parents. Parents become agitated and feel less loved when their adolescent suddenly spends more time with peers than with them. Adolescents would rather choose to visit friends than spend the afternoon visiting relatives. According to the non-authored website at <http://www.aacap.org/web/aacap> effective parents raise well-adjusted children who are more self-reliant. This, according to Jung is the second phase of individuation connected to adolescence when the individual develops a sense of independence from their parents and personal identity.

The choice of a profession or a career can also cause stress and uncertainty in young people, especially in light of the high unemployment statistics and scarcity of work opportunities. This is a threat which quite often clouds an adolescent's future prospects. The prospect of leaving the sheltered environment of the school and home is a cause of consternation among adolescents. Fear of the future also holds many aspiring adolescents ransom.

Cognitive development

Cognitive abilities reach its peak during adolescence. According to Boshoff (1976:29) complete maturity can be attained and usually has been by the end of adolescence.

During adolescence, cognitive abilities increase quantitatively. Adolescents are able to perform tasks more easily, rapidly and effectively. Cognitive abilities also increase qualitatively. Adolescents are able to approach problems with more insight and in an abstract way. According to Piaget, as reported in Louw (1990:418), this stage is recognized as the formal operations stage. They also begin to wonder about religious beliefs such as the existence of God, scientific subjects such as aeronautics, as well as moral and social issues such as the legalization of abortion and euthanasia.

The following, according to Louw and Edwards (1993:564) are the most important characteristics of the formal operations stage:

- This stage is characterized by the ability to think abstractly (to think about things that are not concrete);
- Adolescents are able to test hypotheses (suppositions) that they make;
- They are able to think systematically and scientifically (have the ability to problem solve);
- Adolescents have the ability to concentrate on the possible instead of the actual; and
- There is a great improvement in the processing of information and storing it.

The influence of cognitive ability on the adolescent's general development

Cognitive development enables the adolescent to meet the demands that school imposes on him/her. According to Louw (1990:422) cognitive development is also vital for the following phases of the adolescent's general development:

- The parent-child relationship;
- The Social, Political and Religious Belief Systems of Adolescents;
- Adolescent idealism;
- Egocentrism; and
- Increasing introspection.

The parent-child relationship

Crittenden (1995:367) posits that adolescence is a period of dramatic change in attachment relationships. Adolescents have a strong desire to be independent and to use their own discretion and this causes conflict between them and their parents. A common phenomenon during this life-stage is that children begin to challenge parental status and, in the school years, they begin to seek alternate attachment figures that are similar to themselves in status.

According to Schirtzinger (2004) <http://www.helpyourselftherapy.com/main> adolescents are trying to prove to themselves that they don't need anyone. This is a natural process and if parents interfere they will experience great problems. If parents convince them that they do need them, they may never grow up and never experience success. If they abandon them emotionally, they may not even survive. According to Crittenden (1995:367) such protective attachment figures are needed throughout the adolescent's life-span.

Adolescents also begin to question their parents' decisions and often compare their values and beliefs with those of their peer's parents. They also come to an understanding that their parent's values do not correspond to their actual behaviour and often view them as hypocrites. They may become rebellious when

they realize that their parents, family and society have deviated from the norms they have established.

Not all adolescents live-experiences their relationship with their parents as negative. Many experience their parents as pillars of strength in a stormy and uncertain phase of life.

The social, political and religious belief systems of adolescents

The adolescent's ability to think abstractly and their awareness of what is (in reality), and what could be (hypothetically or ideally), cause them to be critical of existing social, political and religious systems. According to Wormeli (2004) at <http://www.omlea.org/> adolescents move from concrete to abstract thinking and from absurdity to rationality, and back again. They discuss the pros and cons of existing systems and embrace alternative systems. These apparently endless arguments are positive because they allow them to investigate certain ideas, values and ideals before they adopt them as their own.

Adolescent idealism

Idealism is the existence of ideas apart from external objects. The adolescent's ability to question values, norms, beliefs, roles, social and political systems means that they look for ideal ways to end human suffering, poverty, social problems, etc. This may cause the adolescent to lose sight of reality and suggest utopian solutions for the world's problems. All of this goes to prove that adolescents are starting to develop their own, unselfish conscience towards the world.

Egocentrism

Adolescents are too busy with their own thoughts that they do not always distinguish between what they think and what other people think. They believe that other people are just as aware as they are of their appearance and behaviour. This explains the adolescent's desire to conform to the norms of the peer group.

Egocentricity usually decreases from about the age of sixteen, when they become less self-centred and start to accept adult roles and responsibilities.

Increasing introspection

As a result of the above egocentricity, adolescents become increasingly aware of themselves. They are continually busy forming an image of themselves, which they like to compare with the image that they think others have of them. As a result, this activity is an important co-determinant in the adolescent's self-image. The self-image is mainly determined by the adolescent's view of:

- How they see themselves (introspection);
- How they think others see them (intuitive); and
- How they would like to be (affective cognition).

For a self-image to be positive, the adolescent must accept him/herself as s/he is. At this stage, this is the most natural action that occurs involuntarily. Adolescents do not only compare themselves with others, but they also compare themselves with the norms of the peer group and society. This can lead to fluctuations in their state of mind, varying from frustration, depression and feelings of extreme dissatisfaction to joy and happiness.

The ethical-normative development of the adolescent

A conscience or the ability to distinguish between right and wrong is not present at birth. The child, however, has the ability to judge morally, ethically and religiously according to Engelbrecht (1982:167). Moral decision-making means firstly the ability to choose between right and wrong, between good and evil and proper and improper. It also includes taking responsibility for the choices made as well as accepting the consequences for wrong choices. It is initially the family and society that sets the parameters for acceptable and non-acceptable behaviour

and for the establishing of the moral code that guides behaviour. The school inculcates these norms further in its interaction with the child. Parents and teachers are initially involved in nurturing the child and reprimanding him/her when s/he behaves incorrectly. According to Du Toit and Kruger (1991:65) the child should, with time become self-sufficient and reach moral independence and responsibility.

The conative development of the adolescent

The conative aspect of an adolescent's life refers to his/her will to become active. Kruger and Verreynne (1991:32) state that the will is an internal drive to become consciously active. It furthermore refers to striving, wishing, desiring and longing to do something. Du Toit and Kruger (1991:56) posit that there are three steps which are distinguishable in the course of an act of will:

- Striving (aspiration)
- Choice
- Decision

In the striving stage, the adolescent is completely directed towards the satisfying of his/her needs. Du Toit and Kruger (1991:57) state that the focus is on the secondary aspirations such as acceptance, love, and security. Adolescents aspire towards the following:

- Desire for success at school;
- Desire for self-respect;
- Desire for status, recognition and approval;

- Desire for knowledge and understanding; and
- Desire for self-esteem.

Adolescents are unable to aspire towards their goals simultaneously. They have to make choices. There are good and bad choices that are presented before adolescents on a daily basis. An example of this is where adolescents are brought up with high moral standards and are tempted by the peer group to go against the grain. The young person has to decide whether s/he wants to please his/her friends or uphold his/her own moral standards which s/he has acquired during the process of socialization.

Decision affects destiny. The decision the adolescent makes will eventually decide the outcome of his/her life. Once the adolescent has mastered the art of decision-making, s/he will be able to overcome every obstacle in the path to adulthood.

The development of the adolescent's self-image

Adolescence is the age of the final establishment of a dominant positive ego identity. It is then that a future within reach becomes part of the conscious life plan. (Erikson 1963:306)

According to Studd (1989:3) adolescents must be helped to answer the question "Who am I?" He further posits that the higher a person's self-esteem, the more positive his /her self-concept and the more ready s/he will be for transitions in life.

Purkey and Novak (1984:26) define self-concept as a set of attitudes towards oneself. Citing Hamachek, Gerdes *et al* (1988:77) state that our self-esteem refers quite literally to the extent to which we admire or value the self. The attitude one has of oneself is the basic motive behind all human behaviour. Adolescence is a life stage characterized by comparison and doubt. Teens constantly evaluate their

physical appearance, intelligence, popularity, and stylishness and wonder if they are "good enough."

According to Erikson (1968) at <http://www.childdevelopmentinfo.com/index.html> the socialization process consists of eight phases - the "eight stages of man." Each stage is regarded by Erikson as a "psychosocial crisis," which arises and demands resolution before the next stage can be satisfactorily negotiated. In stage five of Erikson's model, human development involves the adolescent developing as a person of faithfulness and fidelity. During this period the adolescent experiences considerable physiological, emotional and cognitive change and development. With so much transformation taking place the adolescent finds it difficult to recognize who they are, an experience termed an identity crisis. Adolescents experience confusion, uncertainty and awkwardness about the meaning and purpose of their life, and their place and role in the world around them. Prior to stage five, the individual developed in response to the indicators and motivations present in their immediate external environment. The movement towards stage five characterizes the emergence of self-determination in the process of human growth and development. The individual, while responsive to those around them is also involved in defining and developing their own expression and image of who they are. The struggle for identity within the adolescent often presents itself in a series of conflicting polarities which the individual is required to negotiate and resolve. These include independence verses dependence, individuality verses conformity and compliance verses self determination. Significantly also, this stage marks a movement away from a reliance on the affirmation and guidance of the primary caregivers such as parents and educators towards that of the peer group.

Adolescence is regarded as the life stage where the greatest degree of identity development takes place. According to Louw (1990:459) "identity" refers to the

person's awareness of him/herself as a unique, independent being with a definite position in society.

Louw (1990:459) states that the formation of an identity entails the following:

- Forming an integrated, total self-image;
- Forming a social and cultural identity;
- Further forming and development of gender role identity; and
- Forming a professional identity.

It would seem reasonable that much thought would be given to how to use this critical period to reinforce the positive self-image so important for growth. Various researchers and scholars have marked adolescence as a critical period, if not the most critical period in human development--the fork in the road which forever shapes an individual's--and mankind's--destiny. Indeed, social scientists argue that our societies ultimately mirror the results of the adolescent development process.

The self-concept theory

The American Heritage Dictionary (2000) defines self-image as the conception one has of oneself, including an assessment of qualities and personal worth. According to Burns (1979) in Gerdes *et al* (1988:77) the self-concept is defined as a composite image of what we think we are, what we think we can achieve, what we think others think of us and what we would like to be. Cilliers and Olivier (2004:37) define self-concept as the sum of our impressions about us. The following is a diagrammatic representation of self- concept (or self-image).

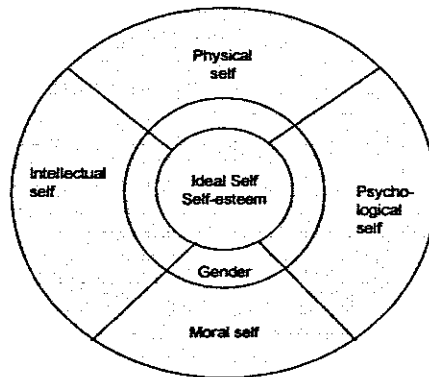


Figure 6: Aspects of the self- concept (Gerdes, 1988)

The aspects classified in the above figure are produced or influenced within the framework of our social relationships (Michener and DeLamater 1999:78). The components of self-concept are mainly social, obtained through interactions with people, places, policies and other important situations. In this regard, the abovementioned authors refer to self as both the source and the object of reflexive behaviour. Citing the work of Mead (1934), Michener and DeLamater (1999:76) state that it is helpful when one thinks of the self as a continuing process as follows:

- The “I” being the active aspect that initiate reflexive behaviour; and
- The “Me” representing the passive object toward which reflexive behaviour is directed.

Quoting Marcus and Wurf (1987), Michener and DeLamater (1999:76) assert it is through these alternating phases of self that we plan, act, monitor our actions and evaluate outcomes. Craig (1996:190) refers to the self-concept as an integrator, a

filter, and a mediator for much of human behaviour. Michener and DeLamater (1999:76) posit that three capacities must be attained by human beings in order to engage successfully in action. They must:

- Develop an ability to make a distinction between themselves and their own actions as if through other persons;
- Learn to perceive themselves and their own actions as if through others' eyes; and
- Learn to use a symbol system or language for inner thought (the process of self-awareness).

According to Levine (2002:14) every individual on earth has the basic needs of approval, acceptance and a sense of belonging. Craig (1996:314) defines self-esteem (also termed self-worth) as the evaluative component of the self-concept and as cited by Hamachek (1978) in Gerdes *et al* (1988:80) refers quite literally to the extent to which we value or view ourselves. Accordingly, the authors suggest that this is related to our sense of worth. The notion of self-concept is sociologically important because it calls attention to the fact that what we think of ourselves often determines how we behave. Levine (2002:4) states that when the needs of approval, acceptance, and a sense of belonging are unmet in the lives of adolescents, they suffer a battering of their self-esteem. Gerdes *et al* (1988:19) suggest that self-concept and identity are influenced by more external factors such as roles, relationships, social norms and expectations, which extend over a life-time.

Michener and DeLamater (1999:93) posit that our overall self-esteem is dependent on how we evaluate our specific role identities and personal qualities. Lefrançois (1993:340) emphasizes two theoretical approaches to explaining self-

esteem namely, the *discrepancy theory* of James (1892) and the *looking glass theory* of Cooley (1902). Their principal contribution was an examination of the self-concept, how one sees and evaluates one's self.

- *Discrepancy theory*: refers to what I would like to be versus what I think I am.
- *Looking glass theory*: integrates what I think important (significant) others think of me.

Cooley (1902) coined the phrase *looking-glass self* to refer to the origins and nature of self-concepts. He believed that there is a "looking-glass self" that develops out of our relationships and interactions with others. The looking-glass self, he asserted, has three elements: (1) our imagination or image of how we appear or present ourselves to another; (2) an imagination or image of the other's judgment of that appearance or presentation; and (3) some self-feeling about that judgment, such as pride or shame that another sees us in that way. Therefore, we accumulate a set of beliefs and evaluations about ourselves, who and what we are and what that means in our society. Self-concept therefore develops out of the feedback you receive from people around you. According to Cooley, this is the individual's self-concept.

According to Tubbs and Moss (2000:38) self-esteem is one of the chief measures of self-concept. Individuals therefore primarily evaluate themselves on the basis of how others perceive and evaluate you. Tubbs and Moss (2000:39) state that such a view gives great weight to an adolescent's experiences.

Expanding on the theories above, Michener and DeLamater (1999:93-95) lay claim to three major sources of self-esteem, namely family experience, performance feedback and social comparisons.

➤ **Family experience:** Referring to an extensive study by Coopersmith (1967), Michener and DeLamater (1999:93) state four types of parental behaviour that promote higher self-esteem:

1. Demonstrate acceptance, affection, interest, and involvement in children's affairs;
2. Firmly and consistently enforcing clear limits on children's affairs;
3. Allowing children latitude within these limits and respecting initiative; and
4. Favouring non-coercive forms of discipline.

The findings of Felson and Zielinski (1989), quoted in Michener and DeLamater (1999:94) suggests that self-esteem is produced by the reciprocal influence of parents and their children on each other. The researchers noted the following:

1. Children with higher self-esteem exhibit more self-confidence, competence and self-control;
2. Such children are probably easier to love, accept, reason with, and trust;
3. Consequently, such children are more likely to elicit responses from their parents that further promote self-esteem.

➤ **Performance feedback:** According to Bandura (1982) in Michener and DeLamater (1999:94) self-esteem is seen to derive from experiencing ourselves as causal agents who make things happen in the world, who attain goals and overcome obstacles – a sense of competence, power to control events, and self-efficacy.

- **Social comparison:** Michener and DeLamater (1999:94) uphold that interpreting performances as success or failure is largely dependent on social comparison. Our comparisons by ourselves and by others, is vital to self-esteem. By virtue of their particular life-stage, adolescents are particularly exposed to the influence of social comparison.

The role of significant others in the development of self-concept

According to Parnell (1997:5, 6) the way you see yourself is largely influenced by the people around you and the way you comprehend their behaviour towards you. Self-concept is not inborn, but is acquired through interaction with self and significant others (people of importance to the self) such as parents, siblings, educators, pastors and the peer group.

The role of parents

The presence of respected adult role models who maintain positive channels of communication are extremely important to developing adolescents. This is where parents play a crucial role in the formation of their children's self-image. According to DeFrain (2002:1) research conducted in the United States and around the world has found that strong families have a wide variety of qualities that contribute to the family members' sense of personal worth and feelings of satisfaction in their relationships with each other.

According to Grandon at <http://www.dr-jane.com//famrel.htm> adolescents desire to communicate with their parents in non-threatening ways. Adolescents retract from criticism and rejection. They constantly fight feelings of insecurity and inferiority and need encouragement. Adolescents have an innate desire for parental respect and confidence, but feel rejected when their feelings get hurt. Parents need to coax their children to communicate freely, honour their trust once it is established and create an environment that's conducive to positive adolescent growth.

Liebert *et al* (1986:304) state that adolescents are constantly striving for independence, self-reliance and autonomy. At this stage of their children's development, parents may experience difficulty accepting the truth that their children are becoming young adults. Adolescence is also marked by role confusion. According to Lewin (1939) as cited by Hindley (1994:31) adolescents play two different roles at any given time and may also switch roles without a moment's notice. During this life-stage adolescents display the childhood role of an ultimate dependency on parents and the adult role of independence. Internally, the adolescent may experience difficult contradictions between childish wishes to be helped and act irresponsibly, and adult wishes to be responsible, to be his own boss. Parents therefore are faced with a mammoth task of understanding their adolescent children.

The role of educators

According to Lippitt and Gold (1959) as cited by Germain (1991:293) the pupil's location in the social structure of the classroom influences his/her status, learning, emotional well-being, motivation, and ability to participate in classroom activities. Learners see themselves in the way in which the educator perceives them. According to Germain (1991:293) adolescents who are highly liked by the educator or being perceived as expert in valued activities leads to social power in the classroom. Adolescents' self-concept is enhanced when the educator treats them as being able, valuable, and responsible. By handling learners in such a way that they feel respected, and that educators expect a lot from them makes them feel positive about themselves. A learner's self-concept is destroyed if an educator views him/her as irresponsible, unable and worthless.

According to Purkey and Novak (1984:28) the development of the learner's positive self-concept is dependent on the personal and professional qualities of the educator and the way s/he presents the subject matter. Teachers and other

school staff, therefore, are primary sources through which they make judgments about themselves as learners and about their potential to be successful in educational environments. In addition, because many at-risk students come from dysfunctional home environments, educators may well be the only competent and caring adults with whom they have regular contact who can bolster their self-worth.

The self-worth theory assumes that a central part of all classroom achievement is the need for students to protect their sense of worth or personal value (Covington 1992:5). The basic assumption of this theory is that several factors influence a student's sense of worth, including performance level, self-estimates of ability, and the degree of effort expended. According to Bandura (1990:315) in Covington (1992) success can be attributed to one's sense of competence and self-image.

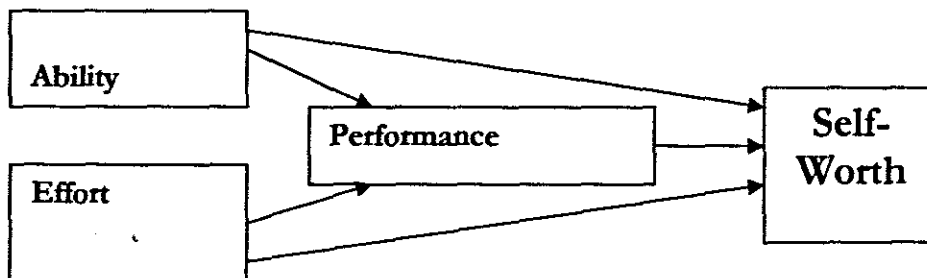


Figure 7: Factors influencing a student's sense of worth (Covington, 1992)

An educator who praises the adolescent when s/he has done well will help him/her to regard him/herself as adequate. The educator should also have a positive attitude towards the learner's failures so that the learner does not view him/herself as a failure or possess a failure mentality. (Vrey 1990:61) If a child's constant experience is difficulty or failure of set tasks they will develop low self-esteem and a reticence to begin or take on new tasks. A simple example is of the child who experiences difficulty reading. If they are not given additional support

and constantly affirmed for the efforts they are making they very quickly begin to develop a dislike for reading, a sense of failure and a lower self-image. Affirmation for effort becomes as important, if not more so, than affirmation of success.

According to Vrey (1990:261) success provides the adolescent with additional motivation. As the adolescent experiences success, a sense of confidence and efficacy is built. This sense of adequacy motivates the learner to learn and explore in order to make sense of the world around him/her. Adequacy in turn enhances self-esteem thereby helping the learner to develop a positive self-concept.

Self-concept provides adolescents with a sense of expectation. If the educator views the adolescent as being able, valuable, and worthwhile and allows them to participate in the teaching-learning activities, they will be motivated to learn and are likely to do better than they had expected. This means that low expectations on the part of the educator will result in low performance, whereas positive expectations would lead to good performance (Purkey and Novak 1984:24).

The role of the peer group

Peers are individuals who are about the same age and who share our social position and interests. According to Hoberg (1993:162) research has proved the importance and significance of the peer group in the adolescent's ultimate self-actualization. For the adolescent the relationship with learners of their own age group is important for the forming of their self-concept. Barnard (1994:23) states that acceptance by the peer group provides the adolescent with support in the knowledge that s/he is not alone.

According to Schutz (1966) the need for inclusion is the need to be recognized as an individual distinct from others. The need for inclusion is the inner drive "to

establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with people with respect to interaction and association.” It has to do with being in or out. They are also anxious about being excluded or ignored, and this fear of being left out creates tension in the adolescent.

Self-image is co-determined by what adolescents experience in the environment and how they assess themselves to other adolescents. Self-image is also determined by how other adolescents relate to them as well as their acceptance by others. Robbins (1991:201) states that the need for affiliation is the desire for friendly and close interpersonal friendships. According to Germain (1991:294) children who do not make friends will be unhappy and distressed while children who forge friendships will be happy. Their status at school is to a large extent dependent on how their peers behave towards them. It is important for adolescents to feel a sense of acceptance, belonging, or group togetherness. Adolescents with a high need for inclusion need recognition and attention from those around them. There are those who thrive being in the spotlight and do not wish to be ignored and will do anything to attract the attention of the peer group even if it results in punishment. In terms of self-concept, they need to feel significant within the group. Hence, exclusion from any particular group and a sense of rejection can lead to a state of negative self-image.

Conclusion

In this chapter I discussed the experiential world of the adolescent. Adolescence is regarded as a life-stage of accelerated development, of which physical development takes centre-stage in the life of the adolescent. Physical development determines the adolescent's self-concept, for it is during this phase that they ask the question “Am I acceptable?” because they have to cope with a new body image. Affective (emotional) development deals with the emotional life and changes which adolescents go through. This begins with gaining

independence from parents as attachment figures and embracing the peer group as their support base which causes conflicts between parents and adolescents. This life-stage is characterized by tremendous emotional pressure. The cognitive development of the adolescent lies in the domain of the formal operations stage which is characterized by abstract thinking, testing hypotheses, systematic and scientific thinking as well as the storage and processing of information. The ethical-normative development of the adolescent deals with their ability to distinguish between right and wrong (volition), and their development into moral human beings. The conative development deals with the wills of adolescents becoming active which is marked by striving, wishing, desiring and longing to do certain things.

Finally, I have dealt at length with the development of the adolescent's self-image or set of attitudes towards themselves which is the most critical period in human development regarded by most people as the "chaotic" moment. Adolescence is a life-stage characterized by comparison and doubt whereby they determine whether they are good enough - popular, intelligent, stylish or physically attractive. Self-esteem is the evaluative component of the self-concept and literally refers to the extent to which we value or view ourselves.

In the next chapter I will venture into the life-world of the adolescent within the South African context as it relates to the process of intercultural communication.

Chapter 7

BEING AN ADOLESCENT IN PRESENT DAY SOUTH AFRICA

Preview

In this chapter I will deal with the challenges of being an adolescent in present day South Africa, especially as it relates to intercultural communication. I will define intercultural communication and discuss the various difficulties that adolescents face with regards to communicating across the cultural divide. I will also provide various solutions which can be used by parents, educators, pastors, significant others' and adolescents, in this all important area of communication.

The National Youth Policy (2000:5) states that adolescents constitute a significant percentage of South African citizenry. This, according to the CASE report (1996), estimates that 39% of the total population of South Africa is aged between 14 and 35 years. According to statistics provided by Dickson-Tetteh and Ladha (2000:2), there are currently approximately 18 million people under the age of 20, which makes up 44% of the total population residing in South Africa. The Youth Risk Behaviour Survey (2002:14) states that children and adolescents below the age of 19 accounts for half of South Africa's population.

The Youth Risk Behaviour Survey (2002:14) further states that South African adolescents who have had a history of marginalization are experiencing a transition in their political, social and economic environment as the country diverges from being an authoritarian to a democratic state. South African adolescents can therefore be viewed as a growing sector of our country that is expected to make a significant contribution on the various socialization networks. According to McWhirter *et al* (1993:3) society is dependent on our ability to produce well-adjusted, responsible, well-educated young people to take over as

the older generation passes. In an inaugural speech presented by the former State President, Dr. Nelson Mandela (1994) he made reference to the youth of our generation as “the valued possession of the nation.”

Adolescents in contemporary South Africa face many obstacles that can have a positive or negative impact on their ability to deal with the all important transition from childhood to adulthood. The National Youth Policy (2000:5) states a number of these challenges, such as poor housing conditions; limited and racially - based access to quality education and training; limited employment opportunities; high levels of crime and violence and a general disintegration of social networks and communities. McWhirter *et al* (1993:22) posit that children and adolescents face the challenge of growing into mature, responsible and healthy adults amidst a maelstrom of economic, political and social change.

Peer group intercultural communication

One of the greatest challenges facing the youth, adolescents, and general population in our rainbow nation is that of effective communication across the cultural divide. Intercultural communication is communication among people of different cultures. According to Tarr (1999: 7) it is only through successful intercultural communication that mankind and society survives. Samovar and Porter cited in Tubbs and Moss (2000:8) states “Whenever the parties to a communication act bring with them different experiential backgrounds that reflect a longstanding deposit of group experience, knowledge, and values we have intercultural communication.” Intercultural communication can occur in any given interpersonal context.

South Africa is a multicultural country where adolescents are mixing on various socialization networks such as the school, home, church and other settings. It must be understood that human communication between members of the same

race, community, and even the same family, is very difficult. Communication between the cultures demands greater attention and effort.

One can clearly see that the social dynamics of post-apartheid South Africa has led to an emerging generation gap between adolescents and their parents, whose life views, values and beliefs were forged in the furnaces of apartheid South Africa, while their children's life views, values and beliefs are being formed in the more benevolent atmosphere of a democratic South Africa.

Cultural diversity challenges in South Africa

According to Hofmeyer *et al* (1994:190-208) in a period of rapid changes, the polarization of relationships largely depends on racial lines. Maylan (1986) states that Western and non-Western people and cultures have for a long time lived in South Africa, but separated ethnic development has led to a cultural patchwork rather than melting pot. Richmond and Gestrin, (1998, 1995) estimates the South African population exceeding 41.2 million people. More than 75% are Blacks, about 12% are Whites, 9% Coloureds and 3% Indians. The Black population is further diversified by being divided into nine major different ethnic groups with distinct communities, cultural practices and languages. These are made up as follows: the Zulu (majority), the Xhosa, the South Sotho and North Sotho, the Tswana, the Venda, the Ndebele, the Swazi and the Tsonga. Among the Whites' group are Afrikaans people (descendants of the original settlers, the Dutch Calvinist Boers – or farmers), British origin people, and lots of other people of European origin (Italians, Portuguese, Germans, French...).

Communication barriers to intercultural communication in South Africa

As South Africa becomes a more diverse nation, more and more adolescents are going to school with peers of different races and ethnicities of their own. In light of the changing demographics of South Africa, I would like to present an

overview of the ways in which cultural differences can influence adolescents' behaviour, communication, and attitudes towards each other.

Barriers to reception, barriers to understanding and barriers to acceptance

According to Mersham & Skinner (2002:64) the communication process may be thwarted by various barriers such as barriers to reception, barriers to understanding, and barriers to acceptance.

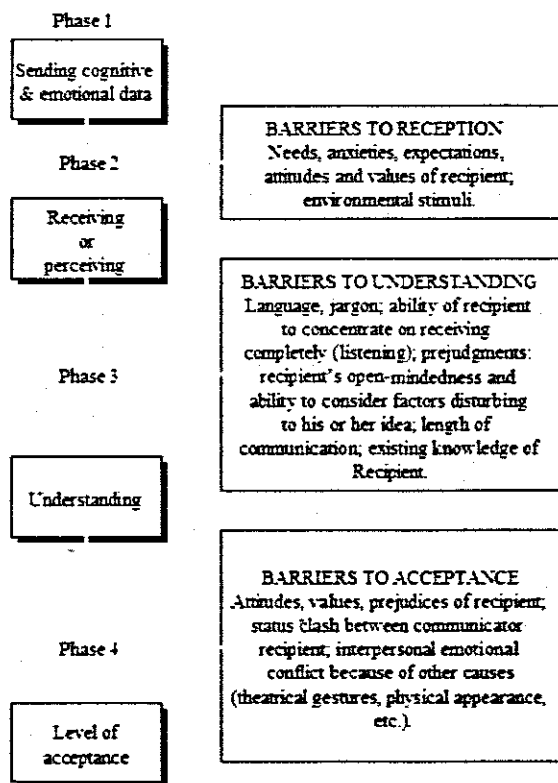


Fig. 8: Barriers to reception, understanding and acceptance, from Mersham & Skinner (1999:64)

There are many things taken into consideration when one wants to communicate with another person called the respondent. Demography, gender, age, ethnicity, environmental stimuli and culture are some of the aspects that may be barriers to successful communication. One would take into consideration whether the respondent is male or female, older or younger than you, speaks a different language than yours, the surroundings, etc. These pieces of information swirling in the mind of the communicator are referred to as the process of encoding and may hinder the reception of the message. A common factor present in all forms of cross cultural communication is anxiety. The sender is concerned whether the message will be received or rejected.

The meaning of the message depends on the recipient's interpretation of the message and does not depend on the communicator's conveyance of the message. According to Ross's Transactional Communication Model (1974:58) the mind understands ideas from past experiences, i.e. what has been stored in it through past learning, experiences, attitudes, feelings and deep cultural values. When a message is composed by the sender, s/he sorts through all the stored information and selects what is important for the respondent. Adolescents who have had an upbringing during the apartheid era will have great difficulty in integrating their past learning concerning intercultural communication with that which is currently being propagated in our schools through subjects such as Arts and Culture and Life Orientation. Children who were born in the post - apartheid era are generally colour blind and would therefore not be as severely affected as their pre - apartheid counterparts.

Decoding is a similar process to encoding, but is also opposite to or the reverse of each other. Encoding helps the source to prepare to send a message out while decoding helps the respondent understand the message which he feeds back to

the sender. According to Tarr (1999:19) decoding the words in a message makes the message meaningful to the respondent. Decoding the message on the part of the respondent is also dependent on his own set of past learning, prejudices, experiences, and values. The intention to communicate begins with the encoding of a message by the source, but it will not succeed in communicating until after the respondent has decoded the message. When a message is sent the perceiver may not receive it as it was intended as the barriers to reception (needs, anxieties, expectations, attitudes and values of the recipient together with the environmental stimuli) play a part in the encoding and decoding of the message.

Tarr (1999:20) citing Hesselgrave (1978:29) states that "intentional communication is a process involving a conscious selecting of information from the mind's storage slots for sending symbols. It is done in such a way as to help another person find from his own stored information and experience a meaning similar to that intended by the sender." According to Tubbs and Moss (2000:24) primary failures in communication occur when the content of the message is not accurately understood. Secondary failures are disturbances in human relationships that result from misunderstandings which stem from frustrations, anger and confusion caused by the initial failure to understand. This polarizes the communicators.

Ethnic stereotyping among adolescents

According to Kleinpenning (1993) and Tajfel (1978, 1981) as cited by Moodley (2001:27) ethnic stereotyping is the result of a categorization process in which people from a specific social category (in-group) emphasize the differences between people from other categories (out-group) and highlight the similarities between people from the same category.

As a result of this categorization schisms exist between the various races that have subsequently polarized the youth of today. The fiery schisms that exist in

society are fanned by various prejudices that exist between the various cultures. During the apartheid era (1949-1993) which spanned a total of 45 years, the Black majorities as well as the Asian and Coloured minority were disenfranchised by apartheid laws. The implementation of the Separate Amenities Act and Group Areas Act were intended to segregate the various races and cultures. They were separated along the lines of ethnic, cultural and language differences. During this time, various races were branded as “coolies”, “kaffirs”, etc. and according to Moodley (2001:15) are still being used by adolescents and educators today to refer to the various non-white races at schools in South Africa. People of colour were sidelined into believing that they were inferior to their White counterparts. Those who felt superior by virtue of the colour of their skin began to stereotype the other racial groups by referring to them in derogatory terms. According to Moodley (2001:23) stereotypes are a fundamental element of discrimination and discriminatory attitudes towards other groups.

Racial discrimination and negative stereotyping is fuelled by prejudice. Citing Allport (1979: 6), Moodley (2001:44) defines prejudice as a negative (unipolar) component as in “thinking ill of others without sufficient warrant”; or including negative and positive (bipolar) components as in “feeling unfavourable or favourable towards a person or thing not based on actual experience”. Examples of stereotypes are “Indians are always class conscious”; “Coloureds only live for the day”; “Whites have a superior intelligence compared to the other races”; etc. These prejudices are based on previous experiences and decisions which includes an attitude element and a belief element. The attitude may be either positive or negative and is connected to an over generalized or mistaken belief.

According to Ponterotto and Pedersen (1993: 11) in Moodley (2001:44) prejudice encompasses three important aspects:

- It is negative and can be group or individually focused;

- It is based on unsubstantial or false information; and
- It is rooted in an inflexible generalization.

The effects of ethnic stereotyping among adolescents

Stereotyping can have negative consequences, especially during adolescence when individuals are trying to fit in and discover who they are. Being stereotyped could cause an individual to question who they are and what they believe. When a person is stereotyped they possess or are believed to possess characteristics or qualities that typify a particular group.

In a sample taken by Fisher *et al* (2000:694) Blacks believed that racial biases made people perceive them as not being smart or be dangerous which led to negative encounters with police and others in positions of authority. In culturally diverse schools, racial discrimination was also responsible for poor treatment at cafeterias, libraries and other public places.

According to Guers at <http://inside.bard.edu/academic.specialproj/bullying> minority students at mixed schools were discouraged from joining advanced level classes than their white counterparts because they were perceived as being unintelligent and also for wrongly being disciplined in school because of their race. Seniors in high school reported receiving more discriminatory distress than the junior learners in ninth, tenth, and eleventh grade.

Further results from Fisher *et al* sample (2000:695) revealed that Black adolescents and youth from other minority groups felt that they were threatened because of their race and it was also reported that they had the highest levels of distress. Others felt people discriminated against because their command of the English language was poor. My results show that 50% (210) of the learners surveyed spoke either IsiZulu or IsiXhosa as a home language. English is

therefore regarded as a second language to many learners at South African schools and does have a negative influence on their performance.

Stereotyping also affects the levels of self-esteem among adolescents. According to Bernstein (2001:84) this can further lead to depressive mind states, low self esteem, feelings of isolation, alienation and rejection. These lower levels of self-esteem are associated with higher levels of distress.

Adolescents get teased for having qualities that are looked at as negative in or outside their group. This could cause a decrease in status within group and/or humility. This creates anger in adolescents and pent up anger could eventually lead to bouts of violence. These actions could further lead to reactions placing the adolescent at further risk such as encounters with the police and possible suspension or expulsion from school. Once the individual leaves the safety and security of the school environment, s/he is exposed to the evils of gangs, drugs and alcohol abuse. According to Guers at <http://inside.bard.edu/academic.specialproj/bullying> an adolescent uses violence to defend their status, identity, and pride.

Negative comments as a result of negative stereotyping may distort the image an adolescent has of themselves and of others. In the words of Muus (1996) the image we have of others and ourselves is known as personification. Personification is referred to as a stereotype. These, according to Muus (1996) cited by Straley at <http://inside.bard.edu/academic.specialproj/bullying> can be generalized attitudes that can be derogatory in nature. These derogatory comments are used to intimidate, harm, or even hurt an individual. When stereotyping becomes offensive and negative it can be defined as teasing and bullying which annoys or harasses an individual or is used to intimidate others.

From the discussion above, it can be concluded that ethnic stereotyping poses a great threat to the unifying of the cultures in South Africa, and that the key to changing stereotypes in our society is presently in the hands of significant others' such as parents, educators, pastors, etc. involved in the upbringing and education of adolescents in contemporary South Africa.

Cultural Isolation

Ethnocentrism is a form of opposition to change that causes a person or a people to practice wilful cultural isolation. Ethnocentrism is a universal human reaction, found in all known societies, in all groups, and in practically all individuals. It also describes the human characteristic of non-acceptance of strange cultures, and, according to Tarr (1999:28) every culture is as guilty as the other.

From their life experiences, a group develops a set of rules for meeting their needs. The set of rules and procedures, together with a supporting set of ideas and values, is called a culture. The classic definition of culture was proposed by Sir Edward Tylor when he wrote, "culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society." Stated more simply, *culture* is everything which is socially learned and shared by the members of a society. The individual receives culture as part of a social heritage. And the individual, in turn, may reshape the culture and introduce changes which then become a part of the heritage of succeeding generations.

According to Tarr (1999:29) our individual cultures encapsulate us as though we exist inside a plastic covering. We are all prisoners of our own cultures, but we do not admit to being ethnocentric. Tarr (1999:29) further posits that "we are made aware of our cultural encapsulation by attitudes and actions of other people regarding us rather than by direction from our own consciousnesses from within." The language we use and the accent we have identifies us with a specific

culture. The way we utilize time (arriving early or late), our food preferences, the clothes we wear, the style of houses we build as well as how we arrange our furniture reveals that we are products of a particular culture.

Ethnocentrism could further be described as the idea that our own cultural traits are better than the cultural traits of others or the tendency to judge other cultures as inferior in terms of one's own norms and values. Our culture is made up of many categories of attitudes about things, people, organizations, nature, economics, and politics. Cultural encapsulation is seen in the strong feelings most people have toward food and religious expression. According to Tarr (1999:31) people hold these values in varying degrees which act as layers of culture which envelope them and are barriers that hinder them from achieving effective intercultural communication.

The roots and fruits of apartheid

According to The National Youth Development Forum (1995:12) the apartheid system in South Africa created an underclass of millions of disempowered youth who now live on the brink of poverty, unemployment, frustration, violence, and crime. As a result, adolescents in South Africa face serious problems that require urgent attention. Divisions between people have been created in the course of South Africa's era of discrimination which has also segregated the masses through acts such as the Group Areas Act, Separate Amenities Act, and the Mixed Marriages Act.

The evil created by that specific era still exists in a post democratic South Africa. Schools and communities that lack knowledge about and insight into other cultures cause misunderstandings that limit and negatively influence interracial interaction. Racial prejudice also interferes with friendships between many white, non-white and coloured learners.

According to The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) as cited by Robertson (1990:18) every human being has the right to human dignity. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood. The violation of this act has led to discrimination and consequent anger, frustration, bitterness, hate, racial conflict, and brutality.

Cultural diversity in our contemporary society

Cultural diversity in South Africa is also another obstacle to intercultural communication. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) as cited by Robertson (1990:197) states that everyone has the right to freely participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits. The act further states that everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Like most countries, South Africa is a multi-cultural society. Because various people groups are so entrenched in their own cultures, nation building and the creation of a common culture is slow. According to Robertson (1990:198) a melting pot scenario cannot be so easily created because the deep-rooted values and emotional loyalties which are derived from the history of a cultural group cannot be easily forgotten.

Haralambos (1985:3) defines culture as accepted ways of behaving for members of a particular society. Culture provides a perspective filter that influences the way people interpret life events. The same principle causes people from diverse cultures to interpret similar events in different ways. Beliefs about life and death differ from one culture to another.

Different cultures also make different assumptions of things. Take for instance the great religious systems of the world. In Christianity, the snake is regarded as a symbol of evil or Satan. In Hinduism, the snake is revered as a God and people would painstakingly provide fresh milk and other offerings at a snake pit which appears on their property or even at the side of the road in close proximity to their homes. According to Mkhize (2002:49) the snake in Black culture, is a symbol of the ancestors and also forms an integral part of the annual reed dance and is also recognized as a symbol of virtuosity. The snakelike moving of the procession and the swaying of the reeds, held aloft during the procession, symbolized belief in the ancestors and an emphasis on fertility in nature.

Another example of cultural difference is found in the way Black and White adolescents communicate with adults. The Black adolescent who looks away from adult communicators such as educators, parents and religious leaders during conversation may be erroneously perceived as showing disrespect or not paying attention. The White student who freely states his or her position to the teacher may be perceived as challenging the teacher's authority when the student may be demonstrating honesty and pride in the value of his or her opinion.

Language differences

Language is an all important tool of effective communication. According to Levine (2002:120) language is the raw material from which vital concepts such as the concepts of racial harmony or ethical behaviour are shaped. According to Klein and Chen (2001:8) cultures differ in how communication is conveyed.

Not only is South Africa a multi-cultural society but also a multi-dialectical society. Language forms the basis for effective interpersonal communication. Levine (2002:121) further posits that language lubricates peer relationships by enabling a child to communicate with a classmate in a way that conveys positive feelings and is not antagonistic. Unfamiliarity with cultural communication

differences can lead to misinterpretation, misunderstanding and even unintentional insult.

Successful intercultural communication can therefore become absolutely frustrating between the sender and receiver of the message because the medium being the language used to send the message cannot be understood. According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:10) there must be equal exchange between the communicator and the recipient of the message if interpersonal communication is going to be successful. The equal exchange lies in the commonality of the language spoken.

Bridging the cultural divide among adolescents in South Africa

I would like to present an overview of the ways in which cultural differences between adolescents can be overcome, and the role played by significant others in influencing adolescents' behaviour, communication, and attitudes towards each other.

Culture is constantly changing with societal changes, resulting in conflict between the old (parents) generation and the new (adolescents) generation. A classic example of this is the present adolescent interracial relationships which were outlawed during the apartheid era. Twenty first century adolescents are engaging in interracial relationships such as dating across the races, and a significant rise in intercultural communication which have caused a lot of apprehension for parents of families that abide by cultural traditions. This has resulted in much tension between adolescents, their parents, caregivers, tribal chiefs as well as significant others who still adhere to the old school of thought.

South Africa is called a rainbow nation, and it is the task of every South African to see to it that the different cultures/colours in the rainbow blend into each other. While it may seem difficult for adults to change their attitude towards the

different cultures, adolescents who interact with each other on a regular basis at school, on the sports fields, and at other social events, can make a major contribution to intercultural communication.

The provision of a multicultural education

As our schools get bigger and more diverse, it is important that we educate adolescents about other cultures and what they are like. This will help adolescents understand others' cultures and not stereotype or discriminate against them.

In many schools and communities ignorance and lack of insight into other cultures causes misunderstandings that limit and negatively impacts interracial interaction. Racial prejudice is the number one culprit that interferes with friendships between white, non-white and coloured learners. The desegregation of schools, according to Gouws (1994:127), does not guarantee interracial friendships, but promises positive social outcomes for all race groups by providing the possibility of an improved attitude among all race groups towards future interracial contacts.

According to Squelch (1993) in Gouws (1994:127) facilitators in South Africa are called upon to provide multicultural education which includes the following:

- Providing equal educational opportunities;
- Developing positive cross-cultural attitudes;
- Reducing racial and cultural prejudice;
- Equipping learners with the skills they require for meaningful participation in a multicultural society, and
- Promoting effective relationships between home and school.

According to Klein and Chen (2001:34) schools should be safe and nurturing environments that make provision for a developmentally appropriate curriculum that promotes all areas of children's learning and development. Such programmes must support each child's self-worth concerning his/her own cultural and ethnic background as well as provide accurate, practical, and respectful *information about different cultures in the community.*

Citing Kendell (1983), Klein and Chen (2001:34) state that the demographics of our society necessitate the following goals of multicultural education:

- To teach children to respect others' cultures and values as well as their own;
- To help all children function successfully in a multicultural, multiracial society;

- To develop a positive self-concept in those children most affected by racism, such as children of colour;
- To help all children experience their differences as culturally diverse people and their similarities as human beings in positive ways; and
- To encourage children to experience people of different cultures working together as unique parts of a whole community.

Integration through cooperative learning

According to Wehlage (1989:16) an understanding of the basis of good relationships and the importance of relationships throughout an individual's life will help him/her develop successful relationships with others. Learning about relationships is brought about by interacting with each other cooperatively as one would in one's own family. In this way, positive relationships are developed in the classroom. Pretorius (1988:74) states that the school is a meeting place of I-you relationships which bridge the adolescent's transition from the intimate family life to the impersonal life of society.

The educator's role is to win the confidence of the adolescent therefore creating opportunities for cooperative learning to take place. Group cooperation is of utmost importance because various individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds begin to integrate. Adolescents must be taught to live together and cope with the tough conflicts in the classroom and on the playground. Adolescents eventually come to terms with themselves that it is impossible to achieve anything by themselves but by working together as a team. The adolescent also learns that coexistence is crucial to his/her total well-being thereby acquiring acceptable social habits.

Gouws (1993:128) states that positive relationships can be forged in the following ways:

- By having learners work together toward a mutually beneficial goal such as an athletic competition where all members, regardless of race group, ethnicity, and culture, unite in their efforts to beat their opponents;
- By letting members of each race have equivalent status in terms of ability or any other index of social status such as classes for special educational needs or clinics for achievers in sport ; and
- By asking people in positions of authority such as the principal or leader of a particular popular gang, to actively promote social tolerance and renounce racism.

Kagan (1983) as cited in Klein and Chen (2001:112) states that cooperative social orientation includes altruism, which refers to a preference for helping and protecting others, equality which refers to a preference for equal outcomes, and group enhancement which refers to seeking gains and avoiding losses for the groups.

Promoting better understanding between adolescents of different cultures

It is through understanding and an attitude of tolerance that a positive contribution is made towards a peaceful society. Humans are unique and as such have the right to differ in their values, beliefs, and opinions. Respecting another individual's worldview is a definite boon to his/her self-worth. Respect means seeing someone as worthwhile.

According to Parnell (1997:33) consideration for others means respecting them, accepting them as they are, being tolerant of their differences, showing interest in their activities, as well as being sensitive to their feelings.

Individuals have various expectations in their care for one another, and these expectations differ from culture to culture. It is regarded as taboo among people of African origin to look one another in the eye while talking, as this reveals disrespect. Yet, among their White counterparts looking each other in the eye while talking reveals honesty.

Rituals, manners, and customs also differ from culture to culture. Adolescents must be taught that if they expect others to be tolerant of, and considerate to them, they should be prepared to reciprocate. According to Santayana cited by Swartz (1997:3) the following are ways in which educators and significant others' can help our adolescents:

- By helping the young people in their care understand their past;
- By providing opportunities for them to overcome their prejudice, racism and cultural intolerance;
- Discussing options for conflict resolution;
- By nurturing an understanding of responsibility, justice and truth;
and
- Training them in the practice of seeking forgiveness and practicing repentance personally and corporately.

Promoting unity in diversity

All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood. (Universal Declaration of Human Rights)

According to this article, human beings are free and have the same dignity and rights. No one has a claim to more freedom, more rights, or more dignity than another. This article further promulgates that humans should always treat one another like brothers and sisters and that they should treat one another on the basis of equality. According to Robertson (1990:19) divisions among people have been created in the course of history by the more powerful in order to justify more privileges. The latter author further states that although no person can lay claim to be superior to another on the basis of blood, race, or colour, segregations on the basis of social class and race have developed.

Behold how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity... (The Holy Bible, King James Translation)

This quotation taken from the Holy Bible declares that it is good and pleasant for brothers and sisters to live together in harmony. Major religions, philosophers and poets have long asserted the freedom and equality of human beings. Another example in the Holy Bible found in the book of Genesis where the common ancestry of people and the common parenthood of God is emphasized Robertson (1990:20).

During adolescence, cognitive abilities increase quantitatively. Adolescents are able to approach problems with more insight and in an abstract way. According to Piaget in Louw (1990:418) this stage is recognized as the formal operations stage. They also begin to wonder about religious beliefs such as the existence of God, scientific subjects such as aeronautics, as well as moral and social issues

such as the legalization of abortion and euthanasia. Significant others' such as parents, educators and religious instructors must be able to tap into this stage of adolescent development by also instructing them on the importance of developing intercultural relationships, that there can, and should exist a state of brotherhood between the races and that there can be unity in diversity. Only when such a scenario prevails in our nation, will the levels of demotivation regarding intercultural relationships be banished forever.

Conclusion

In this chapter I gave an in-depth definition of intercultural communication. I also stated the various challenges facing South African adolescents with quotations from the National Youth Policy document (2000), and highlighted intercultural communication as the greatest challenge facing adolescents today. I also discussed the communication process involved in interpersonal communication, citing difficulties in encoding and decoding as a possible setback to successful intercultural communication. I stated the various barriers to intercultural communication such as ethnic stereotyping, ethnocentrism or cultural isolation, the roots and fruits of the apartheid era, cultural diversity in our contemporary society and language differences. Under the sub-heading "bridging the cultural divide among adolescents in South Africa", I presented possible solutions such as the provision of a multicultural education, integration through cooperation, promoting better understanding, and promoting unity in diversity in relation to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

In the next chapter I will discuss the various adolescent communication networks and the process involved in the socialization of adolescents.

Chapter 8

ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION NETWORKS AND SOCIAL INFLUENCE PROCESSES

Introduction

In this chapter, I will discuss the role of communication in human relationships as well as the various communication networks that adolescents communicate on. I will also discuss the social influence processes involved in the socialization of adolescents.

Communication, socialization and civilization

Knapp (1984:3) states that communication is the lifeblood of relationships. Humans utilize almost 75% of each day engaged in communication. According to Tubbs and Moss (2000:6) communication is closely associated with one's development of self. Individuals gain a sense of identity by being paid attention to and getting feedback from others.

The development of a person's self-concept is determined by the nature and quality of one's interactions with fellow humans. In the words of Klopper (1999:293):

Communication is a meeting of minds during which two or more individual participants use extensive sets of symbols in a complex variety of patterns to see eye to eye, to have in mind and exchange concepts about the same aspects of a commonly experienced present, a remembered past, an envisaged future or an imagined alternate reality.

This characterization of communication emphasizes that cognition precedes communication, and by implication that cognition and communication are crucially interrelated in the ability of humans to be socialized and civilized. If it is

socialization that civilizes us, it is lack of socialization that makes us less than human while at the same time having us believe that we are more than human – a law unto ourselves.

Infants enter the world as biological organisms preoccupied with their own physical comforts. As time passes, they develop sets of attitudes and values, likes and dislikes, goals and purposes, patterns of responses, and a deep concept of the sort of persons they are. This occurs through the process called *socialization*, "the ways in which people learn to conform to their society's norms, values, and roles. Humans fundamentally are social beings that live in communities, governed by particular social norms and personal values and beliefs, from birth, through childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age. It is therefore through the process of socialization that adolescents become well adjusted, well balanced, civilized members of society.

In reviewing the various theoretical perspectives on adolescent development, we are made aware of the important role that the family, the peer group and the general social context play in both shaping and influencing the individual's behaviour. According to Bennet and LeCompte (1990:11) traditional societies were dependent on the family, the church and the community to convey the social and moral values necessary for the preservation of culture. We are also made aware that although these agents of socialization have a direct impact on the socialization of the adolescent, we cannot divorce the intrapsychic processes that are associated with adolescent development.

The social development of the adolescent

Socialization is the lifelong social experience by which individuals develop their human potential and learn culture. According to De Witt and Booysen (1994:25) socialization refers to the process by which the child learns to satisfy the moral standards, role expectations and demands of acceptable behaviour in his society.

It is also referred to as the life long process of social interaction through which we become a consistent and recognizable person and acquire the physical, mental and social skills needed for survival in society. Development of these human qualities is both biological and learned. We share the genetic heritage of the human species as we learn our culture, language, values, norms and roles through interaction with others which we call “agents of socialization” such as the family, school, community, peer group and the mass media.

Social development refers to the development of the child’s need for human contact and the development of social skills. According to McGraw in De Witt and Booysen (1994:25) social development is the process whereby children acquire their social roles, skills, values and behaviours. A major contributing factor in this process is the significant “others” in children’s lives such as the parents, peers and teachers who consciously attempt to mould children socially.

According to Louw (1990:30), different cultures embrace the same characteristics of socialization. They are:

- The desire for respect, love, acceptance and recognition;
- The desire to avoid the unpleasant feelings that follow rejection or punishment;
- The tendency to imitate the actions of others; and
- The desire to be like certain people whom the child has learned to esteem, respect or love – a process known as identification.

The theory of social learning (Papalia and Olds 2001:34) maintains that children, in particular, learn social behaviours by observing and imitating models, which is observational learning. According to Louw (1998:13) and Craig (1996:1) human

development involves people's relationships with other people. As children grow, develop, and move into early adolescence, involvement with one's peers and the attraction of peer identification increases. The adolescent's social development is closely connected to his/her quest for independence. At about age fifteen to sixteen, adolescents don't want to be treated like children. They want to make their own decisions and desire a certain amount of autonomy. As pre-adolescents begin rapid physical, emotional and social changes, they begin to question adult standards and the need for parental guidance.

Adolescence is also a life-stage where they demand more privileges without being prepared to accept the responsibility that accompanies them. During this struggle for independence, the adolescent comes to depend more and more on the approval and acceptance of the peer group. According to Louw (1990:438) this can be attributed to the adolescent's lack of independence, self-confidence and identity. This conformity seems to decrease from about the age of fifteen when the adolescent discovers that it is necessary to be independent from the peer group.

Networks that facilitate human interactions

According to Mersham and Skinner (2002:151) communication takes place through vertical and lateral communication channels. A network can be identified by establishing who communicates with whom and who the central and peripheral figures are in the communication process. Networks are the communication structures created to send and receive messages between team members. In simple terms, a network may be as basic as who talks to whom in a group. People are connected to various forms of communication networks such as peer networks, local network, church networks, school networks, and professional network.

Adolescents communicate on various socialization networks such as the family, the peer group, the school as well as the mass media. I will now discuss the various agents of communication involved in the socialization of the adolescent.

The family as an agent of socialization

According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003), the family is the basic unit of society. A family is a group of people related by blood, marriage, or adoption. In most societies, the family is regarded as the most important agent of socialization. In some societies many people will be involved in this process in important ways. The family in highly industrialized societies often includes only one or both parents and their dependent children. Parents, or people playing the parent role, are the most significant agents to a child's socialization. Most of the child's early interaction is with these people, and this dependency makes the child especially likely to take these individuals as models to be imitated. Sociologists refer to this early interaction as *primary socialization*, "all the ways in which the newborn individual is moulded into a social being."

According to Erikson (1968) the family establishes the basic foundation for positive development. The family is the most proximal and often the most influential agent of socialization. According to Bandura (1990:344) patterns of culture are conveyed through what parents believe and expect concerning their children's capabilities. Pretorius (1988:37) states that the most important function of the family is to ensure that the child is properly educated and socialized according to the norms of society. The family exerts the greatest impact because for the first few years of life children are totally dependent on their parents. During this time, parents often relay their political and social views upon their children. Children also learn from the environment that the adults unconsciously create. Catalano and Hawkins (1996) assert, "A child's

positive interaction with family members and others provide the opportunities, skills, and recognition for appropriate social development”.

According to DeFrain at <http://www.ianr.unl.edu/pubs.family> strong families have a wide variety of qualities that contribute to the family members' sense of personal worth and feelings of satisfaction in their relationships with each other. If family strengths could be reduced to one single quality, it would be a positive emotional connection and sense of belonging with each other. When this emotional bond is present, the family can endure almost any hardship. A family's strengths are the foundation for positive growth and change in the future. Families become stronger by capitalizing on their strengths.

Bloch and Simon (1982:446), state that the basic functions of the family are as follows:

- The family is responsible for physical sustenance, accommodation as well as the provision of material goods;
- The family offers the child an opportunity to develop his own identity which is linked to his/her family identity;
- The family is responsible for equipping the child spiritually as well as for emotional and moral support;
- Family members are given the opportunity to acquire gender roles;
- The family trains children for integration into social roles and teaches social responsibility. Families encourage communication and teaches the child important communication skills; and

- The family develops learning and supports the creativity and initiative of its individual members.

According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003) the only function of the family that continues to survive all change is the provision of affection and emotional support by and to all its members, particularly infants and young children.

The different types of families

For the purpose of this study, I will concentrate on the most common family types found in South African communities, namely, the nuclear family, the extended family and single-parent families.

The nuclear family structure

The smallest and basic family group is termed the *nuclear family*, which sociologists refer to as "two or more people related by consanguineous or conjugal ties or by adoption who share a household." According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003) the nuclear family was the most prevalent preindustrial unit and is still the basic unit of social organization. The nuclear family is the family into which a person is born and socialized. It is composed of the individual's mother, father, and any siblings. According to Swartz and Codrington at <http://www.theyouthinstitute.org>, most young people would not have experienced the typical early twentieth century nuclear family. It is currently estimated that 3 in every 4 teenagers will experience family breakdown by the time they turn 21. Bill Price and Associates (2002), who have done research in South Africa, have found that 1 in 3 young people are currently experiencing family breakdown and the trend is spiralling downwards with dysfunction as the norm.

According to research conducted by the University of New York's Child Study Centre (2002) at <http://www.aboutourkids.com/search.html> findings reveal that functions of raising well adjusted adolescents are best performed by biological fathers married to biological mothers who live together because:

- Fathers provide role models for their sons to learn how to be a man; girls need fathers to learn how to relate to a man.
- Fathers are better able than mothers to constrain and correct boys headed towards violence and other antisocial behaviours.
- Fathers teach sons and daughters better lessons than mothers regarding assertiveness and achievement, and provide better formative experiences for daughters in terms of developing the capacity for heterosexual intimacy, trust and even femininity.
- Fathers play differently with young children - they are more physical; they challenge and foster independence more than mothers, and young children prefer fathers' form of play.

The extended family structure

According to the World Book Volume 7, the term family means "a group of related people who share a home and also refers to all of a person's ancestors and other relatives. Members belong to a family through birth, adoption and marriage." In the true *extended family*, members of two or more families live together in the same household or close enough to be in daily contact. They own common economic resources, work together, and exchange goods and services daily. They eat together, bring up children together, and spend their free time together. Socialization, physical care, emotional support, counsel, and protection are provided almost completely by the extended family network.

The extended family structure features very strongly within the Black, Indian and Coloured communities in South Africa. Migrant labourers in Black communities leave behind their extended families on farms and smallholdings in order to work on the mines. They feel that their extended families on the farm would suffer should their nuclear families relocate to the cities. In most families both parents sometimes work great distances away from their home. They consequently have too little contact with their children who are normally cared for by grandparents or nannies. As a result of migrant work many parents do not fulfil their role in the primary socialization of their adolescents who are socialized by some adult member of the extended family such as an uncle, aunt or grandparent. As a result one would find that the adolescents are more at ease in communicating with their grandparents than with their parents.

In some Indian families, the task of socializing the adolescent rests solely with the grandparents. Because both parents have to work, they leave their children under the care and supervision of their parents or in-laws. Sometimes these adolescents are left at an after school care centre where they complete their homework and are fetched by their parents after work. There is therefore very little contact between adolescents and their parents due to their lifestyles. The adolescent therefore feels neglected and would rather spend more time with their peer group rather than spend time with their grandparents whom they view as "old fashioned" due to the generation gap that exists between them.

The extended family structure has its advantages as well as its disadvantages. The advantages of being part of an extended family structure however, outweigh its disadvantages. Adolescents need constant adult care and supervision as well as adult role models whom they can emulate. The absence of both mum and dad could lead to various social evils should there be no adult present after school or at night. The molestation of adolescents by adults is rife in South Africa and the

presence of adults would be a deterrent to such evils. Adolescents need their homework to be supervised by adults. Siblings who have completed their schooling or who are a grade above their brothers and sisters could prove beneficial in an extended family unit.

Single-parent family structures

A significant proportion of South African adolescents live in matrifocal and patrifocal families. A matrifocal/patrifocal family unit is a family headed by a mother or father as a single parent. According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003), one out of four children live with only one parent, that is usually the mother. Almost 40% of the respondents in this survey indicated that they were taken care of by mostly their mothers, as well as by their mothers and fathers as single parents.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (1996:319) matrifocal/patrifocal families are common in African communities. Many of these families exist as a result of ethnic violence coupled with the high incidence of HIV and Aids related deaths on the African continent. According to Bennideen (2001:8) the AIDS pandemic is presently decimating South African society. In South Africa, many adolescents have lost one or both parents to the Aids pandemic.

According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003) most one-parent families are the result of divorce, although some are created when unmarried mothers bear children. According to Vitz at <http://www.catholiceducation.org> research findings prove that the high incidence of divorce and single parent families has created large scale violence, suicide, drug abuse, and has also negatively influenced the physical and psychological well-being of adults and adolescents. The adverse effect of divorce has left a large proportion of adolescents in all South African communities in the care of single parents.

Citing Murdock, Haralambos and Holborn (1996:320) states that matrifocal /patrifocal families are the result of the following:

- The matrifocal/patrifocal family is often a nuclear family that has been broken; and
- The family headed by only the female or male is regarded as a family “gone wrong”.

The single parent family in South Africa is regarded as a valid family unit. According to Gonsalez as cited in Haralambos and Holborn (1996:320) a matrifocal family is a well-organized social group which represents a positive adaptation to adverse circumstances. The matrifocal/patrifocal family can therefore be regarded as a form of family structure in its own right.

Roadblocks to effective family communication

Unreasonable parental expectations

As children get older, academic and social pressures (especially the quest to fit in) create stress. In addition, well-meaning parents sometimes unwittingly add to the stress in their children's lives. For example, high achieving parents often have great expectations for their children, who may lack their parents' motivation or capabilities. Parents who push their children to excel in sports or who enrol their children in too many activities may also cause unnecessary stress and frustration if their children don't share their goals.

Parents who also wish to make up for their past in their children has also caused adolescents and parents to be at loggerheads with each other. Parents who did not succeed at becoming school prefects, playing in the first team, or who dropped out of school due to financial constraints, as well as those who were deprived of an education are guilty of this practice. Parents must view their

children as unique individuals endowed with specific talents and varying IQ's and should become sympathetic towards their individual psychological wiring. According to Levine (2002:122) children are often punished and discriminated against by virtue of their wiring.

Substance abuse

According to Pretorius (1998:55) the family environment is dynamic, and must help to integrate with an ever-changing world and with events that change with the times which allows the adolescent an unhindered entrance into social life so as not to lose touch with reality.

Due to extreme social and cultural changes, modern families have become extremely vulnerable which has caused family life to disintegrate thereby exposing adolescents to a life of substance abuse. Drug and alcohol abuse is on the increase in contemporary South Africa which has alienated parents and adolescents. According to Searll (2002:XV) drugs is a new and terrifying threat that has established itself firmly as a multi-headed beast in the midst of our nation placing our emerging democracy at great risk.

A role model is a person's standard of excellence to mimic. Adolescents are strong mimics or imitators. Parents who are primary agents of socialization may model inappropriate behaviour such as drinking and drug taking which may be mimicked by their children. According to Pretorius and Le Roux (1998:56) the male head of the family is recognized as the fundamental authority in the nuclear family. The potential to become lies therefore in persons of significance to the adolescent.

Being the only child

Although children in small families have a social and economic advantage over large families, families with one child may become problematic so far as the

socialization of the child is concerned. There is a tendency on the part of parents to be over protective. There may also be problems severing the strong emotional bonds between the parent and child. This is quite often referred to as an “umbilical tie”. The child and parent may be so closely attached to each other that the child may have less opportunity for socializing. Adolescents brought up in such families may display introvert behaviour later on in life.

The peer group as an agent of socialization

A person has to find a place in the society for the individual's self-definition.

Social identity is derived from the person's knowledge of his membership of a group with values and emotional significances attached to the membership.

Cotterel (1996:17)

According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1998:855) a peer network is a group of people of approximately the same age or status. The members of the network normally come from different families with diverse backgrounds.

According to Goldstein (1994:34) the school has been identified as an important institution of socialization as well as a significant venue for peer relationships. Germain (1991:291) states that learning is also imparted by the peer group. Germain further states that:

- Age-appropriate behaviours are learned from peers;
- Children are empowered through successful learning as well as by successful social relationships;
- The child's self-concept and self-esteem is strengthened by the acceptance of the peer group; and

- The egalitarian give-and-take of peer relations frees the child from constraints imposed by parents and authority figures which leads to their valuable and unique contribution to the child's social development.

It is in the adolescent stage that the *peer group*, "Interacting groups of people of about the same age," exerts a strong influence. In societies in which adult roles are to some degree open to choice for many people, adolescence can be a difficult period. Because there is so much confusion about what the role is or should be, many adolescents push for maximum freedom and minimum responsibility, while their elders hope for the reverse. The questions "Who am I?" and "What do I want?" that trouble many teenagers in modern societies would never have occurred to their ancestors, who moved from childhood to adulthood immediately with few choices to make.

The peer group plays a vital role in the development of the adolescent during the period described as early adolescence. According to Lingren (1995) at <http://www.ianr.unl.edu.pubs.family.html> the peer group is a source of affection, sympathy and understanding; a place for experimentation; and a supportive setting for achieving the two primary developmental tasks of adolescence. These are: (1) identity — finding the answer to the question "Who Am I?" and (2) autonomy — discovering that self as separate and independent from parents. It is no wonder, then, that adolescents like to spend time with their peers.

A child's peer group allows them to escape the direct supervision of adults. Children are free to act like children rather than like adults. Children also talk more freely about topics they may not feel comfortable discussing with adults (sex, drugs, and girls/boys). Peer groups become more prominent during adolescence, when young people begin to break away from the family structure, in order to feel more like young adults. Peer groups aid in the socialization

process because children in certain groups conform to the ideals of that group while disliking other groups.

According to Papalia and Olds (2001) peer relationships provide a measuring stick for self-efficacy. These relationships enable adolescents to:

- Develop skills needed for sociability and intimacy;
- Attain a sense of identity;
- Gain a sense of belonging;
- Freedom to make independent judgements; and
- Adjust their needs and desires to those of others, when to yield and when to stand their ground.

Peers can have both positive and negative effects on adolescent behaviour. According to Germain (1991:293) peer group structures are not only sources of great pleasure but sometimes of pain. Positive effects include the supportive and informational role that the peer group plays. Negative effects include the pressure they can exert on each other and that the peer group may, at times be the cause of abuse and violence on a physical and emotional level.

According to Louw (1990:440), conformity with the peer group has the following positive effects:

- The adolescent gets the opportunity to acquire new roles and experiment with them, e.g. acting as the leader;
- It provides the opportunity for forging friendships, as well as for communication with the opposite sex;
- The group is a source of sex information which helps the adolescent develop norms that control sexual behaviour;
- It encourages the severing of emotional ties with the parental home through positive group identification;
- The adolescent is afforded an opportunity to rid himself of emotional stress by freely talking about his fears, confused emotions, ideals and dreams;
- The peer group affords warm friendly companionship for the adolescent experiencing problems with his/her parents and gives them a feeling of security, acceptance and appreciation;
- The group provides the adolescent feedback concerning her/his personality traits and, as a result, s/he develops an own identity. S/he also develops a group identity because s/he has to comply with certain norms of behaviour laid down by the group;
- The adolescent has an opportunity of engaging in recreational activities within the group.

According to Louw (1990:441), group conformity may also produce certain negative effects:

- The adolescent's social development may be impeded if s/he is teased, rejected or ridiculed by the group;
- Negative group pressure may result in anti-social and reckless behaviour;
- Snobbishness may develop towards adolescents who do not belong to a certain group;
- The peer group may model and emphasize values which are not valid for adult life;
- Conflict may arise between parent and adolescent if the parents do not approve of the group's influence.

During adolescence, peer relations expand to occupy a particularly central role in young people's lives. New types (e.g., opposite sex, romantic ties) and levels (e.g., "crowds") of peer relationships emerge. Peers typically replace the family as the centre of a young person's socializing and leisure activities. Adolescents have multiple peer relationships, and they confront multiple "peer" cultures that have remarkably different norms and value systems.

According to Lingren (1995) at <http://www.ianr.unl.edu.pubs.family.html> the adult perception of peers as having one culture or a unified front of dangerous influence is inaccurate. Adolescents find it reassuring to turn for advice to friends who understand and sympathize — friends who are in the same position as themselves. More often than not, peers reinforce family values and although the negative peer influence is overemphasized, more can be done to help adolescents experience the family and the peer group as mutually constructive environments.

The school as an agent of socialization

By expanding on the principles presented in Mersham and Skinner (2002:151) a school can be defined as all the persons in the school environment that adolescents communicate with. This could include educators, fellow learners in class, competitors on the same sport fields, or any other learner in the school, as well as the security and caretaking personnel. While peer networks link adolescents of equal status, a school network will link an adolescent with persons of higher rank and status, equal status, or lower status such as poor performers. An adolescent's status in class among the learners and among the educators is based on his/her academic performance.

Socialization does not happen just once, in childhood, and then result in a finished and unchanging product. It is a lifelong phenomenon that never ends. *Secondary socialization* "occurs in later childhood and adolescence, when the child leaves the family for schooling and comes under the influence of adults and peers outside the household and immediate family." As the shift occurs from primary to secondary group situations, there is also a shift from informal to more formal social contacts. Secondary groups are generally larger and more impersonal and are not generally used to meet the need for intimate human response.

According to Prinsloo (1980:1), as a result of the rapid changes and complexities that characterizes contemporary society the family alone cannot meet all the demands of socializing the child. The school's task in this regard has become increasingly important. Perry *et al* in Millstein *et al* (1993:77) state that "after the family, the school as the micro-system that includes the peer group is of particular importance in an adolescent's social world. DeLamater (1999:56) the school is intentionally designed to socialize children. Lefrancois (1993:352) concurs with this view and asserts schools are fundamentally important as our formal, monolithic disseminators of culture. Among the aspects of influence are: the

shaping of student behaviour, evaluation of performance, and schools teach children which selves are desirable and which are not. The school influences social comparison which affects a child's self-image.

Schools enlarge children's social world to include people of more diverse social backgrounds. School age children very quickly form play groups made up of one sex and race. Ralphie Best (1983) says that boys engage in more physical activities and spend more time outdoors, while girls tend to be more sedentary, often helping the teacher with many housekeeping chores.

The rites of passage into adulthood

According to the non-authored website at <http://www.accd.edu/sac/soci/soci> societies often develop clearly recognized signs and ceremonies surrounding the passage of persons from one age boundary to the next, especially from childhood to adulthood. These are called *rites of passage*. Primitive societies have elaborate rituals boys or girls must go through to be called adults. In modern society, graduation from high school or college is considered a rite of passage.

The educational system in western society has become the primary means of adolescents to undergo this rite of passage. Educators have become surrogate parents in society. When a child leaves the protective environment of the home s/he quite often cannot cope with the sometimes hostile environment s/he comes into contact with. The parents have passed on the baton to the educators to take over the process of socialization of their children.

Educators are tasked with the duty of raising individuals who are properly socialized by teaching the ideas, norms and values in which the society is entrenched in. The problem that prevails in western society is that only individuals who absorb whatever the curriculum teaches and who are able to regurgitate the materials taught are worthy of this rite of passage. Demotivated

adolescents, underachievers, as well as those who are viewed as “trouble makers” are marginalized in the current educational system. This therefore cannot be a legitimate rite of passage into adulthood.

In order to succeed as an educational system, one must take into cognisance the totality of the adolescent’s live experiences as it is lived within the context of related social networks. According to Bandura (1990:344,345) patterns of culture are conveyed through what parents believe and expect concerning their children’s capabilities. According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003) male circumcision appears widely among tribal peoples of Africa. A classic example of this in South Africa is the rite of passage of a Xhosa male adolescent who must undergo the rite of circumcision as a rite of passage into adulthood. In tribal settings circumcision is nearly always associated with traumatic puberty rites. Occasionally the severed part is offered as a sacrifice to spirit beings. The operation certifies the adolescents’ readiness for marriage and adulthood and testifies to his ability to withstand pain. He may lack the necessary reading and math skills taught at school and in the eyes of the educator he may be regarded as educationally deficient, but in the eyes of his parents and peer group he may be regarded as their hero. In this manner our present educational system undermines the adolescent’s self-concept.

The community as an agent of socialization

Osofsky (1995) highlights the role that the community plays in the development of its young people in the following statement “children need to be safe in their communities to be able to explore and develop relationships with other people...”

Theorists who subscribe to the social-cognitive perspective focus strongly on role modelling and the implications of vicarious reinforcement through identification and society’s rewards for emulating role models. According to Bandura (1990)

observational learning has powerful effects on children's and adolescent's acquisition of both social and anti-social behaviour.

McWhirter *et al* (1993:15) states that the environment comprises a significant set of factors that impact on youth development. Environment would therefore include economic climate, socio-economic status, political realities, and cultural factors. This group also includes the effects of urbanization, poverty, technological advances and how these complex variables interact with and influence the individual and personal development of the adolescent.

The school network is very closely linked to the community network. A school network is where adolescents from diverse cultural and social backgrounds are found and they bring along their cultural, religious, and social beliefs from their homes. The environment and community of the school have a direct influence on the types of school networks. For example if the school is situated in the community where there is free access to illegal drugs, the adolescents attending school can also be exposed to the use of these drugs.

The mass media as an agent of socialization

According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003), the mass media has assumed a large role in the socialization of adolescents. In modern societies, socialization occurs through exposure to the mass media such as books, magazines, newspapers, radio, film, television, and more recently, the Internet. In our society, the most controversial of the mass media is television.

The media plays a major role in the socialization of children. Television is the largest medium of mass media in this country. Nearly every person in South Africa has a television or a radio. According to the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (1999) at

<http://www.aacap.org/web/aacap/about/index/html> the average family has at least one television turned on for at least seven hours a day. Children become socialized through the television by the programs that they are allowed to watch, whether they are Barney or Dragonballs Z is up to the parents. Television is a far more prevalent method of socialization because children can watch T.V. before they can read, and the television is also more fun than reading the newspaper.

The negative effects of the mass media on adolescents

Numerous studies have been done in an effort to determine the effects of television. Although the nature of that impact remains controversial, researchers have concluded that both negative and positive behaviour to some degree is related to the kinds of programs watched. According to Simon & Schuster Encyclopaedia (2003) some individuals and citizens' groups have expressed concern about the level of violence in television programs, particularly in action-adventure series and cartoons. They argue that viewers, especially children, may learn to see violence as the only way to resolve conflicts. According to the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry (1999) at <http://www.aacap.org/web/aacap/about/index/html> much of today's television programming is violent. Hundreds of studies of the effects of TV violence on children and teenagers have found that children may:

- become "immune" to the horror of violence;
- gradually accept violence as a way to solve problems;

- imitate the violence they observe on television; and
- identify with certain characters, victims and/or victimizers

Quite often children take the role of their favourite television character in real life. Adolescence is a period of exploration and through exposure to the mass media; this life stage may be exploited. Adolescents may be bombarded with an environment of television productions that show explicit scenes of teenage substance use and abuse, as well as sex scenes which tempts them to try out being perceived by them as the norm. They also wish to emulate their teenage role models such as Madonna, Britney Spears, etc. Some teenagers find it difficult to escape the lure of the mass media because they are eager to try out new things.

The positive effects of the mass media on adolescents

Education takes place through mass communication much the same way as teaching and learning takes place between learner and educator in a classroom. Le Roux (1990:427) states that without communication there can be no learning. Through harnessing the power of the mass media such as television and the internet, adolescents are able to interact with tutors without having to travel great distances which eliminates travelling costs and the high tuition fees charged by individuals and institutions of higher learning. Demotivated adolescents who are prone to getting into trouble will find the home a safe environment that eliminates the threat of temptation to drugs, alcohol abuse and joining undesirable company. Adolescents use media to obtain information which is readily available at the touch of a button or the click of a mouse, especially for the completion of school projects and about topics that their parents may have been reluctant to discuss in the home, such as sexuality.

All work and no play make Jack a dull boy. Through the mass media adolescents are able to spend their leisure time unwinding from the stress and strain of

everyday living. The computer as well as television, when utilized wisely could provide maximum leisure and entertainment benefits. The mass media is also used by adolescents to relieve anxiety and unhappiness.

Researchers have also discovered that media presents models of female and male gender roles which can positively influence adolescents' gender attitudes and behaviour.

Conclusion

The social development of the adolescent is an inextricable part of growing into adulthood. It is here that adolescents become properly socialized beings which enable them to take their rightful place in society. Properly socialized adolescents will be more motivated and less demotivated and become fruitful members of society. Society at large would benefit from having citizens that are greater assets than liabilities. Properly socialized adolescents would result in fully fledged adults who are morally, socially, emotionally and professionally equipped to take on adult roles which would benefit the moral fabric and socio – economic component of society.

In this chapter I discussed the various networks that adolescents communicate on, which includes the following:

- the family;
- the peer group;
- the school;
- the community; and
- The mass media.

In the next chapter I will discuss the research design and fieldwork that was conducted for the purpose of this study.

Chapter 9

RESEARCH DESIGN AND FIELDWORK

Preview

In this chapter I will present an account of the research design and then discuss the fieldwork that was carried out for the purposes of this study. I will also explain the procedure used to process data from questionnaires to data tables.

Research Design

This was a cross cultural attitude survey at secondary schools in the eThekweni region of KwaZulu – Natal to determine the levels of demotivation among grade 10 and 11 learners.

Introduction

Babbie and Mouton (2002:75) state that a research design is a plan or blueprint one intends utilizing when conducting research. According to Bailey (1978:3) and Leedy (1998:5) research planning entails strategies designed for the collection of data that will help the researcher to answer questions about a definite problem. Conducting research is therefore to ascertain facts or discover facts or principles (Collins, 1978:638). In this study I plan to collect factual data on the respondents' self-conceptualisation, their family, how they feel about school, homework, school relationships, peers and finally regarding their health matters as it relates to demotivational mind states.

Preparation

In this section I will discuss the preparatory groundwork involved in the empirical component of this study, which includes the permission obtained from

the various heads of department and the selection of the respondents for this survey.

Permission

The necessary permission to administer the questionnaire in schools of the eThekweni region of the KwaZulu Department of Education and Culture was obtained from the authorities. Permission was requested and obtained (Annexure A) from the Superintendent: Education Management (SEM) of this office.

Selection of respondents

A sample of 8 secondary schools was randomly selected without any pre-knowledge of adolescents. I personally visited the principals of the selected schools with the letter of approval referred to above and consent was obtained.

I spent two days delivering the questionnaires to the selected schools. Two schools were given two weeks to complete the questionnaires which were then personally collected by me. I was personally present at six of the eight schools where I personally supervised the filling in of the questionnaire. My presence at these schools and personal supervision of the respondents assisted in the accurate completion and prompt collection of the 420 questionnaires.

The research instrument

In this section I will briefly characterize my questionnaire, which can be found in Addendum B. It was an anonymous questionnaire for Grade 10 and 11 learners. At the outset respondents were informed that this was an anonymous survey and that their responses would remain confidential. Having empowered respondents with this information, they were further informed that their participation in the survey was voluntary but that their assistance, through their participation, was needed.

The questionnaire was designed to obtain relevant data from adolescents regarding their attitude towards parents, educators, peers, school related issues such as homework, safety, bullying as well as issues regarding their health.

In the following sections I will discuss the development of the questionnaire as a tool for research.

The questionnaire as a research instrument

According to Leedy (1998:143) questionnaires must be planned or designed to fulfil a definite research objective. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein as quoted by Zulu (1999:79) characterize the questionnaire as a set of questions dealing with the same topic ...given to a specific group of individuals for the purpose of collecting data on a problem under research. Leedy (1998:142) concurs that data collection is the basic function of the questionnaire. As participation in the research is voluntary, it is imperative that respondents' interest is engaged, and their co-operation encouraged. The reaction elicited should reflect reality as accurately as possible.

Construction of the questionnaire

According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:242) the questionnaire should consist of a number of uniform preset/matrix questions designed to collect the information required. Respondents find it easier and faster to answer questions in this fashion. Keeping in mind the literature survey done for this research the questionnaire is divided into the following sections (Annexure C):

The questionnaire was developed in English and subjected to scrutiny and correction by the promoter of this study.

The following is a detailed break down of the types of questions that were posed to respondents in this survey:

Part 1: This section deals with general personal particulars of the respondents (questions 1 – 4).

Part 2: Focus on the respondent and his/her self-perception (questions 5 – 13).

Part 3: Relates to the relationship between the respondent and his/her family (questions 14 – 27).

Part 4: Asks respondents about how they feel about school (questions 28 – 57).
In

Part 5: Respondents are asked how they feel about doing homework (questions 58 – 64).

Part 6: Focuses on how they feel about their educators (questions 65 – 69)

Part 7: Relate to the relationship between the respondents and their friends (questions 70 – 72)

Part 8: Respondents are asked questions concerning problems with their health (questions 73 – 74)

According to Leedy (1998:145) questionnaires succeed as their success is planned. When developing a questionnaire the researcher must make certain that the specific results he has in mind (theoretically) and reflected in certain concepts used in the questionnaire, can/will be obtained by means of certain operations and conditions prevalent and appropriate for the questionnaire to operate (to be dealt with appropriately and goal focused by the respondents). This means that the researcher must ensure that the instrument he has identified to use (operational definitions) will meet the needs he has planned to obtain (theoretical concepts).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:236) the key concept in the construction of a questionnaire is relevance. Bailey (1978:113) says that this concept comprises three facets: (1) relevance of the study's goals, (2) relevance of questions to the goals of the study and (3) relevance of the questions to the individual respondents.

It is not only relevance as regards questionnaire construction but also relevance of questions to the study and to the respondents that is of importance. According to Leedy (1998:144) the researcher must consider the respondent by making the questions as brief as possible. The respondents must be convinced that all questions in the questionnaire are relevant to the stated goals of the study.

Certain unforeseen problems may arise as research goals are not always clear outside their empirical context, especially to a lay respondent (Bailey, 1978:113). Respondents will not necessarily respond to items as the researcher might expect, due to lack of understanding and wrong interpretation of the items. According to Leedy (1998:144) states that questions must be universal in nature and not specific. The questions must also be simple so that respondents spend little time and effort in answering them.

It is important for the researcher to elucidate, explain and justify the goals of the study to the respondents. According to Leedy (1998:146) the researcher should send a covering letter to the respondent describing the potential value of the study as well as an explanation of the key concepts in the questionnaire. In this study, certain concepts that might not be clear to the respondents are explained. Questions have been formulated so that it did not include double-barrelled questions i.e. two or more questions in one. Such questions lead to hesitations and indecision on the part of the respondent (Bailey, 1978:115).

Characteristics of the questionnaire

According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:233) a questionnaire is an instrument that is well designed to collect the required data for analysis and interpretation in order to solve the research problem.

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

- It deals with a significant topic, which the respondents will find important enough to warrant spending their time on;
- It elicits information which cannot be obtained from other sources;
- It must be as concise as possible but long enough to obtain essential data;
- Each question should deal with a single concept and should be worked as simply and straightforward as possible, and
- Data obtained from the questionnaires must be easy to tabulate and interpret.

Advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire

The written questionnaire has been used in this research by virtue of its advantages over other ways of obtaining data:

- It is the most economical means of obtaining data in terms of money and time especially when the questionnaires are hand delivered to the respondents;

- It allows for anonymity;
- Lack of interviewer bias;
- Confidentiality is guaranteed in the questionnaire;
- The questionnaires are speedily completed (Babbie and Mouton 2002:266)
- It allows for uniformity as all respondents are exposed to the same wording of the questionnaire;
- The respondents are at liberty to take their time in completing the questionnaire;
- Questionnaires can be distributed to as many respondents as possible (Bailey, 1978:156; Zulu, 1999:81, 82).

A potential disadvantage in most questionnaires is the possibility of the misinterpretation of some questions on the part of the respondents. Once again, my presence at the six schools and personal supervision of the respondents proved invaluable as I was able to answer queries in the first person. I have taken the necessary precaution to word items as carefully and simply as practically possible. The pre-testing of the questionnaire proved an invaluable exercise in this regard. Orlich as quoted in (Gumede, 2000:29) posits the following disadvantages:

- Illiterate respondents can delay the completion of the questionnaire. Hence the targeting of grade 10 and 11 learners in this survey;
- Respondents may return the questionnaire incomplete;

- Lack of communication and personal input – there is no researcher present to calm the situation when the respondent dislikes particular questions or has a query;
- Low response rate – some respondents may lead a nomadic lifestyle and other respondents may have no residential addresses and might not be located when the questionnaires are required. The researcher has to therefore rely on the questionnaires that have been returned. To alleviate such a problem, I conducted the survey during school times at the respondents' schools and had the completed questionnaires personally collected or collected by the educator in charge;
- No control over question order – some respondents waste time by reading the entire questionnaire before answering, skip questions or do not answer questions in rank order; and
- Verbal behaviour only. There is no researcher present to observe non-verbal behaviour or to make assessment concerning the respondent's social stratum (Bailey, 1978:158)

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

Pilot study

A pilot study is a pre-test of the investigation using similar questions and similar subjects as in the final survey (Zulu, 1999:88). According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:244) the fundamental purpose of a pilot study is to determine how the subsequent study can be improved and to identify the possible flaws/errors in the questionnaire. The pilot study essentially gives the researcher a representation of the investigation in actual practice.

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

A pilot study has the following purposes:

- It reduces the possibility of errors since unforeseen problems spelt out in the pilot study results in redesigning the study;
- It is crucial, especially where more than one language or cultural group is included (Babbie and Mouton 2002:244);
- It allows for pre-test of the hypodissertation;
- It provides ideas and strategies as well as tips that the researcher did not anticipate before;
- It saves the researcher time and expenditure;
- The results from the respondents provide room for improvement in the study;

- The researcher will be able to establish the approximate time it takes to complete the questionnaire by the respondents; and
- Questions that are misinterpreted can be rephrased and reformulated (Zulu, 1999:89, 90)

I piloted 100 learners from a secondary school in the Pinetown area who did not form part of the sample in May 2003. The sample consisted of 100 grade 10 and 11 learners with 49% male and 51% female respondents. Each of these learners was given similar questionnaires to complete and the questionnaires were collected immediately after the survey. Additionally, the pilot study facilitated an assessment of the logistical and technical procedures for data collection.

Administration of the questionnaire

After ensuring that all the consent procedures were completed by the various heads of department, I proceeded with the next stage of the fieldwork.

I personally delivered the 420 questionnaires to the 8 selected secondary schools. On my arrival at each school each principal introduced me to the official who would be personally responsible for handing out, supervising and collecting the questionnaires. I explained the purpose of the study and gave further instructions concerning the filling in of the questionnaire.

I accepted the fact that completion of the questionnaires should not interfere with teaching time and that the questionnaires would be filled in during relief periods. By mutual agreement and with the necessary consent of the school management, questionnaires which were not personally supervised by me were

completed and returned to me within two weeks. I personally supervised the completion of questionnaires at six of the secondary schools chosen as part of my sample and promptly collected them upon completion.

Conclusion

In this chapter I presented the research design and fieldwork I employed to obtain the necessary data. I discussed the preparation for the quantitative nature of the study as well as the permission to conduct research at the eight selected schools in the eThekweni Region as well as the selection of respondents. I have given a detailed description of the Questionnaire as the research instrument used in this study, as well as the pilot study conducted to determine how the subsequent study could be improved upon. I finally discussed the administration of the questionnaire at the various research centres. In the next chapter I present the Data processing component of my survey.

Chapter 10

DATA PROCESSING

Preview

In this chapter I will discuss the procedure I employed in order to process the data.

Processing of data

The statistical program that was used to quantify the results

After the data was collected it was captured into the SPSS 11 program for Windows, a comprehensive statistical analysis and data management system in a format which would permit analysis and interpretation (data reduction). This included the coding of 420 questionnaires completed by learners in the SPSS 11 code book.

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

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

Data processing from questionnaires to table

At each survey session each respondent was required to read questions in the questionnaire and mark their responses by placing a tick or a cross in the

appropriate spaces, or by writing down the appropriate information where required. I then entered the responses into the SPSS 11 programme. The raw data collected was coded and entered into the computer by me. I checked and rechecked the data to ensure their validity.

Setting up the encoding parameters in SPSS

A codebook is drawn up in the planning phase of research to give an unambiguous account of all probable responses in a numeric form. The codebook forms the basis of the quantification options coded into the database used to analyze the results of the survey.

Rows, Columns and Cells

SPSS 11 is a statistical database that is organized in vertical columns and horizontal rows. Each column represents the data captured on a particular question of the questionnaire. Each row contains the responses of a respondent as shown in the SPSS 11.0 screen shot in figure 9 below.

	resp	age	gender	reqv	quali	texpi	texpc
1	1	4	1	8	2	3	
2	2	3	1	4	1	3	
3	3	2	1	4	1	4	
4	4	2	1	8	1	8	
5	5	2	1	4	1	4	
6	6	2	1	1	1	1	
7	7	4	1	3	2	6	
8	8	3	1	4	2	3	

Figure 9: Screenshot containing responses of a respondent

Variable view and data views in SPSS

Although the data can be entered in SPSS in any of a variety of formats (numeric, strings, punctuation symbols, etc.), I entered in the numeric codes 0 to 9. A

respondent number is entered in the first column of the database for each respondent, to represent everyone anonymously as promised in the questionnaire.

Each respondent's responses are entered in the data view mode from left to right along the row for that respondent. Every datum is entered in a cell, the point where a row and column intercept. In this way the full set of data for each respondent is entered one cell at a time, proceeding from left to right.

18	18	3	1	5
19	19	4	1	5
20	20	3	1	3
21	21	1	1	4
22	22	5	1	0

Figure 10: The Data View in SPSS 11.0

Selecting the Appropriate measure for the type of data

In SPSS 11 I right-clicked on each column header, selected “define variable,” which opened up a coding dialogue box. This dialogue box enabled me to define each variable in my questionnaire. The example given below is that of “age”:

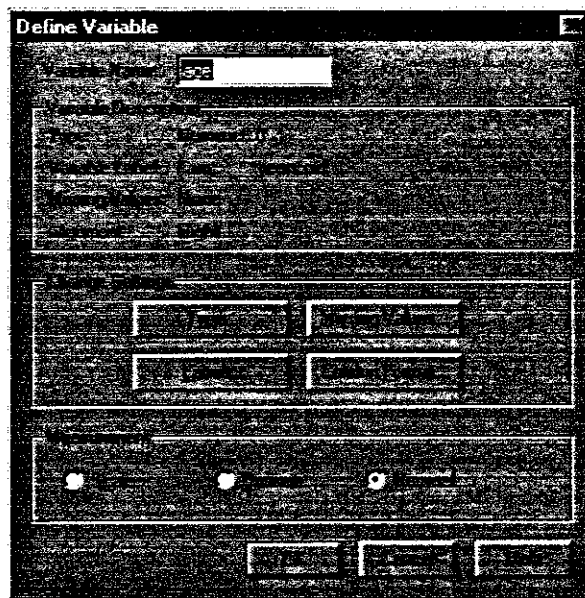


Figure 11: Snapshot of define variable coding box

On the Define Variable dialogue box I in each instance selected the appropriate measurement option for the type of data solicited. Scalar measurement is only used in relation to subjective value judgements of respondents. Scalar measurement is appropriate when respondents express preferences, attitudes, opinions, etc. measured on a gradually changing continuous scale such as *Never—Sometimes—Often—Constantly*. An example of a question used is “How often do you do your homework?” Ordinal measurement relates to standard scales where all respondents have got the same meanings in mind, e.g. “How often do you go to the movies?” Ordinal measurement is also appropriate when respondents make value judgements such as *X is taller than Y, X is more expensive than Y*.

Nominal measurement is appropriate when respondents select a particular subcategory within an overall category such as age, gender, race, etc. For the purposes of this study, I used a mixture of scalar, ordinal and nominal measurement.

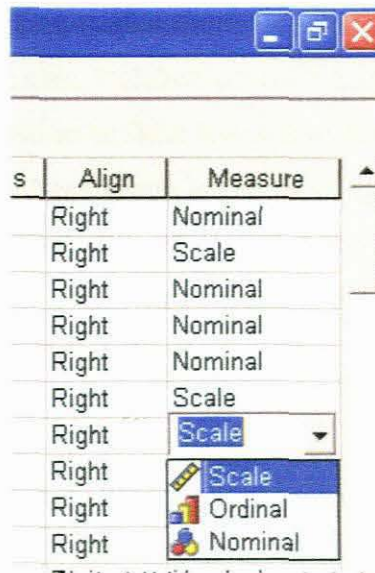


Figure 12: Snapshot of measurement options in SPSS

Following this, I activated the “labels” dialogue box by clicking on the Labels button on the Define Variable dialogue box. Here I am again using the age variable as an example:

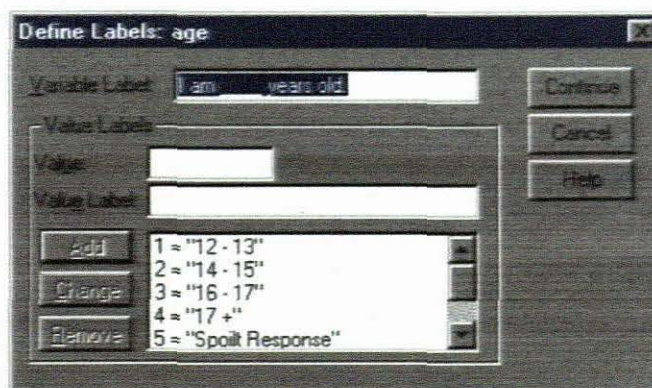


Figure 13: Snapshot of define labels box

Using the value label slot I typed the questionnaire statement: "I am ___ years old." Thereafter I set up the coding parameters by entering the appropriate data code in the Value slot, and the age range that it represents in the Value Label slot. In the example given above, I typed in 1, followed by "14 and below" in the Value Label slot. Thereafter, I clicked on the "Add" button to establish this coding parameter. This had to be done for each of the age variables. The "Add" button is used to add each age variable to the list of age variables. When this was completed I clicked on the "continue" button when I finished. This procedure had to be followed for each question in the questionnaire.

Entering the data

Each question in the questionnaire is assigned a particular column in the database. The appropriate code variant for the individual respondent is entered in the column that deals with that question. As can be seen from the screen shot of my database, below, I used only numeric codes to represent particular responses, although one could as easily have used alphabetical codes:

	responde	school	age	gender	area	language	otherise	re:lepar	re:lekti	clothes	looks	future	schjob
1	1.00	1.00	17.00	2.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	3.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	3.00
2	2.00	1.00	17.00	2.00	1.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	5.00	2.00	4.00
3	3.00	1.00	17.00	2.00	1.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	2.00	3.00
4	4.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	2.00
5	5.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	1.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	2.00	1.00
6	6.00	1.00	16.00	2.00	1.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	5.00	3.00	5.00	5.00	4.00
7	7.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
8	8.00	1.00	19.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
9	9.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
10	10.00	1.00	18.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
11	11.00	1.00	18.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	5.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
12	12.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00
13	13.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	3.00
14	14.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	3.00
15	15.00	1.00	16.00	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	5.00	2.00	3.00
16	16.00	1.00	17.00	2.00	2.00	4.00	2.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
17	17.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.00
18	18.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
19	19.00	1.00	18.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	1.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	3.00
20	20.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
21	21.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	1.00	4.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00
22	22.00	1.00	18.00	2.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	5.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	2.00	2.00
23	23.00	1.00	19.00	2.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	3.00
24	24.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00
25	25.00	1.00	15.00	1.00	1.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	2.00	3.00
26	26.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	5.00	4.00	4.00	1.00	3.00	2.00	2.00
27	27.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	2.00	3.00
28	28.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	1.00	3.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	3.00
29	29.00	1.00	16.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	5.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	3.00
30	30.00	1.00	17.00	1.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	2.00	4.00	4.00	3.00
31	31.00	1.00	16.00	1.00	1.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	4.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	3.00
32	32.00	1.00	16.00	2.00	1.00	2.00	5.00	1.00	2.00	2.00	5.00	4.00	3.00

Figure 14: Snapshot of Database

Verifying the accuracy of the coding process

I verified the accuracy of the encoding process by double-checking each code that I had entered after the questionnaire had been encoded onto the database.

The database was also thoroughly checked by the promoter of this study who made some changes. After the responses were captured on the database the accuracy of the data was tested in the following ways:

- Questionnaires were compared with the coded database.
- The SPSS search facility was used to check the numbers that did not correspond with the codes given in the codebook.

Data extraction in the form of tables and graphs

In the SPSS data entry mode, I clicked “analyze” and selected custom table option. I activated “custom table” and selected the “general tables” option to generate a general table as shown in figure 12 below.

This action generates a table in a separate SPSS facility, namely the SPSS Output Viewer which is used to edit tables or to generate any of a variety of graphs by selecting particular sections of a general table.

		Count	Table %
School that the respondent attends	Wyebank Secondary	70	16.7%
	Ilanga Secondary	56	13.3%
	Centenary Secondary	54	12.9%
	Northmead Secondary	61	14.5%
	Ferndale Secondary	60	14.3%
	Bechet Secondary	59	14.0%
	Wingen Heights Secondary	30	7.1%
	Westham Secondary	30	7.1%

Figure 15: The school that the respondents in my survey attend

From this table I selected the items that I wanted to analyze to the rows and columns. I edited the statistics by telling the computer to give counts and percentages. A table showing counts and percentages appeared.

I extracted graphs from general tables by double clicking the table and selecting the graph option in the SPSS editing menu. I then chose the graph that I felt it would help me analyze the information easier. The following is an example of a bar graph using age and gender as an example.

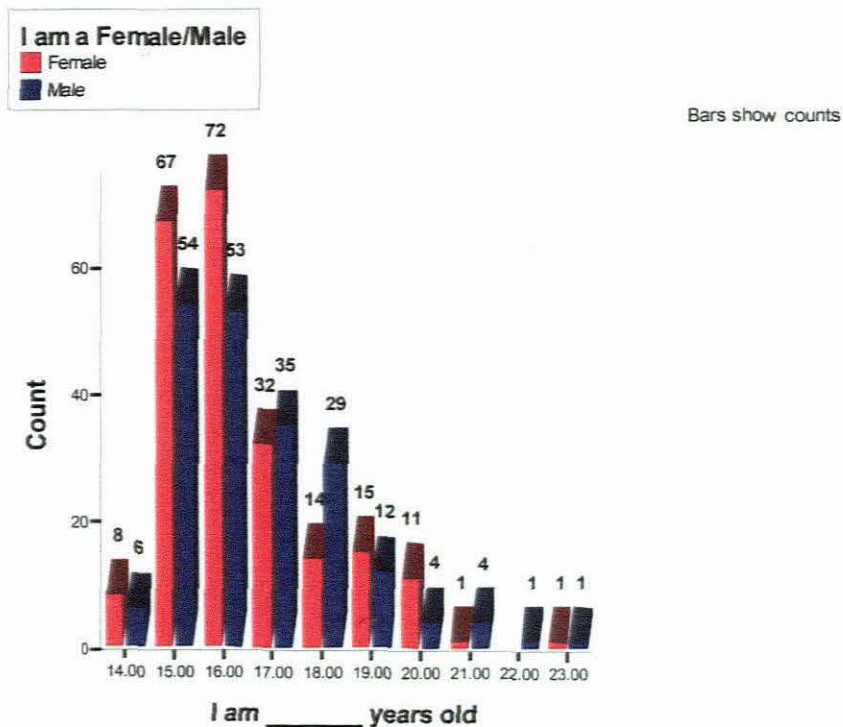


Figure 16: The age of the respondents

Conclusion

In this chapter I explained the procedure employed when processing the data into the SPSS 11 statistical analysis programme. I also discussed how I encoded the database for this study by punching in the data obtained from the 420 questionnaires which made up my sample. I also gave an account of the steps that were followed when encoding data into the SPSS programme. Once the data was captured, it was verified by double checking against the questionnaires in order to correct any data capturing errors. The database was also scrutinized by the promoter of this study.

In the next chapter I will present the results of my study.

Chapter 11

FINDINGS

Preview

In this chapter I will give an account of my findings with the assistance of tables and graphs. Significance Tables demonstrating some of my findings can be found in Addendum 3.

Demographic characterisation of the respondents

In the following section I will give a general demographic characterization of the respondents that participated in this study: I will characterize them in greater detail in the next section.

Gender distribution of the respondents

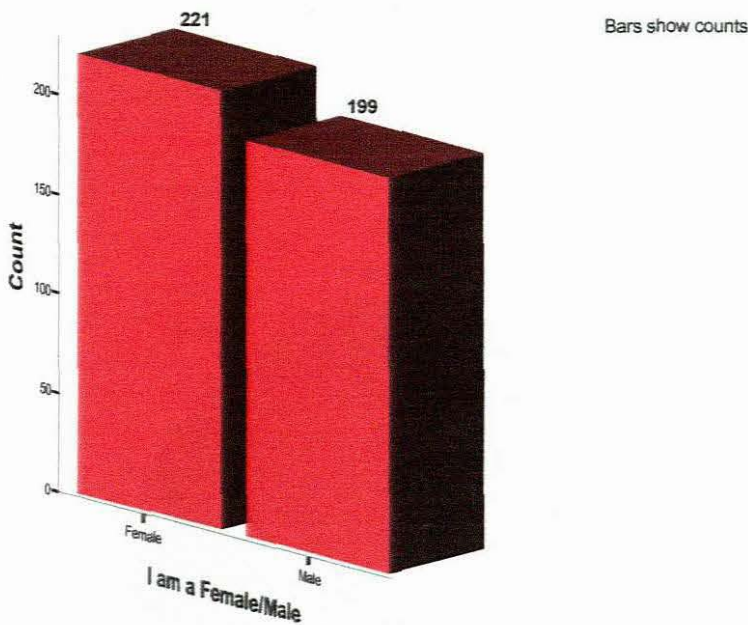


Figure 17: The gender distribution of the respondents

As the graph reveals, of the 420 respondents (221) 52.6% were females and (199) 47.4% were males. There were almost equal representations of males and females in my sample, with only 22 more female respondents than male respondents. The graph also shows that there were no *No response* and *Spoilt response* gender data on the questionnaires. Because of the almost equal proportion of male and female respondents, gender could be used as one of the variables in the analysis of my data to determine whether there is for example a difference between males and females, in self-image, social responsibility and family relationships.

The age distribution of the respondents

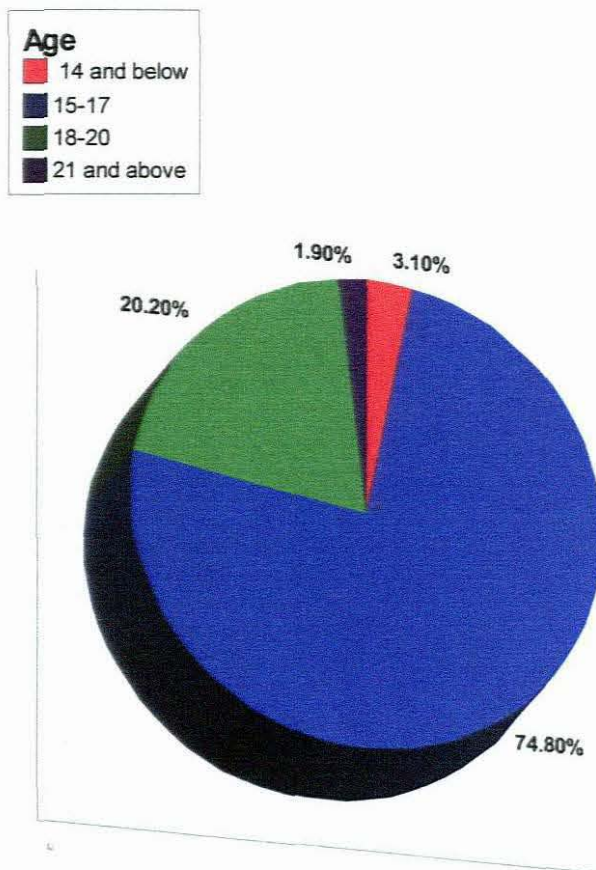


Figure 18: The age distribution of the respondents

Respondents' ages ranged from 14 years to over 21 years. There were 3.10% (14) respondents whose ages ranged between the ages of 14 and below. 74.80% (313) of the respondents ranged between the ages of 15-17. 20.2% (85) of the respondents fell within the 18-20 year old category and almost 2% (8) respondents were over the age of 21. There were no spoilt responses pertaining to the age group of the respondents. The age group of the respondents will not be used as one of my variables in the analysis of my data because of the overwhelming majority of respondents between the ages 15 – 17.

The home language of the respondents

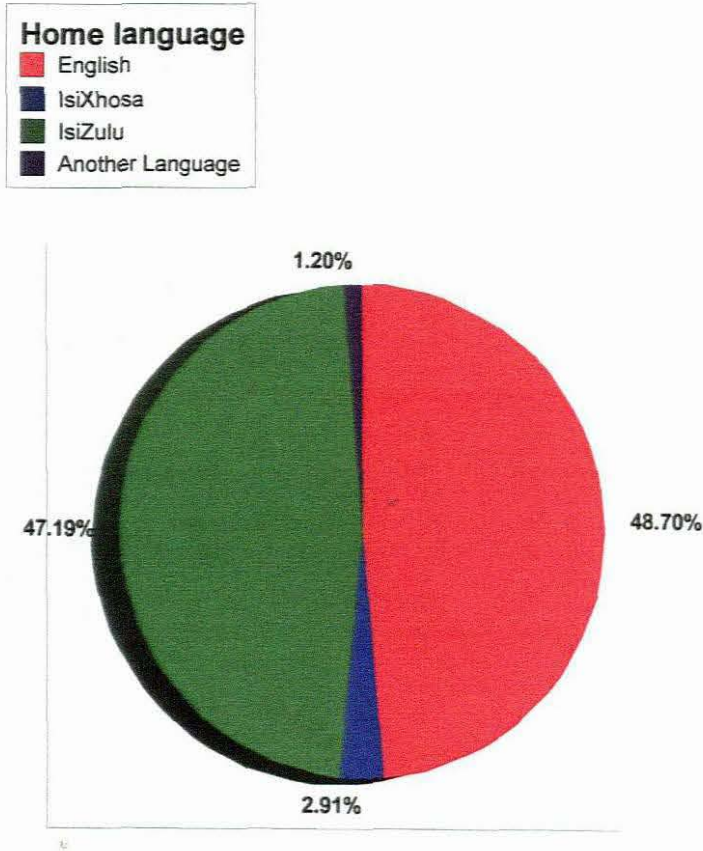


Figure 19: The home language of the respondents

As the graph reveals, there were almost the same number of English and IsiZulu speaking students. Of the 420 respondents, (205) 48.70% were English speaking and (198) 47.19% were IsiZulu speaking students. There were only (12) 2.91% IsiXhosa speaking respondents and (5) 1.20% of the respondents spoke another language. The graph also shows that there were no *No response* and *Spoilt response* home language data on the questionnaires. Language could be used as one of my variables in the analysis of my data because of the almost equal proportion of

English and IsiZulu speaking respondents in my sample. The language the respondents speak is indicative of culture. One can safely say that no Jew, Indian, Coloured, or White respondent would speak IsiZulu as a home language. Culture of the respondents could therefore be used as another variable in the data analysis in order to arrive at conclusions regarding differences and similarities of the self-image between the respondents.

The schools that the respondents attended

The following table indicates the number and percentage of respondents from the schools selected.

		Count	Table %
School that the respondent attends	Wyebank Secondary	70	16.7%
	Ilanga Secondary	56	13.3%
	Centenary Secondary	54	12.9%
	Northmead Secondary	61	14.5%
	Ferndale Secondary	60	14.3%
	Bechet Secondary	59	14.0%
	Wingen Heights Secondary	30	7.1%
	Westham Secondary	30	7.1%

Figure 20: The schools that the respondents attended

Eight schools from the Department of Education and Culture from the eThekweni region were selected to ensure the most representative sample possible as is evident from the above table. None of the ex Model C schools approached were willing to participate in this research. There were (70) 16.7% respondents from Wyebank Secondary, (56) 13.3% respondents from Ilanga Secondary, (54) 12.9% learners from Centenary Secondary, 61 (14.5%) respondents from Northmead Secondary, (60) 14.3% respondents were from Ferndale Secondary, (30) 7.1% learners from Wingen Heights Secondary and (30) 7.1% of the respondents from Westham Secondary. I will therefore use the school that the

respondents attend as a dependent variable in the analysis of my data to determine whether there is for example a difference between schools that adolescents attend, in self-image, social responsibility and family relationships.

The area where the respondents live

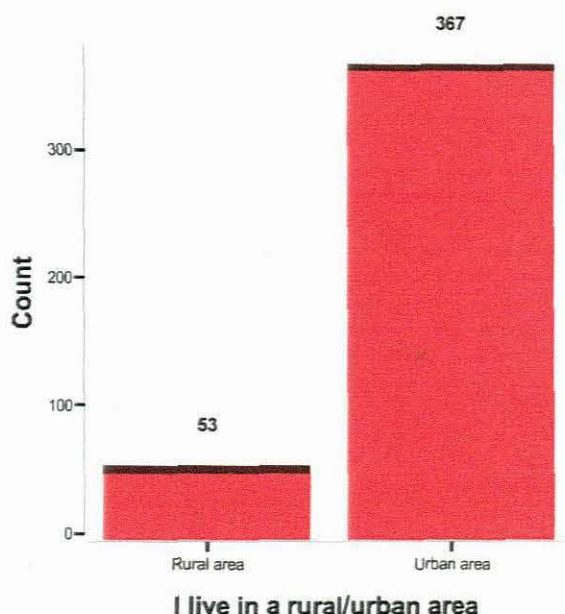


Figure 21: The area that the respondents live in

The graph reveals that the majority of the respondents (367) 87.3% lived in an urban area and (53) 12.6% of the respondents lived in a rural area. By virtue of the imbalance between rural and urban respondents, the area that the respondents live in could not be used as a variable in the analysis of my data to determine whether there were any significant similarities/differences between adolescents living in rural and urban settings and demotivation.

How adolescents travel to school

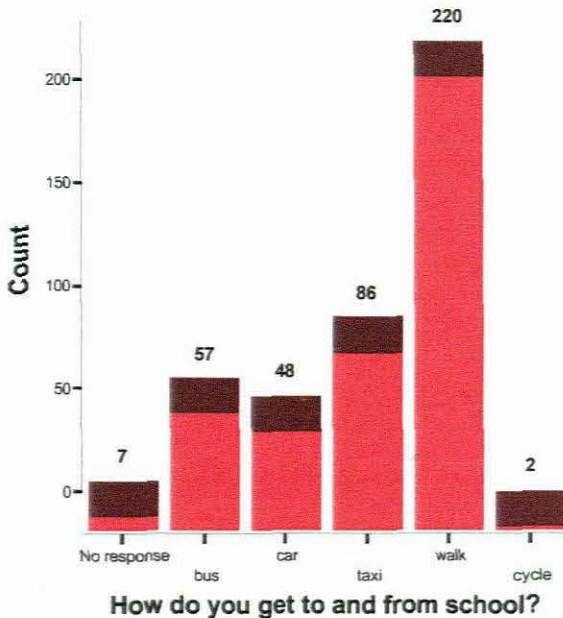


Figure 22: How adolescents travel to school

There were (7) 1.6% no responses to this question. 13.5% (57) respondents indicated that they travelled by bus, 11.4% (48) travelled by car, 20.4% (86) travelled by taxi, 52% (220) walked to school and .5% cycled to school. 46% (193) respondents in total travelled to and from school. This indicates that a vast number of respondents' live great distances away from the schools they attended. Factors that need to be taken into account are safety and security, punctuality and attendance. Learners who travel great distances from school are normally tired by the time they arrive at school. Many of the of the respondents 34% (143) who travel to school may be late for classes because they rely heavily on public transport such as buses and taxis. The levels of demotivation may increase due to

learners not being able to attend school regularly due to high bus and taxi fares. My findings reveal that many learners come from single-parent homes where there's only one breadwinner. The majority of the single-parent homes in this sample have mothers as caregivers.

The self-image of the respondents

The self-image of an individual is not readily observable through non-verbal cues such as facial expressions, body stance and body language. Researchers therefore construct questionnaires in such a way so that what lies hidden within the mind of the respondents is made known by way of written or verbal responses. According to Leedy (1998:142) data sometimes lay buried deep within the minds or within attitudes, feelings, or reactions of men and women.

According to Mersham & Skinner (2002: 98) the amount of information we disclose in our interpersonal relationships influence our relationships. The Johari window which is a metacognitive model illustrates how intrapersonal communication is linked to interpersonal communication and helps us understand the type of information we disclose, the persons we make disclosures to, and the communication environment we find ourselves in.

The Johari window is divided into four quadrants which represents individuals' four different selves. Each pane indicates your own and others' awareness of behaviours, attitudes, feelings, desires, motivations and ideas. Quadrant one reflects an individual's openness to the world and willingness to be known, which forms the basis for establishing interpersonal relationships. The second quadrant is the blind self reflecting all the things people know about us of which we are unaware such as gestures and mannerisms. The hidden quadrant of the Johari window according to Mersham & Skinner (2002:100) contains all the information known to yourself and about others which you prefer not to disclose to someone else. According to Gass and Seiter (2003:106) people with low self-esteem feel

less confident in themselves and their opinions and may also be overly concerned about their appearance and behaviour to be receptive to persuasive messages. The unknown quadrant represents information which neither you nor others have explored.

Section A of the questionnaire was designed to elicit responses about the self-image of the respondents. It is appropriate to ask these questions at the beginning so as to persuade the respondents to engage in intrapersonal communication (self-assessment, envisaging, planning, etc.) before asking for responses on their interpersonal relationships with their parents, peers, educators and significant others.

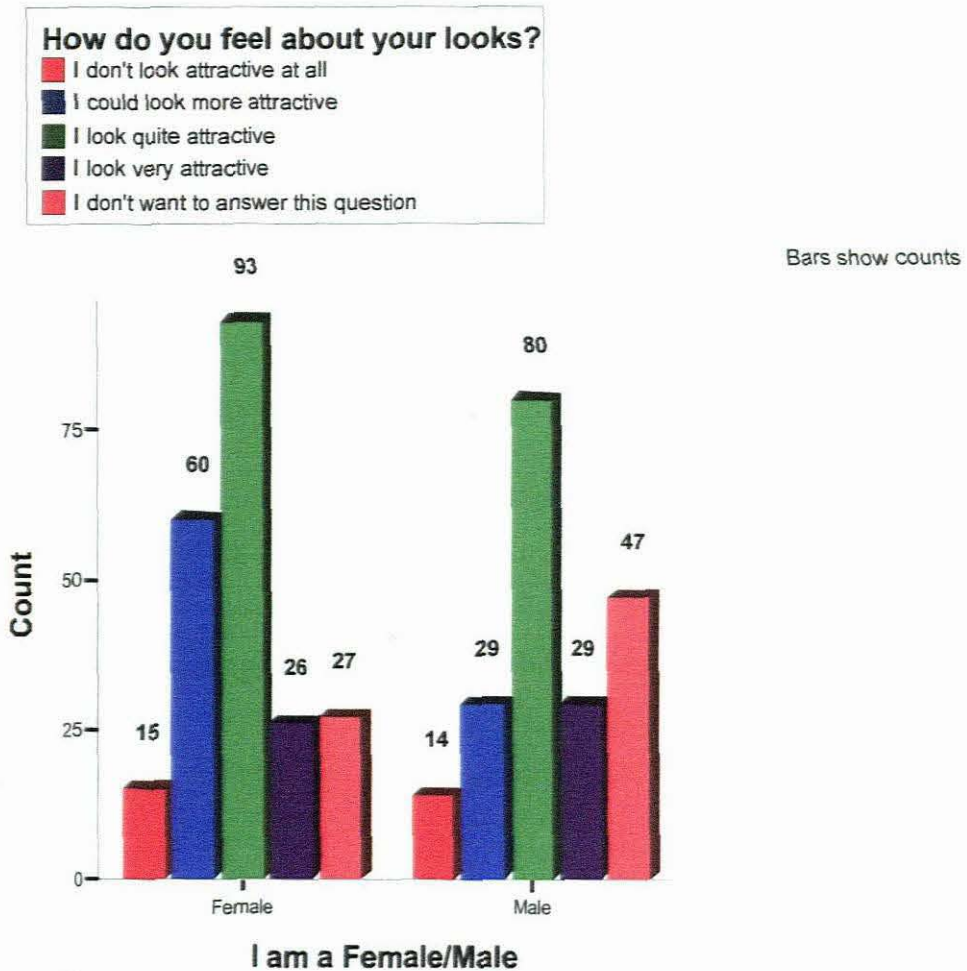


Figure 23: Correlation between respondents' looks and gender

There were 3.5% (15) female respondents who felt that they did not look attractive at all. 14% (60) female respondents indicated that they could look more attractive. The majority 22% (93) of the female respondents felt that they looked quite attractive. 6.19% (26) respondents felt that they looked very attractive and 6.4% (27) opted not to answer the question.

Of the male respondents only 3.3% (14) said that they don't look attractive at all, 6.9% (29) felt that they could look more attractive, 19% (80) indicated that they

look quite attractive, 6.9% (29) said that they look very attractive and 11.1% (47) chose not to answer the question.

Almost the same number of male and female respondents indicated that they did not look attractive at all. 14% more female respondents felt that they could look more attractive in comparison to 6.9% of the male response. There were almost an equal proportion of male and female respondents, 119 and 109 respectively, who felt that they looked quite/very attractive. However, 4.7% more male respondents were unwilling to answer this question.

An almost equal proportion of male and female respondents gave a positive response about their looks. However, there were 31 more female respondents in comparison to 29 male respondents who indicated that they could look more attractive which is indicative of female respondents being dissatisfied with their present looks and who wanted to be better looking. There were 5% (20) more male respondents in comparison to female respondents who chose not to answer this question.

From the statistics given in the above graph it can be concluded that self-image doesn't manifest itself uniformly in all adolescents. More adolescents (both males and females) are more positive about themselves. Ones who are highly positive about themselves are in both gender groups than the ones who are more positive about themselves. Adolescents who are ambivalent are slightly more. There were significantly more males who were ambivalent about their looks.

Which statement best describes how you think others feel about you?

- No people like me
- Few people like me
- Most people like me
- All people like me
- I don't know whether people like me or not
- I don't want to answer this question

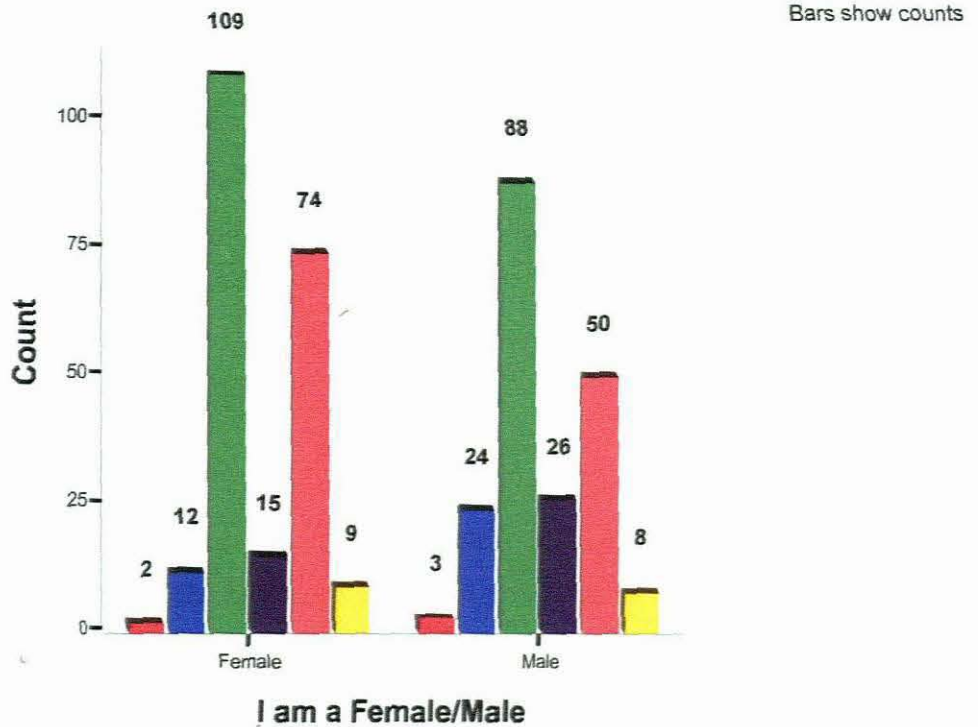


Figure 24: Respondents' perceptions of how others see them, analyzed by gender

In this section I analyzed through means of a graph the responses between that of males and females to the question "Which statement best describes how you think others feel about you?"

According to Parnell (1997:5, 6) the way you see yourself is largely influenced by the people around you and the way you comprehend their behaviour towards you. Self-image is not inborn, but is acquired through interaction with self and

significant others (people of importance to the self) such as parents, siblings, educators, pastors and the peer group.

Adolescents make deductions about how others feel about them through verbal (talking and listening) and non-verbal (facial expressions, body language and body stance) cues. By listening to what others say about them and by decoding what they say to them, adolescents make inferences about what others think of them.

Almost 0.5% (2) female respondents felt that nobody liked them. About 3% (12) female respondents indicated that few people liked them. The majority of the female respondents 26% (109) felt that most people liked them. 3.8% (15) respondents felt that all people liked them, 17.6% (74) stated that they did not know whether anybody liked them or not and 2.1% (9) opted not to answer this question.

An equal number of the male respondents, 0.7% (3) said that nobody liked them, 5.7% (24) felt that few people liked them, almost 21% (88) male respondents indicated that they were liked by everyone, 6.19% (26) said that they were liked by all people, almost 12% (50) respondents stated that they were not sure whether anybody liked them or not and close to 2% (8) male respondents opted not to answer the question.

A significantly higher proportion of female respondents expressed a positive perception when asked "Which statement best describes how you think others feel about you?" thereby indicating that they have a higher self-esteem than the male respondents in this survey. It is also worth noting that relatively more male respondents were positive about how they perceived others felt about them. This statement related to respondents' perceptions of how popular they were among other people. An overall conclusion that can be drawn from this is that female respondents report a more positive self-image and a higher proportion of female

respondents perceive that they are popular among others as compared to male respondents.

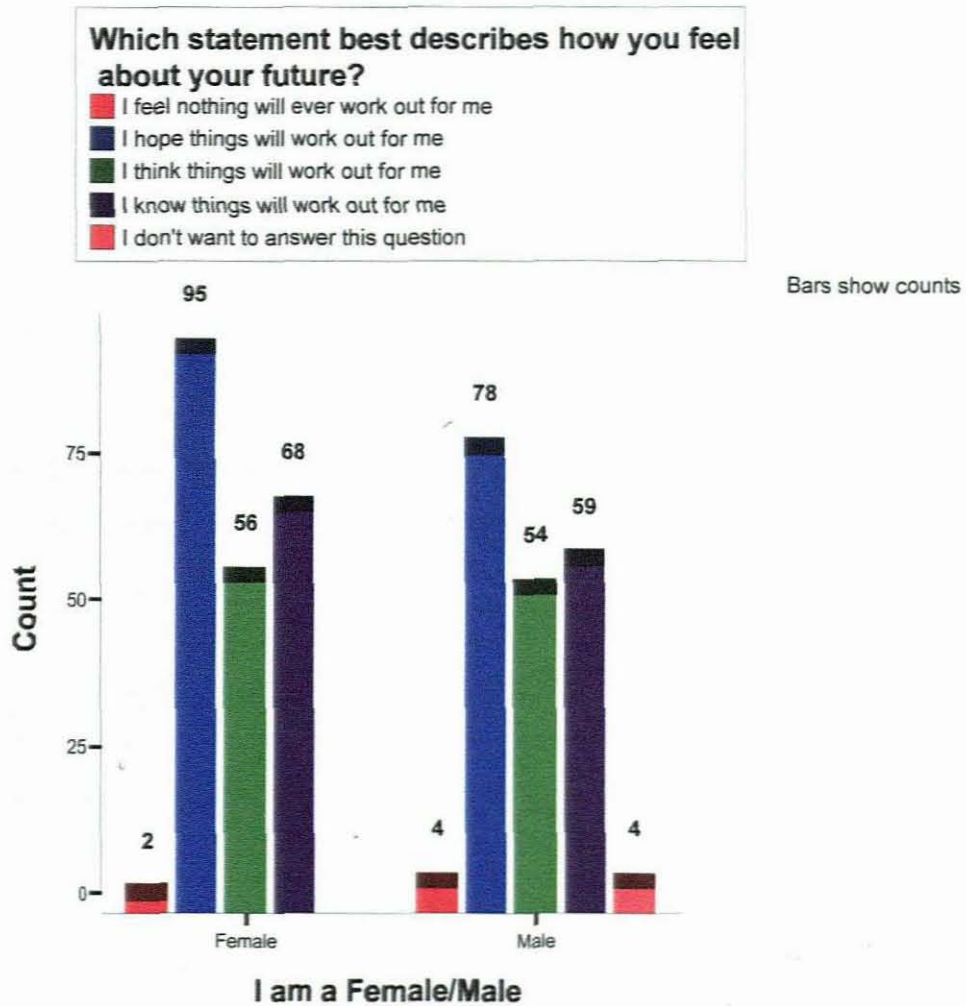


Figure 25: How female and male respondents perceived their future prospects

This question related to respondents' perceptions of how they viewed the future. The above graph reveals that only a small percentage of both females 0.5% (2) and male 1% (4) report that they felt nothing will ever work out for them. Almost 23% (95) female respondents and 18% (78) male respondents hoped that

things would work out for them in the future. An equal percentage of respondents (13%), both male and females indicated that they think things would work out for them in the future. 16% (68) of the female respondents' and 14% (59) of the male respondents were absolutely sure that things would work out for them in the future.

It is also worth noting that relatively more female respondents were positive about how they perceived their future. The majority of female respondents hoped that their future would be better as well as knew that things would work out for them in the future. One can therefore safely conclude that female adolescents report a more positive perception of the future.

General conclusions about the self-image of the respondents

From the statistics given in the above graphs it can be concluded that self-image doesn't manifest itself uniformly in all adolescents. More adolescents (both males and females) show the same profiles and are more positive about themselves. Both say by majority that most people like them. In both graphs relatively few say "I don't know whether people like me or not." The same pattern also emerged when respondents were asked about their looks. At certain times however a pattern emerges where female respondents report a more positive self-image and a higher proportion of female respondents perceive their future optimistically. There are relatively more female respondents who report that they are more popular with people than their male counterparts.

Many adolescents now portray the "I am cool image". What it amounts to is that racial tensions that were prevalent in apartheid South Africa has largely dissipated in the cultural sphere of adolescent existence. All racial groups now feel positive about themselves. I have discussed intercultural relationships at great length in chapter seven of this dissertation.

As a result of the adolescents' positive perception of the future they can now strive for self-actualization. Abraham Maslow (1970) identified five basic need levels that motivate human behaviour. They are survival, safety, social, esteem and self-actualization needs. I have discussed this theory in greater detail in chapter five of this dissertation. Races have shifted from focussing on physical needs to self-actualization. In apartheid South Africa adolescents were greatly deprived of quality education and in other areas such as creative arts, performing arts, and music which were out of their reach. As a result they only concentrated on the physical aspects of life such as survival and safety needs. Adolescents now have the potential to be all they ever wanted to be and are well able to fulfil all their dreams for the future.

Family circumstances of respondents

Buildings can only be as strong as their foundations. It is upon a firm family foundation that the rest of society is structured. According to Erikson (1968) the family establishes the basic foundation for positive development. Catalano and Hawkins (1996) assert, "A child's positive interaction with family members and others provide the opportunities, skills, and recognition for appropriate social development".

In this section I examined the family circumstances of respondents in terms of their interpersonal relationships with members of their family, their social responsibilities at home as well as their ability to confide in members of their family in times of crises.

When the respondents were asked who took care of them the vast majority of them indicated that they were cared for by both their parents, but with other patterns also being reported as shown in table 20 below:

		Count	Table %
Who takes care of you (and your brothers and sisters if you are not an only child?)	Both my parents	191	45.5%
	Mostly my mother	81	19.3%
	Mostly my father	6	1.4%
	Only my mother as a single parent	75	17.9%
	Only my father as a single parent	3	.7%
	My father and my stepmother/my father's regular companion	11	2.6%
	My grandparent/s	1	.2%
	My aunt and uncle	20	4.8%
	My older brother/s and sister/s	8	1.9%
	Neighbours	4	1.0%
	another person	6	1.4%
	I don't want to answer this question	14	3.3%

Figure 26: Who takes care of you and your siblings?

The majority of the respondents 45% (191) indicated that they were taken care of by both parents. 19% (81) respondents indicated that they were taken care of mostly by their mothers and (6) 1.4% indicated that they were being taken care of mostly by their fathers. Almost 19% of the sample indicated that they were being taken care of by either their fathers or mothers as single parents. Only (11) 2.6% of the respondents indicated that they were being cared for by their biological mother/father and a stepparent. 9% (39) respondents indicated that they were cared for by others such as grandparents and uncles and aunts, older siblings, neighbours and another person.

This table indicates that by far, the majority of respondents come from stable two-parent, prototypical households. According to (1990:244) children who are brought up in families where both parents are present to assist them in the growing up process make a smoother transition from dependency to adulthood

interdependence. The vast majority of single parents in the survey were biological mothers 18% as opposed to biological fathers 0.7% as single parents which indicate that there are more single parent homes with mothers than fathers as caregivers.

Due to the ravages of HIV and the AIDS pandemic, African adolescent households are increasingly being disrupted by the death of one or more parents.

Trust

According to Lingren at <http://www.ianr.unl.edu/pubs/family/html> communication affects everything that goes on between people. It determines the kinds of relationships formed and how each person is perceived. In a healthy family, a family member can openly express all kinds of emotions, and knows that someone can and will listen and respond appropriately. Effective listening between members of the family opens doors by building feelings of respect and trust. A willingness to speak and to listen, which is the basis of interpersonal communication, forms a solid foundation from which a family can begin to function more effectively.

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents about who they would trust in order to share their innermost feelings, who to trust if they were facing a serious problem at school, or a serious problem with their health.

Which statement best describes what you are willing to reveal about your innermost feelings to your parents?

- I will never reveal my innermost feelings to my parents
- I will sometimes reveal my innermost feelings to my parents
- I will mostly reveal my innermost feelings to my parents
- I will always reveal my true feelings to my parents
- I don't want to answer this question

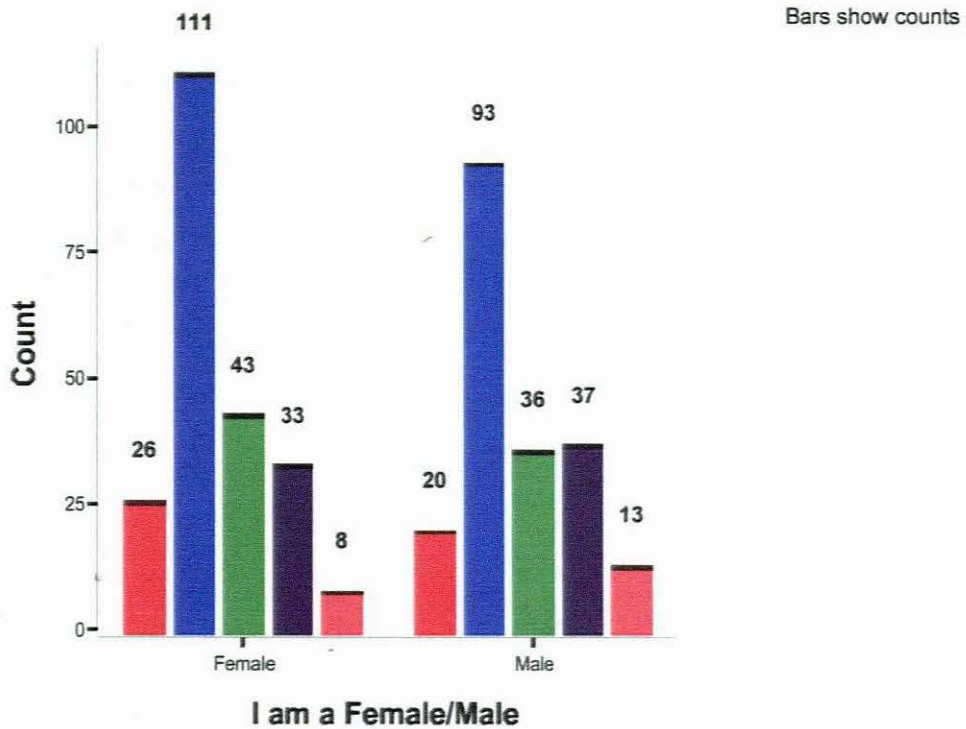


Figure 27: Gender and respondents' ability to confide in their parents

This graph demonstrates that the majority of female respondents (111) 26% would sometimes open their hearts to their parents by sharing their innermost feelings with them. (85) 22% of male respondents indicated that they would sometimes reveal their innermost feelings to their parents. Almost the same percentage 6% (26) female respondents and 5% (20) male respondents indicated

that they would never reveal their innermost feelings to their parents. (43) 10% of the female respondents and (36) 9% male respondents stated that they would mostly reveal their innermost feelings to their parents. An almost equal percentage of female and male respondents 8% indicated that they would always reveal their innermost feelings to their parents.

The above graph reveals that adolescents, irrespective of gender prefer sharing their innermost feelings with their parents. According to Lingren at <http://www.ianr.unl.edu/pubs/family/html> the parents' ability to communicate, negotiate and compromise, and show their love and affection toward each other provides a positive role model for their children. Adolescents' confiding in their parents in times of crises is a universal phenomenon.

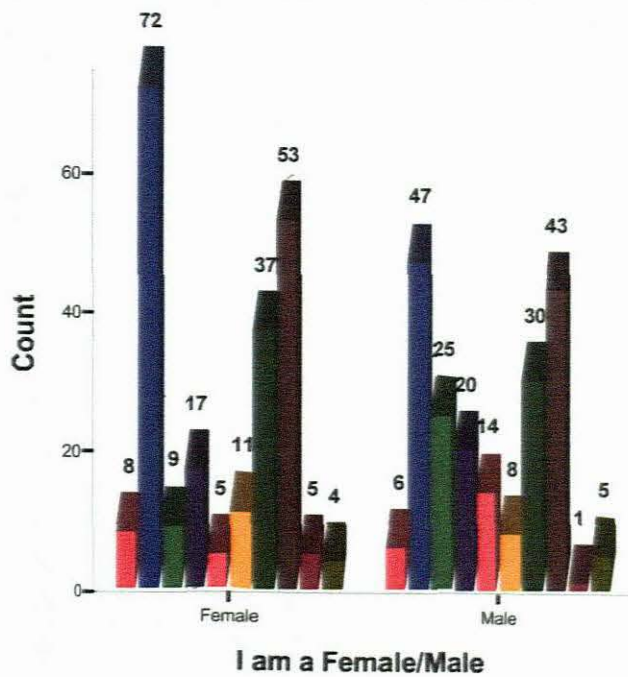
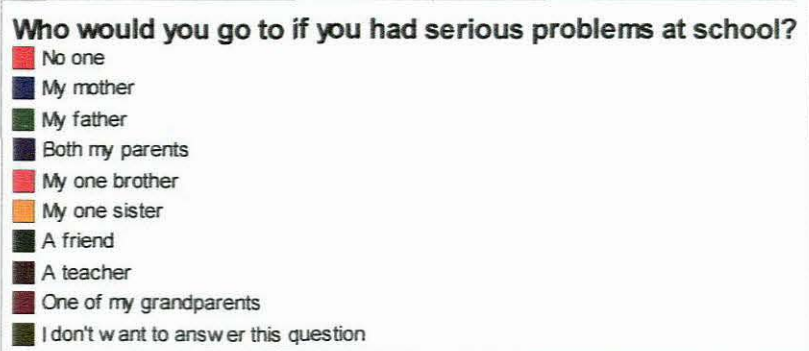


Figure 28: Gender and who to trust to solve school problems

Almost 2% (8) of the female respondents and 1.4% (6) male respondents indicated that they would confide in nobody concerning problems at school. 17% (72) of female respondents and 11.1% (47) male respondents indicated that they would confide in their moms regarding school problems. Only 2% (9) of the female respondents and 6% (25) male respondents indicated confidence in

their fathers as problem solvers. An almost equal proportion of female 4% (17) and 3.5% (14) male respondents indicated that they would confide in both parents concerning school problems. (37) 9% of the female respondents as well as (30) 7.1% of the male respondents showed a preference towards friends solving their school problems. 53 (12.6%) of the female respondents and 43 (10.2%) male respondents opted to go to their teacher for help regarding school problems.

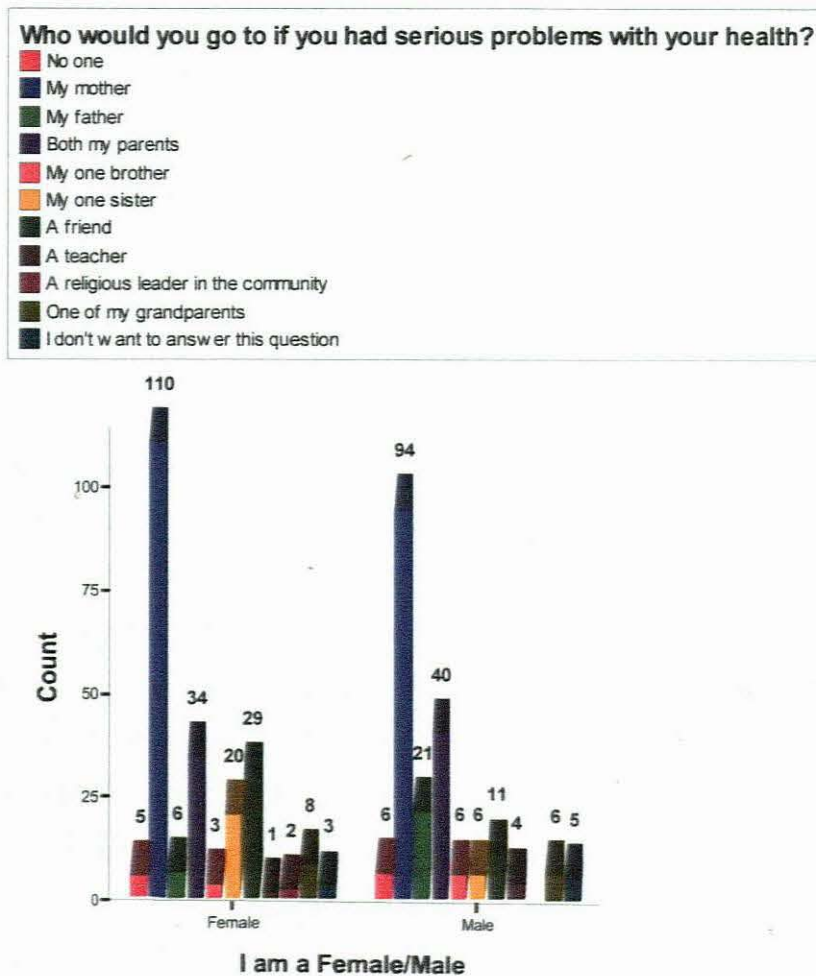


Figure 29: Gender and who to trust in a personal health crisis

An almost equal % of male and female respondents (1%) indicated that they would confide in nobody concerning their health. An overwhelming majority of both female (110) 26% and (94) 22% male respondents preferred confiding in their moms. (6) 1.4% females and (21) 5% males indicated that they would go to their dads for help. (34) 8% of the female respondents and almost 10% (40) male respondents indicated that they would talk to both parents regarding health issues. 5.4% (23) female respondents as well as 4% (11) male respondents indicated that they would confide in one of their brothers or sisters. Almost 7% (29) of the female respondents and 2.6% (9) of the male respondents reported that they would rather trust their friends with their health issues.

Concerning health problems, the vast majority of both genders would trust mums to a far greater measure than fathers. In both groups the father comes in as the second most trusted person. Teachers rank quite low as being confidants with health related issues.

General conclusions about trust of the respondents

The above graphs demonstrate that by far, a majority of respondents, both male and female would trust their mother with their innermost feelings, as well as in school related problems and in a personal health crisis. There were however more female respondents, than male respondents indicating this. An overall conclusion that can be drawn from the above is that regardless of gender and race, majority of the respondents choose to trust their mother during a personal health crisis. The proportion of respondents who did opt to trust their father was significantly lower than those who chose to trust their mother. The trend to confide in the mother especially in times of crisis is a universal one, and my findings support this trend.

A higher number of male respondents than female respondents indicated that they would trust their father. A relatively higher number of female respondents

indicated that they would trust their friends or an older brother/sister with a relatively higher number of male respondents saying that they would trust their fathers in such a crisis. Very small numbers of both male and female respondents indicated that they would trust their grandparents, their teachers or a religious leader in their community if they experienced a personal crisis with their health. A significantly high number of both male (10%) and female respondents (13%) reported that they would go to their teachers for help in a school crisis. This confirms that educators are surrogate parents/parents in loco and that adolescents are drawn to their educators who consider them as their role models.

The level of perceived isolation within the families is low which is indicated by the response “no one” when asked “Who do you feel closest to in your family?” A very interesting observation is that both groups by gender and culture report that they would rather trust a teacher or a friend than their fathers with important school and health related matters. This is a great indictment on fatherhood.

Bennideen (2001) reported the same pattern in her findings in the Scottburgh district of KwaZulu – Natal. When respondents were polled concerning who they would trust when faced with school and health related problems, the majority of them indicated that they would go to their moms as caregivers followed by their teachers and their friends.

From the above graphs it can be seen that the majority of the adolescents in this sample are willing to confide in at least one person in whom they trusted concerning important issues. However, those respondents who were unwilling to reveal their innermost feelings concerning important issues such as health and school related problems may be placing themselves at risk which may lead to chronic health conditions, death and even suicide if they don't share their problems with significant others. Adolescents who were unwilling to reveal their innermost feelings to their parents may be doing so because of the emerging

generation gap between parents and their adolescent children where parents do not understand their adolescent or through problems related to interpersonal communication.

The graphs reveal that a significant number of female respondents are more willing to confide in their parents than their male counterparts in the sample. Males who are unwilling to confide in their parents may also be displaying a “macho image” of themselves in the sense that they are well able to solve their own problems.

Reported Family Relationships

Research supported by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) verify that parents who have high expectations for their children and spend time with them have children who achieve at higher levels than other children.

According to Crittenden (1995:367) adolescence is a period of dramatic change in attachment relationships. From birth onwards, humans turn to other humans who can protect and comfort them. The mother becomes the primary attachment figure, followed by the father, siblings and other members of the extended family.

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents as to who they were closest to in their family and how their fathers and mothers treated them and correlated it by gender and culture.

Reported Family Relationships by Gender

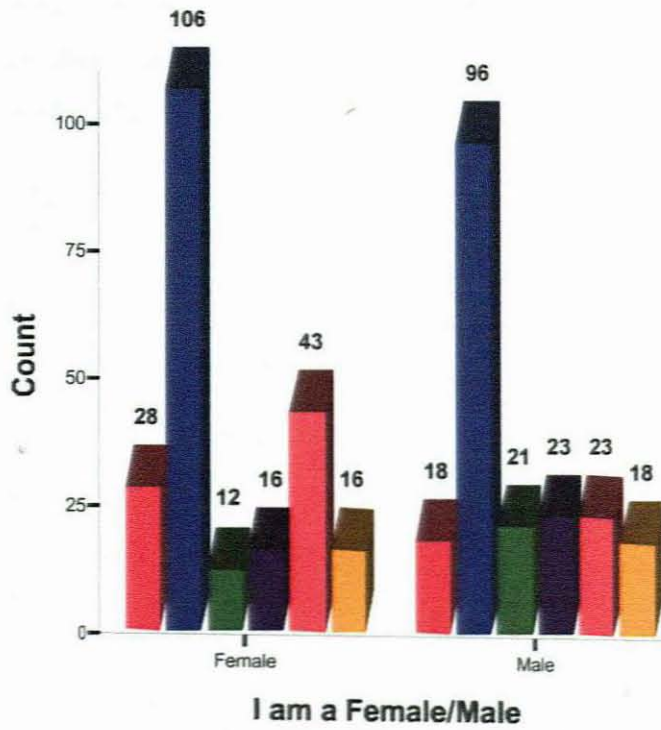
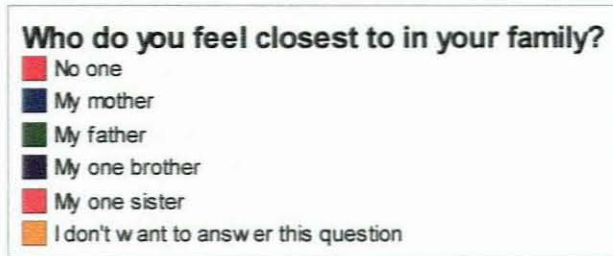


Figure 30: Gender and closeness to family members

This question related to respondents' closeness to a member of the family. The above graph reveals that only a small percentage of both females 6.6% (28) and males 4.2% (18) reported that they were not close to anyone in the family. 25%

(106) female respondents and 23% (96) male respondents were closest to their moms. Only 2.8% (12) female respondents and 5% (21) male respondents were close to their dads. 3.8% (16) of the female respondents and 5.4% male respondents indicated that they were closer to their one brother. There were (43) 10.2% more females than males (23) 5.4 % in the sample who felt closer to their one sister. An almost equal percentage (4%) of the respondents chose not to respond to this question.

The closest person to the majority of the adolescents in both genders were their moms followed by siblings and almost as a last resort felt close to their fathers. This reveals that in role relationships in the family, the father is not seen as a confidant by the adolescents.

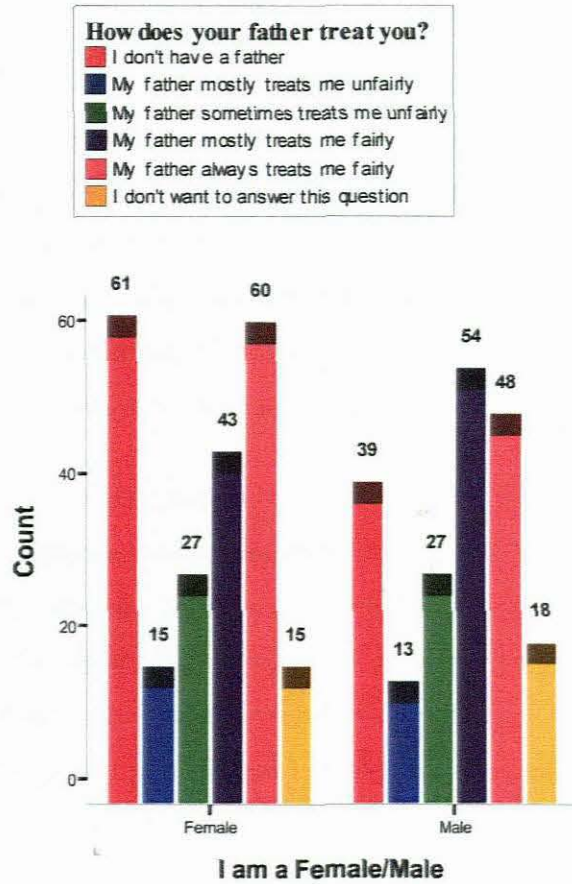


Figure 31: Paternal relationships by gender

This question related to how fathers treated their children. The above graph reveals that 14.5 % (61) females and 9.2% (39) males reported that they had no father. Almost 3.6% female respondents and 3% (13) male respondents indicated that their fathers treated them unfairly. Almost 9% (27) of both male and female respondents indicated that their fathers sometimes treated them unfairly. 10.2% (43) females and 12.8% (54) male respondents reported that their fathers mostly treated them fairly. 14% of the female respondents and 11.4% male respondents

indicated that they were always treated fairly by their fathers. Only 3.5% (15) female respondents and 4.2% (18) male respondents opted not to answer this question.

According to the above graph more female respondents than male respondents did not have a father. A significant proportion 20% (82) of adolescents indicated that their fathers mostly and sometimes treated them unfairly. There were more females than males who indicated that their fathers always treated them fairly. An equal proportion of males (102) and females (103) reported that their fathers mostly/always treated them fairly.

The overall conclusion that can be drawn from this is that by far the majority of respondents, both males and females, who did have fathers indicated that they share very cordial relationships with their fathers and fathers are portrayed in a positive light when asked about how they were being treated. This relationship results in a healthy self esteem and encourages strong family relationships. There is however cause for concern in that a significant number of households are without fathers.

Reported Family Relationships by Culture

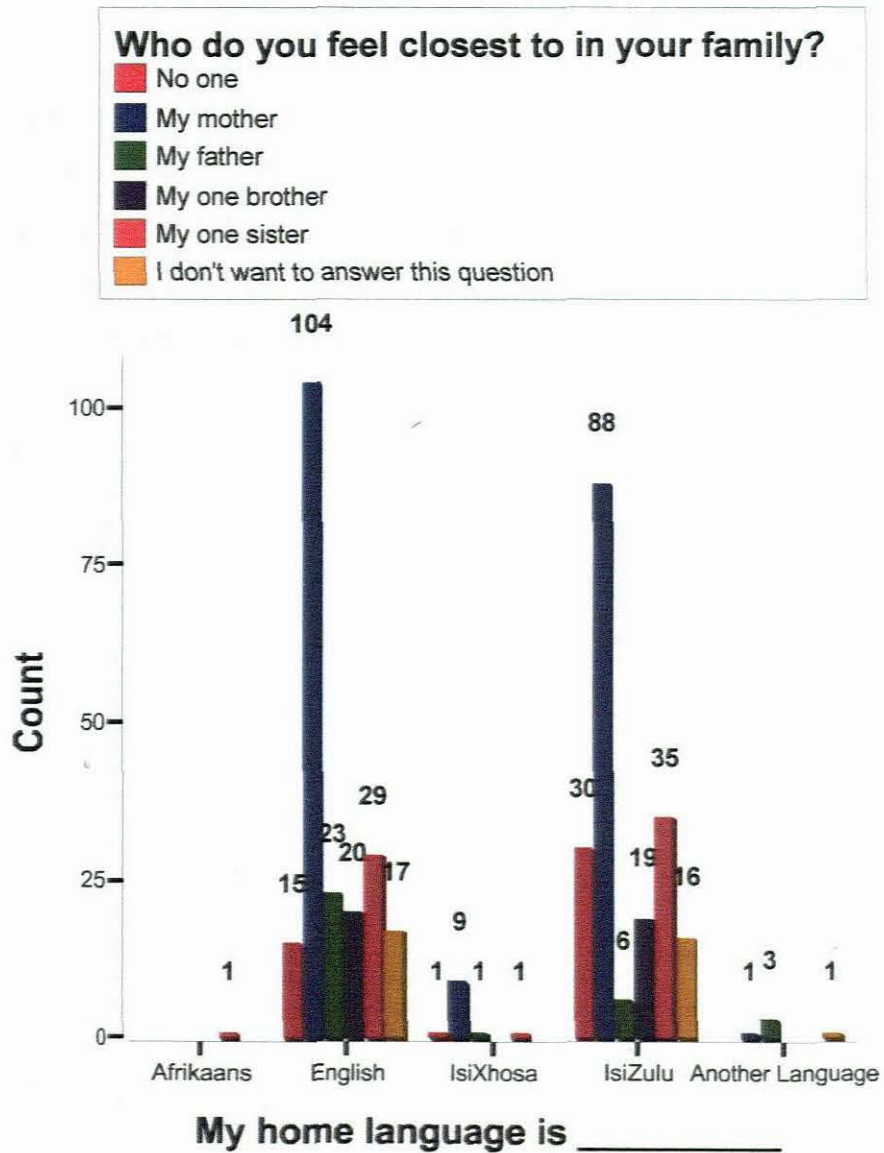


Figure 32: Culture and closeness to family members

3.57% (15) of English speaking respondents polled and 7.1% (30) IsiZulu and IsiXhosa speaking respondents felt no closeness to anyone in the family.

Almost 25% (104) English speaking respondents indicated that they were close to their moms, and 23% (97) of the IsiZulu and IsiXhosa speaking respondents reported that they were close to their moms. 5.4% (23) English speaking respondents and 1.6% IsiZulu and IsiXhosa respondents indicated that they were close to their fathers. Almost 4.7% of respondents from both the English and IsiZulu speaking cultures showed closeness to their one brother. There were more IsiZulu speaking respondents (36) 8.5% who felt closer to their one sister in comparison to 29 (6.9%) English speaking respondents. An almost equal number of English speaking respondents (17) and IsiZulu speaking respondents (16) opted not to answer the question.

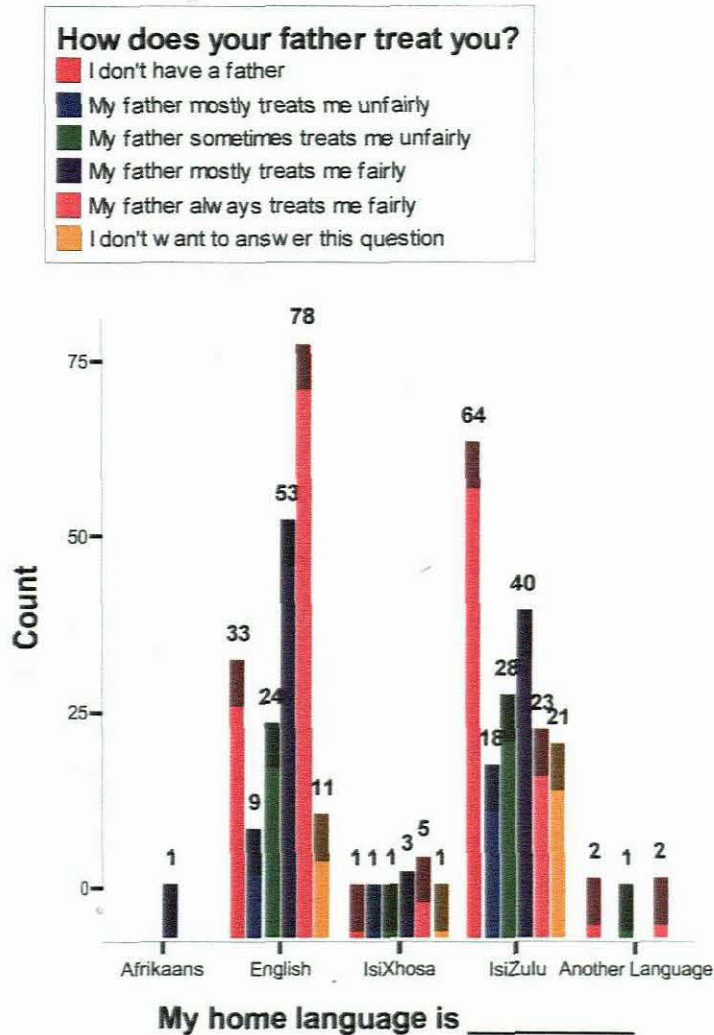


Figure 33: Paternal relationships by culture

A significantly higher number of IsiZulu speaking respondents (50%) more reported that they had no fathers. (33) 7.8% English speaking respondents and (64) 15% IsiZulu speaking respondents reported that they had no father. A significantly higher number of English speaking respondents 18.5% (78) indicated that they were always treated fairly by their fathers while only 5.4% (23) IsiZulu respondents indicated that they were always fairly treated by their fathers.

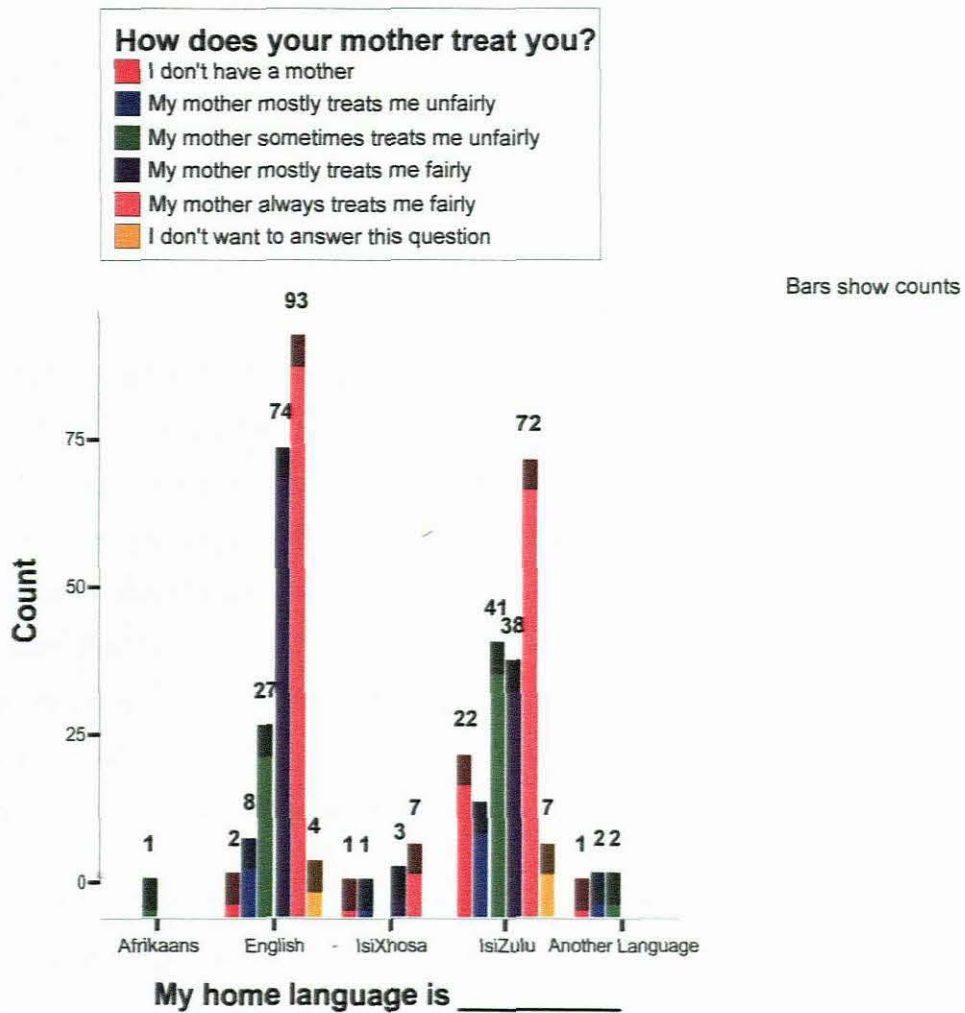


Figure 34: Maternal relationships by culture

A significantly higher number of IsiZulu speaking respondents than English speaking respondents reported that they had no mothers. About .05% (2) English speaking respondents and 5.2% (22) IsiZulu speaking respondents reported that they had no mothers. A significantly higher number of IsiZulu speaking respondents 13% (56) indicated that they were mostly/sometimes treated unfairly by their mothers while only 8% (35) English speaking

respondents indicated that they were mostly/sometimes treated unfairly by their mothers. An overwhelming majority of English speaking respondents 40% (167) reported that their moms mostly/always treated them fairly. Only 26% (110) IsiZulu speaking respondents reported that they were mostly/always treated fairly by their moms.

General conclusions about reported family relationships by gender and culture

An equal proportion of male and female respondents indicated that they were closest to their moms that confirm that most children, irrespective of gender are drawn to their mothers as caregivers rather than to their fathers. Fathers generally are income earners/breadwinners and mothers are regarded primarily as caregivers. Attachment theorists posit that children are closest to mothers because of umbilical ties/and long term exposure to mothers. The almost 50% majority of respondents from all three cultural backgrounds is overwhelming proof that adolescents, irrespective of gender or cultural differences are closer to their moms than other members of the family.

The same pattern emerges for adolescents from different cultures. The majority of the respondents from English speaking cultures as well as from the Zulu cultures felt closer to their mothers. The IsiXhosa numbers are basically too small to make any valid conclusions about them. There were however, more adolescents from English speaking cultures who felt closer to their moms than those from the Zulu culture. A higher number of Zulu speaking adolescents report not having a mother. A highly significant number of English speaking adolescents reported that they enjoyed fair treatment from their fathers. From the information shown in the graphs, one can clearly gauge that there are fewer father figures in African homes. Respondents in English speaking cultures report

a more cordial relationship with their fathers and mothers than those within the African culture.

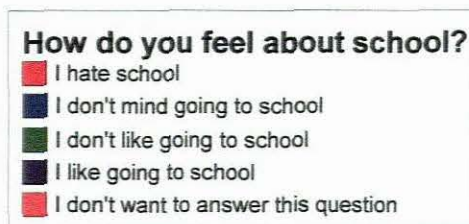
Adolescents' perception of school

Next to the family, the school is another important agent of socialization. In the statement of problem, I indicated that a study is undertaken of the high incidence of demotivated adolescents in their family relationships, peer relationships, school performance, and their social relationships in general, and in coping with the process of socialization.

Pretorius (1988:74) states that the school is a miniature society which serves as a transitional bridge from the intimate family life to impersonal societal life. It is at school that adolescents face new social situations which force them to make decisions which lead to actions. It is at school that adolescents are prepared for their life's call and beckon, to become productive members of society.

According to Bernstein (2001:370) school is an institution adolescents love to hate and accept it as a necessary evil, even if they feel enthusiastic about it at times. Demotivated adolescents may find school an unpleasant experience as well as an intimidating environment which quite often leads to anguish and frustration.

According to Levine (2002:46) although adolescents are the most prone to the evils of drugs and alcohol abuse which negatively impacts on brain growth and development and all its sidetracks and potential traps, yet there are a vast majority of kids who thrive in school and develop great kinds of minds.



Pies show counts

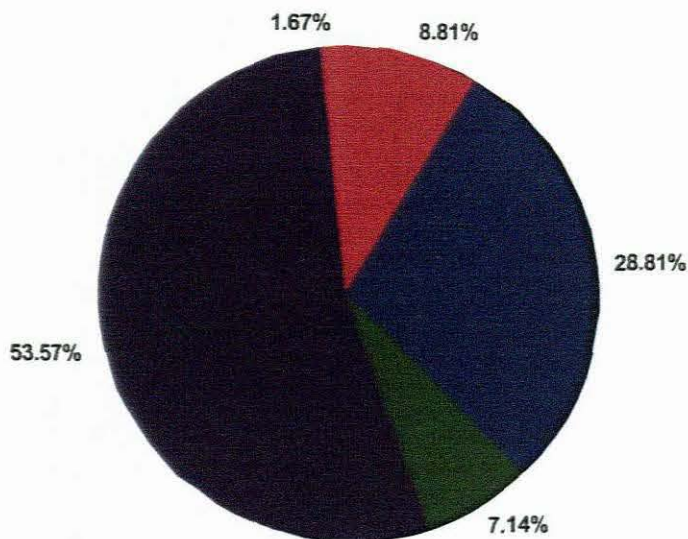


Figure 35: Adolescents' regard for school

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents as to how they felt about school and homework.

Of the 420 respondents in the sample, 8.81% (37) respondents polled stated that they hated school and 1.67% (7) respondents opted not to give a response. Almost 29% (121) respondents indicated that they did not mind going to school while 7.14% (30) respondents indicated that they did not like going to school. The majority of the respondents 53.57% (220) polled indicated that they liked going to school.

Almost 16% (67) respondents indicated that they either hated school or did not like going to school. Chapter 5 of this dissertation deals with the various reasons

as to why adolescents are demotivated. However, the majority of the respondents were positive about going to school.

In the next question, I wanted to gauge whether there were any similarities/differences between the genders concerning their like/dislike for school.

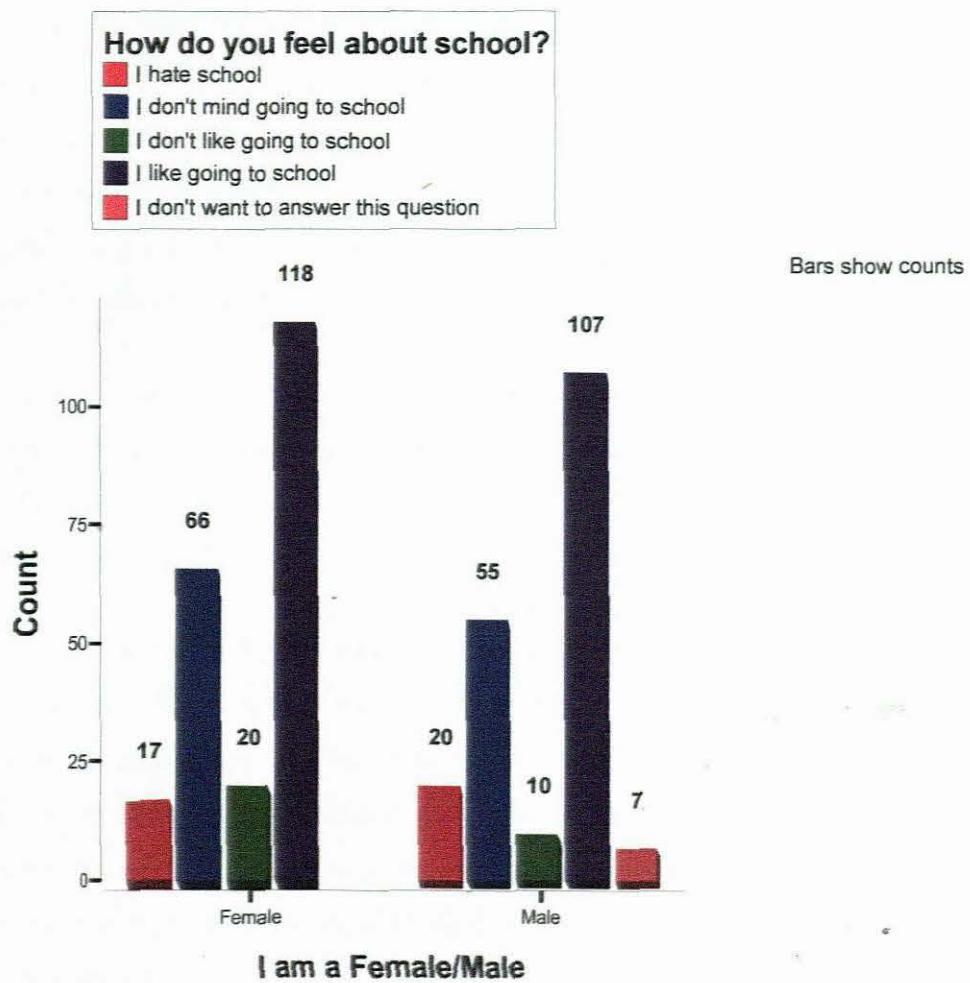


Figure 36: Adolescents' regard for school by gender

An equal proportion of males 4.7% (17) and females 4% (20) indicated that they hated school. Almost 16% (66) female and 13% (55) male respondents stated that they don't mind going to school. 4.7% (20) female and 2.3% (10) male respondents indicated that they don't like going to school. (118) 28% female and 25% (107) male respondents indicated that they liked going to school. Almost 2% (7) of the male respondents opted not to answer this question.

Overall, both genders portray a positive attitude towards school attendance. In both graphs, both females and males report that they like going to school, followed by those who said they don't mind going to school. Almost 44% females and 39% males, resulting in a total of (346) 82% of the poll indicated a positive perception towards school. The pattern that emerges in the above graphs is that adolescents, irrespective of gender possess a culture of learning. School attendance is therefore not a demotivating factor for them.

Those who indicated that they don't like going to school and hate going to school are relatively low. There are no gender based differences with regards to the adolescents' attitude toward school attendance. Those who report negative attitudes are relatively low.

The final observation I have made among my respondents is that there were no females who refused to answer but a few males. However, if we stack the number of males who say they hate school and who refused to answer the question as a negative component and stack together those who said they like going to school and don't mind going to school as a positive component we find that the positive attitude of males is still overwhelmingly high as opposed to the negative attitude.

General conclusions about adolescents' perception of school

In modern democratic economies the school has replaced the performance of heroic deeds as a rite of passage into adulthood. The findings reveal that most of the respondents reported that they liked going to school followed by a group of adolescents who stated that they did not mind going to school. This is a clear indication that education is working as society's primary form of socialization and rite of passage into adulthood. The same pattern emerges for both male and female respondents.

Adolescents' attitude towards homework

According to Bernstein (2001:391) the average high school learner gets two to three hours of homework per day. He further states that homework is one of the major battlegrounds between parents and learners with school problems.

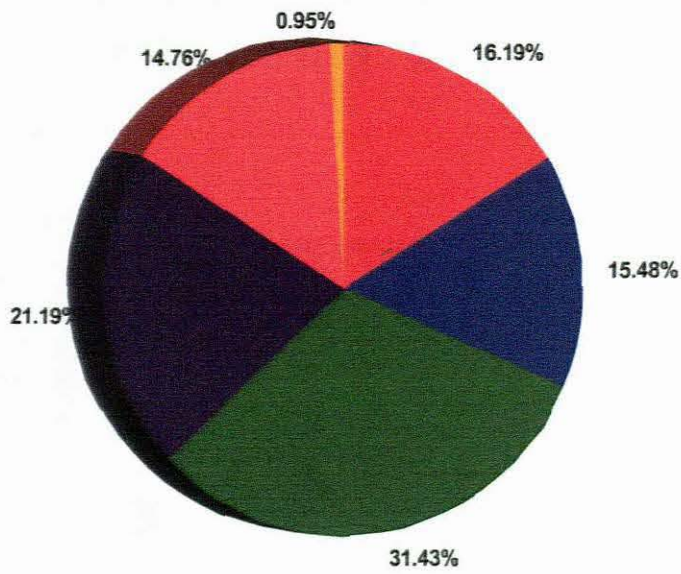
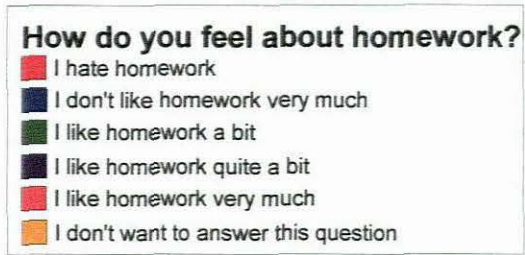


Figure 37: How adolescents feel about doing homework

In this question, I polled respondents as to how they felt about doing school homework. A total of (68) 16.2% respondents reported that they hated homework and a further (65) 15.5% indicated that they don't like homework very much. 31.4% (132) of the respondents indicated that they liked homework a bit. A total of 89 respondents reported liking homework quite a bit and only 14.8% indicated that they like homework very much. 1% (4) respondents chose not to answer this question. When one adds the negative responses to this question, a total of 63.81% (265) respondents are demotivated concerning doing homework.

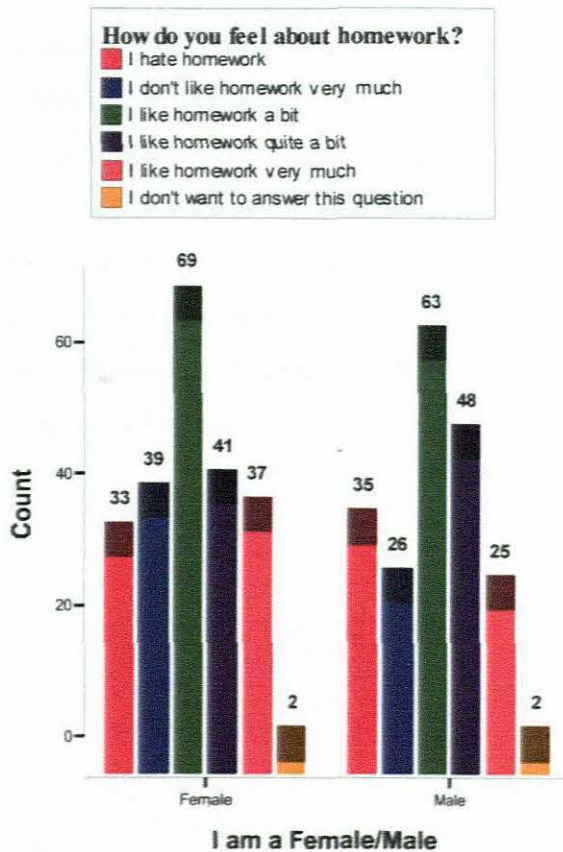


Figure 38: Adolescents' attitude to homework by gender

The above graph reveals that an equal number of respondents both male 7.85% (33) and female 8.3% (35) report that they hate homework. A very significant number of both male (69) 16% and female (63) 15% respondents indicated that they liked homework a bit. More females (39) 9.2% than males (26) 6.1% indicated that they don't like homework very much. An almost equal number of male (48) 11.4% and female (48) 11.4% respondents reported that they like homework quite a bit. There were more female respondents (37) 8.8% than males (25) 5.9% who indicated that they liked homework very much 2 (0.47%) respondents per gender opted not to answer this question.

In general the attitudes expressed by both genders have the same profile. My respondents overall are not positively motivated with regards to doing homework. My findings reveal that a significant number of learners 31.7% (133) either hate or don't like homework very much which is indicative of a fairly high incidence of demotivation. A further 31.4% of the adolescent population polled indicated that they "like homework a bit". Liking homework a bit is tantamount to saying "I like homework a little". This does not reflect a very positive attitude towards homework. A total of (142) 36% of the poll reported a very positive attitude toward homework.

Do chores at home interfere with completing your homework?

- I don't do chores at home, so chores don't interfere w ith hw
- I do all my hw at sch., so chores don't interfere w ith my hw
- Chores make it difficult to complete my homework
- Chores don't really make it difficult to complete my hw
- Chores don't at all make it difficult to complete my homework
- I don't want to answer this question

Bars show counts

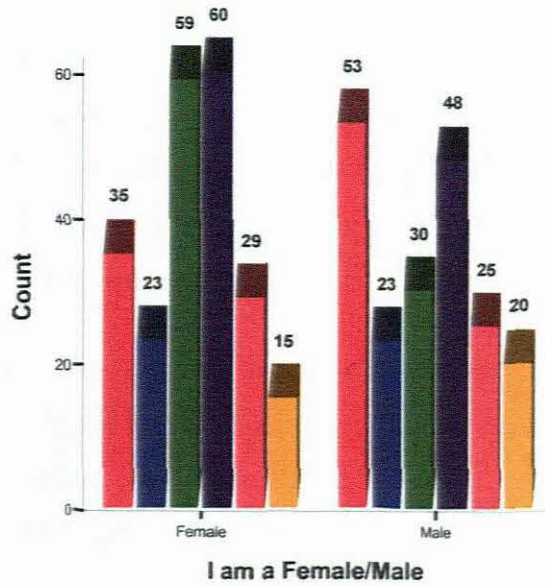


Figure 39: Correlation between doing homework and household chores

The above graph reveals that there are more males 13% (53) who don't do household chores than females 85% (35). An equal number of both males and females (23) 5.4% indicated that they do all their homework at school. A higher proportion of females (59) 14% as opposed to (30) 7% males indicated that household chores make it difficult for them to complete their homework. There were more females (60) 14.2% than males (48) 11.4% who indicated that household chores did not make it difficult for them to do their homework. A total of (29) 6.9% females and (25) 5.9% males indicated that household chores don't at all make it difficult for them to do their homework. (15) 3.5% females and (20) 4.76% males opted not to answer the question.

My findings reveal that the majority of the respondents in this survey found that household chores did not negatively impact on them completing their homework. 14% (59) female respondents found that doing household chores hindered them from completing their homework.

General conclusions about adolescents' attitude towards homework

An almost equal proportion of both male (186) and female (138) adolescents reported a negative attitude towards doing homework. This represents a total percentage of 63.1% of the sample. Females showed a significantly higher negative attitude towards doing homework. There may be various reasons such as taking care of siblings because most mothers work to support their families in single – parent homes. The sample reveals that 19% of the respondents come from homes with mothers as single parents. See figure 25 for details. Females are also required to complete household chores such as tidying the house and cooking family meals as is revealed in figure 39.

The largest groups in both genders say "I like homework a bit" which is another way of saying "I don't like homework". Those who say "I like homework a bit" are taking the neutral ground stance.

There were 73 male respondents who reported that they like homework quite a bit and like homework very much. If we stack the positives among the male respondents, their positive attitude almost equals the 72 female respondents who show a reserve for doing homework.

When we add the negative attitudes of female respondents who say they don't like/hate homework, 72 are negatively inclined and 69 are positive or neutral and 78 are positively inclined. Statistically, there exists an equal division between negative and positive attitudes. Females are therefore divided in their attitude towards homework.

Among the males the ones (73) with a positive attitude outstrip the ones with a neutral attitude. 61 are negatively inclined. The deduction one makes from the statistics regarding gender attitudes towards homework is that males report a better attitude than females. Contrary to general expectations, adolescent males have got an overall better attitude toward doing homework than female adolescents.

It is clear that female adolescents are expected to do chores to a greater extent than males. Among female respondents it's only the third highest of the responses category. Among male adolescents it is the highest numbers who say "I don't do chores." A further analysis of respondents show that among females there are an equal number of females who say that chores make it difficult /don't make it difficult for me to do my homework. Among males who do chores at home a significant larger percentage say that doing chores don't interfere with them doing homework.

By adding the positives in both genders the following deductions can be made. In the case of females, 89 respondents and against males, 73 were very positive about doing homework. It is clear that the attitude towards chores is positive. Relatively significant high numbers of female and male respondents said “I don’t want to answer this question”. In comparison to previous graphs there are instances where neither of the gender groups felt so sensitive about issues so doing household chores is a sensitive issue among adolescents.

Parental interaction with school

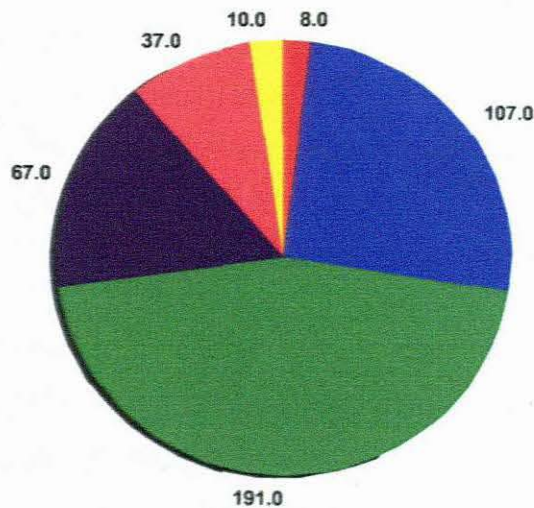
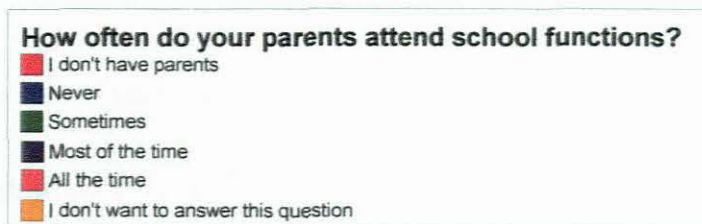


Figure 40: Parental interaction at school functions

Epstein at <http://www.ncrel.org> citing Henderson and Berla (1994) states that increased involvement of parents and families is one of the most important ways to improve public schools. A variety of studies by the latter authors confirm that parental involvement makes an enormous impact on students' attitude, attendance, and academic achievement. To effect change, parents must find time to participate in their children's education. The resulting partnerships between parents and teachers will increase student achievement and promote better cooperation between home and school. Together these efforts will connect families and schools to help children succeed in school and in their future.

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents about whether their parents showed an active interest in their schooling and the frequency in which they attended school functions.

The graph reveals a small percentage (1.9%) of adolescents who do not have both parents, or who are orphaned. Of the 420 adolescents in the sample, 25.4% (107) reported that their parents never attend school functions. 45.4% (191) of the adolescents polled reported that their parents sometimes attended school functions. 15.9% (67) respondents reported that their parents attended school functions most of the time, and (37) 8.8% indicated that their parents attended all the time. 2.3% (10) adolescents opted not to answer this question.

The 25.4% of the parents who never attend school functions is significantly high. The almost 16% of the parents who sometimes attend school functions is indicative of selective predisposition on the part of parents. Only 39.3% of the respondents indicated a positive attitude on the part of parents by stating that their parents attended most of the time and all the time.

From the statistics presented above, one can gauge that a significant number of parents (41%) have a negative attitude towards their children's schooling.

How often do your parents attend school sports when you participate?

- I don't have parents
- I don't participate in sports at school
- Never
- Rarely
- sometimes
- Often
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

Pies show counts

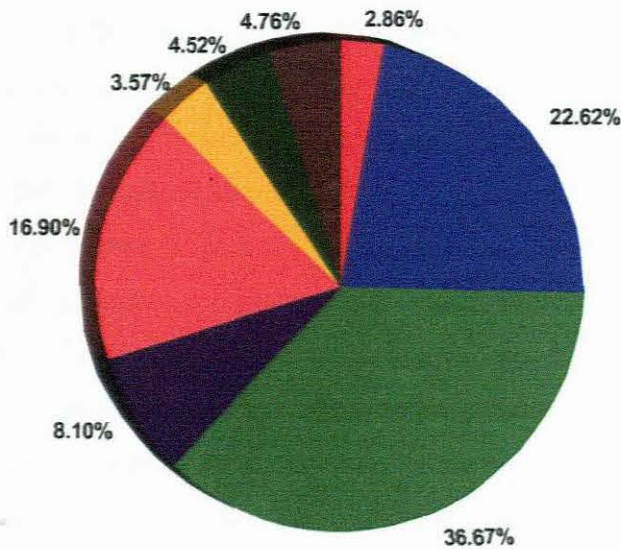


Figure 41: Parental involvement at school sports

The graph reveals a small percentage (1.9%) of adolescents who do not have both parents, or who are orphaned. Of the 420 adolescents in the sample, 22.6% (95) respondents reported that they did not participate in school sports. A significantly high percentage of respondents 36.7% (154) revealed that their parents never attend school sports. 16.9% (71) of the adolescents polled reported that their parents sometimes attended school sports. Only 3.57% (15) respondents reported that their parents often attended school sports. 4.5% (19)

of the respondents polled indicated that their parents attended all the time, and (20) 4.76% of the adolescents opted not to answer this question.

General conclusions about parental involvement with school

In general, the attitude expressed by adolescents concerning their parental involvement in school functions is alarming. It is through communication with the school that parents are able to determine their children's progress. Through harnessing the power of interpersonal communication, parents would also be informed by educators concerning the levels of demotivation and learner motivation at school. In many instances, the progress report (written communique) at the end of the school term and the newsletter are the only means of communication between the 25% of the parent population who never attend school functions and the schools their children attend.

The same pattern emerges in the question "do your parents attend school sports when you participate?" as for the number of parents who attend school functions. From the statistics presented above, one can gauge that only 29.73% (105) of the parent population have a positive attitude towards their children's sporting programme. A highly significant 47.6% (188) of the respondents indicated that their parents never attend sporting activities at school. It is through attendance at the school sports that parents are able to determine their children's prowess in sporting activities. When parents watch their adolescents excel in the various codes in athletics and other sporting activities at the annual

games day, it motivates them to do better and communicates a positive feeling. It also boosts adolescents' self-esteem.

Adolescents' attitude towards sports, recreation and leisure time

High quality sport and recreation programs...could significantly reduce the incidence of behaviour and emotional disorders in children and youth -

Offord

Humans are fundamentally social beings who need other humans to lead a normal and fulfilled life which leads to a state of self-actualization. In order to achieve this state, humans communicate with one another. Being human also requires us to validate our own experiences by sharing them with others. As part of social bonding we also need to share pleasant experiences such as entertaining one another or taking part in exciting experiences along with fellow humans.

Participation in extramural sporting activities creates opportunities for adolescents to become properly socialized beings. According to Klopper (2003) communication is ordered along a compliance gaining continuum that progress from cooperation to competition and confrontation. Through sporting activities, adolescents learn to cooperate with each other as well as learn how to engage in healthy competition which produces resilience. A resilient individual is one who has the capacity to effectively cope, adjust and respond to the problems and issues s/he faces in everyday life. Healthy competition also prevents unnecessary confrontation. Positive play experiences foster moral development in children by helping them to learn to give up instant self-gratification for a more sophisticated moral code based on fairness and mutual satisfaction. By learning to respect and apply the rules of the game, children learn to empathize with others and appreciate fair play – an attitude which adolescents would carry into adulthood.

Participation in physical activity also leads to improved body image as well as contributing positively to physical health, self-image and well-being of the adolescent. Adolescents' self esteem is nurtured by the mastery of age-appropriate skills and the achievement of reasonable goals. Physical activities promote social and emotional growth. Through active participation in sporting activities, adolescents are able to utilize their free time productively and are kept away from straying into wrong company and becoming demotivated. Recreational activities provide a safe and supportive environment for children and youth to explore their strengths, develop skills and test their limits.

According to the Child and Family Canada website at <http://www.cfc.etc.ca/index.shtml> two of the most important indicators of healthy social and emotional development are the resiliency of a child and a child's opportunity to enjoy caring relationships with adults who are important to that child. Both of these can be developed through participation in organized physical activities.

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents about their attitude towards extramural activities and their levels of activity/inactivity. The following tables reveal my findings.

		Count	Table %
How active are you in the following extramural sports activities? Athletics?	Inactive	255	60.7
	Active	79	18.8
	Quite active	49	11.7
	Very active	37	8.8

Figure 42: Activity levels of respondents in athletics

The majority of respondents 60.7% (255) revealed that they were inactive in this sporting activity. 18.8% (79) respondents revealed that they were active in the sport, 11.7% (49) reported that they were quite active and (37) 8.8% revealed that

they were very active in this sport. A total of 39.3% (165) respondents showed a keen interest in athletics while 60.7% (255) respondents showed no interest in the sport at all.

		Count	Table %
Swimming?	Inactive	244	58.1%
	Active	74	17.6%
	Quite active	65	15.5%
	Very active	37	8.8%

Figure 43: Activity levels of respondents in swimming

A total of (244) 58.1% of the respondents revealed that they were inactive in swimming. (74) 17.6% of the respondents revealed that they were active in the sport, (65) 15.5% revealed that they were quite active in the sport and (37) 8.8% reported that they were very active in the sport. A total of 41.9% (176) respondents showed a keen interest in swimming while 58.1% (244) respondents showed no interest in the sport at all.

		Count	Table %
Cricket?	Inactive	250	59.5%
	Active	80	19.0%
	Quite active	50	11.9%
	Very active	40	9.5%

Figure 44: Activity levels of respondents in cricket

A total of (250) 59.5% of the respondents revealed that they were inactive in cricket. (80) 19 % of the respondents revealed that they were active in the sport, (50) 11.9% revealed that they were quite active in playing cricket and (40) 9.5% reported that they were very active in the sport. A total of 40.5% (170) respondents showed a keen interest in cricket while 59.5% (250) respondents showed no interest in the sport at all.

		Count	Table %
Netball?	Inactive	303	72.1%
	Active	53	12.6%
	Quite active	36	8.6%
	Very active	28	6.7%

Figure 45: Activity levels of respondents in netball

A total of (303) 72.1% of the respondents revealed that they were inactive in netball. (53) 12.6 % of the respondents revealed that they were active in the sport, (36) 8.6% revealed that they were quite active in playing netball and (28) 6.7% reported that they were very active in the sport. A total of 27.9% (177) respondents reported that they played netball while 72.1% (303) respondents showed no interest in the sport at all.

		Count	Table %
Another sport?	None	256	61.0%
	Soccer	118	28.1%
	Volleyball	27	6.4%
	Rugby	4	1.0%
	Wrestling	3	.7%
	Table tennis	6	1.4%
	hockey	1	.2%
	softball	2	.5%
	Weightlifting	2	.5%
	Dancing	1	.2%

Figure 46: Activity levels of respondents in athletics

A total of (256) 61% of the respondents revealed that they did not participate in another sport. (118) 28.1 % of the respondents revealed that they were actively engaged in playing soccer, (27) 6.4% of the respondents revealed that they were quite active playing volleyball. (4) 1% of the respondents reported that they played rugby. A total of 0.7% (3) respondents reported that they participated in

wrestling while 1.4% (6) respondents showed no interest in table tennis. 0.2% (1) of the respondents played hockey and 0.5% (2) respondents played softball, (2) 0.5% participated in weightlifting and 0.2% (1) respondent participated in dancing.

My findings reveal that there is a very high level of inactivity in the various extramural sporting activities. 60.7% were inactive in athletics, 58.1% were inactive in swimming, 59.5 % of the respondents did not participate in cricket, and 72.1% did not participate in netball. Total of (256) 61% respondents did not participate in another sport. The most popular sporting activity was soccer with 28.1% (118) active participants.

General conclusions about adolescents' attitude to sport, recreation and leisure time

Low levels of participation among adolescents are an indication that they are not being properly socialized which is a contributing factor towards demotivation. There are two possibilities for this dilemma at our schools. Learners are either not keen in participating in sporting activities provided at school, or schools are not doing enough by providing the various training, coaching and skills required to participate in a wide variety of extramural activities.

According to the Child and Family Canada website at <http://www.cfc.efc.ca/index.shtml> physical activity is a prime contributor to children's healthy development. Recreation and sport have a positive link to excellent physical growth in adolescents through the development of gross motor skills and also contributes to strength and endurance.

High self-esteem, which can be developed by participation in sport and recreation, can lead to a higher level of motivation and can buffer young people against adverse influences such as substance abuse and delinquent behaviour.

How adolescent's feel about their teachers

Adolescents need to relate to healthy non-parental adults. Adolescents choose and emulate various adults as their role models. These adults may be teachers, counsellors, doctors, neighbours, friends or other relatives. If they are healthy well-intentioned individuals, they may guide adolescents in successful directions or simply provide a comforting ear. Through these mentor-like relationships, adolescents may gain a stronger sense of themselves and worth as a human being. They may also provide a safety net to help children cope with their problems or get help before it's too late.

The main feature of interpersonal communication is conversation. Conversation is the main means by which humans communicate, and is thus vital for full and rich social interaction. When adolescents communicate with their educators in both formal and informal settings, there is a dissemination of wisdom, knowledge and life skills which promotes proper socialization. Educators serve as surrogate parents in the absence of biological parents at school. Parents have placed their children in the hands of educators to continue with the inculcation of social values which will eventually lead to properly socialized adults.

In this section of the questionnaire I polled respondents about their teachers' attitude towards them and their interaction with their teachers as agents of socialization.

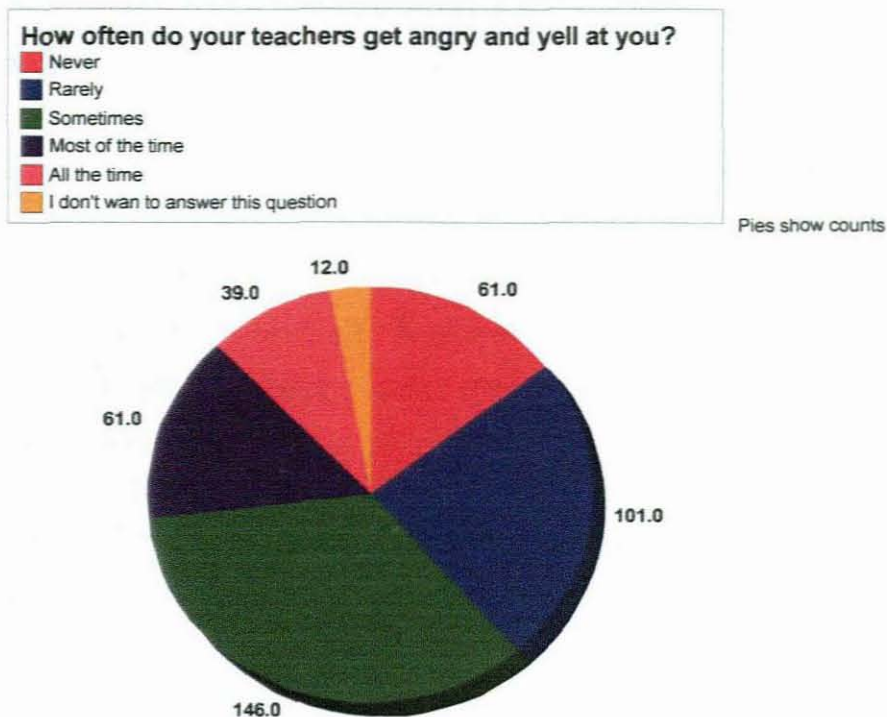


Figure 47: Adolescent-teacher relations in class

Of the 420 respondents polled 14.5% (61) reported that their teachers never get angry and yell at them. 24% (101) of the respondents revealed that their teachers rarely get angry and yell at them. Almost 35% (146) of the respondents indicated that their teachers sometimes get angry and yell at them. 14.5% (61) respondents indicated that their teachers get angry and yell at them most of the time. 9.2% (39) respondents reported that their teachers get angry and yell at them the entire time. The graph reveals a small percentage 2.85% (12) of adolescents who opted not to answer the question.

The majority of the adolescents polled revealed that their teachers sometimes get angry and yell at them. A significantly high number of respondents 23.7% (100) reported that their teachers get angry and yell at them most of the time and all the time. This constitutes about 25% of the poll. It becomes an area of concern because education cannot thrive in an atmosphere of anger and constant verbal abuse. When adolescents are yelled at in front of their peers it causes extreme embarrassment and demotivates the learner even further. Adolescents have a tendency to associate subjects with the teachers who teach those subjects. They may very well end up disliking a subject because of the educator's attitude and behaviour towards them.



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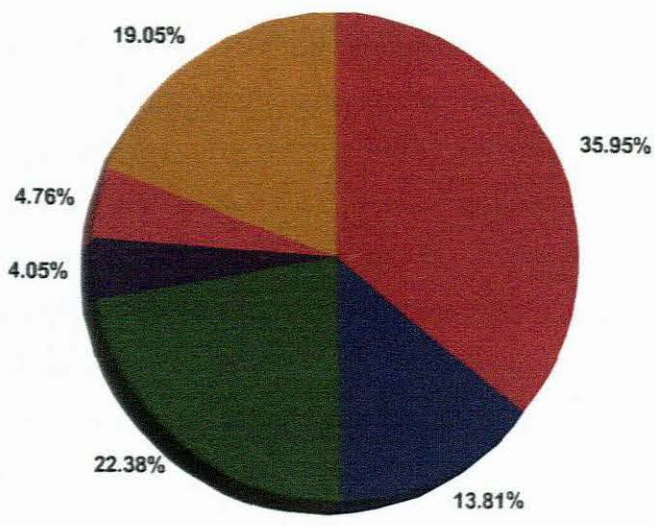


Figure 48: Respondents' interaction with teachers outside of class

The graph reveals that an overwhelming majority of adolescents 36% (151) never talk to their teachers outside of class. Almost 15% (62) of the respondents indicated that they talk to teachers less than once a month. 22% (94) adolescents indicated that they talk to their teachers a few times a month. 4.76% (20) adolescents indicated that they spoke to their teachers once a month. 19% (80) respondents indicated that they spoke to their teachers every day. 3% (13) respondents opted not to answer the question.

From the above graph, one can ascertain that a highly significant percentage 51% (213) of the respondents in this survey never interact with their educators outside of class. Those who do interact with their teachers (less than once a month and once a month) only do so very rarely and perhaps on certain occasions.

My findings reveal an obvious generation gap that exists between the respondents in this survey and their educators. Communication is the lifeblood of relationships. Adolescence is a life stage marked by great challenges. According to Grandon at <http://www.dr-jane.com//famrel.htm> adolescents want to communicate with adults in non-threatening ways. Like most humans adolescents retract from criticism and rejection. They constantly fight feelings of insecurity and inferiority and need encouragement. They can only receive encouragement from adults when there is an open door to interpersonal communication, which adults such as educators open to them. The interactions between a child and a child's caregivers build the foundation for bonding which is the key to the development of the child's capacity for motivated behaviour. According to research conducted by the U.S. Government on Youth Development at <http://aspe.hhs.gov> very poor bonding establishes a deep-seated sense of mistrust in self and others, creating an emotional void that the child may try to fill in other ways, possibly through drugs, impulsive acts, antisocial peer relations, or other problem behaviours.

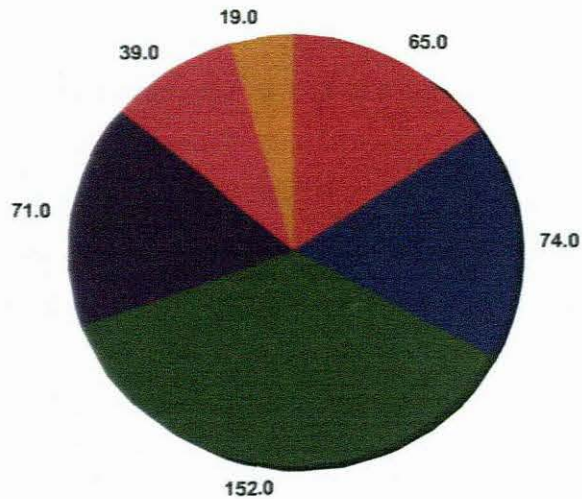


Figure 49: Teachers' acceptance of adolescents' ideas and opinions

The graph reveals that 15.4% of adolescents never have their teachers listen to their opinions and ideas. A further 17.6% (74) of the respondents indicated that their teachers rarely listen to their opinions and ideas. The majority of the respondents 36.1% (152) indicated that their teachers sometimes listen to their opinions and ideas. 16.9% (71) respondents reported that their teachers listen to their opinions and ideas most of the time. 9.2% (39) respondents reported that their teachers often listen to their opinions and ideas. A low percentage 4.5% (19) of respondents opted not to answer this question.

My findings reveal that there is mostly one-way interaction between teachers and learners which is not a healthy picture of interpersonal communication. A significantly high percentage 33% (139) of the respondent poll indicated that

teachers never /rarely listen to their opinions and ideas. A further 36% (152) indicated that teachers listened to their opinions some of the time. Only 26% (110) of the respondent poll were absolutely positive about this issue. This scenario does not auger well in a country that's well into 10 years of democracy.

In chapter 5 I stated that Constructivism advocates learning through student discovery, with the teacher as a guide. In a traditional classroom, a student usually memorizes and repeats, and the teacher is quite often viewed as a dictator. The traditional classroom viewed the teacher as a jug who possessed all the knowledge (which is not true) and the learners as mugs (recipients of knowledge) who possessed very little knowledge. This is a great misnomer and has to be dealt with at all levels of the public schooling sector in order to correct the situation.

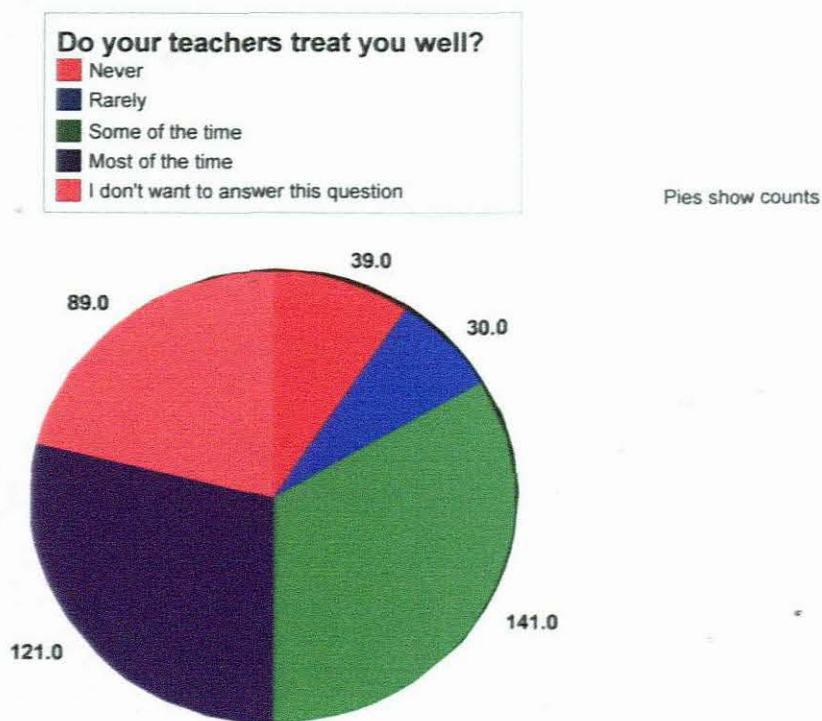
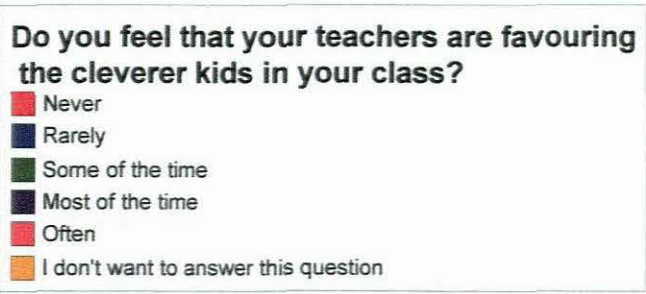


Figure 50: Adolescents' perception of how well teachers treated them

The graph reveals that 9.2% (39) of the respondents are never treated well by their teachers. 7.1% (30) respondents indicated that they are rarely treated well by their teachers. The majority of the adolescents 33.57% (141) revealed that they were sometimes treated well by their teachers. 28.5% (121) respondents indicated that they are treated well most of the time by their teachers. 21% (89) respondents opted not to answer this question.

My findings reveal that 16.3% (69) respondents showed an outright, negative response to this question. 141 adolescents reported that they were being treated well some of the time which means that adolescents are not always treated well by their teachers. A significantly high percentage 21% of the respondents opted not to answer this question which is an indication that they consider it a very sensitive subject. When comparing the other graphs concerning teacher/pupil interaction, there were fewer learners who did not want to answer the question in comparison to this question.



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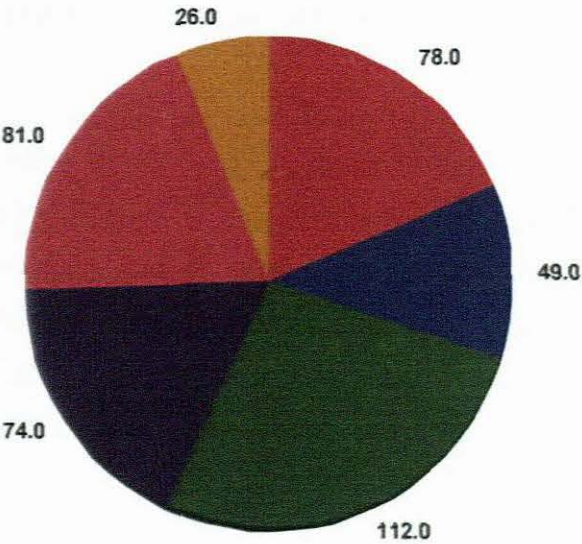


Figure 51: Adolescent perception of teacher favouritism

In this question, respondents were asked whether they felt that teachers were favouring the cleverer kids in their class.

The above graph reveals that 18.57% (78) respondents feel that their teachers never favour the cleverer kids in the class. 11.6% (49) respondents feel that their teachers rarely favour the cleverer kids in class. 26.6% (112) respondents reported that their teachers sometimes favour the cleverer kids in class. 17.6% (74) of the respondents reported that their teachers mostly favour the cleverer

kids in class. 19.2% (81) respondents reported that their teachers often favour the cleverer kids in class. 6.1% of the respondents opted not to answer this question.

My findings reveal that only a minority 30% (127) of the respondents felt that their teachers did not favour the cleverer kids in the class. A huge percentage of the respondents 26.6% polled indicated that their teachers sometimes favour the cleverer kids in the class. A significant majority of the respondents 36.9% (155) were absolutely positive that their teachers are favouring the cleverer kids in the class.

General conclusions about how adolescents feel about their teachers

From the statistics obtained in the above graphs, the attitude expressed by adolescents concerning their interpersonal interaction with their teachers is startling. It is through communication with educators that learners are able to make learning a success. According to Moodley (2001:41) the effectiveness of communication depends on the interpersonal relationships of educators and learners.

A highly significant number of respondents indicated that their educators get angry and yell at them. A higher number of adolescents 36% reported negatively when asked how often they spoke to their teachers outside of class. Even if they did speak to their teachers, it was minimal. A significantly high percentage 36% of adolescents polled indicated that their teachers never or rarely listen to their opinions and ideas. 16.3% of the respondents revealed that their teachers never/rarely treat them well. The majority (141) 33.5% of them reported that they were sometimes treated well by their teachers. An overwhelming majority of adolescents (63.5%) indicated that they were being marginalized by their educators by favouring the cleverer kids in the class.

The general feeling of adolescents towards their educators is a negative one and is in need of further investigation. Could this be a major cause of demotivation among adolescents in South Africa?

Significant correlations with regard to age, gender and other attributes of my respondents

Up to this stage I have presented and interpreted general demographic attributes regarding my target group of grade 10 and 11 adolescents in the eThekweni region of KwaZulu – Natal. The rest of this chapter will be limited to correlations of attributes that a SPSS bivariate correlation analysis has shown to be significant at levels between .05 (significant) and .000 (absolutely significant). Pearson's test of significance is a measure of linear association between two variables. Values of the correlation coefficient range from -1 to 1. The negative sign (-) or its absence is an indication of negative or positive skewing in population tendencies. Negative values indicate skewing lower than the mean tendency for a population, while positive values indicate skewing above the mean tendency in the sample. The absolute value of a statistic indicates the strength of a correlation tendency, with larger absolute values indicating stronger relationships. Taking height distribution in a population as example, negative skewing would mean that more than the average number of people in a population is shorter than the average for human populations, while positive skewing would mean that more than more than the average number of people in a population is taller than the average for human populations. The analysis that I present below constitutes cases of negative and positive correlations between the factors age or gender and other factors determined to be significant by the Pearson's test of significance.

Adolescents' attitudes towards their peer group and moral reasoning

In this section of the questionnaire, I polled respondents about how they felt about their peer group, their relationship with their peer group as well as their ability to morally reason in times of negative peer pressure.

An adolescent's self-image is determined by what others think of him/her. Self-image is also largely co - determined by the cooperation one gets from his/her peers. Young people are therefore susceptible to social pressure due to insecurities, desire to fit in, looking for status, need for excitement, fear of losing friends, wanting to be noticed or envied, looking to assert autonomy, find an identity, looking for support/approval and wanting to succeed at something. I have discussed the importance of the self-image of the adolescent and the influence of the peer group as an agent of socialization in great detail in chapters 6 and 8 of this dissertation.

By nature humans are social creatures, who need to fulfil more than their physical needs to survive. Interactions with other humans or social interactions help us become human. We need to be socialized in order to be truly human. Adolescents are not born as socialized beings. In order to be socialized we must go through the process of socialization. The peer group as an agent of socialization is an inextricable part of the socialization process. It is through socialization that culture is taught, learned and emotional characteristics are developed. While we are all socialized each one of us internalizes our socialization process differently. As a result we have to develop a personality, which is a set of behaviours and emotional characteristics that describe one's reactions to various events. Personality develops through interaction with the environment and socialization.

Appelbaum and Chambliss (1997:70) cite a girl named "Genie" who was raised in near isolation for the first twelve years of her life. She was often strapped to a

child's potty or confined to a sleeping bag. She saw only her father and mother and this contact occurred only at feeding. She failed to develop social skills.

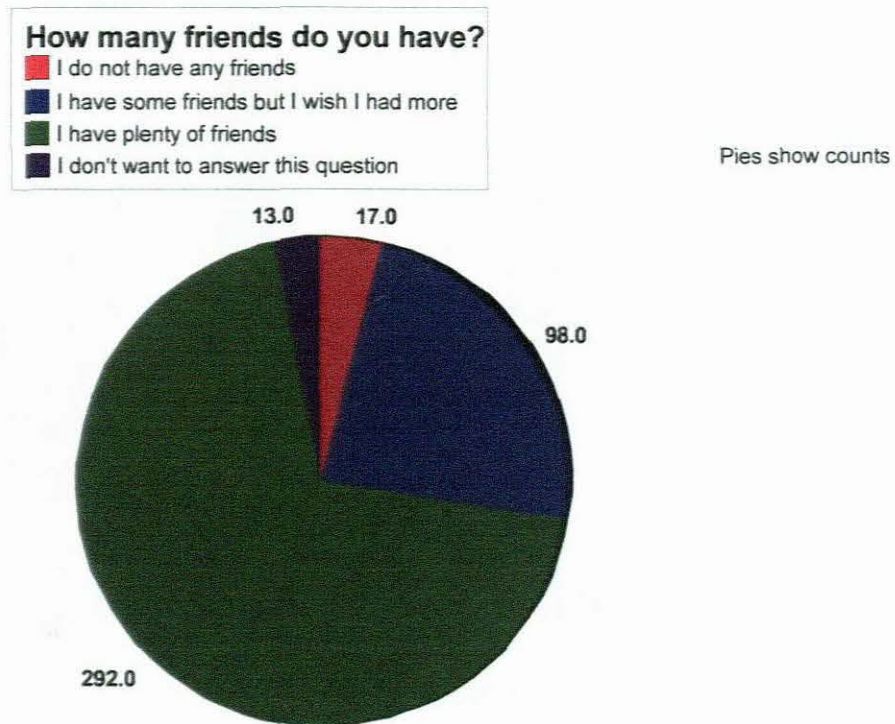


Figure 52: Adolescent peer relations

Of the 420 respondents polled, a very small percentage 4% (17) indicated that they have no friends. A further 23% (98) of the respondents indicated that they have some friends but expressed a desire for more friends. The majority 69.5% (292) of the respondents reported that they have plenty of friends. Only 3% of the respondents opted not to answer the question.

The significantly high percentage of respondents who positively reported that they have plenty of friends is indicative of healthy socialization.

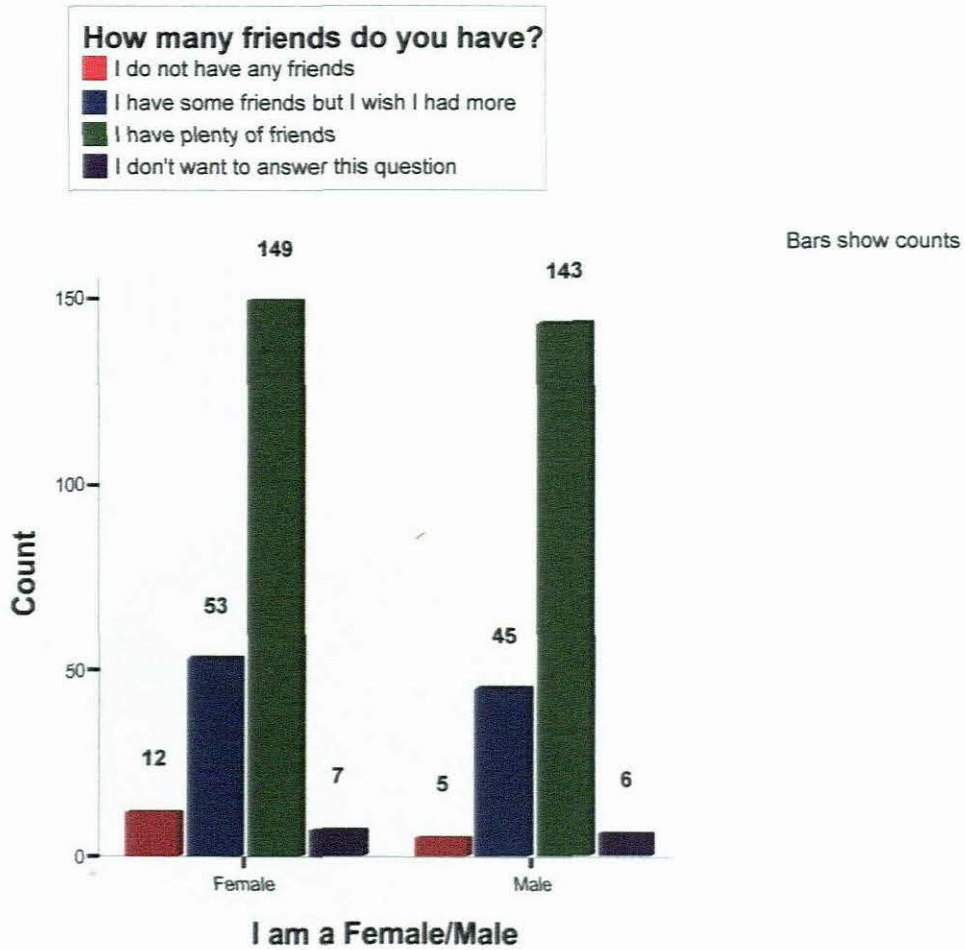


Figure 53: Adolescent peer relations by gender

The above graph reveals that (12) 2.8% female and 1.1% male respondents indicated that they have no friends. (53) 12.6% of the female respondents and (45) 10.7% male respondents revealed that they have some friends but expressed a desire for more friends. (149) 35.4% female and 34% male respondents indicated that they have plenty of friends. 1.66% (12) of the female respondents and 1.42% (6) male respondents objected to answering the question.

There is almost the same pattern that emerges with both genders. An equal proportion of male and female respondents indicated that they have plenty of friends. These statistics reveal that there are no significant differences between genders with regards to the number of friends they have.

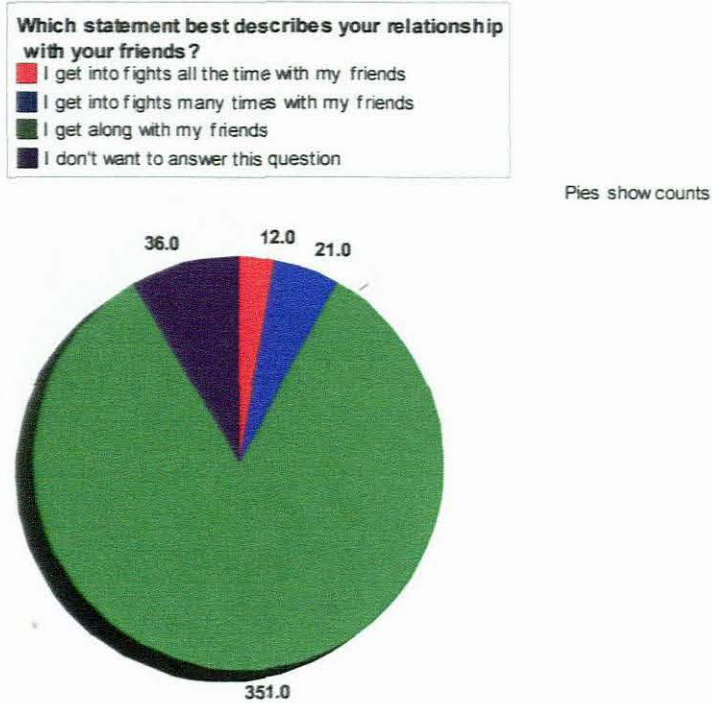


Figure 54: Adolescent peer relationships

The above graph reveals that 2.85% (12) adolescents get into fights all the time with their friends. 5% (21) respondents reported that they get into fights many times with their friends. A significant majority of respondents (351) 83% reported that they get along with their friends. 8.57% (36) respondents opted not to answer this question.

One can gauge from the above graph that the majority of adolescents get along exceptionally well with their friends.

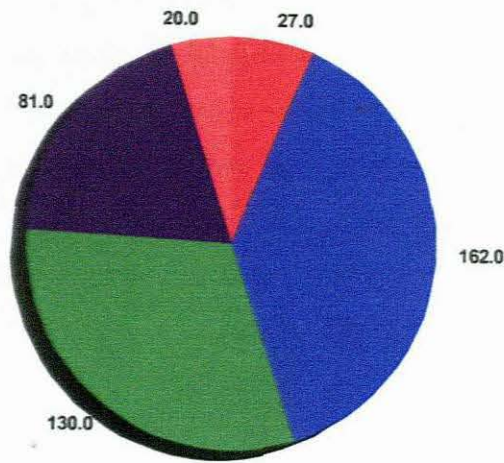
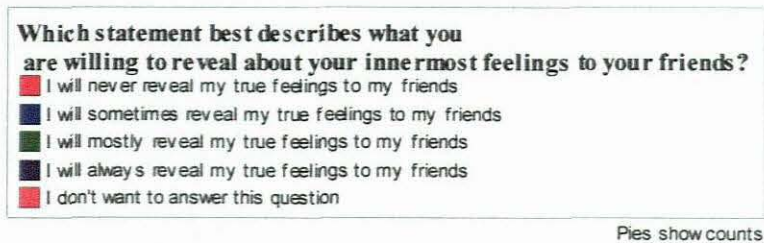


Figure 55: Respondents' ability to confide in their friends

Of the 420 respondents in the sample, 6.4% (27) reported that they will never reveal their true feelings to their friends. The majority of the respondents 38.6% (162) reported that they will sometimes reveal their true feelings to their friends. A total of (130) 31% of the respondents reported that they will mostly reveal their feelings, while 19.3% (81) respondents stated that they will always reveal their

true feelings to their friends. 4.8% (20) respondents opted not to answer this question.

The graph reveals that a significantly high number (162) 38.6% of the sample will sometimes reveal their true feelings to their friends which means that adolescents are not always willing to reveal their true feelings to their friends. This means that their level of confidentiality with their friends is low. They also have guarded relations with their friends which are sometimes dependent on what the issue is. Adolescents must be able to vent their feelings such as anger and frustration with their friends in order to release themselves from pent-up emotions. Should these emotions be given an opportunity to seethe, it may result in outbursts which could lead to compounded problems in the adolescent's life. The (130) 31% of the respondents who say they will mostly reveal their true feelings to their friends are also taking a neutral stance in this question. Only 19% (81) of the respondents indicated that they will always reveal their innermost feelings to their friends.



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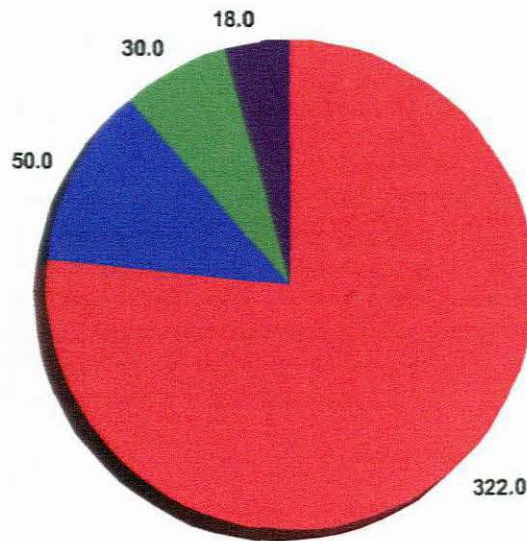
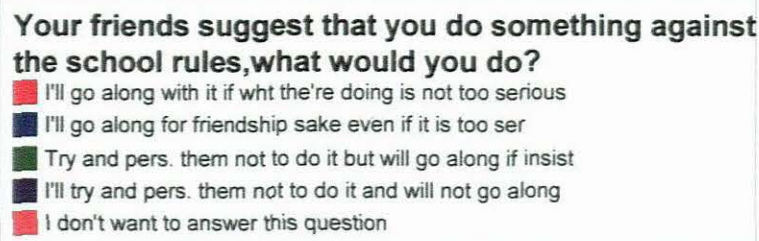


Figure 56: Adolescent participation in peer counselling

In this question, I polled respondents on how active they were in peer counselling.

The above graph reveals that an overwhelming majority (322) 76.6% of respondents are inactive in peer counselling. Only 11.9% (50) respondents indicated that they were active in peer counselling. 7.1% (30) respondents reported that they were quite active in peer counselling and 4.2% (18) respondents opted not to answer this question.

My findings reveal that this very important aspect of peer interaction is missing in our schools. Only 19% (80) of the response poll which averages 10 respondents per school in my sample are actively engaged in peer counselling. The average number of learners per secondary school is 1000. This means that only 1% of the total school population takes an active role in peer counselling. This scenario may be prevalent in our schools due to the fact that their peers are considered their equal and not their superiors.



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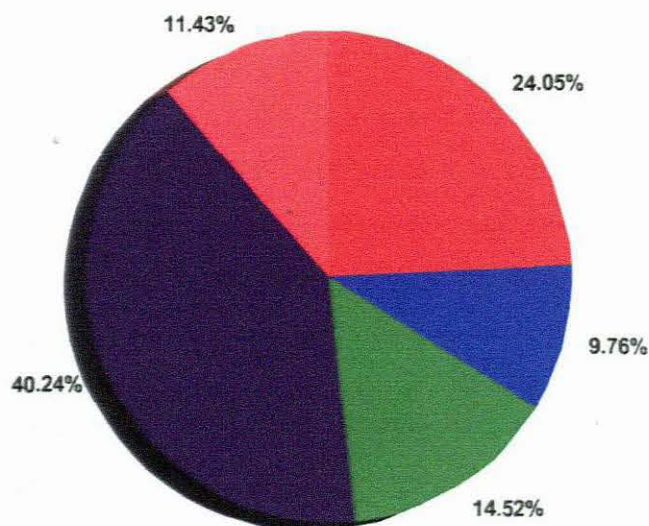


Figure 57: Moral reasoning of adolescents

In the moral reasoning section of my questionnaire, I wanted to determine the moral reasoning skills of adolescents.

In chapter 4 I stated that decision determines destiny. Braeden (1981: 5-6) state that many of the important decisions in our lives are moral ones, i.e. we are often faced with predicaments which require that we make a judgement about what we "ought" to do in a situation. Sometimes these decisions have to be made instantaneously during one's interaction with the peer group, especially when under pressure. Succumbing to negative peer pressure has led to the demise of many young persons. Braeden go on to point out that, given the same situation, different people will arrive at different decisions about what is the "right" course of action. The very reasoning process, by which many individuals may reach their decisions, is known as moral reasoning.

Moral reasoning is an integral part of our daily thought processes and plays a major role in decision-making. It is a skill that is acquired over time during the process of socialization and it is against this background that both morality and moral reasoning of adolescents are examined in this dissertation.

The above graph reveals that 24% (101) respondents will go along if what they're doing is not too serious. 9.8% (41) respondents indicated that they will go along for friendship sake. 14.5% (61) respondents will persuade peers not to do it but will go along if they insist. 40.2% (169) respondents reported that they will persuade peers not to do it and will not go along if they insist. 11.4% (48) respondents preferred not to answer the question.

My findings reveal that a highly significant percentage 48% (203) of the respondents polled would succumb to negative peer pressure. This means that adolescents are willing to break the school rules embedded in the school's code of conduct which holds the moral fabric of the school community together for the sake of pleasing their peer group. One can safely deduce that if one is willing to break the school rules then one would be willing to break the rules that govern society.

Your friends suggest that you do something against the school rules, what would you do?

- I'll go along with it if wht the're doing is not too serious
- I'll go along for friendship sake even if it is too ser
- Try and pers. them not to do it but will go along if insist
- I'll try and pers. them not to do it and will not go along
- I don't want to answer this question

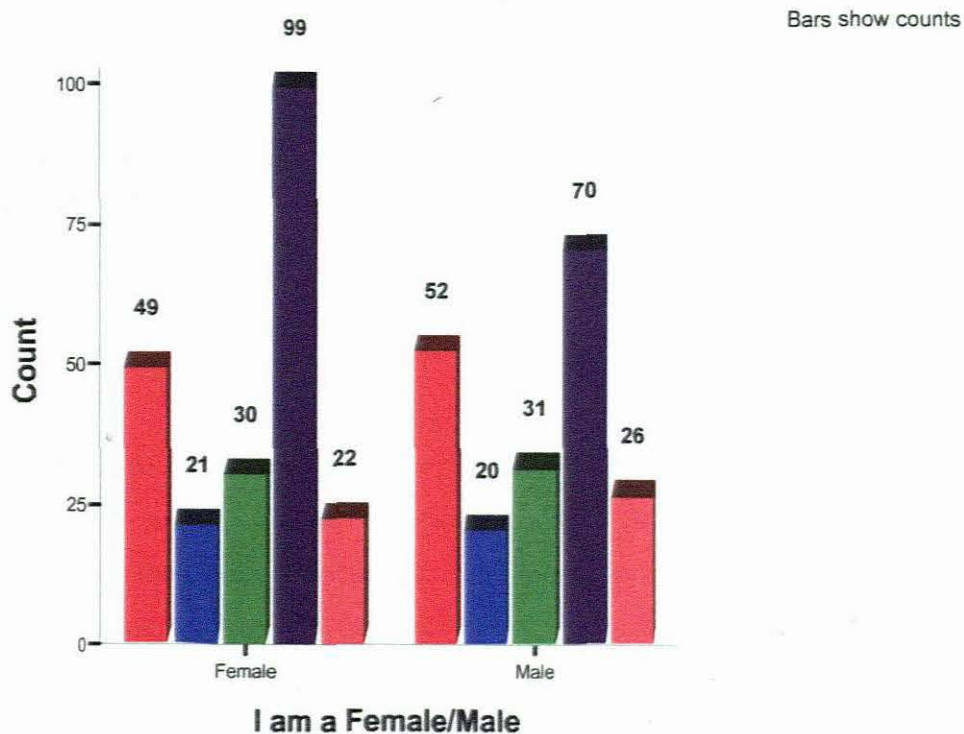


Figure 58: Moral reasoning by gender

In this part of the questionnaire, I wanted to find out whether there were any significant gender similarities/differences among my respondents.

The above graph reveals that an almost equal percentage of female 11.6% (49) and male respondents 12.3% (52) will go along if what they're doing is not too serious. An equal percentage of female respondents 5% (21) and 4.76% (20) male respondents indicated that they will go along for friendship sake. An equal number (30) 7.1% of female and (31) 7.3% (31) male respondents indicated that they will persuade peers not to do it but will go along if they insist. 23.5% (99) female respondents reported that they will persuade peers not to do it and will not go along if they insist while 16.6% (70) male respondents also stated that they will persuade peers not to do it and will not go along if they insist. (22) 5.2% female respondents and 6.1% (26) male respondents preferred not to answer the question.

My findings reveal that an equal percentage of female respondents are divided in their responses concerning their level of moral reasoning. 23.8% (100) of the female responses were negative and 23.57% (99) were positive. There were more males in the sample (103) 24.5% who gave a negative response while 16.66% (70) gave a positive response.

An equal number of males and females have indicated that they will succumb to negative peer pressure. However, females significantly outnumber males by revealing that they will not agree with their peers in breaking the school rules. There are therefore more similarities between the negative aspect of moral reasoning between the genders and a greater difference between the positive aspects of moral reasoning between the genders.

General conclusions about adolescents' attitude towards their peer group and moral reasoning

From the above graphs one can observe that the respondents polled in this sample have many friends which is indicative of healthy socialization seeing that the peer group features centre stage during this crucial period of development.

There are two areas of concern that have emerged from these findings which requires further attention, which will be discussed in the recommendations chapter of this dissertation. They are the significant level of demotivation with regards to negative peer pressure and moral reasoning as well as the very low activity levels of adolescents in an essential area such as peer counselling.

There are clearly two groups amongst adolescents namely, those who will succumb to peer pressure and those who won't. An interesting finding is that there are more females than males who would succumb to peer pressure. Males are more inclined to succumbing to peer pressure if it is not too serious an issue at stake.

In the next chapter I will briefly summarize the findings of this study and make recommendations on how demotivated adolescents can be helped.

Chapter 12

RECOMMENDATIONS AND INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES FOR REMOTIVATING DEMOTIVATED ADOLESCENTS

Preview

Adolescents constitute a significant proportion of the population of South Africa and the future of this country is vested in them. The many expectations placed upon youth create the necessity for effective programmes and interventions that are able to facilitate the process of adolescent development and to prevent negative factors from demotivating them. This view is also acknowledged in terms of the National Youth Policy of South Africa (1997).

Review of Research Process

In attempting to integrate the conclusions that may be drawn from the study and the recommendations that emanate from such conclusions, it becomes necessary to summarize and review the research process and whether the research goal and objectives have been achieved and to review the processes involved in attaining the said goal.

At the outset of this study, I set out to investigate the reported high levels of demotivation amongst secondary school adolescents in South Africa, focussing on the eThekweni Region of KwaZulu-Natal.

The three-fold aim of this study was:

- To identify the intrapersonal as well as interpersonal factors that is implicated in the process of demotivation of adolescents.

- To identify interventions at the intrapersonal level, at family level and at the social level that can help prevent, or that can help rectify the process of demotivation among adolescents;
- To develop models reflecting the dysfunctional communication networks of demotivated adolescents, as well as the functional communication networks of motivated adolescents.

Against this backdrop, I conducted a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research on the role of communication in remotivating demotivated adolescents.

- In chapter 1 I outlined the general content of this dissertation which served as a roadmap for prospective readers.
- In chapter 2 I stated the problem of the research and the theoretical framework that informed this study.
- In chapter 3 I explained the key concepts which were central to the theme of this study.
- In chapter 4 I discussed the communication context of the Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion which I developed in relation to the study.
- In chapter 5 I set out to discuss the various causes of demotivation and suggested possible solutions for remotivating demotivated adolescents as part of my literature survey.
- In chapter 6 I explored the experiential world of the adolescent.

- In chapter 7 I discussed the adolescents' intercultural experiences in South Africa under the chapter heading "Being an adolescent in present-day South Africa".
- In chapter 8 I discussed the adolescent communication networks and the social communication processes involved in adolescents' lives.
- In chapter 9 I discussed the research design and fieldwork that was carried out in this study.
- In chapter 10 I explained the modus operandi involved in setting up the encoding process in the SPSS 11 programme.
- In chapter 11 I reported my findings based on the empirical research that was carried out for this study.

Results within the context of the theoretical framework of this study

The results that I reported were obtained from the statistics compiled from an attitude survey conducted at eight different secondary schools in the eThekweni region of KwaZulu-Natal.

At the outset of this study, I anticipated great levels of demotivation among adolescents in their family relationships, peer relationships, school performance, and their social relationships in general, and in coping with the process of socialization.

In chapter 5, I discussed the various causes of demotivation which I summarize here for the reader:

- Need deprivation;

- Strained human relationships;
- Generation gap;
- Biophysical causes;
- Negative peer pressure;
- Neurophysiological factors;
- Sociopsychological factors;
- Neurodevelopmental dysfunctions
- Failure to communicate as a barrier to learning;
- Learning disabilities;
- Ecological factors; and
- Pedagogical factors.

Based on the findings reported in chapter 11 of this dissertation, the following conclusions can be drawn in relation to the research topic:

The nature of motivation is multifaceted. The same individual may be motivated in certain aspects of her/his life, but demotivated in others. When the patterns of motivation and demotivation coincide among groups, one can generalize to what extent patterns of motivation and demotivation exhibit themselves in the overall population sample. Not surprisingly, the respondents were not equally motivated or demotivated about their interactions with one another, their parents, their teachers, or with regard to their likes and dislikes.

It is a pleasure to note that adolescents in general portray a positive self-image. Despite the fact that self-image doesn't manifest itself uniformly in all adolescents, both males and females, were more positive about themselves. Responses to questions such as "How do you feel about your looks?" yielded mostly positive results. Adolescents also perceived themselves as popular and felt a sense of integration and belonging among their family members peers and people in general. Overall, adolescents viewed their future in a very positive light. Both male and female respondents showed the same profiles concerning their overall self-image.

An interesting picture that emerged from the empirical survey is that adolescents are properly socialized among their family members. The majority of the respondents of both genders indicated a natural closeness to their mothers than their fathers. The results also revealed that adolescents were more willing to confide in their mums and educators rather than their dads in times of crises. There is however a great indictment on fatherhood in that a significant number of adolescents would rather confide in a friend or a teacher than in their fathers. There are also clear indications of an emerging generation gap between fathers and their adolescent children.

At the outset of the study I anticipated great levels of demotivation at the school level. The results from this survey indicate that adolescents are positively inclined toward school attendance and school in general. There are no gender based differences with regards to school attendance and those who indicated that they hated school and didn't like going to school is relatively low.

Adolescent's negative attitude toward doing homework is significantly high, and needs to be further investigated. The attitudes expressed between the genders and cultures have the same profile. As one of the corollaries of the Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion I stated that "Human motivation is optimised by the

concomitant use of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators for maximum goal attainment.” Adolescents must therefore be motivated toward doing homework by parents, educators and other role players involved in their process of socialization as homework plays a pivotal role in reinforcing what was learned in the classroom. Adolescents must be extrinsically motivated to a point where they become intrinsically motivated to do their homework.

The high level of detachment from the school as a pedagogic community on the part of parents is cause for consternation. Parents must closely monitor their children’s progress at school in order for them to know that they have adults who take a keen interest in their academic and sporting performance. As one of the corollaries of the Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion I stated that “On the principle of leadership, no human endeavour succeeds without strongly motivated men and women; i.e. only motivated people can motivate people”. Parents must take the lead role in their children’s schooling and through harnessing the power of persuasion, motivate them toward maximum goal attainment.

Adolescents have further portrayed a high level of demotivation with regards to their relationships with their educators. The shocking result is cause for concern and is also in need of further investigation. In The Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion I state that “*Humans utilize a variety of forms of interpersonal and intrapersonal communication to motivate each other and themselves to perform optimally to ensure success in their interpersonal relations at home, among their peers and in public institutions like school, church, or the work place.*” It is through interpersonal interaction that humans share/exchange knowledge. Educators in this poll are perceived as being angry, insensitive to adolescent’s viewpoints, dictatorial and silent in their interpersonal relationships with their learners. Attachment relationships between adolescents and their educators are almost non-existent among those polled in this sample.

The findings further reveal that adolescents are properly socialized among their peers. This is indicated by the significantly positive responses of the adolescents concerning the number of friends that they have. The same pattern is seen among both genders and between the various cultures represented in the sample.

Adolescents of both genders and between the cultures have portrayed themselves as deficient in the area of moral reasoning. A highly significant number of adolescents stated that they would succumb to negative peer pressure when asked whether they would listen to their friends and break the school rules. As one of the corollaries of the Theory of Reconstructive Persuasion, I stated that "Deconstruction involves induction to change beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviour of individuals or a group of people".

Reconstructive persuasion is persuasion directed towards restructuring adolescent's beliefs system. Because various beliefs lead to intentional behaviour, using interpersonal persuasive techniques will enable adolescents to use intrapersonal persuasion i.e. persuasion on the personal level in order to dissuade wrong behaviour, as well as to encourage changes in them to improve on their current situation.

An alarmingly large percentage of adolescents have indicated a total disregard for school sports and other extramural activities. A healthy body constitutes a healthy mind. Non-participation in sports is a clear indication that adolescents are not being properly socialized at school. There must be a balance between academic work and physical activity which is grossly missing in this sample of adolescents. This high incidence of non-participation must be further investigated in the schools.

The empirical results of this survey reveal that adolescents are demotivated in some of their interpersonal relationships through strained human relationships,

through the emerging generation gap that has drawn a wedge between them and their fathers/teachers, failure on the part of educators to communicate with them and failure on the part of parents by not communicating with their schools as well as through pedagogical factors (educators being insensitive to the needs of their learners).

The overall results of this study is an early indication that the social transformation that was set as an objective after the democratic elections in 1994 are taking effect and having a positive impact on how young South Africans of all ethnic groups and persuasions see themselves, their place in society and their future roles in the new South Africa.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this survey, I would like to make the following recommendations:

1. Due to the ravages of the HIV and AIDS pandemic, African adolescent households are being disrupted by the death of one or more parents. These facts were revealed when adolescents were asked how their fathers and mothers treated them. There were more IsiZulu speaking respondents than English speaking respondents who reported the absence of mums and dads in their households (see figures 31, 33 and 34). These adolescents must be closely monitored and taught coping skills because the core family is the primary locus of socialization in present day societies. If that pattern is being disrupted, we are facing a real danger of children who will not have the social skills to cope as adults as well as the complexities associated with adulthood. Adolescents will also not be able to contribute to, and benefit from society.

2. The following aspects of the relationships between adolescents and other parties in society needs to be further researched:
 - 2.1 Paternal relationships. Fathers need to be trained in real life skills relating to parenting. The “feel good” image of fathers emanating from charismatic religious leaders who are constantly urging them to have faith in becoming good fathers is causing more harm than good. Persuasive sermons indicating the absence of faith as a cause for poor parenting is a gross generalization. Fathers are not failing because of a lack of faith but through lack of much needed skills relating to the rearing of their children. The churches as well as other organizations that foster good family relationships must make a concerted effort to eradicate the general distrust in fathers by their adolescent children.
 - 2.2 Teacher relationships. The gross negligence on the part of educators relating to interpersonal relationships within the pedagogic environment must be redressed. Educators must also revisit the fundamentals of teaching as entrenched in the present OBE guidelines in order to get the most out of the teaching-learning environment. The current legislation in Education encourages that children must be heard and not just seen. All learners need to be engaged in interesting and challenging learning that goes beyond basic proficiencies.
3. One of the major strategies for promoting learning is the ongoing parental involvement in their children’s schooling. The school alone is insufficient to ensure the good discipline and motivation necessary for high quality educational outcomes. Parents must partner with their children’s schools by creating a symbiotic relationship between them and the school.

4. The Department of Education and Culture must reverse the policy which they adopted over 10 years ago and reinstate the Guidance Counsellor at all public schools. Because of such a great lapse of time, educators must also be retrained in guidance and counselling skills in order to cope with the effects of demotivation at our schools. A school without trained counselling personnel is tantamount to the blind leading the blind. Adolescents need the care and nurture of trained counsellors who are fully equipped to cope with the present trend in demotivation at our public schools.

Conclusion

The findings of the empirical research bear testimony to the fact that adolescents need caring adults who will serve as role models in order to maximise their potential in every sphere of their lives. Communication can, and will continue to play a crucial role in achieving this goal.

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ADDENDA

Addendum A: Letters of facilitation

P.O. Box 19496
DORMERTON
4015
05 July 2002

Attention: Mr. D.M. Moodley
Acting Manager: Education Support Services
Department of Education and Culture
Private Bag X54330
DURBAN
4000

Sir,

Re: Permission to conduct survey among learners in the Durban South and EThekwin
Regions

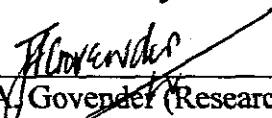
I am a doctoral student currently enrolled at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus, as well as an educator employed by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of education and Culture.

I would like to obtain permission to conduct an empirical survey amongst grade 10 and 11 learners in the EThekwin region. My dissertation is entitled "the role of communication in remotivating demotivated adolescents." A study of this nature is deemed necessary in the light of the high levels of reported demotivation amongst secondary school learners. This study would also benefit parents, educators, counsellors and significant others' by equipping them with the necessary tools required for remotivating demotivated adolescents.

A copy of this dissertation would be made available to the Department of Education and Culture upon successful completion thereof.

Thanking you in advance for your most favourable response.

Yours faithfully



J.A. Govender (Researcher)



DURBAN SOUTH REGION

ISIFUNDA SASENINGIZIMU NETHEKU

DURBAN SUID STREEK

Address : Malgate Building
Ikheli: 72 Stanger Street
Adres: Durban
4001

Private Bag : Private Bag X54330
Isikhwama Seposi : Durban
Privaatsak : 4000

Telephone : (031) 3270911
Ucingo :
Telefoon :
Fax : (031) 3270244

Enquiries : **D.M. Moodley** Reference :
Imibuzo : **TEL : (031) 327-0481/551** komba :
Navrae : **FAX : (031) 368-6400** Verwysing :

Date : **2002-08-29**
Usuku :
Datum :

Prof. R.M. Klopper
Private Bag X10
ISIPINGO
4110

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY AMONG LEARNERS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE DURBAN SOUTH REGION

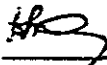
Your letter dated 5 July 2002 in respect of the above matter has reference..

Kindly be informed that permission is granted for you to conduct the research subject to the following:

1. The schools which participate in the project would do so on a voluntary basis.
2. Access to the schools you wish to utilise is negotiated with the principal concerned by yourself.
3. The normal teaching and learning programme is not to be disrupted.
4. The confidentiality of the participants is respected.
5. A copy of the thesis/research is lodged with the Regional Chief Director through my office on completion of your studies.

I wish you all the success in the research you are undertaking.

Kind regards.


D.M. MOODLEY

Acting Manager : Education Support Services

P.O. Box 19496
DORMERTON
4015
05 July 2002

Attention: The Principal
_____ Secondary School

Sir,

Re: Permission to conduct survey among learners at your school

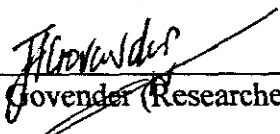
I am a doctoral student currently enrolled at the University of Zululand, Durban-Umlazi Campus, as well as an educator employed by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of education and Culture.

I would like to obtain permission to conduct an empirical survey amongst grade 10 and 11 learners at your school. My dissertation is entitled "the role of communication in remotivating demotivated adolescents." A study of this nature is deemed necessary in the light of the high levels of reported demotivation amongst secondary school learners. This study would also benefit parents, educators, counsellors and significant others' by equipping them with the necessary tools required for remotivating demotivated adolescents.

The questionnaire is of a confidential nature which is designed to elicit responses from adolescents regarding how they feel concerning a whole range of interpersonal relationships.

Thanking you in advance for your most favourable response.

Yours faithfully



J.A. Govender (Researcher)

Addendum B: Questionnaire

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY: Respondent Code: _____

VOLUNTARY, ANONYMOUS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GRADE 10 AND 11 LEARNERS

How you feel about yourself and others

Department of Communication Science

University of Zululand (Durban Campus)

Researcher: Mr. J.A. Govender

Study Leader: Prof. R.M. Klopper

To the learner

- We need your help to understand the problems young people face in everyday life.
- Although we would like you to help us, you do not have to take part in this survey. If you do not want to take part, just hand in the blank questionnaire at the end of the survey session.
- What you say in this questionnaire will remain private and confidential. No one will be able to trace your opinions back to you as a person. This questionnaire has eight parts:

Part 1: general personal particulars like your age, gender and home language.

Part 2: how you feel about yourself.

Part 3: you and your family.

Part 4: how you feel about school.

Part 5: how you feel about doing homework.

Part 6: how you feel about your teachers.

Part 7: how you feel when you are with friends.

Part 8: your health.

Instructions

1. Please answer the questions as truthfully as you can. Also, please be sure to read and follow the directions for each part. If you do not follow the directions, it will make it harder for us to do our project. If you have any questions, just raise your hand and the teacher will help you.
2. You must give us personal permission to use your answers in our research. We promise that your personal details will only be used to show that a real person completed the form, and that you will never be personally identified in our research report.
3. We are only asking you about things that you and your other classmates should feel comfortable telling us. However, if you don't feel comfortable answering a question, you can leave it blank. For those questions that you do answer, your responses will be kept top secret.
4. Where you can, draw a circle around the correct response with a PEN (not a pencil), or fill in the required word or numbers.

Thank you very much for filling in this questionnaire.

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

PART 1: GENERAL PERSONAL PARTICULARS

Please complete this section to show that an actual person filled in the questionnaire. The information that you provide is strictly confidential. Your personal identity will not be revealed to your principal, teachers, your parents, the Department of Education or anyone else in a position of authority.

I hereby give permission that my answers can be used for research purposes:

Initials and surname: _____ Signature: _____ Date: _____

1. I am _____ years old
2. I am a: Female Male
3. I live in: a rural area an urban area.
4. My home language is: Afrikaans English IsiXhoza IsiZulu
 Another language: _____

PART 2: HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF

Teenagers sometimes experience feelings and ideas that grown-ups find difficult to understand. You can help us understand how you and your friends feel by answering some statements as honestly as you can. This questionnaire lists such feelings and ideas in groups of statements. From each group pick one statement that describes you best. After you have picked a statement, go on to the next group of statements. There are no right or wrong answers, so you can indicate how you really feel about things. Put a cross in the box before your answer.

Here is an example of how this form works. Try it. Put a mark next to the statement that describes you best.

EXAMPLE:

- I love reading books
- I read books when I have nothing else to do
- I read books when I have to
- I hate reading books

Here the real questions begin

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

5. Which statement best describes how you think others feel about you?

- No people like me
- Few people like me
- Most people like me
- All people like me
- I don't know whether other people like me or not
- I don't want to answer this question

6. Which statement best describes what you are willing to reveal about your innermost feelings to your parents?

- I will never reveal my true feelings to my parents
- I will sometimes reveal my true feelings to my parents
- I will mostly reveal my true feelings to my parents
- I will always reveal my true feelings to my parents
- I don't want to answer this question

7. Which statement best describes what you are willing to reveal about your innermost feelings to your friends?

- I will never reveal my true feelings to my friends
- I will sometimes reveal my true feelings to my friends
- I will mostly reveal my true feelings to my friends
- I will always reveal my true feelings to my friends
- I don't want to answer this question

8. How do you feel about the clothes that you wear when you go out with your friends?

- I don't have any nice clothes to wear
- I don't really have any nice clothes to wear
- I have nice clothes to wear
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

9. How do you feel about your looks?

- I don't look attractive at all
- I could look more attractive
- I look quite attractive
- I look very attractive
- I don't want to answer this question

9. Which statement best describes how you feel about your future?

- I feel nothing will ever work out for me
- I hope things will work out for me
- I think things will work out for me
- I know things will work out for me
- I don't want to answer this question

10. Do you think going to school will enable you to get a good job when you grow up?

- No
- I'm not sure
- Yes
- I don't want to answer this question

11. Have you already decided what you want to do for a living after leaving school?

- No
- I'm not sure
- Yes: _____
- I don't want to answer this question

12. Which statement best describes your school grades?

- I don't get good school grades
- My grades could be better
- My grades are all right
- My grades are quite good
- My grades are very good
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

PART 3: YOU AND YOUR FAMILY

13. Who takes care of you (and your brothers and sisters if you are not an only child)?

- Both my parents
- Mostly my mother
- Mostly my father
- Only my mother as a single parent
- Only my father as a single parent
- My mother and my stepfather /my mother's regular companion
- My father and my stepmother /my father's regular companion
- My grandparent/s
- My aunt & uncle
- My older brother/s and sister/s
- Neighbours
- I care for myself (and for my younger brother/s and sister/s)
- Another person: _____
- I don't want to answer this question

14. Who do you feel closest to in your family?

- No one
- My mother
- My father
- My one brother
- My one sister
- I don't want to answer this question

15. How does your father treat you?

- I don't have a father
- My father mostly treats me unfairly
- My father sometimes treats me unfairly
- My father mostly treats me fairly
- My father always treats me fairly
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

16. How does your mother treat you?

- I don't have a mother
- My mother mostly treats me unfairly
- My mother sometimes treats me unfairly
- My mother mostly treats me fairly
- My mother always treats me fairly
- I don't want to answer this question

17. How often are there arguments between your parents?

- I don't have parents/ I have only one parent
- My parents always argue
- My parents often argue
- My parents seldom argue
- My parents never argue
- I don't want to answer this question

18. Who would you go to for help if you had serious problems with your health?

- No one
- My mother
- My father
- Both my parents
- My one brother
- My one sister
- A friend
- A teacher
- A religious leader in my community
- One of my grandparents
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

19. Who would you go to for help if you had serious problems at school?

- No one
- My mother
- My father
- Both my parents
- My one brother
- My one sister
- A friend
- A teacher
- A religious leader in my community
- One of my grandparents
- I don't want to answer this question

20. Do you get enough pocket money?

- I don't get pocket money
- No
- Sometimes
- Mostly
- Always
- I don't want to answer this question

21. Do your parents like your choice of friends?

- I don't have friends
- They don't like my friends
- They don't mind my friends
- They like my friends
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

22. Do you have a room of your own?

- No
- I wish I had a room of my own
- Yes
- I have chosen not to have a room of my own
- I don't want to answer this question

23. How do you feel about doing household chores?

- I don't do household chores after school
- I hate doing household chores after school
- I don't mind doing household chores after school
- I don't like doing household chores after school
- I like doing household chores after school
- I don't want to answer this question

24. Do you like attending family gatherings?

- My family does not have gatherings
- I hate attending family gatherings
- I don't mind attending family gatherings
- I don't like attending family gatherings
- I like attending family gatherings
- I don't want to answer this question

25. Do you like visiting relatives during weekends/afternoons?

- We don't visit relatives during weekends/afternoons
- I don't have relatives close by
- I hate visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon
- I don't mind visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon
- I like visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

26. How often do you do things as a family like going to the beach?

- Never
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Often
- I don't want to answer this question

PART 4: HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT SCHOOL

27. How do you feel about school?

- I hate school
- I don't mind going to school
- I don't like going to school
- I like going to school
- I don't want to answer this question

How active are you in the following extramural sports activities?

- | | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 28. Athletics: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 29. Basketball: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 30. Cricket: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 31. Cross country: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 32. Gymnastics: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 33. Hockey: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 34. Judo: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 35. Karate: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 36. Netball: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 37. Swimming: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 38. Squash: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 39. Tennis: | <input type="checkbox"/> Inactive | <input type="checkbox"/> Active | <input type="checkbox"/> Quite active | <input type="checkbox"/> Very active |
| 40. Another sport: | <hr/> | | | |

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

Inactive Active Quite active Very active

How active are you in the following extramural club activities?

41. Art: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
42. Chess: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
43. Choir/ music: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
44. Debating/ Oratory: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
45. Drama: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
46. Peer counselling: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
47. Religious club: Inactive Active Quite active Very active
48. Another club: _____
 Inactive Active Quite active Very active

49. How important is it to you to get good marks in your schoolwork?

- Not important at all
- Not very important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
- I don't want to answer this question

50. Do you sometimes bunk classes?

- Never
- Once or twice a year
- 3 or 4 times a year
- 5 times or more a year
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

51. Are you being bullied at school?

- Never
- Rarely
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- Often
- I don't want to answer this question

52. Do you feel safe at school?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

53. Do you feel safe on your way to and from school?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the time
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

54. How do you get to and from school?

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

55. How often do your parents attend school functions?

- I don't have parents
- Never
- Sometimes
- Most of the time
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

56. How often do your parents go to your school sports when you participate?

- I don't have parents
- I don't participate in sports at school
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

PART 5: HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT DOING HOMEWORK

57. How do you feel about homework?

- I hate homework
- I don't like homework very much
- I like homework a bit
- I like homework quite a bit
- I like homework very much
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

58. How often do you do your homework given by your class teachers?

- Never
- Rarely
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

59. How much time do you spend doing homework at home every day between Mondays and Thursdays?

- No time
- Less than an hour
- Between 2 and 3 hours
- More than 3 hours
- I don't want to answer this question

60. Do chores at home interfere with completing your homework?

- I don't do chores at home, so chores don't interfere with doing homework
- I do all my homework at school, so chores don't interfere with doing homework
- Chores make it difficult to complete my homework
- Chores don't really make it difficult to complete my homework
- Chores don't at all make it difficult to complete my homework
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

61. When do you do your homework?

- I do my homework at home in the afternoons/ evenings/ early in the mornings
- I do my homework during free periods at school
- I do all of my homework on my way to and from school
- I do my homework at school just before classes begin in the mornings
- I sometimes finish my homework at school just before classes begin in the mornings
- I sometimes finish my homework on my way to and from school
- I don't want to answer this question

62. Who is with you when you do your homework?

- I don't do homework
- I do my homework during free periods at school on my own
- I do my homework during supervised sessions at school
- I do homework after school along with my friends
- I do my school homework at home along with brother/s and sister/s
- I do my school homework along with one or both of my parents/ grandparents
- I don't want to answer this question

63. Do you feel that you get too much homework?

- No
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- Often
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

PART 6: HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOUR TEACHERS:

64. Do your teachers treat you well?

- Never
- Rarely
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

65. How often do you talk to a teacher outside of class?

- Almost never
- Less than once a month
- A few times a month
- Once a month
- Every day
- I don't want to answer this question

66. How often do your teachers listen to your ideas and opinions?

- Never
- Rarely
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- Often
- I don't want to answer this question

67. How often do your teachers get angry and yell at you?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Most of the time
- All the time
- I don't want to answer this question

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

68. Do you feel that your teachers are favouring the cleverer kids in your class?

- Never
- Rarely
- Some of the time
- Most of the time
- Often
- I don't want to answer this question

PART 7: HOW YOU FEEL WHEN YOU ARE WITH FRIENDS

Directions: These next questions ask how you feel when you are with your friends. They could be in class with you or in another class, in another school, or not in school at all.

69. How many friends do you have?

- I do not have any friends
- I have some friends but I wish I had more
- I have plenty of friends
- I don't want to answer this question

70. Which statement best describes your relationship with your friends?

- I get into fights all the time with my friends
- I get into fights many times with my friends
- I get along with my friends
- I don't want to answer this question

71. Your friends suggest that you do something against the school rules, what you do?

- I'll go along with the idea if what we are going to do is not too serious
- I'll go along for friendship's sake even if it is serious
- I'll try and persuade them not to do it, but will go along if they insist
- I'll try and persuade them not to do it, and will not go along even if they insist
- I don't want to answer this question

PART 8: YOUR HEALTH

72. How is your state of health?

NB: Mark only one option per question or fill in the required information. You can use a tick, a cross, or a circle around the appropriate response.

73. Do you suffer from any of the following long-term illnesses?

- Allergies
- Bronchitis
- Heart condition or disease
- Epilepsy
- Cerebral Palsy
- Kidney Condition or disease
- Any other long term condition
- None
- I don't want to answer this question

Thanks again for helping us with this survey!

Addendum C: Tables of significance

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How do you feel about school?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.125*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.011
	N	420	420
How do you feel about school?	Pearson Correlation	-.125*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.
	N	420	420

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 59: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their perception of school

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How active are you in the following extramural sports activities? Athletics?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.251**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
How active are you in the following extramural sports activities? Athletics?	Pearson Correlation	-.251**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 60: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their participation in school sports

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How active are you in the following extramural activities? Art?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.297**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
How active are you in the following extramural activities? Art?	Pearson Correlation	-.297**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 61: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their participation in extramural activities

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	Peer Counselling?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.198**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
Peer Counselling?	Pearson Correlation	-.198**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 62: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their participation in peer counselling

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How do you get to and from school?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.116*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.017
	N	420	420
How do you get to and from school?	Pearson Correlation	-.116*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017	.
	N	420	420

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Figure 63: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their mode of transportation

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How do you feel about homework?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.278**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
How do you feel about homework?	Pearson Correlation	-.278**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 64: Significant correlation between the school that respondents attend and their attitude towards homework

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	Do you feel that you get too much homework?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	.179**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
Do you feel that you get too much homework?	Pearson Correlation	.179**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 65: Significant correlation between school that respondents attend and volume of homework

		School that the respondent attends	Do your teachers treat you well?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	-.148**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
	N	420	420
Do your teachers treat you well?	Pearson Correlation	-.148**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
	N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 66: Significant correlation between school that respondents attend and how their teachers treated them

Correlations

		School that the respondent attends	How often do your teachers get angry and yell at you?
School that the respondent attends	Pearson Correlation	1	.128**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.008
	N	420	420
How often do your teachers get angry and yell at you?	Pearson Correlation	.128**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.
	N	420	420

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 67: Significant correlation between school that respondents attend and whether their teachers got angry with them

Correlations

		I am a Female/Male	How do you feel about your looks?
I am a Female/Male	Pearson Correlation	1	.165**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
	N	420	420
How do you feel about your looks?	Pearson Correlation	.165**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
	N	420	420

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 68: Significant correlation between gender and how adolescents feel about their looks

Correlations

		My home language is	Who takes care of you (and your brothers and sisters if you are not an only child?)
My home language is _____	Pearson Correlation	1	.319**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
Who takes care of you (and your brothers and sisters if you are not an only child?)	Pearson Correlation	.319**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 69: Significant correlation between culture and caregivers

Correlations

		My home language is	How does your father treat you?
My home language is _____	Pearson Correlation	1	-.230**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
How does your father treat you?	Pearson Correlation	-.230**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 70: Significant correlation between culture and paternal relationships

Correlations

		My home language is	How do you feel about doing household chores?
My home language is	Pearson Correlation	1	.303**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
How do you feel about doing household chores?	Pearson Correlation	.303**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 71: Significant correlation between culture and perception of household chores

Correlations

		My home language is	Which statement best describes how you feel about your future?
My home language is	Pearson Correlation	1	-.211**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	420	420
Which statement best describes how you feel about your future?	Pearson Correlation	-.211**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	420	420

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 72: Significant correlation between culture and perception of the future

Addendum D: Code Book

Code Book

J.A GOVENDER (023475)

D. LITT. in Communication Science

University of Zululand (Durban)

Research Project title:

The role of communication in remotivating demotivated adolescents.

0 Respondent number

1-420

1. I am _____ years old

Response codes: 1= 14 and below, 2 = 15-17, 3=18-20, 4=21 and above, 5=no response, 6=no response

2. I am a:

Response codes: 1=Female, 2=Male, 3=spoilt response, 4= no response

3. I live in:

Response codes: 1=urban area, 2=rural area, 3= Spoilt response, 4= No response

4. My home language is:

Response codes: 1= Afrikaans, 2= English, 3=IsiXhosa, 4= IsiZulu, 5= Another Language

5. Which statement best describes how you think others feel about you?

Response codes: 1= No people like me, 2=Few people like me, 3=Most people like me, 4=All people like me, 5=I don't know whether other people like me or not, 6= I don't want to answer this question

6. Which statement best describes what you are willing to reveal about your innermost feelings to your parents?

Response codes: 1=I will never reveal my true feelings to my parents, 2=I will sometimes reveal my true feelings to my parents, 3=I will mostly reveal my true feelings to my parents, 4=I will always reveal my true feelings to my parents, 5=I don't want to answer this question

7. Which statement best describes what you are willing to reveal about your innermost feelings to your friends?

Response codes: 1= I will never reveal my true feelings to my friends, 2=I will sometimes reveal my

true feelings to my friends, 3=I will mostly reveal my true feelings to my friends, 4=I will always reveal my true feelings to my friends, 5=I don't want to answer this question

8. How do you feel about the clothes that you wear when you go out with your friends?

Response codes: 1= I don't have any nice clothes to wear, 2= I don't really have any nice clothes to wear, 3=I have nice clothes to wear, 4=I don't want to answer this question

9. How do you feel about your looks?

Response codes: 1=I don't look attractive at all, 2= I could look more attractive, 3= I look quite attractive, 4= I look very attractive, 5=I don't want to answer this question

9. Which statement best describes how you feel about your future?

Response codes: 1= I feel nothing will ever work out for me, 2= I hope things will work out for me, 3=I think things will work out for me, 4=I know things will work out for me, 5= I don't want to answer this question

10. Do you think going to school will enable you to get a good job when you grow up?

Response codes: 1= No, 2= I'm not sure, 3=Yes, 4=I don't want to answer this question

11. Have you already decided what you want to do for a living after leaving school?

Response codes: 1= No, 2= I'm not sure, 3= Yes, 4=I don't want to answer this question

12. Which statement best describes your school grades?

Response codes: 1=I don't get good school grades, 2=My grades could be better, 3=My grades are all right, 4=My grades are quite good, 5=My grades are very good, 6=I don't want to answer this question

13. Who takes care of you (and your brothers and sisters if you are not an only child)?

Response codes: 1=Both my parents, 2=Mostly my mother, 3=Mostly my father, 4=Only my mother as a single parent, 5=Only my father as a single parent, 6=My mother and my stepfather /my mother's regular companion, 7=My father and my stepmother /my father's regular companion, 8=My grandparent/s, 9=My aunt & uncle, 10=My older brother/s and sister/s, 11=Neighbours, 12=I care for myself (and for my younger brother/s and sister/s), 13=Another person, 14=I don't want to answer this question

14. Who do you feel closest to in your family?

Response codes: 1=No one, 2=My mother, 3=My father, 4=My one brother, 5=My one sister
6=I don't want to answer this question

15. How does your father treat you?

Response codes: 1=I don't have a father, 2=My father mostly treats me unfairly, 3=My father sometimes treats me unfairly, 4=My father mostly treats me fairly, 5=My father always treats me fairly, 6=I don't want to answer this question

16. How does your mother treat you?

Response codes: 1=I don't have a mother, 2=My mother mostly treats me unfairly, 3=My mother sometimes treats me unfairly, 4=My mother mostly treats me fairly, 5=My mother always treats me fairly, 6=I don't want to answer this question

17. How often are there arguments between your parents?

Response codes: 1=I don't have parents/ I have only one parent, 2=My parents always argue, 3=My parents often argue, 4=My parents seldom argue, 5=My parents never argue, 6=I don't want to answer this question

18. Who would you go to for help if you had serious problems with your health?

Response codes: 1=No one, 2= My mother, 3=My father, 4=Both my parents, 5=My one brother, 6=My one sister, 7=A friend, 8=A teacher, 9=A religious leader in my community, 10=One of my grandparents, 11= I don't want to answer this question

19. Who would you go to for help if you had serious problems at school?

Response codes: 1=No one, 2=My mother, 3=My father, 4=Both my parents, 5=My one brother, 6= My one sister, 7= A friend, 8=A teacher, 9=A religious leader in my community, 10=One of my grandparents, 11=I don't want to answer this question

20. Do you get enough pocket money?

Response codes: 1=I don't get pocket money, 2=No, 3=Sometimes, 4= Mostly, 5=Always, 6=I don't want to answer this question

21. Do your parents like your choice of friends?

Response codes: 1=I don't have friends, 2=They don't like my friends, 3=They don't mind my friends, 4=They like my friends, 5=I don't want to answer this question

22. Do you have a room of your own?

Response codes: 1=No, 2=I wish I had a room of my own, 3=Yes,

4= I have chosen not to have a room of my own, 5=I don't want to answer this question

23. How do you feel about doing household chores?

Response codes: 1=I don't do household chores after school, 2=I hate doing household chores after school, 3=I don't mind doing household chores after school, 4= I don't like doing household chores after school, 5=I like doing household chores after school, 6=I don't want to answer this question

24. Do you like attending family gatherings?

Response codes: 1= My family does not have gatherings, 2= I hate attending family gatherings, 3= I don't mind attending family gatherings, 4=I don't like attending family gatherings, 5=I like attending family gatherings, 6=I don't want to answer this question

25. Do you like visiting relatives during weekends/afternoons?

Response codes: 1= We don't visit relatives during weekends/afternoons, 2=I don't have relatives close by, 3=I hate visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon, 4=I don't mind visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon, 5=I like visiting relatives during a weekend/afternoon, 6=I don't want to answer this question

26. How often do you do things as a family like going to the beach?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Rarely, 4=Often, 5= I don't want to answer this question

27. How do you feel about school?

Response codes: 1=I hate school, 2=I don't mind going to school, 3=I don't like going to school, 4=I like going to school, 5=I don't want to answer this question

How active are you in the following extramural sports activities?

Response codes

28. Athletics: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
29. Basketball: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
30. Cricket: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
31. Cross country: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
32. Gymnastics: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
33. Hockey: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
34. Judo: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
35. Karate: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
36. Netball: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
37. Swimming: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
38. Squash: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
39. Tennis: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
40. Another sport: _____ 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active,
4=Very active

How active are you in the following extramural club activities?

Response codes

41. Art: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
42. Chess: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
43. Choir/ music: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
44. Debating/ Oratory: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
45. Drama: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
46. Peer counselling: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
47. Religious club: 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active, 4=Very active
48. Another club: _____ 1=Inactive, 2=Active, 3=Quite active,
4=Very active

49. How important is it to you to get good marks in your schoolwork?

Response codes: 1= Not important at all, 2=Not very important, 3=Somewhat important
4=Very important, 5= I don't want to answer this question

50. Do you sometimes bunk classes?

Response codes: 1= Never, 2= Once or twice a year, 3= 3 or 4 times a year, 4= 5 times or more a year, 5= I don't want to answer this question

51. Are you being bullied at school?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Some of the time, 4=Most of the time, 5=Often
6=I don't want to answer this question

52. Do you feel safe at school?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, 5=All the time, 6=I don't want to answer this question

53. Do you feel safe on your way to and from school?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Most of the time, 5=All the time,
6=I don't want to answer this question

54. How do you get to and from school?

Response codes: 1= No response, 2=Bus, 3=Car, 4=Taxi, 5= Walk, 6= Cycle

55. How often do your parents attend school functions?

Response codes: 1=I don't have parents, 2=Never, 3=Sometimes, 4=Most of the time,
5=All the time, 6=I don't want to answer this question

56. How do you feel about homework?

Response codes: 1=I hate homework, 2=I don't like homework very much, 3=I like homework a bit, 4=I like homework quite a bit, 5=I like homework very much, 6=I don't want to answer this question

57. How often do you do your homework given by your class teachers?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Some of the time, 4=Most of the time, 5=All the time, 6=I don't want to answer this question

58. How much time do you spend doing homework at home every day between Mondays and Thursdays?

Response codes: 1=No time, 2=Less than an hour, 3=Between 2 and 3 hours, 4=More than 3 hours, 5=I don't want to answer this question

59. Do chores at home interfere with completing your homework?

Response codes: 1=I don't do chores at home, so chores don't interfere with doing homework, 2=I do all my homework at school, so chores don't interfere with doing homework, 3=Chores make it difficult to complete my homework, 4=Chores don't really make it difficult to complete my homework, 5=Chores don't at all make it difficult to complete my homework, 6=I don't want to answer this question

60. When do you do your homework?

Response codes: 1= I do my homework at home in the afternoons/ evenings/ early in the mornings, 2=I do my homework during free periods at school, 3=I do all of my homework on my way to and from school, 4=I do my homework at school just before classes begin in the mornings, 5=I sometimes finish my homework at school just before classes begin in the mornings, 6=I sometimes finish my homework on my way to and from school, 7=I don't want to answer this question

61. Who is with you when you do your homework?

Response codes: 1=I don't do homework, 2=I do my homework during free periods at school on my own, 3=I do my homework during supervised sessions at school, 4=I do homework after school along with my friends, 5=I do my school homework at home along with brother/s and sister/s, 6=I do my school homework along with one or both of my parents/ grandparents, 7=I don't want to answer this question

62. Do you feel that you get too much homework?

Response codes: 1=No, 2=Some of the time, 3=Most of the time, 4=Often, 5=I don't want to answer this question

63. How often do your parents go to your school sports when you participate?

Response codes: 1=I don't have parents, 2=I don't participate in sports at school, 3=Never, 4=Rarely, 5=Sometimes, 6=Often, 7=All the time, 8=I don't want to answer this question

64. Do your teachers treat you well?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Some of the time, 4=Most of the time, 5=All the time, 6=I don't want to answer this question

65. How often do you talk to a teacher outside of class?

Response codes: 1=Almost never, 2=Less than once a month, 3=A few times a month, 4=Once a month, 5=Every day, 6=I don't want to answer this question

66. How often do your teachers listen to your ideas and opinions?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Some of the time, 4=Most of the time, 5=Often, 6=I don't want to answer this question

67. How often do your teachers get angry and yell at you?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Most of the time, 5=All the time, 6=I don't want to answer this question

68. Do you feel that your teachers are favouring the cleverer kids in your class?

Response codes: 1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Some of the time, 4=Most of the time, 5=Often, 6=I don't want to answer this question

69. How many friends do you have?

Response codes: 1=I do not have any friends, 2=I have some friends but I wish I had more, 3=I have plenty of friends, 4=I don't want to answer this question

70. Which statement best describes your relationship with your friends?

Response codes: 1=I get into fights all the time with my friends, 2=I get into fights many times with my friends, 3=I get along with my friends, 4=I don't want to answer this question

71. Your friends suggest that you do something against the school rules, what you do?

Response codes: 1= I'll go along with the idea if what we are going to do is not too serious, 2=I'll go along for friendship's sake even if it is serious, 3=I'll try and persuade them not to do it, but will go along if they insist, 4=I'll try and persuade them not to do it, and will not go along even if they insist, 5=I don't want to answer this question

72. How is your state of health?

Response codes: 1= Excellent, 2= Very good, 3= Good, 4= Very Satisfactory, 5= Satisfactory, 6= Poor

73. Do you suffer from any of the following long-term illnesses?

Response codes: 1=Allergies, 2=Bronchitis, 3=Heart condition or disease, 4=Epilepsy, 5= Cerebral Palsy, 6=Kidney Condition or disease, 7=Any other long term condition, 8=None, 9=I don't want to answer this question

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