CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION, STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The movement of people from rural to urban areas in South Africa has resulted in overcrowding and poor living conditions in urban areas (Gerdes, Moore, Ochse & Van Ede 1988:13). Main and Williams (1994:110) point out that the opening of the gold mines of the Witwatersrand a century ago, represents the first modern large-scale industrial activity in South Africa which contributed considerably to the migration of people from rural to urban areas.

As a result of migration processes, the structure of society, as well as the stable structure of the family changed drastically. In rural societies, nuclear families (comprising of parents and their children) are deeply embedded in the extended family structure (comprising of grandparents, uncles, aunts, cousins and other distant relatives). This state of affairs underwent radical changes as a result of migration from rural to urban areas, resulting in the isolation of the nuclear family from the extended family structure (Pretorius 1998:57). The nuclear family started functioning as a separate unit, thus becoming vulnerable to the highly variable economic and social settings of urban life. Stresses and strains resulting from unemployment, single parenting and parenting styles whose influences on the development of a child in the extended family structure appear to be largely suppressed, become active in the urban setting (Le Roux & Smith 1998:685). In such instances, the nuclear family becomes disadvantaged and this may negatively influence the growth and development of children belonging to it.

Brooks-Gunn, Duncan and Aber (1998:572) agree that the home environment plays a major role in the holistic development of a child. Whether the milieu is

of upper, middle or lower class, it has an impact on the life of a child. According to Brooks-Gunn et al. (1998:572), neighbourhoods, including the home environment as part thereof, seem to influence individual development most powerfully in early childhood and late adolescence. Based on this understanding, it becomes critical that any factor that threatens the stability of the home environment should be closely examined in relation to its influence on the self-concept of a child. In the current study the main focus is given to the disadvantaged home environment and its influence on the self-concept of a child. However, in order to allow for comparison and proper interpretation of results, this study also focuses on the sound home environment and its influence on the self-concept of a child. Self–concept has been chosen as the main focus in the present research because of its relevance to processes of identity formation and learner behaviour.

The relationship between the self-concept and factors such as family structure and function has been researched (e.g. Kaplan, Liu & Kaplan 2001:360-370; Campbell, Pungello & Miller-Johnson 2002:277-299). The intensity of research around this area highlights the need to further understand the self-concept in relation to the home environment. However, these studies are largely restricted to outside South Africa. So far, no work is known to me in which the relationship between the disadvantaged home environment and the self-concept of a child has been studied in the South African context. Given the uniqueness of South African history and cultural diversity, the need to study these issues in South Africa cannot be overemphasised.

The recent move by the South African Education Department to recognize Life Orientation (LO) as one of the learning areas in Outcome-Based Education (OBE), signifies an awareness that aspects such as self-concept formation which are part of Life Orientation are pivotal in the development of properly skilled individuals. However, critical among the requirements for successful implementation of Life Orientation is the need for trained personnel who will be capable of identifying and dealing with learners with problems. These issues shall be considered in this thesis in order to further clarify the

situation surrounding the self-concept and its relationship with the home environment.

1.2 Awareness of the problem

As an educator for 20 years in schools that largely catered for learners from informal settlements, the researcher had an opportunity to observe different behavioural patterns amongst learners (ages: 13 – 19 years). Of great concern was the prevalence of negative behaviour which included lack of interest in school, low grades, misconduct, personality problems, dropping out of school, bullying, drug abuse and the use of weapons by learners. Based on these observations, the researcher began to ponder upon the nature and significance of the relationship between the home environment and the self–concept of a child. The following concerns also came to mind:

1.2.1 Inadequately trained educators

Life Orientation as a learning area that deals largely with issues relating to behavioural patterns and the formation and development of a positive self-concept, occupies a vantage point in addressing the behavioural problems of learners in schools. However, the nature and the sensitivity of issues dealt with in Life Orientation require that educators who are tasked to facilitate this learning area should be well trained. Unfortunately, this requirement is not fulfilled currently. As a result the task of facilitating Life Orientation in schools has been given to educators who lack or have inadequate training in the field of guidance and counselling. This undoubtedly, does not lead to the full realization of the specific outcomes of Life Orientation as specified in the policy document (Department of Education 1997:4).

1.2.2 Lack of intervention strategies

Lack of intervention strategies is in part a product of lack of training of Life Orientation personnel. This situation, leads to the prevalence of deviant

behaviours in schools which in turn disrupt the smooth learning atmosphere.

1.2.3 Inadequate parental involvement

Participation by black parents in the education of their children is still lacking in many respects. The low participation level may in part be attributed to parents who work far away from home and only come home weekly or monthly. Moreover, it appears that most black parents are ignorant of the role they should play in the education of their children. Educators are often left alone to deal with the problems that the learner faces. This may further frustrate the efforts by the Life Orientation facilitator who may often need parental involvement in order to fulfil his/her task of counselling the learner.

1.3 Exploration and formulation of the problem

In order to understand the challenges facing the child's self-concept in a disadvantaged home environment, it is important that a thorough examination be done concerning the factors that influence a child while he/she is developing. The following factors are known to play a role in the home environment:

1.3.1 Low socio-economic backround

Unemployment and low income are among factors that are closely associated with housing problems. Hamlin, Mukerji and Yonemura (1967:14) and Tomlinson (in Kok & Gelderblom 1994:15) point out that parents in disadvantaged areas are confronted with many problems which include poor housing, too many children, shortage of money, the inevitable boredom and unpleasantness of slum living. Unemployed or low-income parents tend to see themselves as incapable because they cannot meet the needs of their children. Such a state of affairs may influence the parent-child relationship and subsequently the holistic development of a child (Gomel, Tinsley, Parke & Clarke 1998:436). Moreover, the effects of unemployment of parents may

filter to other contexts such as the neighbourhood and life at school of a child (Baharudin & Luster 1998:378). Therefore, the question is what impact do these conditions have on the self-concept of a child. Although it is generally accepted that unemployment and low socio-economic conditions may affect the development of a child, the exact effects of these on the self-concept of a child have to be examined.

1.3.2 Overcrowding

According to Morris and Hindson (1997:102), reform of residential apartheid in the 1980's relaxed the tight bureaucratic boundaries around townships which contained and constrained classes and households. This also resulted in the creation of new middle class housing areas on the peripheries of the old townships and the rise of large squatter settlements on the peripheries of the cities. These squatter settlements resulted in rapid unplanned urbanisation which is overcrowded and includes most disadvantaged homes. According to Hamlin et al. (1967:22), the neighbourhood which is characterised by overcrowding and poor housing conditions, is likely to influence the formation of personalities in children adversely. Such overcrowded neighbourhoods are often characterised by high rates of violence and pupil truancy (Hamlin et al. 1967:31). Therefore, it will be valuable to determine the impact of overcrowding on the self-concept of a child.

1.3.3 Single parenthood

A study conducted by Quane and Rankin (1998:772) showed that black communities in America have a high percentage of female-headed families and the most common factor among them was poverty. Although the researcher is not aware of the existence of similar findings in South Africa, it is reasonable to suspect that such a situation exists particularly given that most fathers in South Africa break ties with their families as a result of having to seek employment far away from their homes. In such homes, children are often left alone without adult supervision, as the mother may also have to

cater for the material needs of the family. Huston (1991:110) indicates that poor mothers who are single are less supportive, less affectionate to their children and also inconsistent in the discipline of their children. Undoubtedly this deprives children of a role model or an adult figure that they may identify with. As a result such children are likely to fall victim to some of the normative social forces, for example teenage pregnancy and drug abuse (Quane & Rankin 1998:772). Shortage of role models may be caused by adjustment in marital status, either through divorce or death of a spouse. Research by Doyle, Markiewicz, Brendgen, Lieberman and Voss (2000:516) indicates that marital adjustment affects the child's self-concept and children may either externalise problems or internalise them by developing a low self-esteem.

1.3.4 Workaholic parent(s)

Working parents who are always occupied by their jobs or careers pose a problem to their children's holistic development. Children of such parents are vulnerable to external influences since they often lack parental guidance. As a result external forces may become significant in influencing the self-concept formation of a child. Furthermore, Robinson and Kelly (1998:226) indicate that work addiction may be a consequence of family dysfunction in childhood and it contributes to continued family dysfunction in adulthood. This implies that workaholism or the effects thereof may persist throughout the developmental stages of an individual. Parents who are frequently absent from home for a greater part of the day due to work affect the attachment between them and their children negatively. The significance of children attaching to their parents has been documented by several authors. According to Wong, Wiest and Cusick (2002:256) it is important that children get support and attachment from parents when they make the transition from elementary school to junior high school. This transition can generate new stresses and challenges for the child and having a secure base and a sense of emotional security may ease the difficulty of this process. Furthermore, Doyle et al. (2000:518) suggest that attachment to fathers by children may be more significant for self-confidence in adolescence. Attachment to mothers may predict adolescents' ratings of

relationship quality. Unfortunately, in the case where parents are workaholics such needed support is missing.

1.3.5 Parents' level of literacy

According to Moletsane and Bouwer (2000:30), providing books early in children's lives sow seeds of literacy and this enhances a positive academic self-concept. Based on this it could be expected that lack of books in a home, coupled with lack of literacy or low level thereof on the part of parents may limit the child's level of exploration. This may also impact on the academic development of a child since the latter will from time to time lack support from parents when coming to educational matters. Kaplan et al. (2001:366) suggest that parents with low levels of educational attainment and high levels of negative self-feelings may emphasize other areas besides academics in which they are likely to excel. These parents may deem it unnecessary to be concerned about poor academic performance and they may communicate lower academic expectations to their children. In the current research, focus will be on the parents' low level of literacy as one of the factors in the home environment and its influence on the self-concept of a child.

1.3.6 Parenting styles

Pretorius (1998:62) in his studies outlines eight child-rearing styles of basic forms of parenting. These are warm parenting, cold parenting, dominant parenting, permissive parenting, tolerant parenting, autocratic parenting, involved parenting, and indifferent parenting. Considering these parenting styles, it is important to determine the way and the extent to which they affect the self-concept of a child. The researcher's concern is parenting styles in a disadvantaged home environment and how they relate to the self-concept of a child. Berns (1997:152) outlines the research carried out by Diana Baumring on parenting styles that fostered self-control and pro-social behaviour in children. From her results it is apparent that parenting styles do affect children's behaviour.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Developing countries are characterised by many home environments that are disadvantaged, resulting in a situation that may have an adverse effect on the self-concept of children. The problem may be caused by:

(i)   unemployment which may cause poverty;

(ii)   low socio- economic background;

(iii)   overcrowding; and

(iv)   poor housing and sanitation conditions;

(v)   low level of formal education;

(vi)   discrimination

The guidance counsellor faces the following problems as he or she views self-concepts of children from disadvantaged home environments:

(i)   What role can guidance and counselling play in shaping the self-concept of the child?

(ii)   How can the home and the school form a relation in assisting the child in the formation of a positive self-concept?

(iii)   Which role models are there in society which a child can identify with in order to develop a positive self-concept?

(iv)   How can one influence a child from a disadvantaged home environment to form relations with a peer group that has acceptable behavioural patterns?

The self-concept is a key concept in any learning situation because through it one can tap a child's talent or potential. An education system faces a problem of drop-outs from school due to lack of self-esteem of learners. The scientific study of the relationship between a disadvantaged home environment and the self-concept of children can potentially make a sound contribution to the education of the child in the field of guidance and counselling.

1.4.1 Contextualisation

It is the duty of a guidance counsellor to encourage learners from disadvantaged homes to develop positive self-concepts while at school. This can help to reduce the incidence of drop-outs from school who join gangs which are the perpetrators of crime and violence in society. The key concepts here include: disadvantaged home environment, self-concept, role models and peer group.

1.5 Aims of the study

The primary aims of this research are:

(i)   to indicate the role which the home environment can play in influencing the self-concept of children;

(ii)   to conscientize disadvantaged homes about the importance of a healthy self-concept in children;

(iii)   to raise an awareness among educators that adolescent's self-concepts are key factors for successful learning; and

(iv)   to contribute towards the effective implementation of the Life Orientation learning area in the current curriculum so that the system of education in South Africa can cater for the needs of children from disadvantaged environments and enhance their self-concepts.

1.6 Research methods

1.6.1 Introduction

The word 'method' is derived from the Greek word *meta+ hodos* which must be translated as 'the way by which'   (Du Plooy, Griesel & Oberholzer 1987: 211). Fowler and Fowler (1976:686) explain the method as a special form of procedure in any branch of mental activity. The researcher must implement a scientific way of doing his/her research, thus he/she must use certain

methods to arrive at the final goal. Various methods will be used in trying to establish how the self-concept is affected by the home environment.

1.6.2   Methodological accountability

The researcher will use more than one method in this research project to investigate the stated research questions.

1.6.2.1   The inductive method

According to Du Plooy et al. (1987:213), this method can be described as an empirical method, literally meaning that one is guided by the outcome of observation and experiment. In the human sciences individual cases are observed and the researcher moves from the concrete to the general (*id est*) to what is universally valid.

1.6.2.2   The phenomenological method

Heideger (in Du Plooy et al. 1987:219) explains that, according to the phenomenological approach, the researcher must allow what shows itself to be seen from itself as it reveals itself from inside itself. In this method a phenomenon must be allowed to show itself as it reveals itself.

By using this method the researcher will allow the essences to reveal themselves. Those realities are the environment that is disadvantaged and the self-concept of children. The phenomena must be allowed to present themselves to the consciousness of the scientist. The real essences must be unveiled with the aim of revealing their generally valid content. The interrelation between self-concept and disadvantaged home environment must be discovered. The essences that are discovered in the 'self-concept ' and a 'disadvantaged home environment' must be thoroughly investigated to determine if one is a condition for the existence of other essences.

The pre-scientific education situation (*id est)* the home may be viewed as the point of departure from which guidance and counselling may describe the relation between the self-concept of children and a disadvantaged home environment.

1.6.2.3   Hermeneutic method

The word 'hermeneutic' was derived from the Greek word *hermeneutikos* meaning interpretation (Fowler & Fowler 1976:503). When using the phenomenological method, essences are brought forward. However, when the hermeneutic method is used an explanation or clarification is needed after those essences have been revealed. In this research project one question which will be investigated is the following: how can a disadvantaged home environment affect the self-concept of the child?   Then clarification will be sought.

1.6.2.4   Literature review and critical text study

Various sources will be consulted to obtain acceptable information concerning the research project. Primary literature sources like parents, educators and learners, as well as secondary literature sources like journals, will be consulted. The aim of the critical text study for this research is to:
(i)   analyse the role played by a home environment on the self-concept of the child;
(ii)   make a thorough study of guidance and counselling in schools with regard to self-concept; and
(iii)   analyse the role played by the community in influencing the self-concept of the child.

1.6.2.5   The use of a structured questionnaire

A structured questionnaire will be used to establish learners' views regarding their self-concepts and home environment. The sample size will be 500

learners and simple random sampling will be used. The research area will be the Brits district in North West Province. The targeted population will be secondary school learners.

1.7 Concept clarification

Concepts which will be elucidated are 'relationship', 'disadvantaged home environment', 'self-concept' and 'guidance and counselling'.

1.7.1 Relationship

Relationship is defined by van den Aardweg and van den Aardweg (1993:201) as a mode in which persons, things, ideas, self and God are mutually connected. Based on this definition, an individual may have relationships with parents, siblings, peers, objects and self. These relationships are usually dynamic, interactive and pleasant or unpleasant (van den Aardweg & van den Aardweg 1993:201). Gouws et al. (2000:78) indicate that most friendships that are formed during the adolescence stage are mainly based on emotional fulfilment. Also, the emergence of heterosexual relationships often occurs during adolescence.

1.7.2 Disadvantaged home environment

1.7.2.1   Home

Fowler and Fowler (1976:513) define a home as a fixed residence of a family or household. Some households are headed by both or one parent while others are headed by guardians. Furthermore, some homes do not only include members of the nuclear family but also members of the extended family as explained in paragraph 1.1 above. A home is both a physical and a cognitive concept place. As a physical place a home is a complex system of rooms, spaces, furnishings and equipment, while as a cognitive concept place is a center of early conception of the self (Weigel-Garrey, Cook, Brotherson

1998:44). Weigel-Garrey et al. (1998:47) go further to say that a home provides an arena in which self-knowledge, knowledge of others and knowledge of the environment begin.

1.7.2.2 Environment

Reber (1985:243) defines the concept 'environment' as "…that which surrounds. The term is generally taken to stand for the total physical and social surroundings of an individual. The term also carries with it the connotation of influence, i.e. that which is part of a given environment of an organism which has some actual or potential role to play in the life of that organism."

1.7.2.3 Disadvantaged

The word 'disadvantaged', according to Fowler and Fowler (1976:292), means unfavourable conditions or a lack of normal social opportunities. In the subsequent paragraph an outline of a disadvantaged home environment will be given.

1.7.2.4 Disadvantaged home environment

The concepts 'disadvantaged', 'home' and 'environment' were each defined in the foregoing paragraphs. In this paragraph these concepts will be explained as a unit.

The disadvantaged home environment is found in a low socio-economic background. Hamlin et al. (1967:10) refer to such an environment as one that is lacking space and possessions. Slums, ghettos or squatter settlements are examples of disadvantaged areas. The characteristics of such an environment are lack of proper housing, a toilet system, water and electricity.

Depriving conditions of poverty are associated with decreasing levels of effectiveness in every area of human development. Huston (1991:10) points out that some large urban ghettos have high concentrations of adults who are poor and chronically unemployed with virtually no attachment to the labour market. Children living in these ghetto neighbourhoods have few models of conventional success and are isolated from the norms and opportunities in the larger society. Instead, they live in an environment where criminal activity succeeds and where the threat of violence is ever present. Children growing up in such areas learn survival skills or techniques (Hellmuth 1967:35). Under such demoralizing and hazardous conditions an individual's self-esteem, dignity and sense of hope is at stake.

A disadvantaged home environment is often characterised by parents who are less supportive and affectionate to their children. Research by Huston (1991:112) indicates that fathers who sustained financial loss became more irritable, tense and explosive which, in turn, increased their tendency to be punitive and inconsistent in the discipline of their children. Under such conditions the children's development is affected.

In disadvantaged home environment a basic need like food is a major problem. Inadequate food supply can be caused by unemployment or low wages. This can cause malnutrition, which is a common consequence of poverty. Obert (1978:353) defines malnutrition as a state of disease caused by deficiency, excess, or imbalance of the supplies of calories, nutrients, or both, that are available for use in the body. Malnutrition can seriously limit brain growth in children and the holistic development of the child will be affected if the basic needs are not met.

1.7.3 Self-concept

The self-concept is the broad idea of 'who am I' including the existential self, the categorical self and a level of self-esteem (Bee 1989:388; Gouws, Kruger & Burger 2000:82). Once the infant has clearly understood that he/she is

separate and distinct from others, the process of defining the self begins. Other researchers refer to this more simply as the self- concept. Although pre-schoolers know their names and nicknames, they still do not see themselves as others see them. Their self-concept is based on fleeting, sometimes faulty ideas (Bee 1989:388). According to Clarke-Stewart and Friedman (1987:394), school-age children achieve a deeper and richer understanding not only of whom they are but also of their self-worth. Over the periods of concrete and formal operations the content of the child's self-concept becomes more abstract, less and less tied to outward physical qualities, and more based on presumably enduring inner qualities.

In adolescence, the concept of self is further coloured by psychological and social relations (Clarke-Stewart & Friedman 1987:607). Young adolescents are aware of their self- awareness and they know that people can think about their own experiences. Later in adolescence, people come to understand that some mental events are beyond conscious control.

The environment plays an important role in building or influencing one's self-concept. People's self-concepts are constructed not simply through the direct influence of others, although that can take place, but through taking others' perspectives towards themselves (Wicklund & Eckert 1992:99). Every human being must become that self which one truly is (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1990:376). The self-concept thus refers to the picture which the person has of himself or herself. The self-concept is a 'lens' through which the actions and attributes of others are judged (Suls 1993:107).

The self-concept is also influenced by the need for positive regard. This is all about the need for approval, love, respect and appreciation. The child will do whatever is good or bad as long as he/she can be appreciated (Meyer et al. 1990:386). This builds his/her self-concept. The environment in which the child grows will also have an influence on his/her self-concept.

1.7.4 Guidance and counselling

In earlier times guidance and counselling was introduced in schools primarily to cater for the needs of problematic students. However, more recently guidance and counselling concentrates on vocational education, character development, social appropriate behaviours, academic achievement, prevention, intervention and self-actualization (Duhon & Manson 2000:123; Thompson 2002:1-2). The significance of guidance and counselling in school programmes, has been highlighted by Perdersen and Carey (2003:vii). These researchers state that guidance and counselling cannot be left out of school programmes since it develops and promotes the academic achievement and psychological development of children.

According to Duhon and Manson (2000:125), the aims of guidance and counselling can be summarised as follows:
- To appraise learners in terms of their academic and psychological abilities;
- To assist learners with educational and occupational planning;
- To assist learners in acceptance of their feelings, thoughts, desires, abilities and problem solving skills;
- To provide learners with personal information regarding their plans, choices and problems;
- To refer learners to services outside the school setting where they can receive help;
- To place learners for the purpose of education and/or occupation;
- To assist parents with regard to learners with problems; and
- To counsel the school staff on how to better meet student needs.

Guidance and counselling are facilitative processes in which the counsellor, working within the framework of a special helping relationship, uses specific skills to assist young people to help themselves more effectively. Counselling provides help in a complex interpersonal interaction, which in itself promotes growth and change (Gillis 1994:2). Counselling is considered as a process of helping young people to change, not by 'taking over' or providing solutions,

but by creating favourable conditions for them to achieve their own insight, and to change from within.

Prior to change in the education system in South Africa, Guidance was part of the curriculum in schools even though some schools disregarded it due to the lack of trained teachers for the subject. Ever since the implementation of OBE in schools, Life Orientation has been introduced to concentrate on the holistic development of the learner. For the purposes of this study the objectives of Life Orientation which will be defined are those of the Senior Phase (Grade7-9) in the General Education and Training (GET) band and they are clearly outlined in the Policy Document (Department of Education 1997:2-6). In summing up the essence of Life Orientation, it is clear that it is an integral part of education, fundamental to empowering learners to live meaningful lives.

1.8 Programme design and exposition

The contents of this chapter include the introductory perspectives of the research theme with regard to awareness, exploration and formulation of the problem, hypothesis, aims of the study, methodology and concept clarification. The subsequent chapters will be as follows:

(i)   In Chapter Two the home environment and the self-concept of the adolescent will be thoroughly elucidated.

(ii)   In Chapter Three the relationship between the home environment and the academic self-concept of an adolescent will be discussed.

(iii)   In Chapter Four the relationship between the home environment and the non-academic self-concept of an adolescent will be outlined.

(iv)   In Chapter Five, a structured questionnaire will be administered.

(v)   In Chapter Six an analysis of data and results will be discussed.

(vi)   In Chapter Seven a summary of research findings and recommendations will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

THE HOME ENVIRONMENT AND THE SELF-CONCEPT OF AN ADOLESCENT

2.1 Introduction

As stated in the previous chapter this study focuses on secondary school children of ages 13 to 19 years. According to Jaffe (1998:20), children in the above age group are adolescents. Jaffe (1998:19) continues to define the word adolescence as the period of life between puberty and maturity. There appears to be lack of agreement with regard to the age of onset and termination of adolescence. Hamachek (1975:175) argues that the onset and the termination ages of adolescence can vary from one individual to another. However, according to Balk (1995:6), adolescence can be classified into early (10 – 14 years), middle (15 – 17 years) and late (18 – 22 years) stages. In South Africa adolescence formally ends when a person is entitled to vote or when the need for parental consent falls away.

In terms of physical development, adolescence commences with the prepubertal growth spurt and ends with the attainment of full physical maturity (Hamachek 1975:179). As a secondary school child develops physically, psychological maturation also takes place. According to Louw (1991:388), the physical development, which includes bodily changes, affects the adolescent's psychological development. The adolescent may experience the body changes as either admirable or humiliating (Vrey 1979:165). This indicates that the adolescent's body image is linked to his/her self-esteem, and it may be influenced by his/her experience of how people perceive him/her.

An adolescent does not develop physically or psychologically only, but he/she also experiences development cognitively. According to Burns (1982:155), the

adolescent's greater cognitive maturity enables him/her to be aware of a broad array of experiences and to conceptualize himself/herself from perspectives unavailable to the pre-adolescent. Cognitive development helps in the development of the self-concept. Burns (1982:156) points out that a major transformation in the development of the adolescent's cognitive abilities involving memory, learning, thinking and reasoning is the increase in the ability to abstract and integrate information about self. This enables the adolescent to attain a level of intellectual maturation which helps him/her in the shaping of his/her self-concept.

An adolescent is also in relationships that influence his/her self-concept like parents, peers, values and his/her environment. The factors in a home environment that have an influence in the life of an individual are physical, social, economic and physiological. In this study the focus is on the home environment of the adolescent.

2.2 Home environment

2.2.1 An ideal home environment

The concepts home and environment were defined in Chapter One of this study. Furthermore, in Chapter One a nuclear family was mentioned as a major source on which a child depends. In order to understand an ideal home environment the word family will often be used interchangeably with the word home. An ideal home has physical, social, economic factors whose interaction affect the life of an individual in such a home in a positive way.

Saegert and Evans (2003:573) indicate that an ideal home is not characterised by health hazards but by physical conditions that are always acceptable for both adults and children. Such ideal physical conditions would include, among others, a proper structure, sanitation, electricity and enough space. Apart from the physical requirements, an ideal home will also provide for physiological and safety needs like water, food, oxygen and physical

comfort. Hamachek (1990:59) indicates that in an ideal home the physiological needs are always satisfied to about 85% when the safety needs are satisfied to about 70%.

Human interaction is another fundamental requirement of an ideal home. According to Balk (1995:239), the functioning of an ideal home enables individuals to gain independence from and to remain connected with other family members. Parents in an ideal home use democratic and authoritative methods of parenting. Jaffe (1998:233) indicates that parents in an ideal home are warm, firm, involved and they use reasoning and persuasion to gain compliance. Discussions are often held with children and independent thinking is encouraged.

A home environment is thus an important place in the lives of children in that it offers them the earliest experience in meeting needs of privacy, territory and socialisation. Parents as the main role players in the home environment are supposed to provide for the physical, physiological, social and safety needs of their children.

For the purpose of this study, the next subsection will focus on a disadvantaged home environment and the conditions that prevail in it.

2.2.2 A disadvantaged home environment

A disadvantaged home environment may, among others, be characterized by a physical structure that is not suitable for human habitation, infestation with pests, lack of safe drinking water and poor ventilation (Saegert & Evans 2003: 573). Such environments pose a number of health threats including respiratory diseases, lead poisoning, asthma and bronchial infections to people inhabiting them (Saegert & Evans 2003: 574).

In a disadvantaged home environment socialisation is characterised by hostility, arguments, tensions and lack of warmth. Changes in the parents'

relationship e.g. divorce, can contribute towards a disadvantaged home environment. Divorce is a traumatic family stressor. A study by Kowaleski-Jones and Dunifon (2004:4) shows that divorce increases the level of anger, despair and lack of emotional support for children. According to Vandervalk, Spruijt, De Goede, Meeus and Maas (2004:292) youngsters growing up in families with a happy, harmonious parental marriage experience fewer problems and a higher well being than those from divorced or maritally distressed families. Therefore, it is reasonable to suspect that adolescents whose parents are divorced may display problematic behaviour.

Apart from divorce a home environment may be disadvantaged as a result of violence. Violence in a home environment includes attempts by one partner to control the other psychologically, physically (including sexually) and intimidation. Emotional and social abuse and deliberate economic depravation form part of the violence that often characterise some home environments. A study by McIntosh (2003:219) on children living with domestic violence indicated that such children were traumatised emotionally and experienced acute anxiety and fear. These authors went on to suggest that children living with violence may have heightened aggression, impulsiveness, poor social skills and poor decision making in relation to mate selection (McIntosh 2003:224). According to McIntosh (2003:224), adolescents (in particular boys) who come from disadvantaged home environments were more likely to express attitudes inclined towards violence and may also become victims of violence in school settings.   More stressors are likely to develop in a disadvantaged home environment where the socioeconomic level is low and the family size is large than in an economically advantaged home with a small family size. These stressors may have both economic and social implications on children. Kowaleski-Jones and Dunifon (2004:6) indicate that emotional support for children decreases in large families as parents are strained and always tired. A family environment study by Peleg-Popko and Klingman (2002:460) revealed that children who come from homes with poor communication were more anxious and stressed than those from homes with open family communication.

A further detailed account on the factors that play an important role in the home environment is given in Chapters Three and Four of this study. The self-concept of an adolescent will be discussed in the next section under the following headings: Physiological and physical, cognitive and intellectual, psychological and social developments.

2.3 Physiological and physical changes of an adolescent

2.3.1 Introduction

An adolescent is in a stage of puberty. The word 'puberty' comes from the Latin word 'pubescere', which means to be covered with hair (Garbarino 1985:90). According to Fowler and Fowler (1976: 897), puberty refers to the development of reproductive organs that enable an individual to be functionally capable of procreation. The physical and physiological growth which occurs during puberty begins when the hypothalamus activates the pituitary gland to secrete somatotrophin and gonadotrophin hormones. Somatotrophin causes somatic growth and gonadotrophin stimulates development of the testes in boys and the ovaries in girls (Hamachek 1975:184; Kimmel & Weiner 1985:63). Accelerated growth in height and mass experienced during puberty is influenced by several factors which could have a genetic, endocrine, environmental, educational or emotional basis (Louw 1991:385-387). According to Balk (1995:63), the most pervasive environmental influences on the timing of puberty are health and nutrition. Growth depends on the intake of various nutrients and thus malnutrition stunts or interferes with the growth process. The above-mentioned factors may be the source of variation in development in any age group. Some youngsters will be ahead of their peers in terms of physical, mental, social and emotional development. Families of low socio-economic level are likely to have children with retarded growth due to lack of proper nutrition. Physical development rests primarily on health and nutrition and it forms a basis for other aspects of development in a human being.

The physical development has an effect on an adolescent's psychological development. Hamacheck (1990:104) indicates that there is an interaction between psychological and biological changes in adolescence. Appearance influences how people treat one and what's going on inside one's body affects how one feels and acts. Louw (1991:388) indicates that male adolescents who mature early are often entrusted with higher responsibilities and are appointed to leadership positions at an early age compared to those who mature slowly. Those who mature early are emotionally relaxed and less self-conscious compared to their peers (slow to mature) who feel inferior and are often dependent. Louw (1991:388) highlighted the following patterns observed in boys who reach physical maturity early:

- They behave in a self-controlled manner and are confident and level headed.
- They manifest socially appropriate behaviour and they can laugh at themselves.
- They have a better body image and greater self-esteem than boys who reach maturity late.

It appears that gains accrued from attaining maturity early do not come without a price. Hamachek (1987:173) and Louw (1991:389) indicate that early maturers pay a price for their moment of glory in adolescence. Boys who mature early have less time than boys who reach maturity late to prepare themselves for changes that come with adolescence.

On the other hand, boys who reach maturity late are seen as less attractive, less balanced, attention-seeking, having feelings of guilt, inferiority, depression, rejection, anxiety and show little need to take the lead (Louw 1991:388). However, Hamacheck (1990:112) argues that although life for slower-maturing boys is somewhat dismal at the beginning, the picture may brighten as they catch up and move into young adulthood.

In the case of early maturing girls the opposite of what is observed in boys happens. Girls who mature early feel self-conscious, different and they often

interact with older boys. In girls the rate of physical maturation is a much less influential variable that mediates self-concept and personality development (Hamachek 1987:173). Girls generally are judged on how they look and boys more in terms of how they perform. It is not easy for boys to change their performances, but for girls it is easy to alter their looks.

During adolescence there is an interest in the opposite sex which is stimulated by the hormone androgen present in both sexes (Jaffe 1998: 89). For those who mature early dating is common and perhaps this can also be the cause of early pregnancies if the home environment and other social factors encourage adolescents to indulge in sexual activities.

2.3.2 Growth disorders related to adolescence

As described in the previous section, some adolescents attain maturity at a much later age than usual, a feature referred to as delayed puberty. Delayed puberty results from malfunction of the hypothalamus, pituitary gland, or the gonads. Jaffe (1998:87) point out that the male and female adolescents who mature late are characterised by less adequate self-concepts. However, Burns (1982:141) argues that the dramatic effects of changes in the body whether late or early have a much less potent influence on the self-concepts of adolescent girls. This difference may be due to the male cultural norm of tall, brawny masculinity, whereas early maturing for girls contains no prestigious advantage.

The other growth disorder that interferes with maturation is physical handicap. This presents an acute challenge in the area of emerging sexuality. Depression and suicidal thoughts are an important issue for the seriously handicapped adolescent (Garbarino 1985:133). The significant others who surround an adolescent who is handicapped can play a major role in giving support for his/her holistic development.

Deviant physical development is also a form of growth disorder. It can express itself in boys through feminine features such as enlarged breasts (Burns 1982:138). According to Burns (1982:138) and Garbarino (1985:128) the self-concept of adolescents with deviant physical development is negatively affected.

2.3.3 Conclusion

It is apparent from the foregoing account that the physiological and physical changes that occur in the bodies of adolescents play a role in shaping their self-concepts. Guidance counsellors in schools and parents need to have a good understanding of the physiological and physical changes that occur in the body of adolescent. This will enable them to give appropriate support to adolescents, thus ensuring that the formation of positive self-concepts is not compromised. The attainment of this ideal requires the skill of trained guidance counsellors who will in turn educate parents on the development processes of adolescents.

2.4 Cognitive and intellectual development of an adolescent

2.4.1 Introduction

Fowler and Fowler (1976:194) define cognition as an action or faculty of knowing or perceiving and cognitive is the adjective thereof. Piaget (in Gouws et al. 2000:39) differentiates among four stages of cognitive development in children:

  Stage one: Sensory motor phase (0-2 years)
  Stage two: Pre-operational phase (2-7 years)
  Stage three: Concrete thinking operations (7-11years)
  Stage four: formal thinking operations (±12 years)

Piaget (in Gouws et al. 2000:39) further indicates that a child at eleven or twelve years of age begins what is called the period of formal operations. The

child develops the capacity for imagining or hypothesising. When an adolescent starts to think in an abstract way, it is and indication that major cognitive development has occurred in his/her life (Burns 1982:156). According to Louw (1991:400) the adolescent's cognitive ability develops both quantitatively and qualitatively. A quantitative approach emphasizes how much one knows. A qualitative approach emphasizes the types and styles of knowing that people exhibit and it also addresses the quality or character of knowing. This view is also shared by Garbarino (1985:142), who further elaborates that cognitive development and intelligence, are intimately related. Both have something to say about the character of a person's knowledge. Louw (1991:400) also indicates that both quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the thought processes do not, however, develop separately, but in a complementary and integrating way.

Abstract thought is necessary, for instance, in mastering of academic subjects such as geometry or poetry. It is also necessary even for the development of the self-concept of a child. Burns (1982:156) indicates that a major transformation in the development of the adolescent's self-concept appears after the age of fifteen through sudden increases in the ability to abstract and integrate information about the self. However, not all adolescents, or even adults seem to reach the more advanced stages of formal operations (Kimmel & Weiner 1985:120). This finding raises the question as to why some adolescents do reach (or use) formal operations while others do not. This situation may result from the lack of interest and/or ability to do formal operations by some individuals (Kimmel & Weiner 1985:121). Moreover, lack of environmental stimulation can result in a slowing down or stoppage of development.

2.4.2 Conclusion

It is apparent from the foregoing account that not all adolescents attain the abstract level of thinking. Guidance counsellors in schools should be aware of such adolescents and device appropriate intervention strategies that will

help to enhance their ability to develop cognitively. The effectiveness of the intervention strategies depends entirely on the knowledge and counselling skill of the guidance counsellor. This further emphasises the need for guidance counsellors to receive proper training.

2.5 Psychological theories on the self-concept of an adolescent

2.5.1 Introduction

As explained in the previous section, adolescence is a transitional period in which one's abstract thinking develops in relation to the development of the self-concept. Several theories in psychology have been postulated to explain the development of an adolescent and his/her self-concept. These theories include, among others, psychoanalytical theory, sociopsychological theory and humanistic approach theory. For the purposes of this study a discussion will be based only on the three above-mentioned theories.

2.5.1.1 The psychoanalytic approach

Burns (1982:126) points out that the psychoanalytic approach concentrates on the rise of sexual instinctual forces at the onset of puberty which upsets the psychic balance of the latency period (repressed infertile sexuality), resulting in emotional upheaval. The psychoanalytic theory advocates that an individual person has sexual and aggressive drives which demand satisfaction. On the other hand there are norms in the society which are likely to make one feel guilty if one reacts irrationally. Although an adolescent is driven by the id (which seeks immediate and complete satisfaction), the ego uses sensory perception and rational thinking to weigh the situation. Then the super-ego which functions intrapsychically in a person represents the moral codes and makes one to feel guilty about the initial drive which he/she had. According to psychoanalytic theory, an adolescent can show regression in his/her development as for example in idolization of famous people or celebrities. This forms a parallel to the idealized parent of the younger child.

27

Another behaviour observed by psychoanalysts is, the complete absorption in abstract ideas such as politics, religion, philosophy, beauty or nature. An adolescent can show rapid shifts in thought and feeling, for example, from love to hate.

2.5.1.2 The sociopsychological perspective

The sociopsychological approach focuses more on the social aspect of an individual. It is concerned with the way in which standards, values and beliefs of a particular society affect the behaviour of an adolescent (Burns 1982:128). Society plays a major role in the life of an individual. As an adolescent changes physically, there is a need for reassurance and support from significant others. Whether the environment changes and new relationships are formed society should reassure the adolescent and give him/her support. Compared to the psychoanalytic approach, the society in the sociopsychological approach plays a major role in self-concept formation in the life of an adolescent. The sociopsychological approach essentially looks at stress and tension as resulting from conflicting pressures from external society and not from internal emotional instability (Burns 1982:129).

2.5.1.3 Erikson's perspective

The approaches discussed in previous paragraphs, that is, psychoanalytic and sociopsychological approaches could be linked by Erikson's perspective. According to Gerdes et al. (1988:65) and Burns (1982:129), Erikson's theory grew out of Freud's psychoanalytic theory. Erikson focuses on the development of the ego which copes rationally with internal and external forces, whereas Freud put more emphasis on the primitive id impulses and the unconscious. Erikson differs from Freud in the sense that he sees an individual as less bound by his/her past and capable of spontaneous recovery from impaired development during earlier stages. Erikson's theory is psychological in that it stresses the interaction between the inner qualities of a person and the demands of his/her culture.

2.5.1.4 Humanistic theory

Unlike the psychosocial theory explained above, the humanistic theory postulated by Carl Rogers is person centered or humanistic in approach. It is centered on the individual's subjective experience of himself/herself and his/her world (Gerdes et al. 1988:63). Rogers sees man's realization of his/her inherent potential as the goal of development. The self-concept is central to Rogers's theory. The self-concept is socially determined by the way in which a person and his/her behaviour are evaluated by others (Meyer et al. 1990:380). The self-concept and the potential of an individual will develop only if he/she is allowed the freedom to be his/her real self. Carl Rogers's theory stresses acceptance by significant others out of which one is able to develop a sense of self-worth. Since Rogers accepts that human beings are inherently good, the real self is seen as positive and so also is development in the direction of the real self.

2.5.2 Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion it is apparent that the adolescent's self-concept rests on his/her psychological development and the role played by society. Trained guidance counsellors who are equipped with the knowledge of the above-described theories and the skill of dealing with adolescents, will play an important role in shaping self-concepts of adolescents from disadvantaged environments.

2.6 Identity formation and self-concept during adolescence

2.6.1 Introduction

As children develop from childhood they pass through various stages. The following stages of development have been outlined by Erikson (Kimmel & Weiner 1985:387):

(i)   Infancy: Basic trust versus mistrust

(ii)   Early childhood: Autonomy versus shame and doubt

(iii)   Play age: Initiative versus guilt

(iv)   School age: Industry versus inferiority

(v)   Adolescence: Identity versus role confusion

(vi)   Early adulthood: Intimacy versus isolation

(vii)   Adulthood: Generative versus stagnation

(viii)   Maturity: Integrity versus despair

According to Erikson, in each stage of development an individual is challenged to resolve a particular crisis. Having done so, he/she is able to move to the next stage of development and the following crisis. This view on developmental stages, is also shared by other authors (e.g. Burns 1982:142; Gerdes et al. 1988:65 & Hamachek 1990:48). According to Marcia (in Kimmel & Weiner 1985:386) identity is an internal self-structure. It is a self-constructed dynamic organisation of drives and also includes abilities, beliefs and individual history. The more developed this structure is, the more aware an individual is about his/her own uniqueness, similarity to others and of his/her own strengths and weaknesses. The less developed this structure is, the more confused an individual seems about his/her own distinctiveness from others and the more he/she has to rely on external sources to evaluate himself/herself.

The main question that an adolescent asks in the process of identity formation is 'who am I'. This question is usually asked during the last step in the transition from childhood to adulthood. However, it is important to note that identity formation begins during the infancy stage. Blos (in Garbarino 1985:290) states that it is in infancy that the ego first comes to experience the self as unique and separate from the other. During adolescence the boundaries between self and nonself are sharpened.

2.6.2 Dominant stages of identity

In section 2.6.1 Erikson's eight developmental stages were pointed out and Marcia's definition of identity formation was expanded. Marcia goes further to recognise the following four identity categories during adolescence:

(i) Foreclosure

Although adolescents who are in the foreclosure category are able to make choices, they do not have an initiative on what they do. They are simply being someone else either their parent or teacher. 'Foreclosure' displays conventionality and rigidity. The individuals are very satisfied about school, reject the use of drugs, and tend to be authoritarian. They are sure of themselves but show no autonomy, cognitive flexibility or independence. Their self-esteem is low and their relationships are not trouble-free (Hurrelman & Hamilton 1996:94).

(ii) Identity diffusion

Identity diffusion is found in pre-adolescents who have no commitment to an occupation, a moral or political stance and to a religious affiliation. Decision-making is difficult for this group (Balk 1995:133).

(iii) Moratorium

Moratorium is the period of experimentation when new and frequently extreme roles are tried out. Youth who have an opportunity to search, experiment and compare, will typically discover a meaningful identity for themselves. The moratorium group, according to Hurrelman and Hamilton (1996:910), have greater fears; their cognitive flexibility is lower and they are more uncertain about cooperation and competition. Their school performance is not good and they are less satisfied with their schools. Their attitude towards the use of drugs is more positive.

(iv) Identity achieved

Consideration of alternatives in the previous category of moratorium allow the adolescents to find an identity that matches past performance, current practices and future expectations. These individuals achieve a sense of self and a harmony between their particular strength and shortcomings.

The validity of Marcia's identity categories is supported by several authors (e.g. Gregoire 1976; Simmons 1970 & Gilligan 1982 in Hurrelman & Hamilton 1996:91). These authors agree that identity achievers have more developed egos. However, these identity categories appear to be more useful in describing the identity of a male rather than that of females. Females are more likely to believe that they can achieve an identity through intimate relationships whereas a male's identity rests upon the individuation process.

2.6.2.1 Identity status model's interpretation

An identity status is identified in terms of exploration and choice. If one of these alters, the identity status changes as well. Identity achievement need not be seen as the terminal point of identity development. Even a well argued choice may at some point lose its value. Hurrelman and Hamilton (1996:99) view an identity status as referring to a combination of psychological principles of individual development and the environment-specific validity of these principles. As far as psychological principles are concerned, focus is on exploration and choice wherein young people should scout their environment and at some point determine their attitude to it, or choose a way of behaving. However, exploration is often limited by the availability or not of the alternatives in cultures and social environment (Hurrelman & Hamilton 1996:100).

2.6.3 Identity development versus role confusion

Louw (1991:441) elaborating on Erikson's theory of identity formation points out that in order to overcome the identity crisis, an adolescent has to master the following tasks:

Time perspective versus time diffusion
An adolescent must realise that he/she has enough time to reach his/her goal and that time is not infinite. This task enables him/her coordinate the past, the present and the future.

Self-certainty versus apathy
An adolescent must develop a sense of independence, self-confidence and social status amongst his/her peers. What an adolescent thinks about himself/ herself should correspond with the way others view him/her.

Role experimentation versus role fixation
In the experimentation that an adolescent finds himself/herself with various roles, he/she must verify before committing himself/herself that it is not only his/her needs that are satisfied but also ensure that a role meets a society's requirements.

Achievement expectation versus work paralysis
An adolescent must guard against over identifying with other people since this tendency may prevent him/her from developing his/her own potential (Louw 1991:441).

Sexual identity versus bisexual confusion
According to Erikson an adolescent must identify with one sex since a well-established sex-role identity forms part of his/her overall identity.

Leadership polarization versus authority confusion

Identity formation is enhanced when an adolescent is able to see himself/ herself as a leader of some people and a follower of others. Confusion occurs when there is denial of acceptance of other people's authority and when he/ she cannot lead when required to do so.

Ideological polarization versus confusion of ideals

An adolescent should consider certain values in such depth that he/she is able to establish a philosophy or ideological framework which may serve as the anchor of his/her life.

According to Erikson the completion of the above mentioned seven tasks will reinforce the adolescent's sense of identity and at the same time limit confusion. Hurrelman and Hamilton (1996:94) view the identity status model as possessing an acceptable degree of validity. It rests on two assumptions: crises pass, and making of decisions or choices regarding the various life domains. The combination of overcoming crises and making choices leads to self-identity.

2.6.4 Factors influencing identity formation

The following factors have been identified as having an influence on the formation of identity in one's life.

2.6.4.1 Relations with self

One of the major developmental tasks of adolescence is that of progress toward self-sufficiency and self-direction (Hamachek 1975:196). During adolescence an individual must develop a sense of self which will also enhance his/her true identity. Developing a sense of self has both personal (subjective) as well as social (objective) aspects. Burns (1982:143) referred to personal aspects of identity as the 'consciousness of personal sameness'. Regarding the social aspects, Burns (1982:143) indicates that a human-being

has as many social selves as there are individuals who recognize him/her and carry an image of him/her in their mind. According to Adams (2000:73), identity achievement is accompanied by a psychological state of inner assurance, self-direction and self-certainty. Individuals who achieve their identity are described as having a high acceptance of self, a stable self-definition, emotional stability and the capacity for interpersonal perspective-taking (Adams 2000:74). On the other hand diffused persons are described as role-confused and as having deep feelings of guilt and rejection.

2.6.4.2 Relations with parents and siblings

The process of identity formation does not only depend on the development of self as discussed in the previous paragraph but also on the way in which an adolescent relates with parents. Gouws et al. (2000:68) point out that parents provide moral and emotional support for their children when necessary.

Hamachek (1975:202) indicates that the specific impact that parents have on an adolescent's emerging self, depends on parental level of affection towards the child. For an example, children who experience insufficient parental affection would be less secure, less self-confident, and less well adjusted socially. The significance of parental involvement in identity formation of an adolescent, is also highlighted by Garbarino (1985:258). This author points out the existence of a strong relationship between parental involvement and adolescent adjustment. Too little parental involvement leads to a sense of insecurity, while parents who are too intrusive produce an exaggerated sense of dependency.

The way the child relates to the parent depends also on the parent's personality and parenting style. A study on parents' personalities described by Adams (2000:161) shows that sons of fathers who are low in self-restraint fared relatively poorly on all outcome measures and collectively provided a portrait of adolescence that is markedly at risk. These children performed relatively poor at school, had problematic peer relations and engaged in a

variety of impulsive and antisocial behaviours. Brown, Mounts, Lamborn and Steinberg (1999:469) in their study found that parental efforts to engage their adolescents in joint decision making seem to foster self-confidence and self-reliance. Furthermore, a study on ego development in girls by Von der Lippe (2000:387) established that the parents' ego development showed meaningful contribution to the family interactions. Parents' behaviour which showed respect for daughters' opinions when disagreements were discussed, facilitated discussion through giving information and seeking feedback in a supportive and emphatic emotional atmosphere leading towards a higher ego development in the daughters.

In addition to the relationship formed with parents, adolescents also relate with siblings. Sibling interaction can either be consistently friendly or hostile. According to Gouws et al. (2000:74), the interaction of siblings is mainly influenced by age, gender, birth order and spacing. In most instances, children of the same sex who follow each other closely with regard to birth order act in a hostile way towards each other. Parental guidance becomes critical in such instances.

2.6.4.3 Relations with peers

Relationship with peers also plays an important role in identity formation of an adolescent. According to Hamachek (1975:209), being noticed and feeling reasonably accepted are important prerequisites to getting feedback and taking the necessary risks to try out different personalities or relationship styles. Hamachek (1975:209) and Louw (1991:423) agree that it is easier for an adolescent to be accepted by a group if he or she conforms to its values, customs and interests and if he or she comes from the same socio-economic background as its members. For disadvantaged youngsters the peer group offers a psychological moratorium that many parents could not provide.

Acceptance by peers starts also from the parent-child relationship. In a study involving over two thousand adolescents it was found that young persons who

were accepted by others had, on the whole a more favourable view of themselves than the rejected ones (Hamachek 1975:210). In addition they had better relationships with their parents and teachers. Peer acceptance is also related to academic success and social success. Adolescents relate with peers who are similar to them in achievement at school, and even in social settings, because whatever they talk about is common. Kimmel and Weiner (1985:293) found that the acceptance and importance of friends to young people does not signify that their basic beliefs have become incompatible with those of their parents, or that parents are losing their influence to the teenage peer group. Parents continue to influence their children throughout adolescence and are perceived as very important sources of affection, help, and support. By fostering certain traits in their children, parents essentially direct a child toward a particular peer group, and thus exercise some control over the type of peer group influences to which he/she is exposed (Lerner & Perkins 1999:49). However, although parents are still important during this age they have become replaced to some extent as friendship deepens and peer-group involvements increase among adolescents. As children grow into the adolescent stage, they tend to spend more time with peers than with parents. The time spent with peers is centered around leisure activities, playing sports, making small talk or seeking some other entertainment (Kimmel & Weiner 1985:294). Peer and parental interactions should be complementary. Adolescents should know what they benefit when they are with peers and also when they are with parents.

Conformity to the peer group during adolescence is greatest during early adolescence (Hamachek 1975:208-209). This is attributable to a lack of independence, self-confidence and a sense of identity. After the fourteenth or fifteenth year conformity declines and the individual begins to realise that it is necessary to be independent of the peer group.

Relationship with peers may in some instances develop to friendship. Adolescents normally choose friends that are similar to them with regard to conduct and interests. Gouws et al. (2000:79) indicate that the need of friends

during adolescence is influenced by the need for social support. Friends may provide a sense of security, self-worth and personal social skills which are necessary for positive development.

2.6.4.4   Relations with values

According to Hamachek (1975:206), during adolescence there is an internalisation of parental values. This view on value transmission from parents to children, is also shared by Garbarino (1985:274). Louw (1991:414) views the adolescent's values as based on respect for the other individual regardless of race, religion or sex; awareness of social responsibilities and honesty in interpersonal relationships. A study by Troll and Bengston (in Garbarino 1985: 275) comparing the family influence and that of peers on value transmission during adolescence established that parental influence dominates in areas such as achievement, educational aspirations and occupational orientations. On the other hand peers seem to have their strongest impact in areas such as sexual behaviour, drug and alcohol abuse.

2.6.5   Conclusion

Based on the foregoing account, identity formation in the life of an adolescent is an important process in shaping the self-concept. The guidance counsellor will be faced with a onerous task of seeing to it that adolescents from disadvantaged environments receive as much help as possible. By focusing on the adolescent's identity formation, the guidance counsellor must ensure that the adolescent develops a sense of self. Parental involvement is also crucial in this case.

2.7   The social development of an adolescent

2.7.1 Introduction

The social development starts early in the life of a child. Being liked and accepted is important at any age, but it seems particularly crucial during the adolescent years. Hamachek (1975:210) describes a study that showed that adolescents who were accepted by others, had on the whole a more favourable view of themselves than the rejected ones. They also had better relationships with their parents and teachers.

Acceptance amongst peers depends on individual characteristics and similarity of partners. Similarity of interests and similarity of attitudes are major predictors of interpersonal attraction (Adams 2000:172). Children emphasise the importance of shared activities in their conceptions of friendship and in their reasons for liking friends. Attitudes are more similar among adolescent friends than among those who are not friends. Moreover, attitudes of friends become more similar to one another over time.

Parents play a primary role in directing the social development of a child. They offer directives to adolescents concerning their place in families and society (Crockett & Crouter 1995:121). In other instances directives concerning appropriate adolescent roles and behaviour may be quite ambiguous. A study involving African-American teens living in inner city ghettos revealed that children assuming skills to survive in their environments and adult responsibilities such as primary caregivers of siblings, move from childhood to adulthood without experiencing the intermediate stage of adolescence (Crokett & Crouter 1995:121). It was also found in this study that the distinction between the worlds of adults and children is often blurred.

The similarity of interest in friendships that exists amongst adolescents may result in social cliques. These cliques are common phenomena amongst high school students. According to Wooden and Blazak (2001:46), students in high

school form social cliques according to social hierarchy whereby popular students are placed high in the status hierarchy. The positioning of one's clique or social group, relative to the other cliques and students on campus affects the self-esteem. Students who are less popular and are in a less popular clique may be those adolescents with low self-esteem (Wooden & Blazak 2001:46). Social cliques which can be categorized as low, middle and high classes exist in all socio-economic environments. Youngsters will always be attracted to someone with similar background or who shares other attributes like beauty or personality traits.

From the discussion above it seems adolescents' social life is more focused on life outside the home set up. A recent study by Field, Diego and Sanders (2002:125) indicates that adolescents with high parent relationship scores reported greater intimacy with parents. This intimacy was expressed by more frequent touching with parents, more family time spent together, higher quality sibling relationships, more frequent presence of an important person in the adolescent's life, a greater number of friends and greater popularity. The findings of Field, Diego and Sanders (2002:126) highlight the significance of the roles played by the adolescent's relationships with both parents and peers in development during adolescence. In the present study focus will be on how the disadvantaged home background influences the formation of the self-concept.

2.7.2 The nuclear family and its influence on the social life of an adolescent

In chapter one the nuclear family was mentioned as a product of urbanisation and industrialisation in South Africa. The shift from extended family to a nuclear family brought a change in child-rearing patterns. The parents in the nuclear family are often geographically isolated from their relatives because they work in faraway cities. This situation deprives the adolescent of the necessary parental support (Louw 1991:415).

The report of National Research Council (1993:43) indicates an increase in single-parent households in South Africa. This increase is in part attributed to an increase in divorce rates and also in children born out of wedlock. Hurrelman and Hamilton (1996:50) in support of the National Research Council (1993:43) findings further indicated that single-parent households are likely to have problematic internal interactions which are detrimental for the socialisation of young people. Adolescents developing in such families are more likely to engage in health compromising behaviours, such as drug and alcohol use, unprotected sex and cigarette smoking.

A study by Murry and Brody (1999:477) on linkages between risk and protective factors, self-regulation and self-worth in rural black (African-American) children reared by single parents, found that children with difficult temperaments who live in routinised supportive environments would have a greater likelihood of developing self-regulatory skills than children living in disorganised home environments. Economically stressed single-parent families experience numerous stressful life events and are therefore vulnerable to depression and anxiety. These circumstances may affect parenting behaviour in a negative way and children end up being socially incompetent and their self-concept may be negatively affected.

Reconstituted families whose members are stepparents and stepchildren have a role in the development of adolescents. Although these families may have some benefits for the children, there may be some strain during the process of transition into a step family. Stepparents may encounter difficulties in establishing themselves as disciplinarians, adjusting to the habits and personalities of stepchildren and gaining their stepchildren's affection. Research still needs to be done in this field especially in the developing countries.

2.7.3   Parental authority and adolescent's social development

From the discussion above concerning the nuclear family, it is clear that the role of the extended family has diminished tremendously. The child is raised by parents only and other relatives are too far to have an impact in the child's life. The authority of parents in a nuclear family has also followed a new trend. Parental authority depends on parenting styles. Garbarino (1985:266) elaborates on four main parenting styles- authoritarian, autocratic, permissive and authoritative- that tend to influence the social development of an adolescent in a family. Families characterized by authoritarian patterns of parenting may jeopardize the social development and self-concept of the child. As adolescents mature and seek to establish their independence they are likely to resist intrusive parental control. Parents may then retaliate by escalating their control, which may already involve physical discipline. This kind of authority, according to Garbarino (1985:266), may lead to detrimental effects on the development of the self-concept of an adolescent. Furthermore, autocratically controlled adolescents may harbour resentment toward the parents (Garbarino 1985:272).

Permissive parenting also may rob the adolescent of direction in life as he/she has been over-protected or spoilt. The social development and self-concept formation in the case of permissive parenting may be negatively affected. In an authoritative parenting style, parents have the best relationships with their adolescents. Authoritative parents are willing to grant their children sufficient autonomy to develop self-governorship and ego control (Garbarino 1985:272). Their lifelong experience with negotiation and shared control prepares them for adolescence in microsystems away from home as well as in the family. The adolescent develops holistically with the support of the parent. The study by Louw (1991:416) conducted on complete families (father, mother and children) with adolescents has shown that the authority of parents has decreased less amongst blacks than amongst whites. This may be due to delinquent behaviour amongst adolescents. From a study by Levy (2001:343) on attitudes towards authority, self-concept and delinquency it was found that

delinquent behaviour was associated with negative self-concept and negative attitude towards parents and teachers. What is remarkable about the findings by Levy (2001:342) is that scores of delinquents who were institutionalised were better adapted compared with non-institutionalised delinquents with respect to attitudes towards parents and teachers.

2.7.4   Conclusion

The role played by significant others in the life of an adolescent is very crucial. It is quite vivid from the foregoing discussion that the adolescent's social life has some influence in the formation of the self-concept. In this study an attempt is made to address the role of a guidance counsellor in the life of an adolescent from a disadvantaged home environment with special attention to the self-concept formation.

2.8   Summary

In this chapter the adolescent's development was viewed from the physiological, psychological, cognitive, and intellectual perspectives. Various views and theories regarding an adolescent's development were also investigated since they form an integral part of this study. Theories regarding the adolescent's identity are discussed since the self-concept of the child rests solely on identity formation. Relationships with parents, peers, self and values determine also the type of self-concept a child will ultimately have. Of utmost importance is the family in which the child grows, though in this study most of the literature which was consulted represents research done in other countries other than South Africa, it clearly indicates that this project will be of importance in determining the South African situation regarding the relationship between a disadvantaged home background and the self-concept of the child.

The academic self-concept of an adolescent will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

THE ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT OF AN ADOLESCENT

3.1 Introduction

The self-concept of an individual can be conveniently differentiated into two major components, namely the academic and non-academic self-concepts. The academic self-concept is dependent entirely for its development on the involvement of the individual in academic matters.

Since children cannot be observed in a vacuum, they are always seen in relation to themselves, to others and to things (Collins 2000:158). The milieu and the culture into which a child is born are of major importance in the cognitive development of the child (Hurlock 1973:188). The home, furniture, clothes, toys, care and education which form part of the milieu in which a child develops are all culturally determined (Vrey 1979:6). Hurlock (1973:188) points out that even before a child is born, his/her parents have a picture of what their dream child will be like, how much education they want their child to have, what vocation they want him/her to have and what social and academic achievement they expect of their child. However, the validity of this view may be limited by the home environment. Parents in disadvantaged home environments may not necessarily cherish the same ideals and values as those from advantaged home environments. Therefore, the current study will, among other things, explore the relationship between the home environmental factors and the development of the academic self-concept of a child. Also in this chapter attention is given to the characteristics of the self-concept, aspects of the self-concept and how these factors enhance the development of the academic self-concept, areas in which the self-concept is formed and essences of the self-concept. The non-academic self-concept will be considered in the following chapter.

3.2 Characteristics of the self-concept

3.2.1 Introduction

According to Purkey and Stanley (1991:35), the self-concept may be defined as the totality of a complex and dynamic system of learned beliefs. This author continues to say that each individual's beliefs provide consistency in personality and predictability in behaviour. The self-concept has at least five characteristics: it is organised, dynamic, complex, consistent, and learned. The subsequent paragraphs will give a brief outline on the characteristics of the self-concept.

3.2.2 The self-concept as an organised structure

Self-concept researchers, for example Ferreira, Pretorius, Botha and Bender (1992:62) and Purkey and Stanley (1991:36) agree that the self is characterised by internal harmony and orderliness. Each person strives to maintain an organization of internal beliefs and external behaviour, and there must be order and harmony in the process. Raath and Jacobs (1990:21) indicate that a person has traits in himself/herself which are not equally important. Each of these smaller traits in an individual has a value in the total self-concept. One trait can surface and influence the type of the person's self-concept. For example, if a child regards scholastic achievement as important, then this trait will surface and influence the type of the self-concept. Another characteristic of the self-concept as an organised structure is that, it is influenced by success or failure. If an adolescent succeeds in performing a certain task, then his/her self-concept will be positively influenced.

3.2.3 The self-concept as a complex structure

The self-concepts consist of a series of personal beliefs and attitudes that dispose the individual to act or react to him/herself as he/she does to any object in its environment (Raath & Jacobs 1990:16). The self-concept is multi-

dimensional; it includes one's body image, intellectual aspirations, social goals and moral ideas. Different dimensions, which make the self-concept to be complex, integrate and form a totality in one's self-image and a person is viewed as a whole.

3.2.4 The self-concept as a dynamic structure

The self-concept is not inherited but it is acquired through learning. It grows over time through maturation and the accretion of experience. As an individual develops, meaning is attributed to various situations. With maturation there is also an accumulation of experiences which are interpreted in line with the self-concept (Ferreira et al. 1992:63). The experiences which an individual gets as he/she matures, makes the self-concept dynamic. The significant others in the life of a child influence the dynamic role of the self-concept.

3.2.5 The self-concept as a consistent structure

According to Purkey and Stanley (1991:36), individuals require a certain amount of internal consistency. Without this consistency, a stable personality would be difficult to imagine. Each person, as he/she grows, acquires expectations about what actions are appropriate to different situations, behaviour or actions. A person develops a consistent behaviour to a particular situation. Purkey and Stanley (1991:36) further indicate that when an individual behaves in a manner inconsistent with the self, a state of discomfort develops. This discomfort is due to the behaviour which is contrary to one's self-concept. Thus the self-concept is seen as a consistent structure. This also applies to the child's academic achievement where consistency is essential for his/her academic self-concept.

3.2.6 The self-concept is learned

As the child develops and gets experience through life and attributes meaning to various situations, the self-concept is also shaped accordingly. For

example, if an individual feels loved, it is because the person perceives the love of others. If students feel neglected, it is because they perceive themselves as being neglected. Students develop confidence as they learn and perceive their efforts to be successful. Every situation which exposes an individual to a certain experience is an opportunity to learn something which in turn shapes the self-concept.

3.2.7   Conclusion

The characteristics discussed above show how the self-concept is affected by various situations. The development of a positive academic self-concept requires constant and proper assistance from guidance counsellors. This creates a further need for proper training of guidance counsellors in schools.

3.3 Aspects of the self-concept

Reber (1985:677) defines the self-concept as one's concept of oneself in as complete and thorough a description as is possible for one to give. Gerdes et al. (1988:77) on the other hand define the self-concept as a composite image of what we think we are, what we think we can achieve and what we would like to be. In other words Rice (1992:246) sees the self-concept as a global entity which is made up of multiple self-conceptions, with concepts developed in relation to different roles. These conceptions of different aspects of the self may differ, which helps to explain how behaviour varies in different roles. The importance attached to the various aspects will always differ from one person to the next. One may put emphasis on one's physical appearance whereas the other person may concentrate on the intellectual aspect. What is of importance is that the person's self-concept is always affected by the evaluation of specific parts. In this chapter the researcher will elaborate only on the following aspects: ideal self, self-esteem, and the intellectual self-concept, since the focus of the chapter is on the academic self-concept (see Figure 3.1). The other aspects will be dealt with in chapter four.
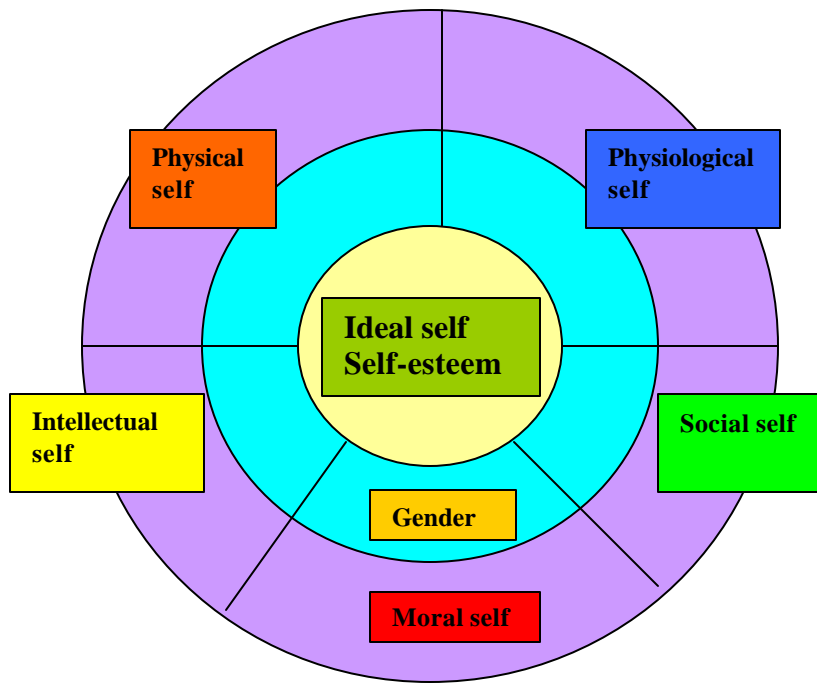
Figure 3.1: Aspects of the self-concept (Adapted from Gerdes et al. 1988:77)

3.4 Dimensions of the self

3.4.1 Introduction

The sense of self probably begins to develop as soon as the child becomes aware of his/her own identity and it becomes prominent only at the age of three or four (Louw 1991:283). Strang (in Rice 1992:246) outlined four dimensions of the self, namely the overall basic self-concept, individual's temporary or transitory self-concept, social self and the ideal self. For the purposes of this chapter an elaboration of the above mentioned dimensions will only cover the ideal self, ethical self and self-esteem.

3.4.2 An ideal self

Reber (1985:340) defines an ideal self as a form of an evaluation, evaluating the difference between an individual's real objective sense of self and one's

idealized sense of self. Rice (1992:247) defines the ideal self as the kind of person the child would like to be. For example, the child's aspirations may be realistic, too low, or too high. Ideal selves that are too low impede accomplishment; those that are too high also may lead to frustration if an individual does not reach the desired goal. It is important that children have realistic self-concepts since they will lead to self-acceptance and accomplishment of realistic goals. Participation in various activities and the skill in taking the perspective of others, help the child to develop a realistic self-concept.

3.4.3 Ethical self

Fowler and Fowler (1975:355) define the concept 'ethic' as moral principles or rules of conduct. Ethical self has to do with the moral self. Gerdes et al. (1988:79) explains the moral self or ethical self as something that relates to a person's perception of the extent to which an individual is able to satisfy the given rules in a community or society. When the given rules are internalised, they give rise to the ethical self. The significant others play an important role in influencing an individual's ethical self as they approve or disapprove certain behaviour.

3.4.4 Self-esteem

Rice (1992:247) views self-esteem as the way people perceive themselves and whether there is a feeling of self-worth when they appraise themselves. Coopersmith (in Burns 1982:70) elaborates on the concept self-esteem as the judgement of personal worthiness that is conveyed to others by each individual in what one says or does and what one does not say or do. The self-evaluations that the individual makes and customarily maintains are private and subjective. Coopersmith points to the relationship a child has with his/her family as critical to self-esteem. From his study, low self-esteem was closely related to the groups which came from homes where parents remarried or where there were conflicts between parents. Again from

Coopersmith's study, children with high self-esteem were from homes where decision-making prerogatives were clearly established, and the patterns of authority and responsibility were clearly delineated. The high esteem child was presented with challenges to his/her capacities and encouraged to appreciate his/her strengths and weaknesses.

According to Hamachek (1975:539), self-esteem is influenced by success and failures. One's history of success or failure determines the level of self-esteem. For example, to fail at something is more tolerable and less apt to threaten one's self-esteem if one has had a history of success in that particular endeavour. Students who experience failure repeatedly develop a feeling of worthlessness and inadequacy and are likely to drop out of school. However, the effect of repeated failure on self-esteem appears to be confined to the school years since it was established by Hamachek (1975:539) that dropouts' self-esteem became higher once they were out of school.

3.4.5 Conclusion

An ideal self and self-esteem are very crucial in the life of an adolescent. A sense of self should be well developed before an academic self-concept can be shaped in the life of an adolescent. Guidance counsellors are faced with the task of ensuring that adolescents from disadvantaged home environments have a well developed sense of self prior to looking into their academic self-concept. Proper training of guidance counsellors will enable them to identify adolescents whose sense of self is not well developed and consequently employ appropriate intervention strategies.

3.5 The areas in which the self-concept is formed

3.5.1 Introduction

A self-concept can be viewed as comprising of three mutually dependent components namely, identity, action and self-esteem (Vrey 1979:47).

According to Reber (1985:340), the word identity refers to the person's essential, the internal or the subjective concept of oneself. On the other hand self-esteem means the degree to which one values oneself (Reber 1985:678). The self-identity is never a neutral image. The identity or the image of the adolescent will be evaluated against subjective standards formed in relations established with other people. This evaluated self-image becomes the self-concept (Jaffe 1998:192).

The self-concept cannot exist in a vacuum. It is formed and developed in well-defined areas which according to Grobler (1996:20) include:

i.   the relationship which the child has with others and things form the structure in which the self-concept is formed;

ii. the educational climate; and

iii. the child's life-world constitutes a structure in which the self-concept is formed.

The above named areas (also illustrated in Figure 3.2) are important prerequisites in the formation of essences which ultimately build on one's self-concept (Grobler 1996:20). According to Jacobs (1981:68), these essences are inseparable and include meaning, involvement, experience and self-actualisation (see Figure 3.2).

3.5.2 Relations

Louw (1991:26) points out that social factors influence the individual by means of personal social contact. It is during the personal social contact that relationships with other people develop. Relationships developed with other people also determine, to a large extent, the nature of one's personality, particularly aspects like one's self-concept, self-confidence, trust in other people, social skills, modes of thinking and cognitive functioning (Jaffe 1998:198).

Relationships may be seen as a bipolar connection between the adolescent as one pole and the significant other as the other pole (Vrey 1979:21). According to the Object-Relations Theory, the relationship between the mother (as the significant other) and the adolescent is of importance in the adolescent's self-image and his/her perception of the ideal self (Collins 2000:158). Object-relationists maintain that relationships in childhood are internalised and become part of the child's self-image. Adding to this view Burns (1982:165) indicates that the image adults reflect always has an impact on the child, though it can be incorporated into the developing self-concept only if it is consistent, stable and does not contradict the existing schema or construct.
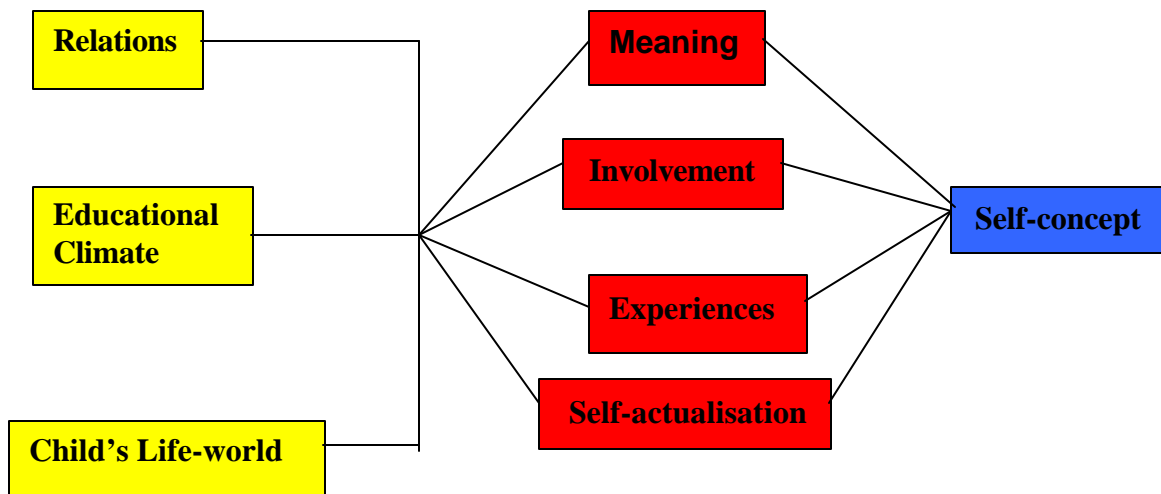
Figure 3.2: Areas in which the self-concept is formed (Adapted from Jacobs 1981:149)

Burns (1982:165) further states that the significant others may be uniformly accepting and consistently reflecting a positive image to the child, or constantly reflecting a negative image. In either case, the reflected image becomes a prime source of psychological experiences necessary to the formation of a self-concept.

Rice (1992:251), Snygg and Combs (in Burns 1982:167) also emphasise the significance of the effects of significant others in the life of a child during the

development of the latter's self-concept. According to these authors, children notice the praises, punishment and labels which they receive from significant others. Consequently, they will regard themselves as important or unimportant based on what others say.

3.5.3 The educational climate

A home environment should create a suitable climate as a pre-scientific education environment wherein a child's self-concept begins to develop. Louw (1991:27) and Grobler (1996:21) indicate that the family, as a social system, is another important determinant of one's self-concept development. The process of developing self-image and ideal self begins in the family and continues as the child attends school (Campbell et al. 2002:279). According to Erikson's theory (Louw 1991:58), as from infancy, a healthy synthesis between basic trust and mistrust will equip the child well in dealing courageously but carefully with new situations. Mutual trust is necessary in any educational situation and a home environment should be the first to provide it. In addition to trust Garbarino (1985:292) recognises more attributes that are necessary in an educational climate. These are love, acceptance, warmth, respect and understanding.

The creation and maintenance of an educational climate in the home is the responsibility of the parents (Ferreira et al. 1992:81). Thus parents become the primary models for imitation, identification and the learning of socialized behaviour. Adolescents who are informed from infancy that they are accepted and loved develop a sense of self-worth and their self-concepts may consequently be enhanced.

From the home environment children go to an elementary school where further development takes place in an educational climate propagated by formal learning. According to Hamachek (1987:269), elementary school years are crucial years in the life of a child. They are years where basic attitudes about oneself are formed. This author further elaborates that elementary

school years are years when the footings of children's self-concepts are either firmly established in experiences of success, accomplishment and pride in themselves or planted in shifting sands of self-doubt, failure and feelings of worthlessness. A positive educational climate in an elementary school provides a positive self-image for the child and serves as a firm foundation for the success at school for the child (Hamachek 1987:274). The importance of elementary school success in the development of the child's self-concept is demonstrated by the following four reasons provided by Hamachek (1987:274):

- subsequent success is not only easier to build onto early success, but it also seems more possible to the child.
- early success gives the child not only a sense of competence and accomplishment, but also establishes a precedent with which one can strive to be consistent.
- early school success makes any later school failures more bearable because they are more likely to be cushioned by previous successes and a developed sense of personal competency.
- early school successes help students develop the kind of positive mental image of themselves with which they can strive to be consistent.

The foregoing paragraph suggests that once a positive self-image is formed and fixed, one tends to behave and strives to achieve in a manner more or less in line with that image. This view is supported by the research findings of Bloom, Kohlberg, La Crosse and Ricks (in Hamachek 1987:272). These authors indicate that early success realised at school, in the ages between five and nine, establishes a positive attitude that can influence subsequent school achievement. The awareness of success or failure by children starts as early as two years of age, and feedback from adults is important to them (Campbell et al. 2002:278). Children's feelings about their ability to do schoolwork are rooted in their early school experiences, and these determine to a great extent both the intensity and direction of their emerging self-conceptions of ability (Hamachek 1990:316).

From the foregoing account it is apparent that the early experiences provided by the home and elementary school environments to a child are crucial in shaping the latter's future development. A study conducted by Wells, Miller, Tobacyk and Clanton (2002:161) involving an adolescent from the low socio economic group whose parents were illiterate, found that there was a mismatch between the expectations and aspirations of the family and those of the school. It appears from this study that the child never spoke about her academic work at home and that the parents did not show interest in their child's work. The fact that parents were illiterate and could not communicate with the child in English, which was the language used at school, could have compromised to a larger extent the educational climate at home. The child did not bother about her school work and ultimately she dropped out of school and she gave birth before her seventeenth birthday. Lack of educational climate at home can also be a hindrance to the development of the academic self-concept. The shortfall in the study of Wells et al. (2002:161) is that only one child was used as a case study which cannot be representative of the entire population. The present study will focus on a larger sample of approximately 500 children from disadvantaged home environments in South African communities.

3.5.4   The child's life-world

It has been demonstrated in the foregoing paragraphs that children do not only exist in a physical or geographical world but are also in a network of relationships with objects, people and ideas. The relationships that the child forms with objects, people and ideas are dynamic, interdependent and interactive. When children relate to anything that surrounds them, there is attribution of meaning. This gestalt of meaningful relationships makes up the individual's life-world (Vrey 1979:14). The life-world of children differs from child to child. The child's life-world is everything that he/she has attributed meaning to and understands. Van Vuuren (1976:52) describes the child's life-world as "… 'n betekenis wereld waarin die mens 'n kommunikasie met homself, sy medemens, die dinge en God verkeer. Die kind wil tot kennis van

die wereld kom, want so stig hy 'n leefwereld en verower hy 'n staanplek vir hom in die wereld."

3.5.5   Conclusion

The foregoing discussion shows that areas in which the self-concept develops are crucial for the development of a positive self-concept. Of importance is to know whether or not these areas are well founded in a disadvantaged home. If not, what role can be played by the guidance counsellor in assisting adolescents from disadvantaged home environments to develop positive self-concepts? The present study will attempt to address these questions and consequently propose ways of assisting the adolescents from disadvantaged home environments.

3.6   Essences and self-concept formation

3.6.1 Introduction

Figure 3.2 outlines areas (relations, the educational climate and the child's life-world) and essences (meaning, involvement, experiences and self-actualisation) leading to self-concept formation. These essences form pedagogical criteria to judge educational events in the process of leading a child to adulthood. In subsequent paragraphs, these essences will be briefly described. The essences are designed to promote the realisation of the educational act (Vrey 1979:31). However, these essences must not be seen as separate entities but as interwoven and all leading to the formation of a self-concept in an adolescent.

3.6.2 Attribution of meaning

Children are born into a world which has objects and people that are important to them. As mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, everything which is found in the life-world of children, is in a relationship with them. Children are

therefore engaged in a process of attributing meaning and this process begins when they learn to differentiate between their sensory perceptions so that, to a limited degree, they can make predictions and entertain expectations (Vrey 1979:31). They also assign meaning to objects and people in order to orientate themselves in their environment. By attributing meaning, the child gets orientated and constructs a meaningful life-world. When meaning is attributed, the child's self-concept is formed. Jacobs (1981:71) says "… die kind slegs tot selfaktualisering kan kom as hy weet en ken en verstaan, met ander woorde, as hy doeltreffend betekenis gegee het." Therefore, one can say that in order for the child to attribute meaning there must be understanding first of each and every situation. Maturing children will not actualise themselves unless they know, understand and are capable of action, that is, unless they attribute meaning (Vrey 1979:33).

3.6.3 Involvement

Children in their life-world are not only cognitively involved when the self-concepts are formed but they are also affectively involved (Vrey 1979:35). Bester (1988:165) and Grobler (1996:23) point out that the support which the children receive in the educational situation, motivate them to be more involved in order to get knowledge. The children's eagerness to know more, urges them to get involved in their educational situation. Involvement is closely connected with the will. Kuypers (in Vrey 1979:35) defines the will as the longing function of the human psyche. It works outwards and longs to change the status quo. In other words the will urges the child to do something so that the situation changes. By being involved in the life-world and having a will, the child's self-concept is formed. Total involvement of the child in the educational situation is essential for optimal self-actualisation. Involvement is the psychic vitality, that is, the driving force behind all learning and developmental tasks (Vrey 1979:37). It is this driving force in a child that will ultimately help in building his/ her academic self-concept.

3.6.4 Experience

Fowler and Fowler (1976:365) define experience as an event that affects one either in a pleasant or an unpleasant feeling. Experience goes hand in hand with one's emotions. Children in their life-world encounter people, objects which affect them either positively or negatively. The child is an affective (emotional) being. Examples of feelings that can be experienced are listlessness or disappointment, tiredness, sadness or gaiety (Vrey 1979:39). Each and every feeling that a child experiences, has an impact on his/her life. Feelings are determined by the situation, or by the meaning attributed to the situation. Children are constantly involved in situations where they experience joy or sadness and this builds their self-concepts.

The educational support which the child receives is of vital importance when experiences are amassed in the child's life. Every aspect of the child's experience can be either positive or negative. This also applies to physical perceptions like pain or physical vigour, the quality of social relations like enjoyment, relations with objects or ideas like frustration, failure or success and spiritual anguish. Ferreira et al. (1992:63) point out that experiences mould and shape the self-concept. Experiences determine the type of self-concept which the child will ultimately have.

3.6.5 Self-actualisation

Self-actualisation implies a person's deliberate efforts to realise all his/her latent potential. This includes every area of manual skill, intellectual capacity, emotional experience and moral awareness (Vrey 1979:43). Reber (1985:677) explains self-actualisation from the perspective of organismic theory (Goldstein's theory) and personality theory of Maslow. According to the perspective of organismic theory, self-actualisation means the motive to realise one's potentials. According to the perspective of personality theory (Maslow's theory), it means the final level of psychological development that can be achieved when all basic and material needs are fulfilled. Self-

actualisation is and must remain an effect, namely the effect of meaning fulfilment. Maslow believes that much human behaviour can be explained in terms of need gratification. People have certain basic needs, which are hierarchically arranged (see Figure 3.3). These needs are biological, safety, love and esteem needs (Meyer et al. 1990:358). These needs must be satisfied in the process of self-concept formation.

Gerdes et al. (1988:61) point out that self-actualisation is a person's desire for self-improvement, one's drive to make actual what one's potentially is. A child who is on his/her way to adulthood and must also be self-actualised, needs educational support from significant others. The support will also help in the child's self-concept formation.
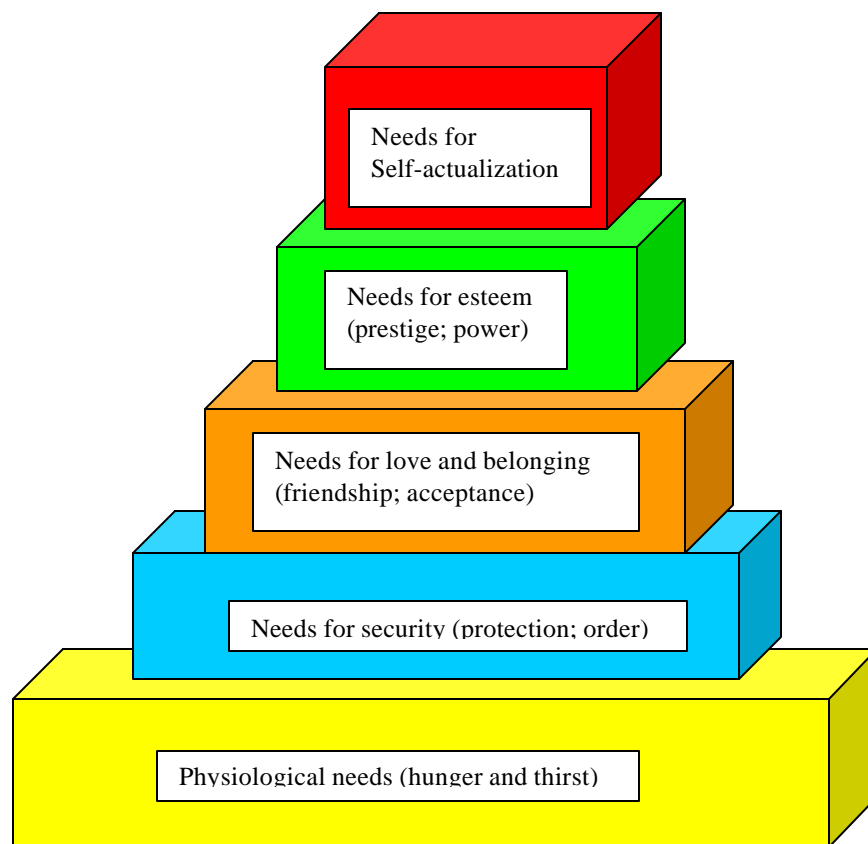
Figure 3.3: Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Adapted from Gerdes et al. 1988:60)

3.6.6 Conclusion

The essences discussed in the foregoing account, namely, meaning, involvement, experience and self-actualisation form basic tools for self-concept formation. The questions which arise are: Are these essences realized and well founded in adolescents who come from disadvantaged home environments? Which strategies and measures are in place for guidance and counselling in schools to assist adolescents from disadvantaged home environments? The present study will attempt to address the situation facing an adolescent from a disadvantaged home environment and the development of his/her self-concept.

3.7 The academic self-concept

Lynch in Ferreira <u>et al</u>. (1992:74) describes the academic self-concept as a subset of general self-concept and a set of beliefs people have about themselves as students in academic or school settings. The academic self-concept is dependent on the ideal-self and self-esteem. The intellectual self-concept (see Figure 3.4) is closely linked with the academic self-concept. As a result of a series of studies and analyses by Marsh and Shavelson (in Hamachek 1987:264) four components of one's school self-concept have been identified. These are:

- general self-concept;
- non-academic self-concept;
- academic English self-concept;
- academic mathematics self-concept.

Shavelson's model (see Figure 3.4) shows the hierarchical organisation of the self-concept (Suls 1993:61). In this model, general self appears at the apex and is posited to be the most general and stable component. At the next level general self-concept is divided into academic and non-academic self-concepts. Academic self-concept is divided into self-concepts relating to subject areas like mathematics, English, science and history. Non-academic

self-concept is divided into social, emotional and physical self-concepts. The non-academic self-concept will be discussed in chapter four.

The academic self-concept can only be realised in terms of the adolescent's performance in specific subjects or learning areas. The attainment of a positive academic self-concept affects academic behaviours, academic choices, educational aspirations and subsequent academic achievement. The academic self-concept is more closely correlated to scholastic performance than the non-academic self-concept (West, Fish & Stevens 1980:197). This finding, was later confirmed by Botes (1987:48). In a more recent study Martinot and Monteil (2000:120) established that academic success, unlike
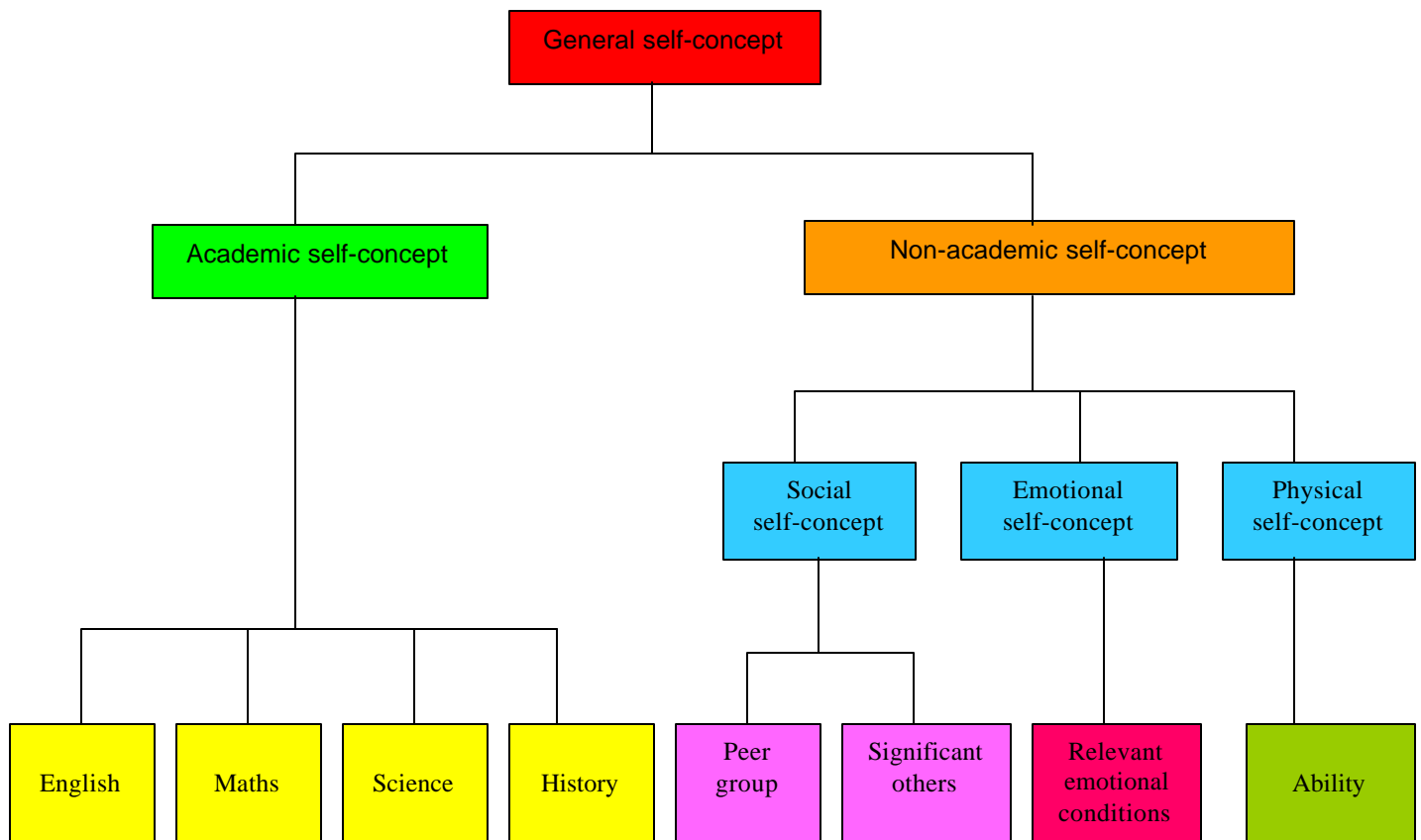
Figure 3.4: The hierachical organisation of the self-concept (Adapted from Grobler 1996:29)

failure, seemed to further the development of a well-structured academic self-concept. High-achieving students seemed to possess very well-structured academic self-concepts that were chronically accessible.

It is clear from the foregoing paragraph that the relationship between self-concept and academic success is reciprocal. Brookover, Le Pere, Hamachek, Thomas and Erikson (in Burns 1982:210) indicate that performance can influence self-concept, and that the manipulation of the self-concept can modify performance levels. Based on these findings, it is reasonable to expect the impact of failure on the self-concept to be more pronounced in the early years of development since the identity of a growing child is still fragile and the psyche more vulnerable. The fragility of the identity and the vulnerability of the psyche of a child further highlights the need for proper support in the developmental process of a child particularly in the early stages thereof.

3.8 Factors influencing the academic self-concept in a disadvantaged home environment

3.8.1   Introduction

A disadvantaged home environment may be characterised by certain factors that may affect the growth and total development of children towards adulthood. These factors stem from the relations with significant others and may include, the socio-economic level, poor nutritional care, parent's level of literacy, parenting styles and the marital status of parents.

3.8.2   The socio-economic level

Adolescents growing up in low socio-economic status homes are not faced with similar challenges as those who grow up in high socio-economic status families. In disadvantaged communities many families are stricken by poverty and there is a high level of material need. Many households in disadvantaged communities are led by single parents, a situation that may also contribute

towards low family income. Low family income per capita interferes with the maintenance of supportive family relationships and with parental involvement in school (Brody, Stoneman & Flor 1995:567). Inadequate income is known to induce stress, anger, frustration and a sense of helplessness which in turn may promote hostile family relationships.

A deprived home environment normally lacks stimuli for the intellectual development of the child (Wanjohi 1981:88). Wanjohi (1981:88) further indicates that the disadvantaged child remains inactive for long hours. The child undergoes a terrifying 'head-shrinking' from which it is virtually impossible to recover. The neural centres of the cortex which should normally be used for exercise, do not receive the necessary stimuli for their development. The disadvantaged home environment in which the child grows often lacks tools that will enhance the development of the child's academic self-concept. This view is substantiated by the findings of National Research Council (1993:42) which indicates that adolescents from low-income families experience higher rates of poor physical health, mental disorders and depression. Some of these adolescents are likely to engage in delinquent acts, have early sexual intercourse, experience adolescent pregnancy and may be arrested and drop out of school. Furthermore, such adolescents are less likely to make a successful transition from school into postsecondary education. Adolescents from low-income families show lower rates of achievement in school.

Parents of these low achievers do not normally give their children the necessary attention, individual support, and emotional care because they are more stressed due to lack of income and problems that emanate from the state of being poor (Baharudin & Luster 1998:379). Quane and Rankin (1998:772) found that the disadvantaged status of inner-city neighbourhoods also handicaps the educational attainment of youth, especially black males. Youth that grow up in neighbourhoods of high socio-economic status are more likely to feel that education is important for their future success. The above account clearly suggests the existence of some relationship between

the academic self-concept of a child and the home environment, a feature to be explored in the current thesis.

3.8.2.1 Poor diet

The diet which is received by children from infancy plays a major role in their total development. Dietary problems, which occur during the last trimester of pregnancy and/or the first two to three years after birth, cause malnutrition which slows physical and motor development (Cunningham 1973:93). The effect of malnutrition on children's lives can have lasting effects on their normal development. A bad diet alters the size of the brain, myelinization of the brain, and the number of dendrites and synapses of individual neurons. This alteration appears to be permanent, decreasing physical and motor development significantly. Severe physical and intellectual problems in infants who are chronically malnourished can be carried into adulthood. Malnourished infants are normally found in developing countries where mothers breast-feed only for a short period due to short spacing between their consecutive offspring (Cuningham 1973:104). This situation is exacerbated by lack of money to buy commercially traded formula milk leading to severe problems in brain development and total development of the child.

Cognitive development of a child appears to coincide with the period of rapid development in the brain (Louw 1991:11). Studies conducted in Mexico, Kenya, Barbados, Europe and North America showed that early under-nutrition coupled with an environment having minimal stimulation from family members or school leads to long-term learning impairment, decreased ability to concentrate, and/or decreased language skills (Cunningham 1973:104). These deficiencies can last throughout childhood and adolescence. Based on the foregoing account it is reasonable to suspect that undernutrition may have negative effects on the development of the academic self-concept. De la Rey, Duncan, Shefer and van Niekerk (1997:196) points out that environmental factors such as nutrition ultimately determine whether the individual's potential will be actualised or not. Nutrition as one of the factors cannot be

ignored as a vital ingredient in enhancing one's brain development, intellectual and academic self-concept.

3.8.2.2 Parents' level of literacy

Children's immediate family environments are a potent source for cognitive stimulation and have important consequences for academic achievement (Menaghan & Parcel 1995:69). The quality of parent-child relations in the home environment creates a conducive environment for learning. In this sense the parent's level of literacy becomes an important factor in influencing the child's academic self-concept. Baharudin and Luster (1998:378) found that mothers with greater personal resources including high levels in self-esteem, intellectual ability and educational ability provided more support and guidance to their children. Their children are also in a position to ask for help from their parents. Constant support and guidance from a parent who is literate may assist the child to develop a positive academic self-concept. The child knows that the minute one encounters a problem at school there is someone at home who is enlightened to assist him/her.

Blau and Duncan's research (in Quane & Rankin 1998:772) demonstrated that the educational and occupational attachments of parents affect those of children. The fact that many poor inner-city children live in single female-parent households, with low educational attainment, impacts negatively on them. Better educated mothers are likely to spend more time supervising their children, and the educational attainment of children is particularly enhanced by having a more educated mother.

Parents who are literate are able to read or tell stories to their children. These parents can make it a point that their children are exposed to books at an early age. Winer (in Moletsane & Bouwer 2000:31) maintains that offering books early in children's lives sows the seed of literacy and this enhances a positive academic self-concept. On the contrary lack of books or story telling may hinder the development of the academic self-concept.

3.8.2.3 Single parenthood, stepparents and natural parents

The report of National Research Council (1993:43) indicates an increase in the single-parent household. Most marriages end in divorce which leads to families becoming disadvantaged in so far as income and parenthood are concerned. A study conducted by Rice (1992:126) on divorce, stepparents and blended families indicates that mothers who were divorced suffered a significant reduction in finances. Their families were characterised by lack of discipline after divorce partly because children put a lot of blame on the mother for the absence of their father. Apart from lack of discipline at home, Rice's study also showed that adolescents in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades coming from single-parent homes had the lowest grades and lowest occupational aspirations. Low grades in school were noticed during a period of readjustment especially after divorce. As school performance declines, the self-esteem also showed a decline.

Remarriages also cause complications for children's academic achievement and self-concept. When custodial parents remarry, children experience another stressful transition, which appears to be more difficult especially for girls (Rice 1992:126). Adolescents who grow up in stepfamilies show disproportionately high levels of adolescent deviance and poor school performance (National Research Council 1993:51). The changes that the child faces affect his/her life holistically. The child is faced with a stepparent who may not necessarily be like the biological parent. Sometimes the stepparent's expectations may be unrealistic and confusing to the child. This can cause anger, resentment and rejection on the side of children. It may even be difficult for the child to ask for assistance concerning his/her schoolwork from the stepparent. This emotional turmoil may lead to lower grades and low academic self-concept (Rice 1992:130).

3.8.2.4 Family size

It is reasonable to expect parents who raise few children to be able to devote more time to them than those who raise many children. Menaghan and Parcel (1995:73) found that the addition of new children to the family may overextend the existing parental resources and energy. Thus larger numbers of children may constrain parental nurturance and stimulation, with negative effects on the quality of children's home environments and on children's intellectual and behaviour outcomes (Menaghan & Parcel 1995:73). In this study the focus will also be on the relationship between the size of the family in families in disadvantaged home environments and the academic self-concept.

3.8.2.5 Parental occupation

The amount of time spent by parents at home appears to influence the academic performance of children. In a study by Menaghan and Parcel (1995:73) it was found that employed mothers who terminated work and those who worked part-time contributed more to the development of their children's math skills and reading ability. Such mothers had more time to assist their children with homework and other school related issues resulting in improved academic performance. Thus, it is clear from the foregoing account that the presence of parents in the home plays a significant role in the academic performance of children.

3.8.2.6 Parenting styles

The four parenting styles commonly noted by authors (e.g. Garbarino 1985:260; Burns 1982:70) are authoritarian, autocratic, permissive, and neglecting or erratic.

Authoritarian

According to Coopersmith (in Burns 1982:71), parents who adopt a prevailing authoritative style are more likely to show the following four characteristics:

1. Parents are accepting, affectionate and involved.

Children who receive love that is unconditional, are normally raised in authoritative homes. Parents accept these children for what they are and they take an interest in children's activities (Hamachek 1987:251).

2. Parents are strict, firm and consistently enforced family rules

These parents who enforced rules are authoritative parents and their children regarded discipline as very important because love and warmth prevailed.

3. Parents favour non-coercive forms of discipline

They used very little physical punishment or threats to withdraw love. Denial of privileges and temporary isolation were used as punishment. There is an explanation always when privileges are withdrawn therefore children know why they receive punishment. These conditions can be found in authoritative parenting patterns.

4. Parents favour a more democratic family atmosphere

Democratic principles are followed in the family and children are involved in decision-making. Ordinary decisions of everyday life were more likely to be shared. There is a pattern of mutual trust and acceptance although parents are strict and firm. The authoritative parenting style embodies democratic principles.

Children who are raised in such homes may develop a positive academic self-concept since there is support and involvement of parents in their education (Hamachek 1987:251). Of importance are the warmth, love and acceptance that children receive from parents.

Autocratic parenting/Authoritarian

Authoritarian parents are characterized by two negative extremes of the control and affective dimensions. They are described as being consistently rejecting and restrictive. Love and warmth are conditional and depend upon the child's performance and behaviour. Children are not part of decision making in the family, they only do what the parents demand from them. The personalities of these children tend to be rigid, inflexible and conforming. Some children will be rebellious in autocratic homes and rebellion can also pose a problem to self-concept formation (Burns 1982:100).

Permissive parenting

Permissive parents place the child's or adolescent's whims and desires before all else. The child has more influence in making decisions than does the parent. In a permissive home the adolescent receives little guidance and direction. Without limits on their behaviour, they will feel insecure and disoriented and this poses a problem to self-concept formation (Kimmel & Weiner 1985:241).

Erratic parenting

Inconsistent or erratic parenting has a negative effect on children. These homes are characterised by control which is inconsistent; sometimes authoritarian, sometimes democratic and sometimes permissive. As a result children in these homes are sometimes loved, sometimes ignored, and sometimes despised and rejected. Due to lack of definite guidelines the children become confused and insecure. Such youths often develop

antisocial, delinquent behaviour. Children who grow up in such families will encounter problems in self-concept formation (Garbarino 1985:262).

3.8.3   Conclusion

The factors outlined in the foregoing paragraphs are viewed by many authors as causative factors for poor academic self-concept. Although literature on this topic abounds, most studies are based on research carried out in overseas communities and may thus differ with the South African context particularly given the unique historical developments in South Africa. This necessitates the need for a further investigation into factors that characterise disadvantaged home environments in South Africa and the way they impact on the self-concept of adolescents. These issues are the focus of the present study. The present study also explores the role of guidance counsellors in assisting adolescents from disadvantaged environments.

3.9   The role of the parent in the formation of an academic self-concept

Ferreira et al. (1992:81) highlighted the following characteristics that parents need to have in assisting children to have a positive academic self-concept.

3.9.1   Acceptance, love and involvement

For children to develop positive academic self-concepts, parents must show love unconditionally. Parents must be free to assist their children in their school work constantly. In turn children will consult their parents for assistance in solving problems. Adolescents know that they are being accepted even when they do mistakes (Ferreira et al. 1992:81). A study by Wagner and Phillips (1992:1380) and Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994:237) indicate that children's perceived academic competence was positively related to parental warmth, parental involvement and their affective and personal availability. Adolescents need the assurance that parents love them and they are available for them.

3.9.2 Firmness and discipline

Firm and clear guidelines should be given to adolescents to guide them concerning their conduct. Parents use punishment, but there are explanations why the child receives punishment (Hamachek 1987:253). The child should understand and accept the punishment. Parents also need to be firm in the adolescent's schoolwork, notice the adolescent's strong points and weaknesses and assist. All the efforts that the parents take will contribute to the self-concept formation of the adolescent.

3.9.3 Democratic educational climate

The educational climate in the family should be free and not inhibit the adolescent from expressing his/her opinions. The parent's willingness to allow a flow of ideas creates the atmosphere which enables the adolescent to be himself/herself without fear. The democratic atmosphere is essential for the formation of a positive self-concept (Burns 1982:76).

3.9.4 Setting of realistic expectations

Children should be taught at an early age to know that they have potential. The child must be assisted by the parent to realise his/her limitations and accept them. The parent's expectations are normally based on seeing their children performing and doing well in their schoolwork. Their expectations should constantly go hand in hand with support, even when the children fail the parents must be there for them (Ferreira et al. 1992:81). Parents in expressing their expectations should encourage their children and show confidence. Expectations should be realistic also not beyond the children's potential. When adolescents realise that their parents believe that they can do better, they will be positive about their schoolwork.

3.9.5   Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993:1469) identified intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as factors that also influence the academic performance of children. These authors indicated that extrinsic motivation was related to parental surveillance of homework and parental reactions to grades. When children were motivated in an extrinsic manner their grades were poorer. On the other hand the study also indicated that when parents provided encouragement by praising children for their ability and hard work the development of children's intrinsic motivation was enhanced. Children who received intrinsic motivation improved in their performance and their academic self-concept was positive.

3.9.6   Positive identification

A positive self-concept can only be formed if there is a positive identification between the parent and the child. For a positive identification the parent must accept and trust the child unconditionally. The parents should live exemplary lives which the children must follow. The atmosphere which is positive and healthy gives the children confidence that their parents are their role models. It will be easy for the children to identify with the parents in a peaceful home unlike in a home where there are conflicts. Where children are able to identify with parents, it will be easier for them to develop positive self-concepts.

3.9.7   Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion it is apparent that the role of parents in the self-concept formation of adolescents is important. As a result of this it becomes more critical for guidance counsellors to involve parents when guiding and counselling adolescents in areas relevant to their academic self-concept formation.

3.10 Summary

The focus in this chapter was on the academic self-concept, its development and the factors that enhance it. It is quite clear from the account provided in previous studies that the home environment plays a major role in self-concept formation. The work of Coopersmith (in Burns 1982:70) reveals the role that the parent can play in assisting the child to develop a positive self-concept. The home environment may build a positive academic self-concept if parents are supportive and caring. On the other hand, if the home background is disadvantaged in resources and in relations and display no love and warmth, then the results may be a negative academic self-concept. Rogers (in Pretorius 1996:916) suggested that high self-esteem is the result of being raised in a family in which no conditions are placed on being loved and accepted. Parenting styles are also crucial in the formation of the self-concepts. Hamachek (1987:232) points out that some of the parenting styles such as the authoritarian and permissive styles tend to inhibit children's opportunities to engage in vigorous interaction with other people. Both over-controlling authoritarian parents and under-controlling permissive parents suppress independent judgement, thereby failing to challenge children to higher levels of growth.

The next chapter will focus on the non-academic self-concept of an adolescent and the home environment.

CHAPTER 4

THE NON-ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT OF AN ADOLESCENT AND THE HOME ENVIRONMENT

4.1 Introduction

Section 3.7 of Chapter Three outlined Shavelson's model which shows the hierachichal organisation of the self-concept. In this model the general self, or global self-concept, the academic self-concept and non-academic self-concept are depicted. The general and the academic self-concepts were discussed in the previous chapters. Therefore, the focus in this chapter is on the non-academic self-concept.

The child's self-concept is formed from an early age. The development of a child is holistic. In this holistic development there are social, physical and emotional aspects that are being shaped in the life of the child. These aspects form the non-academic self-concept in the life of the child. For the purposes of this study, the life of an adolescent will be thoroughly studied to determine how the home environment affects the physical, social and emotional self-concept of an adolescent. In particular, the role that is played by significant others in the life of the adolescent will be looked into. The study will address the manner in which the non-academic self-concept is shaped by circumstances in a disadvantaged home environment from a South African perspective.

4.2 The non-academic self-concept

4.2.1   Introduction

The distinction between the subjective (personal) and objective (social) aspects of the self-concept, was first brought to light by a psychologist known as William James (Raath & Jacobs 1990:12). As William James was making a

distinction between these two aspects of the self, he came up with the self-concept that was non-academic that includes the physical, social and spiritual self (Raath & Jacobs 1990:12). This non-academic self-concept cannot be studied in isolation, but must be seen in relation to significant others that surround the child. In the previous chapter, the self-concept was outlined as a complex structure. In that complex structure of the self-concept Vrey (in Raath & Jacobs 1990:17) points out that the self-concept that a child develops when academic achievement is not considered is the non-academic self-concept. Those aspects which fall under the non-academic self-concept include the following:

- Physical self;
- Personality self;
- Family self;
- Social self;
- Psychic self; and
- Critical self.

4.2.2   Conclusion

For the purposes of this study, the physical self, social self and emotional self will be studied at in relation to the home environment.

4.3 The physical/material self-concept

4.3.1   Introduction

A person enters this world through the body (Burns 1982:51). The physical being is the most vital one since it is the one that makes one visible due to its concreteness. No part of a human is more visible and sensed than the body. To a very large extent, children define themselves in terms of what they can accomplish physically (Hamachek 1987:159). Burns (1982:51) sees the body as an unavoidable part and always available to public scrutiny. A person's height, weight bodily proportions, gender, complexion and attractiveness can

form an integral part of one's life and become a major control of one's feelings of personal worth, adequacy and acceptability (Burns 1982:51). The aspects that constitute a person's build, a person's physical self-concept, are components of the non-academic self-concept. The physical self-concept is not only determined by how one values oneself but also by the judgment of significant others and society.

For the purposes of this study focus will be on body image whereby types of body build, weight and physical features will be discussed. Gender will also be outlined as to how it affects the self-concept of an adolescent. The physical ability, for an example motor skill of an adolescent, will also be outlined and the manner in which it affects the self-concept. Aspects such as attractiveness and maturity of the adolescent will also be outlined as components of the physical self-concept.

4.3.2 Body image of an adolescent

The body image is the evaluative picture of the physical self (Burns 1982:52). Reber (1985:99) defines body image as the subjective image one has of one's body, specifically with respect to evaluative judgments about how one is perceived by others and how well one is adjusted to these perceptions. Some authors use the term only for physical appearance others include judgments concerning body functions, movement and coordination. Body image differs from person to person and different body builds elicit different reactions from others. Ultimately this leads to the formation of a self-concept. The reactions from significant others are important as far as body image is concerned. In a study conducted by Ricciardelli and McCabe (2001:330) on children's body image concerns and eating disturbance, it was found that mothers in particular have been seen as role models of adolescent girls' eating attitudes and behaviours. What parents say concerning body image influences adolescents' levels of body dissatisfaction. Every comment that a mother made either about her own body weight affects girls in the family. Parental words were viewed as important in particular to girls, whereas boys perceived

that their parents' words meant that they should increase muscle tone (Ricciardelli & McCabe 2001:331). Another study by Cash and Henry (1995: 19-28) also indicate that adolescents who were dissatisfied with their body images had poor self-concepts. The general self-worth is always determined by one's body image. The subsequent paragraphs will focus on types of body build which influences the self-concept.

4.3.2.1   Types of body build

A study conducted by Korhonen, Laukkanen, Peiponen, Lehtonen and Viinamaki (2001:698) on body image and self-image of adolescents, indicated that adolescents who were proud of their physical development had a positive self-image. From their study it was clear that physical appearance influences the self-concept. Body types are also associated with personality characteristics (Burns 1982:60 & Hamachek 1987:163) (see Table 4.1).

Table 4-1: TYPES OF BODY BUILD AND PERSONALITY

Types of body build	Personality type
Endomorphic build: Obese and rounded in shape	Visceratonic personality: love of company, good food and comfort
Mesomorphic build: Upright strong and muscular	Somatotonic personality: love of adventure and a vigorous approach to life
Ectomorphic build: Tall, thin and fragile	Cerebrotonic personality: restrained inhibition, parsimony, frugality and withdrawal

The body types and personalities given above may not be very scientific descriptions, but they are general expectations and most parents encourage a more muscular mesomorphic child to participate in athletics than one who is more fragile and ectomorphic (Hamachek 1987:164).

Children or adolescents also respond to each other on the basis of body image, especially when they meet each other for the first time. Their response normally affects the self-concept either positively or negatively. High self-confidence and self-esteem are frequently associated with mesomorphic physiques in males and females unlike in cases of endomorphic individuals who are often described as 'chubby' or 'fatso' or the ectomorphs who are described as 'skinny' or 'beanpole' (Hamachek 1987:166). These descriptions associated with body build are of major concern in the lives of the adolescents and their self-concepts. The subsequent paragraph will focus on the body weight and its effect in the life of an adolescent.

4.3.2.2 Body weight, gender, physical appearance and their effects on the self-concept

Researchers like O'Dea and Abraham (1999:70) maintain that pubertal development is related to physical self-concept. Adolescents are often concerned about who they are and how they look. The adolescent's body image is associated with a sense of self-worth and is determined by an experience of how others see them (Gouws et al. 2000:22). During adolescence girls do not view physical development as a source of empowerment that enables them to do more things, rather they are most concerned with how they look. Eagle and Coleman (1995:15) maintain that adolescent girls will risk their health by dieting in order to lose weight; boys may take steroids to increase their muscles.

Body weight appears to be an issue of concern to most adolescents. According to Rice (1992:185), obese adolescents who feel ineffective, suffer further damage to their self-esteem through the ridicule to which they are

often subjected. They often become inactive and withdrawn and turn to eating as a form of comfort. This view is corroborated by the findings of Ricciardelli and McCabe (2001:325) and O'Dea and Abraham (1999:69-79) who found a relationship between body weight and self-concept among adolescents, with greater body weight being associated with significantly lower self-concept. A further study by O'Dea and Abraham (1999:74) concerning body weight and self-concept among male and female adolescents demonstrated that males had a more positive self-concept related to physical appearance than females. Overweight students had lower scores of self-concept than did lower weight students. Eating disorders such as anorexia and bulimia are found amongst adolescents who are obsessed about weight, in particular females (Eagle & Colman 1995:16).

The perception of physical appearance appears to differ according to sex. In a study by Cole, Maxwell, Martin, Peeke, Seroczynski, Tram, Hoffman, Ruiz, Jacquez and Mascman (2001:1741) it was found that males always regarded themselves as better looking than females. Furthermore, Asci (2002:370) showed that males consistently scored higher than females on all subscales of physical self-concept except body attractiveness.

4.3.3 Physical attractiveness and the self-concept

During adolescence bodily changes that occur are vital to one's self-concept. Rice (1992:181) says that physical attractiveness and body image have an important relationship to the adolescent's positive self-evaluation and peer acceptance. Attractive adolescents have an advantage of being thought of in positive terms like friendly or successful, whereas unattractive adolescents are at a disadvantage (Lerner, Delaney, Hess, Jovanovic & von Eye 1990:4-20). This attractiveness mostly in adolescent girls is measured in terms of a pretty face, waist, bust, teeth and mouth (Burns 1982:135 & Hamachek 1987:173). In girls, approval is seen when one has attractive features whereas boys are approved more in terms of how they perform. In the latter attention is given to height, body build, thighs, mouth and width of shoulders.

The self-concept develops out of appraisals that one gets from other people, in particular parents or siblings in the home. Due to differential treatment attractive adolescents have a more positive self-concept, healthy personality and good relations at home and with their peers (Hamachek 1987:173).

4.3.4 Extracurricular activities and the self-concept

Adolescents are mostly involved in sport for example running, aerobics and other sports. Communities mostly like to engage young people in various sporting activities in and outside schools. Sports and exercise promote psychological and mental health as well. Possessing a physically fit body that meets the cultural ideals of thinness and beauty can enhance body image and self-esteem (Rice 1992:186). In a study conducted by Janoski (1981:460-466) it was found that physical fitness training improved the ability and confidence in physical areas and non-physical areas like frustration and tolerance. One can say that sport or physical fitness improves one's self-confidence.

However, despite the positive effect of physical training on self-confidence it appears that females are less inclined to participate in sport particularly during the adolescence years than males. This may be due to cultural stereotypes that sport is of less importance for girls and that girls are embarrassed in the presence of the opposite sex when they play. The difference in gender concerning sporting activities, is also highlighted in a study by O'Dea and Abraham (1999:74). These authors established that post-pubertal males reported higher subscale scores in a study involving athletic competence and self-concept. Their self-concept was also positive compared to girls of the same age. According to Nielsen (1996:54), sport helps males in overcoming obstacles in life. Being a star athlete is a way many boys hope to gain fame and fortune in the future. During adolescence sport can enhance one's non-academic self-concept.

Extracurricular participation is often seen as an alternative measure of functioning for those students who may not be academically strong. This

perception often deprives many children of benefits and opportunities of participating in extramural activities such as sport. In a study by Schmidt and Padilla (2003:37-46) on self-esteem, family challenge and extracurricular participation it was found that adolescents who felt that their families challenged them to do their best, and encouraged autonomy and self-discipline had higher self-esteem in comparison to their peers whose families were less challenging. Families which provide challenge and encouragement, help children to internalise these efforts and help them develop self-confidence and positive images of themselves and their abilities, as evidenced by their greater levels of self-esteem (Schmidt & Padilla 2003:43). The support that adolescents get from family members is important in shaping the non-academic physical self-concept. The foregoing account demonstrates that extracurricular activities such as sport may play an important role in the holistic development of adolescents even for their non-academic self-concepts.

Figure 4.1 below, indicates the aspects which are of vital importance in the formation of the physical self-concept.
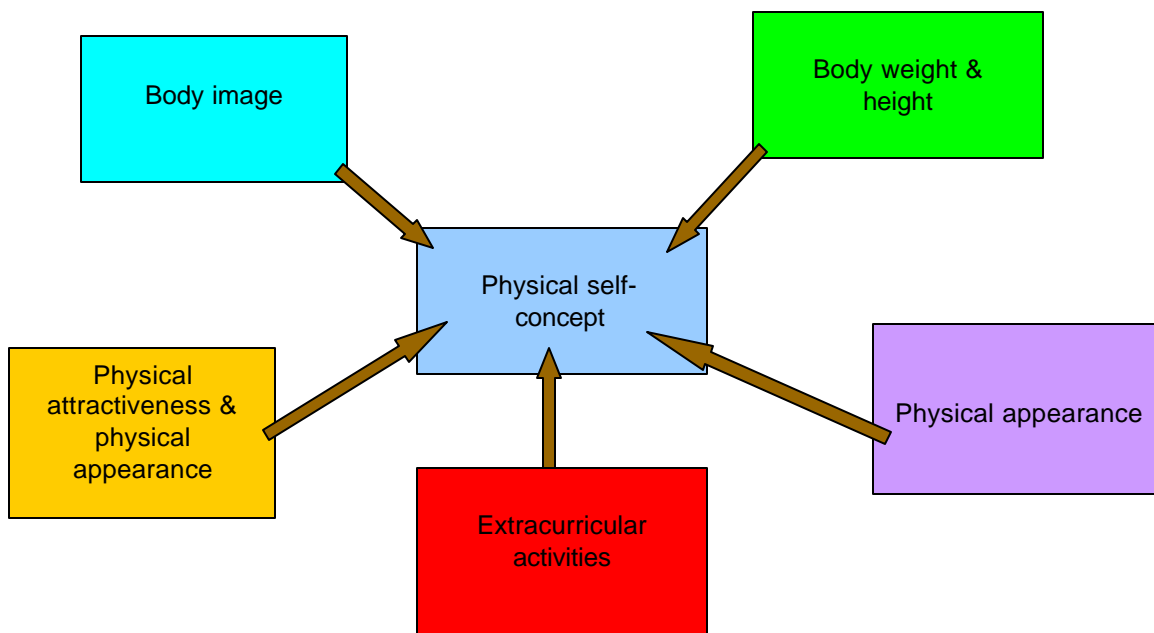
Figure 4.1: Important aspects in the formation of the physical self-concept

4.3.5 Conclusion

The physical self plays a significant role in the life of an adolescent. Aspects such as weight, height and attractiveness are very crucial in the life of an adolescent. The comments that an adolescent gets from significant others determine whether his/her self-concept will be positive or negative. The reactions of significant others on any bodily change are important as they affect the type of the physical self-concept. Sport also plays an important role in the life of an adolescent and the encouragement and the support that one gets from the family is important. This study will attempt to look into the relationship between physical self-concept and the home environment and the role that can be played by guidance counsellors in assisting both the adolescent and the family in shaping the physical self-concept as a component of the non-academic self-concept.

4.4 The social self-concept

4.4.1 Introduction

In Chapter Two the social development of an adolescent was highlighted. The conditions around the home and peer influence, which can affect the social life of an adolescent, were also discussed. Focus in the present chapter will be on the factors which influence the social self-concept as a component of a non-academic self-concept, not omitting the home environment which plays a profound role. The factors which will be explored are interpersonal relations, social competency in an economically disadvantaged family, sibling and parent relationship during adolescence and social interactions.

4.4.2 Interpersonal relations

According to Hovelmeier (1991:28), it may take a longer or shorter time to build up the child's self-concept. The duration in building the child's self-concept, depends on the atmosphere which prevails in the home

environment. Primarily the home forms the foundation for self-concept formation and interpersonal relations are the key factors. Basically the role played by significant others in the family form the core of interpersonal relations. The home gives the child confidence that he/she can relate well with other people. The significant others' reactions are essential in the sense that they are the determinant of the type of self-concept which the child will ultimately have. The interpersonal relations largely depend on relationships with parents as already discussed in paragraph 2.6.4.2 and parenting styles in paragraph 2.7.3. The home environment determines the character traits which the child will develop. Character traits like shyness, talkativeness, withdrawal, and being an extrovert emanate from home. The type of character trait will ultimately influence the relationships which the child will form outside the home environment.

Amongst adolescents it was found that gender influences interpersonal relations. According to Kimmel and Weiner (1985:406), females generally focus on interpersonal aspects, such as attachments and connections whereas males focus on intrapersonal matters, such as their individuation and achievements. Age also influences interpersonal relations amongst adolescents. In a study by Ullman and Tartar (2001:452) young adolescents emphasize social interpersonal aspects, whereas older adolescents emphasize ideology, beliefs and reflection on the self's psychological processes. Older male adolescents focus mainly on vocation, whereas females of similar age are more likely to be concerned with friendship, dating, love, sex, and marriage (Kimmel & Weiner, 1985:406). The study of Ullman and Tartar (2001:461) further indicates that girls' self-descriptions included more references to social interpersonal characteristics whereas boys included more references to preferred interests and activities. These studies indicate that females value friendship and intimacy whereas males are more concerned about activity-oriented topics and value friendship for its instrumentality, that is, for its usefulness in helping to achieve some purpose or goal.

4.4.3 Social competency in an economically disadvantaged family

The previous subsection addressed interpersonal relations which start in a home setting for every individual. For a child to be socially competent a home should lay a firm foundation in teaching the child positive principles of relating well with other people. The significant others like parents play a major role in imparting social skills in the life of a child. In a study conducted by Ackerman, Brown and Izard (2003:695) on children that persisted in problematic behaviour from economically disadvantaged families, it was found that the antisocial behaviour was mainly caused by harsh and coercive parenting and family conflict. The aggressive behaviour of parents also caused the child to behave antisocially. Frequent residential moves also brought multiple sources of environmental adversity. From their findings one can deduce that parental role is important in imparting social skills that will make the child competent socially. Children with parents who fail to impart proper social skills, for example, warm parenting, hamper the development of a positive social self-concept.

A study conducted by Shek (2002:215) on social adjustment and problem behaviour of poor Chinese adolescents, indicated that positive parental qualities were beneficial to the adjustment of poor adolescents. In economically disadvantaged families both parents are constrained by the lack of economic resources and this results in poor parental qualities. Both paternal and maternal parenthood qualities were found to be of vital importance by Shek (2002:227). The research results further indicate that paternal parenthood characteristics were found to have statistically significant relationships with adolescent mental health and problem behaviour. There is a clear indication that it is not only the material role which is important in assisting the child to develop social skills acceptable to society. The degree of involvement of fathers in the socialisation of adolescents should be increased. The present study focuses on the South African context in black disadvantaged areas to determine the socialisation process practised by fathers is adequate in the lives of adolescents.

4.4.4 Sibling and parent relationship during adolescence

The role played by significant others in the formation of the social self-concept is important in the life of an adolescent. The previous subsection addressed the parental qualities which are important in the life of an adolescent. The role of siblings in the life of an adolescent will be outlined. Amongst adolescent siblings comparison is used as a basis of social comparison and self-evaluation (Feinberg, Neiderhiser, Reis, Hetherington & Simmens 2000:1611-1628). The comparison is mainly based on parental treatment. In a study conducted by Feinberg, McHale, Crouter and Cumsille (2003:1261-1274) on sibling and parent relationships during adolescence, focus was on parent–child warmth, parent-child conflict and sibling conflict. The findings indicate that parental negativity toward an adolescent may have such a powerful negative effect on the adolescent that the relationship between sibling differentiation and sibling warmth is no longer of significance. The negative attitude of a parent towards a sibling may result in sibling competition and conflict. Parental attitudes or differentiated treatment may result in hampered social self-concept. If siblings are treated the same in a neglectful manner, they may turn to each other for compensatory warmth and support (Boer, Goedhart & Treffers 1992:45). In other instances where adolescents experience harsh parental and sibling treatment, they resort to outsiders/peers to find happiness (Larson & Richards 1994:11). A study by Kupersmidt, Courtney, De Rosier and Patterson (1991) suggests that children tend to associate with other children who are similar to themselves in sociometric status, as, for example, rejected children tend to form friendships with other rejected children (Cairns, Leung, Buchanan & Cairns 1995:1331). In middle childhood and early adolescence conflict amongst siblings may be caused by parental treatment. In their study on sibling conflict Stocker and Burwell (2002:55) indicate that sibling conflict may constitute a negative attribution style that has been implicated as a risk factor for depression and other internalising problems. Furthermore, children who experience conflict frequently with their siblings may develop difficulties in certain aspects of social cognition (Stocker & Burwell 2002:55). These children may develop a

negative social self-concept. This study will focus on the relationship of siblings and how the social self-concept is affected from the black South African perspective.

4.4.5 Conclusion

The home is an institution which teaches the child social interactions. What the child has learned from home will be seen as one interacts with people outside the home environment. The social self-concept is shaped by several factors that prevail in the home environment. The role that is played by significant others like parents and siblings is very crucial in interpersonal relations, interactions and impartation of social skills. The treatment that an adolescent receives from significant others shapes one's self-concept and determines also how one will relate with others outside the home. In some instances adolescent seek approval outside the home due to lack of proper relations in the family. The social connections and networks that children establish and maintain with peers may constitute a major source of social support for children to cope with emotional stress and adjustment difficulties (Chen, Chang & He 2003:711). The present study will try to address the role played by guidance counsellors at schools in assisting both adolescents and the family as far as social relations are concerned and how they influence the social self concept.

4.5. The emotional self-concept

4.5.1 Introduction

The child is also regarded as an emotional being. Emotions can either affect one's physical well being and health or behaviour in one's relationships (Gouws et al. 2000:96). Emotions can determine one's happiness, sadness or feeling of love, warmth and acceptance. It is these emotions that may determine the type of self-concept one will ultimately have. The type of family or home environment also determines the state of emotions one will

constantly have. The following subsections will focus on aspects that shape the emotions of an adolescent, namely early interaction in the life of a child, personality of an individual, life events that one might have and religious beliefs that may influence the life of a child.

4.5.1.1 Early interaction

The home environment, in particular parents as a component thereof, play an important role in the emotional development of a child. The manner in which parents express their emotions in physical play arouses affection in their children (Parke 1995:594). In a study conducted by Parke (1995:595) on family emotional expressiveness it was found that highly expressive parents had children who were highly affectionate and were competent socially. The attachment that exists between the child and the parent provides a secure emotional foundation (Wong et al. 2002:256). Even though during adolescence a child is gradually gaining autonomy, the parent-adolescent attachment relationship is renegotiated rather than ended (Wong et al. 2002:256). What an adolescent has received from home through attachment and emotional bonding will equip him/her to be able to interact with other people outside the home environment. The emotional and psychological support received from parents by early adolescents will assist a lot when they face challenges outside the home environment.

Emotionally an adolescent needs to be stable and the parent-adolescent relationship is necessary to maintain this stability. Affection between parent and child also helps in emotional development. Lack of affection and bonding between the parent and the child is a poor foundation for the development of a positive emotional self-concept. In a study conducted by Doyle et al. (2000:532) it was found that child is security with each parent (mother and father) was uniquely related to different domains of the child's self-concept. Child-mother attachment was associated uniquely with positive perceptions of physical appearance, general self-worth, physical abilities and peer relations, whereas in the case of child-father attachment the attachment was associated

with perceived school competence. The emotional support which is enhanced by parent-child attachment is necessary in the life of an adolescent.

4.5.1.2 Life events and emotional self-concept

The foregoing paragraphs focused on parent-adolescent attachment or bonding. Focus will now be given to traumatic life experiences and how they affect the emotional self-concept development of an adolescent. Traumatic events in life can include dysfunctional family, death of a loved one, separation, divorce and rejection. These traumatic events are likely to cause stress and depression in one's life whether young or old. If these traumatic events occur in an individual's life especially during adolescence, the coping strategies will be determined by the bonding which the adolescent has with the parents. The age of the child during separation also has an effect on attachment. In a study conducted by Woodward, Fergusson and Belsky (2000:162) on timing of parental separation and attachment to parents in adolescence, it was found that the younger the age of the child at the time of separation, the lower their subsequent attachment and the more likely they were to perceive both their mother and father as less caring and more overprotective. Kraaij, Garnefski, de Wilde, Dijkstra,Gebhardt, Maes and Doest (2003:191) suggest that poor parental bonding appears to be related to higher depression scores. Adolescents who reported more parental control or less parental care had significantly more depressive symptoms. These children with a poor parental bonding relationship seemed to be more vulnerable to depression in the face of adverse life events than adolescents with more optimal bonding relationships (Kraaij et al. 2003:191). It appears as if parental bonding or attachment in the life of an adolescent, acts as a tool or a coping strategy in one's life when one faces trauma. Emotionally a child is able to lean on past experiences of love and affection to be able to cope with traumatic experiences.

In the case of adoption, adolescents normally develop emotional turmoil in trying to cope with reality. They struggle with their own questions of identity,

may reject values that are given to them and try to imagine what their biological parents were like (Burningham 1994:26).

Dunlop, Burns and Bermingham (2001:121) conducted a study on divorce and its effect on the self-image of children. It was found from their study that parenting styles determine the outcome of the self-image of the child after divorce. Adolescents whose parents were over-controlling and affectionless had lower self-image scores. Parenting styles continue to affect the self-image of the child when trauma strikes the family.

Divorce can also damage the child's self-concept in the sense that the child is caught between the two parents. The study conducted by Buchanan, Maccoby and Dornbusch (1991:1024) indicates that high discord and hostility compounded by low cooperative communication between parents predicted more feelings of being caught between parents. Emotionally these children will be negatively affected and they may end up not knowing whom to please between the two parents. This may also affect their self-esteem. When adolescents are affected in their emotions after divorce of parents, they may stay out late, form unsuitable relationships, lose interest in schoolwork and be lonely and depressed (Burningham 1994:54; Engelbrecht, Wentzel & Venter 1999:71). Children who adapt best to their parents' divorces or remarriages are those exposed to the least anger and hostility between their parents (Nielsen 1996:356).

4.5.1.3 The absent parent and the emotional self-concept

Parental absence from the family can be caused by several factors, including employment. Some parents arrive late at home on daily basis whereas others only come home once or twice a month to see children. The absence of a parent, a father or a mother, has an impact on the emotional development of a child. In a study conducted by Menaghan and Parcel (1995:73) on the effects of parental occupational experiences and family conditions, it was found that children's behavioural problems emanated from the quality of the mother's

employment. The longer the hours mothers spend at work, the higher the incidence of behavioural problems amongst children. Emotional affection depends also on time parents spent with children. The absence of parents from home causes emotional deprivation which has adverse effects on the affective non-academic self-concept.

4.5.1.4 Punishment and its effect on the emotional aspect of the adolescent

Corporal punishment (spanking) is commonly defined as the use of physical force aimed at causing children to experience pain, but not injury, for the purposes of correction and control of youthful behaviour (Strauss & Donnely 1993:420). A study on spanking of younger and older children by mothers and fathers established that personal resources of parents, for example, age, religious conservatism, the socio-economic level (poverty), lower levels of education are likely to be the factors found to be common amongst parents who were using corporal punishment on children (Day, Peterson and McCracken 1998:91). The study further indicated that consistent use of corporal punishment, has been an indication of less effective parenting and is commonly linked to socialisation outcomes such as delinquency, antisocial behaviour, non-compliance, low self-esteem and social incompetence. Furthermore, Kanoy, Steiner, Cox and Burchinal (2003:20) indicate that harsh physical discipline, has been linked to outcomes such as high noncompliance, poor peer relations, poor school performance and delinquency. The size of the family also contributed in the use of corporal punishment, since parents had less time and energy to use democratic parenting styles that involve explanations and reasons (Day et al. 1998:82). The results of Day et al. (1998:92) indicated that parents who spanked older children, that is, adolescents varied from 2%-5% which indicated that these parents lacked competence in parenting styles. Another factor is that children who are spanked frequently may have negative emotional self-concepts even when they are adolescents. In addition, hostile parenting is related to the development of behaviour problems and aggression in young children and adolescents (Kanoy et al. 2003:21). The present study will investigate the use

of punishment and its effect on the emotional self-concept in disadvantaged communities.

4.5.1.5 The extended family/grandparents and their impact on the adolescent's life

In Chapter One it was highlighted that the nuclear family has replaced the extended family ever since the mining industry in South Africa attracted migrant labourers from rural to urban areas. Studies conducted in America show that there is a high rate of grandparent-grandchild co-residency amongst blacks (Caputo 2001:549). The grandparent-grandchild co-residency had problems such as increased rates of behavioural difficulties on the side of grandchildren. The behavioural problems were exacerbated by the use of poor parenting techniques by the grandparents. Other problems which faced grandparents were financial problems and they could not provide their grandchildren with material needs (Shore & Hayslip 1994:171-218). The findings of Caputo (2001:551) indicated that factors which promoted co-residence of grandparent-grandchildren was mainly due to young parents who died as a result of HIV/AIDS, problems caused by substance abuse, mental illness, incarceration and other social problems. Grandparents are forced by circumstances mentioned above to assume parental responsibility, which may be a stressful duty for them. Other factors which are likely to promote co-residency of grandparent-grandchildren can be children born out of wedlock (Goodman & Silverstein 2001:557). The bond between grandparent and grandchild may be a constructive substitute in situations in which the parent is unable to provide for the child. In some extended families, as studies of Goodman and Silverstein (2001:563) indicate, competition and conflict between grandparent and parent can cause tension and confusion to the grandchild. Emotional bonding may also suffer and in most instances grandmothers mediate or compensate for the weakened parent-child bond that may be an outgrowth of parental neglect or abuse (Goodman & Silverstein 2001:561). The present study will attempt to determine the effect of

extended families on the emotional outcomes of black adolescents in South Africa.

4.5.1.6 Religious self-concept

Adolescence is a stage during which abstract thinking develops in the life of an individual (Vrey 1979:154). Abstract level of thinking enables adolescents to move from a concrete level of intellectual activity to a level at which spiritual matters are understood. The abstract level of thinking (Piaget's theory) during adolescence coincides with identity formation in the life of an adolescent. According to Kimmel and Weiner (1985:386), a sense of identity consists of being reasonably sure of what kind of a person one is, what one believes in and what one wants to do with one's life. Hurlock's (1973:226) study on young adolescents showed that the interest in religion of the latter is more likely to be revealed by their attitudes than by their participation in religious observances; although most adolescents go to church at least as frequently as their parents. Hurlock (1973:226) further indicates that adolescents talk about religion with their peers although interest in religion seems to be greater among girls than boys.

During adolescence one searches for spiritual identity and fulfilment. Adolescents often ask questions about what they used to accept or believe in as children. This may lead to the development of critical attitude towards certain religious practices by some adolescents (Gouws et al 2000:117). Interestingly enough during this stage most adolescents become very interested in religious matters and actively involved in church activities. Others drift away from what their parents taught them at an early age and join cults or other different religious movements. The choice that adolescents have to make during this stage of identity formation is crucial. This choice will also assist in their emotional self-concept. What an adolescent chooses may be in conflict with the religious practices that the family upholds. The choice can make an adolescent to be vulnerable to criticism from parents and other

siblings. Emotionally the child can be affected and the self-concept may also be negative.

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996:15) states clearly that persons belonging to a cultural, religious or linguistic community may not be denied the right:

  (a) to enjoy their culture, practice their religion and use their language; and
  (b) to form, join and maintain cultural, religious and linguistic associations and other organs of civil society.

From the above clause adolescents in South Africa are given the freedom to choose whatever religion suits them best. Therefore, no parent or school authority has the right to prohibit adolescents from affiliation in the religion of their choice.

The issue of cultural diversity, religion and education is not only a problem in South Africa but also in other countries. A study conducted by Wright (2003:111) clearly indicates the changing role of religious education in Europe. There is a conception that religious education needs to adopt a holistic model of human development. According to the holistic model, the educator's task is to encourage the pupil to respond to religious diversity by negotiating his/her own sense of religious identity (National Policy on Religion and Education 2003:4). In attaining the aim of holistic human development there should be religious competence, that is, being able to deal with one's own religiosity and its various dimensions embedded in the dynamics of life-history whilst appreciating the religious views of others. The same notion that educators in Europe are trying to inculcate in children is similar to South Africa's cooperative model, which emphasises education and religion which is non-discriminatory. In South Africa children will be given education in religion in a broader perspective through the learning area of Life Orientation (National Policy on Religion and Education 2003:18). This exposure to various religions will empower adolescents to choose appropriately what meets their spiritual needs.

4.5.2 Conclusion

The holistic development of an adolescent will be incomplete if the emotional aspect is overlooked. The emotional attachment between the parent and the adolescent forms the foundation for the development of an emotional self-concept. The availability of the parent throughout the life of the child is of vital importance. The manner in which one is raised either by grandparents or guardians will shape one's emotional self-concept. Any life event that has an impact on the child's emotions will also shape the self-concept. The current study will focus on the life of an adolescent in a disadvantaged black home environment from a South African perspective and whether factors like the absent parent, religion, punishment, life events play a role in shaping the emotional self-concept. The role played by guidance and counselling in schools is also central to this study. The strategies which may be applied by guidance counsellors in assisting adolescents and parents will be of help in the improvement of adolescents' lives at schools.

4.6. Summary

Chapter Four explains what a non-academic self-concept is and what it entails. The physical self-concept, social self-concept and emotional self-concept are key elements that build the general self-concept of the child. In each child both academic and non-academic self-concepts are necessary for the formation of the general self-concept. Children differ in talents and abilities, therefore a child's self-concept will be determined by his/her talents. Some children happen to be fortunate in the sense that they excel in both academic and non-academic aspects. Their self-concept is enhanced by academic achievement and by their achievement in sport or their social reputation. The home environment plays an important role in the development of the non-academic self-concept. It is the parent and the significant others who must realise the strong points and weaknesses that the child has so as to assist the child to build himself/herself by concentrating on the positive aspects and ignoring the negative ones which will degrade him/her. The

support that the child receives at home may assist him/her to develop a positive self-concept even though every child has some weaknesses.

The next chapter will focus on the research design of the present study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

Chapter One outlined the aim of the study and presented the problem that the researcher became aware of amongst adolescents. The aims of the study were also outlined and concepts such as **self-concept**, **disadvantaged home environment** were outlined.

Chapter Two focused mainly on the self-concept of the adolescent from different perspectives including psychological and social concepts. The development of the self-concept, its structure and components were clearly discussed in Chapter Three. Also, in Chapter Three, emphasis was given to the disadvantaged home environment as one of the factors that may influence the self-concept of adolescents.

A detailed account of the non-academic self-concept in the life of an adolescent was given in Chapter Four. Consideration of the home environment and the role played by significant others in shaping the self-concept of an adolescent was made. The focus of Chapter Five will be to provide an outline of the research design to be utilised for the current study. Figure 5.1 shows the theoretical aspects covered by Chapter One to Four and the empirical part which will be covered in Chapters Five, Six and Seven.

5.2 Specific research problems

In Chapter One the general research problem is stated as follows:
How does a disadvantaged home environment influence the self-concept of adolescents?
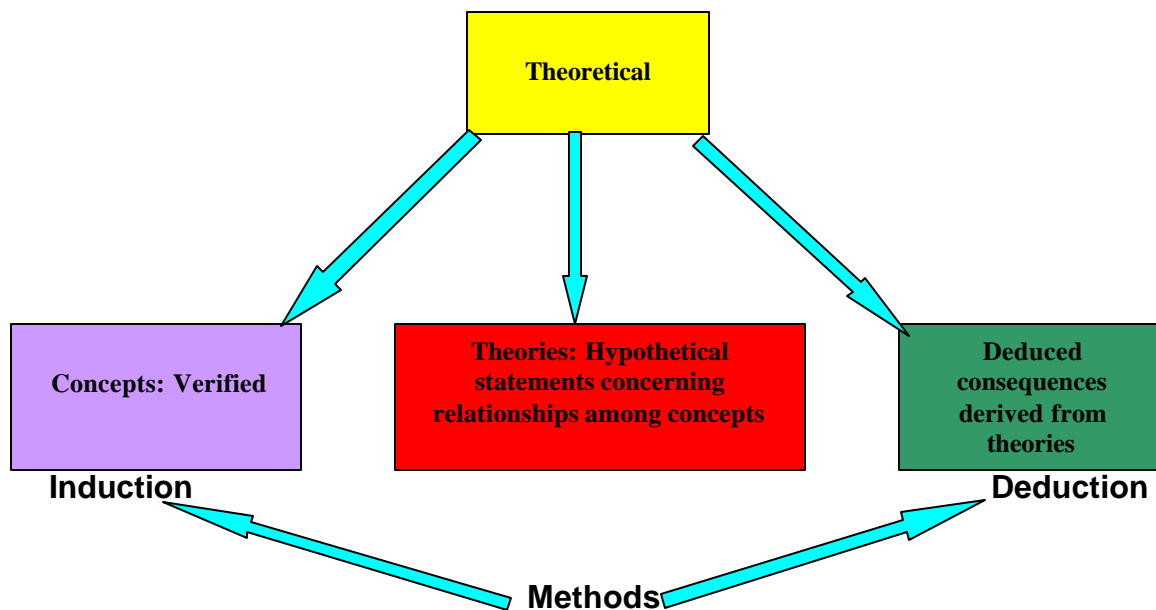
Figure 5.1: Theoretical aspects covered by Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 (Adapted from Van Dalen 1979:60).

The above general research problem leads to specific research problems which were identified when the literature was reviewed. These problems, which are indicated here below, will provide guidelines for the empirical investigation.

(i)   Is there a statistically significant relationship between home environment and self-concept?
        Self-concept refers to: emotional, physical, social, academic and general self-concept.

(ii)   Is there a statistically significant difference in the emotional self-concept of learners with different religious backrounds?

(iii)   Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners who live under different kinds of supervision at home?

(iv)   Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners with a different number of children at home?

(v)   Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of boys and girls?

(vi)   Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners of grade 9 and grade 11?

5.2.1 Hypotheses

5.2.1.1 *Research Problem 1*

Null hypothesis

H_{o1}: There is no statistically significant relationship between a disadvantaged home environment and self-concept.

Research hypothesis

H_{a1}: There is a statistically significant relationship between a disadvantaged home environment and self-concept.

5.2.1.2 *Research Problem 2*

Null hypothesis

H_{O2}: There is no statistically significant difference in the emotional self-concepts of learners with different religious backgrounds.

Research hypothesis

H_{a2}: There is a statistically significant difference in the emotional self-concept of learners with different religious backgrounds.

5.2.1.3   Research Problem 3

Null hypothesis

H_{O3}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners who live under different kinds of supervision at home.

Research hypothesis

H_{a3}: There is a statistically significant difference in the self-concept of learners who live under different kinds of supervision at home.

5.2.1.4   Research Problem 4

Null hypothesis

H_{O4}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concept of learners with a different number of children at home.

Research hypothesis

H_{a4}: There is a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners with a different number of children at home.

5.2.1.5   Research Problem 5

Null hypothesis

H_{O5}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of boys and girls.

Research hypothesis

H_{a5}: There is a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of boys and girls.

5.2.1.6   Research Problem 6

Null hypothesis

H_{o6}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners of grade 9 and grade 11.

Research hypothesis

H_{a6}:   There is a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners of grade 9 and grade 11.

5.3 Research design

Research design is a blueprint or detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, Poggenpoel & Schurink 1998:123). The plan offers the framework according to which data will be collected to investigate the hypotheses.

For the purposes of this study, a quantitative mode of inquiry was applied, involving a nonexperimental survey design. According to De Vos <u>et al</u>. (1998:78) survey designs require questionnaires as a data collection method. Respondents are ideally selected by means of randomised sampling methods. However, the researcher used convenient and purposeful sampling in order to determine the effects of a disadvantaged home environment on the self-concepts of adolescents.

5.4 Research methods

5.4.1 Instrument

Since the aim of the study is to determine the relationship between the home environment and the self-concept of children, a structured questionnaire was used in the survey. According to Mitchell and Jolley (1996:452), in a structured survey all respondents are asked a standard list of questions in a standard order, alternative items are fixed and they are in a standard order. All participants in this study were asked the same questions. In using a structured questionnaire, the researcher obtained easily interpretable responses concerning the relationship between the home environment and the self-concepts of adolescents. Thus, the questionnaire was used as an instrument to collect data on adolescents' self-concept (emotional, physical, social and general self-concepts) and home environment.

The questionnaire has been structured in such a way that variables on self-concepts and disadvantaged home environment variables are spread

throughout the questionnaire. A five point Likert-type scale was used in the development of the questionnaire. This scale lays out five points separated by intervals assumed to be of equal distances. It is formally termed an equal–appearing interval scale (Tuckman 1999:216). According to Mitchell and Jolley (1996:44), participants typically respond to a statement by checking the following 'strongly disagree' (scored 1) 'disagree' (scored 2) 'uncertain' (scored 3) 'agree' (scored 4) and 'strongly agree' (scored 5). The Likert-type scale gives the respondents the freedom to choose according to their feelings.

The questionnaire consists of 100 questions (see Appendix A) demarcated as follows:

Biographical data: items/questions 1-5

Home background: items/questions 6-30 and 73-86

Religious and emotional self-concept: items/questions 31-46

Physical self-concept: items/questions 47-60

Social self-concept: items/questions 61-72

Academic self-concept: items/questions 87-100

5.4.2 Measures to ensure validity and reliability

5.4.2.1 Validity

To ensure that a measuring instrument is valid, it must measure what it is supposed to measure and yield scores whose differences reflect the true differences of the variable being measured (De Vos et al. 1998:83). Tuckman (1999:200) gives an example of a question which a researcher normally asks: 'Does the test really measure the characteristic that I want it to measure?' Because the research project did not aim to standardise the questionnaire, the focus was on content and face validity.

Content validity

De Vos <u>et al</u>. (1998:84) refer to content validity as a test which is concerned with the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the content. Normally two questions are asked in determining content validity:

i. Is the instrument really measuring the concept?
ii. Does the instrument provide an adequate sample of items that represent that concept?

Content validation is a judgemental process (Hudson 1981:105). The questionnaire which was used in this study was given to experts in the field of Educational Psychology to ensure its content validity. The researcher's supervisor was one of these experts.

Face validity

Face validity is a desirable characteristic of a measuring instrument (De Vos <u>et al</u>. 1984: 84). In other words, when a researcher poses judgement on an instrument it appears relevant to those who will complete or administer it. The questionnaire was subjectively judged by the researcher first and later given to experts in the field to verify its validation. The person who did the statistical analysis was one of these experts.

5.4.2.2 Reliability

According to Tuckman (1999:198), test reliability means that a test gives consistent measurements. Reliability can also be established when there is consistency or agreement between two independently derived sets of scores (De Vos <u>et al</u>. 1998:85). Several methods such as test-retest are used for establishing the reliability of an instrument. Reliability in this study will be tested by means of the Cronbach alpha correlation coefficient which is a split halves method.

5.4.3 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted with 10 grade 9 learners from disadvantaged home environments who completed the questionnaire. The researcher wanted to identify problems that might be in the questionnaire, for example, terminology and the duration needed to complete the questionnaire. The researcher's purpose was to investigate the feasibility of the research and to see if there were weaknesses in the questionnaire. All of the 10 grade 9 learners used in the pilot study were able to interpret the questions in the questionnaire well and each took about 45 minutes to complete it.

5.4.4 Data collection

5.4.4.1 Sample

A sample is the element of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study (De Vos et al. 1998:191). For the purpose of this study, a combination of convenience and purposive sampling was used whereby children from informal settlements and villages were targeted. Children who come from these neighbourhoods may have most characteristics or typical attributes of disadvantaged home environments (Singleton, Straits, Straits & McAllister 1988:153). Since the study focuses on adolescents, the sample will be from secondary schools. The area in which the sample population were drawn from is Bojanala East Region in North West Province and the area project for the research will be Mabopane. This area is easily accessible for the researcher. A middle school and a secondary school in Hebron village were identified by the researcher where the sample was drawn. These schools were chosen for sampling because they occur in an area characterised by poverty (e.g. poor housing, poor sanitation and high unemployment). The grade 9 and grade 11 learners formed the sample for the research. The grade 9 learners were in the final class in the senior phase of the GET band at a middle

school, and most of them were in early adolescence. The grade 11 learners were in the middle of the FET band and most them were in middle adolescence. The researcher decided on the two groups, that is, grade 9 and grade 11, since they represent two stages of adolescence.

5.4.4.2 The procedure for research

Permission for conducting or administering the questionnaire in a middle and a secondary school in Hebron was obtained from the Area Project Office in Mabopane (see Appendices B, C, D, E and F). Thereafter, principals of middle and secondary schools were consulted and appointments were secured. The researcher was assisted by educators to administer the questionnaire. All grade 11's at the secondary school were in the school hall and they completed the questionnaire in approximately 45 minutes. Grade 9 learners at the middle school also completed the questionnaire in approximately 45 minutes and they were seated in different classrooms.

5.4.5 Data processing

In processing data statistical tests are major tools for data interpretation (Tuckman 1999:282). The purpose of testing is to provide evidence for judging validity of hypotheses. The researcher needed tools to interpret the data and these were as follows:

The following statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses 1-6.
i. ANOVA and Tukey's t-tests for hypotheses H_{o2}, H_{o3}, H_{o4}, H_{o5} and H_{o6}
ii. correlation for H_{o1}

5.5 Summary

The research problems and hypotheses were clearly outlined in this chapter indicating a quantitative approach. A questionnaire as an

instrument for data collection was used to collect data from the sample. Appropriate statistical techniques were used to test the hypotheses.

Chapter Six will outline the results of the empirical investigation with regard to adolescents' self-concepts (emotional, physical, academic, social and general self-concepts) and a disadvantaged home environment. The results will reveal how a disadvantaged home environment affects the self-concept of an adolescent.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The research design of the empirical investigation in this study has been exhaustively described in Chapter Five. In brief, the empirical investigation focused on the following problems and hypotheses:

Problem 1: Is there a statistically significant relationship between home environment and self-concept of learners?

Problem 2: Is there a statistically significant difference in the emotional self-concept of learners with different religious backgrounds?

Problem 3: Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners who live under different kinds of supervision at home?

Problem 4: Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners with a different number of children at home?

Problem 5: Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concept of boys and girls?

Problem 6: Is there a statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners of grades 9 and 11?

For all the above-mentioned problems, self-concept refers to: emotional, physical, social, academic and general self-concepts.

In the present chapter, the biographical data of the respondents and statistically analysed results of the questionnaire are described and discussed. Frequencies and mean values of variables studied are presented in the form of tables. Correlations and differences between different variables that have been tested for significance are also presented.

6.2   Biographical data

Biographical data of the respondents are summarised in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender: Girl	255	55.4
Boy	199	43.3
Grade: Nine	246	53.5
Eleven	206	44.8
Number of children at home: One	43	9.3
Two	83	18
Three	135	29.3
Four	90	19.6
Five or more	105	22.8
Religion: Christianity	285	62
Hindu	6	1.3
Islam	16	3.4
African Judaism	6	1.3
Other	139	30
Child stays with: Both parents	209	45.4
One parent	163	35.4
Grandparents	38	8.2
Guardians	21	4.5
Other	24	5.2

6.3   Results of hypotheses testing

6.3.1   Problem 1

H_{01}: There is no statistically significant relationship between home environment and self-concept.

To test the aforementioned hypothesis, Pearson's correlation test was used. The correlation was determined between each of the following variables:

- (i)   Home environment and emotional self-concept
- (ii)   Home environment and physical self-concept
- (iii)   Home environment and social self-concept
- (iv)   Home environment and academic self-concept
- (v)   Home environment and general self-concept

The result appears in Table 6-2.

Table 6-2: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN HOME ENVIRONMENT AND SELF-CONCEPTS

Variables	Correlation	Significance
Home environment and emotional self-concept	0.659	p<0.01
Home environment and physical self-concept	0.463	p<0.01
Home environment and social self-concept	0.552	p<0.01
Home environment and academic self-concept	0.480	p<0.01
Home environment and general self-concept	0.693	p<0.01

Since the significance is smaller than 0.01, all the null-hypotheses may be rejected on the 1%-level. Thus, there are statistically significant relationships between home environment, on the one hand, and emotional, physical, social, academic and general self-concepts, on the other hand.

In addition, the self-concepts are moderate (0.463, 0.480 and 0.552) or high (0.659 and 0.693) as well as positive. This means that the more positive the home environment, the higher the different self-concepts; and the more negative the home environment, the more negative the different self-concepts.

6.3.2 Problem 2

H_{02}:   There is no statistically significant difference in the emotional self-concept of learners with different religious backgrounds.

The results of testing this hypothesis appear in Tables 6-3 and 6-4.

Table 6-3: MEAN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF LEARNERS FROM DIFFERENT RELIGIOUS BACKGROUNDS

Religion	N	Mean
Christianity	285	3.8978
Hindu	6	3.2147
Islam	16	3.5078
African Judaism	6	3.1771
Other	139	3.8336

Christianity appears to be the most popular religion (n=285) when Hindu (n=6) and African Judaism (n=6) appear to be the least popular religions.

Table 6-4: F-VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF LEARNERS FROM DIFFERENT RELIGIOUS BACKGROUNDS

df	F-value	Significance
4	4.950	$p < 0.01$

Analysis of variance followed by Tukey's t-tests, reveal that Christian learners differ significantly on the 5% level from Jewish learners with regard to their emotional self-concepts. The average emotional self-concepts of the Christian learners are significantly higher than those of the learners who belong to the African Judaism faith (3.8978 is significantly greater than 3.1771). Thus, the null-hypothesis may be rejected for these two groups but not for the others. Consequently the alternative hypothesis is supported for these two groups.

6.3.3 Problem 3

H_{03}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of adolescents who live under different kinds of supervision at home.

The results of testing this hypothesis appear in Tables 6-5 and 6-6.

Table 6-5: MEAN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

Type of supervision	N	Mean
Both parents	209	3.8953
One parent	163	3.8964
Grandparents	38	3.7428
Guardians	21	3.4774
Other	24	3.5521
Total	455	3.8455

Table 6-6: F-VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

df	F	Significance
4	4.011	$p < 0.01$

Table 6-5 presents summarised data on the emotional self-concept of learners who live under different kinds of supervision at home. ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-tests revealed significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in emotional self-concepts between adolescents who stay with both parents and guardians and between those who stay with one parent and guardians. These results suggest that adolescents who stay with both parents or a single parent are more emotionally stable than those who stay with guardians.

No statistically significant differences were recorded in physical, social and academic self-concepts of adolescents who stay under different kinds of supervision, as illustrated by Tables 6-7 to 6-9.

Table 6-7: MEAN PHYSICAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

Type of supervision	N	Mean
Both parents	209	3.7844
One parent only	163	3.8219
Grandparents	38	3.7794
Guardians	21	3.5476
Other	24	3.6204
Total	455	3.7778

Table 6-8: MEAN SOCIAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

Type of supervision	N	Mean
Both parents	209	3.6623
One parent only	162	3.6602
Grandparents	38	3.5724
Guardians	21	3.3254
Other	24	3.5869
Total	454	3.6344

Table 6-9: MEAN ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

Type of supervision	N	Mean
Both parents	208	3.6342
One parent only	161	3.5604
Grandparents	37	3.5154
Guardians	20	3.3110
Other	24	3.4968
Total	450	3.5764

However, the general self-concept of adolescents who stay with both parents or a single parent, was found to be statistically significantly higher (p<0.05) than of those who stay with guardians. Tables 6-10 and 6-11 illustrate the results.

Table 6-10: MEAN GENERAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

Type of supervision	N	Mean
Both parents	209	3.7533
One parent only	163	3.7414
Grandparents	38	3.6584
Guardians	21	3.4182
Other	24	3.5626
Total	455	3.7156

Table 6-11: F-VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE OF GENERAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE UNDER DIFFERENT KINDS OF SUPERVISION

df	F	Significance
4	3.241	$p < 0.05$

ANOVA and Tukey's t-tests reveal that the general self-concepts of adolescents who live with both or with one parent are statistically significantly higher than the general self-concepts of adolescents who live with guardians. Hence, the null-hypotheses are rejected for emotional and general self-concepts. Consequently the alternative hypotheses are supported for emotional and general self-concepts.

6.3.4 Problem 4

H_{04}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners with a different number of children at home.

113

ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-test reveal that the emotional self-concept of adolescents who are two in number in a family, is statistically significantly different (p <0.05) from those of children who are five or more in the family. Tables 6-12 and 6-13 illustrate this.

Table 6-12: MEAN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

No. of siblings	N	Mean
One	43	3.8488
Two	83	3.9990
Three	135	3.8983
Four	90	3.7607
Five or more	105	3.7340
Total	456	3.8470

Table 6-13: F-VALUE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE IN EMOTIONAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

df	F	Significance
4	2.719	p<0.05

Tables 6-12 and 6-13 indicate that the emotional self-concept of adolescents where there are two children in the home is statistically significantly higher (p<0.05) than that of learners with five or more children at home.

No statistically significant differences were recorded in physical, social, academic and general self-concepts of adolescents with a different number of siblings at home. Tables 6-14 to 6-17 indicate the different average self-concepts. For all of these, the significant differences were greater than 0.05.

Table 6-14: MEAN PHYSICAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

No. of siblings	N	Mean
One	43	3.7757
Two	83	3.8494
Three	135	3.7663
Four	90	3.7841
Five or more	105	3.7303
Total	456	3.7775

Table 6-15: MEAN SOCIAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

No. of siblings	N	Mean
One	43	3.6395
Two	83	3.7350
Three	135	3.6996
Four	89	3.5384
Five or more	105	3.5603
Total	455	3.6367

Table 6-16: MEAN ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

No. of siblings	N	Mean
One	43	3.5110
Two	82	3.6644
Three	135	3.6020
Four	87	3.5573
Five or more	104	3.5172
Total	451	3.5765

Table 6-17: MEAN GENERAL SELF-CONCEPT OF ADOLESCENTS WHO LIVE WITH A DIFFERENT NUMBER OF SIBLINGS

No. of siblings	N	Mean
One	43	3.7026
Two	83	3.8179
Three	135	3.7491
Four	90	3.6671
Five or more	105	3.6423
Total	456	3.7165

6.3.5 Problem 5

H_{05}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of boys and girls.

Table 6-18 illustrates the results when this hypothesis was tested.

Table 6-18: SELF-CONCEPTS OF BOYS AND GIRLS

Self-concept	N	Mean	t-value	df	Significance
Emotional:					
Girls	255	3.8781	1.003	452	p>0.05
Boys	199	3.8184			
Physical:					
Girls	255	3.8086	1.073	452	p>0.05
Boys	199	3.7448			
Social:					
Girls	254	3.6917	2.105	451	p<0.05
Boys	199	3.5674			
Academic:					
Girls	252	3.5834	0.308	447	p>0.05
Boys:	197	3.5670			
General:					
Girls	255	3.7462	1.384	452	p>0.05
Boys	199	3.6833			

Table 6-18 indicates that the null-hypothesis may be rejected for social self-concept but not for others. The social self-concept of girls in a disadvantaged environment is statistically significantly higher than the social self-concept of boys in the same environment.

6.3.6 Problem 6

H_{06}: There is no statistically significant difference in the self-concepts of learners in grade 9 and grade 11.

Table 6-19 illustrate the results when this hypothesis was tested.

Table 6-19: SELF-CONCEPTS OF GRADE 9 AND GRADE11 LEARNERS

Self-concept	N	Mean	t-value	df	Significance
Emotional: Grade 9 Grade 11	246 206	3.8161 3.9033	-1.473	450	p>0.05
Physical: Grade 9 Grade 11	246 206	3.6634 3.9241	-4.494	450	p<0.01
Social: Grade 9 Grade 11	245 206	3.5926 3.6947	-1.735	449	p>0.05
Academic: Grade 9 Grade 11	244 203	3.5990 3.5444	1.035	445	p>0.05
General: Grade 9 Grade 11	246 206	3.6748 3.7744	-2.199	450	P<0.05

Table 6-19 indicates that the null-hypothesis may be rejected (on the 5% - and on the 1% level respectively) for physical and general self-concepts. The physical and the general self-concepts of grade 11 learners in disadvantaged environments are significantly greater (p<0.01 for the physical concept and p<0.05 for the general concept) than these self-concepts of grade 9 learners.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter the research problems and hypotheses were outlined and results were described and presented in the form of correlations, frequencies, means and F-values. ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-tests and Pearson's correlation were used to test the hypotheses.

In Chapter Seven focus will be on discussing the results and drawing conclusions for the study. The recommendations and contributions to the Life Orientation curriculum will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Children are subjected to many things that may influence their self-concepts. Since there is limited research in black communities especially in disadvantaged areas, the researcher saw it necessary to conduct this study. The aims of the study were clearly outlined in Chapter One. They can be summarised as follows:

- To indicate the role which the home environment plays in influencing the self-concept of children.

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions on what was found in the literature study and the empirical investigation. The conclusions from the literature study are discussed in the following section.

7.2 Conclusions

7.2.1 Conclusions from literature study

The aim of the literature study was to outline a disadvantaged home environment and its characteristics. In Chapter One a disadvantaged home environment was described as a home characterized by poverty, lack of material needs, single parenthood, workaholic parents and poor parenting patterns.

Chapter Two outlined the development of an adolescent from various perspectives such as the physical, cognitive, psychological and social perspectives. It also indicated how each of these perspectives plays a role in

influencing the adolescent's self-concept. The theory of Erik Erikson on identity formation, formed the core of this chapter since the self-concept of the adolescent rests solely on identity formation. Chapter Two also indicated that the relationships that an adolescent forms with parents, self and peers determine the type of the self-concept an adolescent will ultimately developed.

In Chapter Three the study focused on the development of the academic self-concept and factors that enhance it. Parenting patterns were outlined as factors influencing the academic self-concept. Chapter Four explained the non-academic self-concept with its facets being the physical, emotional and social self-concept.

7.2.2 Conclusions from empirical investigation

In Chapter Five an empirical investigation was conducted with a sample size of 461 adolescents using a questionnaire as an instrument to collect data. The statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses were ANOVA, Tukey's t-tests and Pearson's correlation. The outcomes of the statistical analysis highlights whether the null-hypotheses should be confirmed or rejected. The following can be concluded:

H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between home environment and self-concept.

The results of the research indicate that the null-hypothesis may be rejected. By using Pearson's correlation test it was found that there is a moderate to high and a positive correlation between home environment and the self-concept. The more positive the home environment, the more positive the adolescent's self-concept, and the more negative the home environment, the more negative the adolescent's self concept.

H_{02}: There is no significant difference in the emotional self-concept of learners with different religious backgrounds.

The results indicate that this null-hypothesis may be rejected. By using ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-tests it was found that learners with different religious backrounds differ significantly with regard to their emotional self-concepts. The emotional self-concepts of the Christian adolescents were significantly higher than those of the adolescents belonging to African Judaism.

H_{03}: There is no significant difference in the self-concepts of learners who live at home with different kinds of supervision.

The results indicate that the null-hypothesis may be rejected. By using ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-test, results reveal a significant difference in emotional self-concepts between adolescents who live with both parents and those who live with guardians, and also between those who live with one parent and those who live with guardians. Adolescents who live with both parents or single parents are emotionally more stable than those who live with guardians. Adolescents who get attention from both parents or a single biological parent will have better emotional stability.

H_{04}: There is no significant difference in the self-concepts of learners with a different number of siblings at home.

The results indicate that this null hypothesis may be rejected. By using ANOVA and Tukey's t-test the results reveal that the emotional self-concept of adolescents who are two in number in a family is significantly different from that of children who are five or more in the family. In other words, when families have more than three children, the attention given to each child is limited. Hence children experience deprivation of affection. On the other hand, it also appears that adolescents need the emotional support of one sibling.

H_{05}: There is no significant difference in the self-concepts of boys and girls.

The results of the research indicate a rejection of the null-hypothesis. The results indicate that girls from a disadvantaged home environment have a significantly better social self-concept than boys. With other variables such as emotional, physical, academic and general self-concepts girls and boys scored similarly. In other words, there is no significant difference between them. For these last-mentioned self-concepts, the null-hypothesis may not be rejected.

H_{06}: There is no significant difference in the self-concepts of learners of grade 9 and 11.

The results of the research indicate that this null-hypothesis may be rejected. The results indicate that grade 9's physical self-concept differs significantly with that of grade 11 learners. The grade 11 adolescents had significantly better physical self-concepts than the grade 9 adolescents. In addition, the general self-concepts of learners in grade 11 were significantly better than those of learners in grade 9. Thus, as adolescents' bodies develop, their physical and hence their general self-concepts improve.

With other variables such as emotional, social and academic self-concepts there is no significant difference between grade 9 learners and grade 11 learners.

7.2.3   Conclusions from literature study and empirical investigation

From the literature study and empirical investigation results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

The home environment plays an important role in shaping the self-concept of adolescents. The home includes significant others who influence the adolescent's physical needs, emotional needs, academic needs and social needs. According to Maslow's hierachy of needs, if the above-mentioned needs are satisfied then an individual will be able to find fulfilment or reach

self-actualisation (Meyer et al. 1990:358). The adolescents' self-concepts are significantly influenced by the home among other things. According to the results of this study, age does affect the physical self-concept. The grade 9 learners and grade 11 learners differ significantly with the physical self-concept at 1% level when ANOVA and Tukey's T-test were used. From the literature study, grade 9's are still in early adolescence and grade 11's are in middle adolescence. Physical development may not be the same and can influence their perception. However, physical self-concepts improve with age from grade 9 to 11.

The emotional self-concept in the life of an adolescent is stable if the home environment provides love, warmth, support and meets other emotional needs. Parenting styles such as authoritative parenting can be of help in developing a positive self-concept in the life of an adolescent (Pretorius 1998:62). Among factors that may hinder a stable emotional self-concept as the results in this study indicate may be the absence of parents in the life of an adolescent. Religion can also affect the emotional self-concept of adolescents. The results for the research indicate that learners who follow Christianity and African Judaism differ significantly with regard to their emotional self-concepts. Based on the literature study in Chapter Four, which showed that during adolescence, adolescents search for spiritual identity and fulfilment, religion does affect the emotional self-concept A critical attitude may develop towards certain religious practices (Gouws et al. 2000:117).

The social self-concept depends also on the atmosphere that prevails in the home environment. Acceptance by significant others in the home, helps in the development of social self-concept (Hamachek 1975:210). Intimacy with parents assists in the development of a positive self-concept. The research results in this research indicated that there is correlation between the home environment and social self-concept. The more love, warmth and acceptance a child receives from home, the more positive is the social self-concept. If there are conditions that are negative in a home, the more negative is the social self-concept. The fact that girls have more positive social self-concepts

may indicate more social interaction and warmth with significant others at home.

The academic self-concept in the life of an adolescent depends on the conditions that prevail in a home environment. The results in this research indicate a positive correlation between the home environment and the academic self-concept. The atmosphere prevailing at home, parental support and care throughout the life of an adolescent builds one's academic self-concept. From the literature study Burns (1982:210) indicated that what the child received from home and elementary school forms the basis of his/her academic self-concept. The success achieved during earlier years in one's life forms the foundation for academic success even during adolescence and later. The role of the parent and significant others is crucial in creating an atmosphere in which the adolescent's academic self-concept can develop in a positive way.

According to Menaghan and Parcel (1995:75), the addition of new children to the family may overextend existing parental resources and energy. The latter statement suggests that the larger numbers of children may have a negative impact on children's academic self-concepts. The results of the present study reveal that there is no significant difference in the academic self-concepts of adolescents with a different number of siblings. In other words according to the findings of this study, the size of the family does not hinder the development of a positive academic self-concept.

The general self-concept of adolescents who live with both parents or a single parent was found to be significantly higher than of those who live with guardians. Parental presence is important in the stability of the general self-concept. This is also evident with the emotional self-concept. Children need parental love and support throughout their growth and development. Failure to provide care, warmth and support may disturb the development of a positive general self-concept.

The results of this study also indicate that the general self-concept of grade 9's differ significantly at 5% level with that of grade 11's when using ANOVA followed by Tukey's t-test. This indicates that although grade 9's and 11's are all regarded as adolescents, they are not on the same level of development. This was clearly outlined in Chapter Two in the discussion on the dominant stages of identity during adolescence by Marcia (in Hurrelman & Hamilton 1996:94). Those stages are foreclosure, identity diffusion, moratorium and identity achieved. Adolescents may be found in one of those categories not due to age but due to a combination of psychological principles of individual development and the environment. The general self-concept is influenced by the environment and level of development. In the sample, the general self-concepts of the adolescents improved from grade 9 to 11.

7.3 Contributions to Life Skills and Life Orientation programmes in schools

The aims of the study presented in Chapter One indicated that disadvantaged communities should be conscientised about the importance of the self-concept of children and that Life Skills programmes should address the needs of children from disadvantaged home environments. From the literature study and empirical research the following model is proposed:

7.3.1 The proposed model for GET and FET phases

In the GET senior phase (Grades 7-9) and FET(Grades 10-12) where the learning area Life Orientation is being offered, the following intervention strategy can be implemented (see Figure 7.1):

INTERVENTION STRATEGY

STEP 1
Identification of learners with problems/ low self-concept

STEP 2
Intervention: group counselling

STEP 3
Individual counselling

STEP 4
Parental involvement

STEP 5
Involvement of other educators

STEP 6
Involvement of school governing body

STEP 7
Involvement of experts, e.g. Social services, Psychologists

Build positive self-concept

Build positive self-concept

Build positive self-concept

Build positive self-concept

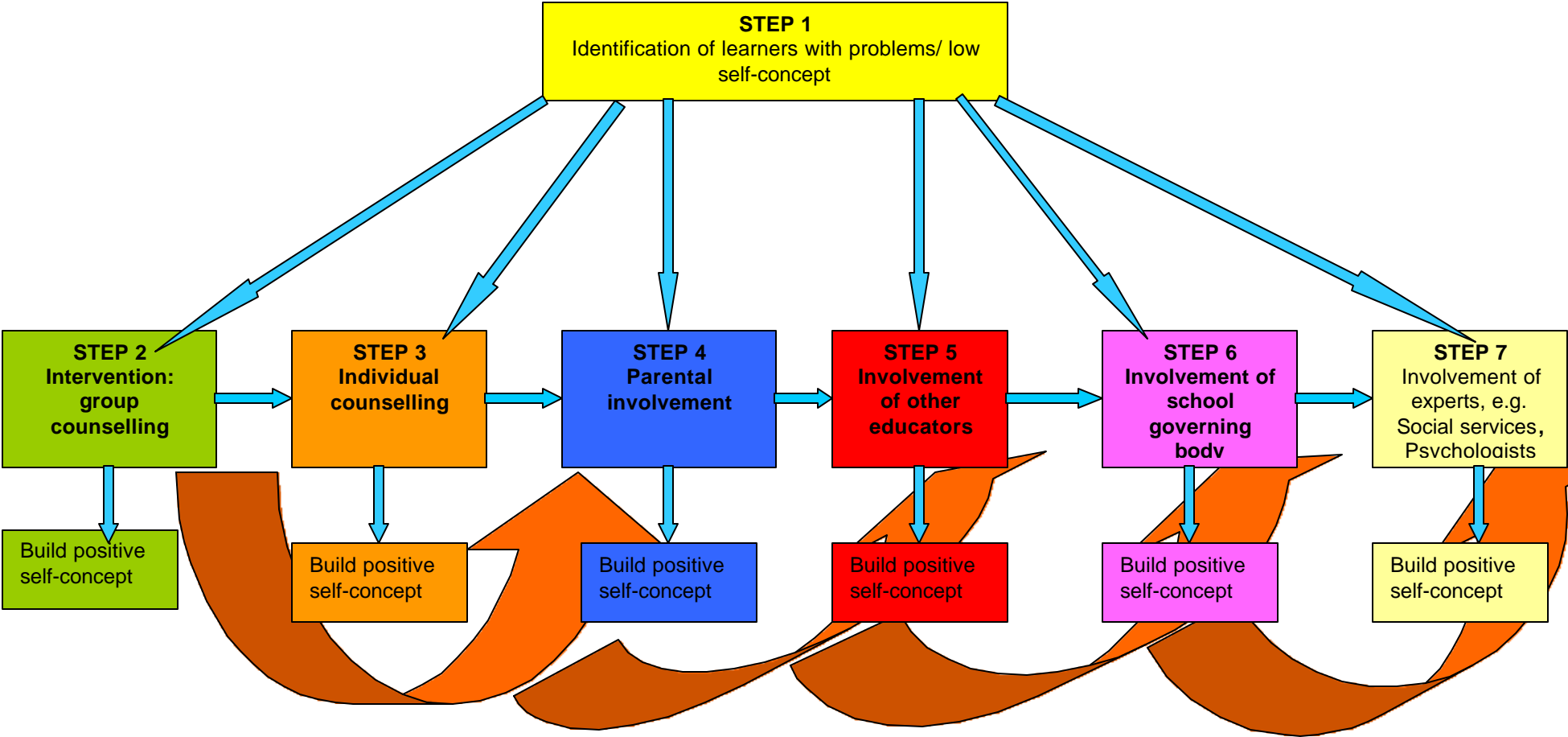Build positive self-concept

Build positive self-concept

Figure 7.1: The intervention model

127

The proposed intervention model comprises of seven steps which are: identification of learners with problems/ low self concept (step 1), intervention-group counselling (step 2), individual counselling (step 3), parental involvement (step 4), involvement of other educators (step 5), involvement of school governing body (step 6) and involvement of experts (step 7). The model is flexible and as a result the facilitator does not have to follow the steps in a rigid sequential manner. For example, the facilitator may find that the adolescent improves and develops a positive self-concept following the second step. In such a case intervention may be terminated without the need to follow subsequent steps. In other instances intervention may require three, four, five, six or all the stages in the model. This model aims to provide guidelines to facilitators/educators who are dealing with learners who are from disadvantaged home environments and have low self-concepts.

i. Steps of the proposed model

STEP ONE   Identification of learners with problems/low self-concept

Life Orientation and Life Skills facilitators should know the learning outcomes for each learning programme. The learning experience (lesson) should be planned in such a way that the facilitator will be able to reach the individual learner through the assessment standards, that is, the knowledge, skills and values that learners need to show to achieve the Learning Outcome in each grade (Revised National Curriculum Statement 2002:61).

The following behaviours may be symptomous of learners from disadvantaged homes with low self-concepts:

- lack of interest in school work;
- disruptive behaviour ;
- being shy to present something before the class;
- failure to participate in group work;
- consistent low performance in learning areas;

- being absent minded;
- lack of self-confidence;
- lack of material needs e.g. food, clothing.

 If a learner presents any of the above-named behaviours, then the facilitator should note that as a problem which needs intervention.

STEP TWO Intervention-Group Counselling

After identifying the problem area with regard to personal development as phase organizer through the learner's participation or the written activity or project, whereby a learner shows signs of a negative self-concept, the facilitator should give feedback. If the problem seems to be general in class, the facilitator may use group counselling as a form of an intervention strategy.

The following are examples of some of the measures that can be taken by the facilitator in addressing problem areas of learners:

- the educator can encourage learners to have a positive self-concept.
- the educator can invite motivational speakers to motivate learners to develop positive self-concepts.
- the educator can invite role models who come from disadvantaged home environment to motivate the learners to develop positive self-concepts.
- the educator can give learners topics for discussion on coping strategies in a disadvantaged home environment.
- the educator can instil a sense of self-worth in learners.

If the learners show improvement, it may not be necessary to proceed to step three.

STEP THREE   Individual counselling

If group counselling is not an ideal measure to be used such as in cases where the problems among learners are dissimilar, then individual counselling may be used. The facilitator may devise a questionnaire or an interview which probes further into the life of an adolescent. This should be done privately, away from other learners to indicate respect for the learner's human dignity. If following the use of a questionnaire or an interview the facilitator discovers that there are other problems affecting the adolescent's self-concept, the corrective action by the facilitator may include the following measures:

The facilitator should:
- show love and acceptance;
- encourage the learner to work hard despite the impediments of a disadvantaged home environment;
- show acceptance, appreciate the adolescent the way he/she is;
- Show the learner how unique and important he/she is;
- encourage the adolescent to consult with other educators during beak-time.

If the self-concept of the adolescent improves, the facilitator may terminate the process at this stage. It may not be necessary to continue with step four.

STEP FOUR   Parental Involvement

After an interview or a written questionnaire, the facilitator may find it necessary to involve the parent(s) in trying to help the adolescent. By involving the parent(s) the facilitator may determine whether the home environment is indeed the cause of a negative self-concept in the adolescent's life. The following suggestions may be used where parental

involvement is deemed to be important in developing the self-concept of a child:

- Parent should be advised to use forms of discipline that will ensure love and acceptance.
- Parents should be enlightened about the importance of spending quality time with their children.
- Parents should be enlightened on the problems created by single parenting or stepparenting.
- Parent(s) should be advised to be authoritative and democratic.
- Parent(s) should be advised to be authoritative and democratic
- Parent(s) should be advised to create a form of income for the family e.g. by selling vegetables, sweets etc.

Furthermore, Life Orientation and Life Skills facilitators can implement the following measures:

- Plan a parents' meeting with the staff and explain their mission to reach out to parents in trying to assist and build the child's self-concept. The School Governing Body should be informed and be involved in the process of reaching out to the entire parent body.
- Problems that educators have encountered should be outlined. In trying to solve the problems any intervention must be educationally sound.
- Experts from psychological or social services may be invited to address specific topics in relation to parenting patterns that influence the self-concept.
- Parents should be allowed to ask questions and be advised to consult privately on confidential matters. This exercise should be done more than once in a year so that the communities are made aware that the self-concept of children is a key factor to successful learning.

Admittedly the educator may have little or no influence at all with regard to the socio-economic factors prevailing in the home environment. However, by

making parents aware about the impact of these factors on the self-concept of a child, parents may be motivated to improve within means available to them conditions in the home environment.

The educator may decide to terminate the sessions at this stage if there is improvement in the self-concept of an adolescent.

STEP FIVE   Involvement of other educators

After identifying the conditions that prevail in the learner's home environment, the educator may involve other educators who interact with the adolescent on a daily basis to further assist and support the adolescent. The purpose of this step is to maximize support for the adolescent by involving other educators who interact with the adolescent. This will assure the adolescent that there are several educators who care about him/her. The following are suggestions of what educators can do in order to give further support to the adolescent:

- show love, warmth and acceptance to the adolescent;
- show respect to the adolescent;
- encourage and give praise to the adolescent where necessary;
- involve the adolescent in activities that will assure him/her that he/she is recognised and appreciated;
- show the adolescent that he/she is significant.

By involving other educators, the school will present itself as an alternative place for the enhancement of a positive self-concept in the adolescent particularly if those educators are aware about learner's home environment and are better positioned to design appropriate corrective action.

The intervention may end here if the adolescent has successfully improved as a result of further support from other educators.

STEP SIX Involvement of the School Governing Body

When necessary, the School Governing Body should be involved since they form part of the school's stakeholders. The involvement of the School Governing Body may serve to confirm to the adolescent that stakeholders other than the educators also care about his/her welfare.

The School Governing Body can raise funds with the aim of assisting learners from disadvantaged home environments. Following are some examples of activities that the School Governing Body can embark on:

The school governing body should:

- organize concerts or ask for donations from companies to buy material needs for learners
- ensure that learners are disciplined with love and warmth
- provide a sense of security for the learner
- assist the educators in instilling a sense of self-worth in the learner
- show acceptance to the learner

After involving the School Governing Body, the facilitator will have to decide, based on the improvement of the adolescent's self-concept, whether outside assistance has to be sought or not.

STEP SEVEN Involvement of experts, social services and psychologists

Further intervention may be sought from outside help like the Department of Social Services, whereby a social worker is requested to visit the family and offer help either in the form of counselling or assessing if a family needs a grant in the form of food or money to alleviate a problem of poverty. The child may further be referred to a psychologist who will provide specialised assistance that includes counselling.

ii. Concluding remarks on the proposed model

Moreover, when following the steps in the above-proposed model, facilitators should note that it is important to conduct follow-up sessions even after step seven. In these follow-up sessions, adolescents should be given coping skills so that they can face the conditions that prevail in their home environments. Of importance is that adolescents should be taught in a holistic manner bearing in mind that the self-concept forms an integral part of one's development. Educators should go further to show love and acceptance to learners with problems.

Based on the proposed model, the following is to be considered:
According to Revised National Curriculum Statement (2002:6), personal development is central to learning, and equips learners to contribute effectively to community and society. This area focuses on life skills development, emotional development, self-concept formation and self-empowerment.

7.4   Limitations of the study

The research undertaken provided some useful findings on children's self-concepts from disadvantaged communities. However, there are some limitations which should be noted.

- Although the questionnaire had items on academic self-concept and home environment, the researcher did not use the grades of learners from schools to discern their academic performance. Instead she used their responses on how they perform in class.
- The sample was not randomly chosen and is thus not representative of a particular population. Trends were discovered and generalisations are made with caution.

- The research could not obtain views of parents concerning their children's self-concepts (emotional, physical, academic, social and general self-concept).

7.5 Recommendations for further research

Home environments form a foundation for self-concept formation in the life of a child. The home has important people (significant others) who are responsible for the type of self-concept the child will ultimately develop. The following recommendations are made for further studies:

- Further in-depth research can be done in black disadvantaged areas on academic performance, self-concept and home environment. This can be done by means of a qualitative approach.

- A comparative study can be done concerning children's self-concepts in black disadvantaged and advantaged home environments.

- A study can be conducted on the role that parents play in shaping the child's self-concept in South African black communities.

7.6 Summary

From the literature and empirical study it has been noted that there are factors in the home that shape the emotional, physical, social, academic and general self-concepts. The home environment forms the core in shaping one's self-concepts. The study was conducted with adolescents and the results clearly indicated that the home environment influences the adolescents' self-concepts.

As far as the emotional self-concept is concerned, it is clear that biological parents play a profound role in shaping the child's emotional self-concept. The results indicated that both or single parents are important in shaping the adolescent's emotional self-concept compared to children who are in the

custody of guardians. The attachment principle between the parent and the child is essential in shaping the emotional self-concept. The results also indicated that the more the number of siblings in the family, the more negative is the emotional self-concept. These results indicate that children need attention from parents and significant others in the family.

The results of this study also show that the physical self-concept is independent of the type of supervision under which the learner is developing. Similar results were found for the social and academic self-concepts. Also the results of this study show that the number of siblings in the family does not affect the physical, social, academic, and general self-concept.

The general self-concept of adolescents who live with both parents or single parents was found to be significantly higher ($p<0.05$) than of those who live with guardians. The findings of this study are not only applicable to adolescents but can be appropriate to younger children and even post-school youths. The home environment determines one's path of success in life but the school also should intervene and assist the child on his/her path of development. The intervention model proposed in this study may be of assistance to educators who have to give assistance to learners whose self-concepts are negatively affected by the home environment.

The most important fact that the researcher wants to bring forward is that for self-actualisation to take place in one's life, the self-concept should be shaped accordingly by significant others in the home. There may be impeding factors or hindrances but the child should receive assisted from parents, the school, and the society. It is unlikely that a child will fail if there are supportive structures in place.

Reference

Adams, G. 2000. *Adolescent development.* Massachusets: Blackwell Publishers.

Ackerman, B.P., Brown, E. & Izard, C.E. 2003. Continuity and change in levels of externalising behaviour in schools of children from economically disadvantaged families. *Child Development*, 74(3):694-709.

Asci, F.H. 2002. An investigation of age and gender differences in physical self-concept among Turkish late adolescents. *Adolescence*, 37(145):365-371.

Baharudin, R. & Luster, I. 1998. Environment and children's achievement. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19(4):375-437.

Balk, D.E. 1995. *Adolescent development: early through late adolescence.* Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Bee, H. 1989**.** *The developing child.* London: Harper & Row Publishers

Berns, R.M. 1997. *Child, family, school, community socialization and support.* Florida: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Bester, G. 1988. Die verband tussen die self-konsep van die wiskundeleerling en sy prestasie in wiskunde. *Suid Afrikaanse Tydskrif vir Opvoedkunde*, 8(3):165-169.

Boer, F., Goedhart, A. & Treffers, P. 1992. *Sibling and their parents. Developmental and clinical implications.* Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Botes, K.A. 1987. *Akademiese selfkonsep by leerlinge in die junior primere skoolfase.* Johannesburg: Randse Afrikaans Universiteit (M.Ed verhandeling).

Brody, G.H., Stoneman, Z. & Flor, D. 1995. Linking family processes and academic competence among rural American youths. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57(1):567-579.

Brooks-Gunn, J.B., Duncan, G.J. & Aber, L. 1998. Neighbourhoods and family issues. *Contemporary Sociology*, 27(6):572.

Brown, B.B., Mounts, N., Lamborn, S.D. & Steinberg, L. 1999. Parenting practices and peer group affiliation in adolescence. *Child Development Journal*, 467-482.

Buchanan, C.M., Maccoby, E.E. & Dornbusch, S.M. 1991. Caught between parents:Adolescents' experience in divorced homes. *Child Development*, 62(4) 1008-1029.

Burningham, S. 1994. *Young people under stress. A parent's guide.* London: Virago Press Ltd.

Burns, R. 1982. *Self-concept development and education.* London: Henry Ling Ltd.

Cairns, R.B., Leung, M., Buchanan, L. & Cairns, B.D. 1995. Friendships and social networks in childhood and adolescence: fluidity, reliability and interrelations. *Child Development*, 66(4): 1330-1344.

Campbell, F.A., Pungello E.P. & Miller-Johnson, S. 2002. The development of perceived scholastic competence and global self-worth in African-American adolescent from low-income families. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 17(3):277-299.

Cash, T.F. & Henry, P.E. 1995. Women's body images: the results of a national survey in the U.S.A. *Sex Roles*, 33:19-28.

Caputo, R.K. 2001. Grandparents and co-resident grandchildren in a youth cohort. *Journal of Family Issues*, 22(5):541-556.

Chen, X., Chang, L. & He, Y. 2003. The peer group as a context: mediating and moderating effects on relations between academic achievement and social functioning in Chinese children. *Child Development*, 74(3): 710-727.

Clarke-Stewart, A. & Friedman, S. 1987. *Child development: Infancy through adolescence:* New York : John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Cole, D.A., Maxwell, S.E, Martin, J.M., Peeke, L.G., Seroczynski, A.D., Tram, J.M., Hoffman, K.B., Ruiz, M.D., Jacquez, F., Mascman, T. 2001. The development of multiple domains of child and adolescent self-concept: A cohort sequential longitudinal design. *Child Development*, 72(6): 1723-1746.

Collins, J. 2000. The need to respect and develop a pupil's self-image*. Educational Research*, 42(1):157-166.

Crockett, L.J. & Crouter, A.C. 1995. Pathways through adolescence. Individual development in relation to social context*.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Cunningham, B. 1973. *Child development.* London: Harper Collins Publishers.

Day, R.D., Peterson, G.W. & McCraken, C. 1998. Predicting spanking of younger and older children by mothers and fathers. *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 60(1):79-94.

De La Rey, C., Duncan, N., Shefer, T. & Van Niekerk, A. 1997. *Contemporary issues in human development: South African focus.* Johannesburg: Thompson Publishing Company.

Department of Education 1997. *Policy document Senior Phase Grade 7-9*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom H., Fouche C. B., Poggenpoel M. & Schurink E. W. (1998). *Research at grass roots*. Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik Publishers.

Doyle, A.B., Markiewicz, D., Brendgen, M., Lieberman, M. & Vos, K. 2000. Child attachment security and self-concept: associations with mother and father attachment style and marital quality. Merril Palmer quarterly. *Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 46(3): 514-539.

Duhon, G.M., Manson, T.J. 2000. *Preparation, collaboration, and emphasis on the family in school counseling for the new millennium*. New Yolk: The Edwin Mellen Press.

Dunlop, R., Burns, A. & Bermingham, S. 2001. Parent-child relations and adolescent self-image following divorce: a 10 year study. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 30(2): 117-134.

Du Plooy, J.L., Griesel, G.A.J. & Oberholzer, M.O. 1987. *Fundamental Pedagogics for advanced students*: Pretoria: Haum Publishers*.

Eagle, C. & Coleman, C. 1995. *Your adolescent daughter.* UK: Judy Piatkus Publishers.

Engelbrecht, R., Wentzel, A. & Venter, D. 1999. *Divorce. A South African guide.* Rivonia: Zebra Press.

Feinberg, M.E., McHale, S.M., Crouter, A.C. & Cumsille, P. 2003. Sibling differentiation: Sibling and parent relationship trajectories in adolescence. *Child Development*, 74(5):1261-1274.

Feinberg, M.E., Neiderhiser, J.M., Reiss, D., Hetherington, E.M. & Simmens, S. 2000. Sibling comparison of differential parental treatment in adolescence: Gender, self-esteem, and emotionality as mediators of the parenting adjustment association. *Child Development*, 71: 1611-1628.

Ferreira, G.V., Pretorius, J.W.M., Botha , T.R. & Bender, C.J.G. 1992. *Temas in die Psigo-Pedagogiek.* Pretoria: J.L. Van Schaik Publishers.

Field, T., Diego, M. & Sanders, C. 2002. Adolescent' parent and peer relations. *Adolescence*, 37(145):120-130.

Fowler, H.W. & Fowler, F.G. 1976. *The concise Oxford dictionary.* Oxford: University Press.

Garbarino, J. 1985. *Adolescent development: an ecological perspective.* Ohio: Charles Merril Publishing Company.

Gerdes, L. C., Moore, C., Ochse, R. & Van Ede, D. 1988. *The developing adult.* Durban: Butterworth Publishers.

Gillis, H. 1994. *Counselling Young People. A practical guide for parents, teachers and those in helping professions.* Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers.

Ginsburg, G.S. & Bronstein, P. 1993. Family factors related to children's intrinsic/extrinsic motivational orientation and academic performance. *Child Development*, 64(4):1461-1474.

Gomel, J. N., Tinsley, B. J., Parke R. D. & Clarke K. M. 1998. The effects of economic hardship on family relationships among African-American. Latino and Euro-American families. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19(4): 436-440.

Goodman, C.C. & Silverstein, M. 2001. Grandmothers who parent their grandchildren. *Journal of Family Issues*, 22(5):557-578.

Gouws, E. Kruger, N. Burger, S. 2000. *The adolescent.* Cape Town: Heinemann Publishers.

Grobler, R.C. 1996. *Selfkonsep, tydkonsep en skolastiese prestasie.* Aucklandpark: Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit.

Grolnick, W.S. & Slowiaczek, M.L. 1994. Parents' involvement in children's schooling: a multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development,* 65(1):237-252.

Hamachek, D.E. 1975. *Behaviour dynamics in teaching, learning and growth.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.

Hamachek, D.E. 1987. *Encounters with the self.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Hamachek, D. 1990. *Psychology in teaching, learning and growth.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.

Hamlin, R., Mukerji, R. & Yonemura, M. 1967. *Schools for young disadvantaged children.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Hellmuth, J. 1967*. Disadvantaged child. Volume 1.* New York: Brunner Mazel Publishers.

Hovelmeier, K. 1991. *Common sense and your teenager.* London: Penrose Press.

Hudson, W.W. 1981. Development and use of indexes and scales. In: Grinnel, R.M. (ed). Social work research and evaluation. Itasca, IL: Peaccock, 130-155.

Hurlock, E.B. 1973. *Adolescent development.* London: Mcgraw-Hill, Inc.

Hurrelman, K. & Hamilton, S.F.1996. *Social problems and social contexts in adolescence, perspective across boundaries.* New York: Aldine De Gruyter.

Huston, A.C. 1991. *Children in poverty: Child development and public policy*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge.

Jacobs, L.J. 1981. *Ondersoek na die doeltreffendheid van die emperie opvoedkundige teorie vir pedodiagnose en pedoterapie*. Pretoria: Universiteit van Suid Afrika.

Jaffe, M.L. 1998. *Adolescence*. New York: John Wiley.

Janoski, M.L. 1981. Exercise, changes in aerobic capacity and changes in self-perceptions. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 15: 460-466.

Kanoy, K., Ulku-Steiner, B. Cox, M. & Burchinal, M. 2003. Marital relationship and individual psychological characteristics that predict physical punishment of children. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 17(1):20-28.

Kaplan, D.S., Liu, X. & Kaplan, H.B. 2001. Influence of parents' self-feelings and expectations on children's academic performance. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 94(1): 360-370.

Kimmel, D.C. & Weiner, I.B. 1985. *Adolescence: A developmental transition.* Canada: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Kok, P. & Gelderblom, D. 1994. *Urbanisation: South Africa's challenge. Vol.2 Planning Pretoria*. Pretoria: HSRC Publishers.

Korhonen, V., Laukkanen, E., Peiponen, S., Lehtonen, J. & Viinamiek, H. 2001. Effect of major depression on the self-image of adolescent boys and girls. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 30(6): 697-706.

Kowaleski-Jones, L. & Dunifon, R. 2004. Children's home environments: understanding the role of family structure changes. *Journal of Family Issues*, 25(1):3-28.

Kraaij, V., Garnefski, N., de Wilde, E., Dijkstra, A., Gebhardt, W., Maes, S. & ter Doest, L. 2003. Negative life events and depressive symptoms in late adolescence: bonding and cognitive coping as vulnerability factors. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 32(3): 185-192.

Larson, R. & Richards, M.H. 1994. *Divergent realities:the emotional livesof mothers, fathers and adolescents.* United States of America: Harper Collins Publishers Inc.

Lerner, R.M., Delaney, M., Hess, L.E., Jovanovic, J. & Von Eye, A. 1990. Early adolescent: physical attractiveness and academic competence. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 10:4-20.

Lerner, R.M. & Perkins, D.F. 1999. *Adolescence: development, diversity and context*. New York: Garland Publishing Inc.

Le Roux, J. & Smith, S. 1998. Causes and characteristics of the street child phenomenon: A global perspective. *Adolescence*, 33(131): 683-688.

Levy, K.C. 2001*.* The relationship between adolescent attitudes towards authority, self-concept and delinquency. *Adolescence*, 36(142): 333-345.

Louw, D.A. 1991. *Human development*. Pretoria: HAUM.

Main, H. & Williams, S.W. 1994. *Environment and housing in third world cities*. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Martinot, D. & Monteil, L. 2000. Use of the self-concept I forming preferences by French students of different levels of academic achievement. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 140(1):119-131.

McIntosh, J. 2003. Children living with domestic violence: Research foundations for early intervention*. Journal of Family Studies*, 9(2):219-234.

Menaghan, E.G. & Parcel, T.L. 1995. Social sources of change in children's home environments: the effects of parental occupational experiences and family conditions. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57(1):69-84.

Meyer, W.F., Moore, C. & Viljoen, H.G. 1990. *Personality theories*. Johannesburg: Lexicon Publishers.

Mitchell M. and Jolley J. (1996). *Research design explained*. Philadelphia: Harvard Brace College Publishers.

Moletsane, M.E. & Bouwer, C. 2000. Criteria for effective pre-literacy education in day care centers in informal settlements. *Journal of Education and Training*, 21(2): 30-43.

Morris, M. & Hindson, D. 1997. Society in transition. *Journal of the South African Sociological Association*, 28(1-4): 102-115.

Murry, V.M. & Broddy, G.H. 1999*.* Self-regulation and self-worth of black children reared in economically stressed, rural, single mother-headed families. *Journal of Family Issues*, 20(1): 458-481.

National Department of Education 2002. *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9. Schools Policy on Life Orientation.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

National Research Council 1993*. Losing generations: Adolescents in high risk settings.* Pretoria: National Academy Press.

Nielsen, L. 1996. *Adolescence: A contemporary view.* USA: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Obert, J.C. 1978. *Community nutrition*. New York: John Wiley & Sons Publishers.

O'Dea, J.A. & Abraham, S. 1999. Association between self-concept and body weight, gender and pubertal development among male and female adolescents. *Adolescence*, 34(133): 69-79.

Parke, R.D. 1995. The role of family emotional expressiveness in the development of children's social competence. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57(1):593-608.

Pedersen, P.B. & Carey, J.C. 2003. *Multicultural counselling in schools. A practical handbook*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Publishers.

Peleg-Popko, O. & Klingman, A. 2002. Family environment, discrepancies between perceived actual and desirable environment, and children's test and trait anxiety. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 30(4):451-465.

Pretorius, J. W. M. 1998. *Sociopedagogics 2000.* Pretoria: J. L. Van Schaik. Publishers.

Pretorius, T.B. 1996. The family environment of students self-appraised as effective and ineffective problem solvers. *Psychological Reports*, 79:915-921.
Purkey, W.W. & Stanley, P.H. 1991*. Invitational teaching, learning and living. Analysis and action series.* West Haven: National Education Association Publishers.

Quane, J. M. & Rankin, B. H. 1998. Neighbourhood poverty, family characteristics and commitment to mainstream goals. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19(6): 770-794.

Raath, M.C. & Jacobs, L.J. 1990. *Dinamiek van die selfkonsep.* Pretoria: Academica.

Reber, A.S. 1985. *The Penguin dictionary of Psychology.* England: Penguin Books Ltd.

Republic of South Africa, 1996. *The Constitution*. South Africa: Typeface Media.

Republic of South Africa, 2003. *National Policy on Religion and Education.* Republic of South Africa: Government Printers.

Rice, F.P. 1992. *The adolescent. Development, relationship and culture.* London: Allyn and Bacon Publishers.

Ricciardelli, L.A. & McCabe, M.P. 2001. Children's body image concerns and eating disturbance: A review of the literature. *Clinical Psychology Review,* 21(1):325-344.

Robinson, B.E. & Kelly, L. 1998. Adult children of workaholics: self-concept, anxiety, depression and loss of control. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 26(3) 223-227.

Saegert, S. & Evans, G.W. 2003. Poverty, housing niches and health. *Journal of Social Issues*, 59(3):569-583.

Schmidt, J.A. & Padilla, B. 2003. Self-esteem and family challenge: An investigation of their effects on achievement. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 32(1):37-46.

Shek, D.T.L. 2002. The relation of parental qualities to psychological well-being, school adjustment, and problem behaviour in Chinese adolescents with economic disadvantage. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 30(1):215-230.

Shore, R.J. & Hayslip, B. 1994. *Custodial grandparenting: Implications for children's development.* New York: Plenum Press.

Singleton, R., Straits, B.C., Straits, M.M. & McAllister, R.J. 1988. *Approaches to social research*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Stocker, C.M. & Burwell, R.A. 2002. Sibling conflict in middle childhood predicts children's adjustment in early adolescence. *Journal of Family Psychology*, 16(1):50-57.

Straus, M.A. & Donelly, D.A. 1993. Corporal punishment of adolescents by American parents. *Youth and Society*, 24:419-442.

Suls, J.M. 1993. *The self in social perspective*. University of IOWA. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Thompson, R.A. 2002. *School counseling. Best practices for working in the schools*. New York: Brunner-Routledge Publishers.

Tuckman B.W. 1999. *Conducting educational research*. Philadelphia: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Ullman, C. & Tartar, M. 2001. Psychological adjustment among Israeli adolescent immigrants: A report on life satisfaction, self-concept, and self-esteem. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 30(4):449-463.

Van Dalen, D.B. 1979. *Understanding educational research*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Van den Aardweg, E.M. & Van den Aardweg, E.D. 1993. *Psychology of education, a dictionary for students*. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.

Vandervalk, I., Spruijt, E., De Goede, M., Meeus, W. & Maas, C. 2004. Marital status, marital process, and parental resources in predicting adolescents' emotional adjustment. *Journal of Family Issues*, 25(3):291-314.

Van Vuuren, J.C.G. 1976. *Orientering in die pedagogiek: a study guide for beginners*. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Von der Lippe, A.L. 2000. Family factors in the ego development of adolescent girls. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 29(3): 373-391.

Vrey, J.D. 1979. *The self-actualising educand.* Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Wagner, B.M. & Phillips, D.A. 1992. Beyond beliefs: parent and child behaviours and children's perceived academic competence. *Child Development*, 63(4): 1380-1391.

Wanjohi, G.J. 1981. *The child and his environment in black Africa: an essay on traditional education.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wells, D., Miller, M., Tobacyk, J. & Clanton, R. 2002. Using psychoeducational approach to increase the self-esteem of adolescents at high risk for dropping out. *Adolescence*, 37(146):431-434.

Weigel-Garrey, C.J., Cook, C.C. & Brothersson, M.J. 1998. Children and privacy: choice, control and access in home environments. *Journal of Family Issues*, 19(1): 43-64.

West, C.K., Fish, J.A. & Stevens, R.J. 1980. General self-concept, self-concept of academic ability and school achievement: implications for "causes" of self-concept. *Australian Journal of Education*, 24(2):194-213.

Wicklund, R. A. & Eckert, M. 1992. *The self-knower*. *A hero under control*. New York : Plenum press.

Wong, E.H., Wiest, D.J. & Cusick, L.B. 2002. Perceptions of autonomy support Parent attachment, competence and self-worth as predictors of motivational orientation and academic achievement: an examination of sixth and ninth grade regular education students. *Adolescence*, 37(146): 255-266.

Wooden, W.S. & Blazak, R. 2001. *Renegade kids, suburban outlaws from youth culture to delinquency.* USA: Wadsworth. Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data.

Woodward, L., Fergusson, D.M., & Belsky, J. 2000. Timing of potential separation and attachment to parents in adolescence: Results of a prospective study from birth to age 16. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(1):162-174.

Wright, A. 2003. Context, competence and cultural diversity: religious education in a European setting. *Journal of Beliefs and Values*, 24(1):111-117.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Kindly complete this questionnaire. Please do not consult fellow students when you answer. If you do not understand a question, ask for help. Your contribution is vital. You need not write your name.

INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Read each question and its answers carefully.
Please do not write anything on this questionnaire.
Choose the answer that best suits you and write down the number that corresponds with your answer, on the separate answer sheet provided. For example, if you are a girl you will write a I next to question 1. Choose only one answer for each question.

PART ONE:

1. I am a: girl= 1   V2
          boy=2

2. I am in Grade: 7=1   V3
                  8=2
                  9=3
                  10=4
                  11=5
                  12=6

3. The number of children at home (including myself) is: one =1   V4
                                                         two =2
                                                         three =3
                                                         four =4
                                                    five or more=5

4. I belong to the following religion: Christianity=1   V5
                                       Hindu=2
                                       Islam=3
                                  African Judaism=4
                                       Other=5

5. I stay with: both parents =1   V6
          One parent only=2
             Grandparents =3
             Guardians =4
             Other =5

PART TWO:
Choose the number that describ.s you or your situation best. The numbers have the following meaning:

strongly disagree=l disagree=2
uncertain=3 agree=4
strongly agree=5

6. I live in a home with electricity.	V7
7. My home has running water.	V8
8. My toilet at home is in the form of a pit.	V9
9. I live in a shack..	V10
10. I stay with people that love me.	V11
11. I am unhappy at home.	V12
12. I would prefer to stay elsewhere.	V13
13. My mother is illiterate.	V14
14. My father is illiterate.	V15
15. We have a stable income.	V16
16. We have problems with money.	V17
17. I am hungry often.	V18
18. I have enough clothes.	V19
19. I have full school uniform.	V20
20. My parents/guardian generally pay for my educational tours.	V21
21. My home environment is peaceful.	V22
22. My home environment is characterised by fights.	V23
23. There is crime in my neighbourhood.	V24
24. My parent/guardian drinks a lot.	V25
25. My parents/guardian are too strict.	V26
26. My parents/guardian are cold hearted.	V27
27. My parents/guardian are interested in me.	V28
28. My parents/guardian generally talks with me nicely.	V29
29. My parents/guardian are generally at home.	V30
30. My parents/guardian loves me.	V31
31. I am proud of my religion.	V32
32. Religion means a lot to me.	V33
33. I get strength in religion.	V34
34. I get angry when people criticize me.	V35
35. My family ignores me most of the time.	V36
36. I am sad most of the time.	V37
37. I cry often.	V38
38. I am happy.	V39
39. I feel safe.	V40
40. I am afraid often.	V41
41. People often hurt me.	V42
42. I feel that I am unwanted in the family.	V43
43. I feel a strong bond between me and my parents/guardian.	V44

44. My parents/guardian make me happy.	V45
45. My parents /guardian are always there for me.	V46
46. My family supports me.	V47
47. I am satisfied with my weight.	V48
48. I have a pretty face.	V49
49. I appreciate the way I look.	V50
50. My complexion makes me shy.	V51
51. I am ugly.	V52
52. My parents reject me due to my physical appearance.	V53
53. People tease me a lot due to my looks.	V54
54. People give me nicknames due to my appearance.	V55
55. I am actively involved in sport.	V56
56. I am good at physical activities.	V57
57. I am well built.	V58
58. My weight is wrong.	V59
59. I am fat.	V60
60. I am healthy.	V61
61. I talk freely with my parents/guardian.	V62
62. I am loved at home.	V63
63. My friends care a lot about me.	V64
64. My parents want to see me happy.	V65
65. I am shy to express my opinion with my friends.	V66
66. I am popular.	V67
67. My teachers generally like me.	V68
68. I have a bad relationship with my parents.	V69
69. Teachers support me.	V70
70. Other children exclude me from their games.	V71
71. Often times people make silly jokes about me.	V72
72. At school the children reject me.	V73
73. I always get support at home with my home-work.	V74
74. I am encouraged by my family to do well at school.	V75
75. My parents/guardian check my books.	V76
76. My home has many books that I can read.	V77
77. My parents/guardian encourage me to ask a teacher questions in class so that I can understand the work.	V78
78. My family console me when I need it.	V79
79. My family is always proud when I pass tests.	V80
80. My family tells me I am stupid.	V81
81. My family is disinterested in school.	V82
82. I do many household chores that take my time.	V83
83. I have difficulty to study at home due to noise.	V84
84. Due to hunger I am unable to concentrate in class.	V85
85. I miss many lessons in a year because of family responsibilities.	V86
86. Nobody cares about my schoolwork at home.	V87
87. I do well at school.	V88
88. I struggle with home-work..	V89
89. Schoolwork is difficult.	V90
90. I am clever.	V91
91. I learn easily.	V92
92. I will pass matric.	V93

93. I often fail tests.   V94

No.	Statement	Code
93.	I often fail tests.	V94
94.	I study easily.	V95
95.	I often help others with their work.	V96
96.	My books are neat.	V97
97.	I study hard.	V98
98.	I am good at maths.	V99
99.	I struggle with my schoolwork.	VIOO
100.	I am stupid.	VIOl

Thank You

Faculty of Education   **UNISA**   **Fakulteit Opvoedkunde**
Department of Primary School   Departement Prlmere Skool
Teacher Education   Onderwysersopleldlng
Fax: (012) 429-3444   Faks: (012) 429-3444

Prof FE Gauws

Department Primary School Teacher Education

AJH 7-42

2004.01.26

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that the following person is a student at the University of South Africa:

- **Student:**   **M D Magano**

- **Student number:**   **4497252**

- **Titel:**   **The relationship between** a **disadvantaged home environment and the self concept of children:** A **guidance , and counselling perspective.**

She is busy with her DEd (Psychology of Education)

In order to complete her degree she needs to conduct empirical research in various schools.

Yours faithfully

Prof FE Gouws (Promotor)

BOJANALA EAST REGION
MABOPANE APO.
HEBRON-KLIPGAT CIRCUIT .

TEL. (012) 702-5211
DATE: 27 JANUARY 2004

TO: THE PRINCIPAL: TLHAKO-A THAMAGE MIDDLE SCHOOL.
RE: RESEARCH BY ME. M.D. MAGANO.　　　　　PERSAL: 90111320

Permission is hereby granted to me. M.D. Magano To do research at your school for
her PhD-study in education at Unisa with the theme:
"The relationship between disadvantaged home environment and the self-concept 0'
children. A guidance and councelling perspective."

We wish her all the luck se deserves for completion of this research as it will benefit
not only your school community but also education by and large.

I. A. KOTZE

 ISC

BOJ ANALA EAST REGION
MABOPANE APO.
HEBRON-KLIPGAT CIRCUIT

TEL. (012) 702-5211

DATE: 27 JANUARY 2004

TO: THE PRINCIPAL: MMANOTSHE MODUANE HIGH SCHOOL.

RE: RESEARCH BY ME. M.D. MAGANO. PERSAL: 90111320

Permission is hereby granted to me. M.D. Magano To do research at your school for her PhD-study in education at Unisa with the theme: .'The relationship between disadvantaged home environment and the self-concept 01 children. A guidance and councelling perspective.

We wish her all the luck se deserves for completion of this research as it will benefit not only your school community but also education by and large.

I. A. KOTZE
ISC

TLHAKO-A-THAMAGA MIDDLE SCHOOL

P. O. Box 538
Ga-Rankuwa
0208
Tel: (012) 7060118

2004.02.04

TO l\l1RS M.D. MAGANO

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Permission is herewith granted to Mrs M.D. Magano to conduct a research at the above named school in respect of her Doctoral studies.

We trust that your findings will benefit the school and the community at large.

Yours truly

Mrs L. M. Mogotsi (Principal)

MMANOTSHE MODUANE HIGH SCHOOL

<div align="right">

P. O. Box 89
Ga-Rankuwa
0208

Tel. (012) 7022150

</div>

ALL CORRESPONDENCE TO BE ADDRESSED TO THE PRINCIPAL

I
TO: MRS M.D. MAGANO

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

This serves to prove that permission has been granted to Mrs M.D. Magano to conduct research at the above-named school in respect of her Doctoral studies.

It is hoped that the findings from her research will benefit the school and the community at large.

Yours truly

Mr Nakana PA (Principal)