

BLACK CHILDREN'S PERCEPTION OF FAMILY LIFE

by

VUYISWA CHARITY XALA

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIAL SCIENCE

in the subject

SOCIAL WORK

at the

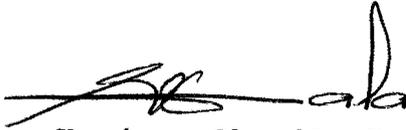
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR K J COLLINS

NOVEMBER 1992

DECLARATION

I declare that: Black Children's Perception of Family Life is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference.


Vuyiswa Charity Xala

November 1992

UNISA BIBLIOTEK / LIBRARY 1993-09-1 305.2350968 Aanwin
--

XALA



01501935

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to :

- *My parents, Maud Busisiswe and my late father, Gilbert Whitefield Xala;*

- *My late most wonderful grandmother (Mama), Beatrice Thandiwe Mthembu (Shenge), and;*

- *"B" for his intellectual, emotional and unwavering support*

ABSTRACT

This study explored youth perception of family life. 40 adolescents living with both parents and siblings, who were 16 years of age and residing in an urban area of Orlando West, Soweto, participated in the study. These adolescents were divided into two groups i.e. the "promising" and the "problem" groups. Data was gathered using an interview schedule arranged in six categories viz. personal background, parental system, family relationships, discipline, sibling relationships and parent-adolescent communication. To analyse data use was made of frequency of tables through chi-square. The results revealed a significant statistical difference in the responses of the two adolescent groups. The major findings were that the two groups came from almost identical socio-economic backgrounds but their family environments were different. This had an influence on their behaviour and their perception of their home life. The "promising" group showed more positive interactions while the reverse was the case with the "problem" group.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My grateful expressions of appreciation are extended to:

- *Dr K.J. Collins for her professional inspiration.*

- *All the children who were part of this study and their families for their absolute support and cooperation.*

- *The schools, churches, at Orlando West, the Phefeni youth club and the respective leaders for their cooperation and assistance, special thanks to Mr R. Lepshe, Mrs Mjiyako and Mrs B. Pole.*

- *The principal of Mdlamfe High School at Esikhawini and his staff, where a pilot study was undertaken.*

- *Mrs Ntsiki Langa, Senior Social Worker with the Transvaal Provincial Administration at Albert Street Johannesburg, for agreeing to be interviewed, to share her ideas and insight about the problem adolescent.*

- *Mr Lesley J. Mdlalose for his support and patience in providing transport for home visits.*

- *Mr L.M. Nene, Senior Lecturer Department of Psychology at the University of Zululand, who served as the statistical consultant.*

- *My cousin sister, Miss Bongekile Mkize for her sacrifice in typing.*

- *My brothers, Mthuthuzeli and Thamsanga for their constant love and support.*

TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Declaration</i>		<i>PAGE</i> <i>(i)</i>
<i>Dedication</i>		<i>(ii)</i>
<i>Acknowledgements</i>		<i>(iii)</i>
<i>Abstract</i>		<i>(iv)</i>
<i>CHAPTER 1</i>	<i>- INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION</i>	
1.1	<i>- Problem Formulation</i>	<i>1</i>
1.2	<i>- Motivation for the research</i>	<i>4</i>
1.3	<i>- Objectives of the investigation</i>	<i>9</i>
1.4	<i>- Hypotheses under investigation</i>	<i>10</i>
1.5	<i>- Method of investigation</i>	<i>12</i>
1.6	<i>- Shortcomings and limitations of this study</i>	<i>17</i>
1.7	<i>- Definition of concepts</i>	<i>18</i>
1.8	<i>- Presentation of contents</i>	<i>21</i>
<i>CHAPTER 2</i>	<i>- THEORETICAL AND LITERATURE STUDY</i>	<i>22</i>
2.1	<i>- Introduction</i>	<i>22</i>
2.2	<i>- The concept adolescence</i>	<i>23</i>
2.3	<i>- The family as focus</i>	<i>26</i>
2.4	<i>- Family relationships</i>	<i>29</i>
2.5	<i>- Parent-adolescent communication</i>	<i>40</i>
2.6	<i>- Resume</i>	<i>47</i>

CHAPTER 3	- THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE AFRICAN TRADITIONAL FAMILY LIFE AND THE EFFECTS OF CHANGE ON ADOLESCENTS	48
		48
3.1	- <i>Introduction</i>	48
3.2	- <i>Extended family</i>	48
3.3	- <i>The family and socialization</i>	51
3.4	- <i>Inhlonipho/ukuhlonipha (respect)</i>	54
3.5	- <i>Children and change</i>	55
3.6	- <i>Resume</i>	58
CHAPTER 4	- EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	59
4.1	- <i>Introduction</i>	59
4.2	- <i>The problem</i>	59
4.3	- <i>Data necessary to achieve study objectives and to test the research hypothesis</i>	61
4.4	- <i>Method of investigation</i>	61
4.5	- <i>The procedure</i>	73
4.6	- <i>Presentation and analysis of data</i>	74
4.7	- <i>Resume</i>	75

CHAPTER 5	-	PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS.	76
5.1	-	<i>Introduction</i>	76
5.2	-	<i>Personal background information</i>	76
5.3	-	<i>Parental system</i>	79
5.4	-	<i>Family relationships</i>	84
5.5	-	<i>Parent-adolescent relationship (discipline)</i>	97
5.6	-	<i>Sibling Relationship</i>	106
5.7	-	<i>Parent-adolescent communication</i>	110
5.8	-	<i>Resume</i>	114
CHAPTER 6	-	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	118
6.1	-	<i>Introduction</i>	118
6.2	-	<i>Restatement of objectives</i>	118
6.3	-	<i>Hypotheses reviewed</i>	124
6.4	-	<i>Recommendations</i>	131

REFERENCES CITED

138

APPENDIXES

<i>A</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>Questionnaire</i>	<i>151</i>
<i>B</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>Interview Schedule</i>	<i>153</i>
<i>C</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>List of tables</i>	<i>170</i>
<i>D</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>Chi-square results</i>	<i>198</i>

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND ORIENTATION

1.1 PROBLEM FORMULATION

The number of children behaving anti-socially (e.g. running away from home, committing burglary and theft, taking drugs and playing truant) is on the increase, and the community is full of young adolescents, who have lost respect for themselves and society. The family is a context within which a wide range of behaviours has implications for a wide range of self-attributions. Gabarino, Schellenbach and Sebes (1986:13), state that the majority of parents say that the adolescent years are the most difficult ones for childrearing. They found that the ages 14-18 were ranked the most difficult, followed by the 10-13 year period. One reason for this is the pressure to rearrange family power relationships and adjust to new actors in the child's social field.

The manner in which parents respond to the adolescent's quest for autonomy depends partly upon the type of family structure present as defined by the cohesion, flexibility, authority and affection. In authoritarian homes there is little or no allowance for freedom on the adolescent's part. If authoritarian parents are unwilling to divest themselves of any power and continue trying to maintain their dominance over the adolescent, they run the risk of facing a combination of rebellion and dependency from the adolescents. If adoles-

cents are successful in challenging parental authority, they may become rebellious; if parental discipline has been severe and unjust without much love and affection, teenagers may become overtly aggressive and hostile. The adolescent may leave home and become involved in delinquent activities. On the other hand if children are completely dominated and have no success in challenging parental authority, they may become meek and conform to the parent's dictates. Both extremes show some emotional difficulty and have trouble to mature identity (Gamble & Garbarino, 1985).

In black South African families, there is an increase in the number of children running away from their homes and/or referrals to places of safety or institutions. South African statistics reveal the fact that there are about 9000 children between seven and sixteen years of age (black and coloured), that are runaways i.e. street children (Cockburn, 1991). In the Transvaal, projects viz. Twilight, Proccess and Streetwise, have been established to aid runaways. These projects aided about 400 runaway youths, a comparatively small proportion of those who were estimated to be in need (According to Cockburn 1991 Transvaal statistics are: 1827). Of this number 90% are males with females tending to turn to prostitution. Cockburn (1991:6), cites Zichter who comments as follows:

"Street children are those who have abandoned (or have been abandoned by) their homes, schools and immediate family before they are 16 years of age and have drifted into nomadic street life. The term "street child" does not denote any "a priori" set of child/family relationships: instead, a particular child may fall anywhere along a continuum of different degrees of connectedness with their family or kin".

On the other hand, Cemane in SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE (1990), states that street children comprise a group of poorly socialized children, failing to develop commitments and attachments within society. Also, these children have no stable family background which normally provides succour and solace.

Hersch (1988:31), says that contrary to a lingering perception of runaways as adolescents' adventures, most of them are victims of dysfunctional families and are fleeing from a stressful environment. Furthermore, the author points out that, not only must runaways cope with extreme danger and stress of street life, but a large majority of these young people are also beset by severe emotional problems.

The adolescent-parent relations are a peculiar area of stress, according to Newman & Newman (1979:517). Conflicts with parents and familial disruptions continue to be associated with a number of forms of deviant adolescent behaviour, including juvenile delinquency, running away from home, truancy, sibling violence and drug abuse. In other words the pattern suggests that the quality of adolescent-parent relations and the background context of the parents' relation-

ship with each other continue to be relevant dimensions that can support or disrupt the adolescent growth.

The major objective of this study, is therefore, to explore and describe the aspect of parent-adolescent relations from the vantage point of adolescents - how they perceive and interpret their home life and their relations with both parents and siblings, and the effects these perceptions have upon subsequent attitudes and behaviours. The study assumes that the way the adolescents perceive their family life influences the way that adolescents actually behave in the surroundings.

The measure of family relationships includes adolescent's perception of their relationship but excludes the perception of their parents. Jessop (1981:95), states that children are better reporters of family life than parents. Furthermore, the symbolic interaction theory, states that, in order to understand the effects of childrearing practices on the child, it is necessary to examine the child's interpretation of the situation that is most significant for him.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The family is generally considered as an important context for the development of the child's self-concept. It is the place where our initial sense of self is formed through intimate, intensive, and extensive interaction with parents and other family members (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986).

Journal

It is the responsibility of parents to prepare the child to live the most meaningful life. Values, norms, sentiments, sensitivity, understanding for others, social competence and prosocial attitudes should be developed in the child. These issues are becoming more important and vital in our modern society (Cemane, 1990). Most of the challenges faced by parents with adolescents in black urban areas are due to the fact that urban areas are poor in terms of resources, yet they are characterized by overcrowding, lack of privacy for both parents and their child, a high rate of crime, and unemployment. Thus parents are faced with an enormous task of socializing their children, or the family living under these conditions.

Garbarino & Gillian (1980:13) state that the task of being a parent to an adolescent and an adolescent to a parent, is substantially different from the parent-child relationship in several ways. Each of these has implications for the origins and impact of adolescent maltreatment. The adolescent's power is much greater than that of the child's. This includes physical power and the capability for physical retaliation if assaulted by a parent. It goes beyond this, however, to include the power to stimulate and influence family conflict, to leave the family situation, to harm oneself and others, to embarrass the parents and other adults, and to help oneself and others. This enhanced power that comes with adolescence is often a destabilizing force, particularly with parents and adolescents having little motive or facility for flexible negotiation and compromise.

Projects that aid runaways have been established in most major cities of South Africa viz. Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg. This reflects that the problem youth is on the increase. THE STREET CHILDREN PROJECT (1991:30), assert as follows:

"All the major centres in the Country are experiencing an increasing influx of children on the streets. These children are in some cases abandoned by their parents, in other instances they are unfortunate sufferers of broken homes, victims of abuse, runaways escaping the poverty of rural areas and overcrowded townships, seeking a better way of life in the cities".

From the researcher's own experience of one and a half years these children find it difficult to adjust in the new environment; the same as not adjusting in places of safety or institutions because they abscond. Personal interviews with both professional social workers and the children themselves confirm the fact that the majority of children in the streets, are children who have absconded from places of safety or institutions. Most of them besides having experienced abuse from their families, have been further abused in the streets, and are abusing each other as well. Thus the damage is being done even further. A picture emerges of a deficient youth, lacking the normal stages of child growth and development, but acting like hardened adults.

1.2.1 IMPORTANCE AND POSSIBLE CONTRIBUTION TO SOCIAL WORK

Hall & Rose (1987:3), state that conflict between adolescents and their parents is a social problem of interest to many social work practitioners. This form of interpersonal conflict between parents and adolescents has been considered as necessary by some and exaggerated by others. Sometimes parent-adolescent conflict is described as the problem, although at other times conflict is reported as secondary to another presenting problem, for example, adolescent depression resulting from job loss, and obesity of one family member.

In many welfare agencies, the applicant for treatment is typically the parent with the adolescent best described as a "resister". Transforming one or both into clients is one of the first tasks for the social worker. In some cases however the parent may be seeking treatment for the adolescent who is unwilling to take part. It is not clear who of these parties needs treatment, although the intensity and chronicity of the conflict would seem relevant, as well as the individual pathologies of the parent and adolescent.

According to Siegel & Senna (1988:265), the family is believed to play an important role in the production of youth crime. It follows that improving family functioning can help prevent delinquency. Consequently it is common to find counsellors working with the families of anti-social youths as part of a court-ordered treatment strategy. Family

counselling and therapy is almost suspected to be the result of family related problems such as abuse or neglect.

Another approach to involving the family in delinquency prevention is to attack the problem before it occurs. According to the above authors, Patterson's long research into the life-style of anti-social children convinced him that poor parenting skills are associated with anti-social behaviour occurring in the home and at school. Family disruption and coercive exchange between parent and children led to increased family tension, poor academic performance, and negative peer relations. The primary cause of the problem seemed to be that parents did not know how to discipline their children in an effective manner.

This study contributes to this literature because it will determine how children view and interpret their home life as a whole. The evaluation will be unique, in that, much of the existing body of research on "problem" youth is based on samples from the police, institutions, hospital and protective services. This has biased designs and findings against adolescent victims who are less likely to be identified and served by these agencies.

Garbarino et al. (1986:17) state that to increase the likelihood of families succeeding in adapting to adolescence, we need a community that is rich in social support, formal support services such as parent education programmes and counselling services, as well as informal support services such as social networks, mutual help groups and positive

neighbourhoods. In black communities such resources are not available. To increase the probability that adolescents will make a successful transition to adulthood, adolescents need stable, supportive and protective relationships with their parents.

Strengthening parent-child relationships can be the key to successful rehabilitation programmes. There is a need to move away from the traditional treatment approaches viz. treatment of adolescent only - institutionalization and family treatment and to focus more on community preventative approach - those that will also enrich black communities with resources.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE INVESTIGATION

The objectives of this investigation are :

1. To conduct a literature search on black adolescents' perception of family life with special reference to family relationships and communication which influence the adolescent's behaviour, self-esteem and adjustment to both the home and outside environments.
2. To explore the relationships of black adolescent children and their parents and consequent perceptions of the adolescents towards their home life.

3. *To analyse how the family structure and family relationships may be contributory factors to anti-social behaviour.*
4. *To examine the specific social needs of black adolescents in an urban area.*
5. *On the basis of empirical findings to explore alternative social welfare helping measures for the black urban youth/adolescent.*

1.4 HYPOTHESES UNDER INVESTIGATION

The hypotheses are tested by a comparison of two groups which differ on a number of variables, operationalised by criteria in a questionnaire (presented in Appendix A).

1. *Conflict and tension between parents affect parent-child relationship and are associated with poor adjustment in children.*
2. *Delinquent-producing families often engage in dysfunctional patterns of behaviour. These maladaptive family systems generally fail to cope with various crises within the family, such as the delinquency of a child. In addition, the dysfunctional pattern makes it difficult for youngsters to satisfy their needs within the family and thus motivates them to fulfil their needs elsewhere.*
3. *A person's family situation and his concept of himself are directly and positively related. If the individual's*

family interaction is perceived as positive, the individual will feel positive about himself. If he perceives a negative family interaction, he will have a negative self-concept.

- 4. An adolescent who has been identified as engaging in delinquent activities will view his parents and his relationship with them more negatively than will an adolescent who has not been so identified.*
- 5. Poorly adjusted adolescents come from home settings where family relationships are perceived as poor and where the adolescents perceive an unconstructive type of training and guidance.*

The variables contained in the hypotheses are operationalised in an interview schedule (presented in Appendix B).

1.5 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

1.5.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

As little is known about the objectives of this study, this work is exploratory research. Collins in McKendrick (1987:256), states that the principal objective of exploratory research is to refine concepts and develop questions and hypothesis for further research.

This suits the researcher's purpose in wishing to explore factors which could have a positive effect and those which could have a negative effect on the adjustment of children in their home environment, with a view to conducting more precise research in the future.

1.5.2 METHOD USED IN THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

An extensive investigation of relevant literature is an important component of the research methodology and includes:

- *The concept "adolescence"*
- *The family as focus*
- *Family relationships i.e. parental system, parent-adolescent relationship (discipline), and sibling relationships*
- *Parent-adolescent communication*

This facilitated the systematization and analysis of information obtained. The methods of data collection used in this study were a questionnaire and an interview based on a schedule with adolescent children.

The questionnaire entitled "Adjustment pointers" was given to school principals and teachers, youth leaders and church ministers to identify "promising"/socially behaved and "problem"/anti-socially behaved youths. Data collected during the interview followed a prepared interview schedule covering the following areas:

- *Personal background*
- *Parental system*
- *Family relationships*
- *Parent-adolescent relationships (discipline)*
- *Sibling relationship and*
- *Parent-adolescent communication*

1.5.3 UNIVERSE OF THE STUDY

The study involves a population of black adolescent children of sixteen (16) years, who have both parents and siblings all of whom live in an urban area of Orlando West, Soweto.

There are two groups participating in the study. The first group involves twenty (20) children from diverse community institutions viz. high schools, higher primary schools, youth club and church youth in the area of Orlando West. They were identified (using the "adjustment pointers" questionnaire), as "promising"/socially behaved. The second group has twenty (20) children also from diverse community institutions viz high schools, higher primary schools, a youth club and church youth in the area of Orlando West. They were identified (using the "adjustment pointers" questionnaire), as "problem"/anti-socially behaved.

1.5.4 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHODS

According to Grinnell (1988:251), non-probability samples are suited to exploratory studies, where the interest is in obtaining as much unique data on research questions as possible. The non-probability sampling procedure used in this study is accidental sampling.

The researcher visited four high schools, ten higher primary schools, a youth club and five churches - all found in the area of Orlando West. Meetings were held with leaders of the above institutions i.e. school principals and teachers, youth leaders and church ministers, and they were each given a questionnaire entitled "Adjustment pointers" - formulated by the researcher. A copy of this questionnaire is included in Appendix A and is described in a subsequent section of this report. The leaders were given a brief account of the relevance of the research from their point of view and were thus

kindly requested to complete one questionnaire for each of ten adolescent children in their institutions who were chosen as follows:

- 1. A maximum of five adolescents who did not present any marked behaviour problem in school or youth club or church are generally identified as "promising"/socially behaved.*
- 2. A maximum of five adolescents whose behaviour gave cause for concern and were generally identified as "problem"/anti-socially behaved. Leaders were notified that, if there were no adolescent in their school or youth club or church, who fell into this category, they were requested to submit a "nil return".*

On agreement with the leaders, the researcher collected the completed questionnaire five days after. A total of 200 completed questionnaires were collected, i.e. 100 questionnaires had names and addresses of those adolescents identified as "promising" and the other 100 had names and addresses of those adolescents identified as "problem". From these questionnaires, a sample of forty was drawn by using random digit procedure - twenty identified as "promising" and twenty identified as "problem".

1.5.5 DATA COLLECTION

The following procedure of data collection was adopted for the purpose of the study:

All adolescent children were interviewed privately in their homes during a one and half to two hour period.

This was to protect the confidentiality of subjects and to ensure honesty in the replies to potentially sensitive topics such as marital conflicts, adolescents' perceptions of parental discipline and participation in communication within the family.

The data collected was presented in terms of numerical frequencies which were also converted to percentages for clearer presentation in the form of tables. Also frequency and distribution of tables through chi-square, was deemed suitable for analysing this data. The findings were qualitatively described.

1.5.6 DURATION OF THE STUDY

The adolescents were interviewed at their homes between the months of August and October 1991. Time spent by the researcher with each adolescent was approximately two hours.

1.6. *SHORTCOMINGS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY*

The following limitations are inherent in the study:

The study is limited to children from urban areas and therefore excludes views of those from rural areas.

The study is limited to the perception of the member relationships and does not include perception of relationships with peers, teachers and other significant people and forces in the child's environment (e.g. extended family influences).

The dearth of relevant literature on the African community compelled the researcher to consult overseas literature which does not reflect the cultural context of the sample under investigation.

1.7 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Certain key concepts used in this study are as follows:

PERCEPTION - denotes a process by which an individual selects, evaluates and organizes stimuli from external environment.

CHILDREARING - refers to activities by which children acquire the knowledge, skill and values in the family to which they belong.

PARENTS - Blustein (1982:40), defines parents as those adults who are most personally and emotionally involved with the child on a day-to-day basis and who have primary responsibility for his or her care and development. The definition of parent goes beyond that of natural parent, and for the purpose of this study, children are considered to have two parents if they have a male and female adult living in their house and who they regard as parents.

PARENTAL SUPPORT - denotes behaviour manifest by a parent towards a child that makes the child feel comfortable in the presence of the parent and confirms in the child's mind that he is basically accepted and approved as a person by the parent (Felson & Zielinski, 1989). For example, parents show support when they praise their children, show affection, and are attentive when children speak. These behaviours communicated acceptance and approval.

FAMILY - means a group of persons united by ties of marriage, blood or adoption constituting a single household, interacting and communicating with each other in their respective social roles of husband and wife, mother and father, son and daughter, brother and sister, and creating and maintaining a common culture.

FAMILY COHESION - denotes the emotional bonding that family members have towards one another and the degree of individual autonomy they experience (Olson, Russell & Sprenkle, 1980). For the purpose of this study, family cohesion refers to the emotional bonding between family members.

FAMILY ADAPTABILITY - Olson & Sprenkle (1980:30), define family adaptability as the ability of the marital or family system, in response to situational or developmental stressors, to alter the relationship rules, roles associated with the system, and power structures maintaining family systems, so as to accommodate and assimilate the necessary changes.

SELF-ESTEEM - denotes, according to Gecas & Schwalbe (1986:38), the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself, it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, successful, significant and worthy. For the purpose of this study, self-esteem denotes the amount of respectful, accepting and concerned treatment that an individual receives from

the other significant people in his life. Also high self-esteem denotes that the individual respects himself, considers himself worthy. Low self-esteem on the other hand denotes self-rejection, self-dissatisfaction, self-contempt.

ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR - refers to a continuum of behaviour which transgresses, that is, included along the continuum is behaviour that is simply unacceptable e.g. truancy, running away, alcohol/drug abuse, theft and provocative behaviour, also known as acting out, problem and delinquent behaviours.

URBAN AREAS - denotes any African township situated next to a city, the residents of which have easy access to such a city, are, on the whole, greatly exposed and subjected to its influence.

1.8 PRESENTATION OF CONTENTS

This dissertation is divided into six parts as follows:

- CHAPTER 1 The orientation and introduction are presented.*
- CHAPTER 2 The literature pertaining to parent-adolescent is reviewed, the terms adolescence, the family and the parent adolescent communication theories are discussed.*
- CHAPTER 3 The literature pertaining to the African traditional family life and the effects of change on adolescents are discussed.*
- CHAPTER 4 The research design and implementation is specified.*
- CHAPTER 5 The results are presented, and interpreted statistically and discussed.*
- CHAPTER 6 The conclusion and recommendations are presented*

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary purpose of this study is to explore and describe the aspect of parent-adolescent relations from the view point of adolescents - how they perceive and interpret their home life and their relations with both parents and siblings, and the effects these perceptions have upon subsequent attitudes and behaviours. The way the adolescents perceive their family life influences the way they actually behave in their surroundings. Weller and Luchterhand (1983:93), cite several authors (Bowlby, 1946; Axelrod, 1952; Bandura & Walters, 1958; (Andry, 1960; Jaffe, 1963; Nye, 1978) when they state that the literature for most part has shown that delinquents have less favourable relationships than non-delinquents. This study contributes to this literature because of the special manner in which the sample was drawn and because of the particular characteristics of the population under study.

- 1. Neighbourhood criteria rather than official court or police records (children's institutions/reform schools), were used to identify those children who behaved in an acceptable manner (socially), and those who behaved anti-socially.*

2. All the youth/adolescents were blacks from different groups in terms of social class and were resident in the Soweto urban township.

Briefly, the study aims at the establishment of an association between specific methods of parenting and the resultant behaviour of children.

In reviewing literature the researcher will concern herself with the concept of adolescence, the family as focus, marital violence, parent-adolescent relationship, sibling relationships and parent-adolescent communication. The above relationships are interrelated, but are discussed separately for a clearer understanding.

2.2 THE CONCEPT ADOLESCENCE

Recent studies of the changes in behaviour throughout adolescence reveal that adolescence is divided into two periods, early and late adolescence. Early adolescence extends from thirteen years to sixteen or seventeen years. This study concerns itself with those black adolescents who are sixteen years old i.e. who are in their early adolescence period.

Most literature is consistent in stating that adolescence is a period in which the young person experiences significant changes in biological makeup, and must find the way to his own generation. In many cultures the adolescent enters a different human milieu simply by no more being a child.

Adults withdraw some protection. Increased self-determination is expected of him. In some rural cultures, he moves directly into adulthood. In most urban cultures the transition is delayed or rapid, insecurity is strong and the need to belong and gain self-confidence is strong.

Staples (1986:147), mentions that the period of adolescence has been generally regarded as a time of identity acquisition and liberation from parental control. For black youths the problem of transition from adolescence to adulthood has been compounded by their unique status in the society. Many, for example, do not have a carefree period in which to acquire their identity as do middle class white youth because they come from relatively poor families, large numbers must find jobs to help in the support of their families. Finding employment in today's job market is not an easy task. Without any special skills and with little education, the majority of black youth are without regular employment of any kind. Because of the high unemployment rate, black youth are over-represented in the crime statistics, among drug addicts, and in other negative social indexes.

The author goes on to say that, there has been a tendency to place the responsibility for the problems of black youth on their disorganized family system. Although it is true that a slight majority of black youth are living in one-parent homes, according to the author, there is reason to question that those types of families produce ineducable and delinquent children. One-parent households are generally poor families and it is the relationship between poverty and neg-

ative youth behaviour that warrants watching. On the other hand, Jones & Pritchard (1980:30), state that single parent families are families in which particular difficulties seem to arise or become more pronounced during adolescence. For instance, there are problems of one parent (usually the mother who has only a small income) being unable to offer the child all the opportunities she would like to offer, being unable to offer adequate control and supervision, and not being able to share in all the child's interests (e.g. watching soccer), are seen to be related to the roles and interests of only one sex. This is not to say that children from single parent families necessarily experience more conflict with their parents than other adolescents, but they are more likely to experience deprivation and lack of opportunity during their childhood and adolescence which may create strains on their relationships with their parents.

According to Atwater (1983:103), adolescents have a strong desire for autonomy. They want to become individuals in their own right, express their own ideas, and live lives uniquely theirs, rather than be puppets dependent on the whims of controlling adults. The author also states that wise parents realise that such desires reflect a natural, normal need that accompanies adolescent maturation, and respect it as such. When parents actively encourage the quest for autonomy, adolescents take pride in doing more things themselves, making more decisions by themselves, and feeling more self-sufficient, but when parents stifle or ignore the need for autonomy, adolescents resort to negative behaviour

such as sullenness, avoidance, rebelliousness, or running away from home. How successfully adolescents move towards autonomy depends largely on the quality of their relationships with their parents and the type of child-rearing methods used in the home. Adolescents with democratic parents may achieve autonomy with relative ease, though not without occasional disagreements and power struggles. Those with either authoritarian or permissive parents, however, are more apt to find this a stormy period in their lives, with a greater degree of conflict and rebellion.

To summarise from the above information, adolescence is an age of searching, of wanting to be someone different from anyone else; yet it is an age filled with the fear of being alone, of being too different. Adolescence is a time when the individual is expected to prepare for adulthood by replacing childish attitudes and behaviour patterns with those of an adult type. Adolescence is a stage of human development. The mission of the adult world is to help teenagers become adults by raising their standards and values to maturity than by lowering adulthood to their insecure maturity. The task for the adult world is to make adolescence a step towards growing up, not a privilege to be exploited.

2.3 THE FAMILY AS FOCUS

This review will focus on the importance of the family in building the personality of the adolescent child. The family is an appropriate focus as, in the words of Minuchin and Fishman (1981:11), it is that natural context of both growth

and healing, and a natural unit which over time has evolved patterns of interacting. These patterns make up a family structure, which governs the functioning of family members, delineating their range of behaviour and facilitating their interaction.

Also, according to the above authors, an adolescent is an integrated part of the family system and his behaviour cannot be considered separate from the family. The behaviour of the adolescent occurs in association with the behaviour of other family members. The association may be remote or close, but to some extent the behaviour of other family members affects the behaviour of the adolescent as does the behaviour of the adolescent affect them.

Atwater(1983:81), explains that every adolescent grows up in some type of family - a group of people related by blood, marriage, or adoption, who share a common household. What the author also reveals, is the fact that despite all the talk about breakdown of the modern family and the rise of peer influence, the family continues to be the major socializing influence in an adolescent's development. The author goes on to state that those teenagers who excel in school and get along with others receive a lot of love and support at home. On the other hand, those who do poorly in school and always get into trouble are likely to be the ones who are abused or neglected by their families.

Hurlock (1983:93), supports the above authors and goes on to state that in spite of the broadened environment of the

teenage child, his home still exerts a marked influence on his development. The author cites Bossard who states that:

"The home is the place the child comes back to with his experiences. It is the lair to which he retreats to lick his wounds: the stage to which he returns to parade the glory of his achievements: the refuge he finds in which to brood over his ill-treatment, real or fancied. In other words, the home is the place to which one brings everyday run of social experience to sift, to evaluate, to appraise, to understand, or to be twisted, to fester, to be magnified or ignored, as the case may be"

The family is regarded as the most significant part of the child's social network. How far-reaching the effects of family relationships are, is apparent in many areas of the child's life, especially in the type of work he does in school and his attitude towards school. Wholesome family relationships lead to motivation to achieve academically what he is capable of, while unwholesome family relationships cause emotional tension, which plays havoc with the child's ability to learn. When family relationships are favourable, the child's social adjustment to people outside the home are better than when family relationships are stressful.

In a nutshell, as Hurlock says, in no area of the child's development do family relationships play a more important role than in his developing personality. What he thinks of himself as a person is a direct reflection of what he believes the different family members think of him as judged by the way they treat him. If they accept him and his abilities without constant pressures to live up to impossible expectations, he will become well adjusted; if not these

pressures will result in emotional disturbances of minor or major seriousness.

2.4 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

Adolescence has been described as a developmental phase marked by a complex set of biological, social and psychological changes. One realm in which such changes are manifested is in family relationships. Richardson, Abramowitz, Asp and Peterson (1986:805), noted that as adolescents become increasingly autonomous and responsible, relations between parents and children undergo a series of changes.

The parent-adolescent relationship may be perceived by parents and adolescents differently because the two have unique history of experiences, their own subjective interpretations and personal references that determine what degree they define their aspect of their environment as being pleasurable or aversive. Paterson (1986:25), cites the social exchange theory, which states that, humans use reason to assess the benefits derived from any relationships, for example parent-adolescent relationship to measure up to the time, energy, skills they must invest to initiate and maintain this involvement. The people involved in a relationship will evaluate whether there are any gains from the interaction, and if the relationship is costly - not valuable, the individual needs to withdraw and start new relationships.

In this section the researcher reviews literature on marital violence, the different types of parental discipline and how

they affect the child. Also included will be the sibling relationship.

2.4.1 MARITAL VIOLENCE/CONFLICT

The relationships present in nuclear families are between spouses (male & female adults), parent and children and siblings. Family violence is defined along these relationships. In this section, the concern is on marital violence/conflict as affecting the adolescent child. The parent-adolescent and sibling relationships are discussed later in this chapter.

According to Tschann (1989:431) with respect to marital conflict, there is considerable evidence in the literature both on divorce and on the intact family that interparental conflict affects the children's adjustment. He cites Hess & Camora (1979) and Rutter (1971), in stating that parental discord seems to have a more negative impact on children than does divorce or father loss. Children in high conflict two-parent families show more social, emotional and behavioural problems than children in low-conflict, one-parent families. According to this author, marital discord appears to be more strongly related to boys' behavioural disturbances and problems of undercontrol than to girls', although girls may develop less noticeable problems of overcontrol.

Several writers (Belsky 1979; Adam, 1989; Ianni, 1989 and Patterson, 1989), support the above statements. They further state that marital conflict can generate divorce or separation and this has a major effect on the adolescents espe-

cially when they are used as scapegoats for the parents, and each parent speaks ill about the other spouse and the adolescent is too confused to choose who of the two is the supportive and reliable resource. Time and frequency of advice giving and discipline for the adolescent is minimised due to marital discord that consumes most of the parents' time. According to these authors, the reaction of adolescents to marital conflict is different according to their age or stages. Early adolescents are more financially affected because they are at a stage where peers value status and the only fuel to maintain status is money. As they are deprived of the monetary resources they rely on anti-social behaviour that include stealing and prostitution.

Furthermore, adolescents are affected psychologically in the case where strong bonds have not been developed between their parents. They lose participation in social gatherings, become withdrawn from their peer group affiliations and reduce performance in other social and educational activities because they feel discouraged about the family conflict. Social effects due to marital conflict have more impact on adolescents who have grown up in controlling families where they did not get opportunities for relationships outside their families. They are not familiar with other relationships outside the family and it becomes very difficult to form new relationships at the time of emotional stress.

Briefly, according to Ohlin & Tonry (1989:169), violence between parents dramatically alters balance of power in a relationship; a sense of openness and trust is destroyed and

there is a permanent sense of inequality, threat and loss. This results in a parent being emotionally stressed. Such a parent tends to be less affectionate and more rejecting to their children (Hetherington, Cox and Cox; 1982). He/she is more emotionally disturbed and less able to control his/her anger. Moreover he/she can become emotionally dependent on his/her children, burdening them with requests for support.

2.4.2 PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP (DISCIPLINE)

Most literature seems to agree that discipline is an inevitable aspect of parent-child relationships (Hoffman, 1980; Medinus & Johnson, 1980; Hurlock, 1983), and parents may choose to and use different disciplinary techniques in dealing with their children. Henderson (1981:90), defines disciplinary techniques as those methods used by parents in an attempt to discourage morally unacceptable thoughts, feelings and actions; to instil within the child a set of moral standards and values that provide the basis for self-controlled behaviour.

After reviewing the research on this subject, Hoffman (1980:79), describes three broad types of parental discipline: power assertion, love withdrawal and induction.

2.4.2.1 POWER ASSERTION

Belsky, Lerner and Spanier (1984:69), state that parents who use power-assertive discipline employ physical punishment, threats of punishment and physical attempts to control their child's behaviour. This type of parent tries to shape, control and evaluate the behaviour and attitudes of the child in accordance with a pre-established absolute standard of behaviour. Such authoritarian parents, according to the authors, stress the value of obedience to their authority and as a result, are likely to favour punitive, forceful disciplinary measures to curb self-will whenever the child's behaviour or beliefs conflict with what the parent thinks is correct. Such parents believe in respect for authority and adhere to an orientation that places heavy emphasis upon the preservation of order and traditional social structure. Thus the authoritarian parent does not encourage verbal give and take, but instead requires that the child accept the word of the parent as defining correct conduct.

The authors continue to explain that those parents who tend to display high levels of control but only modest levels of warmth in parenting, have children who can be described as "conflicted-irritable". Such children tend to be less cheerful and more moody than others. They are apprehensive, unhappy, easily annoyed, passively hostile and vulnerable to stress. Certainly one would be hard-pressed to describe such children as competent in any sense of the word.

Atwater (1983:112), mentions that adolescents reared with the authoritarian method tend to become dependent, submissive and overly conforming on the one hand, or rebellious and hostile on the other. Often they will act compliant and are evasive in the presence of their parents or other authorities, and defiant and resentful of them behind their backs. In either case they remain dependent on some external authority.

Belsky et al. (1984:70), cite Hoffman who found that, the frequent use of power assertion by a parent is associated with weak moral development in the school-age child. They go on to state that children of parents who use power assertion techniques frequently show high levels of aggressive behaviour themselves. In general, aggression seems to be fostered by parenting that is hostile, coercive, and physically punitive. Several psychological processes are responsible for this relationship. Firstly, physically punitive disciplinary practices function as a model of aggression that the child is likely to imitate. Secondly, the frequent use of such hostile discipline teaches the child that physical action in the form of aggression is one viable way to solve interpersonal disputes, and finally, the experience of such hostile care serves to demean the child and thereby places him at a psychosocial disadvantage when it comes to engaging age mates in a pro-social manner. Aggression, in the words of the above authors, may simply be a response that comes all too easily to a child who thinks poorly of himself and frequently fails to attract the good wishes of others, as he would like to.

2.4.2.2 LOVE-WITHDRAWAL

According to Henderson (1981:90), love-withdrawal is a form of discipline in which the parent expresses anger or disapproval of the child's action in a direct but non-physical way. Examples include ignoring or refusing to speak with the child, ridicule, expressing a dislike for the child, and isolating or threatening to leave him or her. The author gives an explanation that love withdrawal is more punitive than power assertion. Whereas power assertive techniques consist of discreet aversive acts that are brief in duration e.g. spanking; love-withdrawal is often much more prolonged, and it presents a much greater threat - the possibility of abandonment, i.e. the child feels completely rejected.

Atwater (1983:112), supports the above views, and goes on to say that parents relying on love-withdrawal give direct but non-physical expression of their anger or disapproval. These parents may refuse to listen to their adolescents, turn their backs on them, or explicitly express their negative feelings towards them. While the withdrawal of love poses no immediate physical threat to the adolescent, it may be more punitive because of its implicit threat of abandonment and may be more prolonged than the authoritarian method, lasting for hours or days.

Furthermore, adolescents reared with the love-withdrawal approach may inhibit expressions of anger for fear of being rejected. They may mistakenly equate their misconduct with

being inferior and go through life with a strong need for approval.

2.4.2.3 INDUCTION

Induction is relatively non-punitive discipline that is characterized by attempts on the part of the parent to reason with children in the hope of making them understand why they should change their behaviour. Examples include detailing of harmful consequences of the child's behaviour for him or her and for others, providing rationales for giving the correct or acceptable responses in various settings, and use of praise to reinforce retributive or morally acceptable conduct. Smith (1983:533), states that induction has been consistently found to be positively correlated with moral development in children and with various other child behaviours generally regarded as desirable.

Belsky et al. (1984:71) say that disciplinary practices that rely upon induction are especially effective when parents are loving and nurturant. He cites Hoffman who found that although love-withdrawal was not consistently related to moral functioning, disciplinary practices that relied upon reasoning were associated with moral development when parents were warm and caring in their general orientation towards the child. The above authors also mention that, this is the case because when parents are regarded as nurturant, there seems to be an intrinsic incentive to the child to value their desires and developmental goals, and thus to behave in a way that meets their expectancies and thereby pleases them.

Parents using the induction or democratic method, according to Atwater (1983:113), explain the reason why their adolescents should conform or change their behaviour. Instead of relying on the fear of punishment or abandonment, they appeal to their adolescent's capacity to understand the situation and their desire for mastery and autonomy. Adolescents growing up with democratically orientated parents tend to be more fortunate in several ways. Firstly, by having assumed privileges and responsibilities on appropriate occasions, they acquire behavioural autonomy at an early age. Secondly, feeling loved and respected by their parents, they may reach emotional autonomy readily, with less need for the approval of others. Thirdly, through regular participation in the decision-making process, these adolescents learn the value of acting in a reasonable and responsible manner.

2.4.3 SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

The sibling subsystem plays an important part in the growth and socialisation of the child. Minuchin and Fishman (1981:19), state that siblings form a child's first peer group. Within this context, children support each other, enjoy, attack, scapegoat and generally learn from each other. They develop their own transactional patterns of negotiating, co-operating and competing. They learn how to make friends and deal with enemies, how to learn from others, and how to achieve recognition. They generally take different positions in the constant give and take, and the process furthers both

their sense of individual choices and alternatives within a system.

Supporting the above authors, Furman & Buhrmester (1985:448), refer to the fact that, siblings are an integral part of most children's social worlds. The emotional ties between siblings are commonly second in strength only to those between parents and children. According to the authors, brothers or sisters can be a source of frequent companionship, help, or emotional support, older siblings can serve as caretakers, teachers or models; in some instances they can even help compensate for absent or distant parents. In their interactions with each other, siblings may acquire many social and cognitive skills that are central to healthy social development.

According to most literature brothers and sisters usually quarrel although they love each other. The feelings of rivalry and jealousy often become intense, but these are accentuated if parents show preferential treatment, or if the children are not equal competitors i.e. if one is more attractive or more intelligent than the other (Einstein & Moss, 1967; Aldous, 1978; Nye, 1978; Hurlock, 1983). In reviewing literature on parental favouritism, the preference of a parent for one child over another, Harris & Howard (1983;46), refer to Freud's comment that being one's mother's favourite frequently leads to a success-inducing feeling of self-confidence. Harris & Howard also reveal that Adler commented as follows:

"It is of utmost importance that neither the father nor the mother should show any favouritism among their children. The dangers of favouritism can hardly be too dramatically put, almost every discouragement in childhood springs from the feeling that someone else is preferred. If one child develops especially well, it is quite likely that he will receive most attention and favour. It is a pleasant situation for him, but the other children feel the difference and resent it. It is not possible for a human being to bear without disgust and irritation the position of being put on a lower level than someone else".

The above authors, further include the long history of parental favouritism in nonscientific writings. Mention is made that parental favouritism was seen as productive of strife in the old testament stories of Jacob and Esau, of Joseph and his brothers, not to mention God's favouring Abel's offering over Cain's. Again, Harris and Howard (1983) point out that this long history, together with the comments of Adler and Freud, strongly suggest that the neglect of parental favouritism is not commensurate with its importance in human affairs and with its unique capacity for engendering antagonism on the part of the family have-nots, those who see the lion's share of parental esteem and affection going to a sibling.

Generally, most studies have focused on the effects of structural variables or constellation variables, such as ordinal position, sex of sibling and age spacing (Sutton-Smith and Rosenberg, 1970; Wagner, Schubert and Schubert, 1979). It is essential that the researcher examines the qualities of sibling relationships in order to understand the influence siblings have. This study focuses on sibling re-

relationships as forming a subsystem to the family environment and that subsystem of socialization leads to the growth and healthy development of the adolescent child. Like discipline, the sibling relationships determine whether the adolescent child experiences the attention from his home environment or neglect/rejection.

2.5 PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION

Clear and effective communication contributes to the family atmosphere leading to a balanced form of adolescent individuation. Communication skills like empathy, supportive demonstrations and effective problem-solving promote family cohesion. Families with moderate levels of cohesion are effective in resolving conflict because they allow open expression of feelings and disagreements among family members. Ineffective communication inhibits constructive individuation by preventing the development of moderate levels of cohesion and adaptability. Communication of this type includes lack of empathy and avoidance of conflict. The ability to send congruent messages encourages a balanced form of autonomy to the adolescent e.g. when the parent says verbally to her adolescent "I love you", she should express the same message non-verbally by smiling and hugging her adolescent.

A web of conflicting messages within the family confuses the adolescents from understanding how they are victimized and how they might seek autonomy. Adolescent individuation in a family structure is facilitated when parents form a united

coalition in relation to children and youth i.e. mothers and fathers form a partnership to exercise leadership and relinquish their authority only gradually as the offspring develop from childhood to adolescence. Healthy families encourage adolescents to express their opinions and to negotiate with their parents, but this can be discouraged if marital problems prevail in the family.

Barnes and Olson (1985:438), mention that communication within the family context is important since it is a "facilitating dimension", in that it facilitates movement of families on the two dimensions of cohesion and adaptability. According to them, the family level analysis indicated a more linear relationship between communication and family cohesion and adaptability. Also, families with good parent-adolescent communication have a higher level of family satisfaction, which means they are satisfied with their level of cohesion and adaptability.

Furthermore, according to the above authors, communication within the family context is particularly important during adolescence, since it affects adolescent identity formation and role taking ability. The authors cite an example of Cooper (1982) who suggest that adolescents who experience the support of their families may feel freer to explore identity issues. Studies by Holland (1972) and Stanley (1978), according to Barnes and Olson found that discussions between parents and children significantly facilitated the development of higher level of moral reasoning in adolescents.

Noller and Bagi (1985:125), on the other hand maintain that communication throughout the period of adolescence represents a crucial factor contributing to the overall family atmosphere. They cite research studies by Matterson (1974), and Sporakowski & Eubanks (1976), which showed a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescent self-esteem, and the academic achievement of the adolescent. The authors also state that the research by Chartier & Goehner (1976), demonstrated the detrimental effects of dysfunctional intra-family communication and the facilitating effects of positive growth-producing communication on self-esteem and well-being.

In their research, the above authors examined the area of parent-adolescent communication across six process dimensions and a number of content areas. The six process dimensions selected are discussed separately as follows:

2.5.1 FREQUENCY AND DURATION

While frequency is a quantitative rather than a qualitative dimension, the authors cite Noller (1984), who pointed out that there is likely to be a strong relationship between the quality of communication in a family and the amount of communication, since punishing and destructive communication generally leads to less time spent in mutual activities and in discussion. Also here, the authors cite Davies and Paolucci (1980), who state that there is some evidence that in this present time families are spending less time together in general communication and activities.

2.5.2 SELF-DISCLOSURE

The value of self-disclosure or open and honest self-expression has been emphasized by workers in the area of mental health and interpersonal relationships. Here, the authors West and Zingle, (1969); Wiebe and Williams, (1972); Wiebe and Scott; (1976), indicate that for adolescents, there is a shift in the target of self-disclosure, with more self-disclosure occurring to peers and less occurring to parents.

2.5.3 INITIATION

Initiation of conversation may reflect either the interest of individuals or the family norms of communication. Adolescents may begin a discussion of a topic which is of interest and importance to them, but there may be rules in the family (either implicit or explicit) whereby certain topics

are usually discussed if cued by specific individuals. The authors cite Homans (1950), who suggested that equal initiation was the most beneficial for members of small groups such as the family. This level of flexibility in initiation means that members can initiate whatever topics they wish to discuss.

According to O'Brien (1978:36), parental communication conveys information regarding the degree to which the child is viewed as an autonomous individual. He cites Laing who theorized that the sense of agency evolves through the experience of being the initiator of events, thoughts and actions. Each time the parent acknowledges the child's spontaneous initiation of interaction, he affirms the child as an agent. If, however, the parent rejects or ignores the child's bids for interaction and interacts with the child only when he can initiate the interaction, the child is never accorded status as an agent.

2.5.4 RECOGNITION

Noller and Bagi (1985:127), cite Rogers, who argued that in communication it is important that the other person's attitude and values are recognized. Lack of recognition may occur at either the content level (where other family members do not share the adolescent's view) or at the process-relational level, where the adolescent is not accepted as an individual with the right to a different point of view.

O'Brien (1978:39), on the other hand refers to Moustakas who describes in more detail the type of parental responses that convey acceptance and respect for the child as an autonomous individual. According to him, respect for the child as an autonomous individual implies that the parent is fully attentive to lead the way, and allows him to say when he is ready for the next step. If the child asks for help, the parent participates not by taking over for the child, but by giving only the help requested. Coaching and giving instructions are avoided as these interfere with the child's spontaneous perceptions of his direct experience.

2.5.5 DOMINATION

Patterns of communicative domination are important to consider when studying parent-adolescent communication, particularly in the later age groups when more equality would be expected. Researchers have pointed out the negative effects of too authoritarian and too laissez-faire styles or parenting (Murray, 1951; Elder, 1962, 1963; Epstein, Bishop and Baldwin, 1982). Epstein and other writers (Forman & Forman, 1981; Epstein, Bishop & Baldwin, 1982), have emphasized the need for flexibility in communication in the family, with scope for the adolescent's self-expression.

O'Brien (1978:38), explains that, the fact that there is the parent who acts as information centre and decision-maker, the experience of being acknowledged is unknown and the child soon learns that his own attempts to make decisions and to act independently must first be sanctioned by the parent.

He becomes unsure of himself, fearful of novel situations and constricts his efforts to reach out in his environment and if the parent-child relationship is limited to particular topics, specialized channels, or unusual skills, one function tends to be overvalued while others remain underdeveloped.

2.5.6 *SATISFACTION*

An individual's rating of satisfaction with communication can serve as an overall indication of the extent to which needs and expectations are being met in certain areas - and, to some extent, it is a global indication of the quality of parent-adolescent communication. It would be expected that satisfaction would be related to other aspects of communication such as frequency, self-disclosure, recognition and domination.

In summary, according to O'Brien (1978:40), the literature on parent-child communication supports that the way in which the parent acknowledges the child's messages is important to his growth and development. The crucial feature in acknowledgement is the recognition accorded to the other. Presumably, non-evaluative acknowledgement of the child's message promotes continuity and clarity in communication, affirms the child's separate existence, and increases the child's awareness of his own thoughts, feelings and actions.

Positive recognition by the parent is likely to foster the sense of self-confidence and mastery that enables the child to explore his environment and to form relationships with his

peers. On the other hand, habitual non-recognition, a preponderance of negative evaluations and coaching by parents are likely to hinder progress towards self-differentiation and suppress exploratory behaviour.

2.6 RESUME

In this chapter literature related to the study has been reviewed. Special attention has been given to the concept of adolescence, the family as focus, family relationships and parent-adolescent communication.

Adolescence is described as a developmental phase marked by a complex set of biological, social and psychological changes. One realm in which such changes are manifested is in family relationships. As adolescents become increasingly autonomous and responsible, relations between parents and children undergo a series of changes. The task for the adult world is to accommodate and support the growing adolescent.

The family is important in building the personality of the adolescent child. The behaviour of the adolescent occurs in association with the behaviour of other family members. What he thinks of himself as a person is a direct reflection of what he believes the different family members think of him as judged by the way they treat him.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE AFRICAN TRADITIONAL FAMILY LIFE AND THE EFFECTS OF CHANGE ON ADOLESCENTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is on reviewing literature on the traditional childrearing patterns that promoted growth and stability in the functioning of the family and especially in the moulding of the child's personality. It is also to review literature that would perhaps provide a background understanding as to why children today are challenging some of these traditional methods. The discussion therefore, involves the concept of the extended family, the family socialization, the concept "ukuhlonipha": (respect) and children and change.

3.2 EXTENDED FAMILY

Most Africans have extended families. These extended families are rooted in African marriage systems for when an African man gets married, his wife does not look after him only, but after all the close relatives of her husband and especially his parents. The married man according to African custom cannot divorce or chase his wife away without the involvement of the parents of his wife and his, who because of the marriage call each other "abalingani" (the equals). Thus after the death of the husband, close members of the family usually meet to decide who should be responsible for the

widow, support and raise the children of the deceased person. This system is referred to in Zulu as "ukungena" (to care for your departed brother's wife).

Through Christianity and education, literate and learned Africans modified the marriage system and attempted to model it along European lines. These changes were half-hearted because "Ilobolo" (cattle provided for the bride) was in most cases strictly adhered to by African Christians. Nevertheless, the effects of modelling the marriage along European lines increased the number of single-headed families, especially in the urban areas. However, despite such modifications, the idea of the extended family was so imbedded in the minds of the African that it could not be eradicated. This was difficult because the African extended family idea is also rooted in the African traditional religion. It is strongly believed that the oldest people are closer to their ancestors. Whenever Africans slaughter goats or cows (a traditional ceremony), to talk to their ancestors, this duty is performed by the oldest person in that family irrespective of sex. Thus, even the most religious (even educated) Africans who profess Christianity are intuitively bound by this idea of the extended family. They feel, for example, that it is cruel to place old people in old age homes. They also support old people to get a blessing from them, "uMvelinqangi" (God) and their ancestors.

Nzimande (1985:50), is more specific on the concept of the extended family. According to him the extended family structure is in general characterized by the following:

"The structure links a wider circle of people who are related by blood or marriage into a network of relatives who normally identify and feel for each other.

It is more durable as a social unit than the nuclear family and continues over a longer period of time. Its growth and decline over the years is affected by fertility, marriage, divorce and mortality.

In many societies it acts also as an effective social welfare system by providing care and support for a variety of categories of dependent people".

The township life and migration from the rural areas to the urban areas have disrupted this "ideal" life of the Africans especially in the urban areas. Coetzee (1986:333), pointed out that in 1980, Africa's city dwellers were 35,7% of its total population; and that in Southern Africa the relation was 46,5%. He further noted that the rate of urbanisation between 1950 and 1980 was 1,98% and that of the third world 4,16% - for Africa the rate between 1975 and 1980 was 5,10% as against 3,62% in Southern Africa. This low rate of percentage in South Africa was due to the effect of the influx control (researcher's comments).

In 1980, 87,9% of all South African whites lived in the cities, 75,3% Coloured, 89,8% Asiatics and 38% Africans. Projections for 1985 for urbanisation of all population groups in South Africa were 90%, 78%, 93% and 40% respectively. According to the above author, it appears as if the Whites and Asiatics, if 90% is taken as standard, have reached their maximum urbanisation range. What we have now, as stated by Coetzee (1986) is African migration. Thus, the violence in squatter settlements can also be understood

against this background of migration to cities where there are no jobs available for the new-comers. This migration has also resulted in drastic change in values and customs of the Africans.

Weyer (1990:11), cites several authors in commenting about the issues of slum dwellings and the generally poor conditions in certain black residential areas. According to the author, Gluecks found that the conditions at home of juvenile offenders were characterized by overcrowding and uncleanness. The development of personality and character is impeded in impoverished, dirty homes while the poor conditions also give rise to a sense of inferiority. Weyer cites Sesay, in stating that inadequate housing and disorientation of the family life lead to misconduct.

3.3 THE FAMILY AND SOCIALIZATION

Kayongo-Male and Onyango (1986:19), state that the most striking characterization of socialization in the African family was the large number of agents of socialization, as opposed to family systems where only parents are involved in the socialization of their own children. According to the authors, the whole community socialized the child in the sense that he could be corrected or disciplined by any adult if he misbehaved. Adults also had full authority to tell any child to perform simple duties, although this authority was not normally abused. If children did not act properly or were disrespectful towards adults, the parents would be blamed but only to a limited extent.

The most important socialization agents, according to the above authors, were: the age group or peer groups system, the grandparents system and the sibling system. The age group or peer group system was rated first in terms of importance. They were usually sex-segregated and supported parental values and duties to the larger kin and ethnic group. Further stated, is the fact that peer groups in most societies are similarly important, but differ in their degree of control over socialization and their support of parental values. Traditional African peer groups in the traditional African society worked in conjunction with parental and kin discipline. They were pro-parental in terms of values they accepted. They exerted control throughout life and they were concerned more with the maintenance of the family or kin values than with larger institutional or national values. The disciplinary methods used by this system were primarily social ostracism, which consisted of open disapproval of bad behaviour and continuous rebukes until the behaviour ceased. The emphasis of the peer group system today, is to be different from their families, and to explore and find its own values.

Grandparents were also important as agents of socialization, since their duties included the introduction of young people to more sensitive topics, such as husband-wife relationship and sexual behaviour as well as the larger societal roles, values and traditions. This therefore means that this system had closer ties with children than their parents did. More communication and self-disclosure took place between these

two systems i.e. the grandparent and youth system. However, today these systems do not enjoy such ties. Burman and Reynolds (1986:255) cite Roux's interviews that describe the perceptions of the two systems. They state:

"Both the young and the older generations were very aware of the difference in outlook between the two groups. Among the older there was incomprehension and distrust of the youth; while the youth expressed pity and some contempt. They repeatedly talked of the weakness of the adults, in which the youth stressed adults' idleness and lack of education."

The mourning and loss felt by the older generation is understandable, especially that they have been robbed of their responsibilities and roles and the behaviour of the youth generally, cause concern.

Furthermore, as the agents of socialization, the siblings were very heavily involved in this process with regard to younger siblings. They were given authority equivalent to the authority of their parents over the young children. They had to care for the younger ones as if they were their own children. The older siblings were highly respected by their younger brothers and sisters.

To summarize, Washington and LaPoint (1988:201), point out that, in promoting the well-being of the African black child, traditionally black families have looked to their extended families and community initiatives to provide support. Today, however, it is found that the traditional cushions of support for black children are weakening under social strain.

Grandmothers, for example, are young, working parents themselves who are unable to assume the traditional role of caregivers for their grandchildren.

3.4 INHLONIPHO/UKUHLONIPHA (RESPECT)

The researcher has already pointed out that according to the African traditional religion, the most respected persons are the ancestors, followed by the oldest people e.g. grandmothers and grandfathers, family men and women. The youth have from time immemorial among Africans been taught to say "Mama" (mother) or "Baba" (father) to any adult person irrespective of whether he/she was a biological parent or not. Any adult could administer corporal punishment to any child found doing wrong without his own parents complaining. This communal way of child upbringing underlined the importance of "ukuhlonipha" (respect) among African youth.

According to Mdluli (1987:67), "ukuhlonipha" is a central custom in African societies in general and even more so in Zulu-speaking communities in Natal. The author points out the fact that there are a number of customary rules that govern relationships at different levels of society. These include emphasis on respecting not only people one knows, but even those not known. But more important it stipulates the authority of the elders over younger people, parents over children, leaders over the followers. Further, it embraces the authority of men and women, and embodied in these relations, according to the author, is male domination in general. Briefly, the view of the author, is that "ukuhlonipha"

sanctions superiority based on sex, age and social positions and reproduces the whole set of authoritarian and hierarchical relations found in the Zulu society.

Dreyer (1980:17), appears to concur with this view, when he cites Bryant, who declares that the law of complete submission to parental authority, was the one great law that rules traditional Zulu society. In the words of Bryant:

"Unquestioning, unanswering obedience to the supreme power was demanded without distinction of all alike; of mother, of sons ... of every child. Every failure to obey was immediately followed by drastic reprisals... while open revolt might easily have terminated in the death of the transgressor."

According to Dreyer (1980) in this society, people of different ages did not mix. A situation where a son would sit in the presence of the father discussing and arguing various matters did not exist.

It must be stated that in rural areas this same philosophy still applies but in the urban areas, i.e. townships, parents are in most cases at work and parental care is lacking. All influences have tended to erode those values that maintained family and community solidarity.

3.5 CHILDREN AND CHANGE

Burman in Burman and Reynolds (1986:10), has argued that the major and rapid social change in South Africa is not unique since many societies have experienced large scale

urbanization. He stresses that the rapid social change makes the study of South African children important. Nevertheless, to understand the plight of African children growing up in the townships, one should understand the nature and conditions in these townships.

These townships are characterised by four features:

1. *First, geographical boundaries i.e. the township is set up by physical boundaries and one can recognise these boundaries and the underdeveloped character of it. There are lines drawn for it. One can tell when one is entering most of the African townships by the absence of trees, by the dilapidated buildings, by the unkempt streets and participation by the government is minimal. The main reason for these conditions which have contributed enormously in producing rebellious township youth is that townships were established as the source of cheap and pliable unskilled labour. A township is not a source of ownership.*
2. *The second characteristic which will help us understand children and change in South Africa is the township's vulnerability. That is to say, it is defined by external control and lack of self-determination.*
3. *Thirdly, the African township is a cultural entity, which contains values often destructive to its development. It is defined by popular culture rather than by national culture. Popular culture as described by Addai-Sebe and*

Wong (1988:271), is fluid unconscious reaction to daily life; something one thinks of and does; simply living in general context. It is not planned, not structured and not something taught as a historical model or a cultural idea. On the other hand, according to the authors, national culture is the self-conscious collective thought and practice by which a people creates itself, celebrates itself and introduces itself to history and humanity.

4. Finally, the African township has a psychological dimension. If one cuts off the geographical unit, exploits the economics, denies political self-determination to the unit, if one aborts its cultural development, it will suffer disorientation.

In short, children, in particular, township ones, are facing what one may regard as insurmountable problems. Nevertheless the abolition of the Group Areas Act (i.e. The separation of people according to colour and culture), will eventually serve as safety valve in that township parents who are affluent will have an opportunity of emigrating to greener pastures if they so desire. This will ease tension and encourage hard work for the benefit of the children.

RESUME

The concept of the extended family includes the fact that, this system relies on its own resources, for support and the socialization of children. As a structure it links a wider circle of people who are related by blood or marriage into a network of relatives who normally identify and feel for each other. The most important agents of socialization of the traditional family were the age groups/peer group system, grandparents and the sibling system. "Inhlonipho", generally defined the rules of relationships between adults and children and between husband and wife. The nature of and conditions in the townships affect the adolescent.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the design of the empirical research. It explains the research procedure as well as the methods and the data collection process. Prior to explaining the research design, the tools utilized as well as the sample and sampling methods, the statement of the problem to be investigated, objectives of the study and the research questions are stated.

4.2 THE PROBLEM

Families with adolescents can be described as living in a stage of transitional crisis characterized by confusion. Most families with adolescents find themselves in a state of stress. Theory, clinical experience and research reveal that conflicts with parents and familial disruptions continue to be associated with a number of forms of deviant adolescent behaviour including juvenile delinquency, running away from home, truancy, sibling violence and drug abuse. In other words, the pattern suggests that the quality of adolescent-parent relations and the background context of the parents' relationship with each other continue to be relevant dimensions that can support or disrupt adolescent growth.

The early adolescent is still very much involved in the family. The nature of the family relationship however is changing as both parent and adolescent become aware of the needs of a maturing person. The manner in which parents respond to the adolescent's quest for autonomy depends partly upon the type of family structure present. In an authoritarian home there is little or no allowance for freedom on the adolescent's part. If authoritarian parents are unwilling to divest themselves of any power and continue trying to maintain their dominance over the adolescent, they run the risk of facing a combination of rebellion and dependency on the adolescent's part. If the adolescents are successful in challenging parental authority, they may become rebellious. If parental discipline has been severe and unjust without much love and affection, teenagers may become overtly aggressive and hostile. The adolescent may leave home and become involved in delinquent activities. On the other hand, if children are completely dominated and have no success in challenging parental authority, they may become meek and conform to the parent's dictates: they show some emotional difficulty and have trouble proceeding to mature identity.

Since 1976, South Africa's black adolescents have been a social concern. The number of children involved in delinquent activities and lacking interest in school work is increasing. Also, all the major towns in the country are experiencing an increasing influx of children on the streets. These reveal the fact that black adolescents have problems of adjustment both inside and outside their homes.

4.3 DATA NECESSARY TO ACHIEVE STUDY OBJECTIVES AND TO TEST THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

- Information regarding marital relationship.
- Effects of parental support, control and participation on the adolescent child.
- The different styles of parenting
- Information regarding sibling relationship and its importance to the children
- The patterns of communication with parents

4.4 METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

4.4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, an exploratory research was chosen. Grinnell (1988:225), says:

"The idea of an exploratory study is to explore - nothing more - nothing less. We will not come up with statistically sound data or conclusive results; we do not intend to. We only want to build a foundation of general ideas and tentative theories which can be explored later with more precise and hence more complex research designs and corresponding methodologies".

The chief characteristics of an exploratory research as discussed by Collins in McKendrick (1987:256), and Grinnell (1981:298), are summarized as follows:

- 1. It serves to acquaint the researcher with the characteristics of his research target;*
- 2. Its principal objective is to refine concepts and develop questions and hypotheses for further research;*
- 3. It generally involves an intensive examination of a limited number of cases from a much larger population of individuals, objects, or events and this does not make it unscientific;*
- 4. It uses flexible and open-ended techniques of data collection and data analysis, and it is a comprehensive approach that focuses on many aspects of a particular situation under study;*
- 5. It attempts to conceptualize the interrelations among the phenomena observed;*
- 6. The main condition for exploratory research is imperfect knowledge or research about a phenomenon.*

The above characteristics are vital in this study since the researcher wishes to explore general factors which have a positive effect and those which may have a negative effect on the adjustment of the adolescent child in his home and outside environment (e.g. school and neighbourhood). The

non-adjustment of adolescents is a phenomena that is persistent and therefore needs further research or investigation on a more sophisticated level.

4.4.2 METHOD USED IN THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The essential parts of this study comprise a review of published literature, data collection and the analysis of data.

4.4.2.1 THE LITERATURE STUDY

An extensive investigation of relevant clinical and empirical literature was an important component of the research methodology and included: the concept adolescence, the family as focus, marital conflict/violence, parent-adolescent relationship and discipline, sibling relationship, and parent-adolescent communication.

The synthesis of the above literature provided the researcher with a theoretical framework for this study and facilitated the selection and formulation of research questions, and the interpretation of the findings according to the data analysis.

4.4.2.2 THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The measuring instruments used for data collection in this study are as follows:

1. The Questionnaire

A questionnaire entitled "Adjustment pointers" found in Appendix A, was compiled and consisted of eight items to which contact persons had to respond "yes" or "no" to each question. Items were selected from those suggested by the literature on adolescent, antisocial/delinquent behaviour and adolescent and the family, school and peer systems (e.g. Hodges, Weschler & Ballantine, 1979; Ramphal, 1979; Quay, 1987; & Siegel & Senna, 1989), as well as on personal experience with runaways. The purpose of these items was to differentiate between "promising" (socially behaved) and "problem" (anti-socially behaved) adolescents.

2. The Interview Schedule

After the survey of the field covered by this study and review of other related works, notably those by Cooper et al. (1983); Garbarino et al. (1986); Gecas and Schwalbe (1986); Jessop (1981); and Weller and Luchterhand (1983), the direct question method (interview schedule), found in Appendix B, consisting of both closed and open ended questions appeared plausible. This was to ensure that all questions were answered.

Grinnell (1988:267), mentions that amongst the advantages of an interview schedule are its high response rate, naturalness and spontaneity, flexibility and control over the environment. The interviews were conducted by the researcher who personally completed the schedule. Henderson and Thomas (1989:75), have noted:

"The personal interview in which the worker asks questions and records the person's responses is probably the most appropriate for neighbourhood work".

To encourage the respondents to be free to give information and to establish rapport, their names and addresses were not written, and confidentiality was guaranteed.

In order to elicit specific and sequential information systematically the interview schedule was divided into six sections as follows:

SECTION ONE (Personal background - PBQ).

This concerns the identification data and is an eleven item questionnaire. The questions aim to ascertain whether the interviewee satisfies the basic requirements of the study, for example, whether interviewees are sixteen year olds with both parents as well as siblings. Item 1.3 (Family Structure), is concerned with whether the family is a two-parent unit. Since the main purpose of the research was to focus on the child's perception of family relationships, the present study makes no attempt to distinguish between natural parents, step-parents, grandparents and de facto parents.

Children were considered to have two parents if they had a male and female adult living in their house and whom they regarded as parents. Item 1.4 (Family size) - Mung-Chan (1981:35), says that it is generally believed that the larger the family, the less attention the parents give to an individual child. Children coming from large families may have a greater chance to become delinquents. Richardson, Abramowitz & Elliott (1986:806), support the above author and further state that a larger number of children strains the parents' emotional, physical and economic resources and each child receives less parental attention than he/she might get if the family were smaller. Items 1.6 and 1.10 were designed to tap more information about the character of the interviewee, and Item 1.11 to find out how the adolescent evaluates him/herself.

SECTION TWO (Parental System - PSQ).

The parental system questionnaire was adapted from Booth, Brinkerhoff & White (1984). It is a six item questionnaire designed to elicit data concerning the perception on parental conflict. An example are Items 2.4 & 2.5. According to Feldman et al. (1990:215), different parenting practices and the quality of parent-child interactions may also explain the relationship between marital satisfaction and family and their effects on the child. For instance, marital satisfaction may provide parents with emotional resources necessary to create nurturant family environments as well as warm and consistent parent-child relationships. A supportive marital

relationship facilitates a parent's ability to engage in optimal childrearing (Elder, Like & Cross, 1984; Hetherington Cox & Cox, 1978; Kemper & Reichler, 1976; Rutter, 1971). Items 2.3 and 2.6 were designed to investigate the quality of the marital relationship and degrees of closeness and happiness in the parental system as perceived by respondents. Research in social stratification lends support for the use of education and occupation as a measure for socio-economic status. Therefore items 2.1 and 2.2 were designed to describe the socio-economic status of the adolescent's family and the family's resourcefulness. Items in this section served to test hypothesis (ii) of the study.

SECTION THREE (Family relationships - FRQ)

The FRQ is a nineteen item questionnaire adapted from Weller & Luchterhand (1983); and Xala (1985). Three dimensions of parental behaviour were considered: Control, support and participation.

Gecas & Schwalbe (1986:39), state that control/autonomy refers to the degree to which parents attempt to limit their child's autonomy and his/her activities. Support refers to parents helping their children, showing affection for them, and expressing approval for their actions. Participation refers to parents spending time with their children and sharing activities with them. In the present study, children were asked to report on both parents' control, support and participation behaviours.

According to the above authors, children are more likely to perceive parental support, participation and control and autonomy as an overall quality of parent-child relations which can be characterised as generally positive or generally negative. Item 3.16 (Importance of religion) was expected to serve as an indicator of family values which may exert influence on the behaviour of children. Item 3.17 was designed to elicit data concerning the child's happiness in the family (e.g. Do you feel happy and have a lot of fun in your family?) This section was designed to achieve objective (iii) of the study and to test hypotheses (iii) and (iv) and also, to elicit data about how the adolescent perceives and interprets his/her relationship with parents.

SECTION FOUR (PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP-DISCIPLINE - PARQ)

This contains nine items adapted from Atwater (1983), and Xala (1985). Items were aimed at establishing the different (specific) styles of discipline administered by parents, and the effects these had on the adolescent child. Item 4.5 was aimed at establishing the adolescent's treatment by parents in comparison with other children in the family and the effect this had on the non-favoured child (Item 4.6). Feldman et al. (1990:215), mention that parental child-rearing practices have been linked to the child's social, emotional and cognitive competence at all ages (cf also Baumrind, 1983; Belsky, 1984; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraleigh, 1987; Maccoby and Martin, 1983). For example,

there is a long-standing agreement that child-centered and consistent parenting are related to positive development outcomes, whereas power assertive and/or inconsistent parenting is maladaptive in this regard (Maccoby and Martin, 1983; Becker, 1984) Items in this section served to achieve objective (iii) of the study and to test hypothesis (v).

SECTION FIVE (SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS - SRQ)

The SRQ contains four items adapted from Felson (1988) and Xala (1985) designed to elicit data on the quality, companionship, emotional support, satisfaction with the relationship and the importance of the relationship. This study focuses on the sibling relationship as forming a subsystem of socialization leading to the growth and healthy development of a adolescent child. Like discipline, the sibling relation determines whether the adolescent child feels the attention from his parents or home environment or feels the neglect/rejection that promote the psychological well-being of the adolescent or destruction. Items in this section were designed to achieve objectives (ii) and (iii) of the study and to test hypothesis (ii).

SECTION SIX (PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION - PACQ)

This consists of six items adapted from Barnes & Olson (1985); Demo, Small, Savin-Williams (1987); Furman & Buhrmester (1985); and Xala (1985). In this section an attempt was made to find out about the openness of family communication and to pinpoint existing problems. The focus was

on the freedom or the free-flowing exchange of information, Both factual and emotional, as well as the sense of lack of constant communication and the degree of understanding as satisfaction experience in interactions. Secondly, problems in family communications centre on the negative aspect of communication, hesitancy to share, negative styles of interaction, and selectivity and caution in what is shared. Items in this section were designed to achieve objective (iv) of the study and to test hypothesis (ii).

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS - PILOT STUDY

Goldstein (1980:206) has noted:

"Standards for a schedule require that it provide reliable and valid information to test the hypotheses or answer the questions about which there is concern ...

The reliability and validity may be determined for the schedule as a whole or item by item. The reliability of a schedule as a whole may be tested by one of the three methods, the test retest method, the split half method, or the alternative form method... validity is tested by determining the accuracy of predictions made from information obtained by the schedule"

On the other hand Grinnell (1981:253) says that a basic tenet of social work research utilizing questionnaires is the commitment to field-test the instrument as part of a pilot study prior to using the final instrument in the actual study. There is no clear specification for the size of a pilot study sample. However, the above author suggests that the instrument can be tested on 15-20 people. In this study a pilot study was conducted at Esikhawini Township in the area of

Empangeni. Sixteen adolescents were nominated by class teachers - by means of a questionnaire - eight were nominated as "promising" and eight were nominated as "problem".

The pilot study was undertaken with four primary aims in mind:

- 1. To "test" the questionnaire and interview schedule for length, relevance, wording, sequence of questions and its overall impact on respondents;*
- 2. To determine the extent to which questions could be answered spontaneously without unnecessarily embarrassing the subjects;*
- 3. To establish if questions are relevant in testing the study's objectives and research questions;*
- 4. To ascertain whether subjects clearly understand what the questions require. Grinnell (1988:314), states that it is the traditional way in which the clarity of questions (and consequent validity) is examined.*

The questionnaire had eight items and the interview schedule had a total of fifty five items - and these were analysed with the help of the professional experts from the universities of South Africa and Zululand.

Test-retest reliability was also obtained from the pilot study.

THE SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHODS

As stated in Chapter One, random sampling procedures were not employed in this study. Grinnell (1988:215) states:

"Nonprobability samples are suited to exploratory studies where we are merely interested in obtaining as much unique data on a research question as possible. They are also useful in studies in which the sampling units represent the extremes of a particular phenomenon or are in key positions to observe or experience the phenomenon being investigated".

A non-random, accidental sample of two hundred 16 year old adolescents i.e. one hundred "promising" and one hundred "problem" were drawn by means of a questionnaire, for selection from diverse communities including:

- four high schools
- ten higher primary schools
- one community youth club
- five churches

The selection of the adolescents was in such a way that there were equal numbers from each of the above communities viz. ten from each community represented in the study. Once the questionnaires were collected, they were numbered by using random digits. This procedure allowed the researcher to select a sample of forty adolescents i.e. twenty "promising" and twenty "problem" for this study.

Criteria for sample inclusion were as follows :

- *16 year old adolescents living at Orlando West*
- *were currently living in the home with both parents (could be step-parents, adoptive parents or other legally recognized parent substitutes)*
- *identified by means of a questionnaire as "promising" and "problem"*
- *had at least one sibling*

4.5 THE PROCEDURE

The following steps constitute the procedure adopted in this study:

- 1. In the interest of efficiency, the researcher held meetings with the nominating population or contact person (i.e. school principals, class teachers, group leaders and church ministers). The aim was to explain the purpose of the study, to provide clear specifics for the criteria for participation, and to give an explanation of the questionnaire.*
- 2. The contact persons completed the questionnaires and these were collected by the investigator on the date arranged.*

3. *Home visits were in the evenings and weekends in the mornings and evenings. During these times, the researcher had no problem in finding the adolescents. Permission was requested from their parents and granted. Children were most willing to participate.*
4. *All the respondents were interviewed privately in their homes during a two-hour (at times more) period, by the researcher who completed the interview schedule according to their answers.*
5. *All adolescents/respondents refused to have a recorded interview.*

4.5.1 DURATION OF THE STUDY

The adolescents were interviewed at their homes between the months of August and November 1991. Time spent by the investigator with each child was two to two & half hours.

4.6 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data collected in this study was presented in terms of numerical frequencies which were also converted to percentages for clearer presentation in the form of tables. These tables convey the perceptions of the adolescent sample of their family life. The findings were qualitatively described.

In the analysis, crossbreaks were used because the data is normal. Kerlinger (1986:149), indicates that crossbreaks enable the researcher to determine the nature of the relations between variables, and help in organizing data for statistical analysis. Since a statistical test would then be applied, indices of association were easily calculated. The chi-square statistical test was then used to determine whether there was any significant difference between the two groups compared to each of the issues to which they had to respond.

$$\text{THE FORMULA} \quad = \quad X = \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

4.7 RESUME

In this chapter the researcher has reported on the research design used in this study. The statement of the problem to be investigated, objectives of the study and the hypotheses to be tested were stated. Also provided, is the information on the specific type of research design chosen for the study together with details of measuring instruments and the procedure followed. The sample and sampling method were discussed and finally, the presentation and analysis of data were described.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the results of the empirical study, interpreted, processed and integrated with the findings of the theoretical study.

The data were arranged according to certain categories that would facilitate reporting. Frequency distributions were prepared in the form of tables. These tables convey information, ideas, attitudes and opinions on the home life of the adolescent sample, their relations with both parents and siblings and the effects these have upon subsequent attitudes and behaviours. Also, frequency and distribution of tables through chi-square, were deemed suitable for analysing this data. The findings were qualitatively described.

NB. The percentages given from 5.2 below are those that refer to the total sample and not of the individual groups.

5.2 PERSONAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The subjects are a diverse group with respect to parents, number of siblings, birth order, educational level, their belonging to the church, and youth groups and a social club

and the manner in which they describe themselves as "problem" or "promising" adolescents.

Table 5.2.1 (see Appendix C), shows that almost half of the "problem" adolescent group (9;22,5%) have natural parents and of the same group almost another half (4;10% + 5;12,5%) come from step families. In contrast, almost three quarters of the "promising" adolescent group (14;35%), have natural parents with 5% (2) and 10%(4), having stepparent, grandparent and parent families respectively. Burman & Reynolds (1986:267) have noted that irregular or altered family structure does not necessarily create a situation in which the child wants to run away or behave anti-socially. It is the quality of the relationship and the care and loving guidance which the children receive, that are of crucial importance, whether they live with their natural parents or not. In this study as well, as indicated in chapter one, children are considered to have parents, when they have adults (both male and female), who are most personally and emotionally involved with the child on a day-to-day basis and who have primary responsibility for his/her care and development. More than half of the adolescent sample (22;55%), indicated that they come from the 3-5 child family category. This therefore means that all the adolescent sample have siblings (see Table 5.2.2 Appendix C).

The stated birth order of the adolescent sample was for the "problem" adolescents: 20%(8) eldest; 27,5%(11) in between and 2,5%(1) youngest. Of the "promising" adolescents: 17,5%(7) eldest; 22,5%(9) in between and 10%(4) youngest.

What the results reflect here, is the fact that half of the adolescent sample (50%;20 i.e. 27,5%; 11 + 22,5%, 9) are in between, and 42,5%(17) are eldest. With respect to the educational standard, more than half of the "problem" adolescents (13;32.5%) report to be in the standard 4,5 and 6, category and 17,5%(7) in the standard 7 and 8 category. There was an even split in the "promising" adolescent group. 25%(10) indicated to be in the standards 4,5 and 6 and 7 and 8 categories. The statistical results yield no significant difference between the two groups in terms of education. Suffice it to state that both groups are still at school. The majority of the "problem" adolescent (17;42.5%) do not belong to a social club. In contrast, all of the "promising" adolescents (20;50%) belong to a social club. Regarding church attendance, more than half of the "problem" adolescents (13;32.5%), are not church-going, compared to more than three quarters of the "promising" adolescents (17;42.5%) who are church-going.

The majority of the "problem" adolescents (13;35.2%) acknowledged that they behave anti-socially, as compared to the majority of the "promising" adolescents (17;45,9%) who described themselves as behaving socially. As indicated in chapter four, this section of the interview schedule was to ascertain whether the interviewee satisfies the basic requirements of the study, to tap more information about the character of the interviewee and how he/she evaluates him/herself.

5.3 PARENTAL SYSTEM

The following items of the interview schedule refer:

2.1; 2.2; 2.3; 2.4; 2.5; and 2.6

A consideration of responses to these items bring the following information to light (cf Tables 5.3.1 to 5.3.6, see Appendix C). Table 5.3.1 represents the educational attainment of parents of both groups. More than half of the "problem" adolescents (11;27.5%) report that their parents went as far as the primary school level, with 2,5%(1) 10%(4); 2,5%(1) and 7,5%(3) had no schooling, went as far as high school, college and university respectively. Of the "promising" adolescents only 5%(2) indicate that their parents went as far as the primary school level with 15%(6); 12,5%(5) and 17,5%(7) who report that their parents went as far as high school, college and university respectively. The analysis of data here, shows no statistical significance in the educational level of the parents of the two adolescent groups $\chi^2 = 8,03$; $df5$; $\chi^2 < 11,070$, NS.

Similar to the amounts of education received by parents of the adolescent sample, there is no significant difference in the responses of the two groups to item 2.2 of the interview schedule. More than half of the "problem" adolescent group (12;30%) report their parents' occupation as unskilled. Of the same group there is an even split in the remaining percentage, 10%(4) and 10%(4) indicate their parents' occupation as professional and clerical. Almost half of the "promising"

adolescent group (9;22,5%) report their parents' occupation as professional, and the same figure (9;22,5%) indicate their parents' occupation as clerical. Only 5%(2) report their parents' occupation as unskilled.

There is a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups to item 2.3 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 16,85; df 3; \chi^2 > 7,815, S.$ Almost all of the "problem" adolescent group (18;45%) describe their parents' marriage/relationship as being not too happy. Of the "promising" adolescent group 7,5%(3) and 32.5% (13) describe their parents' marriage/relationship as very happy and pretty happy respectively.

Excessive drinking, extra marital affairs, fights over disciplining children, finance, coming home late and one spouse being unemployed (work-shy), are some of the causes reported by the majority of the "problem" adolescent group (17;43,6%) as contributing to their parents' getting mad at each other. In contrast, almost three quarters of the "promising" adolescent group (14;35,9%) report that their parents sometimes get mad at each other. Their conception is that people are not perfect and will differ or disagree on certain things but, they have confidence that their parents are able to solve their problems. Excessive drinking, finance and extra marital affairs were also perceived by this group as causes for disagreements.

Concerning lots of arguments in the families of the adolescent sample, almost all of the "problem" adolescent group

(18;46%) report that there are lots of arguments in their families. They are of the opinion that these are caused by excessive drinking, finance, impossible demands by their fathers and lack of commitment by and absence of father. In contrast, three quarters of the "promising" adolescent group (15;38%) report that there are sometimes arguments in their families. Again, this group feels that people differ and have different styles of doing things and these create an unpleasant atmosphere within their families at times. There is a significant difference in the responses of the two groups to item 2.5 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 21,16; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815, S.$

Table 5.3.6 reveals that more than half of the "problem" adolescent group (12;30%) report that their parents have threatened to leave home when upset and dissatisfied with their spouse. Upon explaining, they state that their parents have serious fights that result in their mothers being injured and the latter would leave home. Their fathers on the other hand disappear during weekends (though the type of jobs also contributes) claiming to be annoyed by them. In contrast, more than three quarters of the "promising" adolescent group (16;40%) report that their parents have never threatened to leave home when upset and dissatisfied with their spouses.

The above results indicate that:

1. The educational attainment and occupation of parents of the adolescent sample yield no statistical difference.

The socio-economic backgrounds of the adolescent sample are almost identical. This means the adolescent sample are well matched in terms of age, race, locality (Soweto township) and socio-economic status.

2. *The information on tables 5.3.3; 5.3.4 and 5.3.5 indicate that the difference between the "problem" and "promising" adolescents' comments is vast. "Problem" adolescents represented themselves as coming from families that are characterised by parental disharmony and violence; families where they also witness inter-parental conflict. These results are in line with the findings of Hanson et al., 1984; Hetherington et al., 1971; Nye, 1958; Richards et al., 1979; which found greater conflict in the homes of delinquents than non-delinquents. According to Siegel and Senna (1988:248), more recent studies which have focused on the relationship between marital discord have supported Nye's research. Most have found a pattern for children growing up in maladjusted homes in which they have witnessed violence and conflict, to exhibit patterns of emotional disturbance, behaviour problem and social conflict. Because the marriage is the heart of family functioning, the interaction between the father and mother affects all members of the family. According to McKendrick and Hoffmann (1990:265), violence within the family has negative effects on children. They further state:*

"Child witnesses to inter-parental conflict - even if not directly assaulted themselves - have an increased risk of developing behavioural and emotional problems. These may include, inter alia, depression, anxiety, the presence of fears and phobias, insomnia and enuresis as well as acting-out behaviour such as stealing, truancy, temper tantrums and aggression."

Much as the two adolescent groups come from almost identical socio-economic backgrounds, the findings here reveal that their family environments are different. This will have an effect on how the two adolescent groups perceive their relationships with both their parents and siblings; how they communicate with their parents and generally, how they perceive their family life.

- 3. Compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents come from families where parents' threat of separation is ever present and some of the parents did separate from their spouses, demonstrating or modelling poor problem-solving skills and maladaptive behaviour to their children. The report of Finkelhor (1988:103) tends to substantiate these findings. He states that children who witness violence have also generally been exposed to serious parental conflict, including a higher likelihood that their parents will divorce. Witnessing violence has other effects besides teaching violence. It may be injurious to a child's self-esteem and create a deep sense of insecurity. These results point out the double disaster faced by children in families where there is inter-parental violence, viz., the separation of their parents and the possible loss of their homes, the preoc-*

cupation of their parents with themselves resulting in neglecting their roles as parents to the children.

The picture presented in this section is that inter-parental conflict/violence has negative effects on the child, it harms the child's self-esteem and creates a deep sense of insecurity. The negative perception presented by the "problem" adolescents is therefore expected. On the other hand, marital satisfaction according to Feldman et al. (1990:215), facilitates a parent's ability to engage in optimal childrearing.

5.4 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

The following statements refer: 3.1 - 3.19

A consideration of responses to these statements brings the following information to light (cf APPENDIX C Tables 5.4.1 - 5.4.19)

Table 5.4.1 presents a comparison of "problem" and "promising" adolescent groups. Forty six percent (18), of the "problem" adolescent indicate that their parents never help them with their schoolwork. A number of explanations are provided: their parents work long hours and have no time; parents busy with their own affairs/problems; parents claim to have no knowledge of their schoolwork; their parents do not offer to help and they in turn never ask for help. Fourteen (35,9%), of the "promising" adolescents say that their parents sometimes help them. According to them, this

means that their parents do encourage them even if they claim to have no knowledge of their schoolwork and they show concern and offer themselves to help. There is a difference in the responses of the two adolescent groups $\chi^2 = 19,61; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815, \textcircled{\text{NS}} ?$

To item 3.2 of the interview schedule, the results show that almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%) never accept their parents' suggestions. They feel that their parents have demonstrated a commanding and demanding behaviour, parents never make a suggestion; parents' suggestions do not suit them - they are old fashioned ideas: parents have their own style of living and therefore they consider their interests first and they know what is right or wrong. In contrast, the majority of the "promising" adolescents (18;45%) report that they sometimes do accept their parents' suggestions. Their explanations include the fact that not all of their parents' suggestions are good, as children they have different views and feelings, they do listen to what their parents say, but they prefer to satisfy themselves first, otherwise parents' suggestions are helpful since they are based on concern.

Tables 5.4.3 shows that three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (15;39.5%) never share outings with their parents mostly, because parents have no time and they are also not available; their parents claim to have no money. It is also necessary to point out that, of the same group only 13,1%(5) report that they sometimes go with their parents to family gatherings and traditional ceremonies. All of the "promis-

ing" adolescents (18;47,4%) share outings with their parents. According to this group, they do go shopping at times with their parents or visit relatives.

Regarding item 3.4 of the interview schedule, the results generally reveal a picture of poor parent and "problem" adolescent participation. All report that the sort of things they do with their parents is to visit relatives. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents indicate more than one sort of activity they do with their parents, for example, visits to relatives, (i.e. family gatherings/traditional ceremonies), chores and church-going.

The results presented in table 5.4.5 indicate that more than three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (16:40%), deliberately avoid going out with their parents and being seen in their company, for reasons that they do not want to be in the company of parents who ridicule, show no concern, love or care; their parents are not available and the same can be said of the adolescents; parents never invite them or organize going out (due to lack resources and finance), they prefer to be with friends. In contrast, almost three quarters of the "promising" adolescents (14;35%) do not deliberately avoid going out with their parents and being seen in their company, because there is nothing wrong with their parents and they are proud of them; the fact is that, at their stage of development, they prefer the company of their friends.

There is a significant difference in the responses of the two groups to item 3.6 of the interview schedule

$\chi^2 = 20,24; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S.$ Almost three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (14;35%) indicate that they do not do things to please their parents. Their opinions are that their parents do not deserve to be pleased with anything, it is difficult to please their parents since they do not appreciate anything done by them. Of the "promising" adolescents, three quarters (15;37.5%) indicate that they do things to please their parents because they would like their parents to rely on them, especially that their parents try to make all children happy. Also as children they think it is their duty to make their parents happy too.

To item 3.7 of the interview schedule, three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (15;37,5%), report that their parents ignore them when they do something right away when asked by them and they have no way of showing that they appreciate. For example, according to this group, their parents pretend as if they (children) do not exist. Of the "promising" adolescents 20%(8) and 25%(10), feel that their parents praise and thank them respectively when they have done something right away after being asked. Communicating and expressing feelings of warmth are some of the ways used by their parents to show that they appreciate what has been done.

According to table 5.4.8 more than half of the "problem" adolescents (11;27,5%) state that their parents take them for granted when they do something good or try to please them. They interpret their parents' actions and behaviours to imply that it is also the duty of the child to please his parents; their parents are too preoccupied with themselves. Of the

same group, it is interesting to note that 15%(6) report that their parents ridicule them, for example, by passing damaging remarks and making them feel inferior. On the other hand, all of the "promising" adolescent sample (20;50%) state that their parents praise them and encourage good behaviour when children do something good or try to please them.

The information in table 5.4.9 shows that almost three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (14;35%), indicate that their parents have no way of showing that they are pleased with them. Instead, their parents demand that they do more, or are preoccupied with their own problems and demand cooperation. The majority of the "promising" adolescents (18;45%), feel their parents are pleased with them when they give them extra pocket money, buy new clothes for them and when their parents actually tell them that they are pleased with them.

There is a significant difference in the responses of the two groups to item 3.10 of the interview schedule

$\chi^2 = 28,97; df5; \chi^2 > 11,070, S.$ Almost all of the "problem" adolescent (18;45%), report that they always feel like doing something their parents forbid just in order to stand up for themselves. They mentioned being never at their homes for most times as one of the ways of standing up for themselves. Half of the "promising" adolescents (10;25%), report that they sometimes feel like doing something their parents forbid just in order to stand up for themselves; for reasons that there are times when their parents lack the understanding of them and they have to do things in their own way and not the

parents' ways all the time. In the same group 22,5%(9) report that they never feel like doing something their parents forbid just in order to stand up for themselves, because there is no need to do so and in most instances they also dislike what is disliked by their parents, thus they would not deliberately hurt their parents.

Concerning being honest to their parents about where they have been and what things they have been doing, almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%), report that they are never honest. Their reasons include; fear of physical punishment, what they do is private and is their own business and it is not necessary to inform their parents since they hardly show interest. Of the "promising" adolescents thirty five percent (14), state that they are sometimes honest to their parents about where they have been and what things they have been doing. They are of the opinion that their parents would not grant permission - their parents are easily hurt and thus they are secretive and part of growing up means to be secretive - they are not bold to tell their parents about their whereabouts and are afraid to lose their parents' confidence in them. It is also important to mention that of the same group 12,5%(5) report that they are never honest to their parents, for reasons that as teenagers they have their own secrets.

Table 5.4.12, reveals that almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%), report that they never get along well with their parents. Verbal and physical abuse by parents, lots of demands placed on them by parents, and the fact that

their parents just refuse to understand them, are mentioned as contributing to poor relations with their parents. In contrast, more than half of the "promising" adolescents (13;32.5%) report that they sometimes get along well with their parents, since their parents do at times fail to understand teenagers and that lots of problems they have with their parents concern their friends. More than a quarter of the same group (7;17,5%), state that they always get on well with their parents because whatever problems they have are discussed and solved together with the parents.

Most of the "problem" adolescent sample (18;45%) feel that their parents' fights (especially that they never succeed to solve these) poor education, maltreatment and preferential behaviour are some of the factors that contribute to the fact that they never want to be like their parents (i.e. item 3.13 of the interview schedule). The perceptions of the "promising" adolescents on the other hand are divided. Nine (22.5%) feel that their parents are good, dedicated and are available for each other and their children for these reasons they would like to be like their parents. Seven (17.5%) feel that poor education is the major factor that makes them never want to be like their parents, because they want to improve their level of education (above that of their parents); four (10%) feel that their parents have done their best but they see room for improving their standard of living, hence sometimes they would like to be like their parents.

For the greater part, the "problem" adolescents present a negative picture of interaction with their parents; it is

therefore not surprising that they report to be not at all like their parents (18;45%) i.e. item 3.14 of the interview schedule, and further indicate that their parents' values and traditions are different from theirs. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents report a more positive interaction with their parents, hence this group feel that they are already somewhat like their parents (11;27,5%), and others feel they are already very much like their parents (8:20%).

Table 5.4.15 shows a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups to item 3.15 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 23,34; df5; \chi^2 > 11,070, S$. The majority of the "problem" adolescents (14:35%) report that they are always rebellious against their parents because of the frustrations they have experienced viz, lack of parental understanding and the fact that their communication needs are not met. Of the "promising" adolescents, more than half (12;30%), state that they are never rebellious against their parents because they feel there is no need for this especially since most of their needs are met. It is interesting to note that of the same group 17,5%(7), state that they are sometimes rebellious against their parents for reasons that their parents can be unreasonable and refuse to understand their point of view.

In section one of the interview schedule, 32,5% of "problem" adolescents indicated that they do not belong to the church youth groups. However, Item 3.16 of the interview schedule reveals that this sample does agree (4;10%) and sometimes agrees (9;22,5%) with their parents on the importance of re-

ligion. They feel that regardless of their non-participation and non-attendance in church, they are very much aware that religion is important. 17.5%(7) of the same group state that they never agree with their parents on the importance of religion. In contrast, the majority of the "promising" adolescents (18;45%) agree with their parents on the importance of religion. This is not surprising, especially that this sample indicated that they belong to church youth groups (Section one - item 1.9 of the interview schedule) and that one of the things they do with their parents is to go to church with them (item, 3.4 of the interview schedule).

Lack of happiness between parents, limited economic resources, preferential treatment are reported by the majority of the "problem" adolescents (18;45%), as factors contributing to never feeling happy and having no fun in their families. In contrast, the majority of the "promising" adolescent sample (17;42,5%), feel that they are happy and have lots of fun with their families since their parents show concern and try to make themselves available.

Concerning receiving the love from their parents they think they deserve, almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%) report "Never". The results here are not surprising because this group has generally reported poor relations with their parents. Of the "promising" adolescents, three quarters (15;37,5%), report that they receive the love from their parents they think they deserve, and the remaining quarter (5;12,5%), report that sometimes they think they do receive the love from their parents they think they deserve.

Table 5.4.19 reflects that almost all of the problem adolescents (19;47,5%), do not agree with the way their parents run their lives, for reasons that there are constant fights between their parents due to lack of respect and not working together. Of the "promising" adolescents, more than half (12;30%) feel that they agree with the way their parents run their lives because their parents are able to solve their problems and consult each other. Also, there is general understanding and respect between the parents.

The above results indicate that:

1. The information on tables 5.4.1, 5.4.8 and 5.4.12 provides evidence that demonstrates supportive or non supportive behaviours/actions by the parents of the adolescent sample. The results reveal a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent groups. Compared to the "problem" adolescents, the "promising" adolescents reported that they feel their parents are supportive of them when they show concern and make themselves available, encourage and reward good behaviour for example, by giving them extra pocket money and/or buying new clothes therefore, they generally get on well with their parents, much as their parents sometimes fail to understand them as teenagers (analysis of results in table 5.4.12). The reports by Leigh & Petterson (1986:115), tend to substantiate these findings. They state that behaviour characterized by such positive sentiments as nurturing, warmth and approval, transmits to adolescents information pertaining to their inherent

worth. According to these authors, it logically follows that as parents interact with adolescents in supportive ways, adolescents will feel as though they are worthwhile individuals with the capability of effectively acting and/or reacting to their immediate environments. Thus parental support is positively related to adolescent self-esteem. The results in the current study further indicate that because the "promising" adolescents perceive their parents as supportive, they do not want to jeopardize their status within their families by being dishonest about their whereabouts (Item 3.11 of the interview schedule). Conversely, since the "problem" adolescents enjoy little prestige in their homes with their families, they are motivated to be dishonest and to find personal recognition elsewhere.

2. The dimension of participation not only means parents spending time with their children and sharing activities with them, but also includes the creation of an environment of understanding and support between the parent and adolescent. The results here, show that compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents spend less time with their parents. The latter group shared few activities with their parents (15;39,5% - item 3.3 of the interview schedule), and the only sort of thing they do with their parents is to visit relatives (family gatherings/traditional ceremonies - item 3.4). The "promising" adolescents, in turn, do spend time and share activities with their parents. McMillan & Hiltonsmith

(1982:313), cite the study of Sacks & McMillan (1981) which found evidence to suggest that the greater proportion of adolescents' time spent with adults was associated with general well-being and self-esteem; while alienation was associated with greater proportion of their time spent with peers. The responses of the adolescent sample lend support to the above findings. Home leisure settings allow maximum interaction with home inhabitants.

The fact that the "problem" adolescent sample deliberately avoid going out with their parents, or being seen in their company (item 3.5 - 16;40%), further confirms the reciprocal nature of relationships - in this instance the unwillingness on the part of the "problem" adolescent sample to also participate in the creation of an environment of understanding and support. It is therefore not surprising that the "problem" adolescent express strong feelings of never wanting to be like their parents (table 5.4.13 - 18;45%), and they are not at all like their parents (table 5.4.14 - 18;45%). In contrast, the "promising" adolescent were appreciative of the work done by their parents - being supportive, available when they need them; hence this group felt in some way they were already like their parents. Substantiating this observation, Quay (1987;224), cites studies of Nye, 1958; Olweus, 1980; Petterson, 1980; Hansen et al, 1984; and Canter, 1982, which found that parents of delinquents are less supportive and affectionate, more rejecting and

negativistic, and they spend less time with their children. Delinquent children are in turn, less accepting of their parents' values and standards and report using their parents as models less frequently than non-delinquents.

3. Since religion serves as an indicator of family values which may exert influence on the behaviour of children, this study found that regardless of the participation and non-attendance in church, the "problem" adolescent sample are aware that religion is important, compared to the "promising" adolescent sample who agree with their parents on the importance of religion (especially that they belong to the church youth group and are regular churchgoers - item 3.16 of the interview schedule). There was a significant difference in the responses of the two groups $\chi^2 = 14,72; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815$, S. Jensen (1985:320), says that expressing strong religious beliefs and active church attendance are apparently related to less deviant behaviour, less problem behaviour. He confirms the fact that religion plays an important role in shaping the adolescents' moral reasoning, behaviour and values. He further cites the study by Strommen, 1974, which found that church youths identified more with their parents in the areas of values, attitudes and life qualities.

5.5 PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP DISCIPLINE

The following items of the interview schedule refer:

4.1; 4.2; 4.3; 4.4; 4.5; 4.6; 4.7; 4.8; & 4.9

From the items above the following results emerge:

Table 5.5.1 (cf APPENDIX C). Shows that the majority of the "problem" adolescents (18;45%), report that throughout their childhood and adolescence their parents' discipline can be described as very unfair. Explanations provided include: lack of guidance and severe punishment, verbal and physical abuse, ordered to move out of the house, unfair treatment, both outsiders and siblings encouraged by their parents to administer punishment and wrongful accusation of stealing money. Almost all of the "promising" adolescents (19;47,5%), report that discipline in their homes can be regarded as fair, for the reason that they are punished when they deserve it, their parents try to treat all children alike, they are satisfied with the manner discipline is administered in their homes and loving children means to be able to discipline them. The results here, indicated a significant difference in the responses of the two groups ($\chi^2 = 31,76; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S$).

It is interesting to note that the majority of the adolescent sample in both groups (31;77.5% i.e. 17;42,5% "problem" and 14;35% "promising") viewed their parents as authoritarian. However, there were differences in their explanations. The "problem" adolescents feel that their parents give commands,

they never ask or find out whether it would suit them, they are physically abused in front of everyone, their parents are strict and aggressive and they are ignored by their parents as if they are not members of their families. For the "promising" adolescents, they feel they understand why their parents are authoritarian, parents love them and are interested in maintaining their traditional ways and a healthy family atmosphere.

There is a significant difference in the responses of the two groups to item 4.3 of the interview schedule

$\chi^2 = 34,2; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S.$ Almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%) report that their parents never use the democratic approach i.e. explaining the rules, negotiating with them and respecting their own preferences in decisions concerning their lives. A variety of reasons given are that parents are interested in their own affairs and have no time to explain things or negotiate with their children; parents insist that children must respect and obey them and not be interested to have an equal status with adults. The "promising" adolescents (18;45%), felt their parents were using the democratic approach sometimes.

Table 5.5.4 (cf APPENDIX C) shows that there is a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups $\chi^2 = 27,97; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S.$ Almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%), indicate that the way their parents have dealt with them in regard to punishment is very unfair, for reasons that punishment makes them feel inferior and their parents invite both outsiders and siblings to pun-

ish them. For the majority of the "promising" adolescents (17;42,5%), punishment by parents has been fair. Again, this group feel that they are punished because they deserve it and their parents show concern and do provide explanations.

Regarding parents being more lenient with their brother(s)/sister(s), than with them, three quarters of the "problem" adolescents (15;37,5%), report that their parents are always lenient with their siblings. According to them, their siblings get all that they want and receive fair treatment. Half of the "promising" adolescents (10;25%), report that parents are sometimes lenient to their siblings, however, they do understand because their siblings are younger and on the whole their parents do try to treat all children equally. Of the same group, it is interesting to note that, almost half (8;20%), indicate that their parents are never more lenient to their siblings for the reason that all receive equal treatment.

On item 4.6 of the interview schedule, the majority of the problem adolescents (18;45%), report that they wanted to leave home (or have left home), because of unfair treatment. In contrast, the majority of the "promising" adolescents report that they tolerate it when their parents show preferential treatment for reasons that their siblings are younger and after all they are also loved by their parents. The results here, reveal a significant difference in the responses of two groups $\chi^2 = 33,22; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S.$

Almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47.5%), perceive parental discipline in their homes as very inconsistent because compared to their siblings they are unfairly treated by their parents and discipline is administered by siblings and outsiders. Of the "promising" adolescents, the majority (17;42.5%), report that they are not sure whether discipline is consistent or inconsistent, for reasons that more responsibilities have been placed on them and they are not sure whether their parents understand their needs, but they are pleased with their concern and guide.

According to table 5.5.8, the majority of the "problem" adolescents (18;45%), have no difficulty to make major decisions because their parents are not available for them. Half of the "promising" adolescents (10;25%), on the other hand have some difficulty to make major decisions without their parents' approval. Their reasons are: they do not want to cause unhappiness in their homes or make parents to panic; their parents insist on the respect for family rules and they have to know the whereabouts of all their children. Of the same group, (20%;8), report that they have difficulties in making decisions without their parents' approval because showing respect means consulting with parents and not disobeying them.

Table 5.5.9 (cf APPENDIX C), reveals that more than half of the "problem" adolescents (14;35%), report that they plan to bring up their own children and adolescent differently. They believe that children need love, understanding and equal treatment; parents should not impose their ideas on them. Of

the "promising" adolescents, there is an even split between those who report that they plan to bring up their children and adolescents the same way (9;22,5%), and those who report differently (9;22,5%). Those who say "the same way" are of the opinion that they are happy in their families and they are satisfied with the manner their parents relate to them. Those who say "differently", feel that they would do away with the outdated methods and would improve on things such as punishment and rules so as to accommodate the present times of their children

From the results in this section it appears that:

1. The majority of the "problem" adolescents perceive discipline in their homes negatively i.e. it is characterized by unfair punishment; both outsiders and siblings are encouraged by their parents to administer discipline; there is a lack of guidance and a democratic approach. The result here further reveal the difference in the family environments of the two adolescent groups. In the families of the "problem" adolescents, violence exists between parents themselves and between the parent and the child. In contrast, the family environment of the "promising" adolescents are more cohesive and stable; children are punished when they deserve punishment. Finkelhor et al. (1983:19), cite Spinetta & Rigler (1972), who noted that the physical abuse of children tends to start with a feeling of parental impotence. They state that mothers resort to violence, for example,

when they sense that they have lost control of their children and of their own lives. In this study, it is clear that the parents of the "problem" adolescents are faced with the pressures and stresses of their marriage and outside violence that affects the country as a whole, and this in turn affects their relationships with their children. They do not want to be seen losing control of everything. McKendrick & Hoffmann (1990:360), maintain that punishment drives out the love, trust and intimacy from adult-child relationships in the home and classrooms. It is therefore not surprising that, compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents perceive discipline in their homes negatively.

Furthermore, from the above results, the traditional methods of parenting are being challenged by today's adolescents. The "problem" adolescents report great resentment in the authority given to their siblings and any adults by their parents. According to Kayongo-male & Onyango (1984:20), older siblings were very heavily involved in the socialization process of younger siblings. They had authority equivalent to the authority of their parents over the young. Today's adolescents demand an equal status with both adults (i.e. their parents) and siblings. What is interesting is that in families of the "promising" adolescents, siblings were not reported to have such authority. Marital relationships do affect relationships of the family members as a whole.

Regarding the use of the democratic approach, there is a difference in the responses of the two groups. The "problem" adolescents come from families where rules are not explained, where there are no negotiations with them and no respect for their own preferences. These findings confirm the difficulty black parents have in involving their children in decision-making. The fear and stress of losing control is always present. Herbert (1989:7), noted that the goal of discipline is to help the child develop the ability eventually to discipline himself, that is to obtain the maximum amount of self-satisfaction and social approval. Self-discipline should begin to take over so that children gradually learn to behave reasonably even when there is nobody present to tell them what to do.

2. The majority of the adolescent sample (31;77,5% i.e. 17;42,5% "problem" and 14;35% "promising"), perceive their parents' discipline as authoritarian. This means that there was no difference in the perception of the two adolescent groups $\chi^2 = 9,29$; $df5$; $\chi^2 > 11,070$; S . The results of Leigh & Peterson (1986:418), tend to substantiate this observation. They found that black parents are generally more strict and authoritarian in their use of discipline than white parents; this arises out of a historical legacy of socializing children for survival. However, compared to the "promising" adolescent sample, who felt that they understood that parents try to maintain a healthy family environment the "problem" adoles-

cent sample in the present study viewed their parents' behaviour as aggressive, demanding and designed to ridicule them and make them feel inferior.

3. Preferential treatment does affect the non-favoured child - resulting in anti-social behaviour e.g. leaving home (Table 5.5.6 - 45%;18). Since discipline is by nature painful and makes a person feel inferior, children run away from homes in order to escape from punishment. They try by all means to spend most of their time outside the home environment rather than staying at home to please their parents. Xala (1985:40), cites Nye's findings that when discipline is unfair or when partiality is shown by parents, it is difficult for parents to act as agents in the formation of an adequate conscience in the child. This reduces the wish by the adolescent to conform to please parents and avoid delinquent behaviour hurting the parent. When children perceive discipline as being fairly administered and when parents explain discipline (Table 5.5.5 - 10;25% & 8;20%), children adjust to their environment and perceive relationships in the family as favourable. This makes them conform and please their parents. Also evident from these tables is the non-expression of feelings.

4. The "promising" adolescent sample find it difficult to make major decisions for reasons that they would prefer to consult with their parents first. They view this behaviour as a sign of respect for their parents. The poor relations between the "problem" adolescent sample

and their parents makes it easy for the sample to make major decisions, especially that their parents are not available for them after all.

- 5. Generally, more than half of the adolescent sample (57.5%; 23 i.e. 35%; 14 "problem" + 22,5%; 9 promising), plan to bring up their own children differently.*

5.6 SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

The following items of the interview schedule refer:

5.1; 5.2; 5.3; and 5.4

From the items above the following results emerge:

The adolescent sample were asked to report on whether they help their brother(s)/sister(s) with housework and homework. There was a significant difference in the responses of the two groups

$\chi^2 = 22,81; df5; \chi^2 > 11,070, S.$ the majority of the "problem" adolescents (17;42,5%), report that they do not help their siblings with housework and homework. The explanations provided to the open-ended question include: poor relationships with their parents and themselves, they are never home to help; parents instruct siblings not to help them and each one of them does what he/she wants. In contrast, half of the "promising" adolescents (10;25%), report that they sometimes help and almost another half of the same group (8;20%), report that they help their siblings. Their explanations are that: family means helping each other, being united and doing things together; their parents work and therefore children should co-operate; it is important to help each other since they get an opportunity to get to know and understand each other.

There is no difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups to item 5.2 of the interview schedule

$\chi^2 = 10,59; df5; \chi^2 < 11,070, NS.$ More than half of both adolescent sample groups (12;30% "problem" and 14;35% "promising"), report that they do not feel jealous of their brother(s)/sister(s). According to the "problem" adolescents, they understand that as children they are different and their ways of doing things are different, thus there is no need to be jealous. Furthermore, they are aware of their parents' negative interference in their relationship and this confuses all children and these adolescents are never present in their homes to feel jealous. Of the "promising" adolescents they feel that their parents treat them equally and attend to most of their needs; they enjoy good relationships with both their siblings and their parents, therefore, there is no need to be jealous. It is also significant to mention that almost half of the "problem" adolescents (8;20%), report that they are jealous of their siblings, because the latter are happy and receive all the attention and love from their parents; their parents favour them.

Table 5.6.3 (cf APPENDIX C), shows that the majority of the "promising" adolescents (18;45%), report that they have a cordial relationship with their siblings. Their conceptions are that: they share most things with their siblings; they are very close and honest to each other, they do favours for each other; In contrast, only 15%(6) of the "problem" adolescents report to have cordial relationships with their siblings. Of the same group, almost half (9;22,5%), report to be not sure of their relationships, since there are lots of fights between them and at times their siblings are scared

to talk to them because they have been instructed to refrain from doing so. It is significant to mention that, of the same group, only five (5;12,5%), report to have poor relationships with their siblings.

As for how important the relationship with their siblings is to them, all of the "promising" adolescents (20;50%), report that the relationship is important; they need the support and cooperation of each other so as to be happy in their families; they need the advice of their siblings and they are people whom they know they can rely upon. It is interesting to note that more than a quarter of the "problem" adolescent sample (6;15,4%), report that their sibling relationship is important because in their homes there is at least someone who cares. Of the same sample, ten (10;25%), report that their relationship with their siblings is not important since they are physically abused by the siblings.

The abovementioned results indicate that:

1. The sibling environments of the two adolescent groups are different. The "problem" adolescents indicated that they are uncertain regarding the support and general relationship they have with the siblings, as compared to the "promising" adolescents who reported the availability of support. This therefore means that compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents have yet another environment (i.e. sibling environment), that is not functional to their development. Results here show that compared to the "promising" adolescents,

"problem" adolescents come from families where all the environments in the family viz. parental, parent-child and sibling environments are not supportive of their growth.

2. There is no difference in the responses of the two adolescent groups to item 5.2 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 10,59; df5; \chi^2 < 11,070, NS$. More than half of the adolescent sample (26;65%) are not jealous of their siblings. However the two groups provided different reasons. According to the "promising" adolescents they are not jealous since they receive equal treatment. On the other hand the reasons of the "problem" adolescents include the fact that they are never present in their homes to feel jealous. According to Buhrmester and Furman (1990:1396), adolescents spend less time with their siblings who are part of the family from whom they want to develop some autonomy. Adolescents become more involved in intimate friendships and romantic relationships; they have less time and perhaps less socio-emotional need to invest in relationships with siblings. The results are interesting, especially that the "problem" adolescents reported parents' supportive relationships with their siblings.

3. The "problem" adolescents revealed that there is unequal treatment of children in their homes and this leads to confusion as to whether they can regard themselves as members of their families. Furman & Buhrmester (1985:459), noted that the qualities of the relationships

between each child and each parent are also likely to influence the sibling relationship. In fact, in their study perceptions of parental partiality were associated with feelings of competition and conflict. They cite Bryant & Crockenberg (1980) who found that parents who are responsive to their children's behaviour are likely to foster prosocial behaviour between their children.

In this section, the weight of evidence indicates that the relationship between siblings is affected by their parents' interference for better or for worse.

5.7 PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION

The following items of the interview schedule refer:

6.1; 6.2; 6.3; 6.4; 6.5 and 6.6

A consideration of responses to these items (cf APPENDIX C, Tables 5.7.1 to 5.7.6), brings the following information to light: Most of the adolescent sample (33;82,5% i.e. 19;47,5% "problem" + 14; 35% "promising"), report that they never talk to their parents about their worries and problems. However, different reasons are provided to the open-ended question: the "problem" adolescents are of the conception that their parents have never demonstrated care and support for them and therefore they fear to be ridiculed and made to feel inferior by their parents. Furthermore, their problems and worries are their own business, hence they prefer to share these with their friends. The "promising" adolescents, feel that they prefer to solve their own problems and worries because they

do not want to burden their parents; they are scared to talk to their parents lest the parents think they are disrespecting them; they fear to expose themselves to the entire family; they prefer to talk to their friends since their problems and worries involve friends.

A significant difference was found in the responses of the two groups to item 6.2 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 32,73; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815, S.$ All of the "problem" adolescents (20;50%), report that they never talk things over with their parents. Their explanations are: they have nothing to talk on since their parents fail to understand them; the parents have never encouraged that; their parents do not respect them but instead ridicule them; initiating talks makes their parents feel uncomfortable and therefore they no longer try. The majority of the "promising" adolescents (18;45%), on the other hand, report that they sometimes talk things over with their parents. However, according to them, it is difficult to initiate these talks unless they can provide their parents with reasons. Otherwise most of such talks are initiated by their parents.

Table 5.7.3 (cf APPENDIX C), reflects a no difference (H_0) in the responses of the two groups to item 6.3 of the interview schedule $\chi^2 = 7,06; df3; \chi^2 < 7,815; NS.$ All of the "problem" adolescents (20;50%) and most of the "promising" adolescents (14;35%) meaning 85% of the adolescent sample, report that they talk on house rules. Their perceptions are different: the "problem" adolescent state that their parents are concerned with controlling behaviour, preaching about

rules, values and customs; these parents feel comfortable when discussing house rules. Meanwhile, the "promising" adolescents perceive that their parents talked on house rules so as not to cause unhappiness in the family, to prevent children from getting out of control and to maintain law and order so that children can be respectful.

According to the details about how the adolescent sample think their parents try to understand their points of view, almost all of the "problem" adolescents (19;47,5%), report that their parents never try to understand their points of view. They feel that parents think they are children who should always listen to adults; their parents do not fully understand and appreciate their ideas; their parents state that they should have their own houses where they can do as they please; parents are interested in themselves and not in their children. In contrast, all of the "promising" adolescents (20;50%), report that their parents sometimes try to understand and appreciate their points of view. They feel that they are given a chance to explain, but eventually their parents decide what is good for them their parents' word is final. The two groups differ significantly in their responses

$$\chi^2 = 36,19; df3; \chi^2 > 7,815; S.$$

According to Table 5.7.5 (cf APPENDIX C), most of the adolescent sample (32;82,1% i.e. 20;51,3% "problem" + 12;30,8% "promising"), report that it is difficult for them to express all their feelings to their parents. As in item 6.1 of the interview schedule, "problem" adolescents feel that they are

afraid to be hurt, frustrated and ridiculed by their parents, especially since their parents have never demonstrated care and support; they prefer to share their true feelings with friends. The "promising" adolescents on the other hand, feel that it is a weak sign to open up easily; they prefer to express their true feelings to their friends and siblings; they fear disappointments. This non-expression of true feelings by most of the adolescent sample tallies with the impression gained from item 6.1 of the interview schedule where almost similar results were revealed - 33;82,5% i.e. 19;47,5% "problem" + 14;35%.

Table 5.7.6 shows that, almost all of the "problem" adolescents (18;45%), report that their parents are not good listeners. According to them, their parents are busy with own problems and have no time; the "promising" adolescents (16;40%), report that their parents are sometimes good listeners. They feel that they are given time to talk and their parents show concern. Further, as children, they do understand that sometimes if a parent tries to be a good listener children will interpret this as a sign of weakness.

The results in this section indicate the following:

- 1. The perceptions of the two adolescent groups are different. Compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents view their inter-family communication with greater negativism; for example, their parents never try to understand or appreciate their point of view and are not good listeners. Litovsky & Dusek*

(1985:374) cite several studies and related research with children and adolescents e.g. Eldler, (1962,1963); Douvan and Adelson, (1966); Lavoie, (1976); which suggest that adolescent self-esteem is promoted by parents who are accepting, who communicate with their adolescent, and who do not overregulate their adolescents. The findings here are expected since the two adolescent groups come from families with different family environments.

2. There is a general communication gap between the adolescent sample and their parents, characterised by a lack of self-disclosure, non-expression of feelings and unequal initiation of communication in their families. This is expected, as black children grow up with the notion that it is disrespectful to discuss anything with their parents. According to Rossi (1980:240), children do what they have acquired through their culture; they behave in a manner not only commonly acceptable to them, but also learned from unique histories of particular people.

5.8 RESUME

In this chapter, an overview of the results of this investigation was given. The results considered above can be summarised as follows:

1. PARENTAL SYSTEM

The results revealed a significant statistical difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups.

Regarding marital conflict there was greater conflict/violence in the homes of the "problem" adolescents than in those of "promising" adolescents. This means that the "problem" adolescents witness violence and are exposed to serious conflicts. Under these circumstances, children learn violence, their self-esteem is dented and they have a deep sense of insecurity. On the other hand the results revealed that there was cohesion and stability in the homes of the "promising" adolescents. The two groups therefore were found to come from different family environments. This had a tremendous effect on their perception of their family life. A satisfying marriage according to most literature (e.g. Feldman et al, 1990; Finkelhor, 1988; Ohlin & Tonry, 1989 and Robertson & Simon, 1989), provides a stable basis for family functioning and is predictive of competent parenting practices, efficient problem-solving and more effective satisfying family relations. A good marriage helps a couple to survive harsh experiences. An unsatisfying marriage on the other hand, is a source of stress that weakens the entire family unit's ability to adapt and function effectively.

2. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

There was a significant statistical difference in the responses of the two adolescent groups. The "promising" adolescents gave more favourable responses than the "problem" adolescents on all but one item of this section. Analysis of results reveals a reciprocal nature

of interaction between the adolescent sample and their parents. Poor support and participation by the parents of the problem adolescent made it difficult for this group to readily trust, identify with their parents and take any suggestions or opinions from their parents. In contrast, the results indicate that the "promising" adolescents have better relationships with their parents. The results here further confirm the presence of the different home environments of the two adolescent sample groups.

3. PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP (DISCIPLINE).

The findings under this heading revealed that, generally the parents of the adolescent sample find it difficult to change their disciplinary techniques to accommodate the emerging adolescent person. The majority of the adolescent sample (77,5%;31), perceived their parents as authoritarian. The results here are not surprising since the black South African youth has been described as militant and rebellious with parents having lost control over their children. Parents therefore resort to traditional methods of parenting so as to correct this perception and to fight for the survival of the family. Much as the "promising" adolescents perceived discipline in their homes as authoritarian, they also confirmed that this was combined with much love and support. On the other hand relationships of the "problem" adolescents and their parents, was perceived by this group as designed

to ridicule them, make them feel inferior and there was no support at all.

4. SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

Generally what the results revealed, was the fact that the manner in which parents manage the interaction of their children affect the sibling relationship for better or worse. Again, in this environment, the "problem" adolescents were found to have poor relationships with their siblings. Sibling violence was found in this sample because of the power given to one sibling to administer discipline. This means another environment (sibling environment), that is non-supportive for the "problem" adolescents.

5. PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION

In this section, the results revealed a communication gap between the adolescent sample and their parents, characterised by lack of self-disclosure, non-expression of feelings and unequal initiation of communication in their families. This means the peer group is still an important socializing agent. This time though, this group does not promote parental values.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study investigated the parent-adolescent relationship from the vantage point of adolescents how they perceive and interpret their home life and their relations with both parents and siblings, and the effects these perceptions have upon subsequent attitudes and behaviours. Five objectives were stated and five hypothesis were proposed. These are restated and reviewed respectively in this section as follows:

6.2 RESTATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

OBJECTIVE 1

To conduct a literature search on black adolescents' perception of family life with special reference to family relationships and communication which influence the adolescent's behaviour, self-esteem and adjustment to both the home and outside environments.

Literature has shown that the family relationship atmosphere has a great influence on the personality of the adolescent child. Marital violence affects all family members and has negative effects on children e.g. low self-esteem, truancy, acting-out, depression, anxiety and aggression. Furthermore,

relationships between parents and adolescents in families where there is violence, are underlined by fear, resentment, hostility and suspicion. Conversely, marital satisfaction and harmony, as expressed by Feldman et al. (1990;215), provide parents with the emotional resources necessary to create nurturant family environments, as well as a warm and consistent parent-child relationship.

Regarding punishment, most literature conclude that punishment drives the love, trust and intimacy from adult-child relationships in the home. It does not prepare children to become co-operative, productive and self-motivated adults. Since punishment is based on power rather than communication, it has far-reaching detrimental effects on establishing and maintaining intimate and loving relationships. According to Barnes and Olson (1985:433), discussion between parents and children significantly facilitate the development of higher moral reasoning in adolescents.

The manner in which black parents were reared affects the way they relate to their children. Literature has revealed that most black parents are authoritarian. The present study has confirmed the above statement. However, with today's youth, this style of parenting is challenged and discredited as an act that can no longer bring order or character on the child. Furthermore, traditionally there was lack of free and open communication between the adolescent and his parent (or any adult), and the sibling and peer systems took over the important role of socializing. Again, the sibling system as a socializing agent is challenged because of the power parents

give to this system. The peer system as is seen today, does not promote family values but perpetrates the conflict.

OBJECTIVE 2

To explore the relationships of black adolescent children and their parents and consequent perceptions of the adolescents towards their home life.

The researcher found a marked difference in the quality of family relationships between the "problem" adolescents and "promising" adolescents. Regarding the parental system, the results revealed that "problem" adolescents come from families where there is marital violence, where they witness this violence and where threats of separation are ever present, and this results in a lack of confidence in their parents and uncertainty about their home life. It is clear that marital violence creates uncertainty and anxiety in the adolescent and thus alienates the adolescent with his parents. In contrast, "promising" adolescents come from a stable and cohesive parental system and this safe environment builds confidence in them.

A significant difference was further found in the family relationship of the two adolescent sample groups. The "problem" adolescents gave a negative picture of their family relationships. All their family environments, viz marital/parental environment; parent-child environment and sibling environment were non-supportive and thus did not promote their well-being. In contrast, the "promising" ado-

lescent gave a positive picture of their family relationships, characterized by the parents' positive sentiments of love, concern and nurturing that promotes their inherent worth as members of their families.

Generally the researcher found a communication gap between parents and their adolescents, characterized by lack of self-disclosure, non-expression of feelings and unequal initiation of communication.

Briefly, the researcher found that the quality of relationships between the parents and the adolescents is affected by the marital system (i.e. whether there is discord or harmony) and the stress and strain of the family to survive and fear of losing control over their adolescent child resulting in parents holding on to their traditional values of childrearing methods.

OBJECTIVE 3

To analyse how the family structure and family relationships may be contributory factors to anti-social behaviour.

This objective was partially fulfilled. The studies of Atwater (1983), Hoffmann (1980), Nye (1978), and Quay (1987), reflected in chapter two reveal that poor or negative family relationships are contributory factors to anti-social behaviour. The findings of the empirical study also provide evidence that unhealthy family relationships lead to anti-social behaviour. The majority of the "problem" adolescents

indicated that relationships in their families were poor and conflictual.

OBJECTIVE 4

To examine the specific social needs of black adolescents in an urban area.

The researcher found that it is difficult for the majority of the adolescent sample to obey their parents' suggestions. The analysis of results in Item 3.2 of the interview schedule reveals that the majority of the adolescent sample prefer to satisfy their needs first, since parents' childrearing patterns and values are not suitable for their generation.

Also, according to details in Table 5.4.5 and the responses to the open-ended question, most of the adolescent sample prefer to be in the company of their friends. However, the "promising" adolescents spend more time with their parents than do the "problem" adolescents. Garbarino et al. (1986:67), say that the amount of time spent together is an important indicator of healthy family functioning. Healthy family time may be active or passive but it is generally geared to participation by all family members. According to these authors, unhealthy families spend little time together, they have little time for nurturing relationships; time in dysfunctional families is non-interactive. When interactions do occur, members may accentuate the negative. The present study found that the majority of the "problem" adolescents have little time with their parents and the latter never ar-

range family outings. One can therefore, conclude that, the adolescents need both their parents and friends in their growth and development.

OBJECTIVE 5

On the basis of empirical findings to explore alternative social welfare helping measures for the black urban youth/adolescent.

Based on the findings of the empirical study, the family can no longer look to itself as being self-sufficient. The violence between parents and the current violence in South Africa places a lot of strain and stress on the parental system, threatens the existence of the family and weakens the optimal functioning of the family.

The social worlds of the adolescents, viz the sibling and the peer systems cause concern. With the sibling, the management and interference of parents resulted in adolescents not using this system to the optimum i.e. looking at it as supportive. Instead, the adolescents challenge the power given to siblings. On the other hand because of the current youth violence, the peer system threatens family values and parents fear that this system will influence their children to be rebellious.

Helping families with adolescents requires investigation of major subsystems, viz the adolescent, marital, family and environmental subsystems. According to Frager (1985:168),

each of these subsystems has its own set of tasks, responsibilities, and roles, which can be met when boundaries are clearly defined. In addition, boundaries must be permeable and sufficiently fluid to allow access and communication between subsystems and adaptability to developmental change. The author cites the study of Kleinman, which found that healthy psychosocial functioning in male adolescents was largely related to the presence of good generational boundaries. Parents functioned as a united team, fulfilling their executive functions as parents while resolving any marital conflict within the confines of the marital system. This optimal functioning cannot be achieved unless parents have the power to do so. Social welfare helping measures need to take into consideration the family especially the various subsystems within the family and the violence in the community which threatens its quality and existence.

6.3 HYPOTHESES REVIEWED

HYPOTHESIS 1

Conflict and tension between parents affect the parent-child relationship and are associated with poor adjustment in children.

The researcher found a significant difference in the responses of the "problem" adolescents and the "promising" adolescents. It is clear from the data gathered on parental conflict that there is greater conflict in the homes of the "problem" adolescents than in the homes of the "promising"

adolescents. These results are in line with the findings of Hanson et al., (1984); Hetherington et al., (1971); Nye, (1958); Richards et al., (1979) of which found greater conflict in the homes of delinquents than in those of non-delinquents. According to Siegel & Senna (1988:248), more recent studies which have focused on the relationship between marital discord have supported Nye's research. Most have found a pattern for children growing up in maladapted homes in which they have witnessed violence and conflict, to exhibit signs of emotional disturbance, behaviour problems and social conflict. The above hypothesis is supported by the findings of this study. Compared to the "promising" adolescents who reported greater confidence and trust that their parents would solve whatever problems they experienced; the "problem" adolescents showed greater uncertainty, desertion or ultimate loss of a parent.

The results further revealed that the "problem" adolescents come from families where parents threaten to leave home, and some had actually deserted their families; demonstrating poor problem-solving skills and maladaptive behaviour to the children also creating emotional uncertainty within children. Quay (1987:228), says that the failure to acquire and use adequate problem solving strategies and coping skills may facilitate the development of anti-social behaviour in children and adolescents in several ways. Firstly, high levels of stress resulting from unresolved problems are known to disrupt highly skilled behaviours. The irritability and distraction resulting from stress may disrupt effective par-

enting skills like good discipline, monitoring and positive parenting. Secondly, the family is the primary context in which a child observes and practices problem-solving skills. Opportunities, models and feedback concerning effective problem-solving in the family context provide the child with skills needed for adequate interpersonal, school and work adjustment when he/she leaves the home setting. Finally, stress and irritability within the family setting may be frequent and intense when family members have poor problem-solving skills, resulting in conflict, arguments and physical fighting.

HYPOTHESIS 2

Delinquent-producing families often engage in dysfunctional patterns of behaviour. These maladaptive family systems generally fail to cope with various crises within the family, such as the delinquency of a child. In addition, the stress within these families creates a social atmosphere which makes it difficult for youngsters to satisfy their needs within the family and thus motivates them to fulfil their needs elsewhere.

The analysis of results revealed poor problem-solving skills by the parents of the "problem" adolescents, viz they threaten to leave home (and some have left home) when upset and dissatisfied with their spouse. The researcher found a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups to Item 2.6 of the interview schedule. In most literature it is said that marital conflict can generate di-

vorce or separation and this has a major effect on the adolescents, especially when they are used as scapegoats for parents (Adam, 1989; Ianni, 1989; Nye, 1978; Petterson, 1986; and and Quay 1987). Time and frequency of advice giving and discipline for the adolescent is minimized due to marital discord that consumes most of the parents' time. Early adolescents are affected by marital conflict more financially, because they are in a stage where peer value status is important and the only fuel to maintain status is money. As they are deprived of monetary resources they rely on anti-social behaviours like delinquency, stealing and prostitution. According to Garbarino et al. (1986:65), the family must have adequate problem-solving skills in order to maintain order and discipline in the family.

Regarding family relationships, the results of this study revealed that the "problem" adolescents enjoy little prestige in their homes, their parents are not supportive, do not make themselves available, they show no concern and they do not encourage or reward any good behaviour by them. As such, this group was found to be motivated towards being dishonest and to find personal recognition elsewhere. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents reported that they interacted in a supportive way with their parents; parents encourage and reward good behaviour, thus they do not want to jeopardize their status within their families.

In the aspect of sibling relationship, the researcher found that compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents reported that there is favouritism in their fam-

ilies and the manner in which their parents handle this subsystem, affects them negatively especially that their siblings are called upon to administer discipline. The results revealed that the sibling environment further promotes the frustrations and dissatisfaction of this group as members of their families. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents reported that their relationships with their siblings are positively encouraged by their parents and therefore this group talk of family unity, better understanding of family members and cooperation of children to provide support to their parents. To this group, the sibling environment fosters their development. Therefore, sibling relationships play a part in the socialization of children.

Regarding parent-adolescent communication, the researcher found a general communication gap between the adolescent sample and their parents characterized by lack of self-disclosure, non-expression of feelings and unequal initiation of communication in their families. However, compared to the "promising" adolescents, the "problem" adolescents gave a more negative picture of communication; their parents make them feel inferior, there is lack of understanding, listening and empathy. One can thus conclude that, lack of communication between parents and children contributes in making children perceive the relationships in their families as unfriendly, especially when parents deprive their children of love, support, encouragement and attention. This results in the the lack of positive self-expression on the part of the children. Garbarino et al. (1986:65), mention that communi-

cation is the transactional function in the family, and it carries out the exchanges of material, energy, and information with the environment. This function is clearly related to socialization of family members. In the homes of the "problem" adolescents, this function is not fulfilled and thus there is greater misunderstanding and unfriendly relationships with their families.

HYPOTHESIS 3

A person's family situation and his concept of himself are directly and positively related. If the individual's family interaction is perceived as positive, the individual will feel positive about himself. If he perceives a negative family interaction, he will have a negative self-concept.

The researcher found a marked difference in the quality of family relationships between the "problem" adolescents and the "promising" adolescents. The "promising" adolescents gave more favourable responses than the "problem" adolescents. The differences were significant for eighteen of nineteen items of the interview schedule in this section (i.e. Section three, family relationships). Taken as a whole the responses indicate that the "promising" adolescents have better relationships with their parents than the "problem" adolescents. For example, analysis of results to Item 3.15 revealed that the "problem" adolescents are always rebellious against their parents because they perceive relationships with their parents as frustrating; their parents are not available for them and fail to understand them. The promis-

ing adolescents on the other hand, feel that there is no need to be rebellious since most of their needs are met by their parents.

HYPOTHESIS 4

An adolescent who has been identified as engaging in delinquent activities will view his parents and his relationship with them more negatively than will an adolescent who has not been so identified.

The findings of the empirical study support the above hypothesis. The "problem" adolescents perceive their family interactions negatively in all the five aspects investigated in this study, viz parental system, family relationships, discipline, sibling relationships and parent-adolescent communication. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents gave a more positive picture of interaction with their families in all of the above-mentioned aspects.

HYPOTHESIS 5

Poorly adjusted adolescents (i.e. problem adolescents) come from home settings where family relationships are perceived as poor and where the adolescents perceive an unconstructive type of training and guidance.

Regarding parent-adolescent relationship (discipline), the researcher found a significant difference in the responses of the two adolescent sample groups in eight of the nine

items of this section of the interview schedule (see APPENDIX D, 5.5.1 to 5.5.9). The majority of the "problem" adolescents perceived discipline in their home negatively, i.e. unfair, undemocratic and humiliating ; there is preferential treatment (favouritism) and their parents allow their siblings to administer discipline. In item 4.2 of the interview schedule, the researcher found that generally the majority of the adolescent sample from both groups viewed their parents as authoritarian. However, the explanations provided to the open-ended questions were different. The "problem" adolescents viewed their parents' behaviour as aggressive, demanding and designed to ridicule them and make them feel inferior. In contrast, the "promising" adolescents viewed their parents' behaviour as guidance and love and were interested in maintaining a healthy family atmosphere. In the family where discipline is unfair and partially exists, the child never receives adequate socialization in the home, according to the emperical findings in this study.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the above conclusions by the researcher, recommendations to promote the well-being of children, parents and the quality of families, are as follows :

6.4.1 PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

There is a need for professionals to gain knowledge of using the family as its resource. Children have natural bonds with their parents, even if they are removed from their homes and

committed to places of safety, they will eventually be reunited with their families. The family should not only be part of the treatment strategy but it should be empowered to take the forefront on issues affecting its members.

Professionals who work with families should conscientize themselves with the cultural and traditional values of families as affecting its members and its existence. More educational structures and group discussions on families should be structured to empower social workers and other professionals to be effective in their intervention and thus build confidence in them.

Professional education should address and prevent the consequences of family violence viz. psychological effects of children, homelessness, increase of single headed families and poverty.

Helping professionals can learn about the dynamics of marital violence/conflict and adolescent maltreatment and become sensitized to the possibility that clients showing certain symptoms are victims. Changes will occur when professionals learn about the problems faced by families and their children. The education of professionals should include an understanding amongst professionals themselves in the definition of the concepts e.g. family violence, anti-social behaviour, and maltreatment of children. It is anticipated that an increase in the number of workshops, conferences, publications and case studies will enhance the quality and

quantity of the knowledge required by professionals for intervention.

6.4.2 COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Community education should address and develop alternative supportive structures that strengthen the ability of parents and adolescents to meet effectively their responsibilities in their respective roles.

The literature reviewed and the findings of the empirical study indicate that peer associations are essential ingredients for adolescent development. Education therefore, should focus on the adolescent community, linking these adolescents together, so as to expand their network, experience and share their diverse talents and experiences of others and to develop relationships which would broaden their community consciousness. Because the youth is seen in the context of his family and the family has great influence over him, community education should address this need of linking adults and adolescents in a wide variety of formal and informal networks. This is to emphasize family values and restore the trust between parents or adults and children. Social workers need to design programmes that focus on effective childrearing skills. These can be achieved through structured programmes of lectures, role playing, and group dynamics. Similar content, modified to meet the needs of adolescents should be taught to the youth e.g. effective communication, problem-solving skills and listening skills. Briefly the social workers' focus on community education for parents and chil-

dren must be directed towards a change perspective and in acquiring new skills for both actors that would result in a different, more functional family interactional process. It should be noted though that all this calls for partnership with other professionals, community venture including all concerned, including parents.

6.4.3 SOCIAL WORK SERVICES

The adolescent needs help from his family in his growth towards maturity, for it is the family that must provide the setting in which he can ultimately resolve his struggle in a positive way. The adolescent and his parent need help to learn to become aware of their behaviours and to communicate with each other in a more meaningful way, so as to begin to take on their appropriate roles. Both actors should be assisted to begin to find new ways of relating to each other, new ways that maintain the family unity and still allow individualization of members. Therefore, social work services in the form of family interviews and individual interviews are still very much needed. In the individual interview with parents the aim would be to support parents and not to undermine their childrearing patterns. On the other hand, the interview with the adolescent will be aimed at being sensitive to the needs of the adolescent.

In the interview with the family, the social worker explores the various environments existing within the family, viz. the parent environment, the parent-child environment, the sibling environment and the family's communication patterns. This

will encourage the social worker to look beyond individual clients to the social systems. The social worker will explore and clarify the nature and sources of family difficulty. This will be aimed at getting family members to agree that there are more problems inherent in their situation than just those of the adolescent about which they came to the agency. It is more important for the social worker to engage the family in discussing areas of family functioning not directly related to the presenting problem. The aim would be to avoid a situation which might develop where parents could launch an attack on the adolescent, with siblings joining in. In the continuing interviews there will be many opportunities to check and recheck the facts. What is important is that the social worker opens up areas for discussion that will lead to an understanding of the problems in the family and begin to uncover the deeper psychological elements that are operating to keep all the family members bound in conflicting relationships.

These services will facilitate more direct and more popular models, e.g. group work model/approach and mutual aid support groups.

6.4.4 CHANGE IN SOCIAL POLICY

The prevalence of family violence, youth violence and adolescent maltreatment have accumulated to create serious stress in the communities. The issue of family structure and family functioning in the black communities can no longer be ignored. Responsibility for strengthening black parent-

child relationships must be undertaken not only by black individuals and families themselves but by changing institutional and environmental circumstances that can facilitate viable black family life. The social welfare policy needs to look into the quality of family life. Every individual in the society by virtue of being a social citizen, has a right to be provided with decent housing. Both the government and corporate sectors of society can support black re-emphasis of their family solidarity by providing resources in black communities and opportunities to black adolescents. Special attention should be given to black adolescent males to strengthen work incentives and opportunities to contribute to family support.

6.4.5 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research should be directed to the following areas:

- 1. This study was exploratory, a more detailed study that includes the perceptions of both adolescents and their parents needs to be conducted, so as to obtain an objective picture of the factors affecting family life.*
- 2. From the findings of this study, it appears that the marital system plays a dominant role in the personality development of the adolescent. The association of marital violence as affecting the behaviour of the child is persistent. Therefore well controlled research on marital violence as affecting the behaviour of the child is required. This will remove the general assumptions con-*

stantly made about this environment being destructive to the growth of children.

- 3. Different gender reaction to family violence needs to be investigated.*
- 4. Family violence has been associated with low self-esteem and poor self-concept. More clarification of the correlation of these concepts will provide answers for appropriate intervention.*
- 5. Future research should also focus on sibling relationships. Not much has been written on this interaction, especially that it can be reinforced as an alternative resource for strengthening the family. There is need for more information on sibling violence, and sibling solidarity against parents as these are concepts which have been identified as important in family dynamics.*

REFERENCES CITED

BOOKS

ADAMS, G R & GULLOTA, T
1989 *ADOLESCENT LIFE EXPERIENCES*
Brooks: Cole Publishing Co. Carlifornia.

ASHMORE, R D & BRODZINSKY, D M
1986 *THINKING ABOUT THE FAMILY*
Views of parents and children Hillsdate,
New Jersey: Erbaum.

ARKAVA, M I
1988 *BEGINNING SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH,*
Toronto: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

ATWATER, E
1983 *ADOLESCENCE,*
New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc.

BAILEY, K D
1987 *METHODS OF SOCIAL RESEARCH*
(3rd Edition)
New York: The Free Press - a division
of Macmillan, Inc.

BARNES, G G
1984 *WORKING WITH FAMILIES*
London: MacMillan Education Limited.

BELSKY, J; LERNER, R M & SPANIER, G B
1984 *THE CHILD IN THE FAMILY READING,*
Massachusetts: Addison Wesley.

BLACKMAN, J
1989 *INTIMATE VIOLENCE - (A study of injustice),*
New York: Columbia University Press.

BLUSTEIN, J 1982
PARENT AND CHILDREN - THE ETHNICS OF THE FAMILY
New York: Oxford University Press.

BOLTON, F G
1983 WHEN BONDING FAILS
Clinical assessment of high-risk families
Beverly Hills, Carlifonia; Sage.

BRASSARD, M R; GERMAIN, R & HART, S N
1987 PSYCHOLOGICAL MALTREATMENT OF CHILDREN
AND YOUTH. New York: Pergamon Books, Inc.

BURMAN, S & REYNOLDS, P
1986 GROWING UP IN A DIVIDED SOCIETY
(The contexts of childhood in South Africa),
Johannesburg: Ravan Press (Pty) Limited.

COLEMAN, J C & HENDRY, L
1990 THE NATURE OF ADOLESCENCE - London: Routledge.

DREYER, H J
1980 ADOLESCENCE IN A CHANGING SOCIETY
Pretoria: H & R Academic.

EEKELAAR, J M
1978 FAMILY VIOLENCE-(An internatioal and inter-diplinary study)
Toronto: Butterworth and Company (Canada) Limited.

EVOY, J J
1981 THE REJECTED (Psychological consequences of parental
rejection), London: Pennsylvania State University Press.

FINE, M J
1979 PARENTS vs CHILDREN - Making the relationship work
Prentice Hall.

FINKELHOR, D GELLES, R J; HOTALING, G T & STRAUSS M A
1983 THE DARK SIDE OF FAMILIES
(Currently family violence research),
Carlifornia: Sage Publications, Inc.

FINKELHOR, D et al.
1988 STOPPING FAMILY VIOLENCE -
(Research priorities for the coming decade)
London: Sage Publications, Inc.

GARBARINO, J; SCHELLENBACH, C & SEBES, J M
1986 *TROUBLED YOUTH, TROUBLED FAMILIES*
(understanding families at-risk for adolescent maltreatment),
New York: Aldane Publishing Company.

GOLDSTEIN, H K
1980 *RESEARCH STANDARDS AND METHODS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS*
USA: Whitehall Company Publishers.

GRINNELL, R M
1981 *SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH AND EVALUATION*,
Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers.

GRINNELL, R M
1988 *SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH AND EVALUATION - 3RD EDITION*
Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers.

HAUSER, S T; POWER, S I & NAOMI, G G
1991 *ADOLESCENTS AND THEIR FAMILIES (Paths of ego development)*
New York: The Free Press.

HENDERSON, R W
1981 *PARENT-CHILD INTERACTION: THEORY, RESEARCH AND PROSPECTS*
(Educational Psychology) New York: Academic Press.

HENDERSON, P & THOMAS, D N
1989 *SKILLS IN NEIGHBOURHOOD WORK*, London: Unwin Hyman Limited.

HERBERT, M
1989 *DISCIPLINE (A POSITIVE GUIDE FOR PARENTS)*
New York: Basil Blackwell Inc.

HOFFMAN
1980 *REVIEW OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH*
New York: Russell Sage Foundation

HURLOCK, E B
1983 *Adoloscent Development*
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co.

IANNI, F A J
1989 *THE SEARCH FOR STRUCTURE*
(A report on American youth today),
New York: The Free Press.

JENSEN, L C
1985 *ADOLESCENCE: THEORIES, RESEARCH, APPLICATIONS*
New York: West Publishing Co.

JONES, R & COLIN, P
1980 *SOCIAL WORK WITH ADOLESCENTS*
Boston: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited.

KAYONGO-MALE, D & ONYANGO, P
1986 *THE SOCIOLOGY OF THE AFRICAN FAMILY*
New York: Longman Group Limited.

KERLINGER, F N
1986 *FOUNDATIONS OF BEHAVIOURAL RESEARCH*
New York: CBS Publishing Japan Limited.

LEVINSON, D
1989 *FAMILY VIOLENCE IN CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE*
London: Sage Publications.

McKENDRICK, B W
1987 *INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL WORK IN SOUTH AFRICA*
Pinetown: Owen Burgess Publishers.

McKENDRICK, B W & HOFFMANN, W
1990 *PEOPLE AND VIOLENCE IN SOUTH AFRICA*
Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

MINUCHIN, S
1977 *FAMILIES AND FAMILY THERAPY*
Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.

OHLIN, L & TONRY, M
1989 *FAMILY VIOLENCE*,
Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

PARKER, G
1983 *PARENTAL OVERPROTECTION - A risk factor in psychological development*. New York: Grune and Stratton.

PLECK, E
1987 *DOMESTIC TYRANNY (The making of American social policy against family violence from colonial times to the present)*,
New York: Oxford University Press.

QUAY, H C
1987 HANDBOOK OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY,
Toronto: John Wiley & Son, Inc.

SCHIAMBERG, L B
1988 CHILD AND ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT
New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.

SIGEL, I E
1985 PARENTAL BELIEF SYSTEM (The psychological consequences
for children), New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.,
Publishers

SIEGEL, L J & SENNA J J
1988 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY (THEORY & LAW)
Loss Angeles: West Publishing Company.

STAPLES, R
1986 THE BLACK FAMILY ESSAYS AND STUDIES (3rd Edition)
Carlifornia: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc.

TRUE, J A
1989 FINDING OUT (Conducting & Evaluating Social Research)
(2nd Edition), Carlifornia: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

VAN HASSELT, V B
1988 HANDBOOK OF FAMILY VIOLENCE, New York: Plenum Press.

WASHINGTON, V & LA POINT, V
1988 BLACK CHILDREN AND AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS
(An ecological review and resource guide),
New York: Garland Publishing, Inc.

WECHSLER, H
1981 SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH IN THE HUMAN SERVICES
(2nd Edition), New York: Human Sciences Press.

WODARSKI, J S
1987 SOCIAL PRACTICE WITH CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS
Illinois: Charles C. Thomas publisher.

PERIODICAL ARTICLES

ADAMS, G R & JONES, R M

1982 ADOLESCENT EGOCENTRISM: Exploration into possible contributions parent-child relations.

JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE

Vol.11, No.1 P.25-31

ANOLIK, S A

1983 FAMILY INFLUENCES UPON DELINQUENCY:

Biosocial and Psychosocial perspectives.

ADOLESCENCE

VOL. 18 NO. 71 P.489-498

BARNES, H L & OLSON, D H

1985 PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION AND THE CIRCUMPLEX MODEL.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Vol.56, P.438-447

BELL, N J & AVERY, A W

1985 FAMILY STRUCTURE AND PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIPS:

Does family structure really make a difference?

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY

Vol.47, MAY P.503-508

BELSKY, J & ISABELLA, R A

1985 MARITAL AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS IN FAMILY OF ORIGIN AND MARITAL CHANGE FOLLOWING THE BIRTH OF A BABY:

A restrospective analysis.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Vol.56, No. 2, P.361-375

BENN, R K

1986 FACTORS PROMOTING SECURE ATTACHMENT RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EMPLOYED MOTHERS AND THEIR SONS.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Vol.57, No.5, P.1224 - 1231

BOOTH, A; BRINKERHOFF, D B & WHITE, L K

1984 THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL DIVORCE ON COURTSHIP

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

Vol.46, No.1, P.85-94

BUHRMESTER, D & FURMAN, W

1990 PERCEPTIONS OF SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS DURING MIDDLE CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT

Vol.61, P.1387-1398

BURMAN, B; JOHN, R S & MARGOLIN, S

1987 EFFECTS OF MARITAL AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS OF CHILDREN'S ADJUSTMENT.

JOURNAL OF FAMILY PSYCHOLOGY

Vol.1, P.91-108

- CALLADINE, C E
 1983 *SIBLING RIVALRY: A parent education perspective.*
CHILD WELFARE Vol.LXII, No.5, September/October P.421-428
- CEMANE, K B
 1990 *THE STREET CHILD PHENOMENON*
SOCIAL WORK/MAATSKAPLIKE WERK, P2-5
- CLAYER, J R; ROSS, M W & CAMPBELL, R L
 1984 *CHILD-REARING PATTERNS AND DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY*
SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY
 Vol.12, No.2, P.153-156
- COLEMAN, E V M et. al
 1989 *MARITAL SATISFACTION IN REMARRIAGE*
A meta-analysis
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
 51 (August), P.713-725
- COOK, W & DREYER, A
 1984 *THE SOCIAL RELATIONS MODEL: A new approach to the analysis of family-dyadic interaction.*
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
 Vol.46, No.3, P.679-687
- COOPER, J E; HOLMAN, J & BRAITHWAITE, V A
 1983 *SELF-ESTEEM AND FAMILY COHESION: The child's perspective and adjustment.*
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
 February, P.153-159
- COVELL, K & ABRAMOVITCH, R
 1987 *UNDERSTANDING EMOTION IN THE FAMILY: Children's and parents attributions of happiness, sadness and anger.*
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
 Vol.58, No.4, P.985-991
- DEAN, A L; MALIK, M M; RICHARDS, W & STRINGER S A
 1986 *EFFECTS OF PARENTAL MALTREATMENT ON CHILDREN'S CONCEPTIONS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS*
DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY
 Vol.22, No.5, P.617-626
- DEMO, D H; SMALL, S A; SAVIN-WILLIAMS, R C
 1987 *FAMILY RELATIONS AND THE SELF ESTEEM OF ADOLESCENTS AND THEIR PARENTS.*
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
 November, P.705-715

FELDMAN, S S; WENTZEL, K R; WEINBERGER, D A; MANSON, J A
1990 MARITAL SATISFACTION OF PARENTS OF PREADOLESCENT BOYS
AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO FAMILY AND CHILD FUNCTIONING.
JOURNAL OF FAMILY PSYCHOLOGY
Vol. 4, No. 2, P.213-233

FELSON, R B
1983 AGGRESSION AND VIOLENCE BETWEEN SIBLINGS.
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY QUARTERLY
Vol.46, No.4, P.271-285

FELSON, R B & ZIELINSKI, M A
1989 CHILDREN'S SELF-ESTEEM AND PARENTAL SUPPORT
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
Vol. 5, P.727 - 735

FOREHAND, R
1986 PARENTAL POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT WITH DEVIANT CHILDREN:
Does it make a difference.
CHILD AND FAMILY BEHAVIOUR THERAPY Vol.8, No.3, P.19-25

FRAGER, A R
1985 A FAMILY SYSTEMS PERSPECTIVE ON ACTING-OUT
SOCIAL CASEWORK
P.167 - 176

FURMAN, W & BUHRMESTER, D
1985 CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF THE QUALITIES OF SIBLING RE-
LATIONSHIPS.
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.56, P.448-461

GARBARINO, J; SEBES, J & SCHELLENBACH, C
1984 FAMILIES AT RISK FOR DESTRUCTIVE PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS
IN ADOLESCENCE.
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.55, No.1, P.174-183

GECAS, V & SCHWALBE, M L
1986 PARENTAL BEHAVIOUR AND ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM.
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
February P.37-46

GEHRING, T M & FELDMAN, S S
1988 ADOLESCENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF FAMILY COHESION AND POWER:
A methodological study of the family system test.
JOURNAL OF ADOLESCENT RESEARCH
3, P.33-52

GROTEVANT, H D & COOPER, C R
1985 PATTERNS OF INTERACTION IN FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND THE
DEVELOPMENT OF IDENTITY EXPLORATION I ADOLESCENCE.
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.56, P.415-428

HALL, J A
1984 EMPIRICALLY BASED TREATMENT FOR PARENT-ADOLESCENT CON-
FLICT.

SOCIAL CASEWORK

Vol.55, No.1, P.487-495

HALL, J A; and ROSE, S D
1987 EVALUATION OF PARENT TRAINING IN GROUPS FOR
PARENT-ADOLESCENT CONFLICT

SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH AND ABSTRACTS

P.3 - 8

HARRIS, M I D & HOWARD, K I

1985 CORRELATES OF PERCEIVED PARENTAL FAVORITISM

JOURNAL OF GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY

Vol.146, No.1, P.45-56

HERSCH, P

1988 COMING OF AGE ON CITY STREETS:

Runaway and homeless teens thought crack, prostitution and
violent pimps were worst street life could do to them - that
was before AIDS.

PSYCHOLOGY TODAY

January, P.28-37

HOLMAN, S L

1986 ADOLESCENCE AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

CHILD AND ADOLESCENT SOCIAL WORK

Vol.3, No.4, P.254-266

JESSOP, D J

1981 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AS VIEWED BY PARENTS AND ADOLES-
CENTS: A specification.

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND FAMILY

February, P.37-46

JOHNSON, C L

1982 SIBLING SOLIDARITY: Its origin and functioning in
Italian-American families.

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

February, P.155-167

LARSON, R W

ADOLESCENT'S DAILY EXPERIENCE WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS: Con-
trasting opportunity systems.

JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY

P.739-749

LITOVSKY, V G & DUSEK, J B

1985 PERCEPTIONS OF CHILD REARING AND SELF-CONCEPT DEVELOP-
MENT DURING THE EARLY ADOLESCENT YEARS.

JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE

8, P.287-295

McMILLAN, D W & HILTONSMITH, R W
1982 ADOLESCENTS AT HOME : An exploratpru study of the re-
lationship between perception of family social climate, gen-
eral well-being, and actual behaviour in the home setting.
JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE
Vol.11, No.4, P.301-315

MITCHELL, B A; WISTER, A
1989 THE FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND LEAVING THE PARENTAL HOME
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
Vol.51, August, P.605-613

NOLLER, P & BAGI, S
1985 PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION
JOURNAL OF ADOLESCENCE
Vol.8, June, P.125-144

NORRELL, J E
1984 SELF-DISCLOSURE:
Implications for the study of parent-adolescent interaction.
JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE
Vol.13, No.2, P.163-178

POTTER, B & LEARY, K D
1980 MARITAL DISCORD AND CHILDHOOD BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS
JOURANL OF ABNORMAL AND CHILD PSYCHOLOGY
8, P.287 - 295

RAMPHAL, RITHA
1980 THE INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY AND THE HOME ON CHILDREN'S
BEHAVIOUR
SOCIAL WORK/MAATSKAPLIKE WERK
Vol.16, No.2, P.102-103, 117

RICHARDSON, R A; ABROMOWITZ, R H; ASP, C E & PETERSON, A C
1986 PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIPS IN EARLY ADOLESCENCE
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
Vol.48, No.2, 1986, P.805-811

SCHACTER, F F & STONE, R K
1985 DIFFICULT SIBLING, EASY SIBLING: Temperament and the
within-family environment.
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.56, P1335-1344

SCHULENBERG, J E; VONDRACEK F W & CROUTER, A C
1984 THE INFLUENCE OF THE FAMILY ON VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
Vol.46, No.1, P.129-143.

SINGH, G M & GILL, S
1984 FACTORS STRAINING PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP AS PERCEIVED
BY PARENTS AND CHILDREN.
JOURNAL OF FAMILY WELFARE
Vol.31, No.1, P76

SMITH, F C
1983 ADOLESCENT REACTION TO ATTEMPTED PARENTAL CONTROL AND
INFLUENCE TECHNIQUES
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
Vol. 45, No. 3, P.533 - 541

STEWART, R B & MARVIN, R S
1984 SIBLING RELATIONS: The role of conceptual perspective-
taking in the ontogeny of sibling caregiving.
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.55, P.1322-1332

TIMS, A R
1986 FAMILY POLITICAL COMMUNICATION OF PARENTAL AUTHORITY
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.57, P.166-176

TISAK, M S
1986 CHILDREN'S CONCEPTIONS OF PARENTAL AUTHORITY
CHILD DEVELOPMENT
Vol.57, P.166-176

TOLAN, P H
1988 DELINQUENT BEHAVIOURS AND MALE ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT:
A preliminary study.
JOURNAL OF YOUTH AND ADOLESCENCE
Vol.17, No.5, P.413-427

TSCHANN, J M; JOHNSTONE, J R; KLINE, M & WALLERSTERIN J S
1989 FAMILY PROCESS AND CHILDREN'S FUNCTIONING DURING DIVORCE
JOURNAL OF MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY
51 (May), P.431-444

WELLER, L & LUCHTERHAND, E
1983 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS OF "PROBLEM" AND "PROMISING" YOUTH.
ADOLESCENCE
Vol.XVIII, No.69, P.93-100

WILSON, H
1980 PARENTAL SUPERVISION: A neglected aspect of delinquency.
THE BRITISH JOURNAL OF CRIMINOLOGY
Vol.20, No.3, P.203-235

REPORTS

1. ADDAI-SEBO, A & WONG, A
1988 OUR STORY
LONDON STRATEGIC POLICY UNIT
P.270 - 289

2. COCKBURN, A 1991

*STREET CHILDREN:
Characteristics and dynamics of the problem.
Kindersorg/Childwelfare, March, P.6*

3. COETZEE, J H 1986

VERSTEDELIKING OENSKOU; P331-341

4. MDLULI, PRAISLEY 1987

*UBUNTU-BOTHO:
Inkatha's 'People's education', IN TRANSFORMATION
(Critical perspectives on Southern Africa); P60-77*

5. THE STREET CHILDREN PROJECT 1991
The Furniture Club; August, P.30-31

6. XALA, VUYISWA CHARITY 1985

*CHILDREN'S PERCEPTION OF THEIR PARENT'S CHILDRearing
PATTERNS.
Unpublished report; P.1 - 52*

7. WEYER, J H
*1990 ADVERSE SOCIAL CONDITIONS AND PERSUASION TO REVOLU-
TIONARY BEHAVIOUR (A South African Perspective)
Sub-Sahara Afrika forum unit for development analysis
P.1-30*

THESES

1. BOTHA, GILLIAN MARGARET

THE FACILITATION OF COMMUNICATION WITHIN FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS THROUGH CREATIVE EXPRESSION

THESIS: - M.A. Pretoria University of South Africa

2. MUNG-CHAN, N.G. 1980

FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS AND DELINQUENT BEHAVIOUR.

THESIS: - In partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of doctor of Social Welfare; New York: Columbia University.

3. NZIMANDE, SIPHINDODA VICTOR 1985

SOCIAL CHANGE AND THE FAMILY SUPPORT SYSTEM IN A RURAL COMMUNITY IN KWA-ZULU.

THESIS: - Ph.D Pretoria: University of South Africa.

4. O'BRIEN, R.A. 1978

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PATTERNS OF ACKNOWLEDGEMENT IN PARENT-CHILD COMMUNICATION AND THE CHILD'S EXPLORATORY BEHAVIOUR AND SELF-DIFFERENTIATION. THESIS: - Ph.D New York: New York University.

5. RAMPHAL, R 1979

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE HOME BACKGROUD FACTORS OF A GROUP OF INDIAN CHILDREN WHO ARE PRESENTING BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS IN SCHOOL.

THESIS: - M.A. Natal University.

6. SEGALL, LORNA 1984

SPOUSE RELATIONSHIPS: A COMPARISON BETWEEN CHILD-ABUSING AND NON-ABUSING FAMILIES.

THESIS: - M.A. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

APPENDIX A

ADJUSTMENT POINTERS

Questionnaire to be completed by school principals/class teachers, group leaders and church ministers.

Adolescent's Name:

Age:

Class:

Sex:

Name of Institution:

Home Address of adolescent:

.....

You are kindly requested to answer the following questions by putting an X in the square provided, in respect to the above mentioned adolescent, delete which answer is not applicable.

1. DOES THE CHILD ASSOCIATE WITH OLDER ANTI-SOCIAL/PROBLEM COMPANIONS?

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. IS THE CHILD A KNOWN AND PERSISTENT TROUBLEMAKER?

YES	<input type="checkbox"/>
NO	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. DOES THE CHILD SMOKE MARIJUANA/
DAGGA OR DRINK ALCOHOLIC BEVARAGES
OR ANY RELATED SUBSTANCE e.g.
GLUE SNIFFING?
- | | |
|-----|--|
| YES | |
| NO | |
4. IS THE CHILD DISOBEYING SCHOOL
OFFICIALS/AUTHORITY FIGURES/
ADULTS?
- | | |
|-----|--|
| YES | |
| NO | |
5. IS THE CHILD HABITUALLY TRUANT
FROM SCHOOL?
- | | |
|-----|--|
| YES | |
| NO | |
6. TO YOUR KNOWLEDGE, HAS THE
CHILD RUN AWAY FROM HOME?
- | | |
|-----|--|
| YES | |
| NO | |
7. IN YOUR OPINION, DO YOU THINK
THE CHILD IS SUFFERING EMOTIONAL
DAMAGE FOR WHICH PARENT OR
GUARDIAN IS UNWILLING TO PROVIDE
TREATMENT, WHICH IS EVIDENCED BY
ONE OR MORE OF THE FOLLOWING
CHARACTERISTICS EXHIBITED TO A
SEVERE DEGREE, ANXIETY, DEPRESSION,
WITHDRAWAL OR OUTWARD AGGRESSIVE
BEHAVIOUR?
- | | |
|-----|--|
| YES | |
| NO | |
8. FROM THE ABOVE INFORMATION YOU
HAVE INDICATED, WOULD YOU
GENERALLY LABEL THE CHILD AS:
- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| PROMISING/SOCIALLY
BEHAVED? | |
| PROBLEM/ANTI-
SOCIALLY BEHAVED? | |

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH THE ADOLESCENT

This questionnaire is designed to measure the way you feel about your family as a whole. It is not a test, so there are not right or wrong answers. You are kindly requested to answer the following questions by putting an X in the square provided.

SECTION ONE - PERSONAL BACKGROUND

1.1 SEX

FEMALE	<input type="checkbox"/>
MALE	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.2 AGE

16 YEARS	<input type="checkbox"/>
----------	--------------------------

1.3 PARENTS

MOTHER & FATHER	<input type="checkbox"/>
FATHER & STEPMOTHER	<input type="checkbox"/>
MOTHER & STEPFATHER	<input type="checkbox"/>
GRANDPARENTS	<input type="checkbox"/>
GRANDPARENT&PARENT	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.4 HOW MANY OTHER CHILDREN ARE THERE IN YOUR FAMILY?

SISTERS	<input type="checkbox"/>
BROTHERS	<input type="checkbox"/>
OTHERS	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.5 IN YOUR FAMILY ARE YOU

THE ELDEST?	<input type="checkbox"/>
IN BETWEEN?	<input type="checkbox"/>
THE YOUNGEST?	<input type="checkbox"/>

1.6 WHAT STANDARD ARE YOU IN?

4, 5 & 6	
7 & ABOVE	
9 AND ABOVE	

1.7 ARE YOU AT

HIGHER PRIMARY?	
HIGH SCHOOL?	

1.8 DO YOU BELONG TO A SOCIAL CLUB?

YES	
NO	

1.9 DO YOU BELONG TO A CHURCH

YES	
NO	

1.10 RESEARCHER TO INDICATE HOW THE ADOLESCENT HAS BEEN IDENTIFIED (SEE APPENDIX 1)

PROMISING	
PROBLEM	

1.11 WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOURSELF AS WELL BEHAVING

SOCIALLY?	
ANTI-SOCIALLY	

EXPLAIN

SECTION TWO – PARENTAL SYSTEM

2.1 WHAT IS THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION YOUR PARENTS HAVE OBTAINED?

NO SCHOOLING	
PRIMARY SCHOOL	
HIGH SCHOOL STD 10	
COLLEGE EDUCATION	
UNIVERSITY	

2.2 WHAT IS YOUR PARENTS' OCCUPATION?

PROFESSIONAL OR MANEGERIAL	
CLERICAL, SALES AND SKILLED	
UNSKILLED AND SEMI-SKILLED	

2.3 TAKING ALL THINGS INTO ACCOUNT, HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE YOUR PARENTS' MARRIAGE/RELATIONSHIP?

VERY HAPPY	
PRETTY HAPPY	
NOT TOO HAPPY	

2.4 DO YOUR PARENTS OFTEN GET MAD AT EACH OTHER?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

2.5 ARE THERE LOTS OF ARGUMENTS
IN YOUR FAMILY?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

2.6 SOME PEOPLE BECOME SO UPSET AND
DISSATISFIED WITH THEIR SPOUSE
THAT ONE OF THEM THREATENS TO
LEAVE HOME. DID THIS EVER
HAPPEN IN YOUR PARENTS'
MARRIAGE/RELATIONSHIP?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

SECTION THREE - FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

3.1 DO YOUR PARENTS HELP YOU WITH YOUR SCHOOLWORK?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.2 IF YOUR PARENTS MAKE A SUGGESTION, DO YOU GENERALLY ACCEPT IT?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.3 HOW OFTEN DO YOU GO PLACES WITH YOUR PARENTS?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.4 WHAT SORT OF THINGS DO YOU DO WITH YOUR PARENTS?

RECREATION	
GAMES	
VISITS	
PICNICS	
MOVIES	
HOUSE CHORES	
CHURCH GOING	

HOW OFTEN?

3.5 DO YOU DELIBERATELY AVOID GOING OUT WITH YOUR PARENTS, OR BEING SEEN IN THEIR COMPANY?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

3.6 ARE THERE ANYTHINGS YOU DO JUST TO PLEASE YOUR PARENTS, THINGS YOU KNOW THEY WILL APPRECIATE?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

3.7 WHEN YOU DO SOMETHING THAT THEY ASK RIGHT AWAY, WHAT DO THEY USUALLY DO?

PRAISE YOU	
THANK YOU	
IGNORE YOU	
OTHER	

EXPLAIN

3.8 HOW DO YOUR PARENTS REACT WHEN YOU DO SOMETHING GOOD OR TRY TO PLEASE THEM?

PRAISE	
RIDICULE	
TAKE FOR GRANTED	

EXPLAIN

3.9 DO YOUR PARENTS HAVE ANY WAY OF SHOWING THAT THEY ARE PLEASED WITH YOU?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

IF YES OR SOMETIMES, WHAT IS THE WAY?

3.10 HOW OFTEN DO YOU FEEL LIKE DOING SOMETHING YOUR PARENTS FORBID JUST IN ORDER TO STAND UP FOR YOURSELF?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.11 ARE YOU HONEST TO YOUR PARENTS ABOUT WHERE YOU HAVE BEEN AND WHAT THINGS YOU HAVE DONE?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.12 IN GENERAL, WOULD YOU SAY YOU AND YOUR PARENTS GET ALONG WELL?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.13 WOULD YOU LIKE TO BE LIKE
YOUR PARENTS?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.14 HOW MUCH DO YOU THINK YOU
ALREADY LIKE THEM?

MUCH	
LITTLE	
NOT AT ALL	

EXPLAIN

3.15 DO YOU FEEL REBELLIOUS AGAINST
YOUR PARENTS?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.16 DO YOU AGREE WITH YOUR PARENTS
ON THE IMPORTANCE OF RELIGION?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.17 DO YOU FEEL HAPPY AND HAVE LOTS OF FUN IN YOUR FAMILY?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.18 DO YOU RECEIVE THE LOVE FROM YOUR PARENTS YOU THINK YOU DESERVE?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

3.19 DO YOU AGREE WITH THE WAY YOUR PARENTS RUN THEIR LIVES?

YES	
NO	
SOMETIMES	

EXPLAIN

SECTION FOUR – PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP DISCIPLINE

4.1 HOW WOULD YOU CHARACTERISE YOUR PARENTS' DISCIPLINE THROUGHOUT YOUR CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE?

VERY FAIR	
FAIR	
VERY UNFAIR	

EXPLAIN

4.2 WERE THEY MOSTLY AUTHORITARIAN OR DID THEY RELY MORE ON THE LOVE-WITHDRAWAL APPROACH WITHHOLDING AFFECTION OR GIVING YOU THE SILENT TREATMENT?

AUTHORITARIAN	
LOVE-WITHDRAWAL SILENT TREATMENT	
AUTHORITATIVE	

EXPLAIN

4.3 DO YOUR PARENTS USE DEMOCRATIC APPROACH EXPLAINING THE RULES, NEGOTIATING WITH YOU AND RESPECTING YOUR OWN PREFERENCES IN DECISIONS CONCERNING YOUR LIFE?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

4.4 HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT THE WAY YOUR PARENTS HAVE DEALT WITH YOU IN REGARD TO PUNISHMENT?

VERY FAIR	
FAIR	
VERY UNFAIR	

EXPLAIN

4.5 WITH RESPECT TO DISCIPLINE DO YOU THINK YOUR PARENTS ARE MORE LENIENT WITH YOUR BROTHER(S)/SISTER(S) THAN WITH YOU?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

4.6 WHAT HAVE YOU DONE OR WANT TO DO BECAUSE OF THIS?

LEAVE HOME	
TOLERATE/DISAPPEAR	
CONFRONT THEM	

EXPLAIN

4.7 ALL IN ALL, HOW CONSISTENT OR INCONSISTENT WAS PARENTAL DISCIPLINE IN YOUR HOME?

VERY CONSISTENT	
NOT SURE	
VERY INCONSISTENT	

EXPLAIN

4.8 DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO MAKE MAJOR DECISIONS (e.g. GOING TO MOVIES, COMING HOME LATE, WITHOUT YOUR PARENTS' APPROVAL?)

YES	
SOMEWHAT	
NO	

EXPLAIN

4.9 DO YOU PLAN TO BRING UP YOUR OWN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS THE SAME WAY YOU WERE REARED OR DIFFERENTLY?

SAME WAY	
NOT SURE	
DIFFERENTLY	

EXPLAIN

SECTION FIVE – SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

**5.1 DO YOU AND YOUR BROTHER(S)/
SISTER(S) HELP EACH OTHER WITH
HOUSEWORK, AND HOMEWORK?**

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

**5.2 DO YOU FEEL JEALOUS OF YOUR
BROTHER(S) AND SISTER(S)**

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

**5.3 HOW IS YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH
YOUR BROTHER(S) AND/OR SISTER(S)**

CORDIAL	
NOT SURE	
POOR	

EXPLAIN

5.4 IS THE RELATIONSHIP IMPORTANT
TO YOU?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

SECTION SIX - PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION

6.1 HOW OFTEN DO YOU TALK TO YOUR PARENTS ABOUT YOUR WORRIES OR PROBLEMS?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

6.2 HOW OFTEN WOULD YOU SAY YOU WENT TO YOUR PARENTS TO TALK THINGS OVER?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

6.3 WHAT SORT OF THINGS BESIDES SCHOOL HAVE YOU TALKED ABOUT WITH YOUR PARENTS?

PERSONAL	
HOUSE RULES	
SOCIAL	

EXPLAIN

6.4 DO YOU THINK YOUR PARENTS TRY TO UNDERSTAND YOUR POINT OF VIEW?

ALWAYS	
SOMETIMES	
NEVER	

EXPLAIN

6.5 IS IT EASY FOR YOU TO EXPRESS ALL YOUR TRUE FEELINGS TO YOUR PARENTS?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

6.6 DO YOU THINK YOUR PARENTS ARE ALWAYS GOOD LISTENERS?

YES	
SOMETIMES	
NO	

EXPLAIN

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY TABLES

5.2 PERSONAL BACKGROUND

5.2.1 DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARENT STRUCTURE OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL		%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL		%
	M	F				M	F			
M & F	4	5	9		22.5	9	5	14		35
F & STEPM	3	1	4		10.0	-	-	-		-
M & STEPF	4	1	5		12.5	1	1	2		5
GPARENTS	-	-				-	-			
GP & PAR	1	1	2		5	4	-	4		10
TOTAL			20		50			20		50

NOTE :

M & F = MOTHER & FATHER

F & STEPM = FATHER & STEPMOTHER

M & STEPF = MOTHER & STEPFATHER

GPARENTS = GRANDPARENTS

GP & PAR = GRANDPARENT & PARENT

5.2.1 DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF SIBLINGS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPL

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
SISTERS	9	5	14	22.2	9	4	13	20.6
BROTHERS	11	6	17	26.9	11	5	16	25.4
OTHERS	2	-	2	3.2	1	-	1	1.7
TOTAL	33				30			

OR

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
1 & 2	3	3	6	15	7	1	8	20
3 - 5	7	4	11	27.5	6	5	11	27.5
6 & ABOVE	2	1	3	7.5	1	-	1	2.5
TOTAL	20			50	20			50

5.2.3 DISTRIBUTION OF THE BIRTH ORDER OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
THE ELDEST	5	3	8	20.0	4	3	7	17.5
IN BETWEEN	7	4	11	27.5	6	3	9	22.5
THE YOUNGEST	-	1	1	2.5	4	-	4	10.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.2.4 DISTRIBUTION OF THE STANDARD OF EDUCATION ACHIEVED BY THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
4, 5, 6	8	5	13	32.5	6	4	10	25.0
7 & 8	4	3	7	17.5	8	2	10	25.0
9 & ABOVE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.2.5 DISTRIBUTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION OF THE ADOLESCENT

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
HIGHER PRIM.	4	5	9	22.5	6	4	10	25.0
HIGH SCHOOL	8	3	11	27.5	8	2	10	25.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.2.6 DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE BELONG
TO A SOCIAL CLUB

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	1	2	3	7.5	14	6	20	50.0
NO	11	6	17	42.5				
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.2.7 DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE BELONG TO THE CHURCH

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	2	5	7	17.5	12	5	17	42.5
NO	10	3	13	32.5	2	1	3	7.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.2.8 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE DESCRIBE THEMSELVES AS BEHAVING

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
SOCIALLY	4	3	7	18.9	11	6	17	45.9
ANTI-SOCIALLY	8	5	13	35.2				
TOTAL			20	54.1			17	45.9

5.3 PARENTAL SYSTEM

5.3.1 DISTRIBUTION OF THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION THE PARENTS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE HAVE OBTAINED

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
NO SCHOOLING	1	—	1	2.5	—	—		
PRIMARY	7	4	11	27.5	2	—	2	5.0
HIGH SCHOOL	3	1	4	10.0	4	2	6	15.0
COLLEGE	—	1	1	2.5	4	1	5	12.5
UNIVERSITY	1	2	3	7.5	4	3	7	17.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.3.2 DISTRIBUTION OF THE OCCUPATION OF THE PARENTS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
PROFESSIONAL	1	3	4	10.0	5	4	9	22.5
CLERICAL	3	1	4	10.0	7	2	9	22.5
UNSKILLED	8	4	12	30.0	2	—	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.3.3 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE DESCRIBE THEIR PARENTS' MARRIAGE/RELATIONSHIP

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
VERY HAPPY	—	—			2	1	3	7.5
PRETTY HAPPY	1	1	2	5.0	9	4	13	32.5
NOT TOO HAPPY	11	7	18	45.0	3	1	4	10.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.3.4 DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE PARENTS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE GET MAD AT EACH OTHER

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
YES	11	6	17	43.6	3	1	4	10.2
SOMETIMES	—	1	1	2.6	10	4	14	35.9
NO	1	1	2	5.1	1	—	1	2.6
TOTAL			20	51.3			19	48.7

5.3.5 *DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE FAMILIES OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE
HAVE LOTS OF ARGUMENTS*

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	11	7	18	46.0	3	1	4	10.0
SOMETIMES	—	1	1	3.0	10	5	15	38.0
NO	—	—	—	1.0	—	1	1	3.0
TOTAL			19	49.0			20	51.0

5.3.6 *DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE PARENTS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE
THREATEN TO LEAVE HOME WHEN THEY ARE UPSET AND DISSATISFIED
WITH THEIR SPOUSE*

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	8	4	12	30.0	4	—	4	10.0
SOMETIMES	3	1	4	10.0	—	—	—	—
NO	1	3	4	10.0	10	6	16	40.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.4 FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

5.4.1 DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE PARENTS THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE HELP THEM WITH THEIR SCHOOL WORK

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	—	—	—	—	1	1	2	5.2
SOMETIMES	1	1	2	5.2	9	5	14	35.9
NEVER	11	7	18	46.0	3	—	3	7.7
TOTAL			20	51.2			19	48.8

5.4.2 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE GENERALLY ACCEPT THEIR PARENTS SUGGESTION

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	2.5
SOMETIMES	—	1	1	2.5	13	5	18	45.0
NEVER	12	7	19	47.5	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.4.3 *DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE GO PLACES WITH THEIR PARENTS*

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
<i>ALWAYS</i>	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
<i>SOMETIMES</i>	2	3	5	13.1	14	4	18	47.4
<i>NEVER</i>	10	5	15	39.5	—	—	—	—
<i>TOTAL</i>			20	52.6			18	47.4

5.4.4 *DISTRIBUTION OF THE SORT OF THINGS THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE DO WITH THEIR PARENTS*

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
<i>VISITS</i>	12	8	20	—	12	6	18	—
<i>CHORES</i>	—	—	—	—	7	5	12	—
<i>CHURCH</i>	—	2	2	—	8	6	14	—
<i>TOTAL</i>			22				44	

5.4.5 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE DELIBERATELY AVOID GOING OUT WITH THEIR PARENTS OR BEING SEEN IN THEIR COMPANY

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
YES	12	4	16	40	2	—	2	5
SOMETIMES	—	2	2	5	4	—	4	10
NO	—	2	2	5	8	6	14	35
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.6 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE DO THINGS TO PLEASE THEIR PARENTS, THINGS THEY KNOW THEIR PARENTS WILL REALLY APPRECIATE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
YES	1	3	4	10	11	4	15	37.5
SOMETIMES	1	1	2	5	3	2	5	12.5
NO	10	4	14	35	—	—	—	—
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.7 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE THE ACTS/
BEHAVIOURS OF THEIR PARENTS WHEN THEY DO SOMETHING RIGHT AWAY
ASKED BY THEM

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
PRAISE YOU	—	—	—	—	5	3	8	20.0
THANK YOU	1	2	3	7.5	7	3	10	25.0
IGNORE YOU	9	6	15	37.5	1	—	1	2.5
OTHER	2	—	2	5.0	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.8 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE THE
REACTIONS OF THEIR PARENTS WHEN THEY DO SOMETHING
GOOD OR TRY TO PLEASE THEM

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
PRAISE	1	2	3	7.5	14	6	20	50.0
RIDICULE	4	2	6	15.0	—	—	—	—
TAKE FOR GRANTED	7	4	11	27.5	—	—	—	—
OTHER	2	—	2	5.0	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.9 DISTRIBUTION OF WHETHER THE PARENTS OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE
HAVE ANY WAY OF SHOWING THAT THEY ARE PLEASED WITH THEM

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	1	2	3	7.5	12	6	18	45.0
SOMETIMES	3	—	3	7.5	1	—	1	2.5
NO	8	6	14	35.0	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.10 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE LIKE DOING SOMETHING
THEIR PARENTS FORBID JUST IN ORDER TO STAND UP FOR THEMSELVES

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	10	8	18	45.0	1	—	1	2.5
SOMETIMES	1	—	1	2.5	8	2	10	25.0
NEVER	1	—	1	2.5	5	4	9	22.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.11 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE IS HONEST
 TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT WHERE THEY HAVE BEEN AND WHAT
 THINGS THEY HAVE DONE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	—	—	—	—	1	—	1	2.5
SOMETIMES	1	—	1	2.5	9	5	14	35.0
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	4	1	5	12.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.12 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE GET ALONG WELL WITH
 THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	1	—	1	2.5	4	3	7	17.5
SOMETIMES	—	—	—	—	10	3	13	32.5
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	—	—	—	—
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.13 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE WOULD LIKE TO BE LIKE
TO BE LIKE THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	1	-	1	2.5	5	4	9	22.5
SOMETIMES	-	1	1	2.5	4	-	4	10.0
NEVER	11	7	18	45.0	5	2	7	17.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.14 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE THINK

TO BE ALREADY LIKE THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
MUCH	—	—	—	—	4	4	8	20.0
LITTLE	2	—	2	5.0	9	2	11	27.5
NOT AT ALL	10	8	18	45.0	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.15 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE FEEL REBELIOUS

AGAINST THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	10	4	14	35.0	1	—	1	2.5
SOMETIMES	2	4	6	15.0	4	3	7	17.5
NEVER	—	—	—	—	9	3	12	30.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.16 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE AGREE WITH
THEIR PARENTS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF RELIGION

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	1	3	4	10.0	13	5	18	45.0
SOMETIMES	5	4	9	22.5	—	1	1	2.5
NEVER	6	1	7	17.5	1	—	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.17 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE FEEL HAPPY
AND HAVE LOTS OF FUN IN THEIR FAMILIES

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	—	—	—	—	12	5	17	42.5
SOMETIMES	1	1	2	5.0	2	1	3	7.5
NEVER	11	7	18	45.0	—	—	—	—
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.18 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE THE
RECEPTION OF LOVE FROM THEIR PARENTS THEY THINK THEY DESERVE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	1	—	1	2.5	10	5	15	37.5
SOMETIMES	—	—	—	—	4	1	5	12.5
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	—	—	—	—
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.4.19 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE AGREE WITH
THE WAY THEIR PARENTS RUN THEIR LIVES

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	—	1	1	2.5	7	5	12	30.0
SOMETIMES	—	—	—	—	2	—	2	5.0
NO	12	7	19	47.5	5	1	6	15.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.5 PARENT-ADOLESCENT RELATIONSHIP DISCIPLINE

5.5.1 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE CHARACTERISE THEIR PARENTS' DISCIPLINE THROUGHOUT THEIR CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
VERY FAIR	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	2.5
FAIR	1	1	2	5.0	14	5	19	47.5
VERY UNFAIR	11	7	18	45.0	—	—	—	—
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.5.2 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE THEIR PARENTS' DISCIPLINE AS MOSTLY AUTHORITARIAN OR MORE RELYING ON LOVE-WITHDRAWAL APPROACH — WITHHOLDING AFFECTION OR PARENT GIVING THEM SILENT TREATMENT

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
AUTHORITARIAN	10	7	17	42.5	11	3	14	35.0
LOVE WITHDR.	2	1	3	7.5	—	—	—	—
AUTHORITATIVE	—	—	—	—	3	3	6	15.0
TOTAL			20	50			20	50

5.5.3 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE THEIR PARENTS USING DEMOCRATIC APPROACH – EXPLAINING THE RULES, NEGOTIATING WITH THEM AND RESPECTING THEIR OWN PREFERENCES IN DECISIONS CONCERNING THEIR LIVES

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
ALWAYS	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	3.75
SOMETIMES	1	–	1	3.75	12	6	18	45.00
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	–	–	–	–
TOTAL			20	51.25			19	48.75

5.5.4 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE FEEL ABOUT THE WAY THEIR PARENTS HAVE DEALT WITH THEM IN REGARD TO PUNISHMENT

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
VERY FAIR	–	–	–	–	1	–	1	2.5
FAIR	1	–	1	2.5	11	6	17	42.5
VERY UNFAIR	11	8	19	47.5	2	–	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.5.5 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE WITH RESPECT TO DISCIPLINE PERCEIVE THEIR PARENTS BEING MORE LENIENT WITH THEIR BROTHER(S)/SISTER(S) THAN WITH THEM

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
ALWAYS	8	7	15	37.5	2	-	2	5.0
SOMETIMES	2	1	3	7.5	6	4	10	25.0
NEVER	2	-	2	5.0	6	2	8	20.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.5.6 DISTRIBUTION OF WHAT THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE HAVE DONE OR WANT TO DO BECAUSE OF THIS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
LEAVE HOME	10	8	18	45.0	-	-	-	-
TOLERATE	1	-	1	2.5	13	5	18	45.0
CONFRONT THEM	1	-	1	2.5	1	1	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.5.7 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PERCEIVE PARENTAL DISCIPLINE AS CONSISTENT OR INCONSISTENT IN THEIR HOMES

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
V. CONSIST.	-	-	-	-	1	2	3	7.5
NOT SURE	1	-	1	2.5	13	4	17	42.5
V. INCONSIST.	11	8	19	47.5	-	-	-	-
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

NOTE: V. CONSIST. = VERY CONSISTENT
V. INCONSIST. = VERY INCONSISTENT

5.5.8 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW ADOLESCENT SAMPLE FIND IT DIFFICULT TO MAKE MAJOR DECISIONS (E.G. GOING TO MOVIES, COMING HOME LATE) WITHOUT THEIR PARENTS' APPROVAL

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	-	2	2	5.0	4	4	8	20.0
SOMEWHAT	-	-	-	-	8	2	10	25.0
NO	12	6	18	45.0	2	-	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.5.9 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW ADOLESCENT SAMPLE PLAN TO BRING UP THEIR OWN CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS THE SAME WAY THEY WERE REARED OR DIFFERENTLY

	NUMBER		PROBLEM	%	NUMBER		PROMISING	%
	M	F	TOTAL		M	F	TOTAL	
SAME WAY	-	-	-	-	4	5	9	22.5
NOT SURE	4	2	6	15.0	2	-	2	5.0
DIFFERENTLY	8	6	14	35.0	8	1	9	22.5
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.6 SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

5.6.1 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW ADOLESCENT SAMPLE HELP THEIR BROTHER(S)/
SISTER(S) WITH HOUSEWORK AND HOMEWORK

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	2	-	2	5.0	3	5	8	20.0
SOMETIMES	1	-	1	2.5	9	1	10	25.0
NO	9	8	17	42.5	2	-	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.6.2 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW ADOLESCENT SAMPLE FEEL JEALOUS OF THEIR
BROTHER(S) & SISTER(S)

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	4	4	8	20.0	1	-	1	2.5
SOMETIMES	-	-	-	-	4	1	5	12.5
NO	8	4	12	30.0	9	5	14	35.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.6.3 DISTRIBUTION OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE
WITH THEIR BROTHER(S) & SISTER(S)

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
CORDIAL	6	-	6	15.0	12	6	18	45.0
NOT SURE	3	6	9	22.5	1	-	1	2.5
POOR	3	2	5	12.5	1	-	1	2.5
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.6.4 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE RELATIONSHIP IS IMPORTANT TO THE
ADOLESCENT SAMPLE

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	3	3	6	15.4	14	6	20	51.3
SOMETIMES	1	2	3	7.7	-	-	-	-
NEVER	8	2	10	25.6	-	-	-	-
TOTAL			19	48.7			20	51.3

5.7 PARENT-ADOLESCENT COMMUNICATION

5.7.1 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE TALK TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT WORRIES OR PROBLEMS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
SOMETIMES	1	—	1	2.5	4	2	6	15.0
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	10	4	14	35.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.7.2 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW OFTEN THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE WOULD SAY THEY WENT TO THEIR PARENTS TO TALK THINGS OVER

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
SOMETIMES	—	—	—	—	12	6	18	45.0
NEVER	12	8	20	50.0	2	—	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.7.3 DISTRIBUTION ON THE SORT OF THINGS BESIDES SCHOOL THE
ADOLESCENT SAMPLE HAVE TALKED OVER WITH THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
PERSONAL	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
HOUSE RULES	12	8	20	50.0	11	3	14	35.0
SOCIAL	-	-	-	-	3	3	6	15.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.7.4 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE THINK THEIR
PARENTS TRY TO UNDERSTAND THEIR POINT OF VIEW

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
ALWAYS	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SOMETIMES	1	-	1	2.5	14	6	20	50.0
NEVER	11	8	19	47.5	-	-	-	-
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

5.7.5 DISTRIBUTION OF HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE OF EXPRESS
ALL THEIR FEELINGS TO THEIR PARENTS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	5.1
SOMETIMES	-	-	-	-	3	2	5	12.8
NO	12	8	20	51.3	10	2	12	30.8
TOTAL			20	51.3			19	48.7

5.7.6 DISTRIBUTION ON HOW THE ADOLESCENT SAMPLE THINK
THEIR PARENTS ARE ALWAYS GOOD LISTENERS

	NUMBER		PROBLEM TOTAL	%	NUMBER		PROMISING TOTAL	%
	M	F			M	F		
YES	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	5.0
SOMETIMES	1	1	2	5.0	12	4	16	40.0
NO	11	7	18	45.0	2	-	2	5.0
TOTAL			20	50.0			20	50.0

APPENDIX D

CHI-SQUARE RESULTS - SUMMARY OF TABLES

TABLE NO.	χ^2	df	< OR >	0,05 S/NS
5.2.1	7,04	7	$\chi^2 <$	14,067; NS
5.2.2	0,0007	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.2.3	0,026	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.2.4	0,922	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.2.5	0,1	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.2.6	29,56	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.2.7	10,31	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.2.8	17,02	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.3.1	8,03	5	$\chi^2 <$	11,070; NS
5.3.2	10,99	5	$\chi^2 <$	11,070; NS
5.3.3	16,85	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.3.4	19,31	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.3.5	21,16	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.3.6	10,89	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.4.1	19,61	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.2	31,38	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.3	22,33	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.4	7,51	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.4.5	19,83	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.6	20,24	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.7	15,22	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.8	23,23	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.9	21,96	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.10	28,97	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S

APPENDIX D

CHI-SQUARE RESULTS - SUMMARY OF TABLES

TABLE NO.	χ^2	df	< OR >	0,05 S/NS
5.4.11	19,41	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.12	32,01	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.13	11,07	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.14	20,75	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.15	23,34	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.4.16	14,72	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.17	34,98	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.18	31,15	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.4.19	15,98	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.1	31,76	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.2	9,29	5	$\chi^2 <$	11,070; NS
5.5.3	34,2	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.4	27,97	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.5	17,31	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.5.6	33,22	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.7	33,19	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.5.8	26,4	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.5.9	12,09	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.6.1	22,81	5	$\chi^2 >$	11,070; S
5.6.2	10,59	5	$\chi^2 <$	11,070; NS
5.6.3	12,11	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.6.4	17,32	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S

APPENDIX D

CHI-SQUARE RESULTS - SUMMARY OF TABLES

TABLE NO.	χ^2	df	< OR >	0,05 S/NS
5.7.1	4,33	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.7.2	32,73	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.7.3	7,06	3	$\chi^2 <$	7,815; NS
5.7.4	36,19	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S
5.7.5	6,68	5	$\chi^2 <$	11,070; NS
5.7.6	23,62	3	$\chi^2 >$	7,815; S