

**EMOTIONAL SUPPORT FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL
CHILDREN IN UMZUMBE**

by

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I, hereby declare that:

"The emotional support of secondary school children in Umzumbe" is my own work, all the sources and quotations have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this study was not previously submitted by me for any degree at another university".



.....
HB MKHIZE

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The writer

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SUMMARY

The aim of the research was to determine the extent by which the home, school and community can provide emotional support to secondary school children. A literature survey focused on these variables. This was followed by the empirical investigation and it was found that there was a significant and positive correlation in the scores of males and females and for all age groups in relation to emotional problems experienced by secondary school children in their homes, schools and communities as a result of external forces (such as their experiences with family members, teachers at school, peer group members and other community members) and internal forces (such as their own physical, social, intellectual, moral and emotional development). This was followed by findings and recommendations for family, teachers at school, community members and the government.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM	3
1.2.1 Awareness of the problem	3
1.2.2 Analysis of the problem	4
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	8
1.4 AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION	8
1.4.1 General aims	8
1.4.2 Specific aims	9
1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE INVESTIGATION	9
1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS	9
1.6.1 Emotional support	9
1.6.2 Secondary school children	11
1.6.3 Umzumbe	12
1.7 RESEARCH METHOD	13
1.7.1 Literature study	13
1.7.2 Empirical research	13
1.8 PROGRAMME OF INVESTIGATION	14
 CHAPTER 2: THE EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT	 15
2.1 INTRODUCTION	15
2.2 THE ZULU ADOLESCENT IN TRADITIONAL, TRANSITIONAL AND CONTEMPORARY SOCIETIES	16
2.3 CAUSES OF MALADJUSTMENT	19
2.3.1 In the home	19
2.3.2 In the school	20
2.3.3 In the society	22

	Page
2.4	EFFECT OF MALADJUSTMENT ON ADOLESCENTS 23
2.5	PREVENTION OF MALADJUSTMENT 30
2.5.1	In the home 30
2.5.2	In the school 30
2.5.3	In the society 32
2.6	EMOTIONAL DISORDERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN 33
2.6.1	The emotionally disturbed children 33
2.6.2	Signs by which to recognise emotionally disturbed children 34
2.7	CONCLUSION 35

CHAPTER 3: SOURCES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDRENS'

	EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS AND PROVIDING EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TO EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN 37
3.1	INTRODUCTION 37
3.2	SOURCES OF ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS 38
3.2.1	Family sources 38
3.2.2	School sources 41
3.2.3	Personal sources 45
3.3	PROVIDING EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TO EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN 53
3.3.1	Emotional support in the family 54
3.3.2	Emotional support at school 57
3.3.3	Emotional support in the society 60
3.4	CONCLUSION 63

CHAPTER 4: AN EXPOSITION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE PROCEDURE FOR THE INVESTIGATION	64
4.1 INTRODUCTION	64
4.2 SPECIFIC RESEARCH PROBLEMS	64
4.3 GENERAL RESEARCH PROBLEM	65
4.4 HYPOTHESES	65
4.4.1 Research problem one	65
4.4.2 Research problem two	65
4.4.3 Research problem three	66
4.4.4 Research problem four	66
4.4.5 Research problem five	66
4.4.6 Research problem six	67
4.4.7 Research problem seven	67
4.4.8 Research problem eight	67
4.5 THE RESEARCH DESIGN	68
4.5.1 Pilot study	68
4.5.2 Selection of a sample	69
4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENT	70
4.6.1 The drafting of a questionnaire	70
4.6.2 Advantages of the questionnaire for this study	71
4.6.3 Disadvantages of the questionnaire in the study	71
4.6.4 How did the researcher plan to solve problems in administering a questionnaire - missing data/incomplete responses	72
4.7 FIELD INVESTIGATION	73
4.7.1 Permission	73
4.7.2 Problems experienced in the study	73
4.8 CONCLUSION	74

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA	75
5.1 INTRODUCTION	75
5.2 FREQUENCY ANALYSIS	75
5.2.1 Distribution of pupils per standard	75
5.2.2 Distribution of pupils according to gender	76
5.2.3 Distribution of pupils according to age	77
5.2.4 Have you ever been the victim of political violence in your life?	78
5.2.5 Political violence experienced at home	78
5.2.6 Political violence experienced at school	79
5.2.7 Political violence experienced in the community	79
5.2.8 How often are you the victim of political violence in your life?	79
5.2.9 If you experience political violence how does it affect you?	80
5.2.10 I can't concentrate at school	81
5.2.11 I want to talk to someone	81
5.2.12 I do not worry	82
5.2.13 What do you think is the best solution if you experience a serious problem? Keep it to myself and try to solve it on my own	83
5.2.14 Live with it and hope it will solve itself	83
5.2.15 How do you react if you feel angered by a parent? I avoid them by keeping myself away from them.	84
5.2.16 I cry and break everything near me	84
5.2.17 I discuss the problem with the adult	85
5.2.18 I never listen to adults because they always misguide us ..	85
5.2.19 Have you ever felt seriously threatened by death?	86

5.2.20	What was the cause of death? Natural causes, accident or violence	86
5.2.21	Have you ever experienced a house being burnt down in a violent act?	87
5.2.22	If yes to 12, how did you feel?	87
5.2.23	If you experience a problem what do you regard as the best solution?	88
5.2.24	Do you suppress your feelings if you experience a sad scene (for instance a person being attacked, another child beaten, a house being burnt down)	88
5.2.25	If you realise you cannot solve the problem you are faced with, how do you feel?	89
5.2.26	How do you feel about asking for help from somebody else? I solve my own problems	90
5.2.27	I want teachers to help me	90
5.2.28	Do you regard yourself as easily depressed if something bad happens to you?	91
5.2.29	Do you regard being aggressive as the best way of relieving tension?	92
5.2.30	Are you controlled by anger and cannot reason to solve the problem you are faced with?	92
5.2.31	If you have broken a rule at home or at school, how do you feel?	93
5.2.32	Do you regard other people as the cause of your difficulties and faults?	93
5.2.33	If you do not concentrate at school, whom do you blame? .	94
5.2.34	Do you regard illness as a good excuse to get out of some difficult task?	94

	Page
5.2.35 Do you think daydreaming is the best solution to solve your problems?	95
5.2.36 If your friends reject you, what is your reaction?	96
5.2.37 Do you regard yourself as friendly?	96
5.2.38 Do you regard yourself as aggressive?	97
5.2.39 Do you regard yourself as withdrawn?	97
5.2.40 Do you regard yourself as short-tempered?	98
5.2.41 Do you regard yourself as emotional?	98
5.2.42 Do you regard yourself as nervous?	99
5.3 CONTINGENCY TABLES WITH X ANALYSIS (CHI-SQUARE) ...	100
5.3.1 Introduction	100
5.3.2 If you experience political violence, how does it affect you? I feel angered	100
5.3.3 I can't concentrate at school	102
5.3.4 I want to talk to someone	103
5.3.5 I do not worry	104
5.3.6 If you realise you cannot solve the problem you are faced with, how do you react? I do not worry	105
5.3.7 How do you feel about asking for help from somebody else? I solve my own problems	105
5.3.8 I want teachers to help me	106
5.3.9 Do you regard yourself as easily depressed?	107
5.3.10 If your friends reject you, what is your reaction? Never mind and soon find other friends	109
5.3.11 I try to find out what the problem is, so that I won't repeat it, if it had been my fault	110
5.3.12 Do you regard yourself as friendly?	111

	Page
5.3.13 Do you regard yourself as aggressive?	112
5.3.14 Do you regard yourself as withdrawn?	113
5.3.15 Do you regard yourself as short-tempered?	113
5.3.16 Do you regard yourself as emotional?	114
5.3.17 Do you regard yourself as nervous?	115
5.4 CONCLUSION	116
CHAPTER 6: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION	117
6.1 INTRODUCTION	117
6.2 FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE STUDY	118
6.2.1 Findings regarding causes, effects and prevention of maladjustment in secondary school children (Chapter two)	118
6.2.2 Findings regarding sources of secondary school children's emotional problems and provision of emotional support to emotionally disturbed secondary school children (Chapter 3)	119
6.3 FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL STUDY	121
6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS	121
6.4.1 Recommendations for educators	121
6.4.2 Recommendations for the family	124
6.4.3 Recommendations for society	126
6.4.4 Recommendations for government	127
6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY	128
6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	128
6.7 CONCLUSION	129
BIBLIOGRAPHY	130

CHAPTER 1:

ORIENTATION TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

KwaZulu-Natal today is characterised by violence, fear, anger and frustration. There is no doubt that political violence which has been going on since 1994 has had an emotional impact on all the residents of this area. As a result of recent violent activities in some areas of KwaZulu-Natal like Port Shepstone, Richmond, Umbumbulu, Scottburgh and Eshowe (most of which have not been reported to the police), schooling and the emotional well-being of secondary school children in these areas of KwaZulu-Natal have been greatly affected. These views are supported in The Mercury (22 July, 1998:6) where it is stated that:

"If there's one thing the education fraternity in KwaZulu-Natal owes the youngsters of this province, is a commitment to ensuring a disturbance-free learning period between now and Christmas holidays."

The political destabilization of the province is a concern of everybody in the province and it is again the feeling of both adults and children in this province that if there is still political instability, more and more people will lose their lives and those left will continue to suffer emotionally. This view is again supported in The Mercury (22 July, 1998:6) where it is stated that:

"We must hope that the election campaigns (for 1999 elections) will be more civil than they were in 1994. The apparent thaw in relations between the ANC and the IFP in KwaZulu-Natal where thousands lost their lives in political violence ahead of those founding democratic elections, is very important."

Since educational psychologists look at child development as holistic and thus regard developmental domains (physical, cognitive and socio-emotional) as interrelated and interactive (Goduka, 1987:75) the researcher has noted that if the child's emotional aspect of life is not stabilised then the education of a child cannot take its proper course. Due to the unstable political, social and economic situation in South Africa, particularly KwaZulu-Natal, many children have experienced emotional instability. One cannot expect children who have slept in a forest or in a "police-guarded town hall, who do not know if they will see another day" (The City Press, 19 July, 1998:9) to show signs of emotional stability at school for proper education to take place.

Frostig and Maslow (1973:115) state that emotional reactions like fear, anxiety, anger, aggression, prejudice and frustration may make learning impossible since education is a co-operative endeavour, all society structures need to join hands together and work towards assisting their children to overcome these problems so that they can be responsible human beings in future. As Clarke-Stewart (1985:266) states that emotions affect the whole person, it becomes evident that emotional support for secondary school children has to be provided.

Another significant issue which needs attention is the provision of emotional support to secondary school children. Most of the secondary school children are in the adolescent stage. Since adolescence, according to Comer (1992:293) is a period in which critical physical development, which includes sexual maturity, social and emotional growth take place, adolescents therefore ask themselves a number of questions with an aim of discovering who they are. Even before they enter secondary school, some children reach this stage. Batcher (1981:2) maintains that children just beginning school, bring a complex system of understandings and emotions with them.

Many secondary school children today find it difficult to cope with limitations of social living and thus maintain that the state, their parents, school and/or community are all acting against them (Chapman, 1974:3). This holds true for many secondary school children, including black adolescents. Furthermore, Woolfolk (1990:114) is of the

opinion that teachers encounter a number of problems because they themselves lack the necessary skills, knowledge and understanding to provide emotional support to black secondary school children. This he believes, is a result of the fact that over the years focus on education has shifted back and forth. Sometimes the greater emphasis has been on cognitive goals and at other times on fostering emotional, social and moral development. Today experts on education have realised that the development of cognitive skills is not enough; one also needs to deal with the effective dimensions of students, their interests, concerns, fears, anxieties, joys and other personal and emotional reactions they bring to the learning situation (Castillo, 1978:vii).

From what has been discussed above, the researcher feels that it is difficult, if not impossible, to separate children's socio-emotional development from their intellectual development. This again proves that the aim of education is to develop the person as a whole and not a part thereof.

1.2 ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

1.2.1 Awareness of the problem

As a person who is directly involved in education especially of black secondary school children in KwaZulu-Natal, the researcher has become aware of the problems that adolescents encounter resulting from forces in their surroundings in combination with turmoil of the adolescence stage. Teachers as a result, find themselves in a very critical situation since they are not equipped with the necessary skills of dealing with children with emotional problems.

Being born in Umzinto (rural area between Port Shepstone and Durban), the researcher is fully aware of the fact that since 1994, KwaZulu-Natal, especially between Port Shepstone and Richmond, has been greatly affected by political violence. From her own observation, secondary school children have been greatly affected both directly

and indirectly in the sense that they have directly taken part in the violence or have had people very close to them killed or their age mates killed. As a result, this has affected them emotionally and they have thus taken this emotional burden along with to school.

Besides political instability as a factor affecting secondary school children, the researcher is also aware of the fact that during adolescence, adolescents experience changes in bodily sensations. Feelings that were unknown to them now strike. As an adolescent, the secondary school child senses he is different. Again he is alien to himself. He cannot express his newly discovered sexual urge freely and so tries to express it in study, athletic activities, in friendships and in experimental sexual play (Blaine, 1966:53-54, Chapman, 1974:76).

Besides sexual, economic and social problems which a secondary school child experiences, Hlatshwayo (1992:6) maintains, the black adolescent in South Africa finds himself in a society in transition where he experiences difficulty in orientating himself to the modern complex society in which he lives. Black culture finds itself in a period of cultural transition somewhere between the old traditional and the modern Western cultures. This is characterised by disturbed relationships. It is, according to Hlatshwayo (1992:7), a situation of sociocultural ambivalence in which the black secondary school child finds himself.

As adolescents are searching for their identity, religious and racial issues are also subject to re-evaluation, new understanding and revision. In this way, the researcher feels that the secondary school child needs to be given emotional support on his way to adulthood.

1.2.2 Analysis of the problem

The research problem in this study manifests itself in the following forms:

- (a) Secondary school children may experience emotional problems as a result of factors in and around them.

- (b) The home, school and government have a responsibility of providing emotional support to secondary school children.

& bullying beh *ors that surrounds them. After is a*

From the author's experience and observations secondary school children experience emotional problems as a result of the fact that they are in the adolescence stage and also because of political, social and educational factors in their surroundings. This, as indicated in Tables 31 and 32 (Chapter 5) affects the secondary school's children's emotional development and consequently their school progress.

Slavin (1991:77) says: Children experience problems related to physical, cognitive and social development. They may have fears like:

- (i) not being accepted into a peer group,
- (ii) having misunderstandings with adults like teachers, parents and other community members,
- (iii) experiencing violent political acts in families and in their communities,
- (iv) having problems with subject teachers and
- (v) not doing well in the school.

Furthermore, fears experienced by adolescents can be intensified as they struggle to achieve the developmental tasks of this stage of their lives. Such fears include uncertainty with regard to:

- (i) achieving new and more mature relations with age mates of both sexes,
- (ii) achieving a masculine, or feminine social role,
- (iii) accepting one's physique and using one's body effectively,
- (iv) achieving emotional independence from parents and adults,
- (v) preparing for marriage and life,
- (vi) preparing for economic career,

- (vii) acquiring a set of values and
- (viii) desiring and achieving socially responsible behaviour (Havighurst in Light, 1989:9).

Light (1989,10) states that adolescents whose parents are in a process of divorce or remarriage will likely experience added emotional problems if they are coping with their need to achieve satisfying relations with the opposite sex. Adolescents whose parents are unemployed are likely to feel an added anxiety or fear as they consider their own future career goals. Another common source of stress is conflict with their family, traumatic events such as death of a family member and hospitalisation.

Based on the information above, KwaZulu-Natal, particularly Umzumbe area, is faced with a big challenge of addressing emotional problems of secondary school children if they are to assist them to be future responsible adults. The social, political, economic and educational problems in South Africa, particularly KwaZulu-Natal need to be addressed without delay since they have an enormous impact on the emotional development of secondary school children in particular.

Since the South African situation today is characterised by violence, unemployment and poverty (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:69), some children do not stay with their parents due to parent's or children's imprisonments. Some children also attend school in places far away from their homes and as a result, do not stay with their parents. In other instances, especially in rural areas, both parents are employed in urban areas, far away from home and thus are away from home most of the time. Children of such parents may not feel being loved by their parents. Such children may display poor academic performance, aggression and withdrawal behaviour as well as strained interpersonal relationships with parents, guardians and peers (Spencer, 1985:24).

The researcher is therefore of the opinion that secondary school children's problems do not emanate from one aspect of their lives, but they can emanate from social, political, economic and cultural spheres of life. Slavin (1991:77) states that besides the

fact that emotions are a part of growing up, children should be helped to cope with them and control them. Today, difference of opinion between children and parents exists in matters regarding social, political and even religious issues. But this does not mean that parents should sit back and discontinue with their responsibility of guiding children to adulthood.

Since Umzumbe is a place which for several years has been characterised by violence, unemployment, unstable family situation, and poverty, the researcher thus strongly believes that many children come to school frustrated and educators need to sympathise with them all the by offering them assistance they possibly can.

Moreover, emotional problems that affect the functioning of individual students cannot generally be treated by changes in curriculum, better methods of instruction or special tutoring, yet they are a proper concern for the teacher because they interfere with the capacity to learn. Usually the disturbance is temporary, after a while, the difficult situation rights itself or the student learns to adjust to the problem and accepts it. But if in some other instances things do not improve, the child may continue to feel defeated and upset whereupon teachers have a chronically disturbed child who needs more help than they can give in their role as teachers (Lindgren, 1980:683-684).

Hlatshwayo (1992:6) believes social changes also have contributed to the greatest permissiveness and revolt by young people. A black adolescent in South Africa finds himself in a society in transition where he experiences difficulty in orientating himself to the modern complex society in which he lives. This may be why so many adolescents' lives are characterised by anger and frustration. They therefore, according to Hlatshwayo (1992:7), need to be assisted as they pass through this critical stage of human life.

While it is of crucial importance to pay special attention to negative emotions which can be destructive to secondary school children's emotional development, the researcher also feels that there are also positive emotions like joy, affection, pleasure, love,

humour to mention a few, that can be of great assistance to the child's emotional development.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this investigation is to determine the extent by which the home, the school, the church and the community provide emotional support for black secondary school children in the Umzumbe area. More specifically, answers to the following questions are sought:

- (i) Do black schools have any means of providing emotional support to secondary school children?
- (ii) Do black teachers, parents and community leaders have sufficient information, background and knowledge to provide emotional support to black secondary school children?

1.4 AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION

1.4.1 General aims

The research attempts to:

- (i) provide an analysis of the problem surrounding the emotional lives of black secondary school children in the Umzumbe area, and
- (ii) give a description of the life-world of a black secondary school child in which he finds himself as influenced by social, political, economic and cultural conditions.

1.4.2 Specific aims

The specific aims of this study are as follows:

- (i) To determine guidelines which can be of assistance in providing emotional support to black secondary school children.
- (ii) To provide information that can be of help to various departments of education in South Africa.
- (iii) To assist all those involved in education that is:
teachers, parents, educational planners, education specialists and students to understand the nature of emotional needs of black secondary school children.
- (iv) To determine the extent by which black adolescents discuss their problems with parents, teachers and other members of the society.

1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE INVESTIGATION

The investigation focuses on secondary school children from Grade 10 to Grade 12. The investigation will be conducted in the Umzumbe area.

1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.6.1 Emotional support

Garrison and Gray (1955:55) maintain that the word "emotion" was derived from a Latin word "emoverse" which means "to move out". An emotional response involves a more or less clearly defined state such as fear, envy, jealousy, love and certain internal organic changes related to the circulatory, glandular and digestive systems. On the other hand, Barnard (1965:271) believes emotion may mean the upset conditions of hate or fear in which physiological functioning prepares for plight on flight. These emotions may lead to harm or destruction of self or others. Also, emotion may mean

the positive conditions of love and ambition. Physiological functioning in these emotions leads to a feeling of euphoria, which in turn may lead to the improved welfare of self and others (Clarke-Stewart, 1985:271). It may also mean a rather transitory state such as brief attention or an enduring interest that drives an individual towards a difficult goal. It may mean a reactively mild feeling such as a paralysing fear during a bombing or even the chronic anxiety produced by threat of school failure (Barnard, 1965:271).

Brown (1987:35) defines emotions as complex feelings that generally are recognised to have physiological manifestations and that can be placed along a continuum between pleasant and unpleasant. These can be classified into six different kinds; fear, joy, anger or grief while sensory stimulative emotions include pain and disgust. Some also arise from self-appraisal like shame and pride while others grow out of interrelationships, for example, love and hate. Wonderment and humour are examples of appreciative emotions. Moods like anxiety or elation constitute a sixth type of emotion.

Frostig and Maslow (1973:114), on the other hand, define emotion as an inner feeling or reaction to some outer situation. There are however, no clear-cut phases in accordance with the main tasks a child faces in life and in his ability to master them.

Batcher (1981:2) maintains emotion is the most meaningful expression of a child's existence. This means that it is through emotion that a teacher at school can get to know the child as an individual. Emotions are a child's understanding of the world around him. According to Cobb (1992:508) "emotions color experience and give meaning to life. For most individuals they are anchored in reality. Some individuals are pulled past reality to an inner world of thoughts and feelings that bears little resemblance to the situations that occasion them, and they need emotional support."

In providing emotional support to children Frostig and Maslow (1973:115) state that teachers should understand that very slight anxiety may be conducive to learning and to mastering a task. Greater anxiety may be totally disruptive. Love for a teacher may be a spur to greater effort. Jealousy and anger may make learning impossible. By and large, the teacher needs to prevent and avoid the occurrence of negative and highly emotional states and emotional upheaval. He needs to tread a fine line between providing firmness and exerting too much pressure and only the child's emotional reactions can indicate how he should adjust his demands. He can be certain, however, that success and approval are indispensable for the child's emotional health.

Emotional support therefore implies helping children learn how to stabilise, modulate and control their expression of emotions. They must learn when to express, to exaggerate, to mask, to pretend and to neutralise emotions consistence with the rules of their culture (Clarke-Stewart & Friedman 1987:246).

1.6.2 Secondary school children

Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1988:204-205) indicate that:

After primary school years, the child enters the secondary school. The junior secondary school usually runs from standard 5 to standard 10. In some cases, this is a theoretical position, but in practice, the secondary school caters for standard 6 to 10 (This is now grades 8 to 12).

This is confirmed by Vrey (1979:165) who states that:

"... secondary school spans from standard 6 to 10. The standard 6 child is usually 13, the standard 10 child is about 17."

The pupils who enter secondary school are at the age group 13 to 18 years. This stage of development is termed "adolescence".

Comer (1992:292) states that:

". . . an adolescent is an individual in the time of life between puberty (ages ten and thirteen) and young adult (ages eighteen to twenty-one), who in this period experience critical sexual development and social and emotional growth."

The concepts "secondary school children" and "adolescents" are used interchangeably in this investigation.

1.6.3 Umzumbe

Umzumbe is a magisterial area between Umzumbe river on the Lower Natal South Coast towards Port Shepstone and Ifafa river near Umzinto. Since 1994 this area has been dominated by political violence, crime and poverty. As a result this prevailing situation has for many years had a great impact on the lives of the people in the area especially the young people and in this case the secondary school children. Schooling has been disturbed due to the fact that both teachers and learners have sometimes been forced to leave the area to settle in other areas. Family life has also been greatly affected in the sense that members of the families experienced forced separations in fear of their lives. On the other hand, people from other areas of KwaZulu-Natal have also flocked into the area for refuge and they also have great political, social, economic and even educational influence in the area. The researcher chose Umzumbe area because it is her place of birth and she is fully familiar with the geographical, social, political and cultural conditions of this area.

1.7 RESEARCH METHOD

1.7.1 Literature study

Literature concerning emotions, emotional life of adolescents, the roles of the home, church, school and society as well as the psycho-pedagogical functions of the school will be consulted. American, African, British and South African literature that could have some bearing on the subject will be consulted. Pamphlets, theses and research reports will also be used.

1.7.2 Empirical research

Behr (1983:91) indicates that empirical research is:

"one of the most widely used types of descriptive research methods in education. Its purpose is to obtain information about prevailing conditions on a planned basis. The data may be obtained from a total population or from a representative sample from which certain generalisations may be made."

In this study a representative sample was chosen from five secondary schools falling under Umzumbe Magistral District (see par 4.4.2.1). These schools were distributed in two circuits formerly known as Umzinto and Umzumbe circuits. However it should be mentioned that as a result of the re-zoning of schools in 1996, Umzinto circuit became known as Scottburgh District and Umzumbe circuit, Ixopo District. Questionnaires were administered to randomly selected secondary school children of the five schools.

1.8 PROGRAMME OF INVESTIGATION

In Chapter 1 the researcher addressed the statement of the problem, aims demarcation of the study as well as some critical concepts as used in the study.

Chapter 2 deals with factors that related to emotional development of the adolescent are identified and discussed.

In Chapter 3 sources of secondary school children's emotional problems are discussed. Means of providing emotional support to secondary school children are also discussed in this chapter.

In Chapter 4 the researcher explains the research design.

Chapter 5 deals with results and discussions based on the results.

In Chapter 6 findings and recommendations are presented.

CHAPTER 2:

THE EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Adolescents have social, economic and political adjustments to make which they never had as primary scholars (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:16; Owen, 1978:127). Since adolescence is a period of adjustment of the child towards society and society towards the child (Eggen & Kauchak, 1992:127), the adolescent has to be assisted to adjust himself to society. Behr (1986:78) correctly argue that the school plays a significant role in helping the child to adjust himself to society in that it provides the child with knowledge and skills necessary for social and economic adjustment.

If the child is not properly adjusted, emotional disturbance can result. It is however understood that all children have transient emotional disturbances, but for some individuals, emotional disturbance becomes a relatively permanent part of their personalities (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:479; Daphne, 1991:7; Merrell, 1994:184; Gouws & Kruger, 1994:95-97). If a teacher is to teach, he must find ways of helping such emotionally disturbed children cope with their problems while they are in the school. However, it is not the school alone which has to provide emotional support to children. The home and society also need to play a significant role.

Since this investigation is aimed at the emotional support of Black secondary school children, the historical background of the development of the Zulu adolescent will be discussed with an aim of comparing the development of the South African Black adolescent to the development of White and foreign adolescents.

As adolescents also experience some maladjustment as part of their development to adulthood, the causes, effects and prevention of maladjustment will be explored. Emotional disorders in secondary school children will also be given special attention in the investigation due to the fact that as an adolescent progresses to adulthood, he comes across a number of social interactions which, though not all, may lead to emotional and behavioural disorders (Kauffman, 1993:9).

In summary, the aims of this chapter are:

- (i) to give a historical background of the Zulu adolescent in traditional, transitional and contemporary societies,
- (ii) to look into the causes, effects and prevention of maladjustment as it is experienced by secondary school children and
- (iii) to explore emotional disturbance as it is experienced by secondary school children.

2.2 THE ZULU ADOLESCENT IN TRADITIONAL, TRANSITIONAL AND CONTEMPORARY SOCIETIES

Dreyer (1980:16) regards the life of a Zulu adolescent as having been influenced by stages which the Zulu society has passed through namely; the traditional, transitional and contemporary Zulu societies. He points out that unlike western society with its various socialising agents such as the home, school, church and peer group, the child in the traditional society found himself within a homogenous framework whose aim was to produce the ideal community member. Since the whole community was interested in the child's progress, the child found his models of behaviour all around him. Bryant in Dreyer (1980:17) declares that one of the great laws that ruled in traditional Zulu society was the law of complete submission to paternal authority of the elders. Unlike the traditional Zulu adolescent, today's adolescents no longer want to be submissive. Although they still want the elders to take firm stands on what is right or wrong, they

also, at the same time, need opportunities to learn. They want elders and those whom they respect to listen to them (Farrant, 1991:193).

Also in traditional Zulu society, progression from childhood to adulthood consisted of clearly marked steps or stages. As Dreyer (1980:18) clearly indicates that since there were different ceremonies which marked these stages like the boys' puberty ceremony and the girls' puberty ceremony, the adolescent could therefore not "speed up" his social status but was bound to time by custom.

But force of Western culture, namely; industrialisation, urbanisation and Christianity, gradually altered the traditional way of the Zulus (Luthuli, 1981:35; Griesel, 1986:1; Dreyer, 1980:27). In the transitional Zulu society, there was a gradual breakdown of authoritarian home atmosphere. Employment in the Western industrial sector took a large percentage of fathers away from their rural homes for long periods at a time (Dreyer, 1980:23; Burman & Reynolds, 1986:58). The father became a financial supporter of a family rather than an emotional and moral supporter (Luthuli, 1981:53). It was during the transitional phase when the pattern of the traditional Zulu family became gradually altered. This was true even for the African Black communities. As Ezewu (1983:103) points out, the aim of education in traditional Nigerian society was character training, but when school education was introduced, the traditional system was opposed. Through urbanisation, the adolescents then found themselves without a strong, authoritative father-figure. The young began to question authority of the women and the elderly with whom they had been left and all this caused an increase in unruly, even delinquent behaviour of young people. Because the old homogeneous patterns of Zulu society were gradually broken down, there was a growing uncertainty of what was right or wrong (Dreyer, 1980:23). According to Luthuli (1981:53), it happened in some other instances that the whole family moved to the husband's place of employment. In such cases, the whole family came into contact with a new way of life. Dreyer (1980:23) points out that those adolescents whose families had moved to urban areas, were affected even more drastically. The family structure took a Western

form in which Western clothes, utensils etcetera, became common, but which lack a firm social organisation to guide the members in their confusion.

In contemporary society, boundaries that separate adolescence from adulthood are extremely diffuse and at times quite vague. As a result modern Zulu adolescents tend to feel isolated and alienated (Dreyer, 1980:27). For this reason emotional problems are likely to be experienced by adolescents.

In a study conducted by Wallace and Adams (1987:6) between 1986 and 1987 in the third world setting of KwaZulu-Natal comprising mainly of undeveloped rural, subsistence farming communities and low socio-economic urban settlements, it was observed that the total school enrolment was 1.5 million, meaning 67% of the total school-age population. The high school enrolment was approximately 250,000 in just under 600 schools. Their findings reflected high levels of school drop-out, repeating of standards and a high failure rate, especially in the senior school certificate examination taken in Standard 10 (Grade 12). According to this study, Zulu adolescents appeared to be frustrated by certain factors such as:

- (i) Acute shortage of trained teachers and a high teacher-pupil ratio.
- (ii) Shortage of teaching accommodation.
- (iii) English being used as a medium of instruction for all subjects in high schools and in primary schools beyond Std 2 (Grade 4).
- (iv) Due to large class sizes and the wide range of pupil ability within any one class, most teachers resorted to a rigid and didactic teaching style aimed at inducing rote learning of material which was need for examinations.
- (v) The social conditions which included poverty, disruption of family life, many parents working away from home for extensive periods of time, and a discontinuity of cultural traditions, were exacerbated by schools which promoted a Western and hence alien style and content of curriculum.

To meet secondary school children's needs, Wallace and Adams suggest that curriculum changes should be a priority and teacher training must be taken into

account. Teachers should be trained in such a way that they are able to provide emotional support and guidance to secondary school children (Wallace & Adams, 1987:9).

It therefore stands to reason that adolescents encounter a lot of problems in their progress to adulthood and some of these problems may even contribute to maladjustment (Daphne, 1991:7). Adolescents can experience maladjustment in their homes, schools and even society. For this reason the causes of maladjustment in secondary school children will be discussed.

2.3 CAUSES OF MALADJUSTMENT

2.3.1 In the home

As Burman and Reynolds (1986:57) point out that the family provides a child's genetic endowment as well as nourishment, prevention against environmental hazards, emotional security and cultural nurturing, it therefore remains the single most important agent in the socialisation of the child because it provides the child with both his physical and psychological needs (Behr, 1986:77).

The home is also regarded as the principal mediating agent between the child and society. The family is generally seen as a functional unit and major family dysfunction has profound consequences. Crisis in the family may come from within, such as marital disharmony or violence, or from poverty (Anglin, 1990:294-295). Kauffman (1993:266) correctly argues that a home broken by death, divorce or separation is frequently associated with emotional instability. In a study conducted by Straker in Laundry, it was observed that some adolescents grew up not experiencing parental love because their biological parents had divorced (Straker, 1992:23). Such children experienced emotional instability and could not continue with their education.

Behr (1983:77) emphasises the importance of a healthy relationship between the child and the parent. This author correctly argues that if the relationship between the parent and the child has been a difficult one, it is likely to be reflected later during his school years and adulthood. On the other hand, Merrell (1994:184) warns that an over-protective environment may cause maladjustment. He states that the later years of childhood and adolescence are normal periods of experience, of escape from protected life of the home and school into the wider world. Frustration of this natural development may lead to emotional instability in spite of all the security and affection provided.

Economic factors in the home may produce emotional maladjustment when the child is unable to share fully in the interests and recreation of pupils attending the same school. Overcrowding and poverty, accompanied as they sometimes are by lack of foresight and stability, are common causes of emotional difficulties (MacGinitie & Ball, 1968:256-257).

2.3.2 In the school

All children are "difficult" at times, but some are more difficult and often more difficult than others (Barnes, 1989:1). It is therefore these children to whom the term "maladjusted" is applied in the education service. In defining maladjusted children Daphne (1991:7) refers to the definition of the ministry of education which regards such children as pupils who show evidence of emotional instability or psychological disturbance and require special educational treatment in order to effect their personal, social or educational re-adjustment.

As an adolescent is constantly being confronted with problems which require selecting some course of action, he may be incapable of making correct decisions for himself or avoids making decisions. In this way he might consequently become maladjusted. Maladjustment may be caused by outside influences which are carried into the school

or are evidence in it, such as those caused by trouble in their homes or lack of self-confidence developed in homes where independence is not promoted (Le Roux, 1993:45).

Often maladjustment arises from attempts to attain goals beyond one's ability or lack of motivation to attain them and this results in substitute goals (Vrey, 1979:147). Failure of the school to provide conditions for healthy emotional life, for example, presentation of tasks which condemn a child to persistent failure, may lead to emotional maladjustment. Also, a secondary school child who has unobserved defects in hearing or vision, may readily find school experiences unhappy and be rendered prone to emotional maladjustment. Differences in speech, dress and behaviour at school may prevent a child from being socially acceptable to the group (Vrey, 1979:170-172).

Cooper, as cited by Daphne (1991:63) refers to "desatellisation" which he regards as a normal process in adolescence which is mostly achieved through resatellisation. This latter term refers to Cooper's description of the gradual replacement of the parents by the peer group as the socialising agent. If a child is rejected by, or chooses to reject his peer group at school, he is denied this re-satellisation process and is no longer motivated to attend school regularly. He will look for a more congenial peer group elsewhere.

However, Kauffman (1993:235) points out that school failure is not known to cause emotional or behavioural disorders although it frequently does accompany maladaptive behaviour and possibly contributes to maladjustment. He further lists six specific ways in which the school might contribute to the development of disordered behaviour and academic failure:

- Insensitivity to students' individuality.
- Inappropriate expectation from students.
- Inconsistent management behaviour.
- Instruction in non-formal and irrelevant skills.

- Destructive contingencies of reinforcement.
- Undesirable models of school conduct.

Furthermore, Physical conditions under which children are taught will surely affect their behaviour for better or worse (Kauffman, 1993:236).

2.3.3 In the society

Society embraces all those influences which affect growth and development. Its influence is more incidental and less consciously applied than that of the home and school (Ezewu, 1983:10-11; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1988:217).

It is the society's responsibility to provide a satisfactory spiritual, moral, social and economic life for its members. This therefore implies that problems in society can be a cause of emotional problems in adolescents. Farrant (1991:76) states that violence and crime in our society are on the increase because of the social conditions that lead to instability in families and thus to maladjusted children and young people. In a study conducted by Straker, Ricky a nineteen year old adolescent born in Springs, had many changes of residence in his short life. When he was thirteen years old, a particular incident occurred during state attempts to remove the residents of Leandrea, as he was living there during the time. In that climate of fear and anger he remembers his mother struggling to prevent those forced removals. During that time, he was also involved in attacks on the areas in which they lived, and memories of these events made lasting impressions in his mind (Straker, 1992:23).

The human rights organisations, American lawyers who brought out a report on South Africa's war against children in 1986 and the Black Sash, a predominantly white liberal women's organisation, all expressed their concern about the effects of widespread political violence in South Africa on the mental health of young people (Straker, 1992:24). They believe apartheid had brutalised a generation of children and given rise to fears among youth. They also point out that in the absence of rehabilitation work,

there was a likelihood of the young growing up as militaristic automatons incapable of participating in their own destinies.

Farrant (1991:87) points out that conditions for healthy emotional development are provided by families and a society that cares for its young, that defines clearly to them the limits of what is allowable by careful, kind teaching and discipline and which freely forges firm relationships within the limits that have been taught. Trouble comes when these requirements are not met, when the society and its members pursue their own interests, leaving the child deprived of love, when the child sees different moral standards practiced around him and discovers that his own are variously assessed when he cannot give of himself fully in any personal relationship because his attempts at so doing have often had such bitter consequences. These are the conditions that lead to the delinquent child because they deprive him of confidence in his ability to control his emotions successfully (Farrant, 1991:87-88).

Straker (1992:72) points out that hundreds of young people in South Africa who really need the comfort of a home and the benefit of continued parental support are forced to flee their families and their communities. Similarly, hundreds of youths are exposed to confrontations with violence, brutality, injury and death. There is no doubt that these traumas in and of themselves result in many suffering post-traumatic stress, depression, anxiety and psychosomatic illnesses.

Kauffman (1993:258) adds that conflicting cultural values and standards may create stress for children and youth. Television shows, movies, behaviour and values of high standards of many children's families and the children's imitation of these models results in disapproval from parents.

2.4 EFFECT OF MALADJUSTMENT ON ADOLESCENTS

(a) Frustrations

Effects of maladjustment are usually shown by various types of activities. Pupils may become retiring, passive or listless and lose interest in school activities, or they may become too active and boisterous and become disciplinary cases (Lindgren, 1980:216). Those adolescents who are to achieve satisfaction in meeting their needs are happy and adjusted. Those who cannot attain desired goals and who are ineffective in their efforts to achieve, often become frustrated. Paul and Epanchin (1982:65) point out that some of the children are in the school because they have been forced to be there and this causes frustration in them. The most obvious way to reduce academic frustration, according to Paul and Epanchin (1982:66) is to make academic tasks appropriate for the child. Not only should the individual's cognitive ability be taken into consideration, but also various aspects of her learning style (Van Goozen, 1994:4).

(b) Aggressive behaviour

Aggressive behaviour is that type of behaviour in which emotion rather than reason controls an action so that it is not directed towards goals unless it is done so accidentally (Barnes, 1989:216). Dallard and Yale as cited by Hicks (1988:17) maintain that if people are frustrated, aggression develops. Hicks (1988:18) further makes references to Malge who maintains that modern psychological theory views aggression, like other forms of behaviour as resulting from environmental factors such as socioeconomic background, family size and birth order, interacting with personality factors such as anxiety, lack of restraint and impulsiveness. People can either learn aggression or have never learned appropriate alternative responses. In research conducted by Scarf, Powell and Thomas on street children in Cape Town (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:266), it was discovered that, "strollers", these being children who had

left their homes and schools to live in the streets of Cape Town, appeared to be very aggressive. Eighteen of the 31 strollers claimed to have suffered family upheaval. Two of them reported that they were orphans and as a result there was not enough money in their families to cater for their needs. One stroller was part of a single parent family and four claimed that they lived with their relatives while offering no explanation about their parental situations. Through frustration and aggression, adolescents can engage themselves in activities which are not only harmful to other but also to themselves (Hicks, 1988:18-20).

(c) Withdrawal and fixation

Another typical response to unpleasant situations is withdrawal (Paul & Epanchin 1987:66). According to these authors, if aggressive behaviour is not rewarding, the individual may withdraw. Adolescents can react to maladjustment by withdrawal and fixation. They can withdraw from reality. It is not unusual to see children isolate themselves within classrooms. Isolation make these children difficult to teach, it sets up a potentially dangerous situation, one in which the child has no natural outlet for the normal emotions that need expression in anger, joy, fear and caring (Paul & Epanchin, 1982:25).

Fixation is fixed behaviour and is a response to frustration by acts which have been repeated over and over without variation (Lindgren, 1980:214). Both withdrawal and fixation originated in behaviour which represented the solution to some problem in the past and are repeated even though they are not satisfactory. One form of withdrawal is that of simple denial. It is an easy course to follow, for it consists in denying that certain facts exist or in ignoring the existence of a certain situation. It comes from the habits of early childhood in which one makes believe that something does not exist. It is also a matter of ignoring certain things which might be annoying or distasteful. Adolescent individuals may ignore certain elements in their environments (Kauffman, 1993:213).

(d) Repression

Conditions in an adolescent's home, school and society can make him to react by repression (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:123). Also, children emerge from childhood with many of their primitive impulses repressed and bottled up within their unconsciousness. But the repression of primitive urges and passions does not seem to eliminate them. Psychosomatic disorders have a repressed rage as an accompaniment: his stiff or arthritic joints may reflect this person's attempt to hold them rigid so that he will not kick or hit or even kill someone close to him who has unwillingly failed to satisfy his insatiable infantile needs (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:123; Parkinson, 1995:170). However Gallagher & Harris (1976:124) maintain that an adolescent can learn to relieve them in many satisfactory ways. They state a teacher's harshness or severity too, can really be a relief to many adolescents - though they may appear to resent it by furnishing an adversary for unexpressed feelings. A really kind teacher, though desirable of someone, may cause uneasiness in other immature adolescents, particularly those who are trying to establish their own personalities. These adolescents need someone to struggle against so that they may test and strengthen themselves (Lindgren, 1980:225).

(e) Rationalisation

Rationalisation is the giving of socially acceptable excuses for one's behaviour (Lindgren, 1980:223). It is a process of avoiding a conflict by attempting to explain it away or by finding an ability for unacceptable behaviour. Rationalisation is employed to convince oneself that something one wants is something one needs, to excuse oneself for committing a dishonest act by saying that one lives in a cruel world. If a student is not given an allowance which meets the needs of his group, he may try to cause himself to believe that this is sufficient justification to steal (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:93).

(f) Projection

Projection is a mental or psychological device for assigning all difficulties and faults to others. It is a process of recognising in others traits which are not liked in ourselves; for example, pupils may believe that every fight or quarrel was started by someone else, that every failure to succeed or to achieve goals is the cause of the school system, the teacher, parents or society (Lindgren, 1980:224). If some students fail to make friends readily or with certain persons, they may act on the assumption that they are not desirable companions in the first place and spurn any attempts by others to be friendly. Some people try to cover up their feelings by acting the opposite way they feel. They may have certain feelings but they are acting in an opposite manner, that is, they may make "wisecracks" or become boisterous. These behaviour patterns are all common and possessed to some extent by all persons. If teachers understand them and become acquainted with pupils sufficiently, they may be of real assistance in helping pupils make normal adjustments. Also since pupils cannot avoid certain activities, such as having to attend school, to get certain hard lessons, or do disagreeable things, they escape mentally (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:93).

(g) Intellectualisation

Some secondary school children who are confronted with a difficult problem avoid it by theorising about it or attempting to get into a discussion about it, but one not aimed directly at the solution. The theories and discussions are used to avoid action rather than as a background for them (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:93). A wise teacher may make use of this tendency by letting the discussion become the background for action.

(h) Regression

Regression can be defined as a response to frustration which is characterised by behaviour that is inappropriate to the maturity level of the individual (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:108). It is also the act of returning to childhood in order to avoid decisions or

activities on a mature level (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:351). This account for adolescents acting like mature persons at one time and like children at another time. Developing physical ailments has been used by many pupils to avoid disagreeable tasks. They learned earlier that illness was a good excuse so they pretend they are ill when they need to get out of some difficult task. Some pupils have carried this to such an extent that they really can become ill when they wish such as during examination periods (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:108).

(i) Daydreaming

Daydreaming frequently accompanies withdrawal (Hewett, 1977:81). Here the individual engages in the imaginary satisfaction of his motives (Ellis, 1995:2). Daydreams are usually centered around the dreamer himself, who becomes the hero. Often they are used as a retreat from some difficult task that requires work or courage to complete. Love affairs, failure on tests, punishment at school and lack of money, friends or popularity may cause pupils to spend hours daydreaming. Much of this can be cured by introducing adolescents to good literature and thus substitute adventure for daydreaming (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:351).

(j) Anxiety

Paul and Epachin (1982:105) state that although many people experience anxiety, they experience it, like aggression, with less intensity and frequency. Others may experience extreme anxiety behaviours characteristic of this pattern include hypersensitivity, self-consciousness, fearfulness, social withdrawal, a feeling of inferiority, lack of self-confidence, anxiousness, perfectionism, passivity, fear of social isolation and somatic complaints (Cashdan & Williams 1974:10; Gouws & Kruger 1994:96). Morse in Paul and Epachin (1982:106) uses the label "neurotic" to refer to these children. Many of these children do not have achievement problems and some may even be over achievers.

(k) Depression

Smith and Nelsworth (1975:28) describe depression as mental retardation. They argue that more children from lower socioeconomic strata are defective in functioning than children in higher social classes. They further state that such children show low-frequency behaviour in those areas which they have previously failed, for example, in many academic subjects, because so often they lack opportunity in their early years for gaining those skills required to be successful in school and society and for learning developmentally important behaviours. As a result they often exhibit socially inappropriate and developmentally obstructive behaviours. Most psychoanalysts according to Sholevar, P, Benson, RM & Blinder, BJ. (1983:591) have theorized that depression follows the loss of a significant object, whether the loss be reality or fantasy. Bibring (1953) in Sholevar et al. (1983:59) defined depression as "the emotional expression of a state of helplessness and powerlessness of the ego, irrespective of what may have caused the breakdown of the mechanism which established his self-esteem". The loss of a parent caused by separation, divorce or death can thus result in depression (Illingworth, 1983:363; Harris, 1961:22). When the loss takes place during late infancy and early adolescence, the youngster will often exhibit hostility and anger towards the person whom he feels has betrayed and deserted him. According to Gouws and Kruger (1994:101-102) the symptoms of depression are not always clearly evident, however, since they are often accompanied by other behaviour problems. Adolescents also find it difficult to admit their self-criticism to themselves or others. However numerous defensive operations are used by children to guard against the powerful feeling of depression, such as, regression, repression, denial and projection (Lindgren, 1980:224; Gallagher & Harris, 1976:108).

However, Kauffman (1993:10) prefers to categorise disordered emotions into two main groups, these being, externalizing (that is aggressive and acting-out behaviour) and internalizing (that is social withdrawal). According to him, it does not mean that an adolescent has to be born in an unprivileged home to suffer emotional disorders. Emotional disorders can also be exhibited by individuals who grow up in privileged

homes of caring parents in as much as those who have been reared under abusive conditions.

2.5 PREVENTION OF MALADJUSTMENT

2.5.1 In the Home

The pattern of family relationships within the home should be consistent and harmonious (Behr, 1986:77). Burman and Reynolds (1986:266) point out that it does not imply that irregular or altered family structures creates emotional problems in children. It is the quality of the relationship, and the care and loving guidance which the children receive that is of crucial importance. Whether they live with their natural parents or not, the home should provide security and affection. Parents should be reliable and discipline should be consistent. The child should feel that parents are concerned for his welfare, that they will cherish him even in adversity, and that they are proud of him despite his failures, forgive his faults and share his ambitions. To prevent maladjustment in children, the home should enjoy a satisfactory economic, spiritual and cultural life.

However, maladjustment is more often the result of parental inadequacy and instability than of economic hardship (Rosemond, 1990:27:29).

2.5.2 In the School

Since the school is a major institution, other than the family in which virtually all persons are deeply involved during the critical years of childhood and adolescence (McInerney, 1994:168) it is the responsibility of each teacher to make a special attempt to determine the interests of each student, either by observations or by means of inventories. The teacher should ensure that the work is suited to the capabilities and interests of the pupils. He should be faced with tasks within his capability so that the self-esteem, self-

confidence and self-discipline are developed and encouraged (Daphne, 1991:4; Vrey, 1979:146). All personal relationships within the school should be courteous and friendly based on mutual respect and happy experiments in community living (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:86). It becomes also necessary that buildings, equipment and materials should provide the best possible facilities for all activities of the school community. Also standards of discipline, rewards and punishment should be consistent and based on sympathetic understanding of the pupils problems (Rosemond, 1990:33). Praise and encouragement foster desirable development. Unfair and harsh criticism and humiliation produce maladjustment.

The school should possess detailed knowledge of the child's home background and a sympathetic understanding and treatment of emotional and other problems resulting from inadequate and satisfactory home circumstances (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:86). Contact with the home should be encouraged through parents' meetings and personal visits to discuss the problems of their children with the teachers (Hughes, 1994: 5-6). In persistent cases of maladjustment, the school should not hesitate to seek medical advice or to make use of other welfare agencies. At secondary school in particular, it should form part of the aims of the school to prepare pupils for responsibilities of parenthood, citizenship and employment. The school should also provide a sensible approach to sex education and to fostering a positive attitude towards it. Through its programmes of hobbies and out-of-school activities and through the fostering of outside interests, the school should encourage its pupils to develop productive and worthwhile leisure pursuits which may be continued into adult life (Paquette, 1991:31).

At all stages of school life, successful emotional development consists largely of satisfactory adjustment to persons, experiences and situations and with increasing knowledge and social consciousness to ideas and ideals. Many minor maladjustments can be remedied by the poise and personality of the teacher, by providing a satisfying and pleasant environment, or by removing the cause of frustrating activities (Lindgren, 1980: 683-684).

Because the school is a prime socialising agency which prepares students to take their place in society by teaching basic communicating skills, good study and work habits, appropriate social values, thinking and problem solving skills and subject matter in the basic disciplines (Lewis & Haviland, 1993:77) there should be a close relationship between the school and society.

2.5.3 In the society

The actions of any person have an effect on other members of society. The actions of one individual may impose significant costs on other individuals for which it is not feasible to make him compensate for them (Johnson, 1990:4). The education of a child can therefore contribute to the welfare by promoting a stable and democratic society. It then becomes society's responsibility to help its individuals to develop a positive self-concept so that they also be of positive contribution to their own societies (Johnson, 1990:5; Mohanoe, 1983:110). Society plays an essential role in the development of its adolescent members. The society-conscious adolescent is very much concerned with how others view him or how he thinks they view him. This is because it is society that must recognise and give him the status he deserves in accordance with its culture, social values and norms (Mohanoe, 1983:110). Self-concept, according to Mohanoe, is derived from society. It is the product of interaction of the self and other selves (Worrell & Danner, 1989:144). Self-concept or ego-identity is undoubtedly of major importance in the present time where educators today are faced with a vibrant generation of pupils. Docile Black adolescents of yesteryear are being replaced by a self-assertive post 1976/77 generation (Mohanoe, 1983:111).

In preventing maladjustment, society should foster a local community spirit and should offer opportunities for responsibilities and service. It should provide adequate outlets for leisure for example play-fields, youth organisations and community centers. Adult members of society should set high standards of example to its younger members. Society should also ensure adequate medical and other services and should accept responsibility for its weaker members, for example the sick and defective. Good

standards of taste should be set in public buildings, houses, the design of furniture and equipment (Mohano, 1983:112).

2.6 EMOTIONAL DISORDERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

2.6.1 The emotionally disturbed children

Amstrong and Savage (1983:354) believe emotionally disturbed children are those who display a marked deviation from age-appropriate behaviour expectations which interfere with positive personal and interpersonal development. On the other hand, Sawrey and Telford (1968:479) maintain emotionally disturbed children are a tremendously diverse group. They range from the pathologically aggressive, hyperactive child who is unable to relate yesterday's events to today's happenings and whose tomorrow seems non-existent on one hand and to the excessively quiet, outwardly calm, but excessively fearful and withdrawn child on the other. Gilbert (1969:2) regards an emotionally disturbed child as someone who behaves as he does because he must act that way and not because he wants to be out of line and give the teacher trouble. It is however recognised that there are certain children who are mentally and emotionally perfectly normal who challenge the nerve and endurance of a teacher by their conduct. The problem here is to distinguish who is simply "acting up" or is the problem one of leadership and discipline (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:480; Gilbert, 1969:2).

Amstrong and Savage (1983:354) point out that many classroom teachers find emotionally disturbed children difficult to work with. In part this results from a tendency of some emotionally disturbed youngsters to engage in behaviours that are disruptive to classroom introduction activities.

Farrant (1991:56) regards disordered emotion as the basis of all neurotic disturbance. He further points out that in the neuroses the emotions appear to have been upset because the sufferer can not verbalise his fears, hatreds and loves. When these have

neither been relieved nor expressed verbally they must find another outlet for expression and so, instead of losing their force in speech, they flow out through one of the outlets of the nervous system, whose language is headache, indigestion, diarrhoea, backache, or one or another of a host of bodily symptoms. These feelings must be put into words if they are really to be relieved and their threat to physical and mental health overcome. So the primary goal of the treatment of a neurosis is not more endless than to put these feelings into words and thereby achieve an understanding of their nature and of their relationship to this present symptoms and behaviour (Farrant, 1991:56).

Farrant (1991:96) also refers to the term "psychosomatic disorders". Here he states that when anxiety and repressed emotions (like hostility and fear) are expressed symptoms (abdominal pain, diarrhoea, difficulty in breathing and so on), the person is said to have a psychosomatic disorder. Such a person has nothing wrong with his colon or his lungs. It is his repressed feelings which are at fault and which need attention. Only when he has been able to express them in words, not symptoms, will all be well. When an adolescent varies from his or her companion's rate of maturing, he may worry and hesitate to voice his fears and headaches or other symptoms may develop. Few adolescents are aware that wide variation from normality is a possibility. To most of them, to vary from what is average is to be abnormal (Daphne, 1991:7).

2.6.2 Signs by which to recognise emotionally disturbed children

Owen (1978:352) points out that the emotionally disturbed child shows signs of over-sensitivity, moodiness, destructiveness and hyperactivity. Gilbert (1969:4) lists the following as signs by which to recognise emotionally disturbed children:

- (i) Inability to learn (not due to subnormal intelligence or physical health factors).
- (ii) Inability to develop or maintain interpersonal relationships (not able to develop social feelings).
- (iii) Strange, bizarre, inappropriate behaviour under normal conditions (not referring to health individuality).

- (iv) Chronic moods of depression and unhappiness (not referring to normal ups and downs of everyday life).
- (v) Physical symptoms, pains, fears (not due to organic or physical causes).

Payne in Armstrong and Savage (1983:354) agree with Gilbert with regard to signs by which to recognise emotionally disturbed children. They maintain such children are thought to:

- (i) have problems in achieving in school that cannot be explained by sensory or health factors
- (ii) have problems establishing and maintaining satisfactory interpersonal relationships with others
- (iii) have a tendency to demonstrate inappropriate feelings and actions under normal circumstances
- (iv) be characterised, in many instances, by a pervasive mood of unhappiness and depression
- (v) have a tendency to develop physical symptoms such as pain or emotional symptoms such as fear as a consequence of their problems

The significant characteristics of children indicating a need for closer study by the teacher are: inability to profit from past experiences, unsatisfactory interpersonal relationships, inappropriate behaviour, unhappiness and repetitive illness. These characteristics can, of course, be said to be true of all children to some degree at different times (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:4).

However, it should be noted that there is little or no awareness of the prevalence of emotional disturbance in children. This is due to the fact that children are difficult to define and sometimes, they are defined as children who have learned undesirable behaviour and can be helped to unlearn it (Owen, 1978:353).

2.7 CONCLUSION

The development of normal and abnormal behaviour is a product of all the aspects of the child's environment: home and family, culture, sub-culture, community and not least of all, school (Daphne, 1991:22). It should therefore be the responsibility of these institutions to provide emotional support to children. The individual must be helped to develop a positive self-concept so that he can be in harmony with himself as well as with his environment. However, without the co-operation of the home, school, church and society the provision of emotional support to secondary school children can be impossible.

To better understand the emotional problems of secondary school, it becomes necessary for this study to focus on the sources of adolescents' emotional problems. Chapter 3 will therefore focus on the sources of secondary school children's emotional problems in the home, school and society and then to the manner by which emotional support can be provided to emotionally disturbed children.

CHAPTER 3:

SOURCES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDRENS' EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS AND PROVIDING EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TO EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED CHILDREN

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Adolescence, according to Jaffe and Offer as cited by Sholevar et al. (1980:303) is a phase in the life cycle which, like childhood and old age, has its developmental tasks, difficulties, pleasures and opportunities. It is therefore a period of growth which is marked by the maturation of intelligence, the development of special abilities and the rapid physical growth with the awakening of sexual feelings (Josselyn, 1955:123; Rivlin, 1961:399; Gallagher & Harris, 1976:1). There are however, many changes that occur in a person's life when he enters his teenage years. Such changes can be experienced by the adolescent in his physical development (Farrant, 1991:75). Adolescence can be conceived of as presenting four major developmental tasks to the person; which are separation from family, development of a sense of identity, development of adult sexuality and attainments of social and vocational competence (Farrant, 1991:70; Rivlin, 1961:399). Sources of the adolescents' emotional problems may be related to the home, school and society. These sources will be explored in this chapter.

3.2 SOURCES OF ADOLESCENTS' EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS

3.2.1 Family sources

The family is the primary social unit and children are born and nurtured within it until such time as they grow into adults, ready to find their own families (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:56). It is therefore supposed that family members interact with each other according to prescribed social and cultural mores, thus sharing amenities, generating family bonds and maintaining a common culture (Savells & Cross, 1978:32). Farrant (1991:86) highlights three principal needs of normal emotional development:

- an assurance of being loved,
- a sense of security and
- an opportunity to make good personal relationships.

These needs are normally supplied within the family in which the child grows up and as the child finds it possible to relate satisfactorily to various members of the family. Burman and Reynolds (1986:57) further state that a child who grows up in a happy and secure environment develops emotionally in a balanced manner. If these fundamental needs are not provided, or come in defective ways, the child's emotional development is disturbed.

A family is likely to influence how children grow and develop (Goduka, 1987:2; Harries 1986:3; Behr, 1986:77). Looking closely at the situation in South Africa, Black families have varying life styles. While some Black children live in intact families, other Black children live with one parent or no parent at all for long periods of time (Goduka, 1987:3). About two out of every five men at work in the South African economy are migrant labourers and are therefore absent from their homes for varying periods (Richter & Griesel, 1986:2).

For many African children, the battle begins from the day he is conceived (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:338; Goduka, 1987:30). Poor diet and nutrition of the mother cannot feed the foetus adequately. Inadequate medical care and long working hours of the mother with little rest have consequences for the quality of life of that new-born baby (Goduka, 1987:30).

Most of the emotional problems adolescents experience in their lives emanate from their early childhood (Straker, 1992:58). In a developing country like South Africa, some of the children live in physical and socioeconomic deprivation. The reason for this may be that their parents might have obtained low levels of education. A study conducted by UNISA in 1984, indicated that 60% of all Africans were living below the bread level and 81% of the household in reserves were in the condition of dire poverty (Richter & Griesel, 1986:1) This then proves the fact that the parents' level of education, occupation and income are likely to influence the living conditions for the family (Lindgren, 1980:124) . These conditions can in turn affect the physical growth and behavioural development of children.

It should also be noted that emotional problems experienced by adolescents in their homes emanate not only from unstable family backgrounds. Differences between the child's and his parent's sense of values may be quite marked in adolescence (Rivlin, 1961:399; Lindgren, 1980:145). These are marked by parental difficulty in appreciating the growing sense of independence and self-reliance. Behr (1986:77) state that within the home, the child learns about himself and this results in the development of his self-concept. This also holds true for Le Roux (1993:45) who states that during adolescence a child withdraws from the oppression of his extremely dominant upbringing and frees himself from the conformist conservative ideal which has constantly been forced on him. On the other hand, the sense of responsibility should be indicated by parents in early childhood because by so doing they seek to develop a degree of mutual respect and confidence which makes it possible for the adolescent to discuss his problems at home knowing that he will be understood and not ridiculed (Rivlin 1961:399, Behr, 1989:77).

Another source of adolescents' emotional problems within the family is the conflict between parents' hopes and adolescents' ambitions and abilities (Rivlin, 1961:399). This refers to the ambition which families have for their children. Parents may wish that their children should reach a level of educational achievement which they never attained. Illingworth (1983:363) writes:

"The child's behaviour problems are due to a conflict between his developing personality and the attitude of his parents".

Le Roux (1993:45) is of the same opinion and states that a child who grows up under the pressure of an extremely dominant upbringing does not learn to develop himself and to stand on his own feet.

Family violence can also have effects on the adolescent's emotional life. An adolescent, seeing his parents in conflict, may be mystified and anxious (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:73).

The number of children in the family may also influence the child's emotional development (Harries, 1986:22). In a study conducted by Straker et al in Leandra, Pretty felt during her childhood that her firstborn brother was her mother's favourite. He seemed to receive whatever emotional warmth there was and for her, her mother was not a warm mother (Straker, 1992:58).

Insecurity experienced by the adolescents in their families can be a source of adolescent emotional problems (Illingworth 1983:363; Steinberg, 1991:205). Insecurity experienced by adolescents may be due to a variety of causes. For this reason, the home environment needs to be taken into special consideration. The home should provide an adolescent with a feeling of safety, appreciation, sympathy, warmth and understanding, to make him increasingly self-assured (Mohano, 1983:61). It is from the safe and warm environment of emotional sanctuary that the adolescent can venture out independently and even when things become unbearably difficult, he has his place of refuge in his home. Where a growing child lacks a sense of security, his emotional

development occurs on an unstable foundation with possible disastrous results (Burman & Reynold, 1986:57).

One of the most difficult problems for parents is the establishment of a relationship with their adolescent that enables them to give him the freedom he needs while assuring his acceptance of guidance. Without this basic relationship supervision leads only to defiance and counter-behaviours. An adolescent needs parents who are not afraid to play a parental role. When protective love is absent as in broken homes or families in which the parents themselves are emotionally inadequate, the child's own emotional equipment for showing love is adversely affected (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:87). Parents therefore have an essential role to play in the development of these young people. They need to understand that children need their love and protection, that they may be made to feel secure against inevitable threats (Farrant, 1991:43). Gilbert (1969:7) states that the normal child who experiences security and satisfaction learns to pay close attention to behaviour which is approved and disapproved. But as these young people grow up and change, adults' roles must also change. They must relax their protection and give young people ever increasing opportunities to discover themselves (Farrant, 1991:43).

The importance of the family in providing care and protection for children cannot be over-emphasised. In a study conducted by the Geneva Convention in 1949, it was observed that in previous times, it was certainly not believed that children suffered any ill effects from being separated from their primary caretakers or from lack of continuity in caretaking arrangements, but it is clear in recent studies that unity and the emotional support of a mother play essential roles in the child's emotional stability (Straker, 1992:82).

3.2.2 School sources

For the adolescent to understand the adult world that he is about to enter, there must be a wholesome working relationship between him and adults. The home with the security it offers, is admirably suited. Where an adolescent feels rejected at home he

is likely to feel insecure and frustrated (Papalia & Olds, 1993:526). He may carry such feelings with him to school. He may turn to someone outside the family constellation, possibly the teacher, for the adult guidance he seeks (Paquette, 1991:105). The substitutions for the parents may be the results of experienced or expected rejection by them. More commonly it occurs because a relationship with an outside person can be more specifically defined, limited and idealised than a relationship with parents. Therefore, if the teacher shows concern for his welfare and well-being and appreciates him as a human-being he is likely to respond positively. But also, adolescents do not respect a teacher who is weak and vacillating, who makes threats and ignores them, who makes announcements and keeps changing them as students protest (Lindgren, 1980:45). Also, the teacher who is tense and who charges the room with an air of nervous tension seldom understands that class disturbance is a means by which adolescents escape from tension.

But educators are still dazed with puzzlement. Some regard secondary school children as in a phase in current educational development which will better out, while others regard it as a figment of imagination which does not really exist. For others it is a reality that cannot be wished away (Mohanoë, 1983:111). It is however necessary that teachers should treat adolescents as adolescents so as to provide them with appropriate emotional support. However, in a classroom situation there is a possibility of a neurotic teacher who use a classroom situation as an outlet for his own unsolved problems and thus create serious difficulties and can soon discover how "cruel" adolescents can be (Papalia & Olds, 1993:529). Mohanoë (1983:113) emphasises the need for emotionally mature teachers. She also states that teachers who by their actions and remarks make their adolescent pupils lose their self-esteem through scorn and disparagement, in the presence of their peers are courting for trouble. Unfortunately as Mohanoë (1983:113) points out, this is still a common practise in some of the Black high schools in South Africa, and the resultant feelings of anger find expression in aggression.

Frey (1970:43) maintains that classroom organisation can be a source of emotional problems in secondary school children. Here he refers to issues like poor lighting and ventilation. Frey (1970:43-44) states that the main emotional incentives which influence school progress are success, satisfaction, significance and interest. Distaste, fear and dislike arise from continued lack of success. An inappropriate curriculum can also cause emotional problems (Mohano, 1983:113). It thus becomes necessary that the matter to be taught to the pupils be appropriate to their developmental level. The child who is required to attempt studies that are ill-adjusted to his mental age or who has been absent, is left without sufficient assistance to recover lost ground (Mohano, 1983:114).

The teacher's methods of teaching can also be a source of emotional problems in secondary school children especially if those methods are dull to them (Rivlin, 1961:401). That is why it becomes necessary that teachers should understand the ways, conditions and spirit in which children do their best in learning (Ehlers, 1981:41). The teacher's attitude to the pupils regarding the assessment of their work and the methods and materials used all influence emotional growth in adolescents (Ehlers, 1981:42). Taking this argument even further Gallagher and Harris (1976:15) state that in those schools where the teacher acts as a listener, encouraging spontaneous comments from the students in an open classroom discussion, debates and dramatics, is found to be producing very desirable changes in young people's behaviour. Topics, according to Gallagher and Harris (1976:16), should be chosen which will encourage thinking and feeling in areas of strong emotion so that students are led to talk about their fears, hatreds and loves.

Learning in adolescents is enhanced by encouragement and the creation of a friendly, relaxed atmosphere (Van der Stoep & Louw, 1984:167). The boy or girl who feels secure, who has good relationships with both his parents and teachers, learns best (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:16; Le Roux, 1993:4, 103). Secondary school education has the difficult task of satisfying the physical, mental, spiritual, moral and emotional needs of the child (Le Roux, 1993:94). It must not only provide a rich social environment

where an adolescent grows in character and understanding through interplay of personalities and the acquisition of skills and knowledge, but it must seek to counteract by its influence and example adverse conditions in the home and society. The influence of the school must be sane, satisfying and consistent, the aspirations of adolescence must be nourished and its impulsive life directed into healthy and creative channels. With a satisfactory environment the developing personality has sound prospects of attaining an adult maturity that is at once socially satisfying and fully individual (Papalia & Olds, 1993:528-529).

Burman and Reynolds, (1986:271) make references to research which was conducted by Sharf, Pawell and Thomas in Cape Town (1985), where it was observed that children of working-class families arrived at school to face several problems. Firstly, they had very seldom been fortunate enough to gain any preschool care and education. Secondly, the government had not provided sufficient schools and facilities to accommodate them adequately. Consequently the educational facilities are overcrowded and the environment for both work and learning can be stifling rather than stimulating. Thirdly, high staff-student ratios resulted in very little individuals to help disadvantaged children. Consequently, children are also educationally disadvantaged throughout their schooling, and for many of them school becomes a frightening alienating experience. Particularly at risk are those children who have experienced emotional trauma and family disruption (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:271).

In order for secondary school children to be emotionally stable, the school need to emphasise the implication of curriculum planning with regard to adolescent development (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:17). According to them, the foremost implication is that the secondary school curriculum should be planned in terms of the physical, mental, social and emotional development of boys and girls. This implies that the experiences provided by the school in the classroom, laboratory, on the playing field and through the activities of the school should be consistent with the stages of development of the participants.

Also, the secondary school must, according to Gallagher and Harris, (1976:18) concern itself with all the phases of adolescent development. It should not centre its attention on the expansion of the pupils' stock of knowing to the exclusion of physical and social development. Experiences should be chosen on the basis of their contribution to the all-round development of boys and girls rather than in terms of the logical demands of specialised subject matter.

Lastly, because adolescents develop at different rates and in different ways, the school should strive to give attention to the needs of each as an individual and to help him with his unique problems of development (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:17; Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:82) On the other hand, Gilbert (1969:78) points out that the child's needs are acceptance by his parents, warmth, nutritional care, parental support as he faces his life tasks, to be allowed to grow at his own rate, protection from deprivation and exploitation, emotional satisfaction, family assurance when faced with problems, help in development of emotional responses, help in accepting her own sex, help in learning how to behave towards self and others, help in accepting authority, affection and personal interest, education that helps develop creative talents, consistent rules and ideas about conduct, and a warm, secure home and school environment. If these needs can be adequately met, the growing adolescent's emotional life can be stable and can thus face the challenges and problems of life with confidence, strength and reason.

3.2.3 Personal sources

Under this sub-heading, the emotional development of the adolescent will be discussed. The adolescent's physical, mental, social and emotional development will be analysed with an aim of determining the extent by which they contribute to the adolescent's emotional problems.

3.2.3.1 Physical development

Bent and Kronenberg (1961:75) maintain that the most observable results of growth at the time of early adolescence are changes in height and weight. Growth is rapid during this period. There is increased height, elongation and ossification of bones and a rapid growth of muscle tissue which causes an increase in weight. Often a consciousness of this extra size and weight causes an adolescent to be shy, tongue-tied and retiring or trying to divert attention from himself (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:75; Steinberg, 1991:439).

The adolescent's physical condition sometimes helps to explain his behaviour. Sensory deficiencies like poor hearing or vision are obvious handicaps at school. The youth whose height or weight varies from the class average may be sensitive on that score. Blemishes such as those caused by acne, scars or any type of physical impairment either real or fancied, may make him so sensitive that his adjustment difficulties are increased. Adolescent boys' changing voices and adolescent girls' changing bodily proportion may lead to feelings of self-consciousness and unwillingness to participate in any activity which brings them into the limelight. Mouly (1995:94) and Papalia and Olds, (1993:487) view the attainment of sexual maturity as the most important aspect of physical development as it is accompanied by physiological changes.

Gallagher and Harris (1976:22-26) believe that development of anxiety in adolescents can be a result of sexual development. They maintain a boy may find himself uneasy and bewildered over nocturnal emission. A girl may also experience her first menstrual period negatively if she was not adequately informed about this natural process, and thus become anxious and upset as a result. They further state that since rebellion against authority is so much a part of adolescence, adolescents, having only a sketching knowledge of sex, may use clandestine experimentation as a means of expressing rebellion. Adolescents also feel a need to copy grown up behaviour in every possible way (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:26) . By doing this they feel more grown-up themselves. A boy may think a sexual experience will serve both to prove his masculinity to his doubting self and to win acceptance from those who have not admitted

him to their circle (Adelson, 1980:103). The problems of sex according to Gallagher and Harris (1976:31), should be treated frankly and openly whenever they arise. Sex education should begin when the child is very young. They further advise that all adults who deal with adolescents must have a mature attitude towards sex themselves. The sexually well-adjusted person is in control of this powerful force.

The variation of physical developments produces one of the great concerns for adolescents in such a way that they wonder whether they are developing normally. A youngster whose development is delayed beyond that of many of his peers may become emotionally disturbed over his assumed abnormality and serious behaviour problems may result (Papalia & Olds, 1993:491; Gouws & Kruger, 1994:40).

3.2.3.2 Cognitive development

Accompanying these physiological changes must come psychological adjustments. Cognitive development, in the sense of an increase in capacity to learn as distinguished from increase in the stock of knowledge, continues during adolescence. The adolescent gains in his ability to acquire knowledge in his power to learn. There is no certainty with regards to expansion in intellectual ability, but it continues throughout the greater part of adolescence. There is some evidence that the more stimulative the cultural environment of the adolescent is, the more extended will his period of cognitive development be (Steinberg, 1991:459).

It should also be noted that performance in school subjects may either be hindered by emotional disturbances within the child or promoted by emotional satisfaction (Steinberg, 1991:459). However, there is close relationship between physical and mental development. The secondary school child must therefore be helped to learn to look at himself differently, he must be assisted in learning to adjust to changes in adult attitudes towards himself because of the bodily changes he experiences at this stage. He becomes aware of his body, of his personal appearance, of his grooming. Heightened cognitive abilities enable adolescents to assign more profound meanings

to the future, learning content, people and their own abilities and shortcomings. Moreover, they adopt a more conceptual approach to problems and display more insight in dealing with them (Gouws & Kruger, 1994:72).

3.2.3.3 Social development

Adolescence is also a stage of marked social change (Conger & Peterson, 1984:183). In fact, for many boys and girls the attainment of social maturity is a much more difficult adjustment than is that of physical maturation. It is more subtle and complex and is much more dependent on the aggressive action of the individual (Papalia & Olds, 1993:540).

The adolescent will attain physical growth regardless of his own actions, although it is true that in some measure he can determine the way and the extent of growth. Social adjustment, however, must in a large part, be learned, it is dependent on the experience pattern of the individual. Goduka (1987:82) prefers to use the term, "social emotional development". She maintains that this is a process by which an individual acquires emotions, preferences, interests, attitudes, values, mores and a conception of him/herself. According to Josselyn (1955:124), the adolescent struggles for independence, verbalising vehemently his protest against the protective ruling of the adult group. The adolescent's relations to his parents are characterised by his efforts to emancipate himself from dependence on the family (Steinberg, 1991:473). He seeks in an aggressive fashion to escape from the submissive status he occupied as a child, he wants to stand on his own feet, to assume direction of his activities, to decide things for himself (Conger & Peterson, 1984:239). This emergence of a challenge to parental domination and control, if not understood and accepted by parents, leads to bitter conflicts. Adolescents often pursue aggressive types of behaviour just to assert this independence, to test out their own ability for self-direction, to prove to their parents and their own age group that they are in fact becoming men and women. In a changing social pattern as in modern societies, these conflicts between the adults and the adolescents may become even sharper, because the adolescent feels that his parents

hold too "old fashioned" standards of conduct and types of behaviour that are no longer fashionable (Conger & Peterson, 1984:218).

Conger and Peterson (1984:218) state that the adolescent does not want to be told what food to eat, what political party to respect or what ethical or moral formula to embrace. In the past, he was more or less willing to permit his parents or other adults to determine the situation to which he was exposed and to give him support and guidance. Now he often refuses guidance or seeks new experiences without the parents' knowledge. Josselyn (1955:125) further states that the adolescent is, at the same time, unable to handle his independent activities as adequately as he did in the immediate past. He is impulsive in his behaviour and confused about his goals. When he is challenged by situations he is unable to meet, he becomes frightened and turns again to his parents or to other adults for support.

Sawrey and Telford (1968:351) state that throughout this period of self-assertion, the adolescent still need someone in whom to confide when in doubt, some refuge when the difficulties of the world become overwhelming, someone to reassure him that he is loved, that he is wanted, that he belongs. Because of deeper emotional significance of the circumstances he does not gain the reassurance he needs from a mature dependent relationship (Alexander & Saylor, 1960:249). The resultant panic brings about a return to the familiar pattern of infantile dependency. He does not "act his age" but rather acts like a small child seeking the solution that earlier proved helpful in mastering anxiety (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:351). If the adolescent is given the type of support parents give a small child, he feels an increased internal strength and can abandon the more immature temporary solution. He would proceed happily on his way, but as the panic fades, he sees himself as having lost his struggle to become an adult. This is a real blow to his pride and confidence. In order to maintain his own self-respect, he must seek a victim outside himself upon whom to vent his rage and yet avoid admitting his disappointment in an anger at himself. He chooses for his attack those who know of his defeat; his parents or other adults. He protests angrily that they will not let him grow up, they treat him as a child. If his parents do not respond to the

adolescent's immature demands, his anxiety mounts. He may then turn upon the parents, angrily accusing them for expecting too much of him. Again parents are accused of failure so that he may avoid his own sense of defeat (Papalia & Olds, 1993: 548-549).

Gallagher and Harris (1976:8) maintain adolescents are concerned about their own personalities. They want passionately to be themselves, to achieve their own identity. The adolescent is so aware of the importance of developing himself, his own personality, that he instinctively resists any effort of, for example the parents to impose their will or their ways upon him, though left alone, he may imitate them (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:9).

Gallagher and Harris (1976:10) regard the influence of the peer group as playing an essential role regarding the adolescent's relationship with adults. They maintain adolescence is the time of breaking away from home, of trying to stand up independently, of temporarily leaning on friends as they rely less on their parents and still hesitate to stand alone. One of the basic aspects of social development of the adolescent is therefore his adjustment to the peer culture of his own group (Thomas & Endo, 1974:31). For an adolescent, the highest authority resides in the peer group and peer sanction becomes a bulwark in the battle against parental domination. This implies that the adolescent's behaviours in the home, school and the world at large is a reflection of his effects to establish the status in his group (Youniss, 1980:264).

According to Gallagher and Harris (1976:10) the adolescent becomes more attached to his peer group than to adults because its membership is not primarily determined by chronological age or intellectual ability, although both play a part. While superficially its influence may seem to be wielded by its key members, the deeper cohesive force is the mutual emotional empathy that exists. In a study conducted by Scarf, Powell and Thomas in Cape Town, it was observed that the group of adolescents, which was referred to as the "strollers" had supplant the conventional structures with an alternative "family and school" in their peer group. In these groups, also known as the street

gangs, the emotional support of the family circle was partially replaced. However, the adolescent in this case, does not break away from home completely. He retains his or her home as a base for sleeping and eating when possible (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:265).

Adolescents, as a way of attaining their independence, can even take more drastic steps of becoming strollers. They can undertake sole responsibility for their own maintenance and general well-being. They can therefore have a strong rejection of the family and transplant their emotional dependence from family to peer group (Burman & Reynolds, 1986:265) The adolescent's group exerts a stronger constructive influence on the individual than does any one adult. This is because it is easier to accept the attitudes of one's own peers than the teaching offered by the individuals who are older and thus from a more psychologically alien world. The relationship to the peer group, confused as it may be, is less charged emotionally. The group can offer limitations, freedom and standards in a more palatable form. Because of the adolescent's anxiety, he seeks the protection of conformity to the group and thus rarely (seriously) violates the standards it imposes (Youniss, 1980:247).

A large phase of the developmental tasks of adolescents in relation to their peer culture is establishing satisfactory relations with the opposite sex. Prompted by his biological development, the adolescent becomes much more interested in the opposite sex, and he begins to seek the companionship of its members. These adolescent boys and girls experiment with various types of behaviour in trying to reach a basis for companionship (Alexander & Saylor, 1960:251; Gallagher & Harris, 1976:29-30).

In providing emotional support to secondary school children, Conger and Peterson (1984:218) state that parents should encourage independence and the exercise of self-direction on the part of the youngster. At the same time, they should be ready and willing to protect him over his difficulties, and especially with the young adolescent, to let him become a child again on occasion. Some parents, unfortunately, through continued domination and control and oversolicitude, never permit their children to cut

the psychological apron strings, and the youngster grows to maturity as a dependent, submissive person, hardly the master of his own destiny. Such a person finds it difficult to take his place in the world and to assume his proper adult status (MacGinitie & Ball, 1968:256).

3.2.3.4 Moral development

According to Gouws and Kruger (1994:174) Moral development is predicated on the customs, manners or patterns of behaviour that conform to the standard of the group, and it consists in the way in which people (adolescents) learn to distinguish between right and wrong. The moral development of an adolescent is closely related to his emotional development (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:82). According to Cheshire's education committee (1985:25) emotional development cannot be dissociated from other aspects of normal growth. The contribution of spiritual, physical, mental and emotional factors to the production of a mature personality cannot be assessed separately. It is however true that all individuals possess innate impulses and instincts, the stimulation of which rise to emotional states (Behr, 1986:24). High school pupils' moods change rapidly, and one is never sure what mood will be dominant on any occasion. They may shout, cry or be solemn at a football game and be giggling in church at one time and be moved to tears later. Often, they will be defiant of authority, show a disrespect of old age or show inconsistencies to spiritual and moral needs. Primitive emotions have to be modified and sublimated by experience to meet the needs and sanctions of the society to which the individual belongs. Success in resolving the inevitable conflict between the demands of society and the primitive urges of the individual will lead to satisfactory emotional development, to good social attitudes and conduct and to the satisfactory patterns of personal relationships (Mouly, 1965:138). Few adolescents pass these tests. Feeling that adults do not understand him, he withdraws from them. Physically, he no longer looks like a child, and although he is not mature, he is neither the one nor the other. He will be told by his parents at one time to stop acting so childish, that he is now a man and on the next occasion, when he attempts to make a decision for himself, his parents or teachers will do it for him, telling

him he is only a child. A number of complex emotions such as admirations, reverence, gratitude, scorn contempt, hatred, joy, grief and shame are increased during adolescence. They are present in childhood but reach a peak during adolescence (Bent & Kronenberg, 1961:81).

Not every human being possesses a full range of emotions. Persons who do not are here defined as emotionally defective. Emotionally defectives may show emotional instability. It is also worth noting that successful emotional development consists of producing an integrated and adjusted personality, that is, the individual who is in harmony with his environment (Mouly, 1965:449). Bent and Kronenberg (1961:82) believe if the school furnishes a wholesome environment, a curriculum adjusted to each pupil, an enriched programme of activities, opportunity for finding directed emotional outlets in contests, games, group cheers and singing and supervised social activities, adolescents are not so likely to seek outlets on the street or in public amusement centres.

3.3 PROVIDING EMOTIONAL SUPPORT TO EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

To teach emotionally disturbed children is an educational challenge and how to understand the needs of these children in ways that lead to the development of classroom interventions, is a challenge that requires the insight of several social and behavioural sciences. The child's developmental status, psychological needs and resources and medical status (including neurological functioning) are important sources of information for understanding the child's behaviour. Psychiatry, psychology, social work, neurology and nursing are among the important professional disciplines that can help educators to understand children in these areas (Paul & Epanchin, 1987:1).

Another context that is relevant in understanding behaviour is the environment in which the adolescent is functioning. What are the cultural, physical and psychological resources available to the adolescent? What opportunities, constraints and expectations exist? Environmental, psychological and physical factors contribute to the adolescent's behaviour. Behaviour is therefore a product of interaction of these factors (Paul & Epanchin, 1987:1).

According to Harris (1986:19) children are extremely sensitive to changes in their reactions to changes or trauma. Acute stress in the child's home will usually be reflected in his behaviour. The child's response depends on the nature of the crisis and the threat he experiences. It also depends on factors such as the adolescent's developmental stage, the presence of reliable support systems in the time of crisis, the adolescent's temperamental characteristics, his repertoire of psychological strategies for coping with stress and his general state of emotional well-being (Brown, 1987:86; Harris, 1986:19-20).

Emotional disturbance in adolescents is complex because of the many different ways it affects the life of an adolescent, his family, his teachers, his school and his community (Paul & Epanchin, 1987:5). Because of this complexity of emotional disturbance, various institutions like the school, home and society will be examined with an aim of determining the extent by which these institutions can offer emotional support to secondary school children.

3.3.1 Emotional support in the family

Gilbert (1969:6) points out that a new born baby needs contact with other people in order to thrive and grow physically and psychologically. This growth will take place in accordance with his potentialities together with a state of reasonable satisfaction and of security he will obtain from others. Home conditions which provide satisfaction of physical needs for example; food, sleep, rest, warmth and contact with the body of the mother are needed by the child in order to continue to grow normally. In addition to

the state of physical satisfaction, the child must have a home, school and community environment which will provide emotional security. The child also expects approval from others. That is, the child expects the significant adult to expect something of him, the child feels that the adult will trust him. In other words there is a mutual trust that things are going to be well, that the child will be capable of growing up to be a healthy, mature person. The child feels this trust of mother and accepts it. He finally assimilates the trust of the mother and he trusts himself. In the mind of a maturing child, things will no longer depend exclusively on others but only on himself. This atmosphere, first satisfaction and then of security, according to Gilbert (1969:7) helps the child recognise the social world of which he is a part. Without the basic trust in others, there would be poor development of the ego, as well as defective recognition of the social aspects of experience. The development of the personality, emerging by the incorporation of the social self consists of the body image, self-identity and self-esteem. As to the body image, the child will have realistic knowledge of himself and will be able to identify with his own sex. As to the self-identity, the child will become aware of his role in the family, in school and in society. As to the self-esteem, he will trust himself and others will trust him (Paul & Epanchin, 1982:303). It is evident that in the families of disturbed children, the normal development of satisfaction and security cannot be achieved, instead the child experiences a state or atmosphere of anxiety. Anxiety is a natural reaction due to lack of satisfaction and security (Worrel & Danner, 1989:9192). In the families of withdrawn children, there is not emotional warmth, all are involved with each other without helping each other. The social self fails to develop because this part of the child's experience is too threatening and anxiety producing. This is the beginning of the withdrawal pattern, this never complete acceptance of the social self, or that part of the self that originates in contact with others. The social self remains integrated or dissociated, never really becoming a part of the child (Paul & Epanchin, 1982:304; Gilbert, 1969:8).

Gallagher and Harris (1976:109) point out that for adults to lessen the chance that an adolescent can develop a real psychosomatic disorder, they need to provide an emotionally secure upbringing. Well-adjusted parents who have themselves under

control, who have their own satisfying lives, usually produce children like themselves, tolerant, flexible and stable. A well-balanced but active home is the best insurance against future emotional troubles for the children who grow up in it. With this sort of start in life, later unavoidable experiences which might otherwise be harsh emotional shocks will be taken in stride. Adults, according to Gallagher and Harris (1976:110), often thoughtlessly provide young children with a model of behaviour that will later erupt into a psychosomatic illness in adolescence. A mother who invariably develops a headache when an unwelcome visitor comes or when she is faced with something she does not want to do is setting an example for her children that may produce similar symptoms under similar circumstances in them.

However, Paul and Epanchin (1982:79) point out that, although parents of the emotionally disturbed have sometimes been considered to be part of the problem, they do play a significant role in the treatment and education of the emotionally disturbed children. In America, for instance, various programmes have been developed to train parents to work co-operatively with the school in reducing disturbance. Glenurick and Barocas in Paul and Epanchin (1982:79-80) maintain that parents should be involved in every step of the way in the identification, assessment, placement and treatment of their child.

Gallagher and Harris (1976:112) however maintain that mothers and teachers are in the best position to observe the first slight changes in manner and behaviours that warrant more careful scrutiny; they are usually the first to notice that something physical or emotional is wrong. Though their fears may not always prove to be warranted, their observations are of great value. Many of the severe emotional disturbance of adolescence are slow to develop and are most efficiently and effectively treated in their early stages.

3.3.2 Emotional support at school

The teacher is concerned with the child's mental health and psychological well-being, the child's achievement and general success as a student, and the welfare of the classroom, including the integrity of the environment and the maintenance of normative procedures and activities in the environment (Wells & Matthews, 1994:296). Since emotional disturbance is viewed as a psychological disorder or a form of social deviance, an understanding of both psychological and social principles will help the teacher meet the educational needs of emotionally disturbed children (Paul & Epanchin, 1982:11). Emotionally disturbed children according to Paul and Epanchin (1982:14) come to the attention of teachers either through the teacher's own observations in the classroom or when parents make the teacher aware of some special difficulty the child is having.

Gilbert (1969:2) points out that whether recognised or not, a classroom teacher plays a role of importance second only to that of parents in determining the mental health and therefore the future happiness and well-being of the child. On the other hand Behr (1986:78) argues that teachers can deal with adolescent problems more objectively than parents who are likely to identify with their children's problems and hold themselves partly responsible. It is however not assumed that classroom teachers should become "junior psychiatrists" or "mental hygienists". To create a climate favourable for the learning process, it is necessary for the classroom teacher to be interested in and have at least some understanding of the signs and expressions of mental and emotional disorders (Sawrey & Telford, 1968:480).

Sawrey and Telford (1968:480) correctly argue that the most the ordinary classroom teacher can do is to provide a classroom atmosphere that will impose a minimum of stress on the emotionally disturbed child. He must also try to understand and help the other children to understand and accept the deviant child and control the surface manifestations of the child's disturbance sufficiently to make it possible for him to remain in the classroom until such time that he finds outside therapy.

According to Paul and Epanchin (1982:65), the most common conditions that may lead to educational disturbance in the classroom are academic frustration, confusion, isolation, boredom and intentional noncompliance. For each of these conditions the teacher can employ certain techniques that will help prevent emotional disturbance. In providing emotional support, the classroom teacher can, by making the classroom a psychologically-healthy, productive, responsive place, help children deal with anxiety, frustration, hostility and maladaptive behaviour. The classroom teacher is the first to recognise the need for specialised intervention. It is incumbent for the teacher to be sensitive to the behaviour and feelings of all students. It is important that the teacher knows the procedures for making an informal referral for additional assessment or services when the need arises (Paul & Epanchin, 1982:66).

The teacher must establish a helping relationship which may not be easy or automatic (Van der Stoep & Louw, 1984:60). Once the helping relationship of mutual acceptance is established, the child will, more likely, pass through a period of very hostile, negative behaviour. The reason for this is to test the teachers' acceptance of him. When the child begins interpersonal communications after withdrawal, he is likely to be very hostile with periods of equanimity and irritation involved. The teacher must be able to bear with this limit testing and clumsy hostile expressions. Once a child works through his hostility, he will be very compliant, loving and affectionate for a period of time. One may have to work as a parent substitute where the need for affection is strong and unfulfilled. During these contacts the child will be responding emotionally. The teacher should be aware of these forces or dynamics so that he will not be overprotective or allow the child to develop a morbid strange-hold on him. There will be danger of sudden retreat or regression if the relationship is prematurely terminated (Gilbert, 1969:24).

The child's emotional health plays a dominant role in his social development (Steinberg, 1991:467). Teachers should therefore note emotional abnormalities at the earliest possible stage and seek the guidance of those qualified to give it in deciding how to assist the pupil concerned. The records of pupils entering secondary school

should always be scrutinised for information on this and other subjects. It should also be recognised that adolescence is usually marked by emotional instability. The adolescent is often unable to account for his feelings and therefore for his actions (Josselyn, 1955:131). That being so, he is all the more in need of intelligent sympathy and his teachers should be on their guard against misjudging him or seeming to misjudge him. Misbehaviour might often be dealt with more effectively in private than in public.

One way to reduce upheavals is through therapeutic, creative release in hobbies and creative-expressive games (Gilbert, 1969:29). Another is by carrying on hostility satisfying activities. Given adequate material, opportunity and encouragement, many children who have reached the tension peak will paint, draw, model clay, play a musical instrument, make things out of wood, metal, paper and write poetry or stories. Often this creative activity offers the youth the chance to express his feelings, to examine the meaning of his feelings, to examine the meaning of his adjustment problem and to explore possible solutions. These expressional activities can be fitted to the individual's talents, aptitudes and amount of energy generated by his emotions on very beneficial ways, but also lead to deeper insights into the causes of delinquency and unhappiness and the discovery of ways of coming to terms with them (Gilbert, 1969:30).

Creative activity is effective because it permits the child to deal with his problems at the feeling level rather than intellectual, to express his problems and feelings without putting them into words. They help to bring out innate talents within an individual. As skills develop, the individual is able to do things that win merit and attention or approval from others, and the discovery of his own capacities enhances his feelings of personal adequacy and worth, undoing the early harmful conditioning. The creative arts are necessary in the school as health-giving emotional release and as constructive avenues by which the child may learn to come to grips with situations that disturb him deeply. Instead of scolding a child, telling him that his behaviour is getting him into trouble, or is to his own disadvantage, one may use methods that will be of benefit to the child (Gilbert, 1969:29).

To provide emotional support to the child, Paul and Epanchin (1982:1) suggest that the teacher should be aware of the interaction of psychological, organic and environmental factors that affect the behaviour and learning of children who are labelled emotionally disturbed or behaviour disordered. It is essential for the teacher to understand the relevant questions and to know where or from whom he can get assistance in understanding and planning educational programmes for these children.

3.3.3 Emotional support in the society

Unemployment can also be regarded as one of the sources of adolescents' emotional problems. In South Africa, Black unemployment is estimated between 20 and 30 percent and could reach 50 percent by the end of the century if the economy continues to stagnate as it did during the first half of the present decade. More than 1000 jobseekers who cannot find work enter the labour market every day and it is estimated that by the year 2010 there may be more than 8 million unemployed people. (Gouws 1997:143). Le Roux (1993:54) points out that an abnormal increase in population and urbanisation creates numerous social and educational problems. He further states that the bonds of family life are being loosened and as a result tendencies such as divorce and separation, child abuse, teenage pregnancy, alcoholism and suicide emerge. These consequently give rise to unemployment, poverty and broken families. This implies that the South African government has to ensure with its economic policies that job opportunities are created in such a way that the unemployment rate is reduced in every possible way, in this country. As the ANC has promised in its Reconstruction and Development Programme that:

"Our central goal for reconstruction and development is to create a strong, dynamic and balanced economy which will eliminate the poverty, low wages and wealth generated by the apartheid system, meet basic needs and thus ensure that every South African has a decent living standard and economic security.... (ANC 1994:79).

Every South African, as a result, hopes for social welfare which includes the rights to basic needs such as shelter, food, health care, work opportunities, income security and all social and emotional well-being of all the members of the South African society.

The adult who is aware of an adolescent's emotional problems early in his development is in a position to be of inestimable help. Many of the emotional difficulties of adolescents, if identified soon enough, can be resolved in a very short time (Lindgren, 1980:683). When a student is given help early in the course of his emotional upset, a brief talk, lasting perhaps no more than 15 minutes, may be sufficient to discuss the nature of his problem with him and enable him to cope with it. Parents, teachers, club leaders, church leaders and coaches are in an unusually strategic position to detect the first signs of a developing problem. Recognition of these signs depends to a considerable extent upon a close and continuous relationship. The society member who is going to help adolescents needs more than the ability to recognise early signs. His response to them is of paramount importance. Some listeners are rendered ineffective because they are unconsciously moved by desires for control or power. They cannot wait to talk, to advise, to criticise. Conversation is of course more than just listening, but listening is so much more effective than preaching and the child telling you is much more valuable than you telling him. Some adults who seem to wish to help disturbed adolescents unconsciously picture themselves as a kind of protector or nurturer, a motherly figure who shields and supports the shorn lambs. These, too, usually fail to establish an effective relationship. In fact, they may arouse such intense anxiety in the adolescent that he will beat a hasty retreat. On the other hand, listening can be much more effective than many adults realise (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:5153).

According to Gilbert (1969:25) a very effective way of helping the disturbed child is to get him actively interested in people and things outside himself. Getting a disturbed child vitally interested in things and people outside himself has several distinct advantages. It distracts him from his worries, gives him worthwhile goals to live for and makes worthwhile companionships which serves as stimulating models.

Gallagher and Harris (1976:139) point out that stable, friendly communities are best. This has to do with how well the society gets along, how cohesive it is, how much hostility, envy and intergroup strife there is. If there is not much of these, the chances are that its young people will have a feeling of belonging and will be well-adjusted and

stable, no matter how poor the housing might be. But if the atmosphere is rife with struggle for success or with intolerance, neither attractive suburbs nor slum areas will be free from delinquency. People who are preoccupied with their own struggle for mastery, who openly hate their neighbours and are intolerant of those of different backgrounds, have little time for their own children, they are impatient, on the move, busy "getting ahead". Their children do not know where they stand. So these young people, abandoned by their parents, develop a world with its own language, laws and style. They are as faithful and loyal to their own group and its mores as they are oblivious of those of adults. However, close ties to good people, that is, good people at home, school, in the church and at the club should ensure that children are taught consistently, simply, firmly and kindly from very early childhood (Youniss, 1980:263).

Referral is also one aspect of providing emotional support. According to Paul and Epanchin (1982:1) it is essential for teachers, parents and other society members dealing and working with adolescents to work with other professionals like medical doctors, social workers, clinicians, psychologists and psychiatrists in order to get information about the child's needs and abilities and integrate this information into an educational plan. They also in turn have to contribute relevant information about the child's abilities and needs to these professionals who may be working with the child or the family in a setting. It should also be understood that emotional disturbance is not take a single, simple condition. Rather, it involves the total physical, psychological and social being of a child (Epanchin & Paul, 1987:18).

Teachers, ministers, advisers and all people who have to deal intimately with the adolescent, are in a highly strategic position to encourage the outpourings of confused, frustrated and angry youngsters. They are seeking recognition, support, direction and trust from the older generation, but of a different nature from that they have received from their parents and relatives through the years (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:61). Many emotional disturbances if treated early in their course, would never become chronic cases so refractory to treatment. By giving early attention to disorders and illnesses and by insisting that they be seen by a doctor, adults will save adolescents great suffering and permit a much higher percentage of people to be helped. To tell a boy

or a girl to "take it easy" or "forget it" when you do not know the reason for his symptoms or when you only suspect that they have an emotional basis, is far from helpful (Gallagher & Harris, 1976:108).

3.4 CONCLUSION

Children can be a signal of hope when societies make investments in them for the future. By investing and developing children's human capital, society will enable children to make a contribution to human kind (Goduka, 1987:1). As children develop holistically, they should be assisted by family, school, church and society at large to develop physically, socially, morally, intellectually and emotionally. However, families remain the most accessible and most successful units for providing child care and they should thus be supported in all their diverse forms (Straker, 1992:142). In the final analysis, it will be the degree to which proper nurturance and care for all South African children is provided, and the degree to which they are socialised towards tolerance, that will determine the extent to which South African youth can be transformed from faces in a revolution to whole persons in a peaceful world.

In chapter 4 the exposition of the empirical research design and the procedure which will be followed in the investigation will be given.

CHAPTER 4:

AN EXPOSITION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND THE PROCEDURE FOR THE INVESTIGATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous two chapters, chapter 2 and 3, the emotional development of the adolescent and sources of secondary school children's emotional problems as well as means to provide emotional support to emotionally disturbed children were discussed. Variables related to these were identified and discussed.

This chapter focuses on the exposition of the empirical research design and the procedure for the investigation about providing emotional support to secondary school children. Firstly, specific research problems are identified, null and research hypotheses are then stated and thereafter the research design is explained.

4.2 SPECIFIC RESEARCH PROBLEMS

The following are specific research problem statements which were identified during the literature review that will direct the empirical research of this study:

- (i) What are the causes of emotional problems of secondary school children in Umzumbe?
- (ii) Are there any differences with regard to emotional experiences between boys and girls?

- (iii) Are emotional problems experienced with regard to different age groups?
- (iv) How do emotional experiences of adolescents contribute towards emotional problems in secondary school children?

4.3 GENERAL RESEARCH PROBLEM

As stated in Chapter 1 (Section 1.4.2), the general research problem focuses on the determination of guidelines, provision of support and assistance of secondary school children with emotional problems.

4.4 HYPOTHESES

4.4.1 Research problem one

Null Hypothesis

H_{01} : Today's educational institutions have no significant role to play in stabilising the children's emotions in preparing them for the future.

Research Hypothesis

H_1 : Today's educational institutions have a significant role to play in stabilising the children's emotions in preparing them for the future.

4.4.2 Research problem two

Null Hypothesis

H_{02} : There is no significant gap existing between adults and adolescents.

Research Hypothesis

H_2 : There is a significant gap existing between adults and adolescents.

4.4.3 Research problem three

Null Hypothesis

H₀₃: The current political conditions in South Africa are not creating significant emotional problems by destabilising the emotional lives of adolescents.

Research Hypothesis

H₃: The current political conditions in South Africa are creating significant emotional problems by destabilising the emotional lives of adolescents.

4.4.4 Research problem four

Null Hypothesis

H₀₄: Socio-economic conditions of the home have no significant influence in today's adolescent's frustrations which they bring to school.

Research Hypothesis

H₄: Socio-economic conditions of the home have a significant influence in today's adolescent's frustrations which they bring to school.

4.4.5 Research problem five

Null Hypothesis

H₀₅: Teachers have no significant frustrations from their marital discord, thwarted ambitions, indebtedness and illness which they bring to school; which consequently make them develop a negative attitude towards their learners.

Research Hypothesis

H₅: Teachers have significant frustrations from their marital discord, thwarted ambitions, indebtedness and illness which they bring to school; which consequently make them develop a negative attitude towards their learners.

4.4.6 Research Problem six

Null Hypothesis

H₀₆: Parents have no confidence in guiding their children.

Research Hypothesis

H₆: Parents have great confidence in guiding their children.

4.4.7 Research problem seven

Null Hypothesis

H₀₇: In churches, there is no significant emphasis on developing the moral life and providing for emotional needs of children.

Research Hypothesis

H₇: In churches, there is significant emphasis on developing the moral life and providing for emotional needs of children.

4.4.8 Research problem eight

Null Hypothesis

H₀₈: There is no significant loss of educative roles in community institutions like social youth clubs, councils and leagues as a result of violence in the country.

Research Hypothesis

H₈: There is significant loss of educative roles in community institutions like social youth clubs, councils and leagues as a result of violence in the country.

4.5 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

4.5.1 Pilot study

Formal evaluation of a research plan involves a pilot study which is sort of a dress rehearsal (Gay, 1976:58). Experienced researchers are of the opinion that before a researcher administers his research instruments in the field, it is essential that he undertakes a preliminary trial of the research measures (Masilela, 1988:64). With regard to this study, a pilot study was conducted. It was administered to a group of 30 students (ten students from each class, that is, Std 8 (Grade 10), Std 9 (Grade 11) and Std 10 (Grade 12). Its purpose was:

- (i) To establish the time that it takes the respondents to complete the questionnaire.
- (ii) To note any difficulties that arose during the administration, with the aim of eliminating or making provision for them before hand.
- (iii) To detect discriminality, ambiguity, poor wording of instructions as well as areas that might be sensitive to the respondents.

Regarding point one above, it was established that an optimum time of one hour was necessary for the completion of the questionnaire.

In connection with point two, very few hitches were encountered. However one observation that was made was the fear of some pupils. To eliminate this, the researcher assured the respondents of the confidentiality of the results.

Regarding point three above, the researcher gave a questionnaire to all the staff-members of her own school, with the main aim of identifying those questions which the children might find difficult to answer.

4.5.2 Selection of a sample

The purpose of selecting a sample is to gain information concerning a population (Gay, 1976:65). Since inferences concerning a population are made based on the behaviour of a sample, it is imperative that the sample be representative and sufficiently large, and that care be taken to avoid possible sources of sampling error and bias (Behr, 1983:60).

4.5.2.1 Methods of selecting a sample

At the time of investigation there were 100 secondary schools in Umzumbe Magistral District. These schools were distributed in two circuits, namely the Umginto and Umzumbe circuits (see section 1.7.2 in chapter 1). The researcher considered two methods of selecting a sample as relevant to her study; namely; random sampling and cluster sampling. For the selection of schools, cluster sampling was used because of the following reasons:

- Since the Umzumbe population was very large and spread out over a wide geographical area, cluster sampling was used as it involves less time and less expense and is generally more convenient (Gay, 1976:73).
- Schools in Umzumbe seemed to have similar political, socio-economic and educational characteristics and for that reason cluster sampling was considered appropriate for the study.

The list of all secondary schools in the two circuits was obtained from the circuit inspectors (today known as superintendents of education management). There were 100 secondary schools. The number of clusters (schools) needed equalled the desired

sample size, 100 divided by the average of a cluster, 20. Thus the number of schools needed was $100 \div 20 = 5$. Therefore five of the 100 schools were randomly selected.

The children sample from the five schools was done through random sampling. By means of random tables 20 children were selected from each school, which came to a total of 100 children. This was done so that each child would be selected on a purely random basis. The researcher was also aware of the fact that the number of individuals for the sample does not need to be large, as long as it is representative (Good, 1992:21).

4.5.2.2 Distribution of pupils

Table 4.5.1

School	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative %
1	20	20	20	20
2	20	20	40	40
3	20	20	60	60
4	20	20	80	80
5	20	20	100	100

4.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

4.6.1 The drafting of a questionnaire

It has been argued by Walten and Fraenkel (1991:290) that the researcher should select instruments that would be supportive of the research objectives from those available besides constructing his or her own instrument. In line with this thought, after a considerable in-depth study of the various research tools, inter alia, observation

techniques, interviews, questionnaires and sociometry, it was realised that questionnaires would be suitable both to the nature and purpose of study (Travers, 1978:330).

Considerable attention was paid to the design of the questionnaire. The following received major attention: content of the questions, wording order, form of the response for example a cross, multiple response as well as the format and the presentation of the questionnaire (Behr, 1983:151-152). Furthermore, the language used in the questionnaire instrument was adjusted both to the level of the group to which it would be administered.

4.6.2 Advantages of the questionnaire for this study

The choice to use a questionnaire was based on the following reasons:

- (i) It is typically more efficient, practical and allows the researcher to reach a large sample.
- (ii) All respondents would receive identical instructions (Tuckman, 1972:233). This would reduce bias of the investigator.
- (iii) A written questionnaire would provide a vehicle for expression without fear of embarrassment to the respondent. This is especially the case if the respondents are assured that their answers would be kept in confidence.

4.6.3 Disadvantages of the questionnaire in the study

Besides many advantages, the researcher was also aware of the potential flaws of the questionnaire instrument. The following factors were considered:

- (i) It is not easy to check on the respondents' motivation nor can rapport be established. Good (1992:226) further adds that the disadvantage of mailed questionnaires is the low returns which results in a biased sampling as well as

results. However, this disadvantage was not experienced in this study because the pupils' questionnaire was personally handed to the students by the researcher. During the planning session, the researcher had to consider the following disadvantages of the questionnaire instrument:

- (ii) Free expression by the respondents might be curtailed because of the design of the questionnaire.
- (iii) Possibility of misinterpretation of some questions by the respondents.
- (iv) There would be no assurance that the intended respondent actually completes the questionnaire (Travers, 1978:297).

4.6.4 How did the researcher plan to solve problems in administering a questionnaire - missing data/incomplete responses

Each question was read slowly and explained by the researcher before pupils had to respond. Questions were treated one by one. During the pilot study discussed under 4.2 (iv), it was noted that the pupils would not be in a position to respond to item six and 28. Plans were made therefore to elucidate the questions.

The design of the questionnaire allowed optional responses at the end of the given responses. The measure was intended to remove sources limiting respondents as discussed above. This was done as follows: "Other, specify".

The face-to-face administration of the questionnaire reduced possibility of misinterpretation of questions, because the researcher explained each item thoroughly and encouraged respondents to ask questions where necessary.

To help respondents answer truthfully, they were assured that their responses would be held in strict confidence.

4.7 FIELD INVESTIGATION

4.7.1 Permission

Before undertaking the field investigation, permission had to be secured from the Department of Education and Culture. A letter requesting for permission to conduct research together with copies of the research instruments were personally handed over to the Circuit Inspectors of Umzinto and Umzumbe circuits. In the letter the purpose of the study was clearly stated. Having obtained permission from the Circuit Offices, the next step was to secure permission for conducting the research. Permission was granted on condition that the survey should have nothing to do with politics.

4.7.2 Problems experienced in the study

4.7.2.1 Pupil's problems

Because of political instability in the area, learning was not conducive in almost all the schools in the area. As a result many appointments with the pupils were cancelled. At first pupils were also suspicious of the survey; thinking that it had to do with politics. But after explanations and clarifications by the researcher the pupils felt free to take part in the investigation.

4.7.2.2 School Managing Committee

It is the policy of all the schools in the area that before anything can be done within school premises, the schools' managing committees should be notified. Patience, perseverance and devotion was essential. The researcher had to pay more than one visit due to the fact that other committee members were working and could only be available during week-ends (Saturdays and Sundays).

4.7.2.3 Collection of replies

All the questionnaires which were given to the respondents were returned. The researcher therefore had a 100% response. This became a major advantage for the researcher.

4.8 CONCLUSION

The questionnaire instrument proved to be a valuable and reliable means by which this research could be carried out successfully. Considering the fact that a questionnaire "cannot penetrate the gap between words and deeds" especially when respondents are unwilling to admit "failures" for fear they will be partly blamed for them (Vulliamy & Stephens, 1990:12), the researcher made great use of her experience as a teacher and the first step was to win the confidence of the respondents.

Chapter 5 will look specifically at the presentation, discussion and interpretation of results obtained in the investigation.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four focused on the exposition of the empirical research design and the procedure of the investigation. The hypotheses were stated, the sample described, the rationale of the questionnaire and the procedure for the research were outlined.

In this chapter an analysis and interpretation of the data will be undertaken. It should also be indicated that this chapter is divided into two parts: 5.2 deals with frequency analysis and 5.3 focuses on contingency tables with X analysis (Chi-square).

5.2 FREQUENCY ANALYSIS

5.2.1 Distribution of pupils per standard

Table 1

Grade	Frequency	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Grd 10	29	29.3	29	29.3
Grd 11	30	30.3	59	59.6
Grd 12	40	40.4	49	100.0

Table 1 indicates that 29 secondary school children were in Grade 10. Thirty were in Grade 11 and 40 were in Grade 12. Although the study focuses on secondary school children in Umzumbe the researcher decided to exclude the Grade 8 and Grade 9 learners simply because in the pilot study, it became evident that the concept of research seemed to be very abstract and vague to them and for that reason the

researcher felt that the questionnaire will not be approached in a manner which reflected the true feelings of the respondents. Also, the Grade 8 and Grade 9 learners seemed to have problems of the understanding of English, therefore the researcher felt that the Grade 10, Grade 11 and Grade 12 learners will be best used for the survey.

5.2.2 Distribution of pupils according to gender

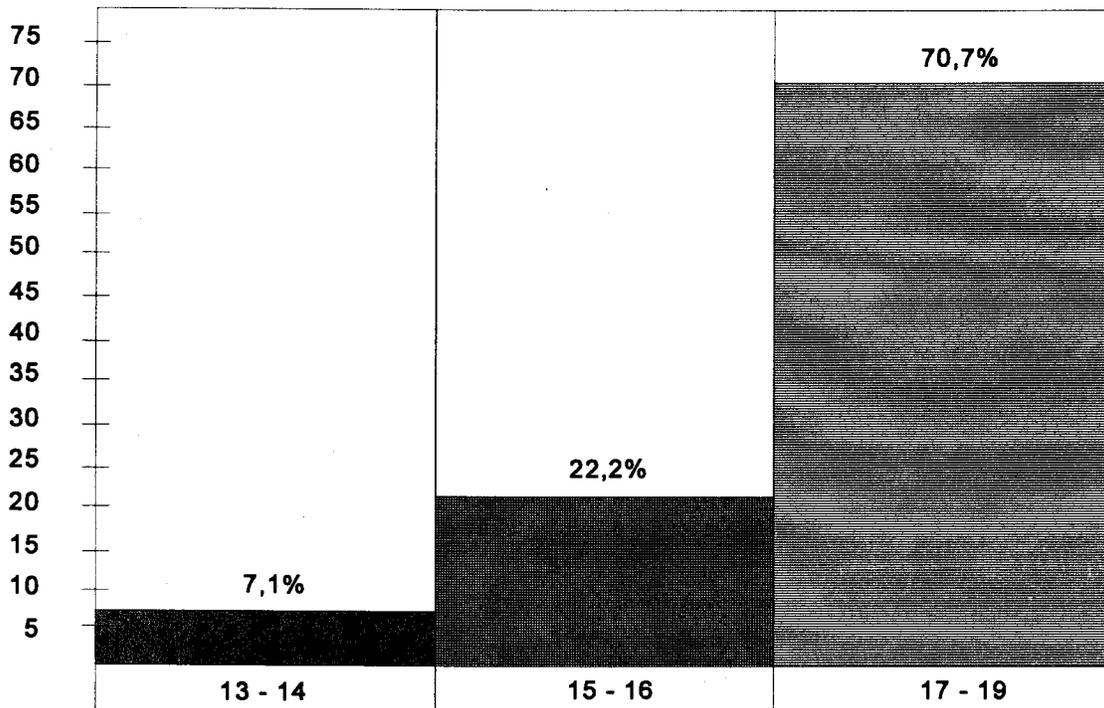
Table 2

Gender	Frequency	%	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative %
Male	44	44,4	44	44,4
Female	54	54,5	98	99,0
			99	100,0

Table 2 indicates that a few more girls (54,5%) took part in the survey than boys (44,4%). Since it was the Grade 12 learners who formed the largest number of the survey, the researcher also observed that Grade 12 was dominated mostly by females. From the researcher's observation, it was observed that most of the boys, especially in senior classes dropped out of school because of political problems of the area during the time.

5.2.3 Distribution of pupils according to age

Table 3



The Bar Chart above indicates that 70,7% of the respondents were between the ages 17 and 19, 22,2% were between 15 and 16 years and only 7,1% were between 13 and 14 years. The researcher personally observed that there were very few learners who were between 13 and 14 years old who took part in the study. Even the lowest class in the study (Grade 10) was dominated by both girls and boys who were between 17 and 19 years old. The researcher thus assumed that since the research was based on previously Black disadvantaged adolescents, many children were failing and thus repeated the classes a number of times.

5.2.4 Have you ever been the victim of political violence in your life?

Table 4

Col. 7	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative %
Yes	81	83,5	81	83,5
No	16	16,5	97	100,0

Table 4 indicates that the majority of secondary school children (83,5%) have been victims of political violence as against the 16,5% who have never experienced political violence in their lives. This proves that many children experience violence at a very early age. As Ekman and Davidson (1994: 99) put it emotions do not simply occur, they occur for reasons, political violence might have been one of the factors which affected the secondary school children in the area.

5.2.5 Political violence experienced at home

Table 5

Col. 8	Frequency	Percent
Political violence experienced at home	42	42

Table 5 indicates that 42% of the respondents experienced political violence in their homes. It is assumed that this was a result of the political conditions of the time where almost everywhere in the Umzumbe area political violence was taking place.

5.2.6 Political violence experienced at school

Table 6

Col. 9	Frequency	Percent
Political violence experienced at school	22	22

Table 6 reflects that 22% of the respondents experienced political violence at school. This therefore proves that schools also were in some instances centres of political violence.

5.2.7 Political violence experienced in the community

Table 7

Col. 10	Frequency	Percent
Political violence experienced in the community	41	41

An observation in Table 7 is that 41 of the respondents experienced political violence in their local communities. It should be noted that Tables 5, 6 and 7 clearly indicate that secondary school children in Umzumbe experienced political violence in their homes, schools and communities. It should also be noted that some of these children had equal political violence experiences in their homes, schools and communities.

5.2.8 How often are you the victim of political violence in your life?

Table 8

Col. 10	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Daily	30	36,1	30	36,1
Weekly	16	19,3	46	55,4
Monthly	36	43,4	82	98,8

It is observed from Table 8 that 36,1% respondents experienced political violence daily, 19,3% weekly and 43,4% monthly. From this observation it can be thus deduced that although in some instances violence was not experienced on daily basis, but every month children were affected.

5.2.9 If you experience political violence how does it affect you?

Table 9

I feel angered	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Never	6	7,1	6	7,1
Sometimes	19	22,4	25	29,4
Often	6	7,1	31	36,5
Always	54	63,5	85	100,0

Table 9 illustrates that the largest number of the respondents, 54, that is 63,5% feel angered about political violence. Nineteen of them (22,4%) sometimes feel angered, six (7,1%) never feel angered by political violence and again six (7,1%) often feel angered by political violence. Safyer and Hauser (1994:54) indicate that a variety of psychiatric problems like anxiety disorders are also associated with higher levels of anger among adolescents. The fact that the largest percentage of respondents feels angered suggests that secondary school children no longer want to experience this violence as it affects them in their lives. The 7,1% of the respondents who never feel angered might be that those children might not have been directly affected by political violence and the other 7,1% of the respondents who often feel angered might be those who have been directly affected by violence.

5.2.10 I can't concentrate at school

Table 10

Col. 13	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulated Percent
Never	4	4,5	4	4,5
Sometimes	41	46,6	45	51,1
Often	12	13,6	57	64,8
Always	31	35,2	88	100,0

Table 10 above indicates that only four respondents didn't find a problem with concentration at school as a result of political violence. Forty-one respondents, which is 46.6% sometimes couldn't concentrate, 12 respondents which is 13,6% often could not concentrate at school and 31 respondents (35,2%) always had a problem of concentration as a result of political violence. It is therefore assumed that since the highest percentage of secondary school children (46,6%) was affected such that they sometimes could not concentrate at school, this implies that students, although disturbed emotionally, try to do their best at school. The 35,2% respondents were so emotionally affected that they couldn't concentrate at all.

5.2.11 I want to talk to someone

Table 11

Col. 14	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	17	20,0	17	20,0
Sometimes	25	29,4	42	49,4
Often	29	34,1	71	83,5
Always	14	16,1	85	100,0

Table 11 clearly indicates that most of the children, 34%, do wish to share their experiences with other people in order to ease their emotional tensions. 29,4% sometimes share their experiences with others. It is again assumed that children in this

case illustrate a lack of trust in other people and their own emotional state of fear to expose their feelings. The 20% respondents who never share their experiences illustrate a complete lack of trust in people as well as their own disturbed emotional being. Only 16,5% of the respondents are always willing to share their experiences with other people. This suggests that a very low percentage of children have developed a sense of trust in other people.

5.2.12 I do not worry

Table 12

Col. 15	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	45	53,6	45	53,6
Sometimes	30	35,7	75	89,3
Often	4	4,8	79	94,0
Always	5	6,0	84	100,0

Table 12 illustrates that a very large number of the children ($45 + 30 = 75$) worry about the effects of political violence in their lives. It is only 4,8% of the children who often do not worry and 6,0% children who always do not worry. It is however at this stage when secondary school children as adolescents are mostly concerned about the slow emergence of their own "self". This is largely determined by the way other people treat them (Siann & Ugwuegbu, 1988:223).

5.2.13 What do you think is the best solution if you experience a serious problem?

Keep it to myself and try to solve it on my own

Table 13

Col. 16	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	59	59,6	59	59,6
Sometimes	19	19,2	78	78,8
Often	4	4,0	82	82,8
Always	17	17,2	99	100,0

Table 13 indicates that 59,6% of the respondents do not believe in keeping their problems to themselves. 21% of the respondents prefer to keep their problems to themselves rather than sharing them with other people.

5.2.14 Live with it and hope it will solve itself

Table 14

Col. 18	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	60	60	60	60
Sometimes	25	25	85	85,0
Often	4	4	89	89,0
Always	11	11	100	100,0

Table 14 above illustrates that 60% of the respondents do not believe in leaving the problem unsolved. 15% of the respondents prefer to live with their problems believing that their problems will solve themselves.

**5.2.15 How do you react if you feel angered by a parent?
I avoid them by keeping myself away from them.**

Table 15

Col. 19	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	27	27,0	27	27,0
Sometimes	44	44,0	71	71,0
Often	8	8,0	79	79,0
Always	21	21,0	100	100,0

Table 18 indicates that 71% of the respondents do not believe in avoiding their parents even if they do not reach an agreement. 29% (ie 8% + 21%) of the respondents believe in keeping away from their parents as a solution to their problems. It should however be noted that adolescents reared in homes where parental love is evident and where the child is given considerable age-appropriate autonomy are likely to emerge as more active, outgoing, socially assertive and lacking in hostility toward others and the self (Siann & Ugwuegbu, 1988:277).

5.2.16 I cry and break everything near me

Table 19

Col. 20	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	78	78,0	78	78,0
Sometimes	18	18,0	96	96,0
Often	1	1,0	97	97,0
Always	3	3,0	100	100,0

Table 19 indicates that 96% (78% + 18%) of the respondents are able to control themselves even if they feel angered by adults. Only 4% of the respondents cry and break things around them if they feel angered. As adolescents develop, they gradually

come to terms with themselves and understand themselves better as well as the world around them.

5.2.17 I discuss the problem with the adult

Table 20

Col. 21	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	16	16,0	16	16,0
Sometimes	32	32,0	48	48,0
Often	33	33,0	81	81,0
Always	19	19,0	100	100,0

Table 20 indicates that 52% (33 + 19) of the respondents believe in discussing the problems they encounter as a result of their parents with them whereas 16% of the respondents never believe in discussing the problems with the adults and 32% do sometimes discuss the problems they encounter with the parents. Although adolescents do wish to achieve their independence, they still depend on adults (like parents) for support.

5.2.18 I never listen to adults because they always misguide us

Table 21

Col. 22	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	61	61,0	61	61,0
Sometimes	21	21,0	82	82,0
Often	6	6,0	88	88,0
Always	12	12,0	100	100,0

According to table 21, 61% of the respondents do not believe that adults misguide them. 21% of them sometimes never listen to adults with the belief that they misguide them. 18% (6% + 12%) of the respondents never listen to adults because they believe

they misguide them. It is however true that adolescence is a period in which adolescents want to achieve their independence, but adolescents still know that should they encounter some problems, they have their parents to turn to for support.

5.2.19 Have you ever felt seriously threatened by death?

Table 22

Col. 23	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	14	14,1	14	14,1
Sometimes	21	21,2	35	35,4
Often	27	27,3	62	62,6
Always	37	37,4	99	100,0

Table 22 indicates that 64,7% of the respondents have experiences of being threatened by death. 35% of the respondents do not have serious experiences of death. From the researcher's observation many secondary school children were greatly affected during the time when Umzumbe area was greatly affected by political violence and many people were killed. It is therefore assumed that it was during this time when many children felt seriously threatened by death.

5.2.20 What was the cause of death?

Natural causes, accident or violence

Table 23

Col. 24, 25, 26	Frequency
Natural causes	7
Accident	19
Violence	80

Table 23 reflects that 80 of the respondents were seriously threatened by death as a result of violence. Nineteen respondents were threatened by death as a result of accidents and seven of them were threatened by death as a result of natural causes.

As it has been stated in 5.1.19, Umzumbe had been an area which had been greatly affected by violence and as a result many people had been killed.

5.2.21 Have you ever experienced a house being burnt down in a violent act?

Table 24

Col. 27	Frequency	Percent
Yes	72	72,0
No	28	28,0

Table 24 reflects that 72% of the respondents have experiences of a house being burnt down in a violent act and 28% have no experiences of a house being burnt down in a violent act. It was again observed that many houses were burnt down during the time of political violence in Umzumbe.

5.2.22 If yes to 12, how did you feel?

Table 24

Col. 28, 29, 30, 31	Frequency	Percent
Frightened and couldn't concentrate at school	53	100,0
Even now I still have a picture of what happened	41	80,4
I easily forgot it as part of our lives nowadays	4	75,0

Table 24 indicates that 53 respondents couldn't concentrate at school as a result of witnessing violent acts. Forty-one of them still have memories of what happened in the part and four of them easily forgot it as part of their daily lives. It is therefore assumed that one of the main reasons why there is a high failure rate in the secondary schools of the area is the emotional experiences the secondary school children have.

As a result they encounter problems of concentration at school. The fact that some of them still have clear memories of these experiences means that children find it difficult to concentrate in their school work and as a result encounter problems of repeating grades at the end.

5.2.23 If you experience a problem what do you regard as the best solution?

Table 25

Col. 32 + 33	Frequency	Percent
Sharing it with others	78	78,0
Keeping it to myself	21	21,0

Table 25 indicates that 78 of the respondents prefer to share their problems with others whereas 21 of them would keep their problems to themselves. It should however be noted that during adolescence interpersonal relationships change as youngsters begin to function in a vast away of new environments. As part of these changes, the establishment of healthy relations with peers and the development of a sense of emotional well-being become increasingly important.

5.2.24 Do you suppress your feelings if you experience a sad scene (for instance a person being attacked, another child beaten, a house being burnt down)

Table 26

Col. 34	Frequency	Percent
Yes	45	45,0
No	55	55,0

Table 26 indicates that 45 of the respondents suppress their feelings if they experience a sad scene. This implies that they cannot show or expose their emotional state as to how they feel about the sad scene. The 55 respondents do not suppress their feelings if they experience a sad scene. They can clearly expose their feelings about the situation.

The researcher observed that since most of the secondary school children had experiences of political violence, it is possible that they might wish to ignore them. In this way they tend to suppress them. Since these experiences are "bottled up" in their memories they may consequently result in emotional disturbance.

5.2.25 If you realise you cannot solve the problem you are faced with, how do you feel?

The Pie Chart of Table 27 above indicates that 59 respondents have hopes of solving their problems. Thirty seven of them are unwilling to consult other people for help. Twenty eight of them are so disturbed that they cannot do anything about their problems and ten of them show that they do not worry whether their problems are solved or not. This therefore indicates that a large number of children do not encounter some problems since they have a positive attitude in solving their problems.

Table 27



5.2.26 How do you feel about asking for help from somebody else?

I solve my own problems

Table 28

Col. 39	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	14	14,1	14	14,1
Sometimes	49	49,5	63	63,6
Often	20	20,2	83	83,8
Always	16	16,2	99	100,0

From Table 28, it is significant to note that the majority of the children (86%) do sometimes, often or always ask for help from other people. It is assumed that since adolescents are in a stage of gradually gaining their self-confidence, they might therefore feel not confident enough to ask for help from other people, as the table indicates that 14,1% of them are not in any way willing to ask for help from other people. Only 16,2% are always confident to consult other people for help and 20,2% do not make frequent use of consultation. It is also worth mentioning that although there is a low percentage of children who are never willing to ask for help from other people should they encounter problems in their lives, it is also a fact that there is also a very low percentage (16,2%) of children who are always open for consultation.

5.2.27 I want teachers to help me

Table 29

Col. 40	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	11	11,1	11	11,1
Sometimes	56	56,1	67	67,7
Often	24	24,2	91	91,9
Always	8	8,1	99	100,0

Table 29 illustrates that 56,1% of the respondents are sometimes willing to share their problems with their teachers. This implies that this large group of children does not at all times rely on their teachers for support. It is assumed that they make consultations other than teachers or rely on themselves for problem-solving. 24,2% of the children often rely on their teachers for support whereas 11,1% of them never consider consulting their teachers as a significant part of problem-solving. It is also significant to note that the lowest percentage (8,1%) is that of the children who, whenever they have a problem always consult their teachers. It is again assumed that it is at this stage when secondary school children as adolescents are in a stage in which they want to achieve their independence. Although they sometimes turn to adults for support, at the same time they want to achieve their own independence by solving their own problems.

5.2.28 Do you regard yourself as easily depressed if something bad happens to you?

Table 30

Col. 41	Frequency	Percent
Yes	66	66,7
No	33	33,3

According to table 30, 66 children regard themselves as easily depressed whereas 33 of them do not regard themselves as easily depressed. Adolescence is one of the most challenging developmental stages of life and is characterised by emotional turmoil. This, together with their circumstances, may lead them to feel easily depressed.

5.2.29 Do you regard being aggressive as the best way of relieving tension?

Table 31

Col. 42	Frequency	Percent
Yes	22	22,4
No	76	77,6

Table 31 indicates that 76 of the respondents do not believe aggression is the best way of relieving tension whereas 22 of them regard being aggressive as the best way of relieving tension. It is assumed that since some of the children had experienced political violence, this has made a third of them adopt aggression as a way of solving emotional problems.

5.2.30 Are you controlled by anger and cannot reason to solve the problem you are faced with?

Table 32

Col. 43	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	52	52,5	52	52,5
Sometimes	37	37,4	89	89,9
Often	6	6,1	95	96,0
Always	4	4,0	99	100,0

Table 32 indicates that 52,5% of the respondents are never controlled by anger in solving their emotional problems. Thirty seven respondents are sometimes controlled by anger in solving the problems they are faced with, six of them believe they are often controlled by anger in their emotional lives and four of them maintain they are always controlled by anger in their problem-solving. Since adolescence can be a time when

individuals feel overwhelmed by numerous normative stressors (Safyer & Hauser, 1994:52), adolescents are therefore less likely to be aware of all that they are feeling.

5.2.31 If you have broken a rule at home or at school, how do you feel?

Table 33

Col. 44, 45, 46	Frequency	Percent
I just cannot break a rule	31	31,0
There might be something which might have probably made me do that	28	28,0
If I have done wrong, I deserve to be punished and I accept the punishment	38	38,0

Table 33 illustrates that 38 of the respondents are willing to take responsibility for their own faults. Thirty-one of them do not put blame on themselves for their faults and 28 of them believe they might have had outside influences. It is believed that as adolescents develop, they gradually come to terms with themselves and as a result become self-dependent and in that way take responsibility of themselves.

5.2.32 Do you regard other people as the cause of your difficulties and faults?

Table 34

Col. 48	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	7	7,5	7	7,5
Sometimes	30	75,3	77	82,8
Often	6	6,5	83	89,2
Always	10	10,8	93	100,0

Table 34 illustrates that 70 respondents do sometimes believe that other people are responsible for their difficulties. Six respondents often believe that other people are

responsible for their difficulties. Ten of them solely believe that their difficulties are a result of other people and not themselves. Seven of the respondents never believe that other people are responsible for their difficulties but put the responsibility solely on themselves. As adolescents develop they gradually discover themselves and thus understand who they are. As they also develop a sense of independence, they gradually emancipate themselves from the adults especially their parents.

5.2.33 If you do not concentrate at school, whom do you blame?

Table 35

Col. 49, 50, 51, 52, 53	Frequency	Percent
School system	14	14,0
Teachers	10	10,0
Parents	17	17,0
Yourself	36	36,0
Violent society	23	23,0

Table 35 indicates that the largest percentage (36%) of the respondents blame themselves for their lack of concentration at school, 23% blame the violent society, 17% blame their parents, 14% blame the school system and 10% blame the teachers. Although there are problems which adolescents experience as a result of society, it is important to note that 36% of them blame themselves. This shows a sense of responsibility among secondary school children.

5.2.34 Do you regard illness as a good excuse to get out of some difficult task?

Table 36

Col. 54	Frequency	Percent
Yes	48	51,1
No	46	48,9

Table 36 indicates that 48 of the respondents do not regard illness as a good excuse to get out of some difficult task. Forty six of the respondents do not regard illness as a way of escaping from a difficult task. Illness is however one of the strategies adopted by some adolescents as a means of escaping from a difficult task.

5.2.35 Do you think daydreaming is the best solution to solve your problems?

Table 37

Col. 55	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	36	40,4	36	40,4
Sometimes	46	51,7	82	92,1
Often	2	2,2	84	94,4
Always	5	5,6	89	100,0

Table 37 indicates that 36 of the respondents do not think daydreaming is the best solution to solve their problems. Forty six of them sometimes consider daydreaming as the best solution to solve problems. Two of them often think daydreaming is the best solution to solve their problems and five always regard daydreaming as the best solution in solving their problems. Since 60,0% of the respondents do sometimes, often or always consider daydreaming as the best way of solving a problem, it confirms the findings from the literature (see paragraph 2.5.4.4 chapter 2) that many secondary school children as adolescents do sometimes resort to daydreaming as a means of escaping from a difficult task. Although it does not completely solve the problem, it does relieve them for some time and thus escape from reality.

5.2.36 If your friends reject you, what is your reaction?

Table 38

Col 56, 57, 58, 59	Frequency	Percent
Withdrawal	26	26,7
Never mind and soon find other friends	24	24,1
Try to find out what the problem is, so that I won't repeat it if it had been my fault	49	49,2

Table 38 above illustrates that 26 respondents resort to withdrawal if they find themselves rejected by friends. Twenty four of them never mind and soon find other friends whereas 49 of them try to find out what the problem is, so that they won't repeat their faults. Since withdrawal is one of the typical responses to unpleasant situations, adolescents resort to withdrawal as a means of escaping from reality. As the above table indicates, the largest number of the respondents is that of the adolescents who are willing to find out what the problem is, so as to avoid the same mistake from happening again, it is at this stage when adolescents want to discover who they are, so that is why they want to discover the truth about themselves.

5.2.37 Do you regard yourself as friendly?

Table 39

Col. 60	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	8	8,0	8	8,0
Sometimes	43	43,0	51	51,0
Often	18	18,0	69	69,0
Always	31	31,0	100	100,0

Table 39 illustrates that 49% (18% + 31%) of the respondents regard themselves as friendly, 43% sometimes regard themselves as friendly and 8% never regard

themselves as friendly. Since secondary school children are in a stage in which they experience an increasing need for companionship with their peers (Siann & Ugwuegbu, 1988:228), the need to belong to and identify with a group becomes very strong. They make more friends at this stage because they want to belong.

5.2.38 Do you regard yourself as aggressive?

Table 40

Col. 61	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	55	55,0	55	55,0
Sometimes	31	31,0	86	86,0
Often	9	9,0	95	95,0
Always	5	5,0	100	100,0

Table 40 illustrates that 55% of the respondents never regard themselves as aggressive whereas 31% of them sometimes find themselves being aggressive, and 14% of them regard themselves as aggressive. It is assumed that adolescents use aggressive behaviour as a way of relieving tension. Many psychologists agree that humans are not born aggressive, but aggression is an unstructured reaction to threats of different kinds of influences in a person's background like political violence in this case.

5.2.39 Do you regard yourself as withdrawn?

Table 41

Col. 62	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	30	30,0	30	30,0
Sometimes	56	56,0	86	86,0
Often	11	11,0	97	97,0
Always	3	3,0	100	100,0

Table 41 indicates that 30% of the respondents never regard themselves as withdrawn. 56% of them sometimes find themselves withdrawn. 13% of the respondents regard themselves as withdrawn. It is assumed that adolescents resort to withdrawal as a means of reacting to maladjustment. Withdrawal is therefore used as a response to an unpleasant situation by 70% of the children.

5.2.40 Do you regard yourself as short-tempered?

Table 42

Col. 63	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	20	20,0	20	20,0
Sometimes	52	52,0	72	72,0
Often	18	18,0	90	90,0
Always	10	10,0	100	100,0

Table 42 indicates that 20% of the respondents regard themselves as short-tempered. 52% of them sometimes find themselves being short-tempered. 28% regard themselves as short-tempered. It is assumed that since secondary school children are in their adolescent stage; they experience a number of changes; among others physical changes. Their physical condition can sometimes help educators to understand their behaviour.

5.2.41 Do you regard yourself as emotional?

Table 43

Col. 64	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	28	28,3	28	28,3
Sometimes	41	41,4	69	69,7
Often	17	17,2	86	86,9
Always	13	13,1	99	100,0

Table 43 indicates that 28 of the respondents regard themselves as never emotional. Forty one of them sometimes find themselves emotional and 30 of them (17 + 13) regard themselves as emotional. Since the life of an adolescent is characterised by the gradual development of the self-image, adolescents find themselves surrounded by a number of pressures; social, political, moral and even personal. They therefore find themselves emotionally unstable. The fact that the largest percent of respondents (41,4%) find themselves sometimes emotional may be the result of the pressures experienced at this stage.

5.2.42 Do you regard yourself as nervous?

Table 44

Col. 65	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent
Never	8	8,0	8	8,0
Sometimes	68	68,0	76	76,0
Often	19	19,0	95	95,0
Always	5	5,0	100	100,0

Table 44 illustrates that 8% of the respondents never regard themselves as nervous. 68% of them sometimes regard themselves as nervous and 24% of them regard themselves as often or always nervous. Secondary school children are in a stage where they want to discover themselves as well as the world around them. As a result there is the fear of the unknown as they are unaware of what they are going to encounter as they continue to explore. The fact that 68% of them find themselves sometimes nervous may be because of fear they experience at this stage.

5.3 CONTINGENCY TABLES WITH X ANALYSIS (CHI-SQUARE)

5.3.1 Introduction

As it has been stated earlier on in this chapter, paragraph 5.2 deals with contingency tables, here variables of gender and age have been chosen with an aim of determining whether there are any differences in emotional experiences with regards to sex and age groups. Since this study focuses on previously disadvantaged Black secondary school children, the researcher has also chosen these two variables with an aim of determining whether emotional experiences had any influences on these children's failure and thus repeating grades. It should also be noted that not all questions appearing in the questionnaire have been analysed but only 12-15, 35-42 and 56-65 have been analysed. These 22 questions have been chosen because of their outstanding significance to this study.

5.3.2 If you experience political violence, how does it affect you? I feel angered

Table 45

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total
Male	2 5,00	4 10,00	3 7,50	31 77,50	40 47,05
Female	4 8,89	15 33,33	3 6,67	23 51,11	45 42,94

The chi-square value for this contingency table is 7,954 with the p-value of 0,047. Since $0,047 < 0,05$ we can say that there is a statistically significant difference at the 5% level between the response of boys and girls to this question. This means that boys were

far more angered by violence than girls. It was however expected that adolescent boys would express higher levels of anger and lower levels of sadness than female adolescents as the notion that emotional expression differs for boys and girls is implied in almost every theory of emotional development (Safyer & Hauser, 1994:53).

Table 46

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14 yrs	0 0,00	0 0,00	0 0,00	5 100,00	5 5,88	$\chi^2 = 6,581$	P = 0,361
15 - 16 yrs	1 5,26	2 10,53	1 5,26	15 78,95	19 22,35		
17 - 19 yrs	5 8,20	17 27,87	5 8,20	34 55,74	61 71,76		

The chi-square value for this contingency table is 6,581 with the p-value of 0,361.

Table 46 clearly shows that secondary school children get themselves adjusted as they grow older. This might be because this is the time at which they try to understand themselves and move towards maturity. They are at the stage where they are trying to discover themselves and therefore understand things happening around them a little better than they used to at their early age.

5.3.3 I can't concentrate at school

Table 47

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	1 2,50	14 35,00	6 15,00	19 49,50	40 45,98	$\chi^2 = 6,271$	P = 0,099 *
Female	3 6,38	27 57,45	5 10,64	12 25,53	47 54,02		

The chi-square value for this contingency table is 6,271 with the p-value of 0,099. Although 0,099 is more than 0,05 the result is statistically significant at the 10% level. This implies that more boys "always" can't concentrate at school as a result of political violence as compared to girls. It has also been argued that strong negative emotions are believed to impede peer and family interactions and affect academic performance (Safyer & Hauser, 1994:54). It is assumed that this is because it is the boys or the males in the area who are more directly involved in violence than girls.

Table 48

Age variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	0 0,00	2 40,00	1 20,00	2 40,00	5 5,75	$\chi^2 = 5,467$	P = 0,485
15 - 16	1 5,26	5 26,32	4 21,05	9 47,37	14 21,84		
17 - 19	3 4,76	34 53,97	6 9,52	20 31,75	63 72,41		

Although the result is not statistically significant ($0,485 > 0,05$), it reveals that children between the ages 15 and 16 are less stable than those (always) belonging to the age group of 13-14 and 17-19. This might be because some of the 13-14 year olds are still too young to take an active part in political violence. It is assumed that the 17-19 year olds do not experience vast problems of concentration because they have become used to the situation and no longer experience problems of concentration at school.

5.3.4 I want to talk to someone

Table 49

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	13 33,33	8 20,51	11 28,21	7 17,95	39 46,43	$\chi^2 = 8,737$	P = 0,033
Female	4 8,89	16 35,56	18 40,00	7 15,56	45 53,57		

The result of the above contingency table is statistically significant since $0,033 < 0,05$. This implies that 55,56% of girls (that is 40,00% + 15,56) are more willing to talk to other people about their emotional experiences than boys at 46,16%. Boys appear to be more reserved than girls.

Table 50

Age variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	1 25,00	2 50,00	0 0,00	1 25,00	4 4,76	$\chi^2 = 3,166$	P = 0,788
15 - 16	4 22,22	6 33,33	5 27,78	3 16,67	18 21,43		
17 - 19	12 19,35	16 25,81	24 38,71	10 16,13	62 73,81		

Although the result of the above table is not statistically significant ($0,788 > 0,05$), it does indicate that children at their lower age are willing to talk to other people and share their problems. It is however important to note that as part of their development, adolescents regard the establishment of healthy relations as an essential part of development of their sense of emotional well-being. It should also be noted that it is peer relations during early adolescence which play an important role (Bukowski, 1993:24).

5.3.5 I do not worry

Table 51

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	25 64,10	10 25,64	3 7,69	1 2,56	39 46,99		
Female	20 45,45	19 43,18	1 2,27	4 9,09	44 53,01		

The chi-square value for this contingency table is 5,869 with the p-value of 0,118. Regardless of the fact that the result is not statistically significant ($0,118 > 0,05$), it can however be deduced that fewer girls (45%) never worry about political violence while 64% worry about political violence.

Table 52

Age variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	2 50,00	1 25,00	1 25,00	0 0,00	4 4,82	$\chi^2 = 3,179$	P = 0,040 *
15 - 16	15 83,33	2 11,11	1 5,56	0 0,00	18 21,69		
17 - 19	28 45,90	26 42,62	2 3,28	5 8,20	61 73,49		

* Statistically significant

Table 52 indicates that children at their younger age do not worry themselves that much about political violence as they are at their age not actively involved in it. It is also interesting to note that the middle age group (15-16 years) also does not worry much about political violence (83%). It is assumed that in their mid-adolescence they are more conscious about themselves than about things happening outside themselves. Adolescents at this stage are more concerned about establishing relations with peers since adolescents who do not establish good relations with peers are more likely to show behavioural and emotional problems than other children (Bukowski, 1993:24).

5.3.6 If you realise you cannot solve the problem you are faced with, how do you react?

I do not worry

Table 55

Variable	Percent	Chi-square	P-value
Male	4 57,14	0,079	0,778
Female	2 66,67		

The result of Table 55 above is not statistically significant but it does indicate that most girls seem to feel not confident enough to solve their own problems; instead they neglect their problems without facing them. They do not make any attempts to solve them.

5.3.7 How do you feel about asking for help from somebody else?

I solve my own problems

Table 61

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	7 15,91	18 40,91	7 15,91	12 27,27	44 44,90	$\chi^2 = 7,861$	P = 0,049 *
Female	7 12,96	30 55,56	13 24,07	4 7,41	54 55,10		

* Statistically significant

As adolescents develop, they become more and more independent and thus become more positive to solve their own problems. For boys and girls the option "sometimes" was chosen significantly more than the other options.

Table 62

Age variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	2 28,57	3 42,86	0 0,00	2 28,57	7 7,14	$\chi^2 = 6,255$	P = 0,395
15 - 16	3 13,64	14 63,64	3 13,64	2 9,09	22 22,45		
17 - 19	9 13,04	31 44,93	17 24,64	12 17,39	69 70,41		

The Chi-square value of this contingency table is 6,255 with the p-value of 0,395. The result is not statistically significant ($0,395 > 0,05$). All age groups chose "sometimes" more than the other options.

Forgatch (1989) as cited by Safyer and Hauser, (1994:125) maintains that negative emotions (like anger) can affect the problem-solving process in several ways. First it may affect the generation of helpful solutions because the person is too focused on negative experiences. Secondly, interaction can be affected by negative emotions because these emotions create a climate in which people are less motivated or able to achieve a solution.

5.3.8 I want teachers to help me

Table 63

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	9 20,45	22 50,00	11 25,00	2 4,55	44 44,90	$\chi^2 = 7,883$	P=0,043*
Female	2 3,70	33 61,11	13 24,07	6 11,11	54 55,10		

* Statistically significant ($0,043 < 0,05$). The table indicates that girls are more willing to consult their teachers than boys if they encounter problems in their lives (61% as opposed to 50%). However "sometimes" was again chosen more than the other options.

Table 64

Age variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	2 28,57	2 28,57	2 28,57	1 14,29	7 7,14	$\chi^2 = 13,987$	P = 0,000 *
15 - 16	1 4,55	14 63,64	7 31,82	0 0,00	22 22,45		
17 - 19	8 11,59	39 56,52	15 21,74	7 10,14	69 70,41		

* Statistically significant

Children in the mid-adolescent stage seem not to feel free and confident to consult their teachers. This might be the result of a lack of trust in them or the problem might be in themselves as adolescents having a lack of self-confidence and thus not confident to consult their teachers. "Sometimes" was again significantly the most popular choice.

5.3.9 Do you regard yourself as easily depressed?

Table 65

Variable	Yes	No	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	21 47,73	23 52,27	44 44,90	$\chi^2 = 13,987$	P=0,000 *
Female	45 83,33	9 16,67	54 55,10		

* Statistically significant

The table above reflects that female respondents are 83,33% more easily depressed than male respondents at 47,73%.

Table 67

Variable	Yes	No	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	15 34,09	29 65,91	44 45,36	$\chi^2 = 5,979$	P=0,014 *
Female	7 13,21	46 86,79	53 54,64		

* Statistically significant

More girls (86,79%) do not regard aggression as the best way of relieving tension than boys do (65,91%). In general, secondary school children do not regard aggression as the best solution to a problem.

Table 68

Variable	Yes	No	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	3 42,86	4 57,14	7 7,22	$\chi^2 = 4,150$	P = 0,126
15 - 16	2 9,09	20 90,91	20 22,68		
17 - 19	17 25,00	51 75,00	51 70,10		

The result of Table 68 above is not statistically significant, but it does reflect that 76,95% of the respondents do not regard aggression as the best way of resolving a problem. It is however significant to note that secondary school children at their mid-adolescence are 90,91% unwilling to solve problems through aggression. At this stage adolescents are more concerned about themselves and therefore focus on themselves and not to objects or people outside themselves.

5.3.10 If your friends reject you, what is your reaction? Never mind and soon find other friends

Table 69

Variable	Never mind and soon find other friends	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	8 57,14	8 57,14	$\chi^2 = 0,105$	0,746
Female	4 50,000	4 50,000		

Table 69 reflects that both male and female adolescents are positive towards relating to their peers. This is because at this stage of their development peer relationship becomes increasingly significant. Adolescents relate far more better to their peers than to adults like parents and teachers.

Table 70

Variable/age	Never mind and soon find other friends	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	1 50,00	1 50,00	$\chi^2 = 1,699$	P = 0,428
15 - 16	4 80,00	4 80,00		
17 - 19	7 46,67	7 46,67		

The table above indicates that secondary school children in mid-adolescence are more willing to relate to their peers (80%) than in their early adolescence (50%) and late adolescence (46,67%). It is at mid-adolescence when children become more close to their peers than to other people especially adults.

5.3.11 I try to find out what the problem is, so that I won't repeat it, if it had been my fault

Table 71

Variable	Try to find out what the problem is	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	15 88,24	15 88,24	$\chi^2 = 1,291$	P = 0,746
Female	29 96,67	29 96,67		

There is an 8% difference between the scores of boys and girls with regard to trying to discover the cause of their own problems and finding out solutions to their own problems. Although the result is not statistically significant ($0,2567 > 0,05$), it does show that both boys and girls are positive towards determining the cause of their problems and finding solutions for themselves.

Table 72

Variable/age	Try to find out what the problem is	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	3 6,82	3 6,82	$\chi^2 = 5,628$	P = 0,060
15 - 16	6 13,64	6 13,64		
17 - 19	35 79,55	35 79,55		

Despite the fact that the result of the above table is not statistically significant ($0,060 > 0,05$) it does reflect that children in early adolescence (13 - 14 years) do not experience problems in finding solutions thereof. Although there is no significant difference between the age groups it is however evident that children in late adolescence tend to understand themselves better than they used to in their mid-adolescence. This might be because they are about to enter the adult stage and are gradually becoming matured.

5.3.12 Do you regard yourself as friendly?

Table 73

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	3 6,82	19 43,18	9 20,45	13 29,55	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 0,734$	P=0,865
Female	5 9,09	24 43,64	8 14,55	18 32,73	55 55,56		

The Chi-square value of the above table is 0,734 with the P-value of 0,865. The result is not statistically significant since there is only 2,72% difference in the scores of males and females and it can be said that boys and girls do not have different opinions on their own friendliness.

Table 74

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	1 14,29	1 14,29	1 14,29	4 57,14	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 4,329$	P = 0,632
15 - 16	1 4,55	10 45,45	5 22,73	6 27,27	22 22,22		
17 - 19	6 8,57	32 45,71	11 15,71	21 30,00	70 70,71		

The Chi-square value of this table is 4,329 with the P-value of 0,632. The result is not statistically significant. The table indicates that significantly more of the youngest group regarded themselves as "always" friendly, while in the other two groups most children chose "sometimes".

5.3.13 Do you regard yourself as aggressive?

Table 73

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	20 45,45	17 38,64	3 6,82	4 9,09	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 5,566$	P=0,135
Female	34 61,82	14 25,45	6 10,91	1 1,82	55 55,56		

The Chi-square value of the above table is 5,566 with the p-value of 0,135. The result is not statistically significant. In general both male and female adolescents sometimes regard themselves as being aggressive, although a higher percentage of girls said they are never aggressive.

Table 74

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	4 57,14	2 28,57	0 0,00	1 14,29	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 7,192$	P = 0,303
15 - 16	9 40,91	11 50,00	2 9,09	0 0,00	22 22,22		
17 - 19	41 58,57	18 25,71	7 10,00	4 5,71	70 70,71		

The Chi-square value for this table is 7,192 with the P-value of 0,303. The result is not statistically significant. The table indicates that adolescents in all age groups do find themselves aggressive at some stage, but the highest percentages in all three groups said "never".

5.3.14 Do you regard yourself as withdrawn?

Table 75

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	11 25,00	26 59,09	6 13,64	1 2,27	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 1,192$	P=0,755
Female	18 32,73	30 54,55	5 9,09	2 3,64	55 55,56		

The table reflects that there is no significant difference in the manner boys regard themselves as withdrawn compared to girls.

Table 76

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	3 42,86	3 42,86	1 14,29	0 0,00	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 2,834$	P = 0,829
15 - 16	4 18,18	15 68,18	2 9,09	1 4,55	22 22,22		
17 - 19	22 31,43	38 54,29	8 11,43	2 2,86	70 70,71		

The table indicates that adolescents in all age groups do at some stage experience some form of withdrawal (Highest percentages at "sometimes").

5.3.15 Do you regard yourself as short-tempered?

Table 77

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	7 15,91	18 40,91	11 25,00	8 18,18	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 9,597$	P=0,022 *
Female	13 23,64	33 60,00	7 2,73	2 3,64	55 55,56		

* Statistically significant

Table 77 reflects female respondents as being more short tempered (55,56%) than male respondents (44,44%). However the option "sometimes" had the highest percentage for both male and female respondents.

Table 78

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	2 28,57	3 42,86	1 14,29	1 14,29	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 5,781$	P = 0,448
15 - 16	2 9,09	12 54,55	7 31,82	1 4,55	22 22,22		
17 - 19	16 22,86	36 51,43	10 14,29	8 11,43	70 70,71		

According to Table 78 adolescents in different age groups do "sometimes" find themselves being short-tempered.

5.3.16 Do you regard yourself as emotional?

Table 79

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	7 15,91	17 38,64	11 25,00	9 20,45	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 10,381$	P=0,016 *
Female	21 38,89	23 42,59	6 11,11	4 7,41	54 55,10		

Male respondents in the table above are reflected as more emotional than girls. This may be the result of their experiences and influences of the world around them (For example experiences of violence and intolerance as it has been reflected in tables 45-52). The fact that boys were directly involved in political violence had a significant effect on their lives.

Table 80

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	2 28,57	3 42,86	1 14,29	1 14,29	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 7,216$	P = 0,301
15 - 16	2 9,09	12 54,55	6 27,27	2 9,09	22 22,22		
17 - 19	24 34,78	25 36,23	10 14,29	8 11,43	69 70,41		

The table reflects that adolescents in all age groups do become emotional sometimes. This might be the fact that at adolescent stage adolescents experience a number of pressures socially, mentally, morally, educationally, politically and physically. As a result they find themselves experiencing emotional problems in coping with such pressures.

5.3.17 Do you regard yourself as nervous?

Table 81

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
Male	5 11,36	27 61,36	9 20,45	3 6,82	44 44,44	$\chi^2 = 2,390$	P=0,496
Female	3 5,45	41 74,55	9 16,36	2 3,64	55 55,56		

There is no significant difference in the manner boys regard themselves as nervous as compared to girls. Again the highest percentages for both boys and girls are "sometimes".

Table 82

Variable	Never	Sometimes	Often	Always	Total	Chi-square	P-value
13 - 14	0 0,00	5 71,43	2 28,57	0 0,00	7 7,07	$\chi^2 = 11,457$	P = 0,075
15 - 16	0 0,00	12 54,55	8 36,36	2 9,09	22 22,22		
17 - 19	8 11,43	51 72,86	8 11,43	3 4,29	70 70,71		

Although the result is not statistically significant ($0,075 > 0,05$) the table does indicate that children in the mid-adolescent stage (15-16 years) are more nervous (46,26%) as compared to in early adolescence (at 28,57%) and late adolescence (at 15,72%). This might be because in their mid-adolescence they are in the climax stage of their development. It is where they increasingly want to discover who they are. In late adolescence they are starting to get more settled as they gradually approach the adult stage.

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the data from the empirical study was analysed and interpreted. Results were presented in table form, discussed and summarised.

Chapter 6 will focus on recommendations and conclusions based on the previous five chapters of this study.

CHAPTER 6:

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study as stated in Chapter one was to investigate the extent by which the home, school, society and the state as a whole can provide emotional support to secondary school children in Umzumbe.

The secondary school child as he is in his adolescent stage of development finds himself faced with a variety of emotional problems. As an adolescent, he finds himself in a critical situation where he is expected to act as an adult in some situations and as a child in others. Such emotional problems as it has been illustrated by the literature study (Chapters two and three) and analysis and interpretation of results (Chapters four and five) are a result of external factors existing in a child's environment, that is, in the home, school and community and also internal factors which include the child's development, that is, socially, intellectually, physically, morally and emotionally. Both external and internal factors come together and give rise to emotional problems in secondary school children.

Chapter five revealed through analysis and interpretation of empirical data, how secondary school children experience emotional problems as a result of various factors in their homes, schools and communities. This chapter therefore focuses on findings from the literature study and empirical study as well as recommendations for educators at school, parents at home, community members and government.

6.2 FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE STUDY

6.2.1 Findings regarding causes, effects and prevention of maladjustment in secondary school children (Chapter two)

- Maladjustment can result in emotional disturbance in secondary school children and this may become a relatively permanent part of their personalities.
- Crisis in the family, like marital disharmony, violence, poverty, death, divorce or separation is frequently associated with emotional instability among adolescents.
- Overprotective environments may lead to maladjustment in adolescents, and since adolescence is a normal period of experience, overprotection by adults may lead to frustration and consequently emotional instability.
- Emotional maladjustment in the school is a result of failure of the school to provide conditions of healthy emotional life, for example, presentation of tasks which condemn a child to persistent failure.
- Failure of the school to detect hearing or visual defects may lead to emotional maladjustment in secondary school adolescents.
- Problems in the society like political violence and crime lead to maladjusted children.
- It is the responsibility of the society to care for its young ones by giving them love and support in their development and thus help them to control their emotions successfully.

- Maladjustment leads to frustration, aggressive behaviour, withdrawal, repression, rationalisation, projection, intellectualisation, regression, daydreaming, anxiety and depression among adolescents.

Teachers at school need to determine the interests of each learner either by observations or inventories.

- Knowledge of the child's home background is of crucial importance and thus contact with the home should be encouraged.
- The removal of frustrating activities in the school, provision of a satisfying and pleasant environment and the personality of the teacher lead to successful emotional development.
- Provision of opportunities for responsibilities and service, adequate outlets for leisure in the society helps to prevent maladjustment in adolescents.
- The provision of adequate medical and other services to adolescents is one of the responsibilities of society in an attempt to prevent maladjustment among adolescents.

6.2.2 Findings regarding sources of secondary school children's emotional problems and provision of emotional support to emotionally disturbed secondary school children (Chapter 3)

- Insecure family environments as a result of physical and socioeconomic deprivation, differences between the child's and adults' sense of values, conflict between parents' hopes and adolescents' ambitions and abilities are a source of adolescents' emotional problems.

- The teacher's attitude towards secondary school children can be a source of emotional problems to adolescents. The understanding of the ways, conditions and spirit in which children do their best in learning is a necessity for teachers.
- The adolescent's social, moral and emotional development is one of the sources of his emotional problems.
- Provision of proper emotional support to emotionally disturbed secondary school children requires the insight of several social and behavioural sciences. Educators therefore need to work together with psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, neurologists and nurses as well as other professionals.
- Emotional support in the family is provided through the provision of physical needs, a secure environment, approval from others and trust.
- Emotional support in the school is provided by teachers who create a climate which is favourable for the learning process.
- Cohesiveness of the society is of crucial importance so as to enable adolescents to have a feeling of belonging and that they will be well-adjusted and stable.
- Healthy emotional development of adolescents depends on co-operation between home, school and community.

6.3 FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

The hypotheses stated in Chapter One were tested and the following were the results:

- The current political conditions of the country are a source of secondary school children's emotional problems. The pupils' questionnaires was revealed that most adolescents seemed to be greatly affected by political violence in their homes, schools and communities.
- The social conditions in adolescents' homes and communities lead to adolescents' emotional problems. According to the results of the questionnaires, adolescents seemed to be greatly affected by their relationships with adults like teachers and parents whom they think have a great control of their lives.
- There is a widening gap existing between adolescents and their teachers and parents. The results of the questionnaires indicated that adolescents seem to appreciate adults who gave them an opportunity to exercise their sense of independence and responsibility.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.4.1 Recommendations for educators

Chapter five in this study has revealed that secondary school children in general and more specific those in Umzumbe do experience emotional problems. As part of the school policy a Code of Practice on the identification and assessment of children with emotional needs should be clearly stipulated, so that effective strategies to help these children can be applied.

Our schools are sometimes not emotionally healthy places to be in. Some of our educators believe in controlling children through sarcasm and humiliation. Such educators are not helping children instead they are creating more emotional problems for them. Educators should ensure that they provide emotional support by using the proper choice of words and also showing sympathy, love and respect to their children.

The education staff are not in a position to draw conclusions about the child's behaviour at school. Schools together with superintendents of education management should play a significant role in referral. The investigation is the responsibility of the Social Services Department together with any expert witness they may call in to carry out the assessment of the parenting behaviours, the child-located behaviours and the possible casual link between the two. What be done is to report any interactions observed between the child and their parents, for example, in an interview with a parent about an aspect of their child's school performance the parent might talk in a way that suggests dislike (rejection) of the child.

To provide efficient assistance to the child, schools also need to have record keeping systems in place. Such records should be factual, relevant, complete, objective, rumour free, dated and short. Such records should be compiled in such a way that they reflect every aspect of a child's development at school.

It has been stated in the previous chapters that adolescents experience secondary school environments as an unfriendly environment. This experience may be a powerful contributor to many of the psychological problems that begin to occur at this time. Secondary school children rarely feel close to their educators. At the time when young people are facing a pile-up of life changes and their self-confidence is wavering, they get educators who are more critical and less supportive of their abilities. Educators need to play a significant role towards the emotional development of secondary school children by getting closer to them and trying to understand their needs and problems. They should be sympathetic and supportive of their abilities and needs.

It has again been observed in this study that there is a need for emotional release methods in our schools. Through analyses and interpretation of data, it has been observed that secondary school children, (as a result of factors like political violence) have been so badly hurt and in so much emotional pain that they are angry. They, as a result, express their anger in a place that is safer. It is therefore recommended that the expression of anger in school should be seen as positive. This is where the issue of extra-mural activities comes in. Extra-mural activities are in some of our schools used only for competition purposes and to improve the image of the school. They are not used for the benefit of the children. In this way some of the children, especially those who show little or limited ability in such activities are left out and thus denied participation. The issue of children participation in extra-mural activities needs to be reconsidered in our schools.

It has again been observed through literature review (Chapter three) in this study that educators have not been given the opportunity to learn the skills either to recognise that their feelings are connected to the children's or to deal with both sets of feelings in a constructive manner. The usual consequence for educators is a feeling of frustration as they want the children to change their behaviour so that the children behave in the way they wish them to. With the introduction of the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) for implementation in our schools with effect from 1998, it is hoped that educators are going to get an opportunity to work as facilitators and thus get to understand and learn to understand their learners' thinking, creativity and problem-solving skills.

It is further recommended that the school administration should take it as one of its most significant responsibilities that it creates an environment where secondary school children can feel "at home" in the school. The governing body therefore needs to ensure that school buildings and their location are such that children feel comfortable.

It is again the responsibility of the school's governing body that there is an availability of special support services so that when children experience emotional problems, they receive immediate and proper assistance.

The school curriculum should be structured in such a way that it caters for individual needs and not in such a way that it becomes a source of secondary school children's frustrations. With the introduction of The Outcomes Based Education in 1998 (also referred to as Curriculum 2005) by which individual learners will be expected to progress at their own pace, it is hoped that individual needs will be catered for. Since OBE also encourages learners to work in groups, it is again hoped that learners will get an opportunity to express their feelings, needs, frustrations and even problems. This will then enable educators to get closer to their learners and thus get to know them even better.

Finally, it is recommended that through the schools' code of conduct for learners and the schools' mission statement, orderliness, reasonableness, good relationships and respect for people and property should be encouraged and emphasised.

6.4.2 Recommendations for the family

Through literature review (Chapter two) and analysis and interpretation of data (Chapter five), it was observed that there is a wide gap existing between parents and their adolescent children. The influence of the family on children's behaviour is widely acknowledged. Competent parents who offer a framework of consistency control, and esteem have been found to be more successful, especially when both parents enjoy a positive relationship with each other and their children. In rural KwaZulu Natal the family is seen as contributing very little towards the emotional development of its children. It is recommended that parents play a greater part in planning and shaping their children's education.

It was realised that some families are isolated and rejected by their communities as a result of political violence, poverty, crime and poor housing. Secondary school children in these families experience emotional problems and thus find it impossible to cope with the world around them. It then becomes the responsibility of the parents to provide emotional support to their children by providing them with warmth which includes affection, approval, encouragement and physical and social availability. Absence of

parental warmth was according to the literature, associated with maladjustment and delinquency.

It will always remain the parents' duty to take responsibility for their own children. Some of the secondary school children experience emotional problems in such a way that they need professional help. In this case parents can be assisted by professionals like teachers, social workers, psychiatrists and psychologists. It then becomes important that the school and home work together so that such children can be identified and provided with the emotional support they need.

As it has been stated earlier on in this study, adolescence is a stage of development which is characterised by personal upheaval, therefore, for adolescence to be a relatively harmonious experience, the family has to play a significant role by anticipating and accommodating the adolescent's changing needs.

Most of our children have never experienced any support from their families and therefore do not expect to get any in future. In that way they turn to the peer group for support. As it has been stated in Chapter four, some of the adolescents find themselves being rejected by the peer group. These adolescents are sometimes bullied by their peers. This can be emotionally harmful and psychologically destructive to the adolescents.

However, research has also shown that adolescents relate better with one another than with adults. The responsibility of adults in this case is to give the young ones love and support so as to ensure that healthy relationships exist between them.

Adults, especially parents and teachers, need to understand that interaction with friends is the most frequent immediate remedy to the stress of class. After school or between classes, secondary school children interact in with friends and usually experience an immediate uplift in their moods.

Adolescents should also be helped to understand that their friendship contributes towards their own emotional well-being and therefore should be helped to develop positively. It is however true that adolescents learn both good and bad things from their peer groups, but adolescents need also to understand that through peer relationships they get an opportunity to experience their friends as mirror images of themselves. This will enable them to recognise that their friends are centres of thought and feeling like themselves. A friend knows, understands and feels what the other one feels.

6.4.3 Recommendations for society

Secondary school children have experienced emotional problems as a result of certain forces and influences in their own communities like political violence (as indicated in Chapter four). As a result of this, anger has developed in them. It then becomes the society's responsibility to redirect anger and rather be used positively and not negatively.

Children should be encouraged to be engaged in social activities in a competitive manner, for example, by being involved in community projects like youth clubs, environmental awareness projects, anti-litter campaigns and many others.

Adolescents depend a great deal on their societies for emotional support. If humans did not live in social groups, there would be no need for social emotions. Societies should device standards in order to facilitate human interaction. Social living and interdependence fosters the need to maintain others' respect and/or affection.

Society needs to understand that they have a critical responsibility in the social construction of the self. All of us have beliefs about what is acceptable for others and for ourselves in regard to actions, thoughts and beliefs. Society today has shifted the responsibility of socialising its young ones to acceptable standards of behaviour of that particular society. Society therefore needs to understand that secondary school children are still their responsibility and therefore the society also need to take care of

their children. They are there to provide emotional support to the young members of their society. It is for the older members of the society to provide healthy environments for their children to grow emotionally healthy.

6.4.4 Recommendations for government

There is an increasing number of children with emotional problems as a result of high levels of unemployment, increasing homelessness and an ever increasing crime rate. People are continuously migrating from rural KwaZulu Natal to settle in urban areas where they live in squatter camps. There has been a dramatic increase of migration as a result of political violence and those who cannot afford decent housing in urban areas are compelled to accommodate themselves in shacks. Against these societal pressures it is not always easy for teachers and schools to find solutions to problems facing them. It then becomes the government's responsibility to provide resources to reduce problems in society and thereby reducing emotional problems in secondary school children.

In the school situation, it has been discovered that children do experience emotional problems, but teachers are not equipped to provide the emotional support necessary to these children. Government needs to ensure that teachers in their training are trained in such a way that they are able to comment on the intellectual, social, emotional and behavioural aspects of a child's development. Teacher education seems to concentrate on the academic part, that is, subject matter, and do not focus on the child as a developing being. They should therefore be trained and qualified to observe such areas.

There are different professionals who can contribute to providing information to assist in the identification of pupils who have special needs, including those who have emotional problems. These professionals include educational psychologists, social workers, medical personnel and health workers. Black schools, especially in rural KwaZulu Natal have not been exposed to the services of such professionals. It then becomes the government's responsibility to make sure that provision is made for such professionals to render their services, especially to Black schools.

It is also a fact that some emotions are too extreme or persistent in that they need the attention of clinicians and psychiatrists. Educators may not be in a position of identifying children with emotional disorders. It then becomes the responsibility of clinicians to classify mental or emotional illnesses so that such classifications can assist them to make treatment decisions and can make sure that different investigators doing research are dealing with the same conditions. All this is possible through government support.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

This study used the questionnaire as its main data collecting instrument. There is a possibility that more useful data may have been gathered if qualitative data gathering instruments, such as interviews, were used.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

- (a) Further research should make an in-depth study which will not only explore the conditions from a rural point of view, but also from an urban point of view.
- (b) Future research should also look at the possibility of emotional problems experienced by adolescents belonging to other racial groups in South Africa other than black.
- (c) It is recommended that future research should focus more on the possible contribution of all the stake-holders in education including the government in providing emotional support to children.
- (d) It is also recommended that future research should replicate this study but use qualitative data-gathering techniques, such as interviews and observations.

6.7 CONCLUSION

This investigation revealed that secondary school children experience a variety of emotional problems as a result of forces and circumstances in their surroundings, that is, in their homes, schools and local communities.

In the light of the above, it remains a constant challenge to educators, parents, government, community members, educationists and other professionals concerned to provide emotional support to secondary school children by:

- (1) Creating or establishing healthy environments where adolescents can develop in totality.
- (2) Supporting adolescents by showing them love and care so that they can also feel worthy and responsible human beings.
- (3) Identifying those children in need of help at an early stage before their emotional problems develop into emotional disorders.

Finally, it should also be noted that a few matters regarding emotional problems affecting secondary school children have been highlighted. It still remains the responsibility of all the stakeholders to ensure that these problems encountered by secondary school children are viewed with the seriousness they deserve.

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