

**PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO THE BLACK ADOLESCENT**

BY

LENKWANE HENRY MATHUNYANE

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

MASTER OF EDUCATION

IN THE SUBJECT

PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION

AT THE

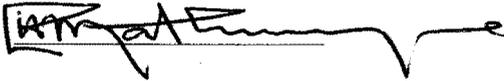
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR E PRINSLOO

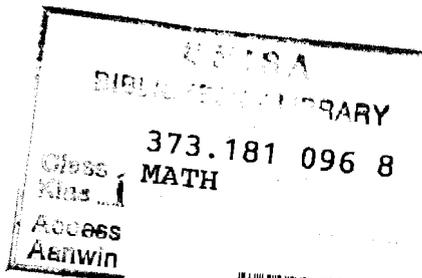
NOVEMBER 1992

DECLARATION

I DECLARE THAT "PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE BLACK ADOLESCENT" IS MY OWN WORK AND THAT ALL THE SOURCES THAT I HAVE USED OR QUOTED HAVE BEEN INDICATED AND ACKNOWLEDGED BY MEANS OF COMPLETE REFERENCE.



LENKWANE HENRY MATHUNYANE



01490825

8 MATH

"Give thanks to the Lord, for he is
good. His love endures forever."

Psalm 136: 1

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincerest gratitude and appreciation to the following people whose assistance and cooperation made this research project a success:

- My supervisor, Dr E Prinsloo, for her kindness, patience, support and expert guidance.
- Dr S Kokot for editing the text.
- Mrs L van der Merwe for typing the dissertation.
- My wife, Thandiwe and children Thabo, Karabo, Kholofelo and Kamogelo, for their patience and encouragement.
- My two brothers, Job and Stephen for their support.
- The Department of Education and Training for permission to administer the questionnaire to its schools.
- The principals, staff and pupils of the schools where the empirical research was conducted, for their wonderful cooperation.
- My friends for their moral support and in particular my indebtedness goes to Messrs A M Dube and M M Habile for their motivation and assistance.

DEDICATION

THIS DISSERTATION IS DEDICATED TO MY PARENTS

SELLANE AND THEREMU,

WHO HAVE BEEN MY SHINING MODELS OF INDUSTRIOUSNESS

**PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE
BLACK ADOLESCENT**

BY

LENKWANE HENRY MATHUNYANE

SUPERVISOR : DR E PRINSLOO
DEPARTMENT : PSYCHOLOGY OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY : UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEGREE : M.Ed

SUMMARY

The research was undertaken to determine the way in which the Black adolescent forms a pupil identity. Special attention was focussed on the various relationships formed by the Black adolescent within and outside the school environment.

Literature indicates that pupil-identity is one of a variety of identities formed. Once a positive pupil-identity is established, the adolescent is in a position to actualise himself adequately.

The empirical research was undertaken by administering a questionnaire to 555 Black secondary school pupils. The questionnaire comprised four categories namely, the adolescent's relationship with the self, parents, peer-group and the school. It was found that each of the four categories showed a significant positive correlation with pupil-identity formation.

As this research project could not cover all aspects of the Black adolescent, recommendations for future research have been made.

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

	<u>PAGE</u>
1.1 GENERAL ORIENTATION	1
1.2 BECOMING AWARE OF THE PROBLEM	2
1.3 PROBLEM ANALYSIS	4
1.3.1 Statement of the problem	4
1.3.2 Formulation of the problem	5
1.3.3 Exploration of the problem	5
1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH	5
1.4.1 General aim	6
1.4.2 Specific aims	6
1.5 CONCEPT DEFINITIONS	6
1.5.1 Pupil	6
1.5.2 Identity formation	7
1.5.2.1 The self-concept and identity	7
1.5.2.2 Identification	9
1.5.2.3 Pupil-identity formation	10
1.5.2.4 Academic self-concept	10
1.5.3 Adolescent	11
1.5.4 Becoming and learning	12
1.5.5 Life-world	13

1.6	METHOD OF RESEARCH USED IN THE INVESTIGATION ..	14
1.6.1	Literature study	14
1.6.2	Empirical study	14
1.7	RESEARCH PROGRAMME	14

CHAPTER 2

ADOLESCENCE: ASPECTS OF THE ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE WHICH INFLUENCE IDENTITY FORMATION

2.1	INTRODUCTION	16
2.2	ADOLESCENT PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT	17
2.2.1	Physical changes during adolescence	17
2.2.2	Sexual development	19
2.2.2.1	Maturation of male sex organs	19
2.2.2.2	Maturation of female sex organs	19
2.2.3	The impact of physical changes on the identity formation of the adolescent	20
2.3	EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT	23
2.3.1	The nature of emotions	23
2.3.2	Categories and characteristics of emotions in adolescence	24
2.3.2.1	Pleasant emotions	24
2.3.2.2	Unpleasant emotions	25

2.3.3	Emotional control, guidance and the influence on pupil-identity formation	27
2.4	THE COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT ...	28
2.4.1	Intelligence and mental development	28
2.4.2	Related aspects of mental development	30
2.4.2.1	Skills	30
2.4.2.2	Attitude	30
2.4.2.3	Interest	31
2.4.3	Qualitative aspect of cognitive development ...	32
2.4.3.1	Stages in the cognitive development of the child	32
2.4.4	Effects of adolescent mental growth on personality, behaviour and identity formation	33
2.4.4.1	Idealistic rebellion	33
2.4.4.2	Egocentrism	34
2.4.4.3	Self-concept	35
2.4.4.4	Mental growth and identity formation	35
2.5	SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT	36
2.5.1	The adolescent and his family relationship	36
2.5.1.1	The influence of the family	36
2.5.1.2	The influence of older siblings in the family .	36
2.5.1.3	The role of grandparents	38

	<u>PAGE</u>	
2.5.2	Relationships with friends	38
2.5.3	The peer group	39
2.5.3.1	The nature and development of the peer group ..	39
2.5.3.2	The basic functions of peer groups	40
2.5.4	Heterosexual relationships	42
2.5.5	Social development and identity formation	43
2.6	THE ADOLESCENT'S MORAL DEVELOPMENT	44
2.6.1	Meaning and morality and its development	44
2.6.2	Factors influencing the adolescent's moral development	45
2.6.2.1	Parental influences	45
2.6.2.2	Sex roles	46
2.6.2.3	Peer group influence	46
2.6.3	Morals and a sense of personal identity	46
2.7	THE ADOLESCENT AND RELIGION	47
2.7.1	The need for religion in adolescents	47
2.7.2	How adolescents value religion	48
2.7.3	Changes in religious interest and their effect on behaviour	49
2.7.4	Religion and identity development	51
2.8	THE SCHOOL AND THE ADOLESCENT	51
2.8.1	The pupil and the school	51

	<u>PAGE</u>
2.8.1.1 The social life of the school	53
2.8.1.2 The academic life of the school	55
2.9 SYNTHESIS	58

CHAPTER 3

THE BLACK ADOLESCENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION	62
3.2 THE BLACK ADOLESCENT	62
3.3 THE BLACK ADOLESCENT AND HIS FAMILY RELATIONS .	64
3.3.1 The traditional family	64 ✓
3.3.1.1 Father and son	65 ✓
3.3.1.2 Mother and daughter	65 ✓
3.3.1.3 Father-daughter and mother-son relationships ..	66 ✓
3.3.1.4 Relationships between children	66 ✓
3.3.1.5 The role of the extended family	67 ✓
3.3.2 Western-oriented Black family	68 ✓
3.4 PEER GROUP RELATIONSHIPS	69
3.4.1 Traditional peer group	69
3.4.2 Western-oriented peer group	70
3.4.2.1. Peer group categories	70
3.4.2.2 Relationship with the peer group	71 ✓

	<u>PAGE</u>
3.4.3 Relationship with moral and religious aspects of the life-world	74
3.5 THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD OF THE BLACK ADOLESCENT .	76
3.5.1 The family as educationally interested structure	78
3.5.2 The school as educationally qualified structure	79
3.5.2.1 The adolescent in relation with the learning process	80
3.5.2.2 The adolescent in relation with teachers	81
3.5.2.3 The peer group at school	83
3.5.2.4 The Black adolescent's aspiration for education	84
3.6 SYNTHESIS	85

CHAPTER 4

IDENTITY FORMATION DURING THE ADOLESCENT YEARS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION	89
4.2 ACQUISITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF IDENTITY	89
4.3 ERIKSON'S THEORY	91
4.3.1 Erikson's stages of psychological development ..	91

4.3.1.1.	Trust versus mistrust	92
4.3.1.2	Autonomy versus shame and doubt	92
4.3.1.3	Initiative versus guilt	92
4.3.1.4.	Industry versus inferiority	93
4.3.1.5	Identity versus role confusion	93
4.4	FACTORS INFLUENCING PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION ...	105 ✓
4.4.1	The school and pupil identity formation	105 ✓
4.4.2	Assignment of meaning and pupil identity formation	106 ✓
4.4.3	Involvement and pupil identity formation	107 ✓
4.4.4	Experience and pupil identity formation	109 ✓
4.4.5	Self-actualisation and pupil identity formation.	110 ✓
4.5	THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUPIL-IDENTITY FORMATION AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT	111
4.5.1	The influence of milieu on scholastic achievement	111 ✓
4.5.1.1	The family	111 ✓
4.5.1.2	The school	112 ✓
4.5.2	The influence of non-cognitive factors on scholastic achievement	113 ✓
4.5.2.1	The attitude of the pupil towards himself and learning	113 ✓
4.5.2.2	Motivation	115 ✓
4.6	SYNTHESIS	116

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

	<u>PAGE</u>
5.1 INTRODUCTION	119
5.2 SUPPOSITION FROM THE LITERATURE	119
5.2.1 The developmental changes and the life-world of the Black adolescent	119
5.2.2 The educational world of the Black adolescent	120
5.3 HYPOTHESES	122
5.3.1 Hypothesis 1	122
5.3.2 Hypothesis 2	123
5.3.3 Hypothesis 3	123
5.3.4 Hypothesis 4	123
5.3.5 Hypothesis 5	124
5.3.6 Hypothesis 6	124
5.3.7 Hypothesis 7	125
5.3.8 Hypothesis 8	125
5.4 THE SAMPLE	125
5.4.1 General principles regarding sampling	126
5.4.2 Sample for this study	127
5.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENT	130
5.5.1 The questionnaire	130
5.5.1.1 The construction of a questionnaire	131
5.5.1.2. Methods of administering a questionnaire	132

	<u>PAGE</u>
5.5.2 Construction of the questionnaire for this study	133
5.6 ADMINISTRATION PROCEDURE	135
5.6.1 Preliminary arrangements	135
5.6.2 School visits and administration	136
5.7 SYNTHESIS	137

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION	138
6.2 ITEM-ANALYSIS	138
6.3 VALIDITY	147
6.4 RELIABILITY	148
6.5 TESTING THE HYPOTHESES	149
6.5.1 Hypothesis 1	149
6.5.2 Hypothesis 2	150
6.5.3 Hypothesis 3	151
6.5.4 Hypothesis 4	152
6.5.5 Hypothesis 5	153
6.5.6 Hypothesis 6	154
6.5.7 Hypothesis 7	155
6.5.8 Hypothesis 8	156
6.6 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS ...	157

CHAPTER 7

RESUMÉ OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

	<u>PAGE</u>
7.1 INTRODUCTION	159
7.2 THE AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH THESE AIMS HAVE BEEN MET	159
7.3 FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE STUDY	163
7.4 FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	165
7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH	168
7.6 CONCLUSIONS OF THIS STUDY	168
7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY	170
7.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	172
7.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS	173

TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLES		PAGE
1.1	Comparative statistics of the standard ten examination results from 1980 to 1990	3
5.1	Details of rural secondary schools	128
5.2	Details of township secondary schools	128
5.3	Details of the research sample according to standard, sex and age	129
5.4	Statements concerning the child and his relationship	135
6.1	Item-analysis of the self category	139
6.2	Item-analysis of the self in relation to parents	140
6.3	Item-analysis of the self in relation to the peer group	141
6.4	Item-analysis of the self in relation to teachers	142
6.5	Item-analysis of the self in relation to school experiences	143
6.6	Second item-analysis of the self category ...	144
6.7	Second item-analysis of the self in relation to the peer group	145
6.8	Second item-analysis of the self in relation to teachers	146
6.9	Second item-analysis of the self in relation to school experiences	147
6.10	Reliability coefficient of five categories ...	149
6.11	Differences between boys and girls in pupil-identity formation	152
6.12	Differences between the standards eight, nine and ten pupils	153
6.13	Differences between townships and rural secondary school pupils	156
6.14	Differences between North Sotho and Swazi pupils	157

	<u>PAGE</u>
7.1	General and specific aims 160
7.2	The formation of relationships and their influence on pupil-identity formation 164
7.3	Empirical research findings 165
7.4	Summary of the outcome of the literature study and empirical research 167

FIGURES

2.1	The growth and maturity of body systems as a percentage of total postnatal growth 18
-----	--

CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

1.1 GENERAL ORIENTATION

The unsatisfactory scholastic achievement of the Black secondary school adolescent has sent shock waves throughout the country for a considerable period of time. During this period the whole Black population has complained that results are bad and at the end of each year newspapers, organisations, pupils, teachers and parents react negatively to the matriculation results.

More anger and frustration have been brought about by the fact that even pupils considered as having excellent general abilities according to different test batteries and their academic aptitude test results, also underachieve. Academics think that such pupils might not be using their abilities as effectively as possible. Other possible non-cognitive factors which adversely affect pupils' achievement have also been considered.

Underachievement has in turn brought about the development of an inferiority complex and a negative attitude towards education in Black pupils. An inferiority complex is usually the manifestation of a negative self-concept following on negative self-identity formation. According to Fuhrmann (1986: 142) this negativism results in low self-esteem, impulsiveness, pleasure-seeking, selfishness, uncooperativeness, resentfulness and disorganisation. Pupils who fail to realise their ideals, because of obstacles and disturbances, become frustrated. They form a depreciated image of themselves (Behr 1971: 143). The need to investigate the reasons behind this state of affairs has time and again been emphasised. Some of the findings made so far are that the extremely high failure rate is caused by large classes, insufficient textbooks, equipment and many other factors (Gordon 1986: 73).

Ogbu (*Gordon 1986: 74*) in his study of Black South African parental expectation of success of their children finds that parents have high occupational and educational hopes for their children, and witnesses the ways in which these parents urge their children to perform well at school. Black parents who are frustrated because of their past experiences, consciously or unconsciously pass on their frustrations to their children by demanding too much from them. Children then become demotivated when they realise that they cannot cope. These findings illustrate that any study of underachievement at school cannot limit itself to factors such as the child's level of ability, classrooms, textbooks and equipment.

Hamachek (*1979: 298*) points out that if pupils have a low self-esteem, their performance will also be low and if they have a high self-esteem their performance tends to be high. Pupils with an inadequate self-concept are easily derailed from their studies. This will result in underachievement even if the individual's potential ability is high. On the contrary, a pupil with an adequate self-concept will perform well.

Since the self-concept is the focal point of relationships in the life-world, it is the intention of the researcher to examine the Black adolescent's self-concept in order to confirm its influence on the adolescent's scholastic achievements.

1.2 BECOMING AWARE OF THE PROBLEM

As already indicated the unsatisfactory scholastic achievement of the Black secondary school pupil was the motivating factor behind this study.

Below is a list of comparative statistics of the standard ten examination results from 1980 to 1990, extracted from the Department of Education and Training Annual Report (*1990: 197*).

TABLE 1

YEAR	WROTE	PASS %	FAIL %
1980	9999	49,4	50,6
1981	14477	56,6	43,4
1982	16393	52,0	48,0
1983	19869	52,1	47,9
1984	18146	50,1	49,9
1985	19131	46,6	53,4
1986	29921	47,6	52,4
1987	33290	49,9	50,1
1988	41812	52,4	47,6
1989	43340	40,2	59,8
1990	58986	36,4	63,6

The above table shows the growth in number of the standard ten candidates during the past ten years. The numbers increased from 9 999 to 58 986, an increase of 48 987 candidates. There has been an increase in the pupil-teacher ratio from 1:33 to 1:36 and a pupil-classroom ratio from 1:39 to 1:47 (*The Star 13 June 1991: 6*).

While there has been an increase in the number of candidates, the results on the other hand indicate a considerable increase in the failure rate. This failure rate has fluctuated between 43,4% and the 63,6% of 1990.

Bernard Louw, Director-General of the Department of Education and Training indicates that in the early seventies "there was a matric pass rate of more than 80% ..." (*City Press 3 February 1991: 10*). This statement gives rise to a serious question as to who or what is responsible for the recent 36,4% pass rate?

The Director-General mentioned (*Regional Conference 1990: 14*) that the question of examinations was his Department's 'Achilles heel', and it was always the intention of his Department to analyse the problem of poor results and to see what could be done.

Some of the causes held responsible for the high failure rate mentioned in paragraph 1.1, such as large classes, insufficient textbooks and equipment, were attended to; and new measures and methods like the supply of extra study materials, televised lessons, radio lessons and extra lessons on Saturdays were introduced.

Despite these efforts, the failure rate has worsened. It seems as if there are other factors and intrinsic reasons why these adolescents seem incapable of realising their potential.

This study will explore one of the possible causes of the problem. Emphasis will fall on the exploration of the way in which the Black adolescent forms a pupil identity and subsequently what influence this has on his becoming and learning with special reference to achievement at secondary school level.

1.3 PROBLEM ANALYSIS

The reason why children often do not become as they should is because of negative self-concept formation and negative identity formation. Malmquist (1978: 372) says "an adolescent with low esteem anticipates failure and often gets it."

1.3.1 Statement of the problem

Various factors are responsible for the inadequate performance of the Black secondary school adolescent. Research has found that the high pupil-teacher ratio, high pupil-classroom ratio, teacher's qualifications and poor facilities contribute amongst others, towards poor academic achievement.

This study is concerned with one of the possible causes of the high failure rate. This investigation will be directed at the way in which the Black adolescent forms a pupil identity and will attempt to determine the influence of identity formation on scholastic achievement.

1.3.2 Formulation of the problem

In this study, the researcher will try to establish what influence the relationships formed by the child (with parents, peer groups, teachers and study material) have on the formation of a pupil-identity.

The attitude displayed towards the school within the circle of relationships may have a positive or negative influence on the pupil-identity. The positive or negative pupil-identity formed may also have an effect on the pupil's scholastic achievement.

From this perspective the question may be posed: "Is there a relationship between the nature and quality of the adolescent's pupil-identity formation and scholastic achievement?"

1.3.3 Exploration of the problem

This study on pupil-identity formation will be limited to secondary school pupils in standards eight, nine and ten, on the assumption that at this stage they have adjusted themselves to secondary school life. They have also advanced far towards establishing an own identity.

The Black population groups in South Africa belong to different ethnic groups. In order to minimise the problem, the study will concentrate on two of these ethnic groups namely, Northern Sotho and Swazi.

1.4 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

For the purposes of clarity the aims of the research will be divided into general and specific aims.

1.4.1 General aim

This research aims at the exploration of the way in which the Black adolescent forms a pupil-identity and subsequently what influence this has on scholastic achievement.

1.4.2 Specific aims

The following specific aims have been set:

- To assess the Black adolescent's formation of relationships and their influence on identity formation;
- to outline the educational world of the Black adolescent;
- to outline the developmental phases which have direct relevance to identity formation;
- to explain how pupil identity formation is related to the scholastic achievement of the adolescent.

1.5 CONCEPT DEFINITIONS

1.5.1 Pupil

The term 'pupil' as used in the investigation refers to a child who attends a secondary school. Normally this pupil is in standard six to standard ten. The study will concentrate on pupils in standards eight, nine and ten.

According to Duminy (1976: 9) "a secondary school pupil ... has a strong urge towards independence and has certain more or less fixed attitudes towards teachers, school subjects, school activities and methods of learning. He is already aware of certain abilities as well as limitations in himself, and will welcome opportunities to have these strengths as well as limitations recognised."

1.5.2 Identity formation

1.5.2.1 The self-concept and identity

Gerdes, Oche, Stander and van Ede (1981: 65) say that the terms self-concept and identity refer to "the same pervasive and complex psychological phenomenon: the individual's cognitive and evaluative perception of himself as a person."

The concepts 'self-concept' or self-image and identity overlap and they are often treated as being similar. The self-concept is centred mainly around feelings of worth or lack of worth concerning physical and psychological attributes and interpersonal relationships. Identity is centred around attitudes to various social roles, values, beliefs and interests. The sense of individual identity provides answers to the question 'who am I?' and 'where do I fit into the social system?' and "what are my goals?" (Gerdes *et al.* 1981: 79).

The child must know himself, that is: know who he is. He must know his abilities and his limitations that are exclusively his. This knowledge called self-image or self-identity gives rise to the child's conception about himself. Vrey (Oosthuizen, Jacobs, Vaughn, Bester 1981: 121) points out that a person should not merely know his name or be able to recognise himself in a mirror or on a photograph, but must also know his physical and psychological abilities so that he will know his capabilities. English and English (Gerdes *et al.* 1981: 65) define the self-concept or self-image as "... a person's view of himself; the fullest description of himself of which a person is capable at any given time". The person as object of his own self-knowledge, and his feelings about what he conceives himself to be is usually included in this view.

Perkins (1969: 232) describes the self-concept as "... a complex dynamic system of beliefs an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value." Vrey (1979: 47) says the

self-concept also includes a person's evaluation based on his own subjective norms. The evaluative aspect of the self-concept is always highly meaningful to the person concerned, whether it is based on high or low self-esteem (Vrey 1979: 47).

From the aforementioned definitions of the self-concept, a summary on the self-concept can be drawn as: the self-concept is a complex and dynamic system of beliefs, that is a configuration of convictions, a system of values and attitudes towards oneself that is dynamic and of which one normally is aware or may become aware and is based on his own subjective norms; and a value system which directs and guides the individual's development and behaviour (Le Roux 1989: 139).

Self-identity is established in relationships and interactions with the inter-personal world. It is the self-image to which man attributes values. Self-identity also is accompanied by self-evaluation. It is the self not only as seen by the self but also as seen by others. Vrey (1979: 45) describes self-identity as "the agreement between the person's self-conceptions and the conceptions held of him by people he esteems."

The term identity, according to Kaplan (1986: 21) is used in two ways:

- To refer to how one is seen, "placed" and categorised by others in relation to their behaviour towards one.
- To refer to how a person sees and regards himself, for example as a person with a particular biography, occupying a certain social space, and carrying particular value.

Gerdes *et al.* (1981: 71) mentions three interdependent aspects of identity; namely

- (i) Public identity (social identity) which refers to one's position in society or to social roles;

- (ii) Personal identity which refers to a person's sense of continuity, that is of being one and the same person throughout life and in different situations; and
- (iii) Individual identity which refers to a person's sense of individuality or uniqueness.

1.5.2.2 Identification

Identification is a process similar to modelling. To model is to imitate certain aspects of behaviour of others. Typically, modelling is explained on the basis of the reinforcing effects of imitative behaviour. Identification involves an attempt to take on the values, interests, habits and characteristics of other persons (*Lefrancois 1981: 115*). In other words, the child uses other persons as models. These models are important for the formation of an own identity.

Myburgh & Anders (*1989: 124*) point out that the models in the adolescent's life are those persons with whom the adolescent wants to identify but also the persons with whom the adolescent should identify. The group of identification figures includes the peer group, parents, teachers and other adults mostly from the everyday life of the adolescent. A prerequisite for identification to take place is that the identification figure commands respect from the child. At first identification takes place with the person himself. This is gradually replaced by an identification with the values represented by the person.

According to Vrey (*1979: 44-48*) self-concept formation, identity formation and identification play a very important role in the sense that they determine the way which the child becomes and learns. It is from this point of view that the researcher approaches identity formation with special emphasis on the Black adolescent.

1.5.2.3 Pupil-identity formation

Pupil-identity refers to the attitude the child has adopted towards the school and school learning (*Bloom 1976: 85*). Pupils consider each school subject as well as co-curricular activities as part of the total process of school and schooling. As a result they develop a general attitude towards school and schooling, which may influence pupil-identity positively or negatively.

If a child has some perceptions of success with most of the tasks performed at school, if he has received a great deal of approval for his learning of these tasks from the teachers as well as from parents and peers, and if he has generally positive relations with other children in class or school, his attitude towards the school and school learning should generally be positive (*Bloom 1976: 87*). Hence we speak of a positive pupil-identity. On the other hand, if he seldom experiences success, he is likely to develop a negative pupil-identity.

Gabela (*1984: 9*) says that any child who derives a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the school he attends. This implies that the child will form a positive pupil-identity.

1.5.2.4 Academic self-concept

Bloom (*1976: 92*) says that the academic self-concept comprises the attitude of the child towards that aspect of the self concerning school learning.

The learner's concept or idea of himself as a learner is influenced by his previous learning experiences. He keeps on judging himself on the basis of these experiences. His experience may be such that he sees himself as a successful or unsuccessful learner (*Vrey 1979: 268-269*).

According to Bloom (*1976: 93*) "academic self-concept is based on the student's reporting something about how he views himself in

relation to learning, the school, and teachers and how he views his learning in relation to the learning of other students in his class or school."

1.5.3 Adolescent

Traditionally, adolescence has been defined as that transition period between childhood and adulthood which begins at puberty (around age 13) and terminates at young adulthood (around age 19) (*Thornburg 1973: 1*). The first half of adolescence is characterised more especially by physical growth, the latter half by intellectual and emotional development (*Sadler 1948: 14*).

Adolescence is a period of conflict and the adolescent is subjected to considerable mental strain and emotional stress. He is confronted with physical, emotional and social changes marked by the appearance of secondary gender characteristics (*Cilliers 1975: 59*).

The adolescent may, for the first time come into contact with values and behaviour that are in opposition to those learnt in the home. Karmel (*Kaplan 1986: 24*) says that the adolescent begins an internal quest and also an external search for the self.

As he progresses through school, he increasingly measures himself against the norms and values of society. During adolescence the standards of friends and the peer group become a particularly important yardstick for self-evaluation.

According to Mwanalushi (*1980: 62*), in trying to become more independent of his parents, the adolescent may for a time depend heavily on his peers for support and self-definition.

Stein & Hoopes (*1985: 3*) say that the period of adolescence has been identified by many writers as a time marked by the primary task of identity-formation.

1.5.4 Becoming and learning

Becoming and learning are interactive and interdependent. Becoming is an innate human desire to improve oneself, to know what one does not know and to master what one cannot do (Vrey 1979: 220). Maslow (Behr 1975: 5) refers to becoming as a need to achieve in accordance with abilities. He calls this self-actualisation.

Gorman (1974: 63-64), in his definition of learning, includes the following elements:

- (i) Learning as a process,
- (ii) the acquisition of knowledge and skills;
- (iii) a change in behaviour, and
- (iv) self-activity.

In order to learn effectively, the child has to be engaged in the learning process. According to Vrey (1979: 20) learning is a process in which the child's "rational or intellectual faculties take precedence over other psychological activities". The gathered knowledge and skills during this process affect his behaviour.

Vrey (1979) mentions that there are certain logical steps distinguished in the learning process, namely:

- Motivations: clear intentions or learning goals motivate the child towards achievement.
- Choice of learning type: The intended goal determines the learning action. This learning action can either be a physical act and/or a mental act.
- Insight: Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1988: 116) describe insight as "the sudden discovery of a solution to a problem which the learner has mulled over or has been involved in. The learner with his experience and knowledge, looks at

the problem as a whole, structures its components, sees relationships and connections in such a way that a pattern emerges ..."

- Consolidation: The learning material is made meaningfully significant by the learner and therefore is understood and becomes functional and available for transfer.
- Actualisation: "Actualisation is the state reached when a person has achieved the goal he has set. Actualisation is achieved when certain learning material has been consolidated in the cognitive structure and is thus realistically represented" (*Van den Aardweg et al. 1988: 9*).
- Transfer: successful learning is proved by the learner's ability to apply his knowledge in new situations.

Gorman (1974) and Vrey (1979) concur in their definition of learning that it is a process by which knowledge and skills are acquired and behaviour is changed through activity. Once a pupil has acquired knowledge and skills have developed in a school subject, it is said that the pupil has achieved. This achievement is usually designated by test scores or by the aggregate percentage obtained by testees during the mid-year or end of year examinations.

1.5.5 Life-world

Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg (1988: 141) point out that the child's life-world includes everything that has meaning for him, not only his geographical world but all his relationships with objects, ideas, people and even himself. According to Vrey (1979: 186) the child's relationships are an expression of his life-world.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH USED IN THE INVESTIGATION

1.6.1 Literature study

A thorough study of the relevant literature concerning the adolescent, in particular the Black adolescent, and the process of identity formation will be undertaken. The literature study will be an exploration of the present state of research and it will also attempt to identify different perspectives on the subject of study.

1.6.2 Empirical study

A questionnaire will be prepared and administered to 550 standard eight to ten Black pupils in the areas in which the field work for the study will be undertaken.

According to the Department of Education and Training (1990: 207) statistics show that the Highveld region has the most secondary schools which accommodate the Swazi ethnic groups and to a larger extent the Northern Sotho ethnic groups.

The region is divided into various area offices with a number of inspection circuits (*Department of Education and Training 1989: 41*). Each area office has an average of five inspection circuits.

The Middelburg area office has been selected for this study. The investigator's target is a sample of 550 pupils. Inspection circuits and schools will be randomly selected. This method is preferred because it ensures that all have "an equal chance of being selected for the sample" (*Mulder 1982: 57*).

1.7 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

In chapter one the aim of the investigation has been indicated, namely, how the Black adolescent forms a pupil-identity and to what extent this identity influences his scholastic achievement. The

background of the problem has been explored and the problem stated. A brief outline of the method of research has also been given. The key concepts have been explained to facilitate understanding.

Chapter two will deal with relevant aspects of the adolescent's physical, emotional, social, moral and religious level of development. The way in which these levels of development influence identity formation will also be briefly discussed.

Chapter three will deal with the Black adolescent in South Africa. Similarities and differences between the Western adolescent and the Black South African adolescent will be pointed out. Since the Black population groups in South Africa belong to different ethnic groups, the investigation will concentrate on two of these ethnic groups namely Swazi and Northern Sotho.

Chapter four will concentrate on identity formation during the adolescent years with special reference to pupil-identity formation of the Black adolescent.

In chapter five the design of the study and the procedures will be discussed.

In chapter six the results of the investigation will be analysed and interpreted.

In the final chapter a summary of research findings will be given. Conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for future research will be made. Limitations of the study will be outlined.

CHAPTER 2

ADOLESCENCE: ASPECTS OF THE ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENTAL PHASE WHICH INFLUENCE IDENTITY FORMATION

2.1 INTRODUCTION

To facilitate an in-depth understanding of adolescence, it is necessary to discuss the developmental processes of the adolescent.

Adolescent development results from the interaction between a biological organism and its environment (*Conger 1991: 70*). According to Vrey (*1979: 165*) the adolescent is in a biological and cultural sense, gradually growing into the adult world.

In order to understand how adolescents develop, we need to understand the world in which they live, namely the family, peer groups, friends and school. We need to understand also how that world affects their behaviour and social relationships.

For Erik Erikson (*Gerdes et al. 1981: 74-75; Stein & Hoopes 1985: 3*), the major task of adolescence is the search for identity. Erikson claims that adolescence is a period of "identity crisis", during which time the growing person is constantly asking himself 'who am I'? Erikson says that the individual wants to know who he is, what he believes in and values and what he wants to accomplish in life. These questions in the adolescent reveal constant stock-taking of who he is. He is concerned with assessing his assets and liabilities, trying out various roles and trying to rearrange his self-image accordingly.

In this chapter, the researcher will not essay an in-depth exposition of the adolescent developmental level. Only those aspects that have direct relevance to pupil-identity formation and adequate self-actualisation in terms of scholastic success will

be examined.

The pedagogic influence of the school on the adolescent's identity formation will also be given attention. This will indicate how the social life of the school together with the academic life of the child greatly contributes to the formation of an academic self-concept.

2.2 ADOLESCENT PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

2.2.1 Physical changes during adolescence

Hormonal changes during puberty lead to a number of changes in physical development. The physical growth and development among adolescents includes amongst others, aspects such as height and weight, skeletal and muscular growth, and maturation of reproductive organs (*Sanrock 1984: 109*).

Conger (*1991: 72*) refers to the accelerated increase in height and weight that accompanies the onset of adolescence as the growth spurt. Generally, in both boys and girls, the adolescent growth spurt takes about four and a half years. For the average boy peak growth occurs at age 13, and in girls it occurs about two years earlier at the age of eleven (*Monteith, Postma & Scott 1988: 51*).

Rapid acceleration in height and weight is accompanied by changes in body proportion in both boys and girls. The average girl reaches her mature height between the ages of 17 and 18, and the average boy, a year or so later (*Hurlock 1980: 227*).

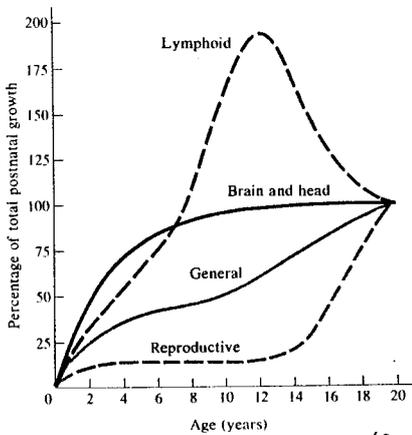
Damon (*Sanrock 1984: 109*) points out that there are four different components of physical development. These are illustrated in figure 1 as:

- Lymphoid system

- Brain and head
- General growth
- Reproductive organs

FIGURE 1

THE GROWTH AND MATURITY OF BODY SYSTEMS AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POSTNATAL GROWTH



(Santrock 1984:109)

The growth of lymphoid tissues reach a developmental peak before the onset of adolescence and then declines, presumably under the influence of increases in sex hormones. The brain and the skull, eyes and ears, mature sooner than any other part of the body. The skeletal and muscular growth and organs like the liver and kidney, follow the general curve. The growth curve changes gradually at the beginning, but rises dramatically at about age twelve. The growth curve for the reproductive organs changes even more dramatically than the general curve for height and weight.

2.2.2 Sexual development

The adolescent growth spurt is accompanied by sexual development in both boys and girls. The rapidity of all these changes gives young people a feeling of being spectators of their own growth and development. The adolescent is seen to be waiting, to find out what will happen next (*Conger 1991: 83*).

2.2.2.1 Maturation of male sex organs

The primary male sex organs include the testes, scrotum, penis, urethra etcetera. The growth of the testes and scrotum accelerates, beginning at about at 11 1/2 years, becoming fairly rapid by age 13 1/2 and slowing thereafter (*Rice 1984: 92*). Growth of the pubic hair may also begin at about the same time or shortly thereafter. Approximately a year later an acceleration in the rate of growth of the penis accompanies the beginning of the growth spurt in height.

Body and facial hair usually make their first appearance about two years after the beginning of pubic hair growth.

A lowering of voice usually occurs fairly late in puberty. In some boys the voice change is rather abrupt and dramatic, whereas in others it occurs so gradually that it is hardly perceptible.

During adolescence the male breast also undergoes changes. The diameter of the areola (the area surrounding the nipple) increases considerably and is accompanied by elevation of the nipple (*Conger 1991: 83-85*).

2.2.2.2 Maturation of female sex organs

The primary internal female sex organs include the ovaries, fallopian tube, uterus and the vagina. The external female sex organs are known collectively as the vulva (*Rice 1984: 95*).

The hormonal stimulation of the sex glands begins at about age nine or 10 years. The appearance of unpigmented, pubic hair is usually the first outward sign of sexual maturity in girls. However, in about 17 percent of girls the beginning of elevation of the breast (the so-called bud-stage of breast development) may precede the appearance of pubic hair. Budding of the breasts is accompanied by the emergence of brown, unpigmented body hair and by increases in estrogene secretion. In the following year, the uterus and vagina show accelerated growth. Pubic hair becomes moderately well developed, and vaginal secretions begin. By age twelve the nipples show pigmentation and the breasts show further development toward their mature form. At about 12 years the first menstruation occurs. By this time, most girls are in the final stages of pubic hair development and are approaching the final stages of breast and body hair development (*Conger 1991: 86*).

2.2.3 The impact of physical changes on the identity formation of the adolescent

A central problem of the adolescent period is the development of a sense of identity. This requires a feeling of consistency over time - of being similar to, and having consistent links with the person one was previously and will be tomorrow. The adolescent is faced with rapid increases in height, changing body proportions, and objective and subjective changes threaten the feeling of self-consistency. The adolescent needs time to integrate changes into a positive, confident personal identity (*Conger 1991: 89*).

Basic physical changes force the body into the adolescent's consciousness. He has lost the security of a familiar body; new sensation, features, and body proportions have emerged. Because of these dramatic body changes, the body becomes an important symbol itself. Adolescents must adapt to these changes and to others' perceptions of them (*Rogers 1985: 60*). Both boys and girls are sensitive to, and often critical of, their changing physical selves. Girls are more likely than boys to be dissatisfied with their appearance and body image - particularly in the early

adolescent years. Moreover girls' outward appearance and inner self-image are more closely linked than those of boys. Girls are more likely than boys to interpret objective remarks about appearance. Girls usually use clothing and beauty aids to hide the physical features they dislike and to enhance those features they regard as attractive.

All this is just an attempt to obtain body satisfaction. The failure to experience satisfaction causes unfavourable self-concepts, and lack of self-esteem during the adolescent years (*Conger 1991: 90; Hurlock 1980: 228*).

It is important to note that self-perceptions are not always a result of objective realities. Adolescents' body images may be influenced by prior experiences that have led them to view themselves as attractive or unattractive, strong or weak, masculine or feminine - regardless of their actual appearance and capabilities. Thus, a boy with low self-esteem who is of average overall size and strength may view himself as smaller and weaker than he really is. In short, the adolescents' perceptions of their physical appearance can be influenced by their general image of themselves as people - that is, their overall self-esteem.

Boys and girls differ somewhat in the way they experience their physical selves. For example, a boy's genital organs assume special meaning during adolescence. His testicles and penis almost double in size between the ninth and fifteenth year. The erecting power of the phallus, added to its dramatic growth, makes it the prime focus of mature male sexuality (*Rogers 1985: 61*). Although boys may be proud of their capacity for erection, they may also be worried or embarrassed by an apparent inability to control this response. The adolescent boy's first ejaculation is likely to occur within a year of the beginning of the growth spurt (around age 13 or 14, although it may occur as early as 11 or late as 16). First ejaculation may occur as a result of masturbation or natural emission. At first the boy wonders and worries whether the ejaculation of seminal fluid is harmful or an indication that something is physical wrong with him (*Monteith et al. 1988: 63*).

Once all these uncertainties and worries are cleared, then the phenomena of ejaculation and erection become the symbol and proof of masculinity, influencing the patterning of male sexual behaviour in an important way.

To the adolescent girl, menstruation is so much more than a physiological readjustment. It is a symbol of sexual maturity - of her future status as a woman. An increasing number of girls view the onset of menstruation calmly and some look forward to it as a symbol of increased status.

Unfortunately, many girls react negatively to this normal and inevitable development. This is because menstruation is accompanied by physical discomfort such as cramps, weight gain, headaches, backaches, swollen ankles, and breast tenderness, emotional changes, such as mood swings, despondency, restlessness, depression and a tendency to cry without apparent reason (*Hurlock 1980: 228*). The negative attitude of others, like girls' parents and friends, who display a sympathetic attitude towards the girls "plight", giving the impression that menstruation is a 'curse' is likely to influence the girl negatively (*Monteith et al. 1988: 63*).

It is important to note that many negative reactions to menstruation can be avoided or alleviated if parents employ a wise and understanding approach. By explaining to the girl the naturalness of the phenomenon, by seeing that she receives adequate medical care, and by showing pride and pleasure in her maturity, parents can help make the onset of menstruation a rewarding, rather than a feared or hated event.

The self- and other constancy develops slowly throughout childhood. The concept of physical identity develops before the concept of psychological identity. Sex roles are a key factor in the adolescent identity crisis (*Fein 1978: 463*).

In conclusion, for the adolescent to develop a positive pupil-identity, all uncertainties that threaten the feeling of self-consistency have to be cleared. Once they are cleared,

the adolescent is able to adapt to these changes. It is the duty of the educator to give adequate assistance and guidance to the adolescent during this developmental period. Adequate guidance will enable him to form a positive pupil-identity and his scholastic performance will be positively influenced.

2.3 EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT

2.3.1 The nature of emotions

Rogers (1985: 497) defines emotion as "a complex feeling state with characteristic glandular and motor accompaniments." Adolescent emotionality can be attributed mainly to the fact that boys and girls come under social pressures and face new conditions for which they received little, if any, preparation during childhood. Not all adolescents go through a period of storm and stress although during this period adolescents typically shift from one psychological extreme to another. Most of them do experience emotional instability from time to time, which is a logical consequence of the necessity for making adjustments to new patterns of behaviour and to new social expectations (Hurlock 1980: 229).

The emotional response of boys and girls to various social pressures has three main aspects. It has a mental component since it involves such feelings as happiness, anger, excitement or fear. It has a physical component since it embraces a vast complex of internal changes, including muscular, chemical, glandular and neural activities. It has also a motivative component since it involves continuous readaptations to problems inherent in an ever-changing environment (Rogers 1985: 97).

Since boys and girls differ in experiencing and expressing emotions, Krech (*Monteith et al.* 1988: 70) describes the four general dimensions within which emotional experiences vary:

- In the first place there are differences in the intensity of feelings. The emotion can range from a barely noticed twinge

to the most powerful passion.

- Secondly, emotions differ in complexity. Such basic emotions as delight, love, and anger combine in varying and unknown degrees to produce complex patterns like romantic love patriotism, awe, and contempt. Sometimes emotion is simple, as in pure grief; at other times it is so complex as to be indescribable.
- The third dimension is the strength of motive or impulse towards action. The individual who is sad desires isolation; the one who hates, wants to destroy.
- Lastly, the experience of emotions has a quality of pleasantness or unpleasantness or both (*Rogers 1985: 97*).

2.3.2 Categories and characteristics of emotions in adolescence

Different authors classify emotions in different categories. Hurlock (*1973: 48*) differentiates two categories, namely pleasant emotions of love, joy, happiness or curiosity and unpleasant emotions of fear, anxiety, anger, aggression, grief, jealousy and ~~X~~ envy.

2.3.2.1 Pleasant emotions

A very important development in the adolescent's emotional life is his capacity to give and to receive love, affection and joy. The capacity to give love is as important as the capacity to receive it. Many emotions of the adolescent are experienced in relationship with a member of the opposite sex. The adolescent wants to know that he is recognised, accepted, considered and loved. He is pleased if friends of the opposite sex show him affection (*Hurlock 1973; 57-58*).

2.3.2.2 Unpleasant emotions

In the adolescent, rage and fear are more often evoked by persons than things. The causes of fear and rage during this stage are thus more often of a social nature. If the adolescent is in a situation in which he feels embarrassed, ridiculed or offended, tension develops which can finally be expressed in the form of rage.

Anxiety, like worry, is a form of fear. Jersild (*Hurlock 1973: 51*) says anxiety is a persisting distressful psychological state arising from inner conflict. The distress may be experienced as a feeling of vague uneasiness or foreboding, a feeling of being on edge, or as any of a variety of other feelings, such as fear, anger, restlessness, irritability, depression, or other diffuse and nameless feelings.

Anxiety is usually described as a diffuse state; that is, the adolescent cannot pin down the specific reasons for his nervousness (*Santrock 1984: 663*).

Fromm-Reichmann (*Rosenberg 1965: 149*) has suggested that anxiety is manifested by:

- interference with thinking process and concentration;
- a frequently undirected feeling of uncertainty and helplessness;
- intellectual and emotional preoccupation, and
- blocking of communication.

Sources of anxiety in adolescents are carried over from earlier years. Both children and adolescents may be anxious about potential harm, loss of parental love, inability to master the environment or meet personal, parental, or cultural standards, or aggressive or sexual impulses.

Sexuality is a frequent source of potential anxiety for adolescents. Sometimes anxiety is aroused by sexual impulses themselves; sometimes the anxiety is a function not so much of the impulses themselves as of the objects towards which they are directed (*Conger 1991: 45*).

The discussion of the categories of emotions give rise to the six important characteristics of the adolescent's emotional level of development, namely:

- A time of conscious intellectual understanding and an intense emotional evaluation of the self;
- the serious conflict that arises when the adolescent rebels against the unacceptable difference between that which he is and what he would like to be;
- the special kind of self-consciousness which characterises this period and which influences emotional development because it causes nervous tensions - the adolescent is subject to emotional changes and becomes moody and depressed because of the irritation caused by nervous tension;
- emotional outburst out of all proportion to the stimulus. Girls giggle and cry; boys become brutal/aggressive or completely introverted. Boys and girls become very critical of parents and other educators and easily influenced against them;
- feelings of inadequacy (especially with regard to social success) are hidden behind masks of carelessness, rebelliousness or arrogance;
- conflicting feelings which are brought about by the emancipation process. While striving for freedom and independence they also wish for the security of the parental home to neutralise social inadequacies (*Papalia & Olds 1987: 519-521*).

2.3.3 Emotional control, guidance and the influence on pupil-identity formation

Any experience which is accompanied by intense emotions is likely to have a profound effect on one's attitudes, values, and future behaviour. The effect may be favourable or unfavourable, depending on the emotion aroused, its intensity and previous experience with the emotions (*Hurlack 1973: 59-60*).

Parents and teachers should prepare themselves for the adolescent's emotional outburst like aggression and rebellion and equip themselves with strategies to deal with the adolescent's behaviour. Note has to be taken that this is an almost inevitable stage in the emotional development of a healthy child (*Mwanalushi 1980: 64*). There may be minor disagreements between the adolescent and parents, but on the whole the adolescent seeks parental advice on important issues.

Therefore, it is emphasised that the adolescent needs the guidance of parents and teachers in learning to control his emotions. The love, patience, assistance and proper guidance displayed by parents and teachers develop a sense of self-acceptance. The comfort and joy experienced in supportive relationships is extremely important to the adolescent's self-actualisation and self-reliance. The high self-esteem developed results in the formation of a positive pupil-identity.

Should the adolescent receive inadequate love and guidance from teachers and parents, he may develop anxiety which will produce self-hatred and self-contempt (*Rosenberg 1965: 150*).

The developed anxiety makes the adolescent retreat into a world of imagination where he creates an idealised image of himself. Anxiety tends to generate a low self-esteem. Low self-esteem has a negative influence on the pupil-identity formation of the adolescent and this is seen by the instability of the self-image presented by the adolescent.

According to Rosenberg (1965: 152) people who hold rather negative opinions of themselves, but who are not absolutely, unequivocally, consistently self-deprecatory, appear to have the most changeable pictures of themselves. Unstable self-conceptions leave the adolescent in a state of emotional stress and confusion, resulting in a feeling of uncertainty, low self-regard, self-derogatory attitudes and inferiority feelings. Regrettably these are characteristics of an unsuccessful student. This by implication means that the scholastic achievement of such a student is adversely affected.

2.4 THE COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT

2.4.1 Intelligence and mental development

Intelligence is a concept about which much has been written but one still surrounded by much controversy. Over the years a number of psychologists have defined intelligence and although the terminology differs, most experts agree that intelligence involves the ability to benefit from experience and to learn new ideas or new sets of behaviour (Conger 1991: 113).

Hamachek (1979: 172) describes intelligence as consisting of the following:

- the ability to profit from experience
- the ability to solve problems
- the ability to adjust and relate to one's environment
- the ability to perceive relationships
- the ability to think abstractly
- the ability to behave competently and effectively
- the ability to learn.

Rogers (1985: 128) describes intelligence as an individual's capacity to comprehend a situation or pattern or "to get rapidly and efficiently to the essence of whatever is being considered".

Intelligence is often confused with certain attributes like ability, creativity and genius. While intelligence refers to the mental potential of an individual, ability encompasses all the factors which that individual is able, at a given time, to put to work in coping with the environment. Ability, therefore, is a compound concept comprising not merely intelligence but also such factors as persistence, physical endurance, attitudes, and cumulative learning experience.

Creativity would involve these aspects of intelligence that enable a person to find novel solutions to problems and individual modes of expression. Genius, though sometimes ascribed to all those who score very high on intelligence tests, is more often reserved for those with unusual creative ability.

Mental categories can be defined as:

- Above average intelligence, which refers to the bright individual who performs above average (over 110) on intelligence tests;
- Average intelligence, which refers to the individual's performance of between 90 and 110;
- Below average intelligence, referring to below normal individuals whose intelligence quotients (IQ's) are between 70-90;
- Low intelligence, which refers to mental defectives with IQ's below 70.

Kagan (*Rogers 1985: 128*) points out that all human beings have the capacity to symbolise, to reason, to abstract, to categorise, to recall. Rather than speaking of generalised intelligence, it is best to speak of competence in the individual mental processes that collectively constitute mentality. Some individuals possess excellent visual memory but have trouble learning a new language.

Hence, mental profiles should be developed for each individual, instead of deriving a single IQ number that presumably indicates overall mental ability.

Although the average individual's IQ remains fairly stable as he or she grows older, mental ability does not. Mental ability is an absolute measure and increases rapidly from birth through adolescence. Certain components of overall mental ability appear to mature more rapidly than others (*Conger 1991: 124*).

2.4.2 Related aspects of mental development

2.4.2.1 Skills

Skills are abilities to perform competently in various fields. They are basic to achieving a sense of security. The wider the range of their skills, the more at home adolescents feel in a variety of situations. Skills promote a sense of freedom and autonomy. Those who can do things for themselves are less susceptible to manipulation by others; their skills free them from being passively dominated by their peers (*Rogers 1985: 141*).

2.4.2.2 Attitude

There are different opinions about the nature of attitudes, but most definitions agree on one common characteristic, namely that an attitude is an internal state, a predisposition that influences the choice of personal action made by the individual (*Gagné 1977: 44; Patrick 1985: 92*). Attitudes guide and direct the individual's behaviour (*Lambert, Rotchild, Altland & Green 1978: 357*). They can be innate or acquired.

Gagné (1977: 234) and *Triandis (1971: 3)* point out that attitudes exhibit three different aspects, namely:

- The cognitive component: This pertains to those ideas or prepositions that express the relationship between situations and the attitudinal objects. The cognitive component originates in the basic premise of the need for consistency.
- The affective component: This pertains to the emotions that accompany an idea. Either a positive or a negative feeling will be experienced.
- The behavioural component: This refers to the relationship of attitude and the actual behaviour of the individual possessing a particular attitude.

2.4.2.3 Interest

Rogers (1985: 143) points out that an interest suggests a favourable attitude towards an activity and a desire to participate in it. The interest of adolescents differ from those of younger children in the following ways:

- Adolescents' interest reflects their greater social maturity. They become more interested in personal appearance and clothes.
- Interest is more introspective and egotistic in adolescents.
- Activities often are more social in adolescents.
- Interest becomes directed towards more serious matters. For example, interest in comic books diminishes in adolescence.
- Interest becomes more stable and adolescents cease wandering from one interest to another.
- Finally interests during adolescence become less active and fewer.

2.4.3 Qualitative aspect of cognitive development

According to Elkind (*Conger 1991: 112*), the cognitive gains made during this period can be viewed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The cognitive gains of adolescence are quantitative in the sense that the adolescent becomes capable of accomplishing more easily, more quickly, and more efficiently intellectual tasks that he or she previously was able to accomplish only slowly, inefficiently, and with great difficulty. They are qualitative in the sense that significant changes occur in the nature of the adolescent's mental processes - in the ways in which he or she can define problems and reason about them.

2.4.3.1 Stages in the cognitive development of the child

Piaget (*Steinberg 1985: 69*) says that cognitive development proceeds in a stagelike fashion, that adolescent thinking is qualitatively different from the type of thinking employed by children, and that during adolescence, individuals develop a special type of thinking that they use across a variety of situations.

Piaget (*Monteith et al. 1988: 126; Rice 1984: 189*) divides cognitive development into four major periods, namely

- (i) The sensorimotor stage - from birth to about two years
- (ii) The pre-operational stage - from about two to seven years
- (iii) The concrete operational stage - from about seven to 11 or 12 years
- (iv) The formal operational - from 11 or 12 years on.

Regardless of the age at which a given child or adolescent reaches a particular stage, he or she cannot reach that stage without having first completed earlier stages. For purposes of this study only the fourth stage of formal operations will be discussed.

During the stage of formal operations, the adolescent gains a number of important capabilities that are not present in the middle-childhood years. The most basic of these capabilities is a shift of emphasis from the real to the possible, from what is to what might be. Formal operational adolescents are able, through deductive and inductive reasoning, to systematise their ideas and deal critically with their own thinking to be able to construct theories about it. They can test these theories logically and scientifically, considering several variables (*Rice 1984: 193*).

According to Piaget, adolescents in most cases show three basic characteristics in their problem solving behaviour, namely

- * They are systematic;
- * they are accurate, and
- * they are able to draw logical conclusions.

In summary, formal thinking, according to Piaget, involves two major aspects: thinking about thought and distinguishing the real from the possible. These two cognitive aspects have profound effect upon the adolescent's personality and behaviour (*Rice 1984: 195*).

2.4.4 Effects of adolescent mental growth on personality, behaviour and identity formation

2.4.4.1 Idealistic rebellion

In his discussion of relationships of adolescent thought to personality and behaviour, Piaget states that adolescence is that age at which the individual starts to assume adult roles (*Monteith et al. 1988: 138*). Adolescents begin to discard their childhood inferiority and subordination to adults and to consider themselves as their equals, and judge them, with complete reciprocity, on the same plane as themselves. Because they want to be adults, they are motivated to take their places in the adult social framework,

partly by participating in the ideas, ideals and ideologies of adult society through the medium of a number of verbal symbols to which they were indifferent as children.

The powers of reflective thinking enable them to evaluate what they learn. They become much more capable of moral reasoning. The ability to distinguish the possible from the real enables them to discern not only what the adult world is, but what it might be like, especially under ideal circumstances.

This ability of adolescents to grasp what is and what might be makes them idealistic rebels. They compare the possible with the actual, discover that the actual is less than ideal, and become critical observers of things as they are.

2.4.4.2 Egocentrism

As adolescents develop the capacity to think about their own thoughts, they become acutely aware of themselves and ideas. As a result they become egocentric, self-conscious and introspective. They become so concerned about themselves that they may conclude that others are equally obsessed with their appearance and behaviour.

Adolescents feel they are 'on stage' much of the time, so that much of their energy is spent "reacting to an imaginary audience". This helps to account for the extreme self-consciousness of adolescents. Sometimes groups of adolescents react to this audience by loud and provocative behaviour because they believe everyone is watching them.

Egocentrism and self-consciousness have other manifestations in adolescents. On the one hand, they feel totally alone, unique in a vast, uncaring universe. To be always on stage, scrutinised but rarely understood, imposes a great emotional strain. As a result, youths become very critical and sarcastic in their relations with others, partly as a defence against their own feelings of inferiority and as a way of making themselves look good (*Rice 1984: 198*).

2.4.4.3 Self-concept

The capacity to think about themselves is necessary in the process of developing self-concept and identity. In doing this, adolescents have to formulate a number of postulates about themselves. These postulates are based upon a number of specifics, such as "I'm attractive because I have pretty hair, a nice figure, and the boys notice me." Because of formal operational thinking, they are able to entertain a number of simultaneous ideas, and to test each one for example, by asking a friend. Gradually they begin to sort out what they feel is truth from error about themselves and formulate total concepts of self (*Rice 1984: 199*).

2.4.4.4 Mental growth and identity formation

The adolescent's cognitive development plays an important role in the emergence of a well-defined sense of identity. The degree of differentiation and definiteness that an individual is able to achieve in the course of identity development depends on his or her cognitive capacity. The search for identity usually comes to a climax in adolescence, for the young person is able, for the first time to think abstractly (*Gerdas et al. 1981: 74*).

By moving away from the concrete, by reasoning, by trying out hypotheses, the adolescent meets himself. That is, he becomes increasingly introspective. He is able to ponder his own thought processes and wonders how he thinks and why he thinks certain thoughts. Intellectual transformation has the effect of making the adolescent ask himself questions about himself, wondering, acknowledging himself (*Conger 1991: 152*).

Mature cognitive functioning has been thought to contribute to formation of identity (*Stern & Eichorn 1989: 277*). In other words, cognitive development plays a role in the formation of an identity. Parents' (educators') assistance and adequate guidance are imperative for the adolescent's development of a positive identity.

The formed positive identity develops confidence and self-reliance in the adolescent when executing intellectual tasks. The confidence and self-reliance result in a positive pupil-identity formation which in turn influences the scholastic achievement of the adolescent positively.

2.5 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ADOLESCENT

2.5.1 The adolescent and his family relationships

2.5.1.1 The influence of the family

Lerner & Spanier (1980: 49) define a family as "a unit of related individuals in which children are produced and reared." Broadly speaking the family is a unit of people who live together and share life's basic day by day functions.

According to Rogers (1985: 222) the home is the reservoir of strength upon which children draw to meet their physical and emotional needs; its warm, intimate contacts contribute to their feelings of security and belonging. Harmonious family relationships relate to high self regard and effective social functioning in adolescence. Unhealthy family relationships relate to conduct disorders and poor social relationships in adulthood.

Parents help adolescents learn their different roles - as boys or girls, leader or follower, helper or planner, members of a group or future parent. The adolescent, through helping in the family, learns domestic roles of significance for both sexes within the family.

2.5.1.2 The influence of older siblings in the family

Relationships between brothers and sisters are vitally important because they can have a lasting influence on development and on the individual's ultimate adult personality and roles (Rice 1984: 394). Siblings' relationships are important in a number of ways:

- (i) Older siblings are likely to serve as role models for younger brothers and sisters. They may effectively teach young siblings about identity problems, sexual behaviour and physical appearance (*Sanrock 1984: 232*). They set examples for character, personality traits and overall behaviour by the type of person they are. This has a strong influence on the development of younger brothers and sisters.
- (ii) Older siblings often serve as surrogate parents, acting as caretakers, teachers, playmates and confidants. Pleasant relationships can contribute to younger children's sense of security, belonging and acceptance. Hostile, rejecting relationships may create deep-seated feelings of anxiety, insecurity, resentment or hostility. If older children feel they are displeased by younger siblings and refuse attention and care formerly given to them, they may carry this feeling of displacement, jealousy and competition into adulthood. If, however, older children feel useful, accepted, and admired because of the care they give younger children, this added appreciation and sense of usefulness contributes positively to their own sense of self-worth. Many adolescents learn adult roles and responsibilities by having to care for younger brothers and sisters while growing up (*Rice 1984: 394*).
- (iii) Siblings often provide companionship and friendship, and meet one another's need for affection and meaningful relationships. They act as confidants for one another, are able to help one another when there are problems, and share many experiences. Siblings of necessity have to learn to share, to consider one another's feelings and desires, and to deal with difference (*Rice 1984: 394*).

2.5.1.3 The role of grandparents

Grandparent-adolescent relationships serve as a bridge between the separated generations. This relationship can have very positive effects on adolescents:

- Grandparents contribute to the adolescent's emerging sense of identity by providing continuity in linking the past to the present family roots and thus have a positive impact on the adolescent's search for identity (*Fuhrmann 1986: 69*).
- Grandparents may have a positive impact on parent-adolescent relations by conveying information about parents to the adolescent. Adolescents also turn to grandparents as confidants and arbiters when they are in conflict with their parents (*Rogers 1985: 235*).
- Grandparents help adolescents understand aging and acceptance of the aged. Adolescents who see their grandparents frequently, and have a good relationship with them, are more likely to have positive attitudes toward the elderly (*Rice 1984: 396*).

2.5.2 Relationship with friends

Rogers (*1985: 264*) points out that friendship denotes "ongoing reciprocal and behavioural involvement between two individuals". Although all adolescents want to be popular with large segments of their age group, they also want to have one or two "best friends" (*Santrock 1984: 294*). The most meaningful friendships arise where the parties meet as equals, feel at home with one another and feel free to share the most intimate secrets, the most private thoughts and emotions (*Vrey 1979: 170*).

2.5.3 The peer group

2.5.3.1 The nature and development of the peer group

Rogers (1985: 500) and Santrock (1984: 281) mention that the peer group refers to adolescents who are about the same age, grade and/or status. Le Roux (1989: 7) describes the adolescent peer group as "a groep leerlinge wat in dieselfde lewensfase verkeer". In the adolescent stage, which is a period between childhood and adulthood, adolescents operate more or less on the same scholastic, physical, psychological and cognitive level.

Peer relations differ from family relationships in two important ways, namely:

- (i) Family relations are "given" and permanent, whereas peer relationships must be formed and are more easily changed.
- (ii) Friendship is "enlarging". That is, it exposes one to new behaviours and allows one to try out new roles and self-images that relationships in the family do not generally allow (Fein 1978: 474).

Adolescent's peer groups are usually organised into cliques, which are small groups of between two and twelve individuals - the average is about five or six - generally of the same sex and age.

Cliques play a vital role in structuring adolescents' social activities. Occasionally, several cliques - some boys and girls or boys and girls as single sex groups - come together for social activities, forming a larger, more loosely organised crowd. Crowds are usually composed of about three or four cliques or approximately twenty individuals (Lloyd 1985: 199).

Adolescents who belong to no cliques or crowds or who gain little satisfaction from organised groups may join a gang. Gang members

are usually of the same sex, and their main interest is on compensating for peer rejection through antisocial behaviour (*Hurlock 1980: 232*).

Steinberg (*1985: 166*) maintains that among the informal adolescent groups, cliques provide the adolescent with a sense of identity by serving as a basis of comparison or reference group. Through comparison clique members learn about themselves and evaluate their experiences in school, at home, and in the broader peer group.

Adolescents also form judgements about their own abilities by comparing themselves to clique members. It happens that adolescents leave cliques in which they have very good friends because comparing themselves to other clique members makes them feel inferior.

Another way in which cliques serve as reference groups is in providing the members with an identity in the eyes of other adolescents. Adolescents judge one another on the basis of the company they keep. They become branded on the basis of whom they "hang around" with. Clique identities are important because they become the basis for an adolescent's own identity. Take for example the boys whose clique is held together by a common dislike of school. By having their attitude towards school continually reinforced by one another, the boys' feelings about school become strengthened, and not liking school becomes a part of each boy's identity. Even if something very positive happens at school, it becomes difficult for someone in the clique to admit that it makes him feel good about himself (*Steinberg 1985: 167*).

2.5.3.2 The basic functions of peer groups

According to Ausubel (*Hamachek 1979: 155*) there are seven basic functions of the peer group during adolescence. Lambert *et al.* (*1978: 70-71*) summarise these functions as follows:

- (i) The peer group provides an environment for growth and acquisition of knowledge about the self that the family is generally unable to offer and that few individuals are capable of finding alone. The peer group also provides opportunities for its members to learn and try out new roles, to observe others experimenting with their roles, and ultimately to revise old roles that prove to be ineffective.
- (ii) Through membership in a peer group, young people also acquire a certain status. All peer groups become distinctive in their dress, language, loyalty and dependability, their participation in extracurricular activities at school, as well as in other pursuits.
- (iii) The peer group further facilitates adolescent emancipation from the family by helping youths to balance their ambivalent needs for independence and dependence.
- (iv) The development of a social, personal, and sexual identity, known as the process of individualism, is facilitated by membership of a peer group. Friends can help young people acquire a clear, stable identity in a number of ways; namely
- They assist adolescents in resolving their conflicts within themselves and with others;
 - they teach them respect for competence which is necessary for the acquisition of maturity and autonomy;
 - they teach them how to act in social situations, especially those involving heterosexual relationships.
- (v) The peer group offers its members an opportunity for intimate relationships, a need that seems to permeate all youthful behaviour.

- (vi) Participation in recreational activities is facilitated by membership of a peer group. Such activities are usually informal, often relatively inexpensive, and generally unsupervised by adults. These activities are important to the adolescent's social development because they offer opportunities for young people to develop leadership and autonomy, to test themselves socially, and to establish their own values.

2.5.4 Heterosexual relationships

One of the most important social goals of mid-adolescence is to achieve heterosexuality. Rice (1984: 309) defines heterosexuality as "the adolescent and adult stage of development in which the individual's pleasure and friendships are found with those of both sexes." The adolescent's interest in sex grows and boys and girls seek more information about it. The first developmental task relating to sex which adolescents must master is the formation of new and more mature relationships with members of the opposite sex (Hurlock 1980: 245). Getting acquainted and feeling at ease with the opposite sex is a painful process for some adolescents because during the earlier puberty stage boys and girls develop attitudes of resentment against members of the opposite sex.

With sexual maturity comes a biological awareness of the opposite sex, a decline in hostile attitudes and an interest in not only members of the opposite sex but also in activities in which they are involved. The new interest begins to develop when sexual maturation is complete, is romantic in nature and is accompanied by strong desire to win the approval of members of the opposite sex. The boy's first effort is to tease by engaging in some sort of physical contact with the girl, for example pulling her hair, hitting her with a snowball. Her response is often a culturally conditioned, predictable one, for example screaming, running and pretending to be very upset. The boy is not very good at talking to girls, but he knows how to roughhouse, so he uses this time-honoured method of making his first emotionally charged heterosexual contact (Rice 1984: 309).

2.5.5 Social development and identity formation

The ease with which adolescents are able to achieve a clear sense of identity depends on the kind of relationships they have had and continue to have with their parents. The adolescent is more likely to establish a strong sense of identity if there is a rewarding, interactive relationship between the adolescent and both parents, and if both parents provide models of competent problem-solving behaviour, a confident sense of their own identity and a mutually supportive relationship with each other (Conger 1991: 223). Since the major task of adolescence is to move towards greater independence and self-definition, it is not surprising that considerable tension can exist between the adolescent and his parents during this period. However, research has shown that a healthy adolescent self-image is a product of a good balance between affection and control on the part of the parents (Dreyfus 1976: 12).

During adolescence there is an increasing desire for closeness with others of the same sex. The adolescent attempts to establish some security in relationships by developing a 'best' friend. This 'best' friend becomes a source of support and a confidant (Brown, McDowel & Smith 1981: 19).

The importance of friendship is emphasised by Youniss (Ackermann 1990: 284) who writes "for the person to discover himself or herself as an individual, he or she must be able to place the self into relation with other selves. One does not lose individuality in a relation, but gains a sense of self through it".

The peer group has an enormous impact on the adolescent and upon his developing sense of self. Successful identity is achieved through involvement with others. Through the support of peers, the adolescent is able to gain involvement and to establish an identity. Many adolescents initially establish their identity by associating themselves with a group (Brown *et al.* 1981: 18). Within a group, healthy relationships are formed. Adolescents within a group are given certain status that may be seen as a

positive attribute and which earns a certain amount of esteem and/or respect. It is this amount of esteem or respect that helps the adolescent form a positive pupil-identity.

An adolescent who forms a positive pupil-identity within a group often does well as a leader and his scholastic achievement is very often good. On the contrary, a poorly accepted adolescent within a peer group develops a poor pupil-identity which in turn adversely affects his scholastic achievement.

2.6 THE ADOLESCENT'S MORAL DEVELOPMENT

2.6.1 Meaning of morality and its development

Hurlock (1973: 246) explains morality as "customs, manners, or patterns of behaviour that conform to the standards of the group".

Santrock (1984: 510) holds the same view and says moral development concerns rules and conventions about acceptable behaviour - often in relation to a person's interactions with other people.

There are three basic approaches taken towards understanding moral development. These are

- Cognitive approach;
- affective approach, and
- social approach.

The cognitive view of moral development focuses on moral reasoning and considers cognitive development to be a very necessary stimulant for changes in predictable stages of morality paralleling the stages of cognitive development.

The affective perspective on moral development focuses primarily on the role of empathy, sympathy and guilt which are thought to be influenced by socialisation (Santrock 1984: 524).

The social perspective views morality as linked primarily to peer experiences and the related sense of community (*Rogers 1985: 161*).

A fully developed individual morality has been described as involving four elements, namely:

- (i) Recognition of, and sensitivity to, a given social situation, leading to an awareness that a moral problem exists;
- (ii) moral judgement, in order to determine what ought to be done in a given situation;
- (iii) values and influences that direct one's plan of action towards being consistent with moral ideals, but that consider non-moral values and goals that the situation may activate, as well as the influence of situational pressures; and
- (iv) execution and implementation of moral action, involving behaviour that is consistent with the realisation of one's goals despite distractions, impediments, and incidental adjustment (*Conger 1991: 466-467*).

2.6.2 Factors influencing the adolescent's morals

2.6.2.1 Parental influences

The adolescent learns what is regarded as right and what is regarded as wrong from his parents. Adults interpret for him the moral codes of the community and punish him when he violates them (*Hurlock 1973: 248*). Once parents believe that the adolescent has already learned the major principles of right and wrong, they will frequently neglect to teach him the relationship between the specific principle learned earlier and the general principles that are essential for control over behaviour in adult life.

The fact that parents assume that adolescents know what is right, explains their tendency to punish what they regard as intentional misbehaviour (*Hurlock 1980: 243*).

2.6.2.2 Sex roles

Rogers (*1985: 167*) points out that girls are more precocious in terms of interjecting adult-approved standards. Girls' acceptance of parental standards assumes different forms in early and late adolescence. Younger girls accept parental direction unself-consciously, seldom questioning its correctness; whereas older ones offer reasons for identifying with their parents' point of view. Older girls may assume in fantasy the role of mother and seek to justify views that they will soon be required to defend.

Boys proceed towards moral maturity with uncertainty. They criticise moral dilemmas they meet, often questioning and testing the limits. They may ultimately arrive at the same conclusions that many girls adopt earlier. It could be argued that each sex develops according to the moral pattern best suited for its future role of mother or father.

2.6.2.3 Peer group influence

Adolescents' views are strongly modified by those of their peers. The unstructured free hours spent with peers affords them the opportunity to develop role-taking skills. Time spent with peers involves egalitarian relationships and shared interests, which is more rewarding than task-oriented hierarchical relationships with their middle-aged parents. The differences in life-style of parents and adolescent peers cause them to interpret the morality of behaviours from different perspectives (*Rogers 1985: 169*).

2.6.3 Morals and a sense of personal identity

Adolescents develop a sense of personal identity somewhat akin to Erikson's stage of ego identity. They recognise that despite

variation in thought and mood, they have a stable personality, or basic nature, and they recognise the same trait in others. With this new awareness in early adolescence, empathy is channelled to help others overcome causes of chronic distress.

Young adolescents are fully aware that others feel pleasure and pain, and that these feelings occur in the context of a longer pattern of life experience. With continued cognitive growth, adolescents are able not only to understand the plight of an individual but also of an entire group of individuals, or a class of people (*Santrock 1984: 527*). The understanding of the plight of individuals or a class of people helps the adolescent to approach them with care and empathy. This kind of attitude or behaviour makes the adolescent popular with his community. The adolescent who behaves in an acceptable manner is often rewarded in various ways. Some are rewarded by positive remarks from parents and teachers and others are awarded presents as a token of appreciation for their good deportment.

The positive response received from other people in turn develops a sense of being accepted in the adolescent and this serves as a source of encouragement and self-confidence. This feeling of confidence contributes towards the formation of a positive pupil-identity.

Positive pupil-identity often influences the maintenance of the spirit of good behaviour and commendable scholastic performance.

2.7 THE ADOLESCENT AND RELIGION

2.7.1 The need for religion in adolescents

Hurlock (*1973: 226*) described religion as consisting of two elements, namely, a faith which is based on the individual's beliefs and secondly practices or religious observances in common with others of the same faith and centred around a place of worship - in the home, school or community. The adolescent needs

religion, that is, a belief that he can accept, and observances that are meaningful and helpful to him. Vrey (1979: 182) points out that a personal religion means a faith and hope to which an adolescent can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of development.

Adolescence is a period of strain and insecurity and almost every adolescent needs a religion that can give him faith in life and a feeling of security. Any religion that is compatible with life, that is applicable with the workday world, can give the adolescent a faith to live by and can help him learn to withstand the conflicts and doubts so characteristic of adolescence. An adolescent needs a religion that is personal and meaningful to him as an individual (Hurlock 1973: 227).

2.7.2 How adolescents value religion

Lerner et al. (1980: 66) point out that religion is important to the adolescent in the following ways:

- Organised religion as a moral, philosophical and social institution is of central importance to the adolescent in the sense that a large proportion of adolescents who rate religion as being important show a commitment towards religious institutions.
- The behaviour of adolescents shows a commitment to religious institutions.
- The population of adolescents attending church indicates a high level of religious commitment (Santrick 1984: 536).
- Although neither the frequency of religious worship nor the frequency of Sunday school attendance is significantly related to moral conduct, religious male students meet the academic and social expectations of the school more so than do non-religious students.

2.7.3 Changes in religious interest and their effect on behaviour

Many boys and girls begin to question religious concepts and beliefs of childhood and this has led adolescence to be called the period of religious doubt. According to Wagner (*Hurlock 1980: 239*), "religious doubt" is in reality religious questioning. Changes in religious interest correlate with the developmental processes of the adolescent. Hurlock (*1973: 228-236*) points out the changes as:

- Religious awakening;
- religious doubt;
- changes in religious beliefs.

"Religious awakening" means an increased interest in religion which leads to a reconstruction of religious beliefs and attitudes. When adolescents prepare to join the church of their parents, their interest in religion is heightened. As a result of this increased interest, they may either become extremely enthusiastic about religious activities. They may be eager to participate in religious conferences with other adolescents. Many boys and girls decide to dedicate their lives to serve their church. As adolescents analyse the belief accepted on joining the church and compare them with the beliefs of friends, they begin to wonder if it is possible to continue to behave in accordance with what the church stands for. They even wonder if they would not find some other religion more to their liking. As doubt and indecision develop, enthusiasm wanes.

"Religious doubt" means to waver in opinion, to hesitate in belief, or to be undecided. Doubting in any area leaves its mark on later attitudes and beliefs. This is especially true when emotions are involved.

The most common effects of doubting are:

- Confusion and uncertainty - the adolescent is in a state of uncertainty; he does not know what to believe. As a result, he no longer feels certain about anything related to religion.
- Acceptance of a creed - doubt makes the adolescent hesitant about accepting a definite creed.
- Revision of religious beliefs - the period of doubt leads to new or revised religious beliefs which better suit their more mature intellectual status.
- Decrease in religious observances - even though the adolescent accepts the religious faith of his family, he usually shows little interest in religious observances, either in the home or church (*Hurlock 1973: 236*).

Beliefs are based on concepts which broaden and expand with increased knowledge and experience. Changed religious beliefs and attitudes may have any one or any combination of the following effects:

- Decreased interest in religion - in late adolescence the individual is likely to have less interest in religion and religious observances.
- Religious reconstruction - changes in religions and beliefs and attitudes generally result in reconstruction or revision of beliefs that will satisfy the more mature intellectual demands of adolescent.
- Acceptance of family faith - if the changes in religious belief have been minor, the adolescent is likely to retain the faith of his childhood. If they are major, he is likely to adopt another faith, different in most respects from that of his parents.

2.7.4 Religion and identity development

During adolescence, boys and girls begin to view religious identity differently. They define religious identity in internal rather than external terms during early adolescence, and during late adolescence, some of them begin to switch from a conventional orientation towards religious identity (in which case they merely accept the religious beliefs of others) to thoughts about developing their religious identities (*Sanrock 1984: 543*). Many adolescents have been indoctrinated in the religious beliefs of their parents. By late adolescence, youths come to understand that they can make their own decisions about religion (*Sanrock 1984: 443*).

During late adolescence, it is easy to lose one's self in the religious beliefs of others rather than thinking autonomously. Ausubel (*Sanrock 1984: 538*) believes that many late adolescents develop pseudo - autonomy by replacing the family with some other groups, such as a fraternity or religious group.

The socio-cultural context in which adolescents grow affects their developing cognitive capacities to influence their religious identities. Vrey (*1979: 184*) points out that morbid guilt is harmful in many ways, not least in hampering self-actualisation by distorting the self-image. The Christian faith makes it possible for the adolescent to confess his guilt and to appropriate forgiveness by faith. This is one of many ways in which a living faith promotes positive identity formation and adequate self-actualisation.

2.8 THE SCHOOL AND LIFE-WORLD OF THE ADOLESCENT

2.8.1 The pupil and the school

The pedagogic influence of the school on the adolescent's formation of an identity as pupil is of great concern to the researcher. Gresse (*1973: 108*) defines the school as follows: "Die skool is as instituut 'n instelling van die samelewing om te help verseker dat

sy wyse van bestaan in die toekoms sal voortgesit word. Daarom sal dit in die skool onder andere ook daarvoor gaan, dat die kind voorberei en ingelei moet word in die aanvaarde gebruike en gewoontes en medemenslike verhoudings in verskillende gemeenskapsverbande soos die gesin, kerk, staat".

The school is an example of an agency that is formally structured and organised for the purpose of inducting the child into his society.

Schools create a setting in which the adolescent can be happy and yet challenged. Schools are a place to develop optimal personal and interpersonal attributes and, as such maximise the person's ability to contribute to society.

Stark (1975: 36-37) says that society is a group of people whose relationships are organised and structured by a culture.

Socialisation according to Johnson (1968: 110) is described as learning that enables the learner to perform social roles. According to Gunter (1977: 27) "the educational situation is always a social situation and the educational relation is always a social relation."

Socialisation is one of the most dynamic forces assisting the child towards responsible adulthood since it affords the child degrees of natural integration into the world (Garrison 1975: 241).

The school has an important socialising influence on the adolescent in that it provides the physical environment in which adolescents spend most of their time. It is also the centre of the peer group. The school also provides formal education (Lloyd 1985: 99).

Symond (Hamachek 1979: 64) shows that the greatest need among adolescents is that of opportunity for participation inside and outside the classroom. In this setting, the adolescent tends to affiliate himself with those individuals or groups whom he wishes to resemble and with whom he believes or imagines he has something in common.

2.8.1.1 The social life of the school

In secondary schools, children have several classes and each class has a structure of its own, since the individuals composing it are different. The pupils in a class group form various relationships, and it is much easier to notice their social behaviour.

The greatest need among adolescents is the opportunity for participation inside the classroom. Participation could be provided by more democratic organisation, by encouraging possibilities for free interchange of opinion in discussions. Small group activities and activities that call for sharing and joint participation are ideal for this purpose (*Hamachek 1979: 64*).

The co-curricular activities are activities sponsored by the school for purposes of accommodating the child in activities outside the classroom. Pupil activities may include athletics, parties and dances, dramatics, speech festivals, clubs and student governments. All these activities share a common goal, that of making adolescents worthy citizens in their communities (*Bent 1970: 376*).

Adolescent's interest in these activities should be fully cultivated in order to realise our educational goal.

(i) Dramatics

Dramatics is encouraged in order to promote sound character formation. Drama may prove a source of great pleasure to adolescents and many actually change certain of their undesirable temperament deficiencies (*Sadler 1948: 268*).

(ii) Student Government

Secondary schools may have a student government that operates through the student council and the student

court. Through these activities, the pupils practise techniques of government and participate in the conducting of school affairs. They learn how voting is done, how laws are formulated and passed, how a court functions, how rules are enforced. These activities give practical training in citizenship (*Cole & Hall 1970: 566*).

(iii) Sport activities

The secondary school places a high value (amongst other things) on sport activities. Athletics, soccer and netball teams provide a basis for much of the social life of the adolescent. Participation in sport teams may be the primary force which motivates the adolescent to remain in school. For other participants, sport adds dimensions to their lives which enhance personal and social development. For non-participants, it still provides an opportunity to be a part of something by attending sport events and sharing in a victory (or loss) through what has come to be known as 'school spirit' (*Lerner et al. 1980: 48*).

(iv) Clubs and special groups

A large number of clubs and special groups contribute enormously to the socialisation of secondary school pupils. Language and literary societies, public speaking and many others make the school an attractive place (*Sadler 1948: 269*).

Extra-curricular school activities are, however, only a part of the total school experience, and the total school experience is only a part of the total life and growth experience of the adolescent. Numerous opinions have been set forth regarding the value of participating in school activities. Many programmes are sustained because it is believed they will be of benefit to the participants (*Sybouts & Krepel 1984: 61*).

2.8.1.2 The academic life of the school

The school curriculum aims at providing the pupil with knowledge and skills. Good (1959: 7) points out that knowledge or skills acquired are developed through the school subjects.

Bloom (1976: 87) writes that the adolescent approaches certain learning tasks with interest and the desire to learn them. In the process of learning, the adolescent receives a great deal of approval for his learning from the teacher as well as from positive relations with others in class or school. In this case his attitude towards school and school learning should generally be on the positive or favourable side.

Closely related to attitude towards school and school learning is the attitude toward the self about school learning. Success or failure over a number of years leads to the student generalising about himself as a learner or student. These successes or failures contribute to either positive academic self-concept or negative academic self-concept.

(i) Pupils in relation with learning matter

Nicholls & Nicholls (1983: 48) indicate that in the vast majority of schools the curriculum is organised on a subject basis. The subject matter is regarded as a vehicle for the development of intellectual abilities and skills. Subject matter is sometimes selected because it is necessary for the understanding of something else or because it may come in useful later.

Vrey (1979: 269) shows that the pupil's concept or idea of himself as a learner is important because it reflects his previous experiences in terms of mastering the subject matter. His experiences may have been such that he sees himself as either a successful or unsuccessful learner. He is constantly engaged in judging himself on the basis of his experiences. Feelings about his experienced successes or failure have a significant effect on the self-concept.

If the child continues to succeed, and gets the approval of the teachers and others, and if all goes generally well, he is likely to have a positive academic self-concept. Such pupils usually express the opinion that "I'm perfectly satisfied with school and even hate to think of graduating" (Gesell, Ilg & Ames 1971: 458). If the child rarely succeeds he is unlikely to have any sense of doing anything right. He is unlikely to have received much approval for his school work from teachers, parents and even his peers in the classroom. Even if he has had generally good relations with other children, he must have some sense that school is not a source of joy, success and happiness. He is likely to have a negative academic self-concept (Wall 1977: 137).

(ii) Pupils in relation with teachers

In order to fulfil the need to achieve maturity, the pupil needs adult support. He has to enter into relationships with supportive adults. Nicholls et al. (1983: 22) say that a teacher is a person with above average academic ability, wide interests, ideas and experiences that can be used for the benefit of his pupils. The teacher needs to be able to communicate and work with others as well as to be able to develop these skills in his pupils.

In a learning opportunity which he controls and directs the teacher may appear as a figure of considerable authority, perhaps as a fount of all knowledge. The adolescent resents this. He insists on being able to manage his own affairs (*Cole et al.*, 1970: 586). The adolescent prefers a learning context which arouses a feeling of independence and a sense of responsibility for getting the work done. Whenever possible the pupil should be given the opportunity to tell his classmates what he has found out about a given topic and discuss it with them. The teacher in this type of arrangement should appear as a figure with whom pupils may discuss their work, who offers suggestions and encourages inquiry and questioning. In such a case the teacher gives pupils greater responsibility for their own learning and allows them to exercise judgement and to make some choices in relation to their learning (*Nicholls et al.*, 1983: 61).

(iii) Pupils' learning in relation to peer groups' learning in the classroom

The teachers judgement of the student tends to emphasise the student's relative standing in the class. To the adolescent personal status is of prime concern in a variety of groups as well as in relationships with selected individuals. The student may be given the status of being a top-achiever in the classroom. The given status may be seen as a positive attribute and carry with it a certain amount of esteem or respect.

Bloom (1976: 94) points out that the student's view of himself is likely to be most directly influenced by the frequent judgements about himself as a learner that he receives in school, by teachers and peers. The judgements made are relative because they are based on student's learning compared with the learning of other students in the same class. The daily evaluation by the teacher and standardised tests determine the student's position in class in

relation to other students. This evaluation greatly influences the academic self-concept of the student. For example, a student who is rated as an excellent student is likely to develop a positive academic self-concept; and on the other hand the one who is rated as a weak student is likely to develop a negative academic self-concept (*Vrey 1979: 269*).

2.9 SYNTHESIS

In this chapter, the developmental processes of the adolescent have been discussed. Biological, social, moral, emotional and religious changes and the effect of these aspects on the individual pupil's identity formation were also briefly considered.

In paragraph 2.2, it was mentioned that the most important physical changes in the adolescent were increased height and weight and sexual maturation. It was also mentioned that adolescents incorporate perceptions of these bodily changes into certain images of their physical selves: Own body image, or the way they believe they look; ideal physical self-image, or those characteristics of the self they desire to be; and/or the physical image they assume when in the world of fantasy. Success in the consolidation of these physical changes into a positive, self-confident personal identity results in a positive pupil-identity. Adolescents with a positive pupil-identity often perform well.

Emotions were also discussed, and it was mentioned that they consist of mental, motivational and physical components. Emotionally mature individuals accept their right to be human; they accept facts of life that they cannot change, but they do what they can about those factors that should and can be changed. Experience which is accompanied by intense emotion is likely to have a profound effect on one's attitudes, values and future behaviour. It is during this period that the adolescent needs the guidance of parents and teachers in learning how to control his emotions. The love, patience, assistance and proper guidance

displayed develop a sense of self-acceptance. Self-acceptance leads to the development of self-esteem which in turn results in the formation of a positive pupil-identity. Should the adolescent receive inadequate love and guidance from parents, self-hatred and self-contempt will result. These kinds of feelings negatively affect the adolescent's pupil-identity as well as his self-actualisation.

In paragraph 2.4, it was mentioned that the adolescent has reached a stage where he is able to think abstractly. During this formal operational stage, the adolescent is able, through inductive reasoning, to systematise his ideas and deal critically with his own thinking. He is also able to treat theories logically and scientifically, and is also able to discover the truth, scientifically, through deductive reasoning. However, it is during this period that the parent should give assistance and guidance in order to re-direct the adolescent's thinking and also to help in the clarification of misconceptions. This kind of assistance will help the adolescent to develop a positive pupil-identity which in turn will influence his becoming and learning positively.

In paragraph 2.5, it was mentioned that the adolescent establishes a strong sense of identity if there are rewarding interactive relationships between the adolescent and both parents. The adolescent wants to move towards greater independence and self-definition. During the course of this process, tension develops between the adolescent and parents. This tension is reduced if a balance exists between affection and control on the part of the parents.

The peer group in particular, helps the adolescent to attain independence from the family and to define relationships with themselves and society. The peer group has an enormous impact on the adolescent and upon his developing sense of self. Successful identity is achieved through involvement with others. Within a group the adolescent is given a certain status that carries with it

a certain amount of esteem and respect. Respect and esteem help the adolescent in the formation of a positive pupil-identity. An adolescent who has formed a positive pupil-identity within a group often does well as a leader and his scholastic performance is often good.

In paragraph 2.6 and 2.7 the moral and religious development of the adolescent were discussed. It was mentioned that adolescents' relationships with the universe may be described in terms of morals, values and religion, all of which overlap.

Morals are standards of right and wrong and religion is that aspect of an individual philosophy that concerns the most elemental and universal issues of human existence.

The adolescent who behaves according to stipulated moral standards, is often praised for his good deportment. The praise develops a sense of being accepted and this in turn results in the establishment of a positive pupil identity that will influence his scholastic achievement positively. On the other hand, a living faith in the adolescent promotes positive pupil identity formation and adequate self-actualisation.

In paragraph 2.8, the socialising influence of the school on the adolescent was mentioned and it was found that adolescents are concerned with their immediate school environment, especially its social aspect. The relationship which develops in the classroom and the co-curricular activities were discussed. In the discussion of school activities, it was found that participation benefits the adolescents' development of social growth, social status and intellect.

It was also pointed out that in the process of learning, the adolescent receives a great deal of approval for his learning from his teachers, parents and peer group. This is his reward for engaging in school learning, irrespective of the quality of his performance. Mention has been made that if the adolescent's relations with

others in the class are positive, then his attitudes towards school and school learning will be positive.

From the onset, a pupil is judged and judges himself on apparent success or failure in the performance of his tasks. His experiences in terms of performance in the subject matter, give rise to his concept of himself as a learner.

Further, mention was made that the student's view of himself is influenced by the test marks and remarks made about himself as a learner. Those who receive high marks have their positive pupil-identity publicly confirmed. Those with low test marks, tend to regard themselves, and to be regarded by others, as 'failures'. If they do not already have elements of a negative pupil-identity, they are likely to develop one.

All the research conducted on the adolescent developmental stage as discussed in this chapter focused on the adolescent in Western society. The following chapter will focus on the Black adolescent. Similarities and differences between the Western adolescent and the Black adolescent will be examined. The ultimate aim is to find out which of these factors influence the pupil-identity formation of the Black adolescent to a significant degree.

CHAPTER 3

THE BLACK ADOLESCENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter two the researcher concentrated on the developmental processes and the social and pedagogic life worlds of the Western adolescent. He further pointed out the effects of these developmental changes on the individual's identity formation.

In this chapter, the researcher will give a broad description of the Black adolescent and attempt to point out similarities and differences between the Western adolescent and the Black adolescent. The Blacks in South Africa have a core culture of their own. The various ethnic groups share similar beliefs. However, in order to minimise the scope of the research and to facilitate understanding of some of the facts which will be mentioned about Blacks, the North Sotho and the Swazi ethnic groups will be used as a point of reference. Since the child is an integral part of his environment, the researcher will also attempt to discuss the child's environment and activities.

3.2 THE BLACK ADOLESCENT

Adolescence in both Western and Black worlds is a fascinating, interesting and challenging period of human growth and development. It is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood (*Mwamwenda 1990: 40*). In the traditional Black culture, this period tends to be very short and is marked by the onset of puberty. During initiation ceremonies individuals are stripped of their childhood and prepared for adulthood. After initiation the individual is no longer a child but is involved in the activities of adulthood. The transition from childhood to adulthood is clearly demarcated, beginning with a significant social event, initiation, and is devoted to increasing competence in adult skills.

The Swazi nation considers the attainment of puberty as a major landmark in individual development but it is not publicly celebrated. Group circumcision of boys is not practised. However, there is a symbolic circumcision performed for the king as part of the ritual of his installation. There are no initiation ceremonies for girls, but menstruation imposes certain taboos on their public behaviour. After puberty boys and girls are expected to enjoy sexual experiences, stopping short of full intercourse before finally assuming marital responsibilities (*Kuper 1986: 53-54*).

As far as the Northern Sotho tribe is concerned, puberty is a way to another world, a departure from the old to the new life. According to Mönnig (*1967: 112*) puberty "is not an individual affair, but is communally undertaken by the whole tribe, and is under the personal direction and control of the chief." By undergoing this process, the initiates are introduced to adult life. Girls who have reached puberty also attend a tribal institution. At the institution they are under the direction of the principal wife of the chief, and under the protection and authority of the chief himself (*Mönnig 1967: 124*). At this institution, the girls receive sex education and behaviour towards men is emphasised. They are told to respect all men, and particularly the chief.

In urban and industrialised areas, because of Western influences, these practices have virtually disappeared.

The Western adolescent's development is divided according to chronological stages. Puberty is followed by a period of adolescence which covers early adolescence from 12 to 15, middle adolescence from 15 to 18 and late adolescence from 18 to 22 (*Vrey 1979: 165*). Division based on chronological stages is unknown in the Black culture. Braaf (*1959: 2*) mentions that "during this transitional period, the adolescent undergoes different rhythms of development involving physical, emotional, intellectual, moral and social changes and adjustments.

These changes are normal human developmental processes, irrespective of racial and cultural differences. There may however be, differences in growth, due to socio-economic factors. According to De Villiers (1987: 33), "Black children in the age group from ten to twenty are shorter and lighter ... These children are therefore classified as suffering from protein-energy malnutrition." Environmental variables like cultural values, nutrition and diet contribute a great deal to physiological/ biological, psychological and intellectual differences (Mwamwenda 1990: 43; Prazuck, Fisch, Pichard, Sidibe & Gentilini 1989: 52-54). However, mention has to be made that differences in the growth rate may also be genetically pre-determined. That is, the slower growth and possibly even final adult height and weight could also be genetically determined (De Villiers 1987: 42).

In chapter 1, the researcher pointed out that his intention is to investigate how the Black adolescent forms an identity. He further pointed out that in order to achieve this, he would study the life-world of the Black adolescent. According to Vrey (1979: 186) the child's relationships are an expression of his life-world. This is a point of departure for a discussion of the adolescent's world.

3.3 THE BLACK ADOLESCENT AND HIS FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

3.3.1 The traditional family

The traditional family includes children, parents, grandparents, uncles, brothers and sisters who may have their own children, and other immediate relatives (Mbiti 1971: 106). Traditional education is transmitted to the child by the senior members of the family. The education emphasises the acceptance of norms and values of the fathers who have similarly inherited them from their fathers.

The father is expected to give his son the education necessary to make him productive and the proper carrier of the family name. The mother, on the other hand, sees to it that her daughter maintains

the cultural standards set for all decent girls who, as a result, experience little difficulty in finding an understanding husband and establishing a home. African fables, proverbs, and legends, orally told by parents and other older adults, are clear examples of the society's effort to transmit values to the youth.

Murdock (*Ripinga 1976: 79*) points out that within the Swazi family there are several relationships which are typically characterised by a high degree of reciprocal co-operation, loyalty, solidarity and affection. This type of relationship is also evident in Northern Sotho families. The following are common to both ethnic groups:

3.3.1.1 Father and son

The son is always the favourite of the father and in the early years the child is encouraged to view his father as a role model. The Swazi sons undergo Spartanism treatment from their fathers. It is a cultural norm that the boy should not be spared pain and trouble and that he must be hardened into becoming a man who can face difficulties with fortitude. The Northern Sotho sons have a great respect for their fathers and the father is feared. It is the responsibility of the father to direct family activities and the behaviour of his children. The son has close contact with the father, and always helps him look after the goats, sheep and cattle.

3.3.1.2 Mother and daughter

The relationship between the Swazi womenfolk is different from that between father and son. Women are more intimate and cordial. Mother and daughter perform the family chores, work in the fields, fetch water from the river and go to the woods to collect firewood together. The Northern Sotho mother and daughter relationship is somewhat similar and the mother sees to it that her daughter maintains the cultural standards set for all "decent" girls.

3.3.1.3 Father/daughter and mother/son relationship

There is a vast difference between father/daughter, mother/son relationships and the father/son, mother/daughter relationship. The father tends to pamper the girls while mothers see their sons as prospective heads and supporters of the family. This is not only apparent in the way a father treats his daughter and the mother treats her son, but is a point of discussion in the tribal Swazi family. Although the father does not pamper his son, like he pampers his daughter, he does not reject his son. The father in fact accepts him and is proud of having a son (*Ripinga 1976: 88*).

The Northern Sotho mother is more intimate with her children than the father. She looks after them and listens to their problems. The mother is the person most trusted by her children, both boys and girls. They discuss their personal problems more often with her than their father. The mother mediates between them and their father. She also plays a very important role in the choice of a spouse (*Harries 1929: 53*).

3.3.1.4 Relationships between children

The relationship between children within the traditional family is influenced by age and sex. The elder child is a senior to the younger child of the same sex and the boy is a senior to any girl. The younger child must always respect and take orders from older children. The elder brother is in a position to give the younger brother all sorts of work, and the younger brother has to obey. The older brother has the responsibility of protecting his younger brother. A similar relationship exists between older and younger sisters.

In the case of opposite-sex siblings an older sister instructs a younger brother and expects him to respond during the boy's early childhood.

Once the younger brother grows older, the older sister no longer has the right to instruct him. According to Vilakazi (1962: 124) older siblings play a very important role by teaching younger brothers or sisters many of the things which they learned from their seniors. Thus boys learn about the veld, different kinds of birds, wild fruits, colours, stick fighting and so on, from being with their older brothers or helping to perform many tasks. The girls spend more time with their mothers than the boys, and learn about housecraft, raising crops in the garden, and the minute details of how to raise a baby.

3.3.1.5 The role of the extended family

According to Herskovits (1966: 301), the extended family is "composed of the members of a series of immediate families inhabiting the same locale." It includes a man and his parents, brothers, brother's wives, sons, unmarried daughters and other relatives.

In the evenings the adolescents enjoy listening to their grandparents relating traditional legends. Grandparents are regarded as adequately qualified teachers to lay the foundations for education that will prepare the adolescent to live happily and comfortably and to be useful to his society (McFadden & Gbekobou 1984: 225). Usually, grandparents are the best informed, the most patient and most readily accessible resource for young ones who are able to react naturally in their presence. In such truly friendly relationships, learning takes place easily (Lekhela 1958: 19).

The education received from grandparents ensures a good sense of identity and also gives the adolescent a chance to develop acceptance and adoption of the norms and values of the community.

Additional educating roles both in the Swazi and Northern Sotho cultures are played by uncles, aunts and other relatives. It is incumbent on the adolescent to respond positively, humbly and respectfully to his teachers (relatives). Fables, proverbs and

Legends orally told to the adolescents are clear examples of the society's efforts to transmit its values to the youth (*Disasa 1988: 19*).

3.3.2 Western-orientated Black family relationships

The average Black western-orientated family consists of the father, mother and children. In only rare instances would you find grandparents staying with their children. In most cases both parents are employed and as a result, the children remain alone at home during the day. They are with their parents only in the evenings.

The absence of the parents at home results in a communication break-down between parents and the adolescents. Parents tend to make decisions unilaterally and this causes dissatisfaction in the adolescent. The differences between them generate misunderstandings and give rise to tension and conflict in the parent-child relationship. Adolescents are involved in a struggle to emancipate themselves from parents; they want freedom to make plans, to choose friends and so on. In response, the parents become more controlling and restrictive. This exacerbates the hostility and conflict between adolescents and their parents.

Relationships between the children in the Westernised family have no seniority attachments. All children are treated equally and tasks or home chores are distributed fairly by the parent. Equality in the family promotes happy relationships. This view is supported by Braaf (*1959: 19*) who says "the parent, with his greater experience, his clearer insight into himself and greater understanding of life, must take the initiative in keeping relationships between adolescent and himself harmonious. At the same time he must also get the adolescent to understand his part in the relationship".

Family relationships also determine the personality of the Black adolescent just as in the case of the Western adolescent. An adolescent who has had sound family relationships is likely to continue to establish sound relationships in other areas. This view is also held by Bergins (*Matseke 1981: 115*) who says " 'n kind wat in 'n huis groot word waar ontwikkelde en intelligente ouers sy leergierigheid prikkel, waar hy toegang tot boeke en ander leerstof het, waar die radio en kultuur- en opvoedkundige middele aangewend word, waar hy deur sy wisselwerking van idees en besprekings oor allerlei onderwerpe besiel word, se aangebore potensiaal sal beter ontwikkel as 'n kind wat in dié opsig beperk is". It is important to note that the self-concept of the adolescent is dependent on the image created in the family. Therefore, the self-concept developed by a child in a family as described by Bergins (*Matseke 1981: 115*) will tend to be positive.

3.4 PEER GROUP RELATIONSHIP

3.4.1 Traditional peer groups

Krige (*Schapera 1967: 96*) points out that at an early age children learn not to sit or eat with people older than themselves. They spend most of their time with those of their own age, playing together or working together, and are recognised by their elders as a group, from which collective responsibility for herding and other occupations is expected. As a child grows, he comes into contact with an ever-widening circle of people, which first includes other children in the neighbourhood and later, at the circumcision school or in the regiment. The significance of these encounters is great in that selfishness, bad temper, and other faults are constantly checked by the group. The younger children are also strictly controlled by the group just older than themselves.

Initially the boys are responsible for herding, for bird-scaring and so on. Admission to the initiation school and/or to the regiment becomes important because his knowledge widens and responsibilities become greater. The content taught here is very

important for him as an individual and for the community in which he lives.

In the same way, girls have to start at an early age to help their mothers grind corn and fetch water and kindle wood. These feminine activities are also performed communally, and older girls control the activities of those younger than themselves. A great deal of enculturation of the child (*Mönnig 1967: 107*) rests in these youthful activities.

3.4.2 Western-orientated peer group

3.4.2.1 Peer group categories

(i) Goal directed adolescents

These adolescents come from homes where education is given the highest priority. They are highly motivated and tertiary education is always an aim (*Matseke 1981: 109*). From the researcher's experience, such adolescents are often engaged in intellectual arguments, are punctual and attend school regularly. They carry out instructions very well. They are the pride of the principal, teachers and the community at large.

(ii) Delinquent adolescents

These adolescents generally experience stress within the family and the school, as well as in society. Many come from disadvantaged homes, where living conditions produce personal and emotional difficulties. Most of them have lost one or both parents through death or divorce. Others come from single-parent families in which, for various reasons, the parent is unable to adequately support them. Others may have been left with relatives who cope poorly and resort to punishment (*Hickson & Gaydon 1989: 87*).

These adolescents also have a bad attitude towards the school which may perhaps be the result of their unpleasant experiences at home or at the school. These are the adolescents who often present problems to parents and teachers.

3.4.2.2 Relationship with the peer group

Black adolescent groups are formed merely because they go to the same school or live in the same neighbourhood. These groups are usually composed of members of the same sex only at the beginning. An interest in members of the opposite sex develops gradually. In most cases these groups are formed by individuals who have common interests, ideals and school mates.

(i) Friendships

The Black adolescent does not only form friendships with his school mates. Some of his friends may be non-scholars. These adolescents may not be on the same physical, cognitive and scholastic level. These relationships play a meaningful role as they add to the number of acquaintances of the adolescent. They are also significant for development of heterosexual relationships. The continued existence of friendship is determined by the acceptance of each other as equals. They should feel at ease with each other and a spirit of trust should be maintained.

(ii) Acceptance by the groups

The Black adolescent's popularity with the peer group depends on a combination of personal and physical characteristics. In almost every group there is a member who is considered to be physically strong, or handsome or good at sport. This member is in most cases selected as a group leader. Every member has to follow the rules and routines which are agreed upon and behave accordingly.

Conformity to the routines of the peer groups brings a spirit of acceptance without impatience or fear (*Flemming 1967: 152*).

(iii) Conformity

In order to be known as a member of a group, an adolescent has to identify with it. Since the peer group has much influence on the adolescent, conformity is largely achieved through peer pressure. When Black adolescents are asked to name the most pressing problem experienced with friends, they name peer pressure. The adolescent feels pressurised to participate socially. He strives to conform and he may find himself taking part in activities of which he disapproves. He is pressured to use alcohol and drugs, and to engage in sexual intercourse.

It is interesting to note that the Black adolescent is rarely willing to risk his social acceptability by appearing different. He is, in fact, happier if he is more like other people. Therefore, there is much pressure to conform to the group. The adolescent feels concerned about popularity with his peers; even though some believe in the importance of being an individual, they simultaneously find it necessary to conform to the peers in order to be popular.

Identification with the peer group ensures and reinforces a sense of belonging. The adolescent becomes happier if he is like other members of the group. He achieves an identity through his involvement with them. Research has discovered that the Western adolescent forms an identity in the same way. Cliques provide their members with an identity in the eyes of other adolescents. They also judge one another on the basis of the company they keep. Therefore, clique-identities become the basis of an adolescent's own identity.

(iv) Heterosexual relations and the influence of these relationships on scholastic performance

Once the adolescent has established sexual-identity, he quickly establishes relationships with the opposite sex. However, boys enter more into this relationship than do girls. There is a relative decrease in heterosexual relationships between the ages fourteen and sixteen for both boys and girls. Garbers (1971: 31) in his study of the Pedi adolescent, mentions that the reasons for this decrease is because of the well known feelings of loneliness during this stage of adolescence.

The Black adolescent regards sexual intercourse as an expression of love. The term 'prove' is used when a boy appeals for sexual intercourse. Feelings generated by sexual drives result in aggressiveness, especially with the boys if their sexual needs are unsatisfied (Matseke 1981: 116). This type of an unbecoming behaviour in boys frequently forces girls to give in to demands even if it is against their will. A girl who is forced to have sexual intercourse, becomes emotionally disturbed. She becomes worried about contracting venereal diseases or falling pregnant. Emotional tension has a negative effect on her pupil-identity formation and her scholastic achievement may be adversely affected.

Adolescents girls who engage in sexual relationships may fall pregnant and have to leave school. Pre-marital sexual intercourse has resulted in many illegitimate children amongst Black adolescent girls.

Pupil enrollment in Black secondary schools at the beginning of the year is very high. These high numbers tend to drop during the course of the year. The highest drop-out rate is among girls.

There are various reasons for this, and one of them is pregnancy. Unfortunately, there are no reliable statistics available to support this fact. The absence of such records is caused by the fact that parents are reluctant to give correct information about their children, more especially if the reason is regarded as a disgrace.

It is not unusual to find adolescent unmarried mothers in our Black secondary schools. Principals and teachers have trouble in dealing with such students. These girls affect the discipline of the school negatively. They believe that they are different from other girls, and must be treated as such. They leave the school premises at awkward times to breast feed their children at home. They sometimes refuse to attend afternoon lessons or studies, and they exempt themselves from extra-curricular activities. Their pupil-identity formation is 'confused' because at times they regard themselves as mothers and at others as students. The scholastic performance of most of these girls is bad. This appears to be, inter alia, because of lack of study, uncompleted or incompleting homework, lack of concentration in class and many others. Reasons advanced for their poor performance are frequently: "My child was ill last night" or "I was washing napkins yesterday afternoon" and so on.

3.4.3 Relationship with moral and religious aspects of the life-world

Religion is a difficult word to define, and it becomes even more difficult in the context of Black traditional life. For Blacks religion pertains to the question of existence or being. Traditionally, the individual is immersed in religious participation which starts before birth and continues after his death. From birth through childhood and youth, the child's life-world is flooded with rites and ceremonies. Fundamentally this reflects the view that man lives in a religious universe. Both the world and practically all man's activities in it, are seen and experienced through a religious understanding and meaning (*Mbiti 1971: 15*).

McFadden et al. (1984: 227-229) give a summary of African religious values and practices as follows:

- Religious ideas and practices are an integral part of African daily life.
- Members of African society believe that their moral values were given to them by God. They further believe that some of the departed ones keep watch over the living to make sure that they observe moral laws and are punished when they break them.
- Traditional life-style is highly respected and valued. The daily life of an African child is a continuous initiation into the realms of spiritual and social aspects of the community.
- The family (usually the extended family) is the most basic unit of life, and represents, in miniature, the life of the entire people. In the family, individuals are closely bound to each other because of blood or marriage and because they live together. The family is both a social and economic unit.
- The education of children is the collective responsibility of both parents and community. Thus children owe respect and humility to every older person.

The traditional Black adolescent views life differently than his Western-oriented counterpart. He may find Western-oriented view points, beliefs, habits and traditions strange and difficult to comprehend or accept because they are not within his life-world. He does not know them.

Through education, urbanisation and industrialisation, Blacks in South Africa are becoming detached from their traditional environment and exposed to modern life, where Christianity and other religions play a very important role. These religions are contrary to the beliefs and ideas of the traditional Black people. Those

Black people who have been converted, follow a Western-oriented life-style as is the practice in urban areas and in some of the South African homelands. However, it is important to mention that converts recourse to their traditional religion in times of mishap and disasters (*Mbiti 1971: 2-3; Ripinga 1976: 102*).

The vast majority of Black adolescents share their parents' religious views. The more religion is stressed in the home, the more favourable are adolescents' attitudes towards religion. However, adolescents' religious activities are more influenced by the peer group than by the parents. It is difficult for a parent to convince an adolescent to join a church choir or youth movement. Participation by the members of the peer group in the choir or youth movement encourages other adolescents to join.

With regard to sexual ethics, Kuper (*1986: 53-54*) has pointed out that among the traditional Swazi nation, boys and girls are expected to enjoy sexual experiences after puberty. Among the traditional Northern Sotho nation, girls receive sex education and are also coached on how to behave towards men during and after puberty. Northern Sotho mothers, also play a role in the choice of a spouse (*Harries 1929: 53*).

Christianity forbids sex before marriage. This is time and again re-emphasised by Black Christian parents.

The peer group's influence on this issue is so great that in most cases adolescents and parents come into conflict. Adolescents indulge in sexual 'experimentation', despite the advice from the Holy Bible that they should "put to death ... whatever belongs to your earthly nature sexual immorality, impurity, lust ..."
(*Colossians 3:5*).

3.5 THE EDUCATIONAL WORLD OF THE BLACK ADOLESCENT

The previous paragraph referred to the role of the family and the peer group in the informal education of the child. According to

Kuper (1986: 57) the rituals performed are part of the educative process, a symbolic affirmation of certain social values and in traditional Swazi society, where specialised formal education institutions are non-existent, the age classes serve as the main channels for inculcating the values of loyalty and group morality.

Krige & Krige (1965: 99) point out that formal education is given in the initiation schools, which play a very important part in the life of every individual. Herskovitz (1966: 310) regards this education as synonymous with the cycle of early enculturation whereby the individual is equipped to take his place as an adult member in his society.

The traditional practices and beliefs of the Black culture were challenged by Western civilisation which brought with it a Christian orientated type of education. The emphasis of this education is more on formal education.

Pius (1936: 26) writes that "since, however the younger generation must be trained in the arts and sciences for the advantage and prosperity of civil society ... it was necessary to create that social institution, the school". Hence the school was developed for the formal education of the child (*Van Schaalkwyk 1979: 33*).

There are no separate schools for traditional and Western-oriented Black children. The school is a major agent of socialisation and since the school system and curriculum in Black education are identical regardless of the location of the school, similar value orientations are imparted to the young people who go through school.

The Black adolescent finds himself between two sources of socialisation namely, home and the school. Parents expect them to retain their home identity whereas the school, explicitly or implicitly, encourages conformity to school life (*Disasa 1988: 17*).

3.5.1 The family as the educationally interested structure

Van Schalkwyk (1979: 35) says that the family must be a true community of love for the adolescent. It must take care of the adolescent. It is the task of the family to support and aid the child in his growth towards maturity. Basic education takes place in the family. But since the family is not structured for the complete opening up of the child, it depends on the school. The relationships an adolescent has with his community are to a greater extent influenced by the relations he has with his family. The parent, by sending the child to school, takes the responsibility of cooperating with the school in the education of the child. There should be regular contact between the home and the school. In other words, the parent must be responsible and support the school and on the other hand, the school must be willing for the parent to watch over the quality and spirit of its activities. The rights of the child should be acknowledged.

Unfortunately, from the researcher's own practical experience and observations as a teacher and Principal, the parental duties noted in the foregoing paragraph are to a lesser degree applicable to Black parents. Only the elite, professionally and/or academically qualified parents, take it upon themselves to support the school honestly, to motivate their children and to exercise authority over their children. The majority of parents leave all responsibility of educating the child to the school. After paying school funds, the parent places himself in the background and expects the school to accept full responsibility for the child (compare Garbers 1971: 100).

It is sometimes disheartening to realise that some parents do not know in what standards their children are; they are only interested in knowing if the child has passed or failed. Should a child fail, it is said that the teachers are lazy and do not do their job, but if their children pass, they are very clever children. These remarks have a bearing on the attitude of the child towards the school.

The parent is rarely seen at school. Even during big sport days and other important functions, where the parent is expected to attend and applaud his own child, they are nowhere to be found.

An indication of the total abdication of responsibility and authority over the child by the parents is demonstrated by the fact that if a child does something wrong at home, the parent will always remark "Is that what you are taught at school?" The parent threatens to report the child to the school to be reprimanded. Should there be a parents' meeting and a civic meeting at the same time, parents will usually attend the civic meeting instead of the parents' meeting.

Lack of support by the parents is also indicated by the bad remarks they pass about the school and teachers in front of their children. These remarks dent the image of the school as a whole and they inculcate negative attitudes in the children towards the school. The lack of communication between the teacher and the parents causes problems for the child, because he finds himself in the middle, not knowing exactly whose ideals and goals to follow. Raymont (*Ripinga 1976: 111*) concurs and says that "nothing can be more demoralising to the child than lack of unity and harmony between his home life and his school life". In this way, the adolescent develops a sense of insecurity, conflict and frustration. He then forms a poor self-image that leads to numerous problems concerning scholastic performance, self-actualisation, behaviour and discipline.

3.5.2 The school as educationally qualified structure

In the previous paragraph it was suggested that the Black adolescent feels like a stranger in the school because he sees no connection between his home and the school. It is, therefore, the duty of the school to help the adolescent realise that school is important to him. He must be involved in the work and activities of the school, and be brought into the mainstream of school life.

His learning activities must challenge rather than frustrate him. He must be helped to achieve status within the group. Through classroom activities and sports, he should be given the opportunity to identify closely with the school. The support he gets from his teachers and peers will cause him to think of himself in a certain way as a student. Motivation which will lead him to improved academic achievement will be generated.

Mention has been made that there are no separate schools for traditional and Western-oriented Black adolescents. It was also mentioned that the education system and curriculum are identical regardless of the location of the school. The researcher would also like to bring to the attention of the reader that the education of the Black as in the case of the White children in this country is based on Christianity. The school setting, activities and the core-syllabi for various subjects followed by both population groups are similar. Minor prevalent differences are based on interest, aims, culture and attitudes.

In the subsequent paragraphs, the researcher will attempt to examine how the Black adolescent gets involved in his own learning, his relationships within the school, and his attitudes towards education.

3.5.2.1. The adolescent in relation with the learning process

In paragraph 2.8.1.2, mention was made that the curriculum is organised on a subject-basis, and that subject-matter is sometimes selected because it is necessary for understanding something else or because it might come in useful later. Rutter (1983: 7) supports this view by saying that "young people must acquire the basic skills but also they must know how to apply the skills in their everyday life ... one of the main educational objectives must be learning how to learn, how to acquire new knowledge and how to evaluate new claims and new discoveries."

For most Black adolescents the subject-matter is difficult to understand due to lack of teaching aids such as maps and charts, specimens and models, slides and film strips, over-head projectors and tape recorders and other necessary facilities like laboratories, for the teaching of certain key subjects. Therefore, the subject-matter is meaningless and the adolescent fails to understand why he should study such subjects. The adolescent, for the sake of examinations, resorts to memorisation. Through memorisation, he is able to score very high marks, but the memorised material remains meaningless (compare *Garbers 1971: 100*). Although the subject-matter may be difficult to comprehend, most adolescents work very hard at schoolwork and have the desire to achieve. Their concepts or ideas of themselves as learners still remain important to them. They are constantly engaged in judging themselves and failure has a significant effect on their self-images.

3.5.2.2 The adolescent in relation with the teachers

The teacher is a professional role model for the pupils. His personal example will influence value systems, dress, time-keeping and behaviour. The personal qualities and competence of the teacher affects learning. Personal qualities also affect how well a teacher is received by the adolescents. Successful teachers are always energetic, self-confident, concerned, humanitarian and innovative. The best-liked teachers are warm, friendly and emotionally involved with their pupils, while the least liked are sarcastic, strict and moralistic. The adolescent in most cases likes teachers who are fair, who know and are enthusiastic about their subject-matter, who will help with both school work and other problems (*Garbers 1971: 34*). Payne (*De Villiers 1989: 52*) mentions that the adolescent likes and works cooperatively with a teacher who takes an interest in him as a person and who wants to know if he is getting on, not just in his work, but also in other things in which he is interested. This type of a relationship is healthy and the adolescent becomes happy and excited about the school. In order to influence the adolescent positively, the teacher has to strive for the improvement of the adolescent's mental health. The

adolescent at school has some fears regarding his school work. He fears the teachers, examinations, talking in front of the class, and so on. All these fears are destructive to progress in school and normal personal development. They are all learned from experiences in school.

Impatience and sarcastic remarks about the pupil's work generate worse manners and are always emotionally disruptive. The Black adolescent usually retaliates and exchanges words with the teacher. In some serious instances, adolescents assault their teachers.

Fear of examinations arises when teachers stress the police functions of examinations instead of their educational function. This fear prevents learning and the adolescent adopts a negative attitude towards tests and examinations. No wonder, when they are told about test-writing, they keep on asking for a postponement. This suggests that tests and examinations should be handled with great care. To maintain sound teacher-adolescent relationships, the teacher should praise those who pass and encourage those who fail. Fear of talking in class is common among adolescents. It is the duty of the teacher to eliminate this fear by accommodating all pupils and by making classwork more informal and by helping those pupils who are apprehensive.

The teacher, in order to control and work harmoniously with the adolescent, has to know him thoroughly. He has to know his home background, and he has to keep accurate records of his progress. The teacher must interact with the parents and community. The teacher in this way gains respect from the adolescent because he is aware that the teacher knows everything about him. He also realises that the teacher may even tell his parents about his behaviour.

3.5.2.3 The peer-groups at school

Peer group pressures make a considerable impact on the adolescent's attitude towards schoolwork. If a Black adolescent wants to aim higher than his friends, he may have to leave them. He may become an isolate, or he may endeavour to make new friends. Isolation is very painful among Black adolescents since traditionally, all children feel important in any group and, therefore, feel worthy when they belong to a group. It is understood that children represent larger adult groups, be they family or ethnic groups, urban or rural.

Peer group acceptance in the school situation is very important since it is related to academic success. If the adolescent is poorly accepted by the peer group, he is likely to underachieve. His obsession about his peer group will be at the expense of his school work.

The peer group's values and norms exert an important influence on the adolescents' life, development and behaviour (*Garbers 1971: 91*). In a school where extracurricular activities are valued more than academic success, adolescents are likely to underachieve. In Black education there are those schools who have a good reputation throughout the year because of excellent achievement in sports, music, drama, athletics and so on. The whole complexion changes when the end of year academic results are announced.

Neil Jardine (*The Star 23 October 1990: 24*) has advised parents in this regard and said that "schools should therefore be selected according to the need of a particular individual child ... what is the point in sending a sensitive child interested in writing poetry to a school which has elevated rugby to the level of a pseudo-religion? What is the point in sending a child who is very competitive and physical with respect to sport to a school which denigrates aspects of games?" This statement implies that at the end of the day, what is important is the education the child acquires at school.

3.5.2.4 The Black adolescent's aspiration for education

Schneier (*Gordon 1986: 73*) points out that education is the most important force underlying upward mobility for Blacks and is strongly influenced by the socio-economic status of the family. Because of the poor socio-economic status of the Blacks, education is viewed as something beneficial not just to the individual who is being educated but also to the family and relatives. The adolescent's educational goal entails a personal commitment to assume the responsibility of educating the younger members of the family and to support his parents. The adolescent may, for example, wish one day to build a beautiful house for his parents.

All reasonable Black parents and pupils realise that climbing the ladder is only possible through hard work and perseverance. The pain of hunger, the lack of adequate clothes to keep away the bitter cold, and the lack of adequate basic educational materials are among obstacles encountered. These are compensated for by the children's willingness and determination to endure hardships to make the most of what educational opportunities they have. Schools have the responsibility to transmit knowledge and develop academic competence, develop social skills and relationships, transmit cultural heritages, prepare the young for vocational and business roles, develop personal attributes and moral character, prepare the young for all their future adult roles (*Fuhrmann 1986: 126*). It is from this point of view that the Black adolescent adopts positive attitudes towards learning because he believes education can lead him out of ignorance and poverty.

The parents encourage their children to obtain an education because they did not have the opportunity of going to school, hence their low status in life.

The Black adolescent regards education as very important because he believes it develops to the highest degree those qualities of personality and mind that allow an individual to participate broadly and deeply, cognitively and otherwise in the life experience. Regrettably, the post-apartheid society is fraught with riots, strikes and student unrests, which have brought a great change to the adolescent's life and behaviour. The adolescent is involved in the political upheavals in the townships. The slogan "Liberation before education" (*The Star* 8 January 1991: 3), has negated the good culture of learning.

The culture of violence prevalent in the post-apartheid society is appalling. It is especially distressing to notice that teachers also go on strike. Obviously this is not conducive to learning and studying. The teacher's actions have a negative influence on pupil-identity formation.

Black education has been retarded by the culture of violence and a variety of problems in the townships. In order to restore the good culture of learning, the entire community should be involved. A recipe for success, may be to help adolescents reorder their priorities, to know God, to respect their elders, authority and their fellow-man. Ndaba (*The Star* 12 January 1991: 3) believes in discipline. He says "without discipline you can't have education. Parents must also discipline their children, for today's violent children are the leaders of tomorrow. Discipline is certainly a function of the school but it must begin at home. In a post apartheid society we will need schools, colleges and pupils who can play a meaningful role." Therefore despite all problems, education will have to go on.

3.6 SYNTHESIS

Concentration in this chapter has been on the Black adolescent. Formation of relationships in both the traditional and Western-oriented milieus were pointed out. In the discussion of the Black adolescent, it became clear that there are similarities and

differences between him and the Western adolescent as discussed in chapter two.

There are basically no differences in the physical development of the Western and the Black adolescent. Noticeable differences are due to socio-economic and genetic features. The Western adolescent's development is categorised according to stages namely, early adolescence, middle adolescence and late adolescence. This division based on chronological stages is unknown in the Black culture. Attainment of puberty among Blacks is followed by ceremonies or rituals which automatically promote the child into the adult world.

Mention has been made that the Black traditional family plays an important role in the transmission of education to the child by the senior members of the family. The education at home emphasises the perpetuation of norms and values by equipping the children with the traditional values of their fathers who have similarly inherited them from their fathers. The Western-oriented Black family is marked by continued absence of the parent from home due to employment. This absence results in a communication breakdown between the parent and the adolescent.

The Western adolescent peer group is organised around cliques. Cliques play a vital role in structuring the adolescent's social activities. Cliques provide the adolescent with a sense of identity, by serving as a basis of comparison or reference group. The relationships within the traditional Black adolescent peer group (the circumcision school or at the regiment) are strong. At the circumcision school and the regiment, the adolescent's selfishness, bad temper and other faults are constantly checked. The knowledge gained in this type of an encounter is important for him as an individual and for the community in which he lives. The Black adolescent identifies himself with the peer group and his sense of belonging is reinforced.

Adolescents who engage themselves freely in sexual relationships fall pregnant and may have to leave school. Pre-marital sexual intercourse has resulted in many illegitimate children being born to adolescent girls. These unmarried adolescent mothers later return to school and expect to be treated differently from other girls. Their pupil identity formation is diffused because at times they regard themselves as mothers and at others as students. The scholastic performance of most of these adolescent girls is poor.

The Western and the Black adolescent share their parents' religious views. The more religion is stressed in the home, the more favourable are adolescents' attitudes towards religion. Differences in the religious views of adolescents and parents should not be considered as a rejection of the parents' religion. However, Black Christian parents and adolescents come into conflict on the issue of sexual intercourse before marriage. Some of them indulge in sexual 'experimentation', hence there are unmarried mothers within Christian homes.

The school aspect of the Black adolescent's life-world is similar to that of the Western adolescent, more especially with regard to the school setting, activities in school and the core-syllabi for various subjects. The school curriculum is organised on a subject basis. The subject-matter is selected because it is either necessary for understanding something else or because it might come in useful later. However, the immediate concern of the adolescent is whether he succeeds or fails. The feeling of success or failure has a significant effect on the adolescent's self-image.

In a pedagogical situation, the adolescent enters into relationships with a supportive adult, the teacher. The teacher's personal qualities and competence affects the learning of the adolescent. Since he is a professional role model, his personal example influences value systems and behaviour. Teachers who strive for the improvement of their pupils' mental health contribute significantly to the adolescent's personal development and

scholastic progress.

Education is regarded by the Black adolescents as a weapon that will take them out of ignorance and poverty. Through education, adolescents will be able to assume their future adult roles with much responsibility and accountability. Unfortunately, Black adolescents' aspirations for education have been disturbed by the political upheavals in the Black townships. The culture of defiance and violence adopted by both adolescents and teachers has created a climate uncondusive to learning and studying.

In order to curb this violence and to restore the culture of learning adolescents should be taught to reorder their priorities and to establish a sound relationship with God, to respect their elders, authority and their fellow man. Discipline should be exercised at home as well as at school.

The next chapter will deal with the Black adolescent's pupil-identity formation.

CHAPTER 4

IDENTITY FORMATION DURING THE ADOLESCENT YEARS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter three, the researcher attempted to point out similarities and differences between the traditional Black adolescent and the Western oriented Black adolescent. The Black adolescent's formation of relationships with the family, peer group and the school were discussed.

In this chapter, the essences concerning the concept of identity formation of the Black adolescent will be reviewed. The way in which the Black adolescent experiences himself physically, sexually, vocationally, socially, morally and religiously will be discussed in relation to identity formation.

Erikson's theory will be outlined. Emphasis will fall on the fifth stage of identity formation versus role confusion. Since identity formation does not begin or end in adolescence but is a continuum from childhood consisting of various stages, it will be necessary to briefly look at the first four stages as well.

Factors influencing the way pupil-identity is experienced and developed will be discussed. The way in which the adolescent's becoming and learning is influenced, will also be examined.

4.2 ACQUISITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF IDENTITY

The word 'identity' stems from an ancient Greek word which originally meant 'face', but later extended to mean 'mask'. Its

meaning eventually expanded to include 'role' (*Gerdes et al.* 1981: 71).

McCall-Simmons (*Weigert 1986: 14*) focused on "role-identity which is the character and the role that an individual devises for himself as an occupant of a particular social position".

An identity is also defined in terms of the ideology with which it is associated. An ideology is a set of rules, beliefs, attitudes, values and behaviour prescriptions, usually for a particular role (*Lerner et al.* 1980: 478). Along with any role goes a role-defining ideology. The adolescent has to be committed to a role, which in turn means showing commitment towards an ideology. A sense of identity is achieved if the adolescent finds his or her role in society.

Successful identity formation occurs when the young person is able to say to himself, "This is what interests me and what I value", when he knows what he wants from life, as well as knowing where he fits into society and what others expect from him (*Gerdes et al.* 1981: 74).

It is important to mention that a child's emerging sense of identity is built on foundations of his earliest and most primary identification with people (or a person) most meaningful to him (*Hamachek 1979: 91*). The most important task of adolescence is the achievement of identity. To achieve identity means to have a realistic self-concept that includes both physical and cognitive mastery of the environment and social recognition within society (*Fuhrmann 1986: 306*). One of the main psychological functions of a sense of identity is to provide a sense of inner self-sameness and continuity, to bind the past, the present and the future into a coherent whole (*Cottle 1977: 297*).

The school, the peer group and the social community play major roles in the development of identity. The adolescent looks forward to adulthood, and he scrutinises adult models. The adolescent

attains a kind of semi- and transitional autonomy which differs from that of the child but which allows him to identify with and imitate a great variety of outside models (*Wall 1977: 29*).

4.3 ERIKSON'S THEORY

According to Erikson (*1969*) psychological development is a continuous process, each phase or stage being a part of a continuum.

Erikson (*Stern & Eichorn 1989: 263*) says that success in achieving an identity is aided by a relatively dependable store of trust, autonomy, initiative and industry. Each of these four phases contributes to the formation of the next phase, but also contributes directly to the establishment of a well-defined identity (*Bester 1990b: 13; Dreyfus 1976: 10*).

Langeveld (*1960*) mentions that there are four principles guiding the psychic development of the child. These principles are:

- the biological moment
- principle of helplessness
- principle of security and
- the principle of exploration, which includes the principle of emancipation.

These principles support the first four stages of Erikson's theory of psychological development. If, in the process of development, one principle hinders progress of psychic development, then the development of the child will be disturbed (*Sonnekus & Ferreira 1981: 168*).

4.3.1 A short overview of Erikson's stages of psychological development

4.3.1.1 Trust versus mistrust (0 - one year)

The infant in this stage is faced with one psychosocial task, that of developing a sense of basic trust in the environment and himself. The sense of trust is "the corner stone of the vital personality" (*Erikson 1968: 97*). Basically, the establishment of trust emanates from the satisfaction of the child's needs. This basic trust provides the child with confidence of stepping forward into the outer world (*Dreyfus 1976: 10*). An adolescent who experienced the conditions for trust during infancy enters the world with fundamental hope; one who did not, enters the world with a sense of doom (*Fuhrmann 1986: 301*).

4.3.1.2 Autonomy versus shame and doubt (one to three years)

The child develops self-control, will and mutual interaction with his parents. He is capable of exerting power over his own body and other people. He wants to do things for himself and may refuse whatever an adult suggests. These actions are characteristic of the need to express an autonomous will (*Fuhrmann 1986: 301*). The child who has experienced satisfactory trust in his life, will be ready to act independently and to make independent decisions (*Erikson 1974: 110*).

A sense of independence and a spirit of adventure are necessary conditions for adequate identity formation during the adolescent years.

4.3.1.3 Initiative versus guilt (three to five years)

Spencer, Dobbs & Swanson (*1988: 118*) say that the crisis of this stage (initiative versus guilt) suggests that something happens in the person's mind that precedes and influences action. After the child has evaluated a situation and possible outcomes, it is his own self-esteem or personal identity that will influence the course of action taken.

If a child is given freedom to explore and experiment, tendencies towards initiative will be encouraged. The child can find out who he is and what he is capable of doing if he has a certain amount of freedom to do so without feeling guilty about it (*Erikson 1974: 115*). It is during this period that the child intrudes himself into other people's lives and thoughts. If he is punished for his intrusions, he may develop guilt and perceive himself as evil. This feeling may have a negative effect on his identity formation during the adolescent years.

4.3.1.4 Industry versus inferiority (five to 12 years)

The child in this stage is eager to make things and to make things work. Erikson (*1968: 86*) feels that the child should be encouraged to be productive and encouraged to complete activities he has initiated.

Kroger (*1989: 25*) describes industry as "an apprenticeship to life". It is from this apprenticeship that a feeling of competence and achievement results. Children who learn that they are skilful tend to take the sense of competence with them through adolescence; those who learn failure early tend to carry the sense of inferiority through adolescence.

4.3.1.5 Identity versus role confusion (12 to 18 years)

In this fifth stage the child is expected to know himself, to know who he is and his way forward. This phase has been preceded by four earlier stages, each having a necessary place in the task of building an identity. During each phase an aspect of the person's identity is formed (*Erikson 1974: 180*). The success of each phase contributes to a healthy achievement of identity during this fifth stage (*Bester 1990a: 95; Kroger 1989: 19; Stern et al. 1989: 277*).

According to Erikson (*1968: 89*) in order to find identity the adolescent has three major factors to contend with, namely:

physical growth, including appearance, sexual maturation and its accompanying urges, and the adolescent's desired perspective on his function as an adult member of society (*Thornburg 1973: 3*).

For successful identity resolution, the adolescent has to be faithful and committed. Commitment means adoption of an ideology (attitudes, values, beliefs) that coincides with the behavioural prescriptions for one's adopted role or occupation (*Lerner et al. 1980: 347*). According to Lloyd (*1985: 270*) commitment is the most significant aspect of identity formation because it provides adolescents with a framework by which to integrate the various aspects of identity: self-concept, sex role and sexuality, occupational aspirations and related life style choices.

The adolescent aims at the achievement of a hierarchy of roles or selves. His behaviour is interpreted in terms of a search for identity or a series of identities (*Wall 1977: 29*).

- Aspects of identity formation during the adolescent years with special reference to the Black adolescent.

The physical self (body-image) is very important during adolescence. Basic physical changes (as mentioned in paragraph 2.2.1) are taking place. These changes threaten the feeling of self-consistency and the adolescent needs support and time to integrate these changes into a positive self-confident personal identity (*Bergh 1984: 3*). Flemming (*1967: 150*) points out that the adolescent in this stage of bodily changes can be assisted by the patience and serenity of adults who attach no undue significance either to physical divergencies or to adolescents experimenting with hair oils, cosmetics and so on. The adolescent may be comforted by the assurance that asymmetrical growth is but a passing phase.

The adolescent's view of himself changes with the developmental changes his body undergoes. How he views himself in regard to his build and his neatness will determine his self-identity.

If he is satisfied with the condition of his body he will develop a positive self-concept (*Matseke 1981: 137*). Failure to experience satisfaction causes unfavourable self-concepts and a lack of self-esteem during the adolescent years.

The adolescent is sensitive about his own appearance and often experiences anxiety about his own imperfections. He may regard his body image as attractive or unattractive, strong or weak. If he accepts himself as attractive and strong, then he adopts a positive self-concept. If he, on the other hand, views himself as unattractive and weak, then it means he is dissatisfied with his body and he will feel bad about himself. Hart (*1988: 111*) points out that adolescents believe that the "physical qualities of self are most central for preserving a personal identity."

Dreyfus (*1976: 153*) mentions that dress, grooming and material possessions are closely related to physical characteristics. If the adolescent does not have clothes that are like those of other adolescents, his self-esteem is decreased. Inner self-depreciation is indicated by the neglect of his personal appearance.

According to Matseke (*1981: 138*) the adolescent "esteems his body according to how significant it is to him. A strong, healthy body is very significant to an athlete much as a light mass is significant to a tennis player or a dancer. Whatever significance one attaches to one's body - its shape, its beauty and its health - one gives it a meaning according to one's subjective standards."

- The sexual self versus identity formation

A well-established sexual identity is very important during the adolescent phase. Most adolescents experience a rather sudden awareness of themselves and their bodies. In most cases the adolescent has not attained full understanding of his sexuality.

Boys' genital organs assume special meaning during adolescence. The first ejaculation makes them wonder and worry that there is something physically wrong with them. This may result in them developing poor self-identity. However, once these uncertainties and worries are cleared, the phenomenon of ejaculation and erection becomes a proof of masculinity. This influences his male sexual behaviour.

For a girl menstruation is a symbol of sexual maturing of her future status as a woman. However, because of the physical discomforts which accompany menstruation, some girls react negatively to it. Therefore, the attitude developed towards ejaculation in boys and menstruation in girls may affect how they relate to others at given times (*Brown et al. 1981: 20*).

For the traditional Black adolescent, first ejaculation and menstruation mark the beginning of adulthood. The appearance of these signs qualifies the adolescent to undergo certain ceremonies which will strip off his childhood and prepare him for adulthood. After these ceremonies have been performed, boys and girls are expected to enjoy sexual experiences and have reached the status of matured males and females. The identity formed is that of a man or woman. It is a serious offence to refer to such an adolescent as a 'boy' or 'girl'. The whole community knows their status and will address them as such.

- The vocational self versus identity formation

A sense of industry allows the possibility of vocational commitment in adolescence. Adolescents who see themselves as deficient may exhibit a sense of futility either in school or on a job (*Stein et al. 1985: 10*)

The adolescent, in his search for self-identity and inner stability, needs the help of his educators (parents and teachers). It is imperative for the adolescent to accept the

authority and responsibility of his educators. He is also compelled to be obedient (*Erikson 1963: 326*). To be obedient to his educators helps him work towards the future and make an occupational choice. The adolescent also has a growing concern about the intellectual self which is often tied to academic success and educational orientation. Success in school is one valid criterion for determining future educational plans (*Thornburg 1973: 28*).

The adolescent wants to select a career and prepare himself for a satisfying vocation. The vocation should provide him with economic independence (*Wall 1977: 31*). In South Africa many Black children are brought up in overcrowded homes and in environments where there is inadequate provision of basic requirements relating to health, electricity, educational facilities, and job opportunities. Black children are often left unsupervised (by their parents) and normal family life is unknown to them. This disadvantaged position urges the adolescent to strive for a vocation that will provide him with economic independence. Black children who suffer severe income deprivation assume more work responsibilities both in and outside the home from an early age. They formulate occupational goals at an earlier age and seem to acquire a clearer sense of identity with less conflict.

- The social self versus identity formation

This is the self as one thinks others view one. It has an important effect on one's behaviour. Without friends, peer groups or family to reflect his wishes, attitudes and feelings, the adolescent will remain a stranger to himself. His social life demands that he becomes sensitive to the needs and feelings of others. He must acquire some degree of empathy and understanding in his inter-personal relationships (*Lambert et al. 1978: 16*).

According to *Le Roux (1989: 71)* the adolescent within the social context of the school is obliged and compelled to recognise, accept and to respect the identities of others. Wolff (*Le Roux 1989: 71*) emphasises this view and says "in as far as a person's identity becomes progressively established in the context of his relationship with other people, respect for his own identity needs to carry with it respect for the identity of others."

Matseke (*1981: 140*) points out that the way of life of a community is ordered by moral values which are respected and esteemed by the community. These values are internalised by the people of a culture. Each average growing child in a community is expected to develop these moral values. The moral self is that dimension of the child's life which manifests his moral behaviour.

Black children in many situations in South Africa organise themselves and work out their own morals, values and life-styles, in an attempt to escape the limits set by the adult community.

These children attempt to establish new patterns of socialisation and live lives that are commensurate with their needs. On the streets, they are known as street children or gangsters. Their major requirements become food, warmth, safety, companionship, enjoyment and intoxicants. According to Hickson et al. (*1989: 90*) street children are "frequently seen engaging in brutalising behaviour towards members of their peer group. This kind of behaviour is also evident in their interactions with those in so-called authority. For example, when intimidated, their response is frequently to attack, and they show very little or no respect for authority."

Black children whose lives are disrupted by violence have adopted a culture of resistance. At schools effective

teaching has become impossible because of the arrogant, defiant pupils who often bring guns to school (*City Press 6 January 1991: 1*). For a new and better post-apartheid society, there is a need for positive change in the attitude and behaviour of Black adolescents. Parents, teachers and pupils should develop mutual trust and respect and work together for the upliftment of society.

* The family versus identity formation

Conger (1991: 22) points out that the ease with which adolescents are able to achieve a clear sense of identity depends on the kinds of relationship they have had and continue to have with their parents. Dreyfus (1976: 12) concurs by saying that a healthy adolescent self-image is a product of a good balance between affection and control on the part of the parents.

According to Matseke (1981: 48) the self-concept and self-identity that the Black adolescent will develop later in life depend to a great extent on how his parents, sisters and brothers view him. Their attitude and practices, the models they present to him, the cultural patterns and values they hand down to him, as well as their socio-economic status, will all influence the child's concept of himself.

In their research on identity formation of Black adolescents, Myburgh et al. (1989: 128) discovered that there is a significant increase in the importance the adolescent attaches to the parents' opinion. The reason given is that the adolescent experiences an increasing uncertainty regarding his exposure to the adult world. This forces him to depend more on his parents. However, because of the culture of defiance adopted by the Black South African adolescent, it is imperative for researchers to check whether Black adolescents still attach significant meaning to the parents' opinions.

The Black male adolescent identifies more with the parent's personality than with the father's career. Shade (1983: 145) says that fathers seem to function best in the development of sex roles orientation for males and educational achievement for girls. In general, a positive identification with the parent denotes healthy relationships between the parents and the adolescent.

* The peer group versus identity formation

During adolescence there is an increasing desire for closeness with others of the same sex. The adolescent attempts to establish some security by developing best friends (*Brown et al.* 1981: 19). For the person to discover himself or herself as an individual, he or she must be able to place the self in relationship with other selves (*Ackermann* 1990: 284). Successful identity is achieved through involvement with others. Through the support of peers, the adolescent is able to gain involvement and establish an identity.

Peer groups provide the adolescent with a sense of identity by serving as a basis of comparison or reference group (*Steinberg* 1985: 166-167). Adolescents also form judgements about their own abilities by comparing themselves to peer group members (compare *Wagner* 1971: 55). Peer groups also serve as a reference group by providing their members with an identity through the eyes of other adolescents.

Members of the traditional Black peer group spend much of their time together. They are recognised by their elders as a group. This group identifies itself by performing certain duties, like herding and bird scaring. They have special names which are given at the initiation school or

at the regiment. They identify themselves with those names.

Myburgh et al. (1989: 124) state that the peer group often "creates opportunities for new-sprung interpretation of existing principles and thus plays the role of sounding board to the maturing adolescent." It is in the peer group that the adolescent becomes willing to hold an own point of view. The opinion of the peer group during adolescence often carries more weight than that of adults.

The violence experienced, especially in the metropolitan cities, is an indication of the changed climate in the peer group. Violence affects the adolescent's sense of well-being, creating anxiety and distress (*City Press 28 October, 1990: 9*).

The adolescent's psychological stress, "spilled into classrooms, affecting teaching and learning" (*City Press, 3 February, 1991: 10*). The adolescent has become militant and has adopted a culture of "anti-school". A great number of young people believe their schools are inferior and thus attempt to destroy them (*The Star 7 January 1991: 8*). Classrooms and schoolgrounds have been usurped by those who hold learning in contempt and, more seriously, classrooms have become fertile soil for mass mobilisation (*Sunday Times 13 January 1991: 16*).

Attempts have to be made by parents, political and educational organisations to stop classroom disruptions and to inculcate the spirit of childhood back into our children.

* Adolescent's social roles versus identity formation

Society expects adolescents to play a 'role' in society. Society wants to know how a soon-to-be adult person will contribute to society's maintenance. Society wants to know how the adolescent will adopt those socially prescribed sets of behaviour which are considered to be functional for the adaptive maintenance of society. The growing and developing adolescent is seriously concerned with attempts at consolidating his social roles. In other words he must try to find an orientation to life that meets both individual and societal demands. He has to search for a set of behavioural prescriptions that fulfil the social demand of life (*Lerner et al. 1980: 338*). A sense of identity is achieved after he is able to consolidate his social roles.

The Black adolescent's acceptance by society depends mainly on "his achievements which may include those in all walks of life, from being friendly, humorous and lovable to his excellence in sports and scholastic achievement" (*Matseke 1981: 49*). Society believes that such an adolescent will take his rightful place and work towards the benefit of the whole society. No society will benefit from the chaotic state of affairs in our townships, which have disrupted normal life. To have a meaningful future, attempts have to be made to get education back on track with parents, teachers and community leaders assuming their leadership roles.

The adolescent of the anticipated new South Africa is expected to develop his leadership potential and to acquire a sense of self-discipline and self-respect. This adolescent must receive a well balanced education, if post-apartheid society will benefit by him. Education provided should aim to equip him with thorough understanding of the present day problems and in so doing, prepare him for building a new and better society.

Technical education is important for the economic future of the new South Africa. A society that possesses scientists, engineers, technicians and professionals has overcome the fundamental impediments to prosperity. However, note has to be taken that our schools, universities, technical colleges and so on, should aim to develop a positive identity in all adolescents in the post-apartheid society. Should the identity formed be negative, then our educational efforts will not bear fruits.

- Moral and religious self versus identity formation

The adolescent has to acquire a set of ideas, ideals, principles and a value system on which to base his behaviour (*Wall 1977: 31*). Adolescents without a value system to guide their thoughts and actions will always find themselves frustrated. Adolescents recognise the fact that despite variations in thought and mood, they have a stable personality or basic nature. They recognise the same trait in others. This new awareness in early adolescence enables them to channel empathy in order to help others overcome causes of chronic distress.

Many adolescents are indoctrinated in the religious beliefs of their parents. By late adolescence some of them begin to change their conventional orientation towards religious identity (in which they merely accept the religious beliefs of others). They think about developing their own religious identities (*Sanrock 1984: 543*). They understand that they can make their own decisions about religion. Many adolescents develop a pseudo-autonomy from the family by replacing the family with other groups, such as a fraternity or religious group.

The traditional Black child is immersed in religious participation throughout his life. His life-world is flooded

with rites and ceremonies. Religious ideas and practices are an integral part of his daily life. He strongly believes that his moral values are given to him by God. Traditional life-style is highly respected and valued. Hence, the adolescent identifies himself as a religious being.

The Western orientated Black adolescent's life-style is more or less similar to that of his white counterpart. He shares his parents' views. He takes part in religious activities such as church choirs, youth movements (Christian movements), fraternity or religious groups. He strongly identifies himself with the church, especially with the movements to which he belongs within the church.

South Africa is in a state of turmoil, despite the fact that parents, teachers and adolescents are committed to their religious beliefs or Christianity. Violence, boycotts and student militancy are experienced day and night.

In order to curb all forms of violence, the church as an apolitical movement has to bring a message of peace to all South Africans. Christian teachings and activities will have to be used in order to entice the adolescent from the culture of violence, and to restore humility, respect and love towards members of the community.

Church buildings can be used as after-school group study centres. Professionals like ministers, teachers, nurses and social workers should be invited to give general guidance and to conduct moral lessons to the adolescent. In this way the church will be regarded as an extension of their own daily lives. Local ministers of religion through their fellowship can also contribute enormously to the "re-building process" of our adolescents. Ministers on a rotational basis should be given an opportunity, at least once a week, to talk and preach to students during morning devotions. By so doing, they shall have complied with the commission of Jesus who said "go ... and teach them to obey everything I have commanded you" (*St Matthews 28: 19-20*).

4.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING PUPIL IDENTITY FORMATION

4.4.1 The school and pupil-identity formation

The school contributes to the adolescent's development of a pupil-identity. All adolescents approach school with a mixture of fear and hope, pride and anxiety. They have certain attitudes towards the school and school learning. They may vary in their receptiveness to new learning tasks and their ease with other peer group members and teachers. However, the attitude of the teacher towards the adolescent, the value the teacher places on him and a sense of being accepted by the teacher, will encourage the adolescent to develop a positive pupil-identity.

The adolescent views each school subject as a separate part of the total process of school and schooling. It is likely that adolescents develop a general attitude towards school and schooling which may influence their pupil-identity in terms of the learning tasks or subjects and courses within the school framework.

Schools create a setting in which the adolescent can be happy and yet challenged. Schools are a place to develop optimal personal and interpersonal attributes and maximise the person's ability to contribute to society. This implies that the adolescent must participate in his development and in his learning process.

It is, therefore, imperative that the factors playing a role in the adolescent's formation of a pupil-identity be established. In order to successfully identify himself with the school and its activities, the adolescent has to be pedagogically engaged. Vrey (1979: 28) refers to the factors influencing the pupil-identity formation as assignment of meaning, involvement, experience and self-actualisation.

4.4.2 Assignment of meaning and pupil identity formation

Assignment of meaning or significant attribution refers to the meaning given to things. The adolescent at school has to give meaning to the subject-matter, peer groups and teachers. He will then be in a position to know and understand that aspect of his life-world known as 'school'. Once he understands and knows, he will be in a position to construct meaningful relationships and develop his pupil-identity, which will be based on how he views himself in relation to learning, school and teachers, and how he views his learning in relation to the learning of other pupils in his class or school.

The relationships, concepts or ideas that have been understood, make learning meaningful. This view is held by Vrey (1979: 31) who says "meaning exists in the mind of someone who understands".

In some cases, the Black adolescent finds it difficult to understand the subject-matter taught at school. As a result, the subject-matter becomes meaningless and he fails to understand why he should study those subjects (compare *Garbers 1971: 100*). However, despite this shortcoming, the adolescent constantly engages himself with serious work and evaluates himself in terms of success or failure as a learner.

The conditions in our Black schools are such that children are prevented from performing according to their full potential. Nevertheless, all tests or examination results have a significant effect on the formation of a pupil-identity.

The Black adolescent understands and likes teachers who are interested in him as a person and who want to know if he is progressing, not just in his work, but also in other things in which he is interested. The adolescent assigns a special meaning to such a teacher and this makes him excited about school. This type of a relationship is healthy and influences the adolescent's pupil-identity positively.

The adolescent attaches meaning to his achievement. Good marks or positive remarks awarded by teachers, peers and parents influence his pupil-identity positively. The adolescent enjoys praise which encourages him. The pupil-identity formed will be positive. Gesell et al. (1971: 458) point out that such pupils have the attitude "I'm perfectly satisfied with school and even hate to think of graduating." In other words they know and understand the school milieu and have formed a positive pupil-identity.

4.4.3 Involvement and pupil-identity formation

Van Niekerk (1982: 3) mentions that to be involved implies that one is consciously concerned with the realities of the world. It is through involvement with the world that the adolescent's activities or actions define his identity. Brown et al. (1981: 17) say that successful identity is achieved through involvement with others. In other words the adolescent has to be involved in his learning process. In the process of learning he experiences his identity as a learner. Vrey (1979: 46) says "identity implies action and action implies identity".

In the school the adolescent is involved in various ways. He is involved in sports or athletics which give him pleasure and prestige. His self-image is elevated if he receives constant positive feedback from teachers and peer group. The positive feedback he receives from his teachers and peer group causes him to view himself as a good pupil. He develops a sense of adequacy with regard to school activities, and views himself as a learner in a positive light (compare Yule, Steyn, Soobiah & Davies 1983: 113).

A pupil has to be involved with learning matters before he can form a pupil identity (compare Swanepoel 1990: 98). According to Malulyck (1978: 360) "each pupil learns better when he is actively involved in the didactic situation." The greatest need among adolescents is the participation in the classroom (Yule et al. 1983: 112). Using pupils' own ideas is a special form of reinforcement which appears to be related to pupil achievement and

positive attitudes. The ideas may be used as a springboard to develop the discussion further. This technique involves pupils in the discussion. When a shy or withdrawn child makes a contribution, the teacher should try to use his ideas so that he feels he can continue to make contributions. In this way his pupil identity and morale will be reinforced (*Brown 1972: 125*).

In some of the Black secondary schools, adolescents are involved in leadership roles. They are given the opportunity to take responsibility and to participate in the running of the school. They hold posts as prefects, captains, chairmen of debating societies and so on. These activities involve the child and prepare him for adult leadership roles. These shared responsibilities between teachers and adolescents have proved helpful. The more they can achieve satisfaction through assuming roles of responsibility, the more likely they are to identify themselves with the school. According to Vrey (*1979: 274*) "the greater the scope for total involvement, the greater the likelihood of successful learning; and the more intense the involvement the stronger the influence of the learning activity upon the self-concept."

The adolescent's pupil-identity is formed by interpersonal contact with a competent teacher. This competent teacher is an important figure in the school life-world of the adolescent, since he has the ability to bring about positive pupil change (*Malulyck, 1978: 5*). His influence will result in a positive pupil identity.

According to Myburgh *et al.* (*1989: 129*) "the Black adolescent values the opinion of the teacher highly". This means that the teacher is a role model that influences his becoming and learning (*Bergh 1984: 60*). Unfortunately, Black teachers take advantage of the respect they enjoy from their pupils. Since the teachers are in a position to influence school children, it is easy to use the children in sustained campaigns of disruption.

Granted, there are valid reasons for teachers' resentment which lie behind these campaigns. But, if they have the interest of the children at heart, is it justifiable that they engage in "chalk-downs", intimidation, boycotts and political activities which disrupt the education of children?

Van der Merwe (*Sunday Times* 6 January 1991: 2) says "it is sad that children should be deprived of their right to be educated because of political grievances they are not responsible for." Surely, every sensible South African shares the same opinion.

Many teachers' negative attitude towards the school and the education system, expressed through strikes and sit-ins, has contributed towards a high failure rate in Black schools. Otherwise, under normal circumstances, pupils would perform to their full potential.

4.4.4 Experience and pupil-identity formation

Tyler (1950: 41) defines learning experience as "the interaction between the learner and the external conditions in the environment to which he can react. Learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student; it is through what he does that he learns ..." Wall (1971: 170) also points out that the image of the self is built up by one's interaction with parents, peers, teachers and by experiences of various kinds in and out of school. According to Matseke (1981: 38) "accumulation of experiences assist the child to gather more information about things and events and thereby enlarge and refined his initial concept." In other words the more a learning child is exposed to a wide variety of life situations, the more he learns.

In the child's experience, his pupil identity is reinforced by those activities which he believes he has done or can do successfully. The perception of what constitutes success is formed by the child against the background of evidence he has received from his involvement with the tasks, and from the teachers who are in any way connected with this task or similar tasks. According to

Gabela (1984: 9) any child who derives a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the teacher and the school he attends. This implies that the pupil identity of the child becomes increasingly positive.

Black secondary schools make attempts to increase the experiences of the adolescents by exposing them to environments beyond their neighbourhood. They get them outside their immediate surroundings by visiting museums, zoos, factories, farms and so on (compare Masitsa 1988:90). These excursions help them to widen their life-worlds. Since the Black adolescent is rarely offered such chances, these visits are a reason to stay at and like school. To him the school becomes a home that cares for him. The adolescent's pupil-identity is 'strengthened' by this type of experience.

4.4.5 Self-actualisation and pupil identity formation

Maslow (Hamachek 1979: 51) points out that self-actualisation is "the persons' drive to reach the potential that is within". Behr (1975: 5) interprets Maslow's explanation of self-actualisation as a need to achieve in accordance with the child's abilities. Meaningful self-actualisation is based on attribution of meaning, involvement and experience (Vrey 1979: 44).

Oosthuizen (1982: 21) points out that in the educational situation, assistance is given to the child in his self-actualisation. He is assisted "in his becoming what he can become, what he wants to become and what he ought to become". Pupil-identity formation is a pre-requisite for self-actualisation because the child can only be a self-actualiser if he has seriously committed himself as a scholar (compare Swanepoel 1990: 98).

Achieving success develops a sense of satisfaction. Satisfaction implies that the child is at least convinced that he has performed according to his potential. In paragraph 4.4.4, mention has been made that any child who derives a sense of satisfaction in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the school he attends.

In order to realise growth, development and achievement, adolescents depend on the help, support and motivation of their teachers at school. School achievement is a function of the total growth of the child. Through praise of his school work, the adolescent finds himself in a better position to actualise himself. Mussen, Conger & Kagan (*Matseke 1981: 43*) maintain that "the child whose school experience and interactions with the peers are constructive and rewarding and whose relationships with parents are favourable will develop a clearer self-image, increased competencies and enhanced self-esteem."

4.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PUPIL-IDENTITY FORMATION AND SCHOLASTIC ACHIEVEMENT

The child at school has all sorts of ideas about himself as a pupil. The manner in which he views himself as a learner obviously influences his performance in school. Hamachek (*1979: 312*) points out that "successful students are typically characterised by self-confidence, self-acceptance, feelings of adequacy and personal competence, and generally more stable feelings of positive self regard ... unsuccessful students are characterised by feelings of uncertainty, low self regard, self-derogatory attitudes, and inferiority feelings."

The influence of pupil-identity on the Black adolescent's scholastic achievement will be the matter under discussion in subsequent paragraphs. Concentration will be on the milieu, attitude towards himself and the school, and motivation as factors influencing his scholastic achievement.

4.5.1 The influence of milieu factors on scholastic achievement

4.5.1.1 The family

Educated and elite Black parents take it upon themselves to support the school in all respects. They motivate their children towards learning and exercise authority over them. The environment created

by the parents is stimulating. The attitude adopted by these parents towards education influences the scholastic performance of the pupils. Performance of pupils from families who do not care much about what the child does at school differs from the performance of children from the concerned families.

The socio-economic status of the Black family plays a major role in influencing scholastic performance. The majority of Blacks in South Africa belong to the lower socio-economic class. According to Botes (*Matseke 1981: 147*) pupils from a higher socio-economic class perform better than those from a lower socio-economic class (compare *Landsdown 1984: 83*). The educated parents fall within the category of the high socio-economic class because of their better incomes. These parents have higher aspirations for and educational expectations of their children. As a result, they provide a home background which facilitates learning at school. They also afford their children the opportunity to undertake educational tours which enrich their learning experience (*Matsitsa 1988: 90*). The inspiration, motivation and support of parents encourage the child to achieve at school.

4.5.1.2 The school

Welch, Anderson & Harries (*Monteith 1983: 6*) point out that there is a relationship between the experience of the teacher and scholastic achievement. An experienced teacher is concerned about the development of his pupils' self-concepts. He contributes to this by trying to improve the mental health of his pupils. He uses pupils' contributions in class, in such a way that they feel accepted members of the class. When a contribution is partly correct, the experienced teacher tries to use the correct part and ignores the remainder. This intelligent way of dealing with pupils is related to a pupil's achievement and positive attitudes (*Brown 1972: 125*).

The relationships formed by teacher and pupil influence the adolescent's pupil-identity. This implies that there is mutual understanding between them. People who understand each other, work together harmoniously and the intended objectives are achieved.

The adolescent assigns a special meaning to a teacher who is interested in him. According to Matseke (1981: 148) "pupil-teacher relationship is enhanced by the parent-teacher association or relationship. The pupil whose parents have contact with the school and the school teachers, regularly at parent-teacher meetings, will tend to improve in performance."

The method and discipline of the school also have a bearing on the scholastic achievement of pupils. "A good school will motivate pupils to study and develop a positive self-concept" (Matseke 1981: 148). Pupil-identity is influenced by the activities taking place at school. These activities will influence pupils' attitudes towards school work.

4.5.2 The influence of certain non-cognitive factors on scholastic achievement

4.5.2.1 The attitude of the pupil towards himself and learning

The pupil's self-concept influences his behaviour and performance. Walsh (*Oosthuizen et al.*, 1981: 123) points out that poor self-concept is responsible for the poor achievement of pupils with a high intellectual potential. The pupil with a positive self concept is self-confident, has high aspirations and does well. Caplin (Matseke 1981: 151) says "a low self-concept and aspirational level may contribute to a poor achievement and poor achievement may contribute to a low self-concept and aspirational level, and conversely, a higher self-concept and aspirational level may contribute to higher achievement and higher achievement may contribute to a higher self-concept and aspirational level."

According to Monteith (1983: 7) scholastic achievement is also influenced by the attitude of the pupil towards learning. A positive attitude towards the school and school learning, leads to better achievement.

Pupils with a positive pupil-identity are more likely to be involved in school life, and are more likely to rate their school and teachers more favourably. Bandura (*Gorman 1974: 370*) points out that once an attitude has been adopted, it will be activated into actual performance. This suggests that students will be more serious about their studies. Attitudes of adolescents towards education are also greatly influenced by their vocational interest. The adolescent knows for a fact that to reach that goal he has to work industriously.

In paragraph 3.5.1 mention was made that Black parents in most cases utter remarks which have a bearing on the attitude of the child towards the school. A parent who mentions to his children that their teachers are very lazy is influencing the attitude of the child towards the school. A parent who abdicates his responsibility and authority, also influences the attitude of the child negatively. Through such lack of parental support, the image of the school may be badly dented and negative attitudes are adopted. An adolescent who has adopted a negative attitude develops a sense of insecurity, conflict and frustration regarding the school. He forms a poor pupil-identity and this leads to poor self-actualisation.

Violence, boycotts and school disruptions experienced in South Africa, have resulted in the parents' loss of control of their children. Parents no longer ensure that children attend classes regularly and punctually. Children control themselves and abuse alcohol and drugs while parents are dumb-founded. Parents have lost hope and regard their children as a 'lost generation'.

Out of fear parents are reluctant to attend parents' meetings. In other words, the parents have become completely ignorant about

their children's school activities. The communication break-down between parent and child and parent and school, has developed a feeling among children that school programmes are unrelated to their way of life outside school and at home. This feeling has resulted in the development of a negative attitude towards the school. Hence, the pupil-identity formed is negative.

The relationships within the peer-groups also play a role in the formation of a pupil-identity. The adolescent who is poorly accepted by the peer-group at school, develops a poor pupil-identity. He begins to view the school as a place not fit for him and his attitude towards it deteriorates. His mental ability may be above average, but he is likely to underachieve. On the other hand, the adolescent who has adopted a positive attitude is enthusiastic, energetic and sociable. He does well in class and enjoys participation in other school activities.

4.5.2.2 Motivation

Adolescents from homes where education is given the highest priority are highly motivated. They are interested in their school work. They adopt good study habits and are highly committed to education. This commitment and dedication has a positive bearing on their becoming and learning.

The support and motivation of the teachers at school assist the adolescent to realise growth, development and achievement. Teachers' support and motivation coupled with praise, reinforces the adolescent's actualisation. Monteith (1983: 7) points out that pupils who are greatly motivated achieve better than those who are less motivated. Motivated pupils will form a positive pupil-identity. Pupils with a positive pupil-identity will achieve better than pupils with a negative pupil-identity.

According to Vrey (1979: 233) "success gives the pupil a feeling of personal achievement: he feels that he has a securer hold on reality ... and that his expectations as regards his adequate self are being fulfilled." Hamachek (1979: 257) mentions that "if

a student does fairly well in school ... he is more likely to be motivated towards selecting school-related activities."

The adolescent's pupil-identity is reinforced by those activities which he believes he has done successfully. A satisfied adolescent is well motivated and is enthusiastic. An enthusiastic adolescent will do well in class as well as in other school activities.

4.6 SYNTHESIS

In this chapter, the acquisition and development of identity has been discussed. Emphasis was given to identity formation and pupil-identity formation of the Black adolescent. Mention has been made that an adolescent's emerging sense of identity is built on foundations of his earliest and most primary identifications with people (or a person) most meaningful to him. One of the main psychological functions of a sense of identity is to provide a sense of inner-self-sameness and continuity, to bind together the past, the present and the future into a coherent whole.

The first four of Erikson's stages of development, namely: trust versus mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, initiative versus guilt and industry versus inferiority have been discussed, since they contribute towards the formation of an identity. Each stage of development contributes its own unique virtue to the human personality, namely faith or hope, willpower, purposefulness and efficiency.

The fifth stage, namely identity formation versus role confusion has been discussed at length. In order to find identity the adolescent has three major factors to contend with, namely physical growth, sexual maturity and the need to function as an adult member of society. The adolescent's behaviour is interpreted as a search for an identity or a series of identities. The relationship between physical, sexual, vocational, social, moral and religious selves and identity formation has been discussed. It was noted that in some instances, the Black adolescent and his white counterpart

display similarities and differences in the formation of identity. It has been found that both Black and White adolescent males identify more with the parent's personality than with the father's career. This positive identification with the parent generally denotes healthy relationships between the parents and the adolescent.

The adolescent's involvement with the members of his peer group helps him to establish an identity. During adolescence, peer-group opinion carries weight and in most cases the adolescent acts in accordance with the expressed opinion of his peers. The Western orientated Black adolescent life-style is similar to that of his white counterpart in that both have been indoctrinated in the religious beliefs of their parents. They share their parents' religious views.

The relationship the adolescent forms with school influences his pupil identity formation. To successfully identify himself with the school and its activities the adolescent has to be pedagogically engaged. Attribution of meaning, involvement, experience and self-actualisation have been identified as factors influencing the formation of pupil identity.

The importance of the factors has been pointed out as follows:

- * The adolescent who understands and knows, is in a position to construct meaningful relationships, and develops his pupil identity which will be based on how he views himself in relation to learning and the school as such.
- * The involvement of the adolescent in the didactic situation solidifies his pupil-identity.
- * The adolescent who experiences a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process develops a positive attitude towards school.

- * Meaningful self-actualisation is based on the positive attribution of meaning, motivated involvement and positive experience.
- * Pupil-identity formation is a pre-requisite for self-actualisation because the child can only be a self-actualiser if he has seriously committed himself as a learner or scholar.

The relationship between pupil-identity formation and scholastic achievement has been briefly outlined. The family and the school have been discussed as milieu factors influencing the adolescent's scholastic achievement. Various researchers have found that a sound home background facilitates learning at school. Parents' support, inspiration and motivation encourage the adolescent to actualise himself. The relationship formed by teachers and pupils lead to mutual understanding, respect and co-operation. This forms the basis of a sound relationship which will produce desired results. Sound discipline at school also has a great influence on pupils' scholastic achievement.

The adolescent's attitude towards himself, learning and motivation have been discussed as non-cognitive factors playing a role in his becoming and learning. The attitude of the adolescent towards himself and the school has a bearing on his scholastic performance. A negative attitude develops a sense of insecurity, conflict and frustration in the school situation. Pupils with poor self-concepts are underachievers despite their intellectual potential.

Success, approval and praise motivate the adolescent to perform even better. Praise is an incentive for self-actualisation. Motivated pupils form a positive pupil-identity and perform better than pupils with a negative pupil-identity.

The next chapter will deal with the design of the study and the resultant procedures.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature study on pupil identity formation and its resultant influence on the Black adolescent's becoming and learning have been explored in previous chapters. This research specifically aims at the determination of the factors influencing pupil identity formation, namely, the formation of relationships, the educational world of the Black adolescent and characteristics of the developmental phase which may influence pupil identity formation. The relationship between pupil identity formation and scholastic achievement has also been of interest to the researcher.

There is a need to develop a measuring instrument to determine pupil identity formation in the Black adolescent. The empirical data which is obtained through the use of such a measuring instrument can give scientific support to certain findings made in the literature study.

5.2 SUPPOSITIONS FROM THE LITERATURE

5.2.1 The developmental changes and the life-world of the Black adolescent

Research findings indicate that the first four stages of development according to Erikson namely, trust versus mistrust, autonomy versus shame and doubt, initiative versus guilt and industry versus inferiority, contribute towards the formation of an identity in the adolescent years. Each stage of development may contribute its own unique virtue to the human personality namely, faith or hope, willpower, purposefulness and efficiency and also contributes directly to the establishment of a well-defined identity (compare paragraph 4.3.1).

Research has indicated that during the fifth stage namely, Identity formation versus role confusion, the adolescent is faced with three major factors. These are his physical growth, sexual maturation and desired perspective on his function as an adult member of society. Commitment helps the adolescent towards a successful identity resolution. It provides the adolescent with a framework by which to integrate the various aspects of identity: self-concept, sex role and sexuality, occupational aspirations and related life style choices. It is also instrumental in the formation of either a positive or a negative pupil identity.

In paragraph 2.2.1 it was pointed out that basic physical changes take place in the developmental phase of the adolescent. These changes threaten the feeling of self-consistency, and the adolescent needs support and time to integrate these changes into a positive, self-confident, personal identity. Success in the integration of these changes results in a positive pupil-identity. Adolescents with a positive pupil identity usually perform well at school. Mention was also made that the adolescent's view of himself changes with the developmental changes of his body. How he views himself with regard to his build and his neatness will determine his self-identity. If he is satisfied with the condition of his body he will develop a good self-concept. Failure to experience satisfaction causes an unfavourable self-concept and a lack of self-esteem during the adolescent years.

The influence of the South African Black adolescent's life-world on his pupil-identity was discussed. Traditional education is transmitted through healthy relationships within the family and the self-concept of the adolescent is dependent on the image created within the family. The Black adolescent also forms an identity through his involvement with the members of his peer-group.

5.2.2 The educational world of the Black adolescent

Research indicates that there are no separate schools for traditional and western orientated Black children. The school

system and curriculum in Black education is the same throughout the country, regardless of the location of the school. Therefore, similar value orientations are imparted to the young people who go through the school. Mention was made that the Black adolescent finds himself between two forces namely, the home and the school. Parents expect him to retain his home identity whereas the school encourages conformity to school life.

Basic education takes place in the family. Since the family is not structured for the complete opening up of the child, much depends on the school as a secondary educator. The relationships an adolescent has with his community are to a great extent influenced by the relations he has with his family. By sending the child to school the parent assumes responsibility for cooperating with the school towards the education of the child.

In paragraph 3.5.2.2 it was pointed out that the teacher is a professional role model for the pupil. His personal example will influence value systems, dress, time-keeping and behaviour. The personal qualities and competence of the teacher affect learning positively. The adolescent likes and works cooperatively with a teacher who takes an interest in him as a person and who wants to know if he is getting on, not just in his work, but also in other areas of interest. This type of relationship which is characterised by knowledge, understanding and trust, has a very positive influence on the continuous formation of a strong pupil identity.

Research reveals that peer-group acceptance in the school situation is very important since it is related to academic success. If the adolescent is poorly accepted by the peer-group, he is likely to underachieve. His obsession about his peer-group may be at the expense of his school work. The peer-groups' values and norms exert an important influence on the adolescent's lifestyle, development and behaviour. Adolescents are likely to underachieve in a school where extra-curricular activities or any other type are valued more than academic success.

Paragraph 3.5.2.1 mentions that the school curriculum is organised on a subject basis, and the subject-matter is sometimes selected because it is necessary to the understanding of something else or because it might come in useful later. In most cases the Black adolescent finds the subject-matter difficult to understand due to the lack of properly trained teachers as well as the lack of essential teaching aids such as maps, charts, overhead projectors and other necessary facilities like laboratories, for the teaching of certain key subjects. Therefore, the subject-matter becomes meaningless. However, his concept or idea of himself as a learner still remains important for him. He is constantly engaged in judging himself in terms of success or failure. Feelings of success or failure have a significant effect on his pupil-identity.

The above findings from the literature study necessitate the formation of the following hypotheses.

5.3 HYPOTHESES

5.3.1 Hypothesis 1

There is a positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and scholastic achievement.

Rationale

Walsh (*Oosthuizen et al.*, 1981: 123) mentions that poor self-concept is responsible for the poor achievement of pupils with a high intellectual potential. On the other hand, a pupil who believes that he has done well in class or other related school activities develops self-confidence and a positive pupil-identity.

In view of this, it becomes imperative to assess the Black adolescent's self-concept in relation to his becoming and learning.

5.3.2 Hypothesis 2

There is a positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil-identity formation.

Rationale

In paragraph 4.5.1 mention was made that the performance of pupils from families who are not very concerned about children's school life is not the same as performance of children from concerned families. Parents who show interest in their children's work will also provide a home background which facilitates learning at school. A measuring instrument that will clearly indicate correlation, will have to be implemented.

5.3.3 Hypothesis 3

There is a positive correlation between peer-group opinion and pupil identity formation.

Rationale

Garbers (1971: 91) points out that the peer groups' values and norms exert an important influence on the adolescent's life, development and behaviour. The present political situation in South Africa has brought about change in the adolescent's life and behaviour, more especially his attitude towards education. The adolescent is involved in the confused political affairs of the country to the extent that the culture of hard work and study has ceased to exist. Therefore, it is important to check if adolescents influence one another positively or negatively regarding the school and school learning.

5.3.4 Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference between boys and girls in pupil identity formation.

Rationale

Paragraph 4.4.1 mentions that the school plays an important role in the development of the adolescent's pupil-identity. Different attitudes are displayed by individual pupils towards the school and learning. This includes differences between boys and girls. It is necessary to ascertain whether there is a difference in the formation of a pupil-identity between the two sex groups.

5.3.5 Hypothesis 5

There is a significant difference between standard eight, nine and ten pupils with regard to the formation of a pupil-identity.

Rationale

Standard eight to standard ten secondary school pupils have already adjusted themselves to secondary school life. They have also reached a stage where they have advanced far along the road of establishing an own pupil-identity. The researcher is interested in a possible difference in the formation of a pupil-identity in standard eight, nine and ten pupils.

5.3.6 Hypothesis 6

- 5.3.6.1 There is a positive correlation between teacher-pupil interaction and pupil identity formation.
- 5.3.6.2. There is a positive correlation between pupils' experience of school life and pupil identity formation.
- 5.3.6.3 There is a positive correlation between schooling (school learning in general) and pupil identity formation.

Rationale

The academic self-concept and pupil-identity develop as a result of one's interactions with peers, teachers and experiences of various

kinds in and out of school. A positive or negative pupil-identity is based on feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the child in the learning process. These feelings can only be assessed by a measuring instrument that will clearly assess the child's attitude towards his peer-group, teachers and the school he attends.

5.3.7 Hypothesis 7

There is a significant difference in the formation of a pupil-identity between township and rural secondary school pupils.

Rationale

In paragraph 3.5 it was mentioned that the school system and curriculum in Black education are not adjusted according to the location of the schools. The hypothesis is postulated to determine if there is similarity in the formation of a pupil-identity in pupils in townships and rural secondary schools.

5.3.8 Hypothesis 8

There is a significant difference between the North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity.

Rationale

There are no separate secondary schools or separate classes within the schools for North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the Department of Education and Training. Pupils separate only for first language study periods. The literature pointed out that the family's value systems play a vital role in the formation of an academic self-concept. The researcher is interested in establishing the influence of the child's ethnic background on his pupil-identity formation.

5.4 THE SAMPLE

5.4.1 General principles regarding sampling

The group of subjects the researcher actually studies is called the research sample. This group is selected from the population. A sample is a subset of a population (*Bausell 1986: 21*). Kerlinger (*Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh 1985: 138*) defines a population as "all members of any well-defined class of people events or objects." According to Best & Kahn (*1989:11*) and Mulder (*1982: 53*) a population is any group of individuals with one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher.

There are three valid reasons why sampling procedures are used when conducting research of large populations. Berdie, Anderson & Niebuhr (*1986: 9-10*) point out that sampling procedures is an economic procedure in terms of time and money and also that the quality of data will usually be better.

The purpose of sampling is to gain information about a population (*Gay 1987: 101*). The manner in which a sample is selected determines how representative the sample is of the population of interest. Therefore, it is of extreme importance that individuals included in the sample constitute a true representative cross-section of individuals in the population.

Selection of a sample is a very important step in conducting a research study. The steps usually followed in sampling are as follows:

- Identification of the population,
- Determination of required sample size. The size of a sample is related to how accurately the sample data need to represent the population.
- Selection of the sample. According to Gay (*1987: 104*) the degree to which the selected sample represents the population is the degree to which results are generalizable.

There are various basic sampling procedures including random, stratified, cluster and systematic samplings.

Random sampling was used to select schools for the research project. This was done because it is realised that random sampling is the most reliable procedure to ensure a completely representative sample. All schools had an equal and independent chance of being included in the sample (*Bausell 1986: 28; Mulder 1982: 57-58*).

Gay (*1987: 104*) mentions that another point in favour of random sampling is "that it is required by inferential statistics. This is very important to make inferences about populations based on the behaviour of samples".

5.4.2 Sample for this study

The research sample consisted of 555 Black secondary school pupils: 281 boys and 274 girls. The secondary school pupils were randomly selected from the entire population of each school included in the sample.

The pupils were drawn from two township secondary schools, one rural secondary school which is 20 kilometres away from the city, and two rural secondary schools which are 100 kilometres away from the city. All five schools fall under the control of the Department of Education and Training.

The pupils were grouped on the basis of the following criteria:

- Scholastic level
- Sex
- Age
- Ethnic groups and
- Residence

The details of the schools used in the research sample are portrayed in the tables below:

TABLE 5.1
DETAILS OF RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS:
ETHNIC GROUPS

SCHOOLS	NORTH SOTHO	SWAZI	OTHER	TOTAL
1	42	13	26	81
2	43	19	30	92
3	11	20	57	88
TOTAL	96	52	113	261

TABLE 5.2
DETAILS OF TOWNSHIP SECONDARY SCHOOLS:
ETHNIC GROUPS

SCHOOLS	NORTH SOTHO	SWAZI	OTHER	TOTAL
4	51	66	30	147
5	58	55	34	147
TOTAL	109	121	64	294

TABLE 5.3
DETAILS OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE ACCORDING TO
STANDARD, SEX AND AGE

STANDARD	SEX	AGE									TOTAL
		14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22+	
8	Boys	1	8	16	16	20	22	9	5	5	102
	Girls	-	11	26	17	22	7	9	1	2	
9	Boys	-	-	1	16	23	14	19	11	7	91
	Girls	-	1	10	23	17	16	11	2	11	
10	Boys	-	-	-	5	21	13	18	13	18	88
	Girls	-	-	1	9	13	20	10	11	24	
TOTAL		1	20	54	86	116	92	76	43	67	555

5.4.2.1 Scholastic level of the pupils

The standard eight to standard ten secondary school pupils were randomly selected.

5.4.2.2 Sex of the pupils

Both boys and girls have been included in the sample. Boys will be separated from girls for the sake of more accurate interpretation of results.

5.4.2.3 Age of the pupils

Secondary school pupils of various age groups in standard eight to ten were included in the sample.

5.4.2.4 Ethnic groups of pupils

Great care was exercised to ensure the inclusion of the North Sotho and Swazi ethnic groups in the sample.

5.4.2.5 Residence of the pupils

Five schools were included in the research project of which two were situated in the township and three were situated in the rural areas.

5.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A research project collects standardised and quantifiable information from a sample. Two commonly used procedures for collecting data are the interview and the questionnaire. A questionnaire was employed to collect specific information to accomplish the purpose of this study.

5.5.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire is a document filled out by the respondent in his own time or completed by the respondent under the supervision of the researcher. A questionnaire is used when factual information is desired (*Best et al. 1989: 181*). If a questionnaire is properly constructed and administered, it continues to be the most appropriate instrument to elicit information.

The questionnaire method in educational research usually assumes one of two forms, namely the introspective form, in which questions are directed to the child, touching on matters relating to him; and the extrospective form, in which questions on the child are answered by somebody else, usually the teacher. In this study the introspective form was used for the purpose of gathering specific information to shed light on the topic.

There are two types of questionnaires namely, closed and open. For this study a closed questionnaire was used. A closed questionnaire calls for brief answers, marking a 'yes' or 'no' response or for merely ticking off or drawing a cross on one or more items on the list of suggested responses (*Best et al. 1989: 182; Labaw 1980: 131*). A closed questionnaire is easy to fill out, and facilitates the coding and analysis of responses.

5.5.1.1 The construction of a questionnaire

Constructing a questionnaire needs considerable thought. It is a proven fact that the designer of a questionnaire cannot be too careful in phrasing questions to ensure clarity of purpose. However, there are guidelines that can be used to make questions more precise.

The following guidelines should be taken into consideration:

- (i) The researcher must include brief but clear instructions for completing the questionnaire (*Berdie et al. 1986: 24; Bausell 1986: 172*).
- (ii) Only items that directly relate to the objectives of the study should be included (*Gay 1987: 186*).
- (iii) The researcher must decide exactly what information is required (*Labaw 1980: 18*).
- (iv) A questionnaire should be brief and consistent but should obtain all information that is required.
- (v) Questions should be simple, dealing with a single concept and be worded as clearly as possible (*Bausse1 1986: 171; Labaw 1980: 157; Leedy 1989: 144*).
- (vi) Words used in the questions or statements must be clearly understood by the respondents.
- (vii) The questionnaire should be drawn up in such a way that answering it will be easy (*Berdie et al. 1986: 24; Gay 1987: 196*).
- (viii) Questions should be presented in a definite order. Simple factual questions should precede complex questions.

- (ix) The researcher should not include questions or statements whose answers can be obtained from other sources (*Best et al. 1989: 190*).
- (x) The questionnaire should be constructed in such a way that required data is obtained within the minimum of the respondent's time (*Ary et al. 1985: 345*).

5.5.1.2 Methods of administering a questionnaire

Questionnaires may be administered to the selected sample by the researcher in person or his representative. They may also be mailed and returned by post from the respondents.

Mailed questionnaires have the advantage of giving the respondents time to complete them at their leisure and in an environment preferred by him. The respondent is also given time to search through personal records (if necessary) to find information needed to answer the questions. The chief advantage of the mailed questionnaire lies in its relatively low cost (at least with respect to the interviewer's time) and it is possible to include a larger number of respondents as well as respondents in more diverse locations (*Ary et al. 1985: 344*).

However, this method has some disadvantages. The questions may be interpreted differently by different respondents, leading to biased responses. In some cases the questionnaire may be completed by a person other than the intended respondent. The main disadvantage of mailed questionnaire resides in the low response rate normally obtained (*Bausell 1986: 169; Gay 1987: 182*).

Self-administered questionnaires have the advantage of providing an opportunity to establish rapport with respondents and to explain the purpose of the study. This method has also an advantage in that it requires assembling a number of respondents in one common place, and thus making it possible to get a high proportion of usable responses (*Best et al. 1989: 181*). However, it is rare

that members of a sample of interest can conveniently gather in one common place. Therefore, it also requires more time and more money for travel in order to contact individual members.

5.5.2 Construction of the questionnaire for this study

The questionnaire was divided into two sections, namely section A requesting biographical information and section B consisting of 60 statements pertinent to pupil-identity formation of the Black adolescent. Copies of the questionnaire and the answer sheet may be found in the addendum.

The respondents were requested to respond to each statement by noting their answers according to a four-point scale in the appropriate square on the answer sheet provided.

The four points of the scale are as follows:

- Strongly disagree = 1
- Disagree = 2
- Agree = 3
- Strongly agree = 4

The instructions for answering the questions in Section B were as follows:

Carefully consider each of the undermentioned statements (8-67) which express a feeling pupils may have about school and school learning. Write your answers on the answer sheet provided.

You are to show the extent of your agreement with each statement. If you strongly agree with a particular statement, write a 4 in the given square; if you strongly disagree with a particular statement write a 1 in the given square.

If you do not strongly agree or strongly disagree, write a 2 or 3 in the given square according to the extent to which that particular statement expresses your feeling.

EXAMPLE

My school's surroundings are neat

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4

4

If you write a 4 in the given square as shown it will mean you strongly agree.

Complete the following statements in the same way.

REMEMBER TO WRITE YOUR ANSWER IN THE SQUARE NEXT TO THE CORRESPONDING NUMBER ON THE ANSWER SHEET PROVIDED.

The statements in Section B of the questionnaire were divided into four categories namely the adolescent's relationships with the self, parents, peer-group and the school (teachers, experiences). The statement numbers per category are indicated in table 5.4.

TABLE 5.4
STATEMENTS CONCERNING THE CHILD AND HIS
RELATIONSHIPS

	CATEGORY	STATEMENT NUMBERS
1	Self	8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38, 43, 48, 53, 58 and 63
2	Parents	9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39, 44, 49, 54, 59 and 64
3	Peer-group	12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37, 42, 47, 52, 57, 62 and 67
4	School:	
4.1	teachers	10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, 50, 55, 60 and 65
4.2	Experiences	11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36, 41, 46, 51, 56, 61 and 66

The researcher's experience and the literature reviewed in chapters two, three and four served as a source of information for the construction of this questionnaire.

5.6 ADMINISTRATION PROCEDURE

5.6.1 Preliminary arrangements

The researcher discussed the questionnaire with his colleagues in order to identify any statements that were not properly phrased. The rephrasing of certain statements was made in order to eliminate clumsiness or ambiguities.

The questionnaire was then submitted to the researcher's supervisor for comments and recommendations. Certain statements were changed in order to match the scholastic level of the pupils. Consensus was then achieved regarding the validity of the questionnaire. Finally, the statements in the questionnaire were arranged in a definite order.

An application for administering the questionnaire was made to the Department of Education and Training, Highveld Region. The Director-General of the Department of Education and Training acceded to this request.

Letters were then written to the principals of those secondary schools included in the sample to inform them about the Director-Generals permission to conduct the research project, and also to explain the nature of the research to be undertaken as well as the dates on which the questionnaire would be administered.

5.6.2 School visits and administration

Five schools were involved in the research project. The questionnaires were administered to 555 standard eight to ten rural and township secondary school pupils.

In all the schools involved, the researcher administered the questionnaires personally in three sessions, taking one standard group at a time, starting with the standard eights and ending with the standard tens. The reason for this was to have smaller uniform groups at a time for purposes of improving communications and to ensure correct responses in a more effective manner. Pupils were made aware of the nature and value of the research and emphasis was put on honesty when completing the questionnaire.

Preceding each session the researcher read the instructions for answering the questions. Pupils were requested to ask questions if they did not understand any statement in the questionnaire. Time taken to complete the questionnaire varied between 30 and

45 minutes depending on the scholastic level of the pupils. The completed questionnaires of each school per standard were thoroughly checked by the researcher and errors were corrected.

5.7 SYNTHESIS

The researcher used the questionnaire method, in which questions were put directly to the pupil, touching on matters relating to him. The questionnaire was administered to 555 standard eight to standard ten rural and township secondary school pupils.

The researcher administered the questionnaire personally in order to establish rapport with the pupils and to ensure a high proportion of usable responses. During the administration session, statements that were not understood by the pupils, were explained, thereby ensuring correct responses.

The collected information was then submitted for computerised analysis.

The next chapter will present the data. Results will be analysed and interpreted.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter various hypotheses were formulated on the basis of the literature study. The instrument designed to gather relevant information with regard to the hypotheses was described.

In this chapter, the results of the empirical research will be presented, analysed and interpreted.

6.2 ITEM-ANALYSIS

Mulder (1982: 192) points out that the purpose of item-analysis is to establish the contribution of each item. Items can be analysed qualitatively, in terms of their content and form, and quantitatively in terms of their statistical properties. High reliability and validity can be built into a test in advance through item analysis.

In this research item-analysis was done and items were divided into four categories namely, the relationships formed by the pupil with the (i) self, (ii) parents, (iii) peer-group and (iv) school (c.f. paragraph 5.5.2, and table 5.4). The division was done in order to ascertain whether each item made a significant contribution to the relevant category. Item 61 of the questionnaire was omitted during item analysis. Therefore, 59 of 60 items will be used.

The Cronbach Coefficient alpha was used to calculate the correlation between items and the totals for each category. The Cronbach Coefficient alpha was also used to calculate the reliability-coefficient. Details with regard to these calculations are indicated in tables 6.1 to 6.5.

TABLE 6.1
ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF CATEGORY

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	12	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,612	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
8	0,259	0,592
13	0,134	0,621
18	0,222	0,601
23	0,387	0,569
28	0,374	0,574
33	0,339	0,580
38	0,295	0,585
43	0,078	0,646
48	0,378	0,570
53	0,376	0,569
58	0,301	0,584
63	0,224	0,598

Item 43 has a low positive value in relation to the total. The correlation coefficient (r) ranges between moderate and high positive correlation.

TABLE 6.2
ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO
PARENTS

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	12	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,689	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
9	0,349	0,666
14	0,431	0,652
19	0,269	0,678
24	0,368	0,664
29	0,372	0,662
34	0,306	0,672
39	0,282	0,676
44	0,177	0,687
49	0,275	0,677
54	0,263	0,680
59	0,395	0,658
64	0,386	0,660

All items have a high positive value in relation to the total. The correlation coefficient (r) for each item is greater than 0,6 and this indicates a high positive correlation.

TABLE 6.3

ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO THE PEER GROUP

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	12	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,632	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
12	0,280	0,611
17	0,367	0,594
22	0,235	0,620
27	0,222	0,624
32	0,330	0,601
37	0,358	0,594
42	-0,187	0,664
47	0,255	0,615
52	0,335	0,601
57	0,343	0,599
62	0,344	0,602
67	0,370	0,597

Item 42 has a negative value in relation to the total. The correlation coefficient (r) ranges between moderate and high positive correlation.

TABLE 6.4**ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO THE TEACHERS**

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	12	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,599	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
10	0,348	0,557
15	0,312	0,564
20	0,451	0,535
25	0,324	0,561
30	-0,054	0,618
35	0,147	0,606
40	0,126	0,618
45	0,411	0,548
50	0,371	0,551
55	0,263	0,581
60	0,438	0,539
65	-0,162	0,626

Two items 30 and 65 have a negative value in relation to the total. The correlation coefficient ranges between moderate and high positive correlation.

TABLE 6.5
ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO SCHOOL EXPERIENCES

NUMBER OF PUPILS		555
NUMBER OF ITEMS		11
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)		0,398
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
11	0,162	0,370
16	0,102	0,335
21	0,260	0,335
26	0,219	0,347
31	0,137	0,380
36	0,165	0,369
41	0,083	0,408
46	-0,111	0,429
51	0,186	0,362
56	0,157	0,372
66	0,222	0,354

Item 46 has a negative value in relation to the total. The correlation coefficient (r) ranges between low and moderate positive correlation.

In table 6.1, there is one item (item 43) with a low positive value in relation to the total. Four items correlate negatively with the total, namely item 42 in table 6.3, items 30 and 65 in table 6.4 and item 46 in table 6.5.

Since the five mentioned items have a low positive value and/or negative values in relation to the totals of the relevant categories, it was decided to omit them.

The omission of the five items left the researcher with 54 items and this necessitated a second item analysis per affected category.

A second item analysis for the category self in relation to parents (table 6.2) was not conducted since no item was dropped from that category.

Details with regard to the second item analysis per affected categories are indicated in tables 6.6 to 6.9.

TABLE 6.6
SECOND ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF CATEGORY

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	11	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,646	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
8	0,247	0,633
13	0,141	0,662
18	0,211	0,646
23	0,407	0,604
28	0,395	0,609
33	0,369	0,613
38	0,281	0,627
48	0,379	0,609
53	0,403	0,604
58	0,336	0,617
63	0,228	0,637

The correlation coefficient (r) for each item is greater than 0,6 and this signifies a high positive correlation. Therefore, all the items will be retained and used.

TABLE 6.7
SECOND ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO
THE PEER-GROUP

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	11	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,664	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
12	0,278	0,650
17	0,379	0,631
22	0,239	0,657
27	0,229	0,661
32	0,331	0,640
37	0,366	0,632
47	0,261	0,653
52	0,344	0,638
57	0,355	0,636
62	0,354	0,639
67	0,375	0,634

The correlation coefficient (r) for each item is greater than 0,6 and this signifies a high positive correlation. All the items will be retained and used.

TABLE 6.8

SECOND ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO TEACHERS

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	10	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,648	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
10	0,358	0,615
15	0,335	0,619
20	0,452	0,595
25	0,331	0,620
35	0,158	0,662
40	0,139	0,673
45	0,420	0,606
50	0,375	0,610
55	0,276	0,635
60	0,448	0,597

Correlation coefficient (r) of eight items is greater than 0,6 which signifies a high positive correlation and only two items namely, item 20 and 60 have $0,50 < r < 0,60$ and this indicates a moderate positive correlation. All the items will be retained and used.

TABLE 6.9**SECOND ITEM ANALYSIS OF THE SELF IN RELATION TO SCHOOL EXPERIENCES**

NUMBER OF PUPILS	555	
NUMBER OF ITEMS	10	
RELIABILITY (ALPHA)	0,429	
ITEM	CORRELATION WITH TOTAL	ALPHA
11	0,172	0,403
16	0,096	0,435
21	0,276	0,366
26	0,225	0,381
31	0,145	0,413
36	0,184	0,398
41	0,074	0,448
51	0,189	0,397
56	0,166	0,405
66	0,226	0,388

The correlation coefficient (r) of the items in this category ranges between low to moderate positive correlation with $0,30 < r < 0,50$.

The second item analysis per category for tables 6.6 to 6.8 indicates a high positive correlation with the relevant totals. The second item analysis for table 6.9 indicates a low to moderate positive correlation with the relevant totals. However, all calculations and the interpretation of data will be based on the 54 items.

6.3 VALIDITY

The validity of this research questionnaire is based on content validity.

Content validity refers to the degree to which a test succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure (Mulder 1982: 215). The test items have been systematically analysed in order to make certain that all major aspects are covered by the questionnaire.

Content validity cannot be expressed in terms of a numerical index, but depends on the opinion of informed persons (*Mulder 1982: 217*).

The relevant content was obtained from the literature. In order to ensure that the chosen items are appropriate and relevant, the researcher began by working out a detailed outline of the nature and type of questions/statements to be included in the questionnaire.

Thereafter, items were categorised and the content of items was discussed with subject-advisors, circuit inspectors and the researcher's supervisor. The item content was deemed suitable.

Due to the procedure followed, one can accept the content validity of the test.

6.4 RELIABILITY

The reliability of a test can be determined from a single administration of a single form, based on the consistency of responses to all items in the test (*Anastasi 1990: 122*). The Cronbach coefficient alpha was used to determine the reliability of the items.

The calculated reliability coefficient for all 54 items in the questionnaire is 0,860. However, it is worthwhile to indicate that the reliability coefficients calculated for each category (c.f. tables 6.2 and 6.6 to 6.9) are lower than the reliability coefficient of all the test items (54) together.

The reliability coefficients per category are indicated in table 6.10.

TABLE 6.10
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT OF THE FIVE CATEGORIES

CATEGORY	RELIABILITY
Self	0,646
Parents	0,689
Peer-group	0,664
Teachers	0,648
School experiences	0,429
TOTAL	0,860

The reliability coefficients of four categories namely: self, parents, peer-group and teachers are $0,60 < r < 0,70$. The reliability coefficient of the category school experiences is 0,429.

6.5 TESTING THE HYPOTHESES

6.5.1 Hypothesis 1

The stated null hypothesis is that there is no positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement.

In order to test the hypothesis, the Pearson's-product moment correlation between the variables self and scholastic achievement was calculated. The results of the computed data are $r=0,203$; $p<0,01$ ($N=555$).

The findings indicate that there is a low positive correlation ($r=0,203$) between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement. Although the correlation is low, it is statistically significant at the 0,01 level. On the basis of these findings, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement.

These findings support the literature study findings that there is a positive correlation between self-concept and pupils' scholastic achievement. For instance, paragraph 4.5.2.1 mentioned that the Black adolescent with a positive self-concept is confident, has high aspirations and does well. In the same breath, Caplin (*Matseke 1981: 151*) indicates that a low self-concept and aspirational level contributes to poor scholastic achievement and poor achievement contributes to a low self-concept and aspirational level.

The findings here indicate that self-concept has a significant impact on the Black adolescent's pupil identity formation. The Black adolescent who has established a positive pupil identity gets more involved in school life and rates his school favourably. Black adolescents who do fairly well in school are motivated towards selecting school related activities.

6.5.2 Hypothesis 2

The stated null hypothesis is that there is no positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil-identity formation.

In order to test the hypothesis, the Pearson's product moment correlation was calculated between the variables self and parental involvement in school work. Computed data findings are $r=0,443$; $p<0,01$ ($N=555$). The null hypothesis is, therefore rejected. There is a positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil identity formation.

The findings that there is a positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil identity formation, support the literature. In paragraph 4.5.1.1 it was mentioned that educated and elite Black parents motivate their children towards learning and discipline them well. Mention was also made that parents who provide pupils with stimulating home environments positively influence Black adolescents' scholastic achievement.

Performance of pupils from families who do not care much about their children's school work is far lower than the performance of pupils from caring families.

Mention should be made that parental involvement in the education of their children is vital, more so in these times that the culture of learning among our Black adolescents has ceased to exist. For the Black adolescent to achieve well at school, parents will have to resume a position of authority, serve as good role models, attend school meetings and functions, and also exercise good discipline. If this is done, we can expect better academic achievements because of the high positive correlation with regard to our said variables, namely parental involvement in school work and pupil identity formation.

6.5.3 Hypothesis 3

In order to test the hypothesis, the Pearson's product moment correlation between peer group opinion and pupil identity formation was calculated. The results of the computed data are $r = 0,503$; $p < 0,01$ ($N=555$).

These results indicate a significant correlation between the two variables. The null hypothesis is rejected. There is a positive correlation between peer-group opinion and pupil identity formation.

The literature study findings are supported by the results of this empirical research. In this research it is found that there is a positive correlation between peer-group opinion and pupil identity formation. Myburgh et al. (1989: 124) point out that the peer-group often "creates opportunities for new-sprung interpretations of existing principles and thus plays the role of sounding board to the maturing adolescent". Further it is pointed out that it is in the peer group that the adolescent becomes willing to hold an own point of view and that the opinion of the peer-group during adolescence often carries more weight than the opinion of parents

or teachers. This view is also held by Ackermann (1990: 284) who states that the adolescent has to place the self into relation with other selves to discover himself as an individual. By placing himself in relation with other adolescents he becomes involved with them and through their support, the adolescent will be able to establish a positive pupil identity.

One can mention in passing that some of our adolescents in their peer-groups are engaged in violence in the Black townships. This affects their sense of well-being, creating inner anxiety and distress. It is a pity that stress amongst the majority of them has spilled into classrooms, affecting teaching and learning.

6.5.4 Hypothesis 4

The stated null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference between boys and girls in pupil identity formation.

In order to test the hypothesis, the t-test for the two independent groups was used. The findings of the calculations appear in table 6.11.

TABLE 6.11
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BOYS AND GIRLS IN
PUPIL-IDENTITY FORMATION

SEX	NO. OF PUPILS	MEAN	SD	T-VALUE	SIGNIFICANCE
Boys	281	36,548	3,991	0,048	p<0,05
Girls	274	37,189	3,621		

The t-value = 0,048 and p<0,05. On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis must be rejected. There is a significant difference between boys and girls in pupil identity formation. The average of girls is higher than those of boys.

Myburgh *et al.* (1989: 128) point out that Black adolescent girls are significantly more satisfied with their academic achievement than Black adolescent boys. Black adolescent boys are often found in streets, in groups, engaged in all sorts of activities, some of which are not school related. Their pupil identity formation is therefore poorer than those of girls who are more often busy indoors and more often occupied with school work.

6.5.5 Hypothesis 5

The null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference between standard 8, 9 and 10 pupils with regard to the formation of a pupil identity.

In order to test the hypothesis, the means for each standard (Std. 8, 9 & 10) were calculated. The variance-analysis procedure was followed in order to determine whether there is a significant difference between the means. The F-value was calculated in order to determine whether the findings were significant.

Findings are shown in table 6.12.

TABLE 6.12
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE STANDARDS 8, 9 & 10
PUPILS

STANDARD	NO. OF PUPILS	MEAN	SD	F-VALUE	SIGNIFICANCE
8	197	37,369	3,810	1,81	p<0,05
9	182	36,538	3,878		
10	176	36,636	3,763		
TOTAL	555	36,864	3,815		

There is no significant difference between the means of standard 8, 9 and 10: $F(2,552) = 1,81$; $p < 0,05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference between standards eight, nine and ten pupils with regard to the formation of a pupil-identity.

Literature study is supported in this regard. There is no significant difference between the standard eight to ten because (i) they have already adjusted themselves to the secondary school life and (ii) they have almost all reached a stage where they have advanced far on to the road to establishing an own pupil-identity.

6.5.6 Hypothesis 6

The following null hypotheses are stated:

- (i) There is no positive correlation between 'teacher-pupil interaction' and pupil-identity formation.
- (ii) There is no positive correlation between the pupils' experience of school life and pupil-identity formation.
- (iii) There is no positive correlation between schooling (school learning in general) and pupil identity formation.

In order to test the hypotheses, the Pearson's product moment correlation was calculated between the variables: self and teacher relationships, self and school experiences; self and schooling (school learning).

The findings are as follows:

- (i) self and teacher relationships $r = 0,548$; $p < 0,01$
- (ii) self and school experiences $r = 0,551$; $p < 0,01$
- (iii) self and school learning $r = 0,637$; $p < 0,01$

All three correlations indicate that there is a significant positive correlation among the involved variables. On the basis of the obtained results, all three null hypotheses must be rejected.

These findings support the literature study findings. Davidson & Lang (*Oosthuizen et al.*, 1981: 123) point out that the more positive children's ideas about their teachers' feelings towards them are, the better their scholastic achievement. In paragraph 4.4.2 mention was made that the Black adolescent understands and likes a teacher who is interested in him as a person and who wants to know if he is getting on, not just in his work, but also in other things in which he is interested. This relationship results in the Black adolescent assigning a special meaning to the teacher and it makes him excited about school. A healthy teacher-pupil relationship positively influences the adolescent's pupil-identity.

Research has also indicated that pupils' experiences at school influence their pupil identity. According to Gabela (1984: 9) any child who derives a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the school he attends. This implies that his pupil-identity is highly elevated.

It can thus be seen that various experiences make the Black adolescent adopt certain attitudes towards the school and school learning. If he is satisfied with the school, he is likely to develop a positive attitude that will influence his pupil-identity positively.

6.5.7 Hypothesis 7

The null hypothesis stated is that there is no significant difference in the formation of a pupil-identity between township and rural secondary school pupils.

In order to test the hypothesis, the t-value was calculated.

The findings of the calculations appear in table 6.13.

TABLE 6.13
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TOWNSHIPS AND RURAL
SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS

RESIDENCE	NO. OF PUPILS	MEAN	SD	T-VALUE	SIGNIFICANCE
Township	294	36,656	3,872	0,173	p<0,05
Rural	261	37,099	3,760		

The T-value = 0,173 ($p < 0,05$). On the basis of this finding, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference in the formation of a pupil-identity between township and rural secondary school pupils.

The literature study findings are supported by these results. In paragraph 5.2.2 mention was made that the school system and curriculum in Black education are identical in all schools regardless of the location. Therefore, similar value orientations are imparted to the young people who go through the school. The findings of this empirical study concur with the literature which states that there is no significant difference observed between township and rural secondary school pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity.

6.5.8 Hypothesis 8

The null hypothesis stated is that there is no significant difference between North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil identity.

In order to test the hypothesis, the t-value was calculated.

Table 6.14 shows the findings of the calculations:

TABLE 6.14
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN NORTH SOTHO AND SWAZI PUPILS

LANGUAGE	NO. OF PUPILS	MEAN	SD	T-VALUE	SIGNIFICANCE
N. Sotho	205	36,897	3,938	0,950	p<0,05
Swazi	173	36,872	3,727		

The t-value = 0,950 and p<0,05.

On the basis of the findings, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. There is no significant difference between the North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity.

Research has pointed out that traditional education is transmitted through healthy relationships within the family and that the self-concept of the adolescent is dependent on the image created within the family (compare paragraph 5.2.1). However, this research has found that irrespective of his ethnic background, the adolescent is able to conform to school life. Hence there is no significant difference between the North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity.

6.6 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

From a number of hypotheses which were posed, the following findings have been made:

Significant positive correlations were found between:

6.6.1 self and parental guidance/control $r = 0,443$; $p < 0,01$.

6.6.2 the self and peer-group interaction $r = 0,503$; $p < 0,01$.

6.6.3 the self and the school activities. There are various experiences within the school situation. These experiences result in different relationships formed within the school. This research revealed a significant positive correlation between

- 6.6.3.1 self and teacher relationship $r = 0,548; p < 0,01$
- 6.6.3.2 self and school experiences $r = 0,551; p < 0,01$
- 6.6.3.3 self and school learning $r = 0,637; p < 0,01$
- 6.6.3.4 self and scholastic achievement $r = 0,203; p < 0,01$

The correlation between the self and the scholastic achievement is low ($r = 0,203; p < 0,01$). Although the correlation is low, it is statistically significant.

The next chapter will deal with conclusions, recommendations, implications and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 7

RESUMÉ OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapters concentrated on the Black adolescent's pupil-identity formation. Special emphasis was put on the various relationships formed within and beyond the school environment.

In this chapter a resumé of the research undertaken will be made. Findings derived from both the literature study and the empirical research will be outlined. This will be followed by conclusions drawn from and limitations of the investigation. Recommendations and suggestions for future research will be made.

7.2 THE AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH THESE AIMS HAVE BEEN MET

The researcher stated in chapter one that the investigation was generally aimed at determining how the Black adolescent forms a pupil-identity and the subsequent influence this has on his scholastic achievement. Further, the researcher formulated specific aims of this research as follows:

- To evaluate the Black adolescent's formation of relationships and their influence on identity formation.
- To determine the educational world of the Black adolescent.
- To outline the developmental phases which have direct relevance on identity formation.
- To analyse the factors influencing pupil identity-formation and

- to explain how pupil-identity formation is related to the scholastic achievement of the adolescent.

Table 7.1 indicates the extent to which these aims have been met.

TABLE 7.1

GENERAL AND SPECIFIC AIMS

AIMS	THE EXTENT TO WHICH AIMS HAVE BEEN MET
<p>1. <u>GENERAL AIM</u></p> <p>1.1 To determine how the Black adolescent forms a pupil-identity and the subsequent influence this has on his scholastic achievement.</p>	<p>1.1 Research indicates that the Black adolescent's relationships formed with the self, parents, peer-groups, teachers, study material and the general education world have a significant effect on the formation of a pupil-identity as well as on scholastic achievement.</p>
<p>2. <u>SPECIFIC AIMS</u></p> <p>2.1 To evaluate the Black adolescent's formation of relationships and their influence on identity formation.</p>	<p>2.1.1 <u>Relationship with the self</u></p> <p>The adolescent's view of himself changes with the developmental changes his body undergoes. How he views himself with regard to his build and his neatness will determine his self-identity. If he is satisfied with the conditions of his body, he will develop a positive self-concept (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.5a). The pupils' self-concept influences his behaviour and performance refer to paragraph 4.5.2.1).</p> <p>2.1.2 <u>Relationships with parents</u></p> <p>Positive pupil-identity</p>

AIMS	THE EXTENT TO WHICH AIMS HAVE BEEN MET
	<p>develops if there is a good balance between affection and control on the part of the parents. Supportive parents involved in school work help the adolescent to develop a positive pupil identity (refer to paragraph 4.5.1.1).</p> <p>2.1.3 <u>Relationship with the peer-group</u></p> <p>The adolescent achieves a pupil-identity through his involvement with members of his peer-group. The positive feedback he receives from his peer-group encourages him to consider himself as a good pupil at school. He, therefore, develops a sense of adequacy with regard to school activities, and comes to a positive view of himself as a learner (refer to paragraph 4.4.3)</p> <p>2.1.4 <u>Relationship with teachers</u></p> <p>Positive pupil identity is enhanced by a healthy relationship between the adolescent and the teacher. The adolescent likes a teacher who is interested in him as a person and who wants to know if he is getting on not just in his work, but also in other things in which he is interested. In this way the adolescent assigns special meaning to such a teacher and this influences him to be excited about school (refer to paragraph 4.4.2).</p>

AIMS	THE EXTENT TO WHICH AIMS HAVE BEEN MET
	<p>2.1.5 <u>Relationship with the school</u></p> <p>The school contributes to the adolescent's development of his pupil-identity. A positive pupil-identity develops when the adolescent identifies himself with the school and its activities (refer to paragraph 4.4.1).</p>
<p>2.2 To determine the educational world of the Black adolescent.</p>	<p>2.2 The family and the school have been identified as forming the educational world of the Black adolescent.</p>
<p>2.3 To outline the developmental phases which have direct relevance to identity formation.</p>	<p>2.3 Erikson's first four phases of psychological development contribute to the establishment of a well defined identity (refer to paragraph 4.3). This research concentrated on the fifth stage namely, Identity formation versus role confusion. Research points out that in order to find identity, the adolescent has three major factors to contend with, namely, physical growth, sexual maturation and the adolescent's desired perspective on his function as an adult member of society (refer to paragraph 4.3.1.5).</p>
<p>2.4 To analyse the factors influencing pupil-identity formation</p>	<p>2.4 Factors influencing pupil-identity formation have been identified as assignment of meaning to involvement in and experience of the various relationships in which the</p>

AIMS	THE EXTENT TO WHICH AIMS HAVE BEEN MET
<p>-----</p> <p>2.5 To explain how pupil-identity formation is related to the scholastic achievement of the adolescent.</p>	<p>adolescent stands. This in turn has a significant influence on self-control formation and specifically on self-actualisation (refer to paragraph 4.4.1).</p> <p>-----</p> <p>2.5 The child at school has varied ideas about himself as a pupil. The manner in which he views himself as a learner influences his performance in school (refer to paragraph 4.5). Scholastic achievement is also influenced by the attitude of the pupil towards learning. A positive attitude towards the school and school learning leads to better achievement (refer to paragraph 4.5.2.1).</p>

7.3 FINDINGS FROM THE LITERATURE STUDY

Relevant literature was studied to investigate the life-world of the Black adolescent. The adolescent's life-world has been described as the totality of all the relationships which he forms. Much emphasis is put on the influence of these relationships on pupil-identity formation.

Table 7.2 summarises the literature study findings with regard to the formation of relationships.

TABLE 7.2

**THE FORMATION OF RELATIONSHIPS AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON
PUPIL-IDENTITY FORMATION**

RELATIONSHIP WITH	INFLUENCE ON PUPIL--IDENTITY FORMATION
SELF	The physical changes taking place during adolescence threaten the feeling of self-consistency. Therefore, the adolescent needs support and time to integrate these changes into a positive, self-confident, personal identity. Success in the integration of these changes results in a positive pupil-identity. Adolescents with a positive pupil-identity often perform well (refer to paragraph 5.2.1)
PARENTS	Traditional education is transmitted by healthy relationships within the family. The pupil-identity of the adolescent is dependent on the image created within the family. The adolescent forms a positive pupil-identity if the parents are supportive and involved in their education (refer paragraph 4.5.1.1)
PEER-GROUP	The Black adolescent achieves an identity through his involvement with the members of his peer-group. Peer-group acceptance in the school situation is very important since it is related to academic success. If he is poorly accepted by the peer-group, he is likely to underachieve, and if he underachieves his pupil-identity is negatively affected (refer to paragraph 5.2.2).
SCHOOL EXPERIENCES	The school curriculum is organised on a subject basis, and the subject-matter is sometimes selected because it is necessary for the understanding of something else or because it might come in useful later. The adolescent is constantly engaged in judging himself in terms of success or failure. The feelings of success or failure have a significant effect on his pupil-identity. For instance, if he succeeds, his pupil-identity will be highly elevated. Failure results in a negative pupil-identity (see paragraph 5.2.2).

7.4 FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

After having gone through the literature, the researcher undertook an empirical study. A questionnaire was administered to 555 secondary school pupils. The questions of the questionnaire were designed on the grounds of information from the literature study.

The Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient and Cronbach coefficient alpha were used to interpret and analyse the gathered data.

A number of hypotheses on pupil-identity formation were posed from which the following findings were made:

TABLE 7.3
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

NULL HYPOTHESES	OUTCOME OF THE RESEARCH
There is no positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement.	There is a significant positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement $r=0,203$; $p<0,01$ (N=555)
There is no positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil-identity formation.	There is a significant positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil-identity formation $r=0,403$; $p<0,01$ (N=555).
There is no positive correlation between peer-group opinion and pupil-identity formation.	There is a significant positive correlation between the peer-group opinion and pupil-identity formation $r=0,503$; $p<0,01$ (N= 555).
There is no significant difference between boys and girls in pupil-identity formation.	There is a significant difference between boys and girls in pupil-identity formation. The t-value = 0,048 and $p<0,05$.

NULL HYPOTHESES	OUTCOME OF THE RESEARCH
<p>There is no significant difference between Standards eight, nine and ten pupils with regard to the formation of a pupil-identity.</p>	<p>There is no significant difference between Standards eight, nine and ten pupils with regard to the formation of a pupil-identity: $F(2,552) = 1,81$; $p < 0,05$.</p>

<p>The following null hypotheses on the relationship with the teachers and the school in general were stated:</p>	
<p>(a) There is no positive correlation between the 'teacher-pupil-interaction' and pupil-identity formation.</p> <p>(b) There is no positive correlation between the pupils' experience of school life and pupil-identity formation.</p> <p>(c) There is no positive correlation between schooling and pupil-identity formation.</p>	<p>(a) Self-concept teacher relationship: $r = 0,548$; $p < 0,01$. There is a significant positive correlation between teacher-pupil interaction and pupil-identity formation.</p> <p>(b) Self-concept school experiences: $r = 0,551$; $p < 0,01$. There is significant positive correlation between the pupils' identity formation.</p> <p>(c) Self-concept and school learning: $r = 0,637$; $p < 0,01$. There is a significant positive correlation between the pupil's involvement in learning material and pupil identity formation.</p>

<p>There is no significant difference in the formation of a pupil-identity between townships and rural secondary school pupils.</p>	<p>No significant difference was found in the formation of a pupil-identity between township and rural secondary school pupils: The t-value = $0,173$ ($p < 0,05$).</p>

<p>There is no significant difference between the North Sotho and Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity.</p>	<p>No significant difference was found between the North Sotho and the Swazi pupils in the formation of a pupil-identity: The t-value = $0,950$ and $p < 0,05$.</p>

The literature study and empirical research findings can be summarised as follows:

TABLE 7.4
SUMMARY OF THE OUTCOME OF THE LITERATURE STUDY
AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

RELATIONSHIP	LITERATURE STUDY	EMPIRICAL RESEARCH
SELF	Adolescents with a positive pupil-identity often perform well.	There is a significant positive correlation between adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement.
PARENTS	Adolescents form a positive pupil-identity if the parents are supportive and involved in their education.	There is a significant positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil identity formation.
PEER-GROUPS	It is in the peer-group that the adolescent becomes willing to hold an own point of view and the opinion of the peer-group during adolescence often carries more weight than that of the parents and the community.	There is a significant positive correlation between the peer-group opinion and pupil-identity formation.
SCHOOL EXPERIENCES	The more positive children's ideas about themselves are, the better their scholastic achievement. In the same way, any child who derives a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the school he attends. This implies that his pupil-identity is highly elevated.	There is a significant positive correlation between (1) self-concept and teacher relationships (2) self-concept and school experiences (3) self-concept and school-learning.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

The following two variables could have had some influence on the accumulated information:

- 7.5.1 The prevalent violence, disrupted family life, adolescent militancy and the culture of learning which has ceased to exist in the Black townships, may have had an influence on the accumulated data.
- 7.5.2 It was difficult to determine the honesty of pupils when completing the questionnaire.

Notwithstanding these limitations, the researcher is convinced that the empirical research achieved its goals.

7.6 CONCLUSIONS OF THIS STUDY

The literature study investigated the life-world of the Black adolescent. The life-world of the Black adolescent has been described as the formation of relationships with the self, parents, peer-groups and school experiences. These relationships have an effect on the formation of a pupil-identity as well as on scholastic achievement.

- The literature study points out that a poor self-concept is often responsible for poor achievement of pupils with a high intellectual potential. In the same breath, the attitude of the adolescent towards himself and his own future has a bearing on his scholastic performance. Success or failure has a significant effect on the adolescents' self-image. Success, approval and praise motivates the adolescent to perform better.
- Literature also points out that performance of pupils from families who do not care much about what the child does at school is not the same as performance of children from concerned families.

- In so far as the peer-group's opinion is concerned, it has been found that peer-groups exert an important influence on the adolescent's life, development and behaviour.
- Indications are that pupil-identity is built up by one's interaction with teachers, and by experiences of various kinds in and out of school. Positive or negative pupil-identity is based on satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the child in the learning process.

It is on the basis of these literature study findings that the empirical research was conducted. The researcher formulated hypotheses in order to ascertain if what was found in the literature study is also applicable to the Black adolescent. The questionnaire content was based on findings of the literature study.

- The empirical research found that there is a significant positive correlation between the adolescent's self-concept and his scholastic achievement. These findings support the literature. The Black adolescent with a positive self-concept is confident, has high aspirations and does well. In the same way the adolescent with a negative self-concept performs badly.
- The empirical research found significant positive correlation between parental involvement in school work and pupil identity formation. This also supports the literature study findings that children of parents who motivate them towards learning often perform well. In the same way, achievement of children from families who do not care much about their children's school work, is much lower than the performance of pupils from caring families.
- The findings that there is a significant positive correlation between the peer-group's opinion and pupil-identity formation also confirms the literature study findings that it is in the

peer-group that the adolescent becomes willing to hold an own point of view and that the opinion of the peer-group often carries more weight than the opinion of the family or the community.

- The empirical research also found a significant positive correlation between
 - * the self and teacher relationships
 - * the self and school experiences and
 - * the self and school learning.

These findings confirm the literature study findings that the more positive children's ideas are about their teachers' feelings towards them, the better their scholastic achievement; and again that any child who derives a sense of satisfaction and accomplishment in the learning process is likely to be enthusiastic about the school he attends. His pupil-identity therefore, becomes highly elevated.

Finally, it can be said that the empirical findings concur with the literature study findings to a large extent.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

- 7.7.1 The literature has indicated that scholastic achievement depends on positive involvement in school work and a positive academic self-concept (refer to paragraph 4.5.2.1). It is recommended that parents, teachers and community leaders instil in our pupils the need to get their priorities right, namely dedication to their studies. A special appeal is made to our politicians to keep politics from interfering with the right to learn. The implications of successful and positive involvement of all educators in the learning process will be greater involvement of our pupils with the learning material.

This in turn will lead to the formation of a positive pupil-identity and to adequate self-actualisation of our children.

- 7.7.2 The adolescent is the community leader of tomorrow. Unfortunately, today's Black adolescent has become defiant and unwilling to learn. It is recommended that parents must be motivated to discipline their children because without discipline there can be no education. Little education, or no education at all, in most cases results in negative self-concept formation and chaotic leadership. A well ordered community cannot exist without positive and constructive leaders on all terrains.
- 7.7.3 Parents are the catalyst for ensuring successful education (refer to paragraph 4.5.1.1). The most reliable factor relating to scholastic achievement and positive pupil-identity formation was parental interest in the child's school work and the educational level of the parents. It is recommended that parents must contribute to the development of a healthy, cooperative educational environment at home and at school. To achieve this, parents themselves need to be encouraged and educationally motivated by the improvement of and/or the establishment of adult learning centres. In this fashion parents will be given expert advice and guidance and encouraged to learn. This will be passed on to their children.
- 7.7.4 Pupils should feel at home during their stay at school. This can be achieved by a positive teacher-pupil relationship of understanding, trust and democratic discipline which should prevail at all times. Such a relationship will serve to motivate pupils to learn willingly and will result in positive pupil-identity formation.

- 7.7.5 In view of poor educational and recreational facilities in Black townships, which to a greater extent contribute to the unbecoming behaviour of our pupils, and which has also led to the politicising of education, it is recommended that the Department of Education and Training as well as the private sector devote more attention to these problems and strive to create a better educational environment for our children.
- 7.7.6 The adolescent at school (in and outside the classroom) may have pleasant and unpleasant experiences. Certain unpleasant experiences are caused by outside elements and/or directionless adolescents, which distract pupils from their school work. It is recommended that school authorities, in conjunction with parents, look into this problem. Serious disciplinary measures must be considered. More parent bodies are necessary and must be put to great use in the striving for educational excellence.

7.8 SUGGESTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study concentrated on pupil-identity formation during the adolescent phase. Identity formation and self-concept formation however do not start at the age of twelve (the beginning of the adolescent phase) but have their origin in the infant and pre-school years.

It will be necessary to investigate the formation of identity during the pre-school years as well as the formation of a pupil-identity during the primary school years to determine the influence of the early developmental phases on pupil-identity formation during the adolescent years. Factors that have a positive and a negative influence on identity formation and specifically pupil-identity formation during all the developmental phases need to be identified.

In view of the fact that in this research the self-actualisation of the child was not dealt with in depth, it is suggested that research be conducted to determine the influence of positive and/or negative pupil-identity formation on the self-actualisation of the child. The influence of adequate self-actualisation of each individual child on the healthy state of the community still needs to be investigated.

7.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this research, pupil-identity formation of the Black adolescent has been investigated. Findings show that the life-world of the Black adolescent has a direct influence on his pupil-identity (refer to paragraph 4.4.1 to 4.4.4).

It is worthwhile to mention that the political upheaval in the townships has been a disturbing factor, in the sense that it disturbs the normal becoming and learning of the Black adolescent. Notwithstanding the mentioned perturbing factor, the Black adolescent in post-apartheid society is faced with numerous challenges. The fact of the matter is that for him to form a positive pupil-identity, parents, teachers and community leaders should instil in him positive attitudes and values of education and of life-skills.

Despite all things, at the end of the day, post-apartheid society expects the establishment of good schools, colleges, technikons and universities. Science and technology should be linked with the improvement of the quality of life, and to the realisation of individual aspirations. However, if all the efforts of the education planners do not produce the desired goal, that of a positive pupil-identity, then the South African community will have failed in its task of assisting the child with regard to his becoming and learning.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ACKERMANN, C.J. 1990. Identiteitsontwikkeling tydens adolessensie: 'n groep sekondêre skool-leerlinge se evaluering van die belangrikheid van lewensterreine. *Suid-Afrikaanse Tydskrif vir Opvoedkunde*. 10 (no. 4): 283-290.

ANASTASI, A. 1990. *Psychological testing*. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.

ARY, D., JACOBS, L.C. & RAZAVIEH, A. 1985. *Introduction to research in education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

BAUSELL, R.B. 1986. *A practical guide to conducting empirical research*. New York: Harper and Row.

BEHR, A.L. 1971. *A textbook of educational method*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

BEHR, A.L. 1975. *Psychology and the School*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

BENT, R.K. 1970. *Principles of Secondary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book company.

BERDIE, D.R., ANDERSON, J.F. & NIEBUHR, M.A. 1986. *Questionnaires: Design and use*. Metuchen, N.J. & London: The Scarecrow Press, Inc.

BERGH, G. 1984. Die invloed van die portuurgroep op die identiteitsvestiging van die adolessente seun. M.Ed-verhandeling. Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit. Johannesburg.

BEST, J.W. & KAHN, J.V. 1989. *Research in education*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J. & New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

- BESTER, G. 1990a. Die gebruik van Erikson se persoonlikheids-teorie vir die meting van identiteitsvorming by skoolgaande adollesente. *Educare*. 19 (no. 1 & 2): 90-96.
- BESTER, G. 1990b. Die verband tussen identiteitsvorming en beroepskekerheid. *Lyra Academica*. 5 (no. 2): 11-21.
- BLOOM, B.S. 1976. *Human characteristics and school learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book company.
- BRAAF, B.A. 1959. An investigation into problems of the adolescent and the role of parents and teachers. D.Ed-thesis. University of Witwatersrand. Johannesburg.
- BROWN, G., McDOWELL, R.L. & SMITH, J. 1981. *Educating Adolescents: with Behaviour disorders*. Columbus & Toronto: A Bell & Howell company.
- BROWN, G. 1972. *Micro-teaching (a program of teaching skills)*. London: Methuen and company limited.
- CILLIERS, J.L. LE R. 1975. *Education and the child*. Durban: Butterworth & Co. (SA) (Pty) Limited.
- CITY PRESS. 1990. Youths hard hit by Apartheid Violence. October 28. Johannesburg.
- CITY PRESS. 1991. Gloom and despair hit the matrices. January 06. Johannesburg.
- CITY PRESS. 1991. It won't be easy, says the DET, February 03. Johannesburg.
- COLE, L. & HALL, I.N. 1970. *Psychology of Adolescence*. New York & Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

CONGER, J.J. 1991. *Adolescence and Youth - psychological Development in a changing world*. Harper Collins Publishers, Inc.

COTTLE, J.J. 1977. *Reading in Adolescent Psychology: Contemporary perspectives*. New York & London: Harper & Row, Publishers.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING. 1989. *Annual Report*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING. 1990. *Annual Report*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING. 1990. *Highveld Regional Conference*. August 07. Springs.

DE VILLIERS, F.P.R. 1987. The growth pattern in a group of Tswana children attending a secondary school. M.Med.(Paediatrics)-dissertation. University of the Witwatersrand. Johannesburg.

DE VILLIERS, L.J. 1989. 'n Empiriese ondersoek na die gesagsbeleving in die huis en skool milieu van die Sotho-Tswana- en Xhosa-adolesent in Bloemfontein. M.Ed-verhandeling. Universiteit van die Oranje-Vrystaat. Bloemfontein.

X DISASA, J. 1988. African children's attitude towards learning. *Journal of Multicultural Counselling and Development*. 16 (no. 1): 16-24.

DREYFUS, E.A. 1976. *Adolescence*. Columbus & Ohio: Bell & Howell Company.

Duminy, E.A. 1976. *General teaching method*. Longman Southern Africa.

ERIKSON, E.H. 1963. *Change and Challenge*. New York: Basic Books, Inc. Publishers.

ERIKSON, E.H. 1968. *Identity and life cycle*. New York: International Universities Press.

ERIKSON, E.H. 1974. *Identity youth and crisis*. London: Faber & Faber.

FEIN, G.G. 1978. *Child development*. Englewood Cliffs & New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

FLEMMING, C.M. 1967. *Adolescence: its social psychology*. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

FUHRMANN, B.S. 1986. *Adolescence, adolescents*. Boston & Toronto: Little, Brown and Company.

GABELA, R.V. 1984. The teacher and Human relationships. A paper read at the In-service Training course for College Lecturers. June 18. Empangeni: University of Zululand.

GAGNÉ, R.M. 1977. *The conditions of learning*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

GARBERS, J.G. 1971. *Pedi Adolescence. The Educational situation and image of adolescence of the Pedi School child*. Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth.

GARRISON, K.C. 1975. *Psychology of Adolescence*. Englewood Cliffs & New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

GAY, L.R. 1987. *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. Columbus, Toronto, London & Melbourne: Merrill Publishing company.

GERDES, L.C., OCHSE, R., STANDER, C. & VAN EDE, D. 1981. *The developing adult*. Durban and Pretoria: Butterworth & Co. (SA) (Pty) Limited.

GESELL, A., ILG, F.L. & AMES, L.B. 1971. *Youth: The years from ten to sixteen*. London: Hamish Hamilton.

- GOOD, C.V. 1959. *Dictionary of Education: prepared under the auspices of Phi Delta Kapper*. London: McGraw-Hill.
- GORDON, A. 1986. Environmental constraints and their effect on the academic achievement of urban Black children in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*. 6 (no. 1): 70-74.
- GORMAN, R.M. 1974. *The psychology of classroom learning: an inductive approach*. Columbus & Ohio: Merrill Publishing company.
- GRESSE, D.A. 1973. *Sosio-pedagogiese verkenning, 'n eerstewegwys in die sosio-pedagogiek vir onderwysstudente*. Kaapstad: Juta & Company.
- GUNTER, C.F.G. 1977. *Aspects of educational theory*. Stellenbosch: University Publishers & Booksellers.
- HAMACHEK, D.E. 1979. *Psychology in Teaching, Learning, and Growth*. Boston & London: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- HARRIES, C.L. 1929. *The Laws and Customs of the Bapedi and Cognate Tribes of the Transvaal*. Johannesburg: Hortors.
- HART, D. 1988. The development of personal identity in adolescence. *Merrill-Palmer quarterly*. 34: 105-114.
- HERSKOVITS, M.J. 1966. *Man and his works: The Science of cultural anthropology*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- HICKSON, J. & GAYDON, V. 1989. "Twilight children": The street children of Johannesburg. *Journal of Multicultural counselling and Development*. 17 (no. 2): 85-94.
- HURLLOCK, E.B. 1973. *Adolescent Development*. New York: McGraw-Hill Kogakusha, Limited.

- HURLOCK, E.B. 1980. *Developmental psychology: a lifespan approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- JACOBS, L.J. & VREY, J.D. 1982. *Self konsep, diagnose, terapie*. Johannesburg: Academica.
- JOHNSON, D.E. 1968. *Expanding and modifying Guidance programmes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- KAPLAN, M.E. 1986. An orthopedagogic evaluation of the effect of divorce on identity formation in adolescents. M.Ed-dissertation. University of Pretoria. Pretoria.
- KRIGE, E.J. & KRIGE, J.D. 1965. *The Realm of a Rain Queen. A study of the pattern of Lobedu Society*. London: Oxford University Press.
- KROGER, J. 1989. *Identity in Adolescence: The Balance between self and other*. London & New York: Routledge.
- KUPER, H. 1986. *The Swazi: A South African Kingdom*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- LABAW, P.J. 1980. *Advanced questionnaire design*. Massachusetts: Abt Books.
- LAMBERT, B.G., ROTCHILD, B.F., ALTLAND, R. & GREEN, L.B. 1978. *Adolescence: Transition from childhood to maturity*. Belmont & California: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc.
- LANGVELD, M.J. 1960. *Ontwikkelings psychologie*. Gronigen: J.B. Wolters.
- LANDSDOWN, R. 1984. *Child development*. London: Heinemann.
- LEEDY, P.D. 1985. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. London: Collier Macmillan Publishers.

LEFRANCOIS, G.R. 1981. *Adolescents*. Belmont & California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

LEKHELA, E.P. 1958. The Development of Bantu Education in the North-Western Cape (1840-1847). An Historical survey, M.Ed-Dissertation. University of South Africa. Pretoria.

LEARNER, R.M. & SPANIER, G.B. 1980. *Adolescent Development: A life-span perspective*. St. Louis & New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

LE ROUX, M.D. 1989. Portuurgroepinvloede op die adollesent se identiteitsvorming. D.Ed-Thesis. University of South Africa. Pretoria.

LLOYD, M.A. 1985. *Adolescence*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

MALMQUIST, C.P. 1978. *Handbook of Adolescence*. New York & London: Jason Aronson, Inc.

MATSEKE, S.K. 1981. The influence of the social problems of the community on the achievement of pupils with special reference to Soweto. D.Ed-thesis. University of South Africa. Pretoria.

MALULYCK, M.P. 1978. Teacher competence and the use of micro-teaching in teacher training. M.Ed-dissertation. University of the North. Sovenga.

MASITSA, M.G. 1988. The milieu of the Black pre-schooler and his subsequent performance in school. M.Ed-dissertation. University of South Africa. Pretoria.

MBITI, J.S. 1971. *African Religion and Philosophy*. London: Heinemann.

- MCFADDEN, J. & GBKOBBOU, K.N. 1984. Counseling African children in the United States. *Elementary school Guidance and Counselling*. 18 (no. 3): 225-230.
- MÖNNIG, H.O. 1967. *The Pedi*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- MONTEITH, J.L. DE K. 1983. *Die identifisering van faktore wat akademiese prestasie beïnvloed*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys.
- ✓ MONTEITH, J.L. DE K., POSTMA, F. & SCOTT, M. 1988. *Die Opvoeding en ontwikkeling van die adolescent*. Pretoria en Kaapstad: Academica.
- MULDER, J.C. 1982. *Statistical techniques in Education*. Pretoria: Haum Educational Publishers.
- × MWAMWENDA, T.S. 1990. *Educational Psychology: An African perspective*. Durban: Butterworths.
- MWANALUSHI, M. 1980. Adolescents and their parents. *Zango*. 8: 60-78.
- × MYBURGH, C.P.H. & ANDERS, M.M. 1989. Identity formation of Black adolescents. *South African Journal of Education*. 9 (no. 1): 123-130.
- NICHOLLS, A. & NICHOLLS, S.H. 1983. *Developing a Curriculum - A practical guide*. London: George Allen & Unwin (Publishers) Limited.
- OOSTHUIZEN, J.D. 1982. Identiteitsvorming as taak van skoolvoortligting. *Educare*. 11: 10-21.
- OOSTHUIZEN, J.D., JACOBS, L.J., VAUGHN, T VAN B., & BESTER, G. 1981. *Special Empirical Education B.Ed*. Pretoria: University of South Africa. (Only guide for OSE402).

PAPALIA, D.E. & OLDS, S.W. 1987. *A child's world: infancy through adolescence*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

PATRICK, H. 1985. *Dictionary: Collins English Dictionary*. London: Collins London and Glasgow.

PERKINS, H.V. 1969. *Human development and learning*. Belmont: Wadsworth.

PIUS, X.I. 1936. *The Christian Education of Youth*. New York: The American Press.

PRAZUCK, T., FISCH, A. & PICHARD, E. 1989. Growth of adolescents in Mali. *Journal of Tropical Pediatrics*. 35 (no. 2): 52-54.

RICE, F.P. 1984. *The adolescent development, relationships, and culture*. Boston & London: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

RIPINGA, S.S. 1976. Pedagogical implications of a phenomenological reflection into the Life-world of the Swazi child. M.Ed-Dissertation. University of South Africa. Pretoria.

ROGERS, D. 1985. *Adolescents and Youth*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

ROSENBERG, M. 1965. *Society and the adolescent self-image*. New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

RUTTER, M. 1983. School Effects on Pupil Progress. *Research Findings and Policy Implications*. 54: 1-29.

SADLER, W.S. 1948. *Adolescence problems: A Handbook for physicians, parents and teachers*. St. Louis: The C.V. Mosby Company.

SANTROCK, J.W. 1984. *Adolescence: An introduction*. Dubuque: Wcb.Wm.C. Brown Publishers.

SCHAPERA, I. 1967. *Western Civilization and Natives of South Africa*. London: Routledge and K. Paul.

SHADE, B.J. 1983. The social success of Black youth. *Journal of Black studies*. 14: 137-150.

SONNEKUS, M.C.H. & FERREIRA, G.V. 1981. *Die psigiese lewe van die kind-in-opvoeding*. Stellenbosch: University Publishers and Booksellers (Pty) Limited.

SPENCER, B.S., DOBBS, B. & SWANSON, D.P. 1988. African-American adolescents: adaptational process and socio-economic diversity in behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Adolescence*. 11 (no. 2): 117-137.

STARK, R. 1975. *Social Problems*. Washington: Random House, Inc.

STEIN, L.M. & HOOPES, J.L. 1985. *Identity formation in the Adopted Adolescent*. The Delaware family study, child welfare League of America, Inc.

STEINBERG, L. 1985. *Adolescence*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.

STERN, D. & EICHORN, D. 1989. *Adolescence and work: Social Structure, Labor Markets and Culture*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum associates Publishers.

SUNDAY TIMES. 1991. Political 'freedom' blamed for Black matric disaster. January 06. Johannesburg.

SUNDAY TIMES. 1991. Act now to transform tomorrow's classrooms. January 13. Johannesburg.

SWANEPOEL, C.H. 1990. Belangstelling: 'n Voorwaarde vir Identiteitsvorming. *Educare*. 19 (no. 1 & 2): 97-102.

SYBOUTS, W. & KREPEL, W.J. 1984. *Student activities in the Secondary schools*. Westpost: Greenwood Press.

THE HOLY BIBLE. 1983. *The New Testament of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ*. New York: International Bible Society.

THE STAR. 1990. Your child needs a careful decision when choosing his place in education. October 23. Johannesburg.

THE STAR. 1991. Assurances are needed before all schools open. January 27. Johannesburg.

THE STAR. 1991. DET matric results the poorest in history. January 08. Johannesburg.

THE STAR. 1991. One man reshapes Natal schools. January 12. Johannesburg.

THE STAR. 1991. Teacher-pupil ratio in Black high schools increases. June 13. Johannesburg.

THORNBURG, H. 1973. *Adolescent Development: Introduces to General Psychology - a Self-selection Textbook*. Dubuque: W.M.C. Brown Company Publishers.

TRIANDIS, H.C. 1971. *Attitude and attitude change*. Illinois: University of Illinois.

TYLER, R.W. 1950. *Basic principles of curriculum and Instruction*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

VAN DEN AARDWEG, E.M. & VAN DEN AARDWEG, E.D. 1988. *Dictionary of Empirical education/Educational psychology*. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises Arcadia.

VAN NIEKERK, P.A. 1982. *The teacher and the child in education distress*. Stellenbosch: University Publishers & Booksellers.

VAN SCHALKWYK, O.J. 1979. When everyone comes to his own ... on the organization of societal structures within the educational system. *Educare: Journal of Faculty of Education*. Unisa (8.1. & 8.2): 30-36.

VILAKAZI, A. 1962. *Zulu Transformations: A study of the dynamics of social change*. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal Press.

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

WAGNER, H. 1971. The increasing importance of the peer group during adolescence. *Adolescence*. 6 (no. 21): 53-58.

WALL, W.D. 1977. *Constructive education for adolescents*. London: Unesco Harrays.

WEIGERT, A.J. 1986. *Society and Identity: Toward a sociological psychology*. Cambridge University Press.

YULE, R.M., STEYN, P.J.N., SOOBIAH, C. & DAVIES, J.K. 1983. *Teaching and Microteaching*. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

ADDENDUM

QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL INFORMATION

1. You are a special pupil because you have been chosen to take part in a very important research.
2. The information which you will supply will be used only for research purposes.
3. The researcher would like to determine your feelings about the school and school learning.
4. You will therefore not fail or pass as a result of the answers given.
5. You are requested to answer the questions freely and honestly.
6. Follow the instructions carefully.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHY

Your personal information is of utmost importance. Choose the appropriate answer and write it in the square next to the corresponding number on the answer sheet.

SECTION B: INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO ANSWER THE QUESTIONS

Carefully consider each of the undermentioned statements (8-67) which express a feeling pupils may have about the school and school learning. Write your answers on the answer sheet provided.

You are to show the extent of your agreement with each statement. If you strongly agree with a particular statement, write a 4 in the given square; if you strongly disagree with a particular statement write a 1 in the given square.

If you do not strongly agree or strongly disagree, write a 2 or 3 in the given square according to the extent to which that particular statement expresses your feeling.

EXAMPLE

My school's surroundings are neat

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4

If you write a 4 in the given square as shown it will mean you strongly agree.

Complete the following statements in the same way.

REMEMBER TO WRITE YOUR ANSWER IN THE SQUARE NEXT TO THE CORRESPONDING NUMBER ON THE ANSWER SHEET PROVIDED.

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4

8. I am satisfied with myself as a scholar.
9. My parent(s) knows my class teacher.
10. My teachers are friendly towards me.
11. Discipline at school is strict enough.
12. My friends attend school regularly.
13. I am satisfied with the school I attend.
14. My parent(s) checks if I have done my homework.
15. My teachers encourage me to take part in sports.
16. Our school library is adequately equipped.
17. My friends spend most of the time discussing school work.
18. I display much interest in school activities.
19. My parent(s) encourages me to study.
20. My teachers show great interest in my scholastic achievement.
21. I am most of the time at school.
22. My friends plan to study at a tertiary institution.
23. I perform well in class.

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4

24. My parent(s) insists to know what took place at school.
25. I wish to be like my class teacher one day.
26. I like to have lots of homework.
27. My friends consider sports as very important.
28. I enjoy writing tests.
29. My parent(s) understands when we discuss school matters.
30. I become angry when teachers reprimand me.
31. I consider it important to attend school.
32. My friends encourage participation in school activities.
33. I enjoy doing my homework.
34. My parent(s) is well educated.
35. I feel upset when teachers absent themselves from class
36. I am interested in school sporting activities.
37. My friends respect the school property.
38. My contributions in class are helpful to my class mates.
39. My parent(s) knows in which class I am.

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4



40. I hate teachers who come to class unprepared.
41. I would like to be a member of the S.R.C.
42. My friends usually find themselves in trouble because of the school work which was not done.
43. My bad performance makes me feel upset.
44. My parent(s) expresses happiness when I have achieved well at school.
45. My teachers motivate me to achieve well in class.
46. I absent myself from school without any valid reason.
47. A good sportsman is regarded as a hero in our peer group.
48. I feel that I am a successful student.
49. My parent(s) supports me in any situation.
50. My teachers often praise me.
51. I spent most of my time studying and doing homework at school.
52. My friends are proud of being scholars.
53. I am helpful towards my friends and teachers at school.

STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	2	3	4

54. My parent(s) wishes to be a member of the school governing council.
55. I wish I could have more respect for my teachers.
56. Subjects taught at school are meaningful to me.
57. We spent much of our time discussing our future careers.
58. I spent most of my time studying.
59. My parent(s) is actively involved in the school activities.
60. I get help and advice from my teachers.
61. My involvement in extra-mural activities has a negative influence on my scholastic achievements.
62. My friends consider tests and examinations as very important.
63. I am able to do things as well as most other students.
64. My parent(s) is kept informed about my school work.
65. I like a teacher who does not reprimand me even when I am wrong.
66. I feel happier at school than in any other place.
67. My friends motivate me to work very hard.

THE END.
THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

ANSWER SHEET**SECTION A: BIOGRAPHY**

- | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. School: _____ | <input type="checkbox"/> | K1 |
| 2. Standard: 08, 09 or 10 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> K2-3 |
| 3. Sex: Boy = 1
Girl = 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> | K4 |
| 4. Age in years: 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> K5-6 |
| 5. Ethnic Group: N. Sotho = 1
Swazi = 2
Other = 3 | <input type="checkbox"/> | K7 |
| 6. Residence: Township = 1
Rural = 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> | K8 |
| 7. Average percentage in the previous examination: 40, 50, 60, 70, 80 | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> K9-10 |

SECTION B: ANSWERS

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 8. <input type="checkbox"/> K 11 | 16. <input type="checkbox"/> K19 |
| 9. <input type="checkbox"/> K 12 | 17. <input type="checkbox"/> K20 |
| 10. <input type="checkbox"/> K 13 | 18. <input type="checkbox"/> K21 |
| 11. <input type="checkbox"/> K 14 | 19. <input type="checkbox"/> K22 |
| 12. <input type="checkbox"/> K 15 | 20. <input type="checkbox"/> K23 |
| 13. <input type="checkbox"/> K 16 | 21. <input type="checkbox"/> K24 |
| 14. <input type="checkbox"/> K 17 | 22. <input type="checkbox"/> K25 |
| 15. <input type="checkbox"/> K18 | 23. <input type="checkbox"/> K26 |

24 K2725 K2826 K2927 K3028 K3129 K3230 K3331 K3432 K3533 K3634 K3735 K3836 K3937 K4038 K4139 K4240 K4341 K4446. K4947. K5048. K5149. K5250. K5351. K5452. K5553. K5654. K5755. K5856. K5957. K6058. K6159. K6260. K6361. K6462. K6563. K66

42 K45

43 K46

44 K47

45 K48

64. K67

65. K68

66. K69

67. K70